



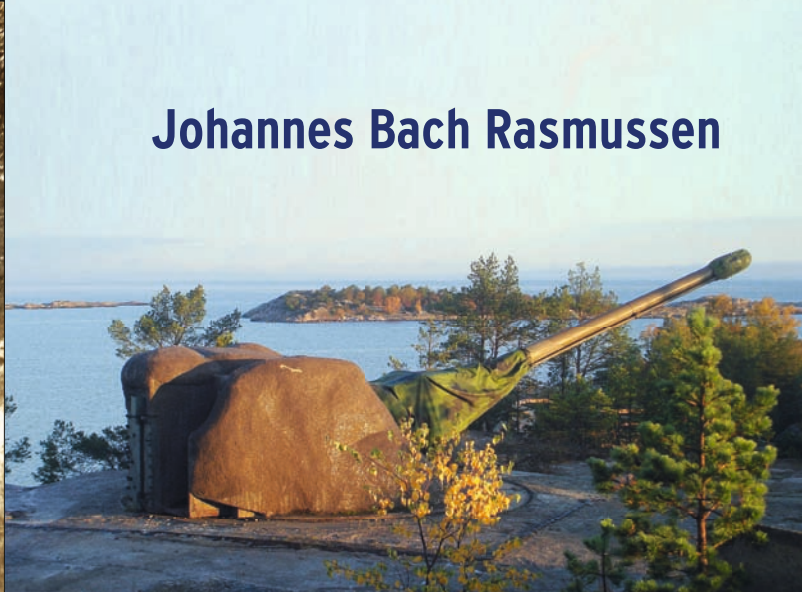
norden

TRAVEL GUIDE

Traces of the COLD WAR PERIOD

The Countries around THE BALTIC SEA

Johannes Bach Rasmussen



Traces of the Cold War Period: Military Installations and Towns, Prisons, Partisan Bunkers



Travel Guide. Traces of the Cold War Period

The Countries around the Baltic Sea

TemaNord 2010:574

© Nordic Council of Ministers, Copenhagen 2010

ISBN 978-92-893-2121-1

Print: Arco Grafisk A/S, Skive

Layout: Eva Ahnoff, Morten Kjærgaard

Maps and drawings: Arne Erik Larsen

Copies: 1500

Printed on environmentally friendly paper.

This publication can be ordered on www.norden.org/order.

Other Nordic publications are available at www.norden.org/publications

Printed in Denmark



The book is produced in cooperation between Øhavsmuseet and The Baltic Initiative and Network.

Øhavsmuseet (The Archipelago Museum)

Department Langelands Museum

Jens Winthers Vej 12, 5900 Rudkøbing, Denmark.

Phone: +45 63 51 63 00

E-mail: langelandsmuseum@langelandkommune.dk

The Baltic Initiative and Network

Att. Johannes Bach Rasmussen

Møllegade 20, 2200 Copenhagen N, Denmark.

Phone: +45 35 36 05 59. Mobile: +45 30 25 05 59

E-mail: jbach@get2net.dk

Top: The Museum of the Barricades of 1991, Riga, Latvia. From the Days of the Barricades in 1991 when people in the newly independent country tried to defend key institutions from attack from Soviet military and security forces.

Middle: The Anna Akhmatova Museum, St. Petersburg, Russia. Handwritten bark book with Akhmatova's lyrics. Made by a GULAG prisoner, wife of an executed "enemy of the people".

Bottom: The Museum of Genocide Victims, Vilnius, Lithuania. Soviet security officers of the so-called "anti-bandit department", which was renowned for imprisoning, torturing, killing and deporting partisans as well as other "national and class enemies".

Execution Sites, Secret Police Offices, Soviet Architecture, Sculptures, Historical Museums

Front page photos

Right: Arnholma Battery, Stockholm archipelago, Sweden. One of the large coastal artillery cannon that was a part of the strong Swedish coastal defence system.

Top left: Museum of the Occupation of Latvia 1940-91, Riga. GULAG barrack constructed with the help of former political prisoners.

Top right: Lithuania. From a video film by Albinas Kentra. People sing Lithuanian national songs in front of Parliament. From the freedom demonstrations in January 1991.

Middle left: Levashovo Memorial Cemetery, St. Petersburg, Russia. Burial place of 20,000 victims of Stalin's terror.

Middle right: Druskininkai Museum of Resistance and Deportations, Lithuania. The brothers, Vincas and Bronius Pigaga, who were both born in Siberia of deported Lithuanian parents. Birikchul, Krasnoyarsk region, 1953.

Bottom left: The Allied Museum, Berlin, Germany. Watchtower and remnant of the Berlin Wall.

Bottom right: The Museum of Genocide Victims, Vilnius, Lithuania. The uniformed and armed partisans, Bronius Paleckas and Viktoras Kriščiulevičius. Both were killed by Soviet security forces in 1948-49.

Top left: Butovo Shooting Range, Moscow, Russia. From the outdoor exhibition. Photos of prisoners who were shot and buried in the area during the years of Stalin's Great terror.

Top right: Degerby Igor Museum, Degerby, Finland. The guide, Dorrit Krook, tells children about life before and after the occupation of the Porkkala area. The area was occupied by the Soviet military from 1944 to 1956.

Middle left: Memorial. Cattle wagon used for deportations, Skruna Railway Station, Latvia.

Middle right: Radar Station, Iceland. Iceland was one of the cornerstones of the surveillance of the Soviet military operations in the North Atlantic.

Bottom left: Memorial in front of the TV Tower, Vilnius, Lithuania. Fourteen people were killed at this site by Soviet military and security forces in January 1991 when they tried to defend key institutions of the newly independent Lithuania.

Bottom right: From a Solidarity memorial at the entrance to Gdansk shipyard, Poland. The activities of the Solidarity trade union is described as one of the main reasons of the beginning of the end of the Soviet Union.





Foreword

When I was a boy, I went on holiday with my parents and older brother to Harzen. I shall never forget the view of the Brocken Mountain. We could not actually visit it, because of the Iron Curtain. In the evening we stood quietly, close to the border, looking at the darkness beyond. There seemed to be no people there. It was frightening.

Some 30 years later – in 1990 - I went back to the same place with my own children. There was now a hole in the Iron Curtain and hoards of "trebbies" (small East German Trabant cars) were bumping through the former border line. What a relief!

As a student in 1968, I travelled by train through East Germany. When I offered a lady sitting opposite me a cigarette, she shrugged: "I don't want your capitalist cigarettes!" In Czechoslovakia, people were more relaxed: when a waiter in a night club changed my D-marks at the unofficial price, I was approached by a policeman who dragged me into a corridor. I was afraid I would be carted off to prison but he simply whispered: "I give you a better price!"

It was absurd in that same year to witness how millions of students were turning their backs on Western democracy. They had become "democracy-blind", just as some of their parents had in the 1930s, when Fascism, Nazism and Communism became worldwide plagues.

This guide book has a special objective that I fully support: to use the history of the Cold War period to create historical awareness and greater mutual understanding between the countries around the Baltic Sea. This understanding is a prerequisite to more fruitful international cooperation between people, organizations, companies and international associations.

It is now 20 years since the Berlin Wall fell and the Soviet Union collapsed. This leads me to raise the issue of whether people, and especially the youth of today, for example in the Scandinavian countries, have fully understood what this period

meant to world history. Formerly independent nations such as Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland (all only 1 or 2 hours from Scandinavia by air) spent nearly half a century under Communist dictatorships.

Tens of thousands of families from these countries were deported to remote parts of the Soviet Union with the aim of destroying any potential resistance in those countries. Others were executed or sentenced to long periods in prisons or concentration camps simply because their political views were different from those of the rulers. We must not forget what happened to our neighbours, just a few decades ago.

One of the differences between recent and more distant history is that many eyewitnesses are still alive, including dissidents, GULAG prisoners and Baltic partisans. Many of their unbelievable life stories can be found in this book, and many of them can be met at the museums described. Listen to their stories; they really have something to tell.

If we are to remember and learn lessons from history, then these true stories must be told. And that is the aim of this book.



Bertel Haarder

Minister for the Interior and Health, Denmark
Former Minister for Education and Minister for Nordic Cooperation.
Former Member of the European Parliament.

Vilnius. In front of the Museum of Genocide Victims. Street exhibition of children's drawings from an annual nationwide contest with the theme of "The History of Lithuania's Fight for Freedom and Losses". The exhibition is organized by the Genocide and Resistance Research Centre of Lithuania.



Special Thanks

Special thanks to:

Mrs. Aira Andriksone,
Riga, Latvia

Mr. Andris Biedrins,
Industrial Heritage Trust of Latvia

Mr. Peer Henrik Hansen,
The Cold War Museum Langelandsfort, Denmark

Mrs. Roberta Havran,
National Fortification Heritage, Norway

Mrs. Vilma Juozevičiūtė,
The Museum of Genocide Victims, Lithuania

Mrs. Lidia Klupsz,
National Heritage Board of Poland

Mr. Dmitry Kokorin,
The Human Right Organisation MEMORIAL, Moscow, Russia

Mrs. Nina Lebedeva,
The Danish Cultural Institute, St. Petersburg, Russia

Mr. Kristjan Luts,
The Estonian War Museum - General Laidoner Museum

Mr. Thomas Roth,
The National Swedish Museum of Military History

Mrs. Audra Sabaliauskienė,
The Danish Cultural Institute, Lithuania

Mrs. Tatiana Shipitsina,
Moscow, Russia

Memorial in Moscow to the victims of the secret Soviet police has been raised by the human rights organisation MEMORIAL in front of Lubyanka, the headquarter and prison of the police through many years. The stone is from Solovetsky Island by the White Sea, the location of one the worst prison camps (later a prison). According to the writer Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn, this camp was the “mother of the GULAGs”.



Introduction

Get more familiar with your neighbours

The main objective of this book is to strengthen mutual understanding between neighbouring countries around the Baltic Sea through an exchange of information on their recent history, not least an understanding between the former Soviet countries (and their satellite states) and the western countries. The idea is that history should be told from the historically valuable sites at which historic events took place.

So plan a trip to your neighbouring countries and visit the sites and museums that offer information on the region's recent history and experience the historic atmosphere that can be found on the sites.

A selection of museums and sites that have an important history to tell

The book contains only a selection of museums and historically valuable sites that tell the history of the Cold War period from 1945 up to the Soviet Union's collapse in 1991.

It includes the main museums and sites that have an important history to tell but which, at the same time, are deemed likely to be reliable in the future. Many are new and established only since the Soviet Union's collapse - largely initiated and driven by enthusiastic individuals or voluntary organizations. It is often people, their families or organizations that had a hard time under the Communist regimes who feel strongly that they have an important story to tell - and they have.

Their entrance fees and private contributions are usually crucial sources of income. It is hard to say whether they will all survive. Some of the museums and places described in this book will probably therefore close in the coming years.

It is therefore recommended to check the museum's websites in advance. Most of these are listed in the book.

The countries and regions covered

For *East Germany*, *Poland* and *Russia*, the book covers only the regions near the Baltic Sea. However, the capitals of these countries are also included because of the many sites of national historical importance.

Iceland and the *Murmansk area* are also included, because their post-Second World War history is of special significance to the region. Iceland as a key military monitoring site in the North Atlantic and the Murmansk area as a Soviet military powerhouse.

The history of the balance of power and the Communist regimes

The book includes museums and historical sites that tell the

history of:

- The military situation, the balance of power, between East (members of the Warsaw Pact) and West (members of NATO and neutral states)
- The Communist regimes in the former Soviet Union and its satellite states, including activities relating to the independence struggles.

This means that the following kinds of site and museum are included (providing they are accessible to the public):

- In all countries: military sites, such as missile bases, heavy gun batteries, underground information centres, etc.
- In the former Soviet Union and the satellite states: sites connected to the Communist regimes and the period of independence struggles, such as KGB prisons, partisan bunkers, closed military towns, execution sites or simply sites where historical events took place such as demonstrations.

About the text

Each country is introduced with a brief description of topics from the country's recent history.

Descriptions of the various museums and sites are given in the form of articles, often with general information. Therefore some factual repetition between the articles can be found.

It should also be noted that the Baltic States largely had an identical post-war history. In the introductory section to these countries, it has been decided to illustrate different aspects of the consequences of Soviet influence.

Nearly all the museums and sites described have cooperated on the texts and provided illustrations.

Abbreviations. KGB, DDR, NATO etc.

The following abbreviations are used in general:

The Soviet secret police is always described by the letters *KGB* standing for *Komitet Gosudarstvennoj Besopasnosti* (*Committee for State Security*), although the institution has, over the years, had different names and abbreviations (such as the *Cheka*, *OGPU* and *NKGB*).

The two German states that emerged after the Second World War are named *East Germany* and *West Germany* respectively. Their official names are *Deutsche Demokratische Republik*, *DDR* (*German Democratic Republic*) and *Bundesrepublik Deutschland*, *BRD* (*Federal Republic of Germany*).

The Western Allies' military cooperation organization is always described as *NATO*, although in the early years this cooperation was known as the *Treaty of Brussels* and the *North Atlantic Treaty*.

Content

The Cold War Period. Some aspects in brief

8

Denmark 12

The Cold War Museum Langelandsfort, Langeland	14
Cold War Museum, Stevnstø, Stevns	16

Estonia 18

Soviet architecture, Tallinn	22
The Museum of Occupation, Tallinn	26
The Estonian War Museum, Viimsi	28
The Museum ships in the Hydroplane Port	
Patari Sea Fortress-Prison	
KGB Cells Museum, Tartu	30
Forest Brothers' Farm, Vastse-Roosa village	34
Sillamäe, a closed Military Town	36
Sillamäe Museum	
Soviet Navy Nuclear Submarine Training Center, Paldiski	38

Finland 40

Porkkala, a Soviet Base Area on Finish Territory	40
Degerby Igor Museum, Degerby	44

Germany 46

Berlin	48
Karl-Marx-Allee	50
The Berlin Wall Documentation Centre	52
The Marienfelde Refugee Centre Memorial.	56
The Allied Museum	58
The STASI Museum. Normannenstrasse.	60
The Berlin-Hohenschönhausen Memorial.	62
Mecklenburg-Vorpommern	64
Nuclear Bunker and Information Central, Eichental	64
The Border House, Schlagsdorf	66
Prora, Rügen. Holiday Resort and later Military Centre	68
Documentation Centre for Victims of	
the German Dictatorship, Schwerin	70
Stasi Remain Prison, Rostock	72
The Peenemünde Historical Technical Museum	74

Iceland 7

6

The Keflavik Airbase.	78
The Höfði House, Reykjavik.	79

Latvia 80

Memorial Sites and Soviet Buildings, Riga.	84
The Forest Cemetery, Riga	87
The KGB building, Riga	88
Museum of the Occupation of Latvia 1940-91, Riga	90
The Museum of the Barricades of 1991, Riga.	94
The Museum of the Popular Front of Latvia, Riga	96
Cattle Wagon used for Deportations, Skrunda	98
Secret nuclear bunker for Soviet Nomenclature, Līgatne . .	100
Līpeja. A closed Military Town	102
Karosta prison, Līpeja	
The museum "Līpeja during the occupations"	
Zeltiņi Missile Base, Zeltiņi	104
Secret Soviet Radio Telescope and former closed town,	
Irbene	106

Lithuania 108

Memorial Sites of the Freedom Demonstrations. Vilnius . .	114
The KGB Building and Prison, Vilnius	118
The Museum of Genocide Victims, Vilnius	120
Memorial, Medininkai. Execution of Lithuanian Policemen	
and Border Guard Officers	122
Druskininkai Museum of Resistance and Deportations . . .	124
Grutas Park, Druskininkai. Soviet Sculptures and	
Propaganda	128
Reconstructed Siberian Yurt. The Open Air Museum	
of Lithuania, Rumsiskes.	130
The "ab" underground printing house, Kaunas	132
Plokštinė Missile Base, Žemaitija National Park.	134

Norway 13

6

The National Norwegian Aviation Museum, Bodø	138
Oscarsborg Fortress, Oslo Fjord	140
Herdla Torpedo Battery, Askøy	142
The Meløyvær Fort, Andfjorden	144

Poland 146

Warsaw.	150
Museum of Independence, Warsaw	150
Museum of X Pavilion, the Warsaw Citadel. Deported Polish	
people	154
The Memorial Museum of Jerzy Popiełuszko, Warsaw. . . .	156
Colonel Kukliński Intelligence Museum, Warsaw	158

Borne Sulimowo, a Former Closed Military Town	160
---	-----

Russia 16

St. Petersburg	166
Levashovo Memorial Cemetery.	
Burial place for executed people.	166
The Anna Akhmatova Museum at the Fountain House . . .	168
Kresty Prison and Psychiatric Clinics	170
The Military-Historical Museum	172
 Moscow	174
Key Buildings from the Communist Era	174
Museum of the human rights organisation MEMORIAL . .	178
State GULAG Museum	182
Andrei Sakharov. The Archives	
The Museum and Public Center.	184
Donskoy Cemetery and Crematorium	186
Butovo Shooting Range. Execution and burial site	188
The New Tretyakov Gallery and the "Graveyard to Fallen Monuments".	190

2

The All-Russian Exhibition Centre	192
The Central Museum of Armed Forces	194
 Murmansk	196
Murmansk Museum of Regional Studies	
The Museum of the Northern Fleet	

Sweden 19

8

The Army Museum, Stockholm	200
Arnholm North. Arnholma Battery.	202
The Hemsö Fortress, Hemsö	204
The Rödbergs Fort, Boden	206
The Defence Museum, Boden	206
The Swedish Air Force Museum, Linköping	208
Aeroseum, Göteborg	210
The Military Preparedness Museum, Helsingborg	212
The Naval Museum, Karlskrona	214
 The Historical Sites. Traces from many Periods	220



The Cold War Period. Some Aspects in Brief

"An Iron Curtain has descended across the Continent"

The leaders of the three main Allied victors of the Second World War held a conference in Yalta, Crimea, in February 1945: *Churchill* (UK), *Roosevelt* (US) and *Stalin* (The Soviet Union). The purpose was to discuss the post-war reorganization.

The Allied armies stood deep in Nazi Germany and the war in Europe was nearing its end. Among other things, it was decided at the conference to divide Germany into zones administered by the Allies (including France). It was also agreed that the eastern part of Europe, in which the Soviet army was now present, should form the Soviet sphere of interest. At a later *conference in Potsdam*, Stalin promised the Western Allies that he would ensure the Eastern European countries' right to national self-determination - a promise which was not kept. Communist dictatorships were installed by Stalin in all Eastern European

countries occupied by the Soviet Army, including Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and East Germany (the Soviet occupation zone).

It must be stressed that the Soviet Union suffered the greatest loss of life in the Second World War. The Soviet army was a major cause of the Nazi defeat in Europe but it was, nonetheless, the Soviet Union that introduced Communist dictatorships by force into the previously independent states of Eastern Europe for the following 45 years.

Even in 1946, Churchill noted that "an Iron Curtain has descended across the Continent" and "not only to Soviet influence but to a very high and in some cases increasing measure of control from Moscow".

The strongest symbol of the Iron Curtain was the *Berlin Wall*, constructed in 1961 by the Communist regime between the East



and West sectors of the city.

Berlin, the old German capital, had been divided into four small allied sectors, even though the city was situated right in the middle of the Soviet occupation zone (later East Germany). The wall was built because 3.5 million people from Communist East Germany had fled to West Germany prior to the building of the wall.

The Cold War: the Arms Race, the Balance of Terror and crises between the Soviet Union and the Western countries

Immediately after the war, it was clear that two blocs with very different political systems were facing each other. One outcome was that two military organizations were formed: *NATO* (1949), with western member states, and the *Warsaw Pact* (1955), with Communist member states.

A military race commenced between the two blocs, especially with regard to arsenals of nuclear weapons. The balance between the nuclear arsenals became known as the *Balance of Terror*. The total arsenals were of such a size that earth's surface could have been eradicated 2,000-3,000 times over.

Crises arose on a number of occasions that could have

developed into military confrontation, in particular the *Berlin Crisis* (1961) in which the Soviet Union wanted to change the status of the city, and the *Cuban Missile Crisis* (1962), in which the U.S. prevented the Soviet military build-up of missile bases in the nearby Communist Cuba by threat of force. Other critical events were the *Vietnam War* (from the early 1960s to 1975) and the uprisings in the Communist countries of Hungary (1956) and Czechoslovakia (1968).

The “cold” political and military relations between the Soviet Union and its satellite states, and the Western countries are described as a *Cold War*.

Opposite page: The leaders of the three main Allied victors in the Second World War at the Yalta Conference shortly before the war ended in Europe. From left: Winston Churchill, United Kingdom, Franklin D. Roosevelt, United States, and Joseph Stalin, Soviet Union. Among other things, it was agreed that the Eastern European countries would form the Soviet sphere of interest. The result was that Communist governments were established in all the countries, without democratic elections. Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania were included in the Soviet Union as Soviet states.

Right: The mushroom cloud after the nuclear bomb was dropped on the Japanese town of Nagasaki on 9 August 1945. Total deaths in Hiroshima and Nagasaki by the end of 1945 may have been as high as 120,000. Many more people died later because of radioactive contamination.

The widespread destruction of Hiroshima and Nagasaki at the end of the Second World War gave the world an image of the destructive force of the atomic bomb and contributed to restraint in the use of nuclear weapons during the crises in the Cold War period.



The Cold War Period. Some Aspects in Brief



Left: Boxes with the remains of Lithuanian deportees, who died in forced exile. Only in 1989-1991 did it become possible for families to repatriate the remains of their dead relatives for reburial in Lithuania. 136,000 Lithuanians were deported as slave labourers to remote and undeveloped regions of the Soviet Union, often to locations where living conditions were harsh, such as Siberia and the Arctic zone. The deportees were mainly “kulaks” (independent farmers) or so-called “bandit families” of punished individuals. They were only informed of their deportation immediately prior to their departure. Only one half of the deportees ever returned to Lithuania. Around 28,000 died in exile.

Opposite page left: From a shop window in Warsaw, Poland, 1989. A sign states that all the products on display are dummies (“atrapy”) in order to avoid people wasting their time going into the store to ask for them. The poor living conditions were one of the main reasons for demonstrations against the Communist regimes, including a lack of daily goods and, hence, the empty shops.

Opposite page right: From the collapse of the Berlin Wall in November 1989. The wall was the most well-known symbol of the Cold War. Roughly 4 million East Germans fled to the West, around 20% of the whole East German population. The Communist regime described the wall as “an anti-fascist protective rampart”.

Armed and unarmed resistance against the Communist regimes

The Communist states developed as brutal and censored societies, with extensive control over their inhabitants on the part of secret police organizations and a large number of civil informants. A Sovietisation of the countries’ national culture and identity took place within all fields of society such as education, culture and religion.

Immediately after the Second World War, armed national partisan movements began fighting the Communist regimes in the Baltic States and Poland. They expected military help from the West, but it never came. The partisan movements were brutally destroyed. 20,000 partisans were killed in Lithuania and the armed resistance was, in practice, finished there in 1953.

Many non-violent demonstrations and uprisings took place with wide popular support but they were nearly all severely suppressed with the use of force. The most extensive uprisings took place in 1956 in *Berlin*, Germany, in 1956 in *Poznan*, Poland, in 1956 in *Budapest*, Hungary, in 1968 in *Prague*, Czechoslovakia, in 1970 in *Gdansk*, Poland, and in nearly all the Eastern European countries in the late 1980s before the collapse of the Soviet Union.

Many of the demonstrations were largely due to the people’s poor living conditions, including comprehensive shortages of daily goods.

Deportations to the GULAG camps and remote parts of the Soviet Union

Millions of people were deported from their homes and homelands by the Communist regimes. People were deported either as “criminals” to the hard labour *GULAG camps*, or as slave workers to remote and undeveloped parts of the Soviet Union where living conditions were extremely difficult.

The crimes of the “criminals” were for example “betrayal of the motherland” or “counter-revolutionary activities”. This included people whose views were not in line with the Communist ideology, even people who had simply told jokes about the regimes. Their trials did not follow the simplest of democratic guidelines.

GULAG is the Russian acronym for the *Chief Administration of Corrective Labour Camps and Colonies*. There were around 500 separate camps, some of them with hundreds or even thousands of connected camp units. The most infamous complexes were



located in the Arctic or sub-Arctic regions.

The other group of deportees, the slave workers, were mainly families of prisoners ("bandit families") and farmers who had refused to join the collective farms ("kulaks"). They were all categorized as "national and class enemies". Millions of people in the Soviet Union were deported as slave workers.

After Stalin's death, many deportees were able to return to their homelands.

The collapse of the Soviet Union

The popular resistance against the Communist regimes increased in the late 1980s.

The background to this lay in the Soviet movements of *glasnost* (openness) and *perestroika* (reconstruction, change). Additionally, many Communist countries were on the verge of economic collapse and there was great inefficiency in all areas of society. There were shortages of all kinds of goods and the shops were empty.

Demonstrations were led in Poland by the strong trade union *Solidarity* and are described as the beginning of the end of the Soviet Union.



Free elections were conducted in all countries in the Baltic States and Poland and all Communist governments were allocated. The new national parliaments declared independence and withdrew from the Soviet Union. With the support of Russia, Moscow-backed Communists and Soviet military forces sought to reverse the independence declarations in several countries, but hundreds of thousands of people went out into the streets to defend their newly-won freedom. Fourteen people were killed and more than 700 injured by Soviet military and security forces in Vilnius in January 1991.

It was not practically or politically possible for the old Communist rulers to prevent the independence of the former Communist countries.

The *Berlin Wall*, the most well-known symbol of the Cold War, collapsed in November 1989. The two German states were reunited in 1990.

The newly independent Baltic States and Poland became members of *NATO* and the *European Union*.

Denmark

The Second World War. Membership of NATO

Denmark was occupied by Germany during the Second World War but came through the war without major destruction or loss of life unlike, for example, Poland, the Baltic States and the Soviet Union. Denmark received post-war help from the U.S., so-called *Marshall Aid*, for reconstruction and development.

In 1949, Denmark became a member of the *North Atlantic Treaty* (later NATO, the *North Atlantic Treaty Organization*), a military alliance based on collective defence in response to an attack by any external party. The *Warsaw Pact* was the Communist countries' military response to NATO. The promoter and main partner was the Soviet Union. The Pact's policy and operations was controlled from Moscow.

NATO membership was a consequence of the military threat from the Soviet Union. It also meant a change in Denmark's previous unilateralism in security policy as a neutral country. It should also be noted that influential circles in Denmark were against joining NATO and wanted to remain a neutral country not least because of the country's relations with the Soviet Union. Once it had joined NATO, Denmark was openly labelled an "enemy" and "bridgehead of imperialism" by the Soviet Union.

In a wider context, the Danish belts were the link between the Baltic Sea and the Atlantic. The belts were international waters. It was the point of exit of the Soviet Baltic Fleet to the strategically important North Atlantic Ocean and it was also the point of entry of the NATO sea forces to the Baltic Sea. This related mainly to submarines, which thus navigated near to the northern and central parts of the Soviet Union. Another reason for the Soviet Union's interest in controlling access to the Baltic Sea was the many shipyards that could repair the Warsaw Pact's ships in case of war.

In some Soviet attack plans, Sjælland was seen as a stepping stone by which Warsaw Pact forces could reach Sweden and,

One of the main tasks for the Danish forces in peacetime was to monitor the Soviet shipping traffic through the Danish belts, the link between the Baltic Sea and the Atlantic Ocean. The traffic was monitored from small coastal cottages, light towers, military flights and ships etc.

Top: A small cottage on Albuen, a lookout on the westernmost peninsula of Lolland by the Langelands Bælt. This cottage is today protected as a Cold War memorial.

Bottom: A Draken fighter from the Danish air force overflying a Soviet missile-armed cruiser.



Denmark

thereby, the main of goal Norway and the Norwegian harbours, bordering the strategically important North Atlantic Ocean. Control over the North Atlantic meant control over the essential and vital link between Europe and the U.S.

Top: During the Cold War period, the Warsaw Pact countries came up with many different plans for attacking Western Europe. The planned attack on Denmark was for a long time structured around the same premise: primarily Polish but also DDR forces would form the advance guard in an attack on Jutland. An attack on Sjælland would be implemented primarily by Polish forces supported by DDR and (later) other Soviet forces.

This simplified sketch from the beginning of the 1960s shows two nuclear bombs being dropped on the Danish cities of Roskilde (near the capital Copenhagen) and Esbjerg (on the west coast of Jutland). In the event of war, NATO reinforcements would supplement the Danish forces via Esbjerg. The ship symbol indicates a landing on Sjælland.

It was expected that these two nuclear bombs dropped in the first days of the war would put a stop to Danish resistance. If this was not the case, the Warsaw Pact plan in the following days was to drop a large number of tactical nuclear bombs all over Denmark, on Jutland between 27 and 52 bombs on the first day and between 16 and 32 on the second. Such an attack would cause incalculable damage to the civilian population. It is a wonder how the invaders themselves imagined they would avoid nuclear irradiation (probably something between an unrealistic belief that they would be protected from exposure and a lack of respect for their own soldiers' lives).

A more detailed attack plan against the island, Sjælland, than shown above. This plan is from 1970 and signed by the Polish Minister of Defence, Wojciech Jaruzelski, later Communist president of Poland. This plan was handed over to NATO by the Polish colonel, spy and today national hero, Ryszard Kuklinski. The plan shows that parachute forces would be dropped in the middle of Sjælland and then move north towards the capital, Copenhagen, and west towards the major cities of the coastal Store Bælt.

Signatures shows that nuclear bombs were to be dropped on the Stevnsfort (on the east coast of Sjælland, in the middle of the photo), as well as on the towns of Køge (south of Copenhagen), Holbæk and Copenhagen.



The Cold War Museum “Langelandsfort”

The main function of the fort

The *Langelandsfort* is located on the southern part of the island, Langeland (Long Island), in a hilly terrain with views over the Langelands Bælt.

The fort was built in 1953 and closed in 1993 following the collapse of the Soviet Union.

A special task of the fort in case of war was to participate in the defence of the minefields in the belt, together with Danish air and naval forces. The main objective was to delay attacking Soviet sea forces so that NATO flights from foreign countries had time to arrive.

The cannons on the fort were to prevent minesweepers from the Warsaw Pact reaching the mines fields, and the anti-aircraft batteries were to prevent the fort from being destroyed by Soviet aircraft before the minesweepers had arrived.

The most likely outcome of a Soviet attack on the fort was that it would be rendered inoperative relatively quickly. One of several Soviet attack plans included dropping a tactical nuclear bomb on the fort.

The fort armaments. What can be seen today?

The fortifications are situated on an 11-hectare plot of land. The main armaments consist of:

- 4 cannons (150 mm)
- 2 air defence batteries (40 mm)
- Mobile air defence batteries in the surrounding area.

- Bunkers for operational activities and ammunition and a power station.

It is today possible to visit four underground bunkers: a cannon bunker, an air defence battery bunker, the bunker of the operational activities and the ammunitions bunker, which houses a Cold War exhibition.

In addition, the museum now has three aircraft, a submarine and a minesweeper all of which, in some way, are connected to the history of the fort.

The Cuban Crisis

In 1962, a US spy plane observed that the Soviets were about to build missile bases in Cuba. This meant that nuclear-armed missiles could soon be operating only 140 km from the US border. The US therefore declared a blockade of Cuba and prepared a military confrontation with the Soviet Union. US ships and flights were sent out to block access to Cuba and bombers with nuclear weapons were sent on the wings. The Soviet ships were forced to return to the Soviet Union from the middle of the Atlantic. The Soviet Union later abandoned its plans for missile bases on Cuba.

The Langelandsfort had an observation post on the coast from where the Soviet shipping traffic was recorded. Civil Soviet ships with military equipment for Cuba were observed from Danish coastal observations posts several months before the crisis broke out.



Left: The Danish submarine “Springeren” (“The Knight”) is on display at the fort. This was the last Danish submarine in operation when it was decided to dismantle this part of the Danish navy. The photo shows the transportation of the submarine to the fort.

The Cold War Museum Langelandsfort (Koldkrigsmuseum Langelandsfort)

Address: Vognsbjergvej 4b, Bagenkop, Langeland.

Website: www.langelandsfort.dk

Opening hours: March 28- October 31: 10:00-17:00.

Closed from 16:00 in March, April and October. Can also open in the winter holidays, see the website.

Guided tours: Also in German and English. See the website.

Langeland, Denmark



One of the four 150 mm cannons at the fort. In the background, Langelands Bælt. It is possible to visit the cannon's underground bunker. The projectiles were stored here and transported up to the cannon in a special lift. Each gun had a crew of 15, and the cannon could fire a distance of 22 km. A good crew could dispatch 6 shots per minute. Each grenade weighed 45 kg.

The cannons were manufactured by the SKODA factory in Pilzen, Czechoslovakia, towards the end of the Second World War, on the instructions of the German army. They were intended for use in the Danish coastal batteries but had not been installed when the war ended.

150 mm cannon fired from the German cruiser "Emden". The same type of cannon is found on the Langelandsfort.

The museum bunkers on the Langelandsfort appear quite authentic. Almost all the furniture and equipment has been maintained, in contrast to many other protected military installations in the countries around the Baltic Sea.

The photo is from the fort's operation bunker, where attacks were directed from in wartime. In peacetime, it was a centre for monitoring the shipping traffic in the belt. The bunker was always manned, in time of war with 25 men and in peacetime with less than half of that. This operation room has a large light table with a map of the Baltic Sea and Danish waters. A soldier stands at the table, ready to mark the observed enemy units. The officer on duty is sitting in the background. He is in contact with other places that are monitoring the enemy forces.



Cold War Museum "Stevnsfort"



From the outdoor exhibition.

HAWK missile from the outdoor exhibition. These missiles were to prevent attacks on the fort from low flying aircraft. Their range was 40 kilometres. The visitor centre is in the old hall where missiles were prepared.



The fort's overall military objective

The Stevnsfort was constructed in 1952 and was the last fort in Denmark to close, in 2000.

The fort was facing the frontline of the *Warsaw Pact*.

The main military strategy of the Stevnsfort was:

- to protect the entrance to Øresund and thereby the capital Copenhagen
- to obstruct the Soviet coastal landing forces until Danish and NATO forces were in place in the hinterland.
- to monitor Soviet military movements in the Baltic Sea.

There is no doubt that the fort would have been a main target for attacking Soviet forces in case of war, and a target for a tactical nuclear missile.

An extensive underground complex

The fort is located on a flat coastal area with a vertical limestone cliff to the water. The military complex is carved out of limestone 18 meters under the ground and with 1.6 kilometres of passages and rooms.

The fort consisted of:

- Heavy artillery. Two large 150 mm cannons with connected underground facilities from where they were controlled.
- A NATO warning centre. A fully automated underground monitoring room.
- A squadron of HAWK missiles for attack flights.

On the ground: Anti-aircraft batteries, locator stations, a light cannon, projectors, fire fighting equipment, warning radars etc.

The main attraction at the museum is the underground complex. There is also a visitor centre with cinema and an exhibition on the fort. The outdoor exhibition shows Hawk missiles, tanks and other military cannon and vehicles.

Cold War Museum, Stevnsfort (Koldkrigsmuseum Stevnsfort)

There are two exhibition areas at the museum: an underground military complex and an "above ground" exhibition (including an exhibition hall).

A tour of the underground complex is only possible with a guide and must be booked in advance.

Address: Korsnæbsvej 60, Rødvig. (Near the Stevns Klint nature attraction).

Website: www.stevnsfortet.dk **Opening hours:** April-October: 10:00-17:00. February, March and November: Booking required. The underground tour takes 1.5 hours. Temperature: 10 degrees. Maximum participants: 30.

Stevens, Denmark



The main artillery on the Stevensfort consists of two double 150 mm cannons with a range of 23 kilometres. This was enough to reach the Swedish coast and thereby control the entrance to Øresund and Copenhagen. The cannon can be rotated 360 degrees and can thus also fire into the hinterland against enemies who may have gone ashore

From the underground passage system that measured approx. 1.6 kilometres in length, including rooms. The limestone at this location is highly resilient to pressure from outside and therefore provided good protection for the military underground installations. Security in case of chemical, biological or nuclear weapons was also high. Several hundred soldiers would have been able to survive here for many weeks in case of nuclear war.



or been dropped by parachute. This was expected as part of a Warsaw Pact attack on Denmark. During the Second World War, the cannon turrets were a part of the Atlantic Wall and stood on the Danish island of Fanø. Each cannon was handled by 36 people.

From the Operations Room. The fort's command centre, where all necessary information was collected and action taken in case of war. From the 1980s on, the fort was a warning station for NATO and the room was arranged as a fully automatic monitoring room from where information was sent to NATO and the Western intelligence services.



Estonia

Occupied by Soviet and Nazi forces, 1940-1944

Estonia was an independent republic from 1918 until 1940, when Soviet troops occupied the country. This was the result of the so-called *Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact* between Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union. A part of this agreement was that Estonia, the other Baltic States and a part of Poland came under the Soviet *sphere of influence*.

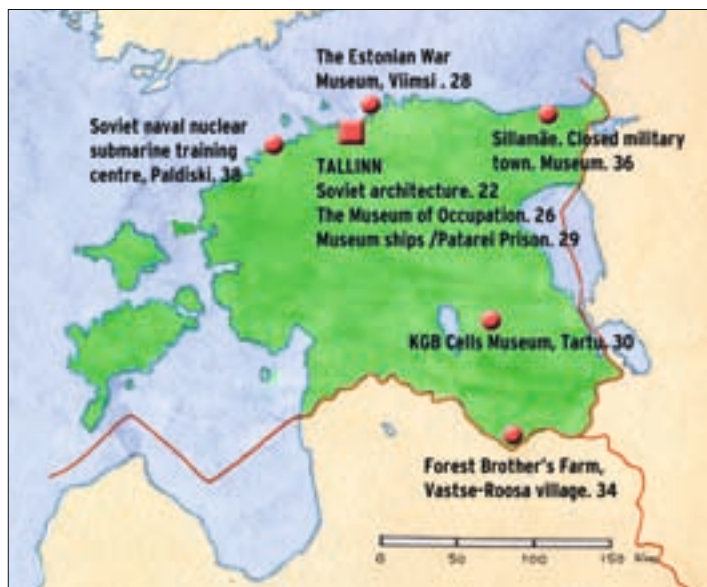
Estonia was then forced by the Soviet Union to sign a *mutual assistance pact* that allowed the Soviet army to occupy Estonia. The occupation was followed by a parliamentary election with only Communist candidates. The Communist parliament paved the way for Estonia's annexation to the Soviet Union as the *Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic*.

The Soviet occupation was a regime of terror, with mass arrests, executions and mass deportations to remote areas of the Soviet Union. Those arrested and executed were mostly leading politicians and officials from the former independent republic.

The Soviet occupation was followed by a Nazi occupation after Nazi Germany's attack on the Soviet Union. Many people expected a new independent Estonia when the Soviet army was forced out of the country but the reality was that the Nazis simply became the new occupying power.

As a result of the two occupations:

- 200,000 Estonians were killed, or 20% of the population.
- 80,000 fled to the West.
- 30,000 Estonian soldiers were killed.
- 45% of industry and 40% of the railways was damaged.



Soviet Estonia, 1944-1990

The second Soviet occupation after the Second World War was a follow-up to the first occupation, characterized by a fully controlled, brutal and censored society with arrests, executions, deportations, Communist unification of social and cultural life, the destruction of everything that reminded people of an independent Estonia (destruction of national identity), nationalization of private property, religious oppression, collectivization of agriculture, courts and military tribunals based on undemocratic principles, indoctrination of youth, no national army, use of Russian as the main language ("the language of friendship of nations"), key positions in local administration given to Russians or Russian Estonians etc. 250,000 immigrants came from Russia between 1956 and 1965, to a country of around 800,000 Estonians. (Today a quarter of the residents are ethnic Russians).

Deportations to remote parts of the Soviet Union

The deportations took place from 1944 until 1953. The biggest mass deportation occurred in 1949 and included all the Baltic countries. Around 21,000 Estonians, or 2.5% of the population, were deported to remote parts of the Soviet Union. The deportations were centrally planned from Moscow by the Council of Ministers of the Soviet Union. The arrests were fulfilled with the help of local Communists. The deported people were described as "*kulaks (independent farmers) and their families, families of bandits, nationalists in hiding as well as families who provide assistance to bandits*". All the people were deported without any trial. It went against all democratic and human principles that the families were automatically considered guilty if one family member was presumed guilty of a crime.

The deportation in 1949 included 7,500 families. 50% of those affected were women and 35% were children under the age of 16. The deportees included invalids, pregnant women, newborn babies, people over 90 years old and children who had lost their parents. It is estimated that only a half of those deported were able to return to Estonia.

The armed and unarmed Estonian resistance

14,000-15,000 armed Estonian partisans or guerrillas, so-called *Forest Brothers*, participated in the armed resistance against the occupying forces. The movement reached its peak in 1946-1947 and came to an end in practice in 1956. About 2,000 of them died in open battle, mainly with KGB forces.

The unarmed resistance or dissident activities were focused on the underground production and distribution of uncensored



From the so-called Hirvepark demonstration held in August 1988. The demonstration became a tradition and was held on the anniversary of the 1939 Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact between Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union. Estonia became a part of the Soviet "sphere of influence". The Soviet Union subsequently occupied the independent Estonia, motivated by the need for

Soviet troops in the country. Estonia was later annexed into the Soviet Union. The largest posters at the demonstration this year declared "Freedom for Estonia" and "Let's Live without Lies". It was dangerous to organise or participate in such demonstrations in 1988.

literature and pamphlets as well as providing information to the West (often through Western journalists). The open dissident activities, also considered illegal, were written protests containing many signatures, such as the protest when the Soviet dissident and nuclear scientist *Andrei Sakharov* was condemned to exile. The Estonian dissidents were often groups of young people and students. The models for these groups were the foreign groups created on the basis of the so-called *Helsinki Declaration* from 1975 in which it was stated that people had official permission to say what they thought and that there should be respect for territorial integrity, civil and human rights etc. The Soviet Union had signed this declaration but was not aware of its consequences.

It is estimated that around 500 Estonian dissidents were arrested, tortured, jailed and sent to GULAG hard labour camps

in the period between 1953 and 1988.

The freedom period

The beginning of the end of the Soviet Union began in the second half of the 1980s when *Mikhail Gorbachev*, the *General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union*, introduced the policies of *glasnost* (openness in society) and *perestroika* (reconstruction of society). This resulted in several new non-Communist political parties.

A coalition of parties, *The Popular Front*, gained a parliamentary majority in 1990 and decided to restore the independent *Republic of Estonia* from 1940. The decision was finally adopted by the new democratic parliament in 1992.

Estonia managed to avoid the violence and killings that took place in the other Baltic States in 1991.

Estonia



The collectivisation of Estonian agriculture. An example of the Sovietisation of society.

This collectivisation and nationalisation of private farmland was mainly based on the Communist ideology. It was a tragic project of enormous dimensions which involved thousands of families and destroyed the effective family farming system.

The idea was that large jointly operated agricultural units gave a better yield than small individual farms and that collectivisation would give economic equality to the farming population.

It was not possible for the State to finance the necessary investments and to coordinate the comprehensive agricultural planning and accompanying industries. Many efforts failed (for example, the establishment of big horse and tractor centres). Other problems involved organizing the work on big farms where indifferent people had little motivation. The ineffective agricultural system of the Soviet Union was the reason for a chronic lack of food production.

One of the reasons for the mass deportations in 1949 was to force this collectivization by deporting independent farmers (kulaks) who had not joined the collective farms. It succeeded. Before the deportation, only 9% of farmers had abandoned their private farms. Two months after the deportations, a half of all farmers had done so, afraid of new deportations. It was also a deathblow to the guerrilla movement, which depended on the farmers' support.

In the 1970s only 5% of the land was being privately farmed without support from the state, unlike the collective farms. But the fact was that this 5% of the land was producing 30% of the potato crop and 20% of the total dairy output.



Photos from a former exhibition in a farm house at the Estonian Open Air Museum. The exhibition showed the farmhouse just after it was left by a deported family. The desperate and panic-stricken family was picked up by Soviet security forces and had only a little time to pack a few belongings before they were sent eastwards in cattle wagons. This family was chosen for deportation because they were independent farmers and had not joined a collective farm. In addition, it can be seen from photos lying on the floor that family members had been in the Estonian army during the period of independence prior to the Soviet occupation in 1940. These soldiers were a particularly persecuted group that were murdered in large numbers or sent to GULAG camps during the Soviet occupation of Estonia. Their families were called "bandit families or nationalists in hiding".

Everything left behind was confiscated by the authorities and sold or handed over to local collective farms.

About the exhibition: Unfortunately, the house holding the exhibition burned down and the exhibition was lost. It will hopefully be reconstructed in another house in the museum area. Nowhere else in the countries around the Baltic Sea has a similar memorial been created in a farmhouse, despite the fact that independent farmers constituted a significant proportion of the deportees during both Soviet occupation periods.

Estonia



Propaganda photo of the collective farms. The self-employed farmers, called "kulaks", were deported to Siberia in large numbers because they did not join the collective farms.



Top right: A deportation scene was reconstructed when the exhibition at the Estonian Open Air Museum opened in 1997. Soviet security forces load a family onto trucks for the railway station.

The Estonian politician Tulle Kelam finished his book "Estonia's way to freedom" with this photo (taken by himself) and with this text: "On Saaremaa, Estonia's biggest island, Ester and Leevi Naagel decided to start a family farm with not much more than their 5 children as their starting capital. They joined the Estonian National Independence Party and actively took part in the registration of citizens in Saaremaa".



Soviet Architecture

Examples of architecture from the Soviet period

After the collapse of the Soviet Union, nearly all Soviet symbols, adornments, statues, etc. were removed in the former Soviet countries. All street names referring to the Soviet Union or Communism were changed.

In Tallinn, however, a significant part of Soviet architecture was preserved, also with Soviet adornments.

There have been plans and wishes in all countries to remove large and conspicuous Soviet monuments but it is difficult and expensive to remove such buildings such as the cultural centres and palaces in Warsaw and Riga, as well as the Concert Hall complex at the port of Tallinn.

Many of the old town centres are also influenced by Soviet buildings, without taking account of the original architectural values, especially new buildings erected immediately after the Second World War, when many town centres were subject to considerable destruction.

The following describes some examples of Soviet architecture and adornments in Tallinn. Many of the buildings are dominated by classical elements such as pillars and adornments. This neoclassical architecture was very popular among the Soviet political elite because it was an expression of the power of the state.

The corner of Tartu maantee and Liivalaia (Approximately 1 km east of the old town). A typical residential building of the Stalinist period with spire and star at the top of the corner building.



Tallinn, Estonia



Supermarket for the Communist nomenclature and foreigners, Tartu manntee 17 (Approximately 1 km south-east of the old town). The building is without windows because there was nothing to see or buy for ordinary people.

A former club for Soviet Naval Officers, today a hotel. The corner of Vana-Posti and Suur-Karja (Old town). The house was built in 1952 after the Second World War when the main part of the old town lay in ruins.



The Soprus cinema, the former "Friendship Cinema". The corner of Vana-Posti and Müürivahe (Old town).

Top: Soviet adornment with the red star on top. On the roof of the former club for Soviet Naval Officers (see left).

Bottom: Soviet adornment on the Soprus cinema (see above).



Soviet Architecture



Top left and right: The old airport building. A typical building from the Stalinist period. Well-proportioned and not without architectural value. Today restored and used for VIPs.



Left: From the suburb of Lasnamäe. Built in the 1980s for 100,000 people resettled from other parts of the Soviet Union, mainly Russians.

Bottom left: Tallinn Technological College. The corner of Suur-Ameerika and Pärnu manatee (1 km south-east of the old town).

Club for Soviet Naval Officers. Mere puistee 5 (south of the edge of the old town). Today home to the Russian Cultural Centre.



Tallinn, Estonia



Linnahall, Mere puistee 20 (just north-east of the old town at the harbor). The building complex Linnahall, the former V.I. Lenin Palace of Sports and Culture. Built in connection with the 1980 Olympic Games in Moscow. The sailing events took place in Tallinn. Linnahall consists of concert halls and ice hockey rinks and facilities for several other activities. It also has its own harbor and helicopter landing pad.

The big and relatively flat complex of 27,215 square metres has no windows. It looks like a military fortification and it is a very special experience to stand on the top of this enormous complex and look over to the sea and the old town of Tallinn. There is no other building like it anywhere else in the world.



The Museum of Occupation and of The Fight for Freedom

The three Occupation Periods

The main aim of the exhibition is to describe and explain the three occupation periods in Estonia from 1940 to 1991:

- The *first* Soviet occupation from 1940-1941, in which the independent *Republic of Estonia* was forced to join the Soviet Union as the *Estonian Soviet Socialist Republic*.
- The Nazi German occupation from 1941-1944 and
- The *second* Soviet occupation from 1944-1991.

The results of all these occupations were regimes that fiercely attacked the Estonian people and its culture.

The museum describes all the essential items from the occupations, such as the arrests, executions and mass deportations of Estonians to remote parts of the Soviet Union, the armed guerrilla resistance, the dissident movements and the history of the many Estonians who fled to foreign countries to escape the terror.

Bottom left: An example from the museum's daily life exhibition. A VAZ 2103 Lada, a popular car in the Soviet Union. This type was a Lada luxury model and a prestigious car. It was difficult to get a car in the Soviet Union. It required authorization, and cars were sold through workplaces and trade unions. Cars were therefore normally maintained very carefully. This car is 35 years old. It has driven 150,000 km and never been re-painted. It has never been out in wintertime. If it went out in the rain it would be dried before going back into the garage.

Bottom right: The cellar of the museum. Statues and posters of Communist leaders such as Lenin, Kalinin and Brezhnev.

The Museum of Occupation and of the Fight for Freedom (Okupatsiooni ja Vabadusvõitluse Muuseum)

The museum differs from many other museums dealing with these periods by having a large and interesting collection of everyday effects that tell the story of people's daily lives in the occupation periods. This includes cars, a telephone box, telephones, typewriters, radios etc.

Address: Toompea 8. (just south of the old town).

Website: www.okupatsioon.ee

Opening hours: Tuesday-Sunday: 11:00-18:00.

The Kistler-Ritso Foundation, which funds the museum, has financed seven short and very informative films on the theme of "Occupations in the Recent History of Estonia, 1940-1991". The films can be seen on the museum's website.

The films' titles, as follows, offer a meaningful division of the 1940-1991 period:

- The First Red Year, 1940-1941
- The War and the German Years, 1941-1944
- The Stalin Era, 1944-1950
- The Stalinist Era, 1950-1956
- The Sixties, 1956-1968
- The Period of Stagnation, 1968-1987
- Liberation, 1987-1991.

Recent Estonian history is similar to the histories of the other Baltic states and Poland.



Tallinn, Estonia



The museum is also worth visiting for its impressive architecture. Here, the symbolic entrance through a dark bunker-style “tunnel” and into a light yard with birches.

The museum is financed by the Kistler-Ritso Foundation, founded by Olga Kistler-Ritso, a former refugee from Estonia, and her American husband. The financing of the museum is the largest one-off private donation in Estonian history.

One of the museum’s main exhibitions includes a collection of personal stories honouring the memory of those people who suffered under the occupation forces and the Communist regime. Prison photo of Aili Jürgenson. She was 14 years old when she was arrested by the KGB. Together with a school friend, Ageeda Paavel, she blew up a wooden Soviet monument in Tallinn in 1946. Many national Estonian monuments had already been destroyed by the Soviet occupation forces. She was not arrested immediately but continued with some underground activities. She was arrested when she tried to find a doctor for a wounded partisan and, during the interrogation, she confessed to destroying the monument. She was sent to a GULAG labour camp as an “under-age terrorist”.

She was in exile for 8 years. Together with her school friend, Ageeda Paavel, she was awarded the Estonian Order of the Cross of the Eagle as a “freedom fighter of military merit”.



The Estonian War Museum - General Laidoner Museum

The museums history reflects the country's history

The museum covers the military history of Estonia, especially that of the 20th century. The development of the museum over this time period is, in itself, an exciting history.

The first focus of the museum was the *Estonian War of Independence* in 1918-20. When the Soviet Union occupied Estonia in 1940, the museum was closed down and the collection handed over to the *Museum of History and Revolution*. Many items were given to the Red Army to be used at the front (machine guns, rifles, pistols, ammunition). Other items were stolen. By 1941, a third of the collection was missing.

After the Second World War, the Soviet military allowed the museum staff to collect some German weapons but this simply gave the KGB the opportunity to arrest the museum staff. After 1945, the museum became Soviet-oriented without any "fascist origins". An "eliminating process" took place in 1950-51, in which a large collection of paintings, sculptures, uniforms, decorations and flags were destroyed. The Drama Theatre received 235 Estonian army uniforms for use in performances.

Today, the museum also has a permanent exhibition on the Cold War period, built around items and symbols, including the Berlin Wall. Especially interesting are two different histories of an Estonian-American helicopter pilot in Vietnam and the memories of an Estonian Soviet Army soldier in Berlin.

General Johan Laidoner, an Estonian legend

Johan Laidoner's name is a part of the name of the *Estonian War Museum*. The museum was founded on his orders in 1919. His destiny is closely linked to Estonian history in the first part of the 20th century. He became Commander-in-Chief of the Estonian army and a Member of Parliament. He was born in 1884 and died in the Soviet Vladimir Prison Camp as a political prisoner in 1953.

He was educated in Vilno and St. Petersburg when Estonia was a part of the Russian Empire and served in the Russian army in the First World War. After Estonia's independence in 1918,

he became Commander-in-Chief of the Estonian Armed Forces during the *Estonian War of Independence*, 1918-1920. From then until the Soviet Occupation of Estonia in 1940, he alternated between parliamentary work and commanding the army. At one time he ran Viimsi Manor, the location of the museum (his office is now restored). He was captured and deported together with his wife in 1940 when the Soviet Union occupied independent Estonia. He was one of the few leaders not to be executed. Afterwards he was arrested and imprisoned. At a trial in Moscow in 1952 he was sentenced to 25 years in prison and died the year after in a GULAG camp near Kirov in Russia. The site of his grave is unknown. Johan Laidoner was awarded nearly all important European decorations.



Right: The 36 year old General Johan Laidoner, Commander-in-Chief of the Estonian Army. 1920.

Bottom: Johan Laidoner as a Soviet political prisoner. 1941.



The Estonian War Museum - General Laidoner Museum

(Eesti sõjamuuseum - Kindral Laidoneri Muuseum)

The museum is located 10 kilometres north-east of Tallinn.

Address: Mõisa tee 1, Viimsi.

Website: www.laidoner.ee

Opening hours: Wednesday-Saturday: 11:00-17:00.

Guided tours: Can be arranged in English. Booking required. See the website.

Viimsi, Estonia

A planned museum complex: Lennusadam-Patarei. Tallinn

A large-scale museum complex is under development in the north-western part of Tallinn, at a harbour location.

Plans for the complex include:

- Former seaplane hangars in which military equipment will be exhibited. The hangar halls can today be seen from outside.
- The wharf with museum ships. The ships can be visited today. See description below.
- *The Patarei Prison*, a former battery and prison. The prison can be visited today. See description below.

The main museum partners will be the *Estonian Maritime Museum* and the *Estonian War Museum*.

Seaplane hangars. Architecture worth visiting

The hangars are architectural and engineering masterpieces from 1916-1917. At that time, the Patarei Prison was a battery. Because of the First World War, it was planned that seaplanes should be able to reach the battery. Two seaplane hangars were therefore built immediately west of the battery.

Charles Lindbergh, the first pilot to cross the Atlantic, landed here together with his wife in 1933, on a flight from Moscow.

The museum ships

The submarine *Lembit* was built in 1932 and served in the independent Estonian Navy until the Soviet Occupation in 1940. Its commander, *Ferdinand Schmiedehelm*, was arrested and executed by the KGB in 1942. The vessel was then a part of the Soviet Baltic Fleet until it was handed over to the Estonian Maritime Museum in 1979.

The patrol-boat *Grif* was the first ship in the Estonian Navy following independence and it served until 2001. It was built in 1976 and used for patrolling the Finnish Gulf.

The border guard ship *Storm* was built in Norway in 1965/66. It was donated to the Estonian Border Guard in 1994 and taken out of service in 2008.

Mine sweeper *Ktown* was built in Germany in 1967 and served in the German Navy until 1995.

The biggest ship in the harbour is the icebreaker *Big Toll*, built in 1914. The first home town of the ship was Tallinn. The ship was handed back to Estonia by the Soviet Baltic Fleet in 1988.

Patarei Prison

Patarei was opened as a sea fortress in 1840 when Estonia was a part of the Russian Empire. It was a prison from 1919 until 2004 and has been left untouched since. It is open to visitors, who can see the very dilapidated cells, work areas and exercise yards.

Patarei Sea Fortress-Prison (Paterei merekindlus)

Address: Kihnu 6-124.

Website: www.paterei.org

Opening hours: June-August: Wednesday-Sunday: 12:00-18:00.

Top: Patarei Prison. **Bottom:** The seaplane hangars.



The Museum ships in the Hydroplane port

Address: Küti 15A, Tallinn.

Website: www.meremuuseum.ee

Opening hours: 10:00-18:00.

KGB Cells Museum



Isolation cells of 0.8 square meters. Prisoners were often left sitting here for 10 days. They received food only every third day and half a liter of water in the intervening days.

The "Grey House" In Tartu. This house was the KGB centre in south-eastern Estonia.



The museum in the basement of the Grey House

The museum is located in the so-called *Grey House* in Tartu, the second biggest city in Estonia. The house was the south-eastern centre of the secret Soviet police, the KGB, in the 1940s and 50s. The basement of the house was the KGB prison, today the *KGB Cells Museum*. Some of the cells and the corridor have been returned to their original state.

To stay in the cells could be torture in itself. Originally there was no ventilation in the deep basement, which meant extremely high summer temperatures and very little oxygen in the normally crowded cells.

Part of the prison includes an exhibition covering mainly:

- The deportations of Estonians to remote parts of the Soviet Union and their life in exile.
- The Estonian armed and unarmed resistance movement.

The total number of people in Estonia that were in the hands of the secret Soviet police and security organs is estimated at 122,000, of which more than 30,000 lost their lives.

KGB cells museum (KGB Kongide Muuseum)

The Museum is a department of Tartu City Museum.

Address: Riia 15b, Tartu.

Website: www.linnamuuseum.tartu.ee

Opening hours: Tuesday-Saturday: 11:00-16:00

Guided tours: Guided tours are available in English.

Booking required. See the website.

A model of the prison in the cellar made by a former prisoner.



Tartu, Estonia



Members of the underground school children's organization, "Blue-Black-White" (the colors of the Estonian flag). The photo is taken following their release in 1956.

Map prepared by the KGB. Part of a map for the whole of Estonia, with geographical information on the partisan troops and people identified by the KGB in 1947. The blue circles are troops; the figures inside the circles are the number of partisans. 14,000-15,000 armed Estonian partisans or "Forest Brothers" participated in the armed resistance against the Soviet occupation forces. Some 2,000 of them died in open battle, mainly with KGB forces.



Needlework with hair produced by girls from the group as they sat in the KGB prison.

The "Blue-Black-White"-group from Tartu had 40 members and was disrupted in 1951. The members were sentenced to exile in Siberian hard labour camps. The group members were described by the KGB as "traitors to their homeland". Many underground groups of young people were fighting against the Soviet Occupation forces. The first groups were founded in 1939 after the first Soviet occupation. They procured arms, distributed leaflets, destroyed Soviet statues, hoisted national flags, wrote slogans on walls, collected information about Soviet activities, etc. They took such names as "Youth of the North" and "For the Freedom of Estonia".

The cornflower memorial outside the "Grey House". This memorial commemorates all the victims of the two Soviet occupations.



KGB Cells Museum



A rare and strong photo (The Museum of Occupation, Tallinn). Krasnoyarsk Krai in the middle of Siberia, April 8, 1949. Estonian deportees have ended their week-long journey in cattle wagons and are officially being handed over to the local regional Russian department of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, based on a statement by the train master. This so-called "Special Contingent of Estonians" consisted of 405 people, of which 82 were men, 203 women and 120 children.

The 1949 deportation involved 21,000 Estonians or 2.5% of the whole population. The deportees were mainly kulaks (independent farmers) who had not joined the collective farms. They were deported without any trial. Women represented 50% of the deportees. 35% of them were children under 16 years of age.



From a dinner involving people from the Communist authorities who were responsible for the deportations of Estonians to Siberia. On the left B. Kumm, Minister of State Security of Communist Estonia. 5th from the left (with glasses) General-Mayor A. Resev, Minister of Internal Affairs, who approved the military security plan shown on the opposite page.

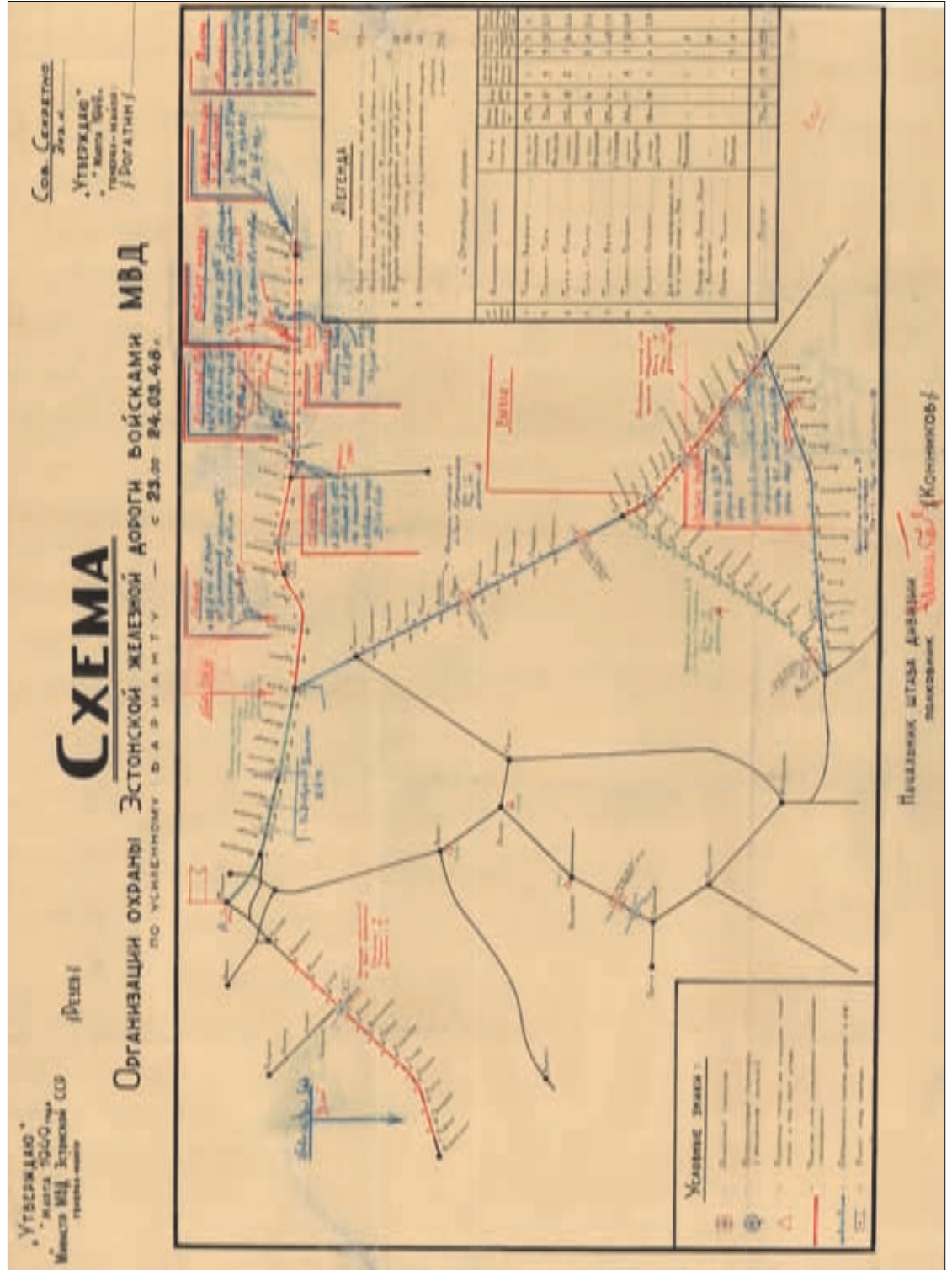
*A top secret security plan
for the deportations of
Estonians to Siberia in
1949.*

The plan shows how 715 km of railroad was to be guarded and controlled by the military when the deportations took place in cattle wagons. The plan was accepted by the Communist Estonian Ministry of Internal Affairs.

The overall deportation decisions were taken in Moscow.

The practical work in Estonia was carried out by the KGB, local Communist activists and the military. They also took people who were not on the deportation lists, just to fill the quotas for deported people.

The local Communists then made a record of all furniture and equipment in the deserted private homes and this was later distributed to local collective farms.



Forest Brothers' Farm

A living memorial to the Estonian guerrillas

The Forest Brothers' Farm was founded and is run by *Meelis Möttus*. Meelis' father and uncle were guerrillas or partisans fighting against the Soviet occupation forces after the Second World War. The guerrillas were also called Forest Brothers because they hid in the forests in small underground bunkers

Forest Brothers' Farm (Metsavenna talu)

The Forest Brothers' Farm is privately owned and based on tourism, also providing other tourist services apart from those connected with the Estonian partisans. These include winter activities, playgrounds, campfires, sauna, boat rental, etc.

Address: Vastse-Roosa küla (village), Mõniste vald, Võru County (just across the border from Latvia by the town of Ape).

Website: www.metsavennatalu.ee

Opening hours: The owners of the farm don't speak English. An English speaking contact is tourist guide Innar Täht, Võru, who can arrange a visit. Tel. 0037 256 957280. E-mail: innar@hot.ee.

The Forest Brothers' Farm organises different kinds of group tours and events, with or without meals etc. See the website. Booking required. Thematic events are Forest Brothers' Journey, Daily Forest Brothers' Farm, Forest Brothers' Night etc. A number of special events are arranged throughout the year.

Eha Loorits lives on a farm neighbouring the Forest Brothers' Farm. Her father was also a partisan living in hiding in the forests. Sometimes in the night he went home to see his family. The KBG knew this and raids frequently took place at night. The



normally constructed of wood.

On Forest Brothers' Farm it is possible to see and experience: Reconstructed underground partisan bunkers, the neighbouring farm with original hiding place for partisans inside the house, partisan food and moonshine and partisan songs.

The educational objective of the farm is clear, from the point of view of the owner, Meelis Möttus. The Forest Brothers were called "bandits" by the Soviet occupation forces. He replies: "Men like my father, my uncle and *Alfred Karmann* (see opposite page) were not bandits. They fought for Estonia's independence and are an important part of our history. That knowledge should be passed on to our children."

The partisan movement. No military help from the West

The armed Estonian partisans were, in practice, active from 1946 until 1956. 14,000-15,000 people participated in the movement. Their activities reached a peak in 1946-47. The partisan movement expected help from the West to re-establish a free and independent Estonia but no military help was forthcoming.

2,000 partisans died in battles with Soviet forces and the secret police and it is estimated that a further 2,000 died in prisons and GULAG camps.

The mass deportation in 1949, mainly of the independent farmers (kulaks), represented a crucial loss of support and help for the partisans in the countryside.

farm therefore had hiding places for her father. It is possible for visitors to see one of these original hiding places. The KGB tried to obtain knowledge about her father and Eha Loorits witnessed a violent interrogation of her mother. The family was punished in several ways; for example, Eha was banned from attending school.



Vastse-Roosa Village, Võru County , Estonia



Alfred Karmann, a local Forest Brother, helped the owner of Forest Brother's Farm, Meelis Mottus, with the planning of the site and knowledge of partisan life.

Alfred Karmann used to move around from one forest hideout to another. Once, he was shot in the arm by a Soviet soldier but escaped. A nurse was forced to amputate his arm. The one-armed man spent 8 years underground in forest bunkers, often shivering in the cold winters. He was finally betrayed and tortured by the KGB, without disclosing any of the names of his comrades. He was sentenced to 25 years in a Siberian GULAG camp. After 13 years he was released but was forced to spend 12 years in Latvia before he could return to his homeland. Alfred Karmann died in 2010.

Top right: Forest Brothers' Day is held each spring (information on website). One of the activities uses actors to illustrate the secret police work, such as provocateur actions, arrests and the interrogation of local people.



Middle: Visitors to Forest Brothers' farm can taste partisan food and moonshine.

The dish consists of salty meat in fat, which can be stored for several months. It is very like the delicious French dish Rillettes, which was also originally a way of preserving meat. The recipes are basically the same, but the partisan Rillettes is more salty, which gives a longer shelf-life.

The moonshine had an alcoholic strength of 60%. It was often the only "friend" to many partisans in the long and often cold days and nights in the bunkers.



Bottom: An important part of the partisan culture was the songs. Meelis Mõttus has published a partisan songbook and is able to provide examples of the songs.



A Closed Military Town

Sillamäe. A closed town with uranium production

Sillamäe was built in the 1940s, during the Soviet period, as a “closed town”.

The city was home to the chemical and nuclear industry, especially uranium production. It was a part of the Soviet Union’s military program. The town was run by the military. All its inhabitants were ethnic Russians. *Sillamäe* did not even exist on maps and had no postal address (some of the code names were *Moscow 400* and *Leningrad 1*).

The factory complex was built by 5,000 ethnic Russian political prisoners. The oldest part of the town was built by 3,800 Baltic prisoners. Homeless people from St. Petersburg were among the first workers at the factory.

The coastal area was originally an attractive holiday resort for Russians visited, for example, by *Stravinsky* and the Nobel Prize winner *Ivan Pavlov* (Pavlov’s dogs). A spa near the city was used by the Soviet nomenclature up until the collapse of the Soviet Union.

Uranium produced for 70,000 nuclear weapons

The production of uranium started in 1946 and it was extracted from black shale, which is widely available in Estonia. The mining had stopped by the 1950s, when supplies began to be imported from Germany and Czechoslovakia. The production was kept secret for decades.

Sillamäe produced over 100,000 tons of uranium for almost 70,000 nuclear weapons. It was here that the uranium was refined for the Soviet Union’s first nuclear bomb.

Uranium production stopped in 1990. Today, the factories are focused on producing rare metals and are owned in cooperation with the Estonian State, an Estonian company and some foreign companies.



An architectural attraction

Sillamäe offers an outstanding picture of Soviet architecture from the Second World War to 1990. Its architecture is the real attraction of the town (it is not possible to visit the large factory complex in the western part of the city).

It is possible to experience typical Soviet architecture from different periods in the different parts of the town. The old town is the most valuable from the point of view of town planning and architecture. The building style is mainly neoclassical. The first town plans are imposing, with valuable elements such as the square overlooking the sea, the green boulevards and the “human” building dimensions, as opposed to the well-known monumental and totalitarian Soviet architecture. Two buildings are protected by law: the Cultural Centre and the cinema.

Still a Russian enclave

The inhabitants’ contact with the surrounding Estonian society was non-existent during the Soviet period. If they went out of the town it was to visit Russia, especially St. Petersburg. Today, *Sillamäe* is still a town inhabited by ethnic Russians and it appears as a Russian enclave in Estonia, with a significantly ‘old Soviet’ atmosphere. The majority of signs are in Russian. Some street names would not be allowed in other Estonian towns, for example Gagarin Street. It is said that a very large proportion of the inhabitants have never been outside the town, and also that many Estonians have never visited *Sillamäe*.

Sillamäe Museum (Sillamäe Muuseum)

The exhibition primarily shows the history of the town during the Soviet period, including ordinary life and households and a “red” room with Soviet banners, statues etc. A special exhibition includes all the origins of Estonia’s granite, limestone and dolomite.

Address: Kajaka tn 17A.

Website: www.sillamae-muuseum.ee (only in Russian and Estonian).

Opening hours: Tuesday–Saturday: 10:00-18:00.

Sillamäe, Estonia



Left: View from the old town square towards the sea.

Right: The municipal office on the old town square. It was the intention of the town planners to create a town square inspired by the old Estonian towns. One characteristic of all these towns is a dominant church tower. It was not possible to build a church in the atheistic Communist society so the local municipal office got a "Lutheran church tower".



Left: The town have buildings illustrating the Soviet architecture from all periods since the town was built. In the foreground, a building from the 1940s in neoclassical style. In the background, a typical apartment building from the 1970s-1980s as can be seen all over the Soviet Union.

Right: Sculpture from the old town square that symbolizes the man who subjugates the nuclear power.



Left: The Cultural Centre on the old square. The cellar is built as a nuclear safe bunker. It is normally possible to gain entry to the theatre building because the foyer is often used for public exhibitions.

Right: The theatre, along with many other public buildings, is decorated with Communist symbols and reliefs of Communist leaders.



Soviet Naval Nuclear Submarine Training Center

Paldiski. A closed military town in the Soviet period

The Baltic port town of *Paldiski* was already a Russian navy base in the 18th century when Estonia was a part of the Russian Empire. Old red brick buildings from this period can be seen in the town as well as many newer Soviet-style buildings. Paldiski is the Estonian pronunciation of the Russian name “Baltiyskiy Port” or “the Baltic port”. Paldiski was a closed military town during the Soviet period, with 16,000 military employees. Today the town has 4,000 inhabitants, mainly ethnic Russians.

Training centre for nuclear submarine crews

The main military activity in Paldiski was as a training centre for submarine crew members. Two large submarine mock-ups with nuclear reactors were installed in a big building. It was the largest such facility in the whole of the Soviet Union. The centre was constructed in the early 1960s and shut down in 1989.

When the Soviet army left following Estonia's independence, they removed all non-polluted and secret equipment, including the submarine hulls, but not the sections with the nuclear reactors. They were encapsulated in concrete sarcophagi.

When Estonia took over the area in 1995 two main tasks were fulfilled following international co-operation and studies:

- To clean up the whole area and buildings for radioactive and other kinds of pollution and
- To build new and safer sarcophagi around the nuclear reactors and renew the old building.

Many of the original military facility buildings in the area have been demolished.

It is not yet known when it will be economic and practical to start the decommissioning of the remaining reactor compartments. Until then, the reactors are under constant supervision and the area strictly guarded.



Soviet Navy Nuclear Submarine Training Center, Paldiski

Paldiski is situated 50 km west of Tallinn.

There is no access to the former submarine centre area. A small exhibition can be seen in the entrance building. The new large building around the sarcophagi and some remains such as a tall chimney can only be seen from outside the fence. The site is managed by A.L.A.R.A. AS, a state-owned company involved in nuclear radioactive waste management and pollution cleaning.

Address: Leetse tee 21. The center is located 4 km north-east of Paldiski. Turn right 1 km before the town.

Website: www.alara.ee

Paldiski, Estonia

Opposite page:

Top: The new building for the sarcophagus with the reactors.

Middle: One of the sarcophagi inside the building. The state-owned company A.L.A.R.A. Ltd. has the task of keeping the sarcophagi safe for 50 years. They will then be decommissioned.

Bottom: Soviet sculpture on the area.

Right: One of the nuclear reactors before it was encapsulated in the sarcophagus. Note the round submarine shape.

Bottom: The old building where the two submarine mock-ups were installed for educational use. The building was also called "the Soviet Pentagon" by the locals. Photo from 1995.



Finland

The Second World War. Separate wars with the Soviet Union: the Winter War and the Continuation War

The *Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact* between Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union decided in secret that Finland would become a part of the Soviet *sphere of interest*.

After the invasion of Poland, the Soviet Union demanded that Finland lease it the *Hanko Peninsula*, located at the entrance to the Gulf of Finland and the waterway to the Soviet naval base, *Kronstadt*, and Leningrad (St. Petersburg) the second largest city in the Soviet Union, as a naval base. Furthermore, the Soviet Union wanted to move the border 25 kilometres back from Leningrad. In exchange, Finland could have a part of Karelia. The Soviet demands were refused by Finland and the Winter War started. The Soviet Union attacked with superior forces but Finland resisted the invasion successfully, albeit without any chance of victory. The peace treaty resulted in territorial losses for Finland, including the Finnish part of Karelia. The German invasion of Russia was supported by Finnish forces in the Continuation War, 1941-1944.

The treaties signed following the war included Finnish obligations and reparations as well as territorial concessions. Finland did not, however, become a Soviet state.



Finland in the Cold War period: Neutral and independent, but adapted to the Soviet Union

The Finnish military and political situation was difficult and complex during the Cold War period because of the country's close proximity to the Soviet Union.

A *Friendship, Cooperation and Mutual Assistance Pact* signed in 1948 gave the Soviet Union influence on Finnish foreign policy. There was also a tendency within Finland to avoid statements and acts that could be considered anti-Soviet. This phenomenon was also known as *Finlandisation*. The media was self-censored and anti-Soviet books were removed from libraries. The authorities had the power to censor movies.

It must also be noted that Finland remained a Western market economy and yet also benefited at the same time from preferential trade with the Soviet Union.

PORKKALA: A SOVIET BASE ON FINNISH TERRITORY

Leased to the Soviet Union for 50 years

The so-called *Porkkala area* has a very special Cold War history that is not found anywhere else in the countries around the Baltic Sea. The armistice agreement between the Soviet Union and Finland that followed the Second World War was concluded in 1944. Finland was not in a political or military position to refuse the agreement. The territorial demands included military strategic areas such as Karelia and Petsamo (the Finnish passage to the Barents Sea). A third area, Porkkala, was leased to the Soviet Union for 50 years as a naval base.

Porkkala is situated in southern Finland, on the Gulf. Many Finns saw the Porkkala base as a stepping stone for a subsequent Soviet invasion and, thus, also a threat to national sovereignty. The capital Helsinki, only 19 kilometers west of Porkkala, could

There were no military installations along the border to the Soviet Union in the Cold War period. Only the artillery forts along the west coast were operating (the Soviet Union felt that the west coast of Finland needed defending). It is possible to visit some of the former forts. They are nearly all located on small islands. Some are unfortunately only open to foreigners on special dates.

Some of the most relevant and accessible coastal forts are: Kuuskajaskari (www.kuuskajaskarininnake.fi), Katanpää (www.luotoon.fi, www.kustatvi.fi, www.nermec.kustavi.fi), Alskär (www.forum-marinum.fi), Jungfruskär (www.metsa.fi) and Utö (www.uto.fi).

Porkkala, Finland

be reached by artillery from the base, which was also referred to as *a pistol against Finland's head*.

The Soviet army left the area 12 years later. The period is also known as the Porkkala Parenthesis.

A military strategic location on the Gulf of Finland

The main objective of the occupation of Porkkala was to block the Gulf of Finland at its narrowest point between Finland and Estonia, a distance of only 36 kilometers. There were naval bases and strong artillery on both sides. A fort was also located south of Porkkala on the island Makilo (not accessible today).

The plan to secure the Gulf of Finland and the entrance to Leningrad was an old one. Such a plan had already been decided following the Russian-Japanese war in 1905.

The evacuation of Porkkala's inhabitants in 1944

The area of Porkkala covers 42.5 square kilometers of land. It was shocking for the 7,000 residents to be given just nine days to leave, along with all their belongings and 8,000 animals, the potato and wheat crop and as much hay for the winter as possible. 20,000 people assisted the inhabitants with the evacuation.

At least 30,000 people from the Soviet Union moved into the area during the period of the lease, including 10,000 civilians. Soviet society in Porkkala was totally cut off from the rest of Finnish society.

Handed back to Finland in 1956

By 1955, the military importance of Porkkala had lessened due to new weapons and a new, strong center for the Soviet Navy in Kaliningrad. Furthermore, bilateral relations between Finland and the Soviet Union were now improved. Porkkala was therefore handed back to Finland in 1956. Most of the former inhabitants returned to their old homes, but also to the reconstruction of a completely dilapidated area.



An historical view from the south coast of Finland.

In the foreground, a grave from the Bronze Age. This shows that the coastal areas have been settled in decades. The coast has nearly always been an important route for goods and people.

One of the small islands that can be seen in the distance is the military fort of Makilo, from where it was possible to control the entrance to the Finnish Bay, together with artillery from the Estonian site.

In clear weather the Estonian side can sometimes also be made out, only 36 kilometers away.

The mutual connection between southern Finland and Estonia has always been a close one (by boat in summer and by horses over the ice in winter). The southern part of Finland and the northern part of Estonia used to more or less operate as one country, with trade in goods, close links between the populations (especially the fishermen), mixed marriages etc. After the Second World War this longstanding mutual link was completely cut off.

Fugitives from the Soviet Union. The only signs of life "from the other side" were fugitives from the Soviet Union who would sometimes pass by in small boats trying to reach Sweden. Finland was not a safe place for these people, as they were frequently sent back to the Soviet Union.



The map shows the Gulf of Finland and the strategic location of Porkkala on the narrowest point of the Gulf. Military installations were also located on the Estonian side of the Gulf, in Naissaar, opposite Porkkala. The Gulf formed the entrance to Leningrad and the Soviet naval base in Kronstadt. Note the strategic position of Karelia as a military buffer zone to Leningrad (St. Petersburg), the second largest city in the Soviet Union.

Finland

Traces of the Soviet Period in Porkkala

The Soviet Army built a large number of fortifications in the archipelago, along the border and in the open fields. Among the biggest constructions were a naval harbour, an airstrip and some military camps.

Not much remains from the Soviet period. Most of the military and other constructions, including equipment in the houses,

was demolished or taken by the soldiers as they left. Some left generally useless constructions behind, which were later demolished by the returning Finnish inhabitants.

The photos show some remaining traces. The staff at Degerby Igor Museum can tell you more about these, as well as their exact location.

Soviet propaganda at a former dairy building in Sjunby: "In model fashion we shall receive science and technology, improve the military and political strength, achieve new successes in the strengthening of the military discipline and organization. Be greeted, on the First of May".



After the withdrawal of the Soviet Army, most of the graves of the Soviet inhabitants were gathered together at a churchyard in Kolsarby.



Porkkala, Finland

The bunker is located immediately north of the main road, east of Degerby. A large division of between 1,500 and 2,000 troops was stationed in the area, with infrastructure including several bunkers, barracks for the soldiers, canteen, dwelling-houses, shops, cinema, prison, crematorium, infrastructure etc. All the bunkers were blown up and covered over by the withdrawing Soviet forces. The partly excavated anti-tank artillery bunker gives an impression of size and structure.

All the other buildings from the military camp were demolished, with the exception of the canteen, later used as a cowshed (today restored and still in use on a farm).



Triumphal arch for the Haubitze regiment located in Kabonovintie. The headquarters of the regiment was probably located near the arch. The fine stone road nearby, the Kabanov Road, was built for artillery and named after the last Soviet commander-in-chief of Porkkala.



Degerby Igor Museum



Both Lena (in the background) and Dorrit (in the foreground) were young girls deported from Porkkala when the Soviet base was established. Both of them returned after the occupation and now work as guides at Degerby Igor Museum.

In the foreground, a Russian "Ford" produced at a Ford factory sold to Russia by the United States in the 1930s.

Right: Igor was a Soviet prisoner of war during the Second World War. He was working on a Finnish farm. Nothing more is known about him. Before he left Finland he carved a small wooden doll for a little girl on the farm as a farewell gift. The wooden doll is today in the museum and Igor is the eponymous godfather of the museum.

Homecoming in 1956 to a dilapidated area.



Focus on the Soviet period

Degerby Igor Museum is an exciting small museum located in two old wooden buildings in the center of Degerby. The main building holds a small museum shop mainly selling local handicraft.

The museum focuses on the period of the Porkkala Parenthesis (1944-1956) when the area was leased to the Soviet Union. The museum owns many photos, maps and interesting effects from the time before, during and after the occupation.

The museum guides can answer a wide range of different questions: Why were there so many snakes in the Porkkala area in 1956? Why did birds not sing the first spring after the return? Why did the Soviet people paint almost everything blue?

Many other themes are handled in the museum, including that of the Soviet prisoners from the Continuation War, 1941-1944. Most of these prisoners were placed in the Finnish countryside to provide labour for the farms.



Degerby Igor Museum (Degerbyn Igor-museo)

Address: Furuborgsvägen 6, Degerby.

Website: www.degerby.fi

Opening hours:

During the summer from June 3 to August 16: Tuesday-Saturday: 11:00-16:00 and always by agreement: igor@degerby.fi or tel. +358 (0)40-541 8526.

In wintertime: Saturdays 12:00-16:00 and always by agreement.

Guided tours: Tours can be arranged in English and German.

Degerby, Finland



Dorrit Krook tells of her life before and after the occupation.

Dorrit Krook tells school children at Degerby Igor Museum about when she had to leave Porkkala in 1946. The inhabitants had nine days to leave their homes, and nowhere to go.

Strong feelings dominated the eight-year-old Dorrit but there was no time “to think and grieve”.

Her biggest worry was her small cemetery for dead birds and other small animals in the garden. Who would take care of this now? She later realised that this was also a problem for the adults in terms of leaving the “real” cemetery. There was good reason for these worries: most of the tombstones from the cemeteries were later used as building materials by the Soviet army.

Dorrit remembers clearly how busy they were in the days before the move. Many volunteers, soldiers and women from the Voluntary Army Corps came with cars and trains from Helsinki

to help with the packing, the potato harvest and the haymaking. The roads were soon filled day and night with queues of overcrowded cars and horse wagons leaving the area.

Dorrit’s father was stationmaster in Solberg and he quickly found a new job. The move was both exciting and sad for the little girl: all the new experiences but, at the same, the loss of a well-known and secure childhood.

And then a miracle happened! The Red Army withdrew from the area after 12 years and not the planned 50.

The family returned home to a dilapidated area with houses destroyed, gardens and fields overgrown.

Today the area is no different from any other Finnish area. Only a few traces of the occupation period remain and, in the words of Dorrit: “New children are creating their own memories”.

There are three museums in the Porkkala area with exhibitions on the Soviet era. Sarfvik Manor Museum, Sarfvik, Ragvalds Heritage Farm Museum, Kyrkslätt, and Degerby Igor Museum, Degerby.

Right: Ragvalds Heritage Farm Museum. Artefacts from the 19th century Ragvald farmstead, including a garden with herbs and other useful plants. There is an interesting exhibition on the Porkkala Parenthesis in a small wooden house (photo), the Villa of Elias, located west of the main house. The house was used by Soviet people during the Soviet Era. Russian newspapers are found as isolating materials. More information from www.kyrkslatt.fi.



Germany

East Germany or DDR, founded on the basis of the Soviet occupation zone

After the Second World War, Germany was divided into four military occupation zones, administrated by France, the United Kingdom, the United States and the Soviet Union. It was the intention that Germany should function as *one country*. This agreement was, however, unworkable in practice. The Allies represented two different systems: the *Western democratic system* and the *Soviet Communist system*.

The Soviet zone ended up becoming *East Germany* or *DDR*, *Deutsche Demokratische Republik*, and the other three zones *West Germany* or *BRD*, *Bundesrepublik Deutschland*.

The *Socialist Unity Party (SED)* won the elections in the Soviet occupation zone in 1946 with the help of the powerful Soviet authorities. DDR was declared in 1949. The Communist regime nationalized all industry and property. Some other political parties were permitted but the Communist party held all power.

Member of the Warsaw Pact. Strong armed forces and an extensive secret police

East Germany was a member of the *Warsaw Pact*, the military-treaty organization of Communist states in Eastern Europe. West Germany was member of *NATO*, the Western counterpart to the Warsaw Pact. East Germany had its own army, considered to be the most advanced among the Warsaw Pact countries given that it was at the Cold War frontline.

The regime was supported by a strong and extensive secret police, the *Ministry of State Security*, popularly known as the *Stasi*. It considered itself to be the “shield and sword of the (Communist) party” and its main task was to eliminate “the class enemy”.

The exodus from East to West

From the end of the Second World War on, a large number of East Germans fled to the West due to political oppression and poor living standards. In the mid-1950s, the border was more or less closed between East and West Germany, but Berlin was given special status as the former capital of Germany and was divided in four zones. Here it was still possible to cross the border until 1961, when the *Berlin Wall* was built. It is estimated that 4 million people fled East Germany between 1945 and 1990.

A bloody 1953 uprising was suppressed by military force

The most critical protest against the Communist regime came with the uprising of 1953. It started among Berlin workers because of economic and social problems. The protests spread until there were more than a million people on strike and demonstrating in 500 towns and villages. The uprising was violently suppressed by

Soviet troops together with East German army forces and police. Fifty people were killed and more than 10,000 were arrested.

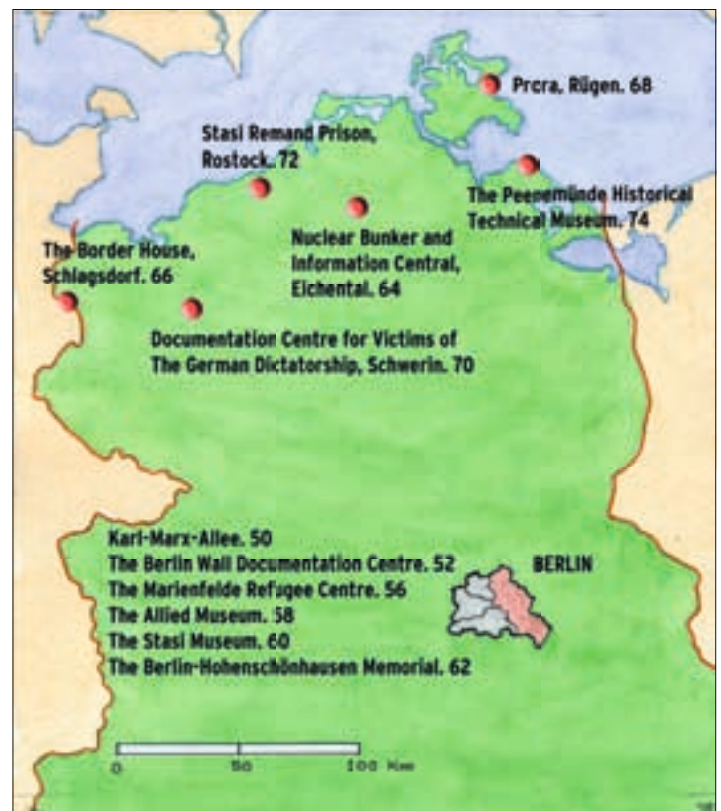
The end of the Communist regime

Various economic and political circumstances were to change the situation in the East German state radically, including:

- The continuing decline in the East German economy since the end of the 1970s.
- The policies of *perestroika* (openness in the society) and *glasnost* (reconstruction of the society) introduced by *Mikhail Gorbachev*, the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, in the mid-1980s.
- A strong and increasing dissatisfaction with the Communist regime and the economic and social conditions (which led to demonstrations at the end of the 1980s).

The historical turning point came when Hungary opened its border with Austria in August 1989. It was now easy for East Germans to go to the West. It was also clear that Communist East Germany was only able to continue to exist behind strong, secure borders and walls. The Berlin Wall thus fell on November 9, 1989.

The first free elections in 40 years gave only 16% of the vote to the former Communist party. The East German parliament (*Volkskammer*) decided in 1990 to join the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) and East Germany thus ceased to exist.





The East Side Gallery,
Muhlenstrasse, Berlin
centre. A 1.3 km-long section
of the Berlin Wall with
approximately 106 paintings
by artists from more than
20 countries. It is the world's
largest open air gallery. The
paintings were completed
between February and
September 1990. The wall
came down on November 9,
1989.
Restoration commenced in
2009.



Berlin

The agreement between the Second World War victors: One German country and one capital

Following the Second World War, the remaining national territory of Germany was divided into four military occupation zones administrated by France, the United Kingdom, the United States and the Soviet Union.

It was the intention, in the common agreement between the Allies that Germany should function as *one country without borders between the zones*.

It was also decided that Berlin, as the capital with all national administrative functions, would be separately divided into *four administrative zones* but that it should function as *one city*. Berlin was located in the middle of the Soviet zone. This would not be a problem as the Allies were able to move freely anywhere.

In practice: two countries and two Berlins

The agreement regarding *one Germany* and *one Berlin* could not function in practice because of two different systems: the *Western democratic system* and the *Soviet Communist system*.

It was immediately clear following the war that the Soviet Union had simply occupied the countries in which their army was present when the war finished. Former independent countries were annexed to the Soviet Union. By 1946 *Churchill* was already talking about “the iron curtain which lies across Europe”.

The result was that the Western zones formed the *Federal Republic of Germany (Bundesrepublik Deutschland)* while the Soviet zone formed the *German Democratic Republic (Deutsche Demokratische Republik)*. The countries were informally known as *West Germany* and *East Germany*, and similarly Berlin was known as *West Berlin* and *East Berlin*. East Germany chose East Berlin as its capital, while West Germany chose Bonn.

Battle ground of the Cold War. Historical events in Berlin

During the Cold War period, Berlin was the scene for several historical events, including:

- *The Berlin Blockade* (1948-49), a land-based blockade of West Berlin as a Soviet protest against Western efforts to integrate their zones into West Germany. The roads through the Soviet zone to Berlin were closed. The Allies responded with a massive airlift that delivered supplies to the two million inhabitants of West Berlin.
- *The uprising of 1953* in East Germany. A strike by East Berlin workers due to serious national economic and social problems. The uprising was violently suppressed in Berlin with the help of Soviet tanks.

- *The Berlin Crisis of 1961*. The Soviet Union wanted to change the wartime agreement on Berlin with the overall purpose of preventing the many refugees that were attempting to move from East to West Berlin. A Soviet ultimatum to withdraw Western troops from Berlin and have a “free and neutral city” was rejected. This culminated in 1961 with Soviet and U.S. tanks facing each other at Checkpoint Charlie. This was one of most serious Cold War crises, along with the Cuban Missile Crisis of 1962. All military alternatives were prepared by the Allies and the Soviet Union, including the use of nuclear weapons.
 - The construction of the *Berlin Wall* (1961), which encircled the Western zones, was part of the Berlin Crisis in 1961. The wall was constructed physically to stop the hundreds of thousands of fugitives that were fleeing each year from the eastern to the western sector. Many people died in the ensuing years, trying to get across the fortified wall area.
 - U.S. President *John F Kennedy’s* “Ich bin ein Berliner” speech in 1963.
 - U.S. President *Ronald Reagan’s* “Mr. Gorbachev, tear down this wall” speech in 1980.
 - *The collapse of the Berlin Wall* on November 9, 1989.
- In 1990, after the collapse of the Soviet Union, East and West Germany were reunified as the *Federal Republic of Germany*, with Berlin as its capital.

Berlin has the most protected Cold War memorial sites in the world, as well as museums focusing on Cold War history. Only five museums are described but they are museums that focus on important Cold War themes:

- The Berlin Wall (The Berlin Wall Documentation Centre)
- The Communist repression (The Berlin-Hohenschönhausen Memorial and the STASI Museum)
- Allied activities in Berlin (Allied Museum)
- The fugitives from East to West (The Marienfelde Refugee Centre Memorial).

Germany



Karl-Marx-Allee



Karl-Marx-Allee. Café Sibylle

Karl-Marx-Allee stretches from Alexanderplatz to Frankfurter Tor. The cafe and cultural centre Sibylle, on the boulevard, has a permanent exhibition on the street's history. The cafe also functions as an educational and training centre for young people.

Address: Karl-Marx-Allee 72.

Website: www.karlmarxallee.eu

Opening hours: 10:00-20:00.

Guided tours: Tours are arranged for example a tour to the roof with a view of the Allee.



An international memorial to Communist architecture and town planning in former East Berlin

This 2.3-kilometre-long and more than 100-metre-wide *Karl-Marx-Allee* was built in Communist East Berlin between 1952 and 1960. It is today an historical and architectonic memorial to, and attraction from, the Communist era. Its architecture was borrowed from the Soviet model and supplemented by architectural elements of regional building traditions, especially elements of the Prussian classicism. Karl-Marx-Allee can be described as “new German architecture of national traditions” created by DDR.

The first name of the boulevard was *Grosse Frankfurter Strasse*. In 1949 it was renamed *Stalinale* as a gift to the Soviet leader *Stalin* on his 70th birthday. In 1961, five years after the official condemnation of Stalin, the boulevard was again renamed, this time to its current name, Karl-Marx-Allee, after the Communist philosopher *Karl Marx*.

An exhibition about the street can be visited in the *Café Sibylle*, originally a dairy. The cafe is run as an educational and training centre for young people.

From the boulevard's history

During the Second World War, Berlin was almost completely destroyed. The basic clean-up work was voluntarily undertaken, by hand, by some 2 million women. Karl-Marx-Allee was a flagship project and the most ambitious rebuilding project in East Berlin.

The apartments were of a high quality and with many modern facilities such as district heating, hot water, fitted cupboards, tiled bathrooms, waste chutes, door phones, lifts and bathtubs.

The ground floors of the residential buildings were dressed with classical details. The bases were clad with stone.

The area comprised all kinds of facilities such as shops, restaurants, cinema, hotel, schools, high school and public offices. Some speciality shops never opened for lack of goods.

Karl-Marx-Allee was a focal point of the 1953 uprising. Construction workers began to strike and demonstrate due to national and socio-economic problems, gradually leading to a national uprising. There were also demands for political freedom and, as such, they represented a serious danger to the Communist state. The uprising was violently suppressed with the help of Soviet troops, and at least 125 people were killed.

The boulevard was later used for the May Day military parades.

Berlin, Germany



Publicity photo from Karl-Marx-Allee, 1956. The view from the roof of the “Children’s House”.

Some buildings that stand out from the rest of the architecture in Karl-Marx-Allee. The cinema “Kino International” from 1963 (left) and the “Café Moscou” from 1964 (right). Both buildings are examples of highly significant architecture. The “Café Moscou” is

an open and light building with many glass panels, not without inspiration from Western architecture of the same period. The “Kino International” has an interesting functional architecture and the original interior is still intact.



The Berlin Wall Documentation Centre

The Berlin Wall. An obstacle to the flood of refugees from East to West Berlin

The Berlin Wall Documentation Centre consists of several buildings and areas:

- The *Berlin Wall Visitor Centre* (Bernauer Strasse 119)
- The *Berlin Wall Documentation Centre* (Bernauer Strasse 111)
- The *Chapel of Reconciliation* and remains of the former *Church of the Reconciliation*.
- A protected part of the *Berlin Wall Death Strip Area* with:
 - The *Berlin Wall Memorial* (with the remains of the Berlin Wall and a watch tower).
 - Open air exhibitions.
 - Remains of the wall and archaeological excavations showing the remains of buildings from before the building of the wall.

The Berlin Wall Documentation Centre (Bernauer Strasse 111) provides general background information on the historical and political situation and more detailed information on the Berlin Wall itself. The centre has an excellent viewing tower with panoramas over the Berlin Wall Memorial.

It was in Bernauer Strasse in 1961 that the famous photo was taken of *Conrad Shuman*, an armed policeman (Volkspolizist) who jumped over the barbed wire and into the Western zone. It was also in this street in 1962 and 1964 that two famous mass escapes took place through two tunnels 120 and 143 metres long respectively.

The Berlin Wall Visitor Centre, Bernauer Strasse 119 (on the corner of Bernauer Strasse and Garten Strasse, opposite the Nordbahnhof S-station).



The Berlin Wall. An obstacle to the flood of refugees from East to West Berlin.

The Berlin Wall encircled the Western zone along a length of 155 km. Construction began in 1961 in order to stop the exodus of refugees that were each year fleeing from East to West. It started with a wire fence and was followed by a 1.80 m high wall. It ended in a sophisticated security area with two parallel concrete walls and, in between, a *No Man's Land* also known as the *Death Strip*. The tops of the walls were lined with a smooth pipe and mesh fencing, signal fencing, anti-vehicle trenches, barbed wire, "fakir beds" under balconies hanging over the Death Strip etc. etc. – and more than 116 watchtowers and 20 bunkers. The Death Strip was also patrolled by dogs.

Around 5,000 refugees managed to escape across the heavily fortified wall area (including 574 border guards). It is estimated that more than 200 people were killed trying to escape following the wall's construction.

On November 9, 1989, the East German government announced that all East German citizens could now visit West Germany and West Berlin without special permission. Crowds of East Germans immediately crossed to the West. They met West Germans in a highly emotional atmosphere.

The Berlin Wall Documentation Centre

(Dokumentationszentrum Berliner Mauer).

Addresses: The Visitor Centre, Bernauer Strasse 119.
The Documentation Centre, Bernauer Strasse 111.

Website: www.stiftung-berliner-mauer.de

Opening hours: April-October: 9:30-19:00. November-March: 9:30-18:00. Closed Mondays.

Guided tours: Can be arranged around the former border zone on Saturdays and Sundays. Also themed tours and bicycle tours. Private tours can be arranged by appointment. The themes of the guided tours are:

- Berlin Wall Memorial Ensemble/Bernauer Strasse after the Wall was built.
- Berlin Wall biking tour along the former border.
- Tunnel escapes at Bernauer Strasse
- Memorial sites at Bernauer Strasse.

For times and languages, see the website.

Berlin, Germany

Bernauer Strasse 1961. 77-year-old East Berliner Frieda Schulze escaping out of her apartment window to the western part of the city. The West Berlin fire brigade is standing by with a rescue net underneath the window. East German party members are trying to pull her back – a West German man is trying to pull her down. The escape succeeded.

Bottom left: The Berlin Wall Documentation Centre with viewing tower, Bernauer Strasse 111.

Bottom, right: The Berlin Wall Memorial includes remains of the Berlin Wall and a watch tower – or, more correctly, two parallel and original segments of wall with the former security area, the Death Strip, in the middle.

Construction of the Berlin Wall developed over a number of years: from a small single wall with barbed wire on the top to a comprehensive security area comprising two walls. The two high steel walls, built at the end of the stone walls, have nothing to do with the original Berlin Wall but were built later as an artificial part of the memorial.



The Berlin Wall Documentation Centre



Left, top: The blowing up of the tower of the Church of the Reconciliation in 1985 (built in 1894).

The existing Chapel of Reconciliation was built in 2000 on the foundations of the old church. The Church of the Reconciliation was situated, from 1961 onwards, in the Death Strip of the Berlin Wall and therefore inaccessible to the church community. The church became a symbol of the division of Germany and of Europe.

The chancel of the original church has been rearranged in the construction of the new chapel but the outline of the old church can still be seen.



Left, middle: The original church bell from the destroyed Reconciliation Church today hangs from a specially-built scaffold at the entrance to the chapel. The basement stairway of the former church has also been excavated and can be seen through the glass plate in front of the altar.

Bottom left: From the inside of the Chapel of Reconciliation.

Opposite page: From the exhibitions and memorials in the Death Strip area.

Top, left: Archaeological excavations showing construction remains from before the building of the wall.

Top, right: A model of Bernauer Strasse and the surrounding town area.

Middle: A memorial for the victims of the wall.

Bottom: One of the outdoor exhibitions.

From the exhibition in the Documentation Centre.



Berlin, Germany



The Marienfelde Refugee Centre Memorial

The arrival site of 1.35 million East German refugees

Roughly 4 million refugees left East Germany between 1949 and 1990. 1.35 million of these passed through what is now the *Marienfelde Refugee Centre Memorial* in Berlin – the reception centre in the West and also known as the “door to freedom”. Here, the people were greeted with food, shelter, medicine and all necessary personal papers for a West German inhabitant after successfully completing the application process.

In 1953, when the Marienfelde Refugee Centre opened, more than 305,000 refugees arrived in West Berlin. This exodus was a tremendous challenge for the Communist government in East Germany and it was noted that each refugee was “voting by foot”. The escape movement was the reason for building the Berlin Wall in 1961.

The Marienfelde Refugee Centre Memorial has a permanent exhibition and a reconstructed apartment for refugees. The exhibition deals with themes such as: Reasons for Leaving, Ways to the West, The Refugee Centre, Arrival in the West and The Artistic Perspective.

From a small stream of refugees in 1945 to an exodus before the wall was built

In the years following the Second World War, the people of Berlin could move freely between the sectors. Many people living in the Soviet sector were working in the Allied sectors. Families, living in different zones, could visit each other without restriction.

Even before the founding of two separate states – East and West Germany – many inhabitants from the Soviet zone had

begun to leave their homes with the intention of settling in the western part of Germany. What started with a small-scale stream of refugees in 1945 turned into a flood when it was clear that the Communist regime had completely taken over power in the whole Soviet-administrated area. The border between the two German states was closed to free access in 1952 but not the borders between the sectors in Berlin - an open city according to the agreement of the wartime Allies. In the ensuing years Berlin thus became the main route for refugees to the West.

The processing of the refugees

The number of refugees posed tremendous and serious problems to the administration in West Berlin. The refugees immediately had to be housed, fed, treated at medical facilities etc. They would not stay in the centre long.

On just one day in August 1961, a record number of 2576 refugees came to the centre. 500 staff was engaged in the processing, which took a minimum of 14 days.

The process also involved screening by the Allies, who were particularly interested in people who had been engaged in the military, in the intelligence agency, the police etc. They came under special security protection because of their positions. People with unbelievable stories or strange behaviour were also investigated by intelligence specialists.

After the collapse of the Soviet Union, the centre has been used by ethnic Germans from former Soviet countries. They had arrived since 1964. The *Berlin Central Reception Centre for Repatriates* will be closed at the end of 2010.



The Marienfelde Refugee Centre Memorial

(Erinnerungsstätte Notaufnahmelager Marienfelde)

Address: Marienfelder Allee 66-80.

Website: www.notaufnahmelager-berlin.de

Opening hours: Tuesday-Sunday: 10:00-18:00.

Guided tours: Wednesday and Sunday at 15:00. Private tours can be arranged by appointment. See the website.

Hans-Dieter Dubrow and his wife fled from East Germany in 1953. Their suitcase stands in front of the Refugee Centre as a memorial.

Berlin, Germany



From the exhibition.



Reconstructed apartment for refugees, complete with original furniture from the 1950s.



The Allied Museum

The history of the Western military forces in Berlin

The museum is dedicated to the Western forces from France, the United Kingdom and the United States. It tells the story of the Allied forces in the military occupation zones in Germany, and especially Berlin, from 1945 to 1994.

The museum is located in the former Outpost movie theatre (now an historical monument) and a US library. *The Supreme Command of the Allied Forces* and the *US military administration* was stationed on the other side of Clayallee.

Two of the most interesting exhibits concern the *Berlin Blockade* and the *Berlin Spy Tunnel*.

Between the museum buildings is an open air exhibition with:

- The last control house of Check Point Charlie (one of the border crossings between East and West Berlin).
- A British Hastings airplane from the airlift during the Berlin Blockade (1948-49)
- A part of the Berlin Wall and a watchtower.

The Allied Museum (Alliierten Museum)

Address: Clayallee 135, Berlin-Zehlendorf.

Website: www.alliiertenmuseum.de

Opening hours: 10:00-18:00.

Wednesday closed.

Guided tours: Can be arranged in English and French.
Booking required.

Left: A child's drawing from the museum. Some pilots threw sweets attached to small parachutes out of the cabins before landing – hence the name “raisin bombers”.

Right: A flight landing at the Tempelhof Airfield with daily food. Many West Berliners are watching.



The Berlin Blockade. The first major international crisis of the Cold War

The *Berlin Blockade* (1948-49) was a land-based blockade of West Berlin as a Soviet protests against Western efforts to integrate their zones of occupation into West Germany for example the introduction of the Deutschmark and the founding of a common government for all Western Allied sectors. All roads and surface connections through the Soviet zone to Berlin were closed.

The Allies responded immediately with a *massive airlift* that delivered supplies to the two million inhabitants of West Berlin. It was the biggest transport mission in history. The right to use the Air Corridors was stated in the Allied agreement.

Mainly the United States Air Force and Royal Air Force, fulfilled over 200,000 operations that provided 13,000 tons of food daily. Transport aircraft landed every 90 seconds with goods. The success of the Airlift was humiliating to the Soviet Union, who had claimed it would never work. The blockade was thus lifted one year after it commenced.



Berlin, Germany



A segment of the Berlin Spy Tunnel at the exhibition.

The Berlin Spy Tunnel. Probably one of the most audacious and sensational espionage activities of the Cold War

In 1954, the *American CIA* and the *British Secret Intelligence Service* dug a tunnel from the American sector into the Soviet zone. At the end of the tunnel they tapped into important Soviet telegraph and telephone cables over which the *Red Army command* was communicating with Moscow, the Soviet Embassy in Berlin and Soviet forces in East Germany, as well as communications between East German and Soviet officials.

The overall objective was to obtain an early warning of any Soviet attack. The political and military situation was insecure at this time, not least in Berlin. (The Berlin Blockade in 1948-49 and The Uprising of 1953 in East Germany).

A segment of the tunnel can be seen at the museum

A seven meter long segment of the tunnel can today be seen at the museum.

The tunnel was 450 meters long, with a diameter of 2 meters and constructed 6 meters underground. It ended in a special tap chamber. The 3000 tons of earth from the excavation were stored in the large basement of the warehouse, built together with a “radar station” over the tunnel entrance. The tunnel had an obvious technical ingenuity and was a major feat of engineering.

Huge amount of information

The listening took place over the course of nearly a year, and during this time around half a million calls were tapped from 1200 telephone lines. It was in itself an unmanageable amount



Salvaging the segment of the tunnel in June 2005.

of information. Around 650 analysts and translators (mainly Soviet emigrants and refugees) were engaged in London and Washington. 368,000 Soviet and 17,000 German language conversations were translated from 25 tons of tapes. The Allies obtained knowledge of battle strategies, political relations and names and knowledge of personalities from the Soviet nuclear program and top Red Army officers. Much information was mere gossip, such as the fact that the wife of a Soviet General was smuggling rugs.

The KGB knew about the tunnel since its inception

George Blake, a high-level spy in the *British Intelligence Service*, told the secret Soviet police, *KGB*, about the tunnel even before construction had begun. There are different theories about how the KGB used this information: one theory is that they decided not to do anything because they were afraid of compromising Blake and losing a high-level agent. They did not therefore inform the Soviet users of the cable lines. Another theory is that key people knew about the taping and therefore only sent useless or false information.

The Soviets “discovered” the tunnel in 1956. Blake was disclosed as a spy and arrested in 1961.

The Allies thought that the Soviets would be too embarrassed to go public but they held a big press conference and the tunnel was called “a gangster act”, “imperialist aggression” and “a breach of the norms of international law”. American newspapers wrote that it was a “wonderful tunnel” and “the best publicity the U.S. has had in Berlin for a long time” and that they had not realised that the CIA “were that smart”.

The Stasi Museum

The most extensive society infiltration in world history

The *Stasi* was the popularly name of the secret police of East Germany. The name comes from *State Security* or, in German, *Staatssicherheit*. The motto of the Stasi was: “shield and sword of the party”, showing the connection to the Communist leading party. The main task of the Stasi was to find and eliminate enemies of the state or “the class enemy”.

The Stasi employed a total of 274,000 people over the period 1950-89. In addition to this, it is estimated that it had 500,000 informers. A former Stasi officer estimated that in all 2 million people were involved, if occasional informants were also included. It was probably the largest number of secret police and informers per inhabitant ever, in any country, and the most extensive society infiltration in world history.

Officers were posted in all major industrial plants and watchdogs in all apartment buildings, schools, universities,

hospitals and several other public institutions. Mail was checked, telephones tapped and millions of files established about suspicious individuals (not much was needed to classify a person as “suspicious”).

The Stasi was also operating in foreign countries, especially West Germany. The most well known spy was *Günther Guillaume*, who became secretary to the West German Chancellor *Willy Brandt*, and the main reason for Brandt’s downfall.

The Stasi used kidnappings, assassinations, torture and executions against their enemies. The executions were carried out in secret, by a guillotine or a pistol shot in the neck.

On January 15, 1990, after the fall of the Berlin Wall, a large crowd of protesters gained entry to the head quarter of the hated secret police and smashed windows, destroyed furniture and trampled portraits of Communist leaders.

The Stasi Museum. Research site and memorial

Normannenstrasse (Forschungs- und Gedenkstätte Normannenstraße)

Address: Ruschestraße 103, Haus 1.

Website: www.stasimuseum.de

Opening hours: Monday-Friday: 11:00-18:00. Saturday and Sunday: 14:00-18:00.

Guided tours: Are arranged for groups, also outside opening hours. Booking required. Also possible to book special lectures in 1-2 hours (Themes such as: Youth in the GDR (East Germany) and their relation to the system, Suppression and resistance in the GDR or the Stasi’s work in West Germany). See the website.

The museum. The former headquarter of Stasi

The Stasi Museum is located in the former headquarter of the *Ministry of State Security*, known as the Stasi.

The exhibition deals with many themes:

- The operational technology of the Stasi, such as different kinds of hidden and camouflaged cameras, bugging devices and weapons.
- Traditional Stasi work, such as political-ideological and educational work and cooperation with other organizations like the East German police and Russian secret police, the *KGB*.
- The resistance and opposition groups in East Germany and the great harshness with which the Communist system treated these groups
- The last years and the final events that took place before and after the fall of the Wall.



Berlin, Germany



Left: A graphic illustration of a person's character. Prepared by the Stasi. Statements read: "inconsequential in political and ideological teaching", "unstable and cowardly person", "petit bourgeois prejudices", "Ignores critics", "Immoral", "lacking in leadership", "inadequate control".

Right: A camera camouflaged as a bunch of keys.



A special piece of cloth was placed on chairs when people were interrogated. The cloth was afterwards put in a jar. The personal smell on the cloth could then later be used if they needed to search for that person with help by dogs.

Opposite page right: The desk of Erich Mielche, the Minister of State Security from 1957 until 1989. The office is in almost its original condition, with 1960's furniture: main and staff offices, private area of the Minister, conference room and canteen.

Erik Mielke (1907-2000), Minister of State Security from 1957 to 1989. A hard-line Stalinist with rank of Army General (Armeegeneral). In 1993 he was convicted of the murders of two police officers in 1931.



The Stasi was active in kidnappings in West Berlin. The West Berlin lawyer, Walter Linse, worked in an organization providing legal help to political persecuted East Germans. He was kidnapped by the Stasi in West Berlin in 1952 and executed in Moscow the following year. The photos were taken before the kidnapping and after the Stasi interrogation.



The Berlin-Hohenschönhausen Memorial

Remand prison of the Stasi and the history of political persecution

This memorial was the former remand prison for the *Ministry of State Security, MfS*, but popularly known as the *Stasi*, mainly for opponents of the Communist regime. The building consists of more than 200 cells and investigation rooms. The memorial has as its official task “to explore the history of the Hohenschönhausen prison between 1945 and 1989, to inform with exhibitions, events and publications and inspire visitors to take a critical look at the methods and consequences of political persecution and suppression in the Communist dictatorship”.

The prison history

The building complex of the former prison is surrounded by a four meter high security wall with three watchtowers. The wall is topped with barbed wire and surveillance equipment.

Two of the buildings in the complex are today open for visitors:

- The large building in front of the entrance and the security gate, the old building, and
- The three-storey building behind, the new building.

Many of the guides are former prisoners. Here, Jürgen Breitbarth. In 1976 he was convicted to four months' imprisonment after being arrested for an aborted escape. He took part in the protests at the expatriation of Wolf Biermann in 1977. He was then detained again and had to spend 18 months in prison. Following his discharge, the Stasi forced him to decide whether to go to the West or to prison again. He decided to live in freedom.



The old building dates from 1939. It is a former catering centre in which winter food was prepared for the Berlin inhabitants during the Second World War.

In 1945, the Soviets established a transit camp, especially for Nazi suspects and opponents of the Soviet occupation policy. 20,000 people went through the camp and it is estimated that 3,000 of them died in horrible conditions of hunger, cold, torture and illness. The camp was disbanded in 1946. The cellar, with torture and isolation chambers, also called the submarine, was then used as the central Soviet remand centre for East Germany.

The Stasi took over in 1951 and continued to use the torture chambers. The new building was erected in 1961.

The people that were arrested and interrogated were then mainly critics of the regime and refugees suspected of trying to escape to the West. Only a few knew where they were being held and could not get any information on the term of imprisonment. Communication with other prisoners was prohibited. A counsel for the defence was unthinkable.

Around 40,000 people were imprisoned in Hohenschönhausen from 1945 to 1990.

The Berlin-Hohenschönhausen Memorial (Gedenkstätte Berlin-Hohenschönhausen)

Address: Genslerstrasse 66.

Website: www.stiftung-hsd.de

Opening hours and guided tours: It is only possible to view the prison complex on a guided tour. About tours and opening hours: See the Visitor's Service on the website. Public tours in English for individual visitors: every Saturday and Wednesday at 2 p.m.

Guided tours for non-German groups in English, French, Spanish, Italian, Danish and Norwegian, daily between 9am and 4pm and upon request. See the website.

Berlin, Germany



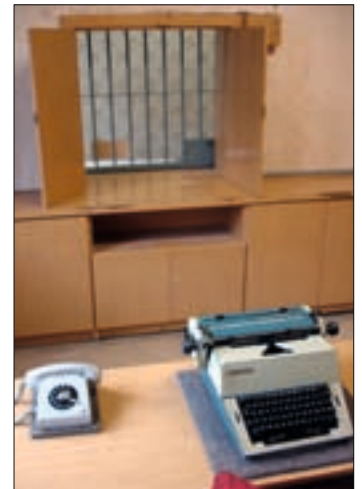
Left: The neighbourhood. Industries which used slave labour.

The area around the prison was developed as an industrial area at the beginning of 1900, mainly because of a railroad connection. Military production and Nazi activities were located here during the Second World War. The industries largely used prisoners of war and forced labourers living in two camps. The area and the railroad were bombed by the Allies several times.

After the end of the Second World War, the Soviet occupation forces established a heavily guarded closed area. Over the coming years, it was developed for "sensitive" industry and several state security activities, such as the remand prison. Forced labour was also used in the industries during the Soviet period. On maps the area was shown as a white and undeveloped area.

Today, some of the old industries can still be found in the area, with the same names, but now functioning in Western society.

Furthermore, many former Stasi employees are still living in the area.



Nuclear Bunker and Information Central



The bunker owner is **Götz Thomas Wentzel** who also undertook the difficult and extensive restoration work. He grew up in East Berlin and trained as a metal worker. He later studied production, archaeology and Egyptology. From 1982 on, he staged large-scale concerts and public events in East Germany. In 1984 he became an independent producer, organising events in the Palace of the Republic in East Berlin, among other places. In 2004 he took over the Eichenthal Nuclear Bunker. He has been interested in bunker archaeology since 1990 and has co-produced a film about the Berlin underground stations that went out of service after the fall of the Berlin Wall (the so-called "ghost" stations).

Finding the bunker. The possible exits (number 20 and 21) from the Rostock - Greifswald motorway are shown by arrows. The quadrate pinpoints the Bunker Eichenthal.



A cornerstone in the Soviet military information system

The bunker was a communications centre in the *Warsaw Pact's* extensive military information network (see opposite page).

The site's official military name was *Military Special Object 302. The Eichenthal Troposphere Radio Station*.

The bunker was constructed to withstand biological, chemical and nuclear attacks so that all necessary military information could still reach Moscow. It would even have been able to function following a nuclear attack just half a kilometre away (from a bomb 20 times stronger than that dropped on Hiroshima and emitting a temperature of 1,700 degrees).

A specially developed Soviet communications system could be put into effect if the traditional communications systems were destroyed. The bunker was connected, via deeply buried cables, to regional military installations such as the marine forces on the Baltic coast, rocket installations and other army centres.

The *Eichenthal Bunker* was the last large bunker installation built in East Germany. It was operational until 1987 and sealed in 1992.

It was taken over in 2004 by a private individual, *Götz Thomas Wenzel*. The bunker has been declared a historical monument.

The bunker is on two floors and covers a ground area of 900 square meters. It took 7 months to pump out the groundwater, which had reached a height of 2 meters. The entrance is via a 180-meter-long tunnel with locked chambers and doors weighing 3.5 tons each. All the existing engines and equipment have been restored: diesel motors for electricity production, air cleaning and climate installations, filters, pumps etc. Most are still functioning today despite many years submerged in cold water. Wenzel himself says, with a twinkle in his eye: "Because it is the finest quality from East Germany" (or in German: "Prima aus DDR").

Bunker Eichenthal

A dramatic re-enactment in the Command Room creates the illusion of a nuclear attack at the bunker. Supported by lights, tremors and noise (including commands in German and Russian), this is not advisable for pregnant women or people suffering from heart or other diseases.

Address: Eichenthaler Weg 7, Eichenthal. **Website:** www.bunker-eichenthal.de. **Opening hours:** April-October: Every day: 10:00-18:00. November-March: Booking required, see the website. **Guided tours:** Bunker visits are only possible by guided tour. Individual tours can be arranged. Tours in English: Booking required. Duration of tour: 45-60 minutes. The temperature in the bunker is 8-10 degrees so appropriate clothing is advised.

Eichental, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Germany

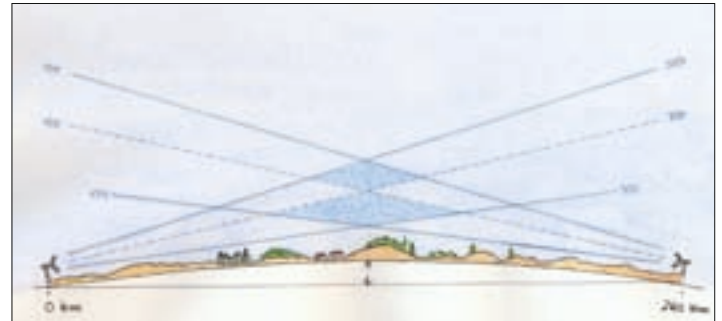
This sketch shows the Warsaw Pact's extensive military information system, also known as BARS (from the first letters of the Russian words: protection, autonomous, radio and system). The system consisted of a network of 26 bunkers with a distance of 180-200 km between them. The Eichental Troposphere Radio Station was given number 302 (top left on map).

The main axis ended in command units of the Soviet Army around Moscow. All centres were built to withstand nuclear, biological and chemical attacks and were among the most secret military installations in Eastern Europe.

Right middle: *The Troposphere Radio system was a special alternative Soviet communications system that could be used if other communications systems were put out of action by nuclear war. High-frequency electromagnetic waves were sent up into the troposphere from different centres. The waves would meet and communication could then be established. It was not possible to disturb this communications system in any mechanical or electrical way. Ash and dust in the troposphere from a nuclear attack would merely intensify the connection between the centres.*

Bottom right: *The entrance to the bunker is via a 180-meter-long tunnel with locked chambers and doors, each weighing 3.5 tons.*

From the flooded bunker before the restoration.



The Border House

The story of the border between East and West Germany

The border developed, over the years, from a simple fence to an extensive and sophisticated security area to prevent people fleeing from East to West.

This museum explains all aspects of the border and its history, such as:

- How the course of the local border was determined.
- A description of the extensive and secure border.
- Everyday life in the restricted zone.
- What happened when the border was opened in 1989?

The museum shows all kind of equipment related to border activities, as well as historical documents and photos.

Five minutes' walk from the museum is an open air exhibition with border installations rebuilt from original relics from the area, including a metal grid fence, a watchtower, a command point, an observation bunker, a runway for leashed dogs and a search light.

The restricted zone: the destruction of villages, forced migration and restrictions on the inhabitants

The establishment of a strong and secure border had widespread consequences for the local people. To ensure a clear view for the border guards, houses and whole villages were destroyed, including the local villages of Bardowieck, Neuhoof and Lankow. The inhabitants were deported to the hinterland.

“Unreliable” individuals were deported in 1951, including foreigners, stateless people, homosexuals, former SS-men and members of the Nazi party. This operation affected 8,369 people.

The inhabitants inside the restricted zone (of up to 5 km) were specially registered and had their movements restricted. Special permission was needed if somebody wanted to visit family or friends in the restricted zone.

The Border House, Schlagsdorf (Grenzhus Schlagsdorf)

Address: Neubauerweg 1, Schlagsdorf.

Website: www.grenzhus.de

Opening hours: Monday-Friday: 10:00-16:30. Saturday-Sunday: 10:00-18:00.

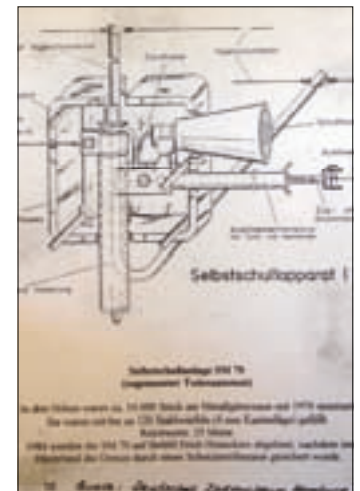
Guided tours: The museum can also be visited outside opening hours by appointment. Guided tours are possible and include information about life in the border area as well as in the former East Germany. Duration 1.5-2 hours.

Left: Different kinds of border equipment.

Middle left: The museum has a very illustrative model of the border from Travemünde to the Berlin-Hamburg motorway.

Middle right: From the open air exhibition.

Right: Self-shooting installation which was connected to the border fence (also called “The Automatic Dead Machine”).



The distance of the restricted zone between the actual border (1) and the entry point to the zone (21) was normally about 5 kilometres.

10. Concrete observation tower
11. Concrete observation tower
12. Concrete observation tower
13. Observation bunker
14. Light barrier
15. Information pillars
16. Runway for leashed dogs
17. Restricted zone fence with electrical and acoustic alarms (up to
3.2 meter high)
18. Concrete wall
19. Gateway in restricted zone fence, partially with additional
obstacles
- 20 Wires for barring
21. Entry control for restricted zone

Prora. Holiday Resort and Later Military Centre

The Colossus of Rügen

This huge building complex, *Prora on Rügen*, was built by the Nazis as a holiday resort. After the Second World War, the complex was used primarily by the East German and Soviet Armies.

It is also now known as the *Colossus of Rügen*. The complex consists of 8 large buildings, each with 6 floors. It is built on a bend in the coast, only 100 meters from the broad, sandy beach. It has a total length of 4.5 kilometres. It was planned to accommodate 20,000 guests in 8,000 rooms. Not all facilities were completed but the accommodation buildings still remain.

The origin of the name *Prora* is unknown but probably the name of a place in Rügen.

The Nazi leader *Robert Ley* was behind this project. He was the founder of the *Kraft durch Freude* or *Strength through Joy* movement. The work started in 1936 but stopped due to the outbreak of war in 1939 when resources had to be diverted elsewhere.

Polish prisoners of war were put on the roofs in 1940 to prevent it from being bombed.

Guest house “Walther Ulbricht” and many military functions

After the Second World War, the complex was used by fugitives and the Soviet army (mainly as a hospital). The East German military took over in 1952. The site became a centre for several East German regiments, some military schools, a military prison and, from 1956, also a holiday centre for soldiers, *Walther Ulbricht*. During the Cold War period it was a restricted area not shown on the official maps.

Following the breakup of the Soviet Union, the site lost its military functions and the whole complex was deserted. Today, many buildings are used for holiday purposes but the main part of the complex still lies empty and is generally in a very bad state.

The complex has been declared a protected monument and is now owned by private persons, associations and public authorities.

The Prora area is still a very well-visited holiday resort because of its outstanding beach. Ruins of the unfinished centre area can be seen in the background on the beach (in fact, the platform seen on the drawing on the opposite page below right, with the swastika flags).



Rügen, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Germany



Existing buildings. Some are being used as hotels and youth hostels but most of it is empty.



Aerial perspective of the whole project. (Gerda Rotermund, 1938. "Die neue Linie" periodical).

Some of the ruined buildings.



The architectural vision from the Nazi period.



Documentation Centre for Victims of the German Dictatorship

Two periods of dictatorship

The museum and centre are located in an imposing building on Demmlerplatz in the centre of Schwerin. During the last century, the building was home to many functions connected to justice administration or, more precisely, the lack of justice in the Nazi and Communist periods of dictatorship in Germany. The building accommodated the police administration, courts and a remand prison.

The prison has now been turned into a museum, with more than 100 cells on three levels. Some of the cells and other parts of the prison have been restored to their original state. It is also possible to visit the interrogation rooms and staff offices.

Gestapo, Stasi and KGB

Three secret police organizations operated from here:

- The *Gestapo* (The secret Nazi police: *Geheime Staatspolizei* or the *Secret State Police*).
- The *Stasi* (The secret East German police: *Ministerium für Statssicherheit* or the *Ministry of State Security*).

A sign in the museum clearly explains the former secret police activities and the ideology behind them:

- *First level, Gestapo activities: "Criminal law is the law of fighting!" Justice and terror in Mecklenburg 1933-1945.*
- *Second level, KGB and Soviet military court: "In the name of the Soviet Union!" Justice and occupation conditions in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern 1945-1949/53.*
- *Third level, Stasi activities: "The community is responsible for protection .." The Stasi and justice in the north of East Germany, 1949-1989.*



- The *KGB* (The secret Soviet police: *Komitet Gosudarstvennoj Besopasnosti* or the *Committee for State Security*).

During the Nazi period, the building housed special courts which, among other things, took decisions regarding compulsory sterilization, based on the Nazi race and euthanasia programs.

After the Second World War, it became the headquarters of the KGB and a Soviet military court. Thousands of people were held in the remand prison before being sentenced (often to death or to hard labour in the GULAG camps), among them many political prisoners who were against the Communist system.

In 1954 it became the headquarters of the regional administration of the Stasi and continued as a remand prison, particularly using psychological terror on the approximately 17,000 political prisoners who were interrogated here.

The building was occupied by demonstrators in 1989 following the breakdown of the Communist regime. Today the building is once again being used by the courts.

Documentation Centre for Victims of the German Dictatorship (Dokumentationszentrum des Landes für die Opfer der Diktaturen in Deutschland)

Address: Obotritenring 106, Schwerin. (Demmlerplatz is located opposite the building in Obotritenring Street).

Opening hours: Tuesday-Friday: 12:30-16:00.

Guided tours: Guided tours are possible also outside opening hours by appointment. Seminars and lectures can be arranged. Tel.: 0385 74529911. E-mail: dokuzentrum-schwerin@lpb.mv-regierung.de.

Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Germany

Former prisoners

Right: The drawing shows Friedel Pahl and was done by fellow prisoner, Charlotte Wagner, in the former Nazi concentration camp of Sachsenhausen.

Werner Schultz

Werner Schultz was an internationally recognized geologist, specializing in the quaternary period. He is an example of a person who was jailed purely on suspicion of a crime; there was no proof. He was involved in producing maps for a geological institution in East Germany and had professional connections with people in West Germany, meeting with colleagues from there a few times to discuss professional matters. After long and intensive surveillance, he was arrested by the secret police because he was classified as a person who was in "possession of secrets" and also had "contacts in the West". In 1979 he was sentenced to 3.5 years in prison for "treason in secret", with no explanation of what this meant. It was subsequently decided that his name and scientific results could no longer be referenced.

He was rehabilitated in 1993.



Friedel Pahl

Friedel Pahl was sentenced to 10 years for high treason, at the age of only 25. She is an example of what little was needed to obtain a conviction during the Communist regime. She came from a farming family in Niederschlesien. After the war, the area was transferred to Poland and the family was forced to move to Germany. The journey was traumatic for the young girl in particular she had to flee after discharge for forced labour by the Soviet authorities. She kept in contact with a friend from her birthplace and told them about the escape. The letter was intercepted and she was accused of treason and propaganda against the Soviet Union. She was sentenced to 10 years' hard labour in the former Nazi concentration camp of Sachsenhausen.



Arno Esch

The student Arno Esch was held at the remand prison. He was sentenced to death and executed in Moscow in 1951, only 23 years of age. He is an example of how people with a different political view were treated in the new state of East Germany once the Communist party had completely taken over in 1949 with the help of the Soviet authorities. In 1946 he began studying law in Rostock. He was engaged in founding a local branch of the Liberal Democratic Party, a fully legal party in the Soviet zone, and was elected to the chairmanship for his local area. In 1949 he was arrested for reasons of "state security" and convicted as a "traitor, spy and saboteur". Three other young men were also condemned to death in the same trial and ten others sentenced to 25 years in jail. Arno Esch was rehabilitated by a Soviet military court in 1991.

Stasi Remand Prison. Documentation and Memorial Museum

The “enemies of the working class”

More than 4,800 people, mostly political prisoners, were interrogated in the Rostock remand prison before being sentenced. The head of the *Stasi* in East Germany, *Erich Mielke* described the main task of the institution as an “important weapon in fighting the enemy of the working class”.

People were detained for:

- “Defamation of (Communist) party and state leaders”
 - “Subversive activities”, for making a political joke
 - “Enemy opposition”, protests against the invasion of Warsaw Pact troops into Czechoslovakia in 1968
 - “Illegal requests to emigrate” to West Germany or
 - For attempting to flee from the isolated East Germany”.
- (From the pamphlet “A walking tour”, *Documentation and Memorial Museum*, Rostock).

Stasi, activities and methods

The prison was built in the 1950s as a remand prison especially for the *Stasi*, the Rostock district administration of the *Ministry of State Security*.

The prison had 46 cells, most of them 7.5 square meters in size. In total there was room for 110 persons.

The prison was located so that, from the outside, people could not see the prison building or entrance. The cells had no windows, only glass bricks. It was part of the *Stasi*’s psychological terror not to let people know where they were being imprisoned.

The exhibition tells the history of the *Stasi* and its activities and methods. It is possible to visit the cells, the open air courtyard, and a cell for sick prisoners. On guided tours it is also possible to visit the dark cells in the basement, which were punishment cells without windows and often also without bed or chair. These were for people who broke the prison rules.



The entrance at the end of Grüner Weg. The brown building is the three-storey prison building.

From a cell block corridor.



Documentation and Memorial Museum, Rostock

(Dokumentations- und Gedenkstätte in der ehemaligen Untersuchungshaftanstalt des Staatssicherheitsdienstes).

Address: Hermannstrasse 34b (NB: the entrance is via Augustenstrasse and Grüner Weg. See the photo, right).

Opening hours: Tuesday-Friday: 10:00-18:00. Saturday: 10:00-17:00.

Guided tours: Are arranged on Wednesday at 15:30 and Saturday at 14:00. Group tours and tours in English upon request. Tel.: (0381) 498 56 51/52. E-mail: dug-rostock@bstu.de.

Rostock, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Germany



Shot in Moscow

Over the period 1950-1953, 927 Germans were sentenced to death in secret trials by a travelling *Soviet Military Tribunal*. Some of the victims were imprisoned in the Stasi remand prisons in Rostock and Schwerin.

All those who were executed were so-called “enemies of the State” and were sentenced to death on charges of “spying”, “anti-Soviet agitation and propaganda” and “illegal possession of guns”.

They came from both East and West Germany. In the early 1950s, this was easy, as the Allied forces could cross the borders between the military occupation zones. Some of the West Germans were simply kidnapped by the Stasi.

The victims came from all parts of German society, including workers, priests, farmers, policemen, schoolteachers, pupils,

students, pensioners and the self-employed.

Among the victims were 60 women and no less than 288 people aged between 17 and 28 years. Some were politically inactive, others were active and represented different political parties.

The military tribunal was especially interested in the politically active people, generally seen as “potential” enemies of the state no matter what they had done.

After the secret trials, those sentenced were imprisoned in Berlin-Lichtenberg and later transported to Moscow in disguised railway carriages. In Moscow they were executed at the Butyrka prison. Their bodies were burned at the crematorium at Donskoi Cemetery and their ashes buried in the so-called “mass grave number three”.

Right: Mass grave number three at Donskoi Cemetery, Moscow, where the ashes of those executed are buried. The white stone is the Memorial stone for the German victims.



The executions of nearly 1,000 Germans in Moscow is documented in the historical research project “Shot in Moscow ...”, published in 2005. This was the first time that the public found out about these executions, not least the families of the victims.

The project was supported by the Foundation for Examination of the Dictatorship in East Germany and conducted in co-operation with the Facts and Files Historical Research Institute, Berlin, and the human rights organization, Memorial International, Moscow.

The Peenemünde Historical Technical Museum



The former turbine hall in the power station.

Reproduction of a V1 rocket in the open air exhibition and a so-called Walter-Schleuder, a catapult to launch the rocket. 22,000 V1 and 3,000 V2 rockets were fired mainly against the United Kingdom. 8,000 people died in London by rocket attacks.



Modern rocket history. An international Memorial Site

The main focus of the centre is the development of German rockets during the Second World War but also the later extensive military and civil consequences of the Cold War period.

The main exhibition is housed in the former power station of the *Peenemünde Test Site*, internationally known as the site from where the V2 rockets were developed, tested and mass produced. The exhibition contains original rocket parts, models, documentary films and eye witness reports.

The extensive test site installations were built, and the rockets produced, by concentration camp inmates, slave labourers and prisoners of war.

A massive air attack from the Royal Air Force in August 1943 put a stop to mass production at Peenemünde, which was subsequently relocated to the Mittelbau-Dora concentration camp near the Harz mountains. 15-20,000 concentration camp inmates did not survive the hard work under dreadful conditions.

Relics from the rocket activity are spread out over the area and can be visited along a *signposted path* that leads from the museum to the surrounding sites. Ruined buildings and the remains of test plants, rocket store rooms and a concentration camp can all be seen.

Peenemuende played a role during the Cold War period. Both the Soviet Army and the East German Army used parts of the infrastructure of the former military research centre. After 1989/90 these structures were dissolved. The signs of the memorial path are also testimony to this period.

Around the power station there is an *open air exhibition* with:

- Reproduction V1 and V2 rockets,
- The restored Peenemünde works railway,
- A so-called Walter-Schleuder, a catapult to launch the V1.

The Peenemünde Historical Technical Museum (Historisch-Technisches Museum Peenemünde)

Address: Im Kraftwerk, Peenemünde.

Website: www.peenemuende.de

Opening hours: April-September: 10:00-18:00. October-March: 10:00-16:00. November-March: Closed on Mondays.

Guided tours: Guided tours can be arranged in English.

Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Germany



The main exhibition is located in the former coal-fired power station of the Peenemünde Test Site, one of the few remaining buildings at the site. The monumental building is an architectural masterpiece, well proportioned and with some imposing rooms

inside. It was built because of the energy-consuming rocket activities and had its own connected railroad and harbour facilities for coal transportation. The power station was restored after the war and operated until 1990. Left a so-called A4 rocket.

An 18 year old Wernher von Braun (right) with a dummy of a rocket. He became later one of the leading figures in the development of rocket technology. He was technical director of the rocket center at Peenemünde. After the Second World War he was head hunted to the United States and served later as director of the national space flight center. The rocket technology developed at Peenemünde provided the basis for later military and civil missile technology.



Iceland



This 1986 map shows the Iceland Military Air Defence Identification Zone with the ground radar coverage in Greenland, Iceland, the Faeroe Islands, Scotland and Norway. The black spot north of Iceland shows additional coverage based on an Iceland based AWACS aircraft.

The red spot shows the location of Kola Peninsula, the centre of the Soviet Northern Fleet. It was the starting point of most Soviet navy and air force activities in the North Atlantic which can be described as a Soviet military main route to the south.



A cornerstone for NATO activities in the North Atlantic

Iceland played an important role in both the Second World War and the Cold War period because of the strategic location in the North Atlantic. *Winston Churchill* referred to Iceland as an “unsinkable aircraft carrier available to protect North Atlantic shipping”.

In the Second World War the main task of the forces in Iceland was to protect the convoys from United States to Europe, among these the ice free route north of Norway to Murmansk at the Kola Peninsula in the Soviet Union. In the Cold War period Iceland was a geographical cornerstone in the NATO surveillance of the Soviet Northern Fleet in the North Atlantic. See the map below.

Military co-operation with United States. Membership of NATO

Iceland was occupied by British troops in 1940 to stave off the German activities in the Atlantic. The Icelandic government protested because of the country's neutrality, but already in 1941 the Iceland's defense passed to the United States under a defense agreement.

Iceland was declared a republic in 1944 after having been in a crown union with Denmark since independence in 1918.

In 1946 it was decided to terminate the United States' responsibility for the defense of Iceland, but with the right for the United States to maintain *Keflavik International Airport* as an air transit base in support of occupational forces in Europe.

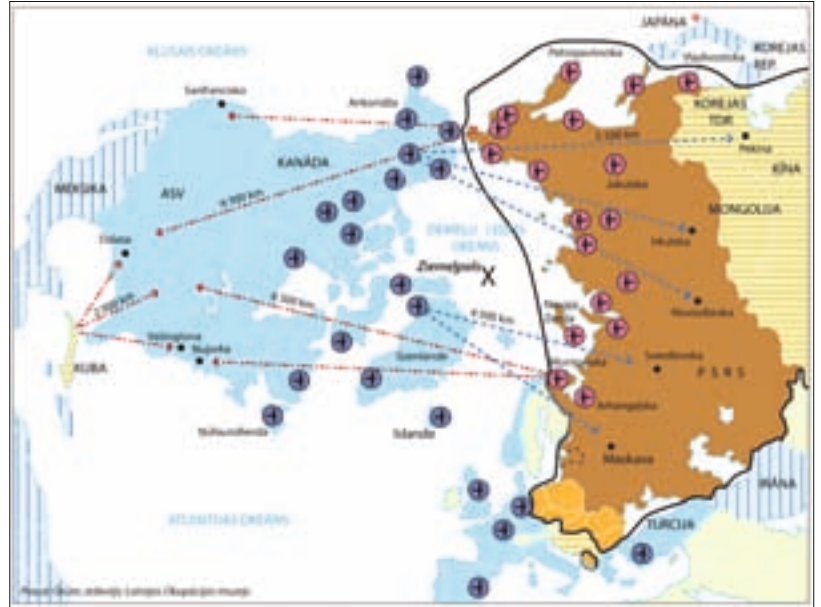
In 1949 Iceland became a charter member of NATO. (*North Atlantic Treaty Organization*). The organization constitutes a system of collective defence whereby its member states agree to mutual defence in response to an attack by any external party.

After the Korean War in 1950 and the following unstable international political situation the US and Iceland agreed that the defense of Iceland came under the auspices of NATO. The returning US military forces were named the *Iceland Defense Force*. Iceland was now seen as an important strategic location for the defense of Western Europe. Over the next five decades, until 2006, the Defense Force played an important and significant role in the security of the North Atlantic.

Iceland

Signatures:

- The black line shows “The Iron Curtain”, 1946-1990.
- The light blue and the light yellow show the NATO Member States and the US Allies.
- The brown, light brown and the yellow (with lines) show the Warsaw Pact Member States and other Communist States.
- The pink dots show the Air Force Bases of the Soviet Union.
- The violet dots show the Air Force Base of the USA.
- The dotted lines show the distances to targets of US missiles and the targets of Soviet Union missiles, 1960.



Locations of United State and Soviet air bases around the militarily important North Pole region and the North Atlantic. It shows Iceland's strategic location and also some of the distances from the bases to the main targets.

Note Cuba on the left of the map. Its location near the United States was the cause of the so-called Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962 when the Cuban and Soviet governments tried to build bases for nuclear missiles in Cuba. The U.S. pressed the Soviet Union to abandon the bases. (Map from the Museum of the Occupation of Latvia 1940-91).

In the 1960's there was a considerable increase in Soviet military activities in the North Atlantic. An American "Phantom" jet is here "escorting" a Soviet bomber through the Iceland Military Air Defence Identification Zone. More than 3000 Soviet aircraft were indentified and escorted by American pilots in Iceland between 1962 and 1991.



A greeting from the tail gunner in a Soviet so-called "Bear" Bomber in the Iceland Military Air Identification Zone.



The Keflavik Airbase

The military centre in Iceland

The centre of United States and NATO activities in Iceland was *Keflavik Airport* located 50 kilometres south-west from the capital Reykjavik. The base was founded in 1942. It was one of the biggest in the world during Second World War and served as Iceland's main international airport from 1946.

In the Cold War the main task was the surveillance of the Soviet military operations in the North Atlantic and the security of Icelandic territory.

The tasks were focused on the military traffic from the center of the Soviet Northern Fleet on the Kola Peninsula by the ice free Barents Sea. This area had several Soviet naval bases and "closed military towns". There is only 150 km from the Norwegian border to Murmansk, the biggest town on the peninsula and the destination town for the American convoys to the Soviet Union in Second World War.

NATO operations in the North Atlantic during the Cold War period changed in structure and force depending on the military and political situation and the extent of Soviet forces and activities.

The Iceland Defense Force played a major role in the following military activities:

- In the 1950's the base was prepared for refueling jet bombers before very long range bombers like the B-52 could operate directly from bases in United States.

- An important task from early 1960's was the surveillance of Soviet long range submarines with nuclear missiles.
- After the Cuba crisis in 1962, Soviet aircrafts with long range started to operate intensively in the North Atlantic area. Tracking and intercepting these flights became a routine operation for the U.S. Air Force in Iceland.

The U.S. military left the airbase in 2006 as a result of the absence of a military threat in the North Atlantic.

The Keflavik Airbase area today

Keflavik International Airport remains in same area as the former base. Some former airbase facilities and sites are a part of the airport or the adjacent Iceland Security Area. Other facilities are used for civilian purposes, for example an educational institution. The former base encampment area is open for access and it is possible to see most of the base facilities and houses.

Today, there is unfortunately no special display or museum that tells about the base and the historical, defense activities in the Cold War period.

There is no doubt that the base is an important and valuable story-telling site from the Cold War period, not only for Iceland, but also for all the Northern European countries and the United States.



Four air defence radar stations were operational in Iceland by 1958.

The Höfði House, Reykjavik

Iceland

The Höfði House, Reykjavik. The place for two important historical events from recent history

A wooden house, *Höfði*, located in the Icelandic capital Reykjavik, has been the scene of two important international events from recent history:

- 1986. The Reykjavik Summit, a meeting between *US president Ronald Reagan* and *Soviet General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev*, and
- 1991. Signing of documents by which Iceland as the first country approved Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania as independent states.

The Reykjavik Summit

The topic of the meeting between Reagan and Gorbachev was to cut down nuclear weapon – and on longer sight, in 15 years from 2000, to eliminate all nuclear weapons. The talks collapsed. At the meeting Reagan tried to raise questions about human rights, emigration of Soviet Jews and political dissidents, as well as the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan, but Gorbachev only wanted to talk about arms control.

However, the progress that was made during the talks resulted in an agreement the following year between the two super power states: the so-called 1987 *Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty* (INF).

The treaty decided the limits of nuclear missile warheads and eliminated nuclear and conventional ground-launched ballistic missiles with the range of 500-5,500 km. By the treaty's deadline in 1991, a total of 2,692 weapons had been destroyed, 846 by the U.S. and 1,846 by the Soviet Union.

Iceland, the first country to recognize the Baltic States

Iceland was the first country that officially recognized Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania as independent states on February 11, 1991. It was a quick and brave decision, not fully supported by all important actors on the internationally scene.

Boris Yeltsin defied a Communist coup in Moscow on August 19 and only seven days after, on the 26th, all three Foreign ministers of the Baltic States officially signed the relevant documents about diplomatic relations and recognition. It took place in the Höfði House. It was an important event for the Baltic States, not least in an unsecure period not knowing which direction the development could take. (Streets in Tallinn and Vilnius were afterward named after Iceland because of this recognition).



The Höfði house was built in 1909 as a French Consulate. It was imported from Norway as one of many wooden catalogue houses. Later the building was the residence of the British Consul General and later Ambassador. Today it is used for official receptions.

On August 26, 1991. The foreign ministers sign the documents that recognized Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania as independent states. From left: Algirdas Saudargas (Lithuania), Janis Jurkans (Latvia), Lennart Meri (Estonia) and Jón Baldvin Hannibalsson (Iceland).



Latvia

Occupied by Nazi and Soviet forces, 1940-1944

Latvia was independent from 1920 until 1940. Before that it was a part of the Russian Empire.

By means of the 1939 *Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact*, Latvia came under the Soviet “sphere of interest”, together with the other Baltic States, Finland and a part of Poland. In 1940, the Soviet army occupied Latvia following an ultimatum and the threat of military action. A Communist puppet government was installed after an election in which only Communist candidates approved by the Soviet Union were able to stand. Latvia then became a member of the Soviet Union and was henceforward in effect governed from Moscow.

Nazi Germany attacked the Soviet Union in 1941 and occupied Latvia. The invasion was called “liberation” but was, in fact, an occupation controlled completely by the German authorities.

Both occupations were brutal and uncompromising and no less than one-third of Latvia’s pre-war population of 2 million had lost their lives by the end of the Second World War.

Soviet Latvia, 1944-1991. Comprehensive Sovietisation

The Sovietisation of Latvian society had already begun under the first occupation of 1940-41, and was closely followed up after the Second World War and the new Soviet occupation.

The Sovietisation was mainly enforced by:

- Abandoning the national army.
- Nationalizing private property.
- Collectivizing agriculture.
- Repressing religion and persecuting the churches.
- Communist unification of all social and cultural life.
- Control of all printed and distributed materials.

The enemies of the Communist regime, the so-called “anti-Soviet elements”, were mainly described as “fascists” and “bourgeois nationalists”, terms used to denote people who wanted an independent Latvia. They were primarily armed partisans, independent farmers and Catholic clergymen, people with former positions in society and people who had co-operated in some way with the German invaders.

Latvia experienced the greatest influx of ethnic Russians of all the Baltic countries. By 1989, the Russian population accounted for 34% of the total population, and ethnic Latvians only 52% (the rest came from other Soviet countries). The ethnic Russians majority of inhabitants in the capital Riga. One of the reasons for this colonization was the country’s strategic location and extensive militarization. Riga was the headquarters of the Baltic Military District and the whole country was full of military installations. Most of the coastal area was prohibited to the inhabitants.

The Sovietisation was, to a great extent, also a “Russification”, because of the Russian colonization, the use of Russian as the main language and the fact that the country was effectively governed from Moscow.

The armed and unarmed Latvian resistance

The armed resistance in Latvia after the Second World War consisted of 20,000 armed partisans along with 80,000 supporters. Approximately 3,000 partisans were killed and 5,000 sent to GULAG camps, along with tens of thousands of supporters. Officially, the partisans were called “bandits”. The partisan movement reached its peak in 1949 and was disbanded in the mid-1950s.

Deportations to remote parts of the Soviet Union

15,500 Latvian residents were arrested in 1941 and deported to remote regions of the Soviet Union. These were mainly families whose members had held leading positions in society in the former independent Latvia. Men were separated from their families and sent to GULAG camps, women and children to “administrative settlements” as family members of “enemies of the people”.

42,000 people were deported in 1949, mainly partisan supporters and farmers (*kulaks*) who were against the collectivization. 73% of the deportees were women and children

After Stalin’s death many were able to return but were often considered unreliable by the local Communist governments.

The struggle for freedom

The first important movement for independence was *Helsinki 86*, a group of intellectuals who organised demonstrations for the deported Latvians and memorial meetings at the Liberty monument in Riga in honour of Latvia’s Independence Day (1920). The beginning of the end of the Soviet Union began seriously in 1988 with the Russian *glasnost* and *perestroika movements*, which resulted in some freedom in speech and writing.

A majority from the newly-established anti-Communist movement, *the Latvian Popular Front*, was elected to Parliament in 1990 and subsequently declared Latvia’s independence. The unbelievable demonstration *The Baltic Way* took place in August – a chain of hand-holding people stretching from Tallinn to Vilnius. Later, two counter-attacks were organized by the Soviet forces and Communist organizations. Three freedom defenders were killed when the government asked people to defend a number of key institutions in Riga following threats from the Soviet leaders. No less than 700,000 people demonstrated in Riga on January 13, 1991, and barricaded all major public buildings.

[illegible]

Latvia



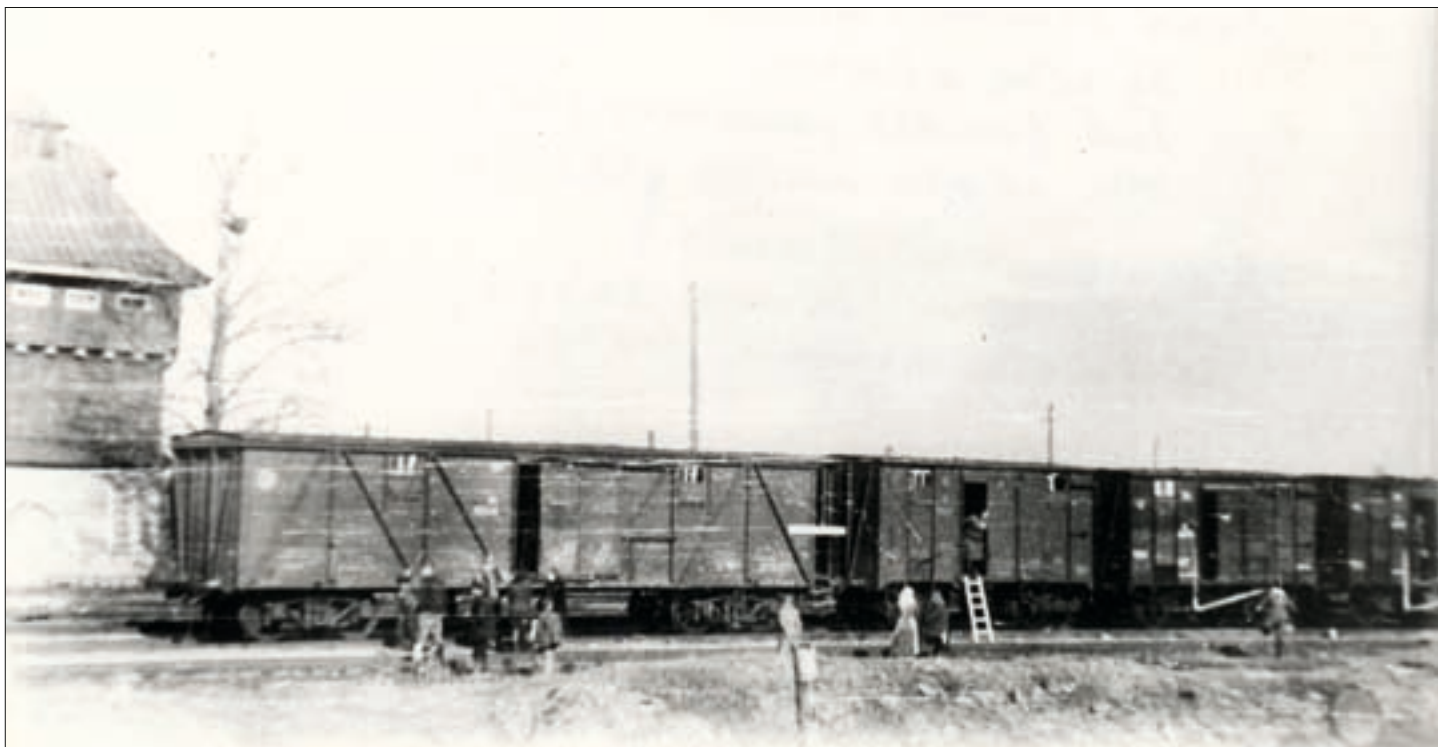
The National Theatre with Communist regalia.

Located on Kronvalda bulvāris 2 in Old Town north of K. Valdemara iela. Latvia's independence was declared in the theatre in 1918. It was also here that the Communist parliament requested membership of the Soviet Union in 1940.

Opposite page: A Soviet propaganda poster. The text says: "Live forever Soviet Latvia, a shining jewel in the Soviet crown!" The undemocratically elected Latvian Parliament decided to declare Latvia a member of the Soviet Union in 1940 although this was unconstitutional. Only Communist parliament candidates were approved by the occupying Soviet military forces.

Soviet propaganda in relation to Latvia's loss of independence, and also that of the other Baltic States, can be found in a Soviet history textbook: "By the summer of 1940, a revolutionary situation had developed in Latvia. Under the leadership of the Communist Party of Latvia, a Socialist Revolution took place. Confronted by the demands of the working class, the bourgeois government stepped down. Democratic elections took place, and a new Saeima (parliament), heeding the demands of the working class, established the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic. It became the fifteenth member of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on 5 August 1940".

Stende 1949. A train with cattle wagons is being prepared for deportation. The only known photo from Latvia showing this situation.





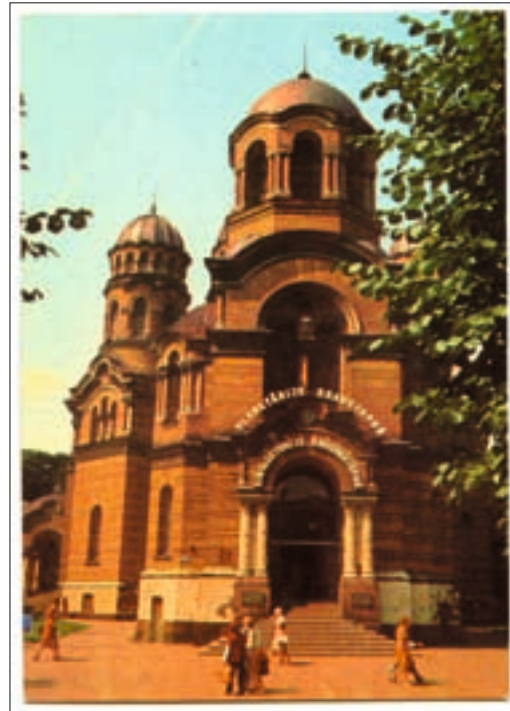
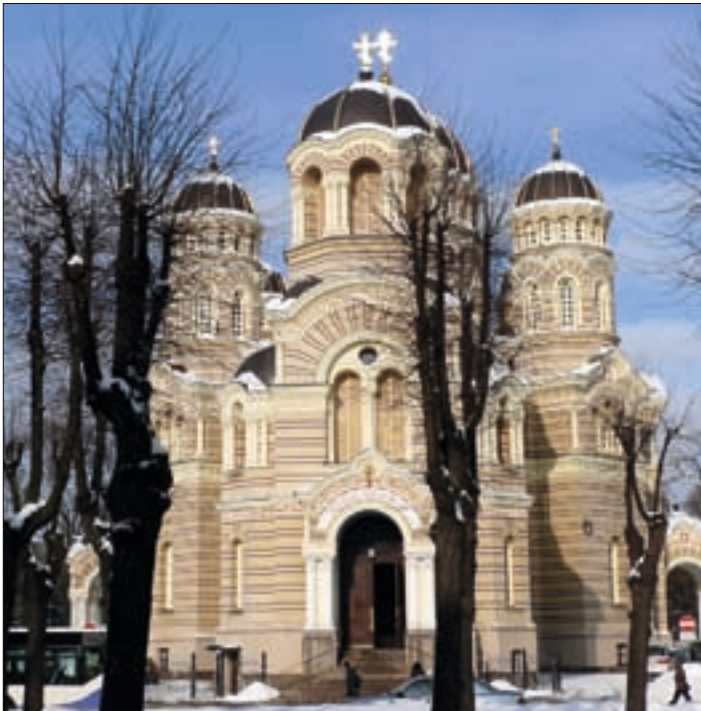
Memorial Sites and Soviet Traces

Memorial sites and traces from the Soviet occupations and the freedom struggles

There are several monuments and buildings in Riga that are related to Latvia's most recent history. Some of these are given on the following pages.

Right: The Academy of Science. The 108-meter-tall building can be seen from almost anywhere in Riga. Address: Akademijas Square 1. It was built between 1953 and 1956 and was officially noted as "a gift from the workers and peasants of the other Soviet republics to the Latvian people". As far as we know, it was Latvia itself who financed the gift. The building is similar to many other enormous Soviet building complexes, for example in Warsaw and Moscow. This style of building is known as Stalinist architecture, Stalin's Empire or Socialist Classicism. The building was decorated with Communist and Latvian folk symbols. A giant portrait of Stalin was planned as part of the facade.

The Russian Orthodox Cathedral. Brīvības iela, 200 meters north-east of the Old Town. The churches were given different functions in Communist Latvia, as a part of the religious repression. **Right:** The Russian Orthodox Cathedral was converted into a planetarium. **Left:** Today it is restored and again functioning as a Russian Orthodox Cathedral.





The Freedom Monument. A remembrance ceremony by the Freedom Monument located immediately east of the Old Town. The ceremony was held on January 25 to remember the freedom defenders who were killed earlier that month. The Freedom Monument was built in 1935 to honor the soldiers killed in the Latvian War of Independence from 1918 to 1920. It is an important Latvian symbol of freedom and independence.

The sculptures on the monument depict Latvian history and culture. The woman on the top symbolizes Liberty and the three stars the ethnical districts of Latvia: Vidzeme, Latgale and Kurzeme. During the Soviet occupation it was told that there were plans to demolish the monument.

Memorial Sites and Soviet Traces



The memorial “Eyes” on the Zaķusala island in the Daugava River south of the Old Town. In January 1991, Latvian people gathered on the island to defend the TV House, which can be seen in the background.

Memorial to the murdered freedom defenders. Memorial to one of the five freedom defenders who were killed by the Soviet military forces on January 20, 1991. The government asked the Latvian people to defend key institutions in Riga as a result of the Soviet leaders’ threats of a military intervention. The legally-elected Latvian Parliament had declared the re-establishment of independent Latvia in 1989, which meant that the country had left the Soviet Union.



Memorials to the days of the barricades. Memorials in Jēkaba iela in Old Town. Grey concrete stones that were used to build the barricades around all major public buildings in January 1991 when half a million people demonstrated in central Riga. In the background can be seen a pyramidal memorial.

Cattle wagon used for deportations. Memorial at Torņakalns train station located on the west bank of the Daugava River opposite the Old Town. This type of cattle wagon was used for the deportation of more than 15,000 Latvians in 1941. They were mostly the families of leading members of society in the independent Latvia before the Soviet occupation of 1940.



Riga, Latvia



The Forest Cemetery (*Meža kapi*). Two sites from the Soviet occupation following the Second World War are worth a visit at the Forest Cemetery:

1. The burial ground, “The White Crosses”, and
2. The gravesite of Janis Čakste, the first president of the newly independent Latvia in 1922.

The Forest Cemetery

The cemetery is located in north-eastern Riga on Aizsaules iela (street), 4.5 kilometers from the Old Town. It shows that even cemeteries did not escape Communist influence and activities. From all the Baltic countries and Finland, there are stories of Soviets destroying cemeteries, incorporating land used for other purposes and using gravestones as road material (A part of *The Great Cemetery* in Riga was turned into a park).

A visit to the *Forest Cemetery* should also include *The Brothers Cemetery* located on adjoining land. This national monument is a burial ground for Latvian soldiers killed from 1915 to 1920 in the First World War and the *Latvian War of Independence*.

The Forest Cemetery. The gravesite of Jānis Čakste.

The grave of Jānis Čakste, the first president of the independent Latvia in 1922, are located at the end of the long open area stretching from the main entrance of the cemetery. The Communist regime was against remembering Jānis Čakste. The KGB therefore guarded the grave to hinder protest actions, for example, on special memorial days related to the freedom of Latvia. A militiaman can be seen on the right side of the photo.

A large gravesite and memorial for Vilis Lācis, president of the Soviet Latvia, was erected in the middle of the long open area to obstruct the view from the entrance to the gravesite of Jānis Čakste. Vilis Lācis was the man who signed the instruction on the deportations of Latvians in 1949.

Furthermore the Communists were also permitted to be buried in the open area in front of the gravesite of Jānis Čakste.



The Forest Cemetery. The burial ground, “The White Crosses”.

More than 120 people, tortured and killed in 1940-41 by the Communist regime, were reburied here in 1941-1944. They were originally buried in mass graves elsewhere. After the Soviet occupation of 1944 the area was leveled. Later, new burials were allowed on the area by the Communist regime in order to forget the victims. After Latvia's independence, it was decided not to move the new graves but to establish a memorial site. The area is today surrounded by white crosses to honor the victims of the Communist regime from 1940-41.



The KGB Building

The Corner House. Interrogation, torture and executions

The secret Soviet state police, the KGB, moved into the house in 1940 when the Soviet Union occupied Latvia for the first time. The house was originally built in 1912 as apartments and shops and was later taken over by the pre-war Latvian Interior Ministry. Between the two Soviet occupations in 1941 and 1944 it was used by a number of youth organisations.

The KGB took over the building again in 1944 and only left it in 1991 after Latvia's independence. A prison was established in the basement with 14 cells of different size.

During the Stalin-period, and especially during the years of occupation in 1940-41 people were tortured and interrogated on the sixth floor and executed in the basement (the shower room) or the yard. Thousands of people were sent to the GULAG hard labour camps, after being interrogated here. People were also invited for a "friendly conversation" and asked to "cooperate".

"The Corner House", the former KGB headquarters in Riga. Unfortunately, there is no public access to the building today.

The current and former name of the north-south road, Stabu ielā, refers to a medieval pillory – in fact only removed in 1849 - where prisoners were chained and burned alive. Inhumanity is thus an old tradition at this location.

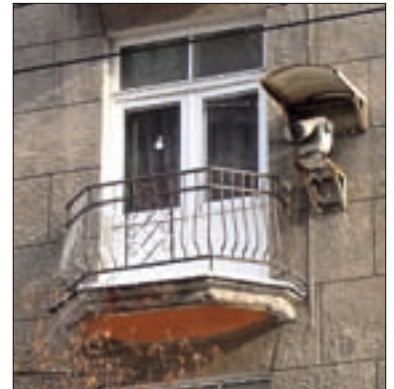
The KGB building

Address: The corner of the streets Brīvības ielā and Stabu ielā.

Access: There is no access to the building. A memorial can be seen at Stabu ielā.

Top right: One of the KGB surveillance cameras is still mounted on the wall of a neighbouring building.

Bottom right: From the memorial on the KGB building.



Riga, Latvia



Helena Celmina. A former prisoner in the KGB building

Helena Celmina, a Latvian artist and writer born in 1929, was imprisoned in the basement of the KGB building for six months in 1962. She was subjected to harsh interrogations both day and night and later sent to a women's prison camp in Mordovia, east of Moscow, until 1966.

Initially she worked as a translator, working from Swedish and German into Latvian and Russian for a Soviet radio station. She thus came in contact with foreigners from whom she obtained some literature defined as "anti-Soviet agitation and propaganda". She was reported to the KGB by a friend and arrested. She had already been arrested in 1949 for "violation of the passport regime" for which she had served a one-year prison term because she was living "illegally" in an apartment that a Russian woman wanted for herself.

In 1974 she married former political prisoner *Victors Kalniņš* who had completed a 10-year prison sentence for "treason against the Motherland" and "anti-Soviet agitation and propaganda". They were constantly controlled and harassed by the KGB via interrogations, home searches, monitoring of phone conversations, being followed on the streets etc. Finally they were "advised" to leave Latvia in 1979 by a KGB colonel. They lived in the US from 1979 until 1994 when they returned to Latvia. *Victors Kalniņš* died in 2001.

Top: From the basement of the KGB building, 2007.

Middle: From the yard where prisoners were executed.

Bottom left: The artist *Helena Celmina* with a painting from the women's prison camp in Mordovia. Russian prison officers cut off the hair of all female prisoners.

Bottom right: It was only possible to wash every tenth day and only with four litres of hot water per prisoner.



Museum of The Occupation of Latvia 1940-91



The Museum of Occupation, a characteristic black brick building located in the Old Town of Riga. The building is the former museum of the so-called Red Latvian Riflemen who supported the Leninist and Bolshevik party in Russia from 1917 until 1920. A statue of the Riflemen can be seen in front of the museum (in photo: the light red statue in the background on the right). The statue on the left shows St. Roland, Patron Saint of Riga.

From the exhibition. GULAG barrack constructed with the help of former political prisoners. This kind of barrack was normal in forest regions. In wintertime the temperature was normally below freezing inside the barrack.



Latvia, a third of its population lost

At the entrance to the museum, a sign reads:

“During the periods of Soviet and German occupation, Latvia lost 550,000 people, or more than a third of its population. This is the number who was murdered, killed in battle, sentenced, deported, scattered as refugees, or who disappeared without a trace”.

The three occupation periods were:

- the Soviet occupation of the independent Latvia, 1940-1941
- The Nazi German occupation, 1941-45
- The Soviet occupation, 1945-1991.

The Museum explains and illustrates the occupation periods, the political background and their consequences.

The main themes of the exhibition are: The armed partisan resistance, the deportation of Latvian people to remote parts of the Soviet Union, Soviet and Nazi influences on society and the freedom struggles.

In all occupations, foreign military forces took power in Latvia and extinguished democracy: basically banning free elections and the freedom to establish political parties. Society was governed on the basis of the ideology of the foreign powers, Communism or Nazism, hence the large loss of life.

The mass deportations of Latvian citizens

The exhibition includes a reconstructed GULAG barrack as well as many of the personal effects of deported Latvians such as photographs, letters, different kinds of documents, clothing and many homemade articles such as needlework, kitchenware, musical instruments etc. The range of effects shows how great the creativity of the deported people was and how suitable materials were very scarce. It was basically a question of survival.

The deportations involved two groups: *prisoners* who were sent to the GULAG camps and mass deportations of *families*. *The prisoners* were mainly political prisoners and partisans and their supporters. *The families* were primarily the families of the prisoners and independent farming families, the so-called *kulaks*.

Museum of the Occupation of Latvia 1940-91 (Latvijas Okupācijas muzejs)

Address: Strēlnieku laukums 1.

Website: www.occupationmuseum.lv.

Opening hours: October-April: 11:00-17:00. Closed Mondays.

May-September: 11:00-18:00.

Guided tours: Guided tours are available in English, German and Russian. Booking required.

Riga, Latvia

The bloody guerrilla activities

The exhibition shows many interesting photos and effects from the armed partisan activities, especially from the period following the Second World War. 3,000 armed partisans were killed as they waited for the West to send support to an independent Latvia. The partisan movement came to an end in the mid-1950s. It was relatively easy for the Communist regime to infiltrate the movement with traitors and Latvia, like the other Baltic countries and Poland, did not have large, remote and inaccessible areas in which the partisans could fight against organized armies and police forces on equal terms.



Left: A rare photo of partisans in a small underground bunker. Commanders P. Ceveris and A. Kalniņš in their sleeping places. Winter 1950. Cesu District.

Middle: The household of the same bunker.

Top right: A very important tool for deportees. A needle made from a piece of wire by Jānis Rivars in Chuma Infiltration camp in 1946.

Right middle: Isolation mask to be used by deportees against frostbite in the cold Siberian winter in temperatures as low as minus 40 degrees C. This mask was made in the 1950s by political prisoner Kārlis Ārgalis.

Right: A set of false teeth made of iron.

Right bottom: Prison number to wear on clothes. This is the number of Emīlija Bērziņa who was deported to Tomsk Region in 1949. She was arrested for singing and distributing Latvian songs and sentenced to 10 years' hard labour. The sentence was served in Abaz, north of the Arctic Circle.



Museum of The Occupation of Latvia 1940-91

Drawings by the young girl, Benita Plezere-Eglīte. A remarkable memorial to the deported people and the life in exile

Benita Plezere-Eglīte was eleven years old when she was deported to Siberia together with her mother, father and two elder sisters. She described the deportation through drawings sent as postcards to her godmother in Latvia.

The family was deported from their farm in Latvia in 1949 to a place 100 km from Omsk beyond the Ural Mountains in Siberia with the aim of developing the region.

The farming family was able to return to Latvia in 1956.

No-one went home unchanged. Her father's health was severely damaged. Her mother, a former art and science teacher, became invalid. Their former home in Latvia had been destroyed and the area taken over by a collective farm (a *kolkhoz*).

Benita's story

Benita Plezere-Eglīte's story and comments on the drawings were recorded in 1993 and published, together with the drawings.

The following text is excerpts from Benita's story:

The arrest: "It was the first day of our school holidays: we were all still sleeping. It was early morning. When we woke up we saw some Mongolian-type men with rifles. We were given only 20 minutes to get dressed and to take something with us. We couldn't do anything, and they just kept saying – faster, faster, don't just sit there, get ready. So we each grabbed whatever was closest at hand and went out to their truck. Father had been in the barn milking the cow, and he came carrying milk – the cat still on his shoulder. He had seen the truck in the farmyard, he understood what was happening"....."They took us to the Annenieke Village Executive Committee Building they brought in more people, families with their belongings. Some had more belongings, others just small handbags. We also had very little".

The train journey: "They took us to the Biksti train station. A long train was there with many, many carriages, and people had been brought from the entire town. All well-known – old, young, children ..."..... "..... the train kept going and going; we passed station after station An old woman who had died on the train was tied into a bed sheet and thrown into the Irtysh River as the train passed over a bridge".

Life in exile:"There were only flatlands, only the steppe, no trees. When it snowed, the snow was deep and stayed for a long time. We cut pieces of ice and used them as windows Our parents were called in by the Cheka and interrogated. Mother had been an *aizsardze* (member of the voluntary National Guard organization of independent Latvia). She was called in by a Cheka agent who made her stand and look at the wall. Meanwhile he was clicking a revolver, ordering her to say something. *"But I have nothing to say, I have been teaching children. I have not killed anyone, nor robbed anyone"*....."The local *kolkhoz* chairman came and, as in a slave market, selected the strongest In the beginning, mother had to do heavy work. They assigned her to sorting the collective farm's potatoes in the storage cellars. These cellars were huge and deep, half of the potatoes were rotten".....".....but then a doctor certified that her veins were enlarged, and she was allowed to stay in the office. She wanted to be a teacher, but was told that the school had no position for her" "..... everyone always listened to the radio and said – no, no, they will free us soon – we need not worry. The idea was that the British and the Americans would come and free us, and there was always hope – no, no, it won't be long – it's only temporary. We refused to put down roots in Siberia – the school, the *kolkhoz* – everything was temporary". ... "We did not let on that we spoke another language besides Russian. We were so embarrassed because other children would call us fascists and said it was a *fascist language!*"

Top left: *The family of Benita Plezere-Eglīte. Photo from the first winter in Siberia. In front, her parents Alma and Kārlis. Behind, from the left, Benita (12), Annina (13) and Dzintars (14).*

Top right: *"On the way to Biksti".*

Middle left: *"The train takes us towards our allocated settlement".*

Middle right: *"Our home above a cellar. Furniture: a stove, a bed of straw, a barrel for a table. Mice merrily scurry through the straw. Romantic – isn't it?"*

Bottom left: *"Sorting potatoes on the collective farm".*

Bottom right: *"Children gather dry cow manure for fuel".*

The drawings are from the book "Through the eyes of a child".

Drawings and text are reproduced with permission of The Museum of the Occupation of Latvia, 1939-1991.

The book was published in 1996 by the Museum Foundation. It is available to purchase in the museum bookstore.

Riga, Latvia



The Museum of the Barricades of 1991



From the exhibition. Top: Memorial wall to the killed Latvian freedom defenders from 1991.

Days of uncertainty. The demonstrations in January 1991

The museum primarily describes the days in January 1991 when thousands of Latvian freedom defenders took to the streets in the major cities to protect public buildings following threats of military action from the Soviet leaders. Latvia had declared its independence in May 1990 and the Soviet Union would not accept this.

It was a time of great uncertainty and fear because nobody knew how the Soviet Union would react. Three freedom defenders were killed by *Soviet OMON forces* but optimism was expressed due to the many persistent and active freedom defenders and their peaceful activities, such as the building of barricades in Riga from 13 to 27 January, hence the museum's name.

Declaration of independence

In 1985 the *glasnost* and *perestroika* policies were introduced by Mikhail Gorbachev, the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. These policies were to result in more "freedom in speech and writing" within Communist society. In Latvia, it resulted in the formation of several independence movements in the late 1980s. They won the parliamentary elections and declared Latvia an independent country, no longer a member of the Soviet Union. The Soviet Union called for a new union treaty but this was refused by the parliament. Pro-Soviet organizations tried to provoke violent disorder so that the Soviet army could intervene and re-establish the Communist dictatorship. Some actions were taken by the Soviet forces in January, including the occupation of the national printing house by OMON forces, the arrival of intelligence units from Russia, the arming of Soviet military personnel with machine guns and a visible militarization of the streets. Pro-Soviet demonstrations were held.

A third of Latvia's population demonstrates

After the deaths of 13 civilians at the TV Tower in Vilnius, it was clear that the Soviet forces were prepared to use force.

The independent movements called for demonstrations. Around 700,000 Latvian freedom defenders from all over the country - or one-third of the total population of Latvia - responds by building barricades around key buildings. The Communist Party declared that "fascism was reborn in Latvia". A freedom defender was killed on January 16. On January 20 five more were killed by military forces when they attacked the Latvian Ministry of the Interior.

These *January days* formed a remarkable demonstration on the part of the Latvian people.

Opposite page: From the days of the Barricades in Riga.

The Museum of the Barricades of 1991 (1991.gada barikazu muzejs)

Address: Krāmu iela 3 (in Old Town).

Website: www.barikades.lv.

Opening hours: 10:00-17:00. Saturday: 11:00-17:00. Sunday closed.

Guided tours: Can be arranged in English. Booking required by tel. 00371 67213525.

Riga, Latvia



The Museum of the Popular Front of Latvia

The Museum of the Popular Front of Latvia (Tautas Frontes muzejs)

The museum is under development. It is located in a house owned by a foundation that has its roots in the Popular Front of Latvia. The front's activities were organized in this building during the period when it was active. Contact the administration in the building in order to gain access to the exhibition and the historical rooms. Lectures and information activities can be arranged for visitors.

Address: Vecpilsētas iela 13/15. Located in the Old Town.

Website: www.ltfmuz.lv/lv/kur-mus-atrast

Opening hours: Tuesday: 14:00-19:00, Wednesday-Friday: 12:00-16:00, Saturday: 12:00-16:00. Closed Sundays and Mondays.

The Singing Revolution is the name by which events in the Baltic countries, with often spontaneous mass singing of national songs that were forbidden by the Soviet authorities, are known. These events, between 1987 and 1990, significantly strengthened the unity of the Baltic people, and this led to the re-establishment of national independence.

The photo is from the Mezapark, Riga, on October 7, 1988, when 120,000 people and around 200 choirs participated in an event expressing their support for democracy and independence.



The first steps towards independence

The Popular Front of Latvia was a political organization that was of great importance in Latvia's transition to independence from the late 1980s to the early 1990s.

The Soviet leader *Gorbachev's perestroika* and *glasnost reforms* in the 1980s resulted in more freedom of speech and writing. This quickly developed into an open desire and demands for democracy and independence.

The first demonstrations for more openness within society came from *The Environmental Protection Club* in 1986-87 and were suppressed by the Communist Latvian government. They protested at the construction of a hydroelectric power station and a subway in Riga. The human rights group *Helsinki-86* held, among other things, a ceremony for the people deported in 1941. *The Writers Union* published the secret protocol of the *1939 Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact* between Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union. This agreement brought Latvia under the Soviet *sphere of interest* and resulted in its occupation by the Soviet Union in 1940.

The Popular Front of Latvia. A key political organization in the struggle for democracy and independence

Several political movements were formed in 1988, among these the Popular Front of Latvia. They were all aimed at establishing democracy and independence. The Popular Front was the biggest and also the most moderate, supported by many moderate Communists and non-Latvian minorities. It quickly attracted 250,000 members.

At the first free elections in 1989 and 1990, a coalition led by the Popular Front won a large majority of the seats in the Parliament, even though 48% of the Latvian population was ethnically non-Latvian. They took up key positions in the government as prime minister, deputy speaker and some ministers. The independence process began in May 1990 and ended in August 1991.

Mission complete

The following year was very turbulent for the new government, with many political and economic problems. In fact, the Popular Front consisted of people with widely differing political views but with one overall goal: *democracy and independence*.

When this goal was achieved, many politicians left the front. It subsequently lost its political power and, by the 1993 elections, was no longer represented in Parliament. The party folded in 1997, having played a leading role in Latvia's recent history. Mission complete.

Riga, Latvia



The Baltic Way was a 600 km long chain of people holding hands through all the Baltic countries, connecting the capitals. This peaceful, symbolic and very emotional political demonstration took place on August 23, 1989, and was arranged by the major national movements in the three Baltic countries: the Lithuanian Sajudis (known as the Reform Movement of Lithuania), the Estonian Rahvarinne (the Popular Front of Estonia) and the Latvian Tautas Fronte (the Popular Front of Latvia). It is estimated that 1,500,000 people participated in the chain.

The event also marked the 50th anniversary of the Molotov–Ribbentrop Pact between Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union. This pact divided Eastern Europe into spheres of influence.

The Baltic States were in the Soviet sphere, which led to the occupations of all the countries in 1940. The result was mass arrests, deportations and executions of primarily leading figures in the three independent states.

Some days later, the Central Committee of the Communist Party announced on Soviet radio that “growing nationalist, extremist groups” were promoting “anti-socialist and anti-Soviet agendas” and that the groups were discriminating against ethnic minorities and terrorizing those still loyal to Soviet ideals. The Baltic Way was referred to as “nationalist hysteria”. According to the announcement, such a development would lead to an “abyss” and “catastrophic” consequences. The “workers and peasants” were called to defend the Soviet ideals.

Cattle Wagon Used for Deportations, Skrunda Railway Station

The mass deportation of 42,000 Latvians in 1949. “To remote regions of Siberia for the rest of your life”

This deportation was aimed at people in the countryside. The target groups were independent farmers, so-called *kulaks*, who were against the collectivization. At the same time, it was expected that the armed partisan movement would be weakened in the countryside. Besides the deported kulaks there were also “families of bandits” (read: partisans), “nationalists” and other so-called “enemies of the people” as well as many who had successfully survived, and returned from the deportations in 1941. Democratic processes for the deported were unknown. The kulaks were to a large extent defined by the size of their farm.

The so-called “legal” basis of the deportation was a secret overall decision taken by the *Council of Ministers of the USSR*, the real authority in all Soviet countries. It was followed up by a decision taken by the *Council of the Latvian Soviet Socialist Republic* and described in the note: “Concerning the Deportation of Kulak Families outside the Latvian SSR”. Top secret instructions, such as lists of the deportees, were sent to local secret police members, military units and Communist activists and, together, they took care of the practical matters – the arrests and the departures.

42,133 Latvian inhabitants were deported to “special settlements” in the Soviet Union in 1949. This was more than 2% of the population. 10,990 of them were less than 16 years old. Women and children constituted 73% of the deportees.

Between 25 and 29 March 1949, no less than 30,620 families comprising 94,799 people were deported from the three Baltic States in cattle wagons, as some deportees were told: “to remote regions of Siberia for the rest of your life”.

The life history of Jānis Blūms

Jānis Blūms (see photo) is one of the founders of the *Cattle Wagon Memorial* in Skrunda where he also works as a guide.

His son, the architect *Pēteris Blūms*, Riga, wrote the following life history of his father for this book.

A cattle wagon. Memorial and museum

2,916 local residents from Kuldīga District were deported from Skrunda railway station in wagons like this. The deportations took place in 1941 and 1949.

A small exhibition inside the wagon tells about the deportations. Ask for the key at the station to see the exhibition inside the train wagon. For further information and guide: phone 00 371 658 54203.

“*Jānis Blūms* was born on August 25, 1925 in Jūrmala, Latvia, not far from the capital, Riga. He was the youngest sibling of two sisters, *Zenta* and *Gaida*. His mother was a housekeeper. His father, *Pēteris*, was forced to engage in odd jobs due to the economic crisis. He took part in the First World War (1914-1918) and in the Latvian Liberation War (1918-1920), where he sustained injuries.

Jānis started school in 1932 and graduated from junior/primary school in 1940. In 1941-1942 he worked in Riga as a paperboy.

On June 17, 1940, the Soviet Union occupied the independent Republic of Latvia and paved the way for a Communist regime.

On July 14, 1941, the authorities of the occupying power deported Jānis’ uncle (his mother’s brother) along with his uncle’s family. The uncle died in 1942 in the Urals, Russia. The family were granted permission to return to Latvia in the 1950s.

On July 8, 1941, the German Army occupied Latvia.

In 1942, Jānis Blūms began his studies in the road construction department of the Technical College but, in spring 1943, together with a friend, he volunteered for the German armed forces in order to fight the Russian Bolsheviks who had already occupied Latvia twice over the last 20 years. His mother had no objections, but his father, who had spent many years at war, wanted to have a confirmation ceremony before his son went to the army. On May 8, 1943, the confirmation ceremony took place and, on May 25, he set off for the front where he served in the 15th division.

In 1944, the whole family apart from Jānis fled from the approaching Soviet army and decided to leave Latvia. They took a ship to Germany and, in 1949, they left for the United States and Australia. Jānis never saw his parents again. During the 1970s, the Soviet authorities refused all of his requests to visit the U.S. to meet his parents.

For the rest of the world, the war ended on May 8, 1945, but Jānis was arrested in 1945 and sent to a prisoner-of-war camp in the Far East, where he spent a year and a half. After that, he served in the Red Army, only returning home to Latvia in 1951 after a break of eight years.

In Latvia he trained as a surveyor and geologist. He retired in 2000.

Today he lives in Skrunda, Latvia. Since 1990, he has been a member of *Vecie zeni*, an ensemble of former soldiers from all armies. He has two sons (a forester and an architect), six grandchildren and four great-grandchildren. He took part in the protecting of the barricades in January 1991 in Riga.

He has made a family tree and a pictorial review of his family, and has written a diary of his personal memories. In 1988, he won first prize in the *Families of the Baltic Maritime* competition in Gdansk, Poland, for his collection of family photos”.

Skrunda, Latvia



Secret Nuclear Bunker for the Soviet Nomenclature

A top-secret “Pension” for the Soviet nomenclature

75 kilometers east of Riga, a huge nuclear bunker was built under the “*Līgatne*” Rehabilitation Centre. The bunker was the shelter and command centre for the Latvian Communist political and administrative leadership in the event of chemical or nuclear war. 250 people could survive in isolation in the bunker for 3 months. The nickname of the top-secret bunker among the Communist nomenclature of the Soviet period was the *Pansionat* (Pension house).

The original interior and equipment are preserved

The bunker was planned in 1968 by the *Latvian Central Soviet Committee* but first became operational in 1982. The bunker is 2,000 sq. m. in size and is built 9 meters underground, of which 5 meters are made of steel and concrete plates and gamma ray protection from lead plate.

Nearly all necessary survival and communication equipment is preserved, such as:

- Advanced equipment to communicate with all important sites in Latvia, and especially the Kremlin in Moscow, from where instructions were expected.
- All necessary technical installations: its own electricity station, oxygen and air conditioning and purification systems, water supply and sewage equipment as well as fuel (diesel) reservoirs and bored artesian well, taking water from 150 meters deep.

The entrance to the Rehabilitation Centre, under which the secret nuclear bunker is constructed. The centre arranges visits to the bunker.



Secret nuclear bunker for the Soviet Nomenclature, Līgatne.

The bunker is constructed under the “Līgatne” Rehabilitation Centre (Rehabilitācijas centrs Līgatne).

Address: The Rehabilitation Centre and the bunker are located in the village of Skaļupes, approximately 2 km east of Līgatne.

Website: www.rehcentrsligatne/en/Sovietbunker

Opening hours and tours: The Rehabilitation Centre organises visits to the bunker as guided tours only. Contact the Rehabilitation Centre for visiting times (00371 64161915 or 00371 26467747. Mail: hotel@rehcentrs.apollo.lv). Tours can be arranged in English, Russian or German. Tour duration is 1-1.5 hours. It is possible to order a Soviet style meal in the bunker canteen in advance.

- All kinds of Soviet furniture, interiors, symbols and memorials.
- Materials such as unique maps, Communist books, vinyl plates with speeches of Soviet leaders etc.

Although the bunker seems to be well constructed, there are several planning gaps. What was to be done with dead bodies? There was no refrigeration or way of burying or destroying the bodies? And the “roof” would have had to be at least 15 meters thick to withstand a nearby nuclear blast. A neighboring missile base to hinder such an attack was never built.

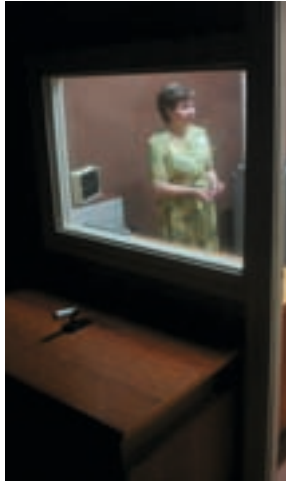
Two helicopter landing sites outside the building are “camouflaged” as swimming pools and one separate landing site is kitted out as a basketball field.



Ligatne, Latvia



Left: A statue of Lenin in the central meeting room. Left: the flag of the Soviet Union. Right: the sub-national flag of the Soviet Latvian Republic.



Right: A radio studio.

It is possible to order a typical Soviet meal in the canteen (must be booked in advance).



Plan of the bunker with 90 rooms connected with long corridors. A visit can only be arranged with guides.

There were upgraded level offices for the three highest commanders in the bunker. Each had a desk with 2 phones to the other commanders, contact to listening devices in other rooms, an ordinary phone and a direct line to the Kremlin in Moscow. The KGB also had three special rooms in the building with a direct line to Moscow from where all instructions were expected. In the communications room, the philosophy is written in Russian on the wall: "Without communication there is no order. Without order there is no victory". Which should be understood as: "Without communication with Moscow there are no orders from Moscow. Without orders from Moscow no orders will be delivered from the centre to the military forces, the key Latvian administrative units and all main towns – and therefore no victory".



A Closed Military Town

Liepāja. Home to naval bases since the 1890s

Liepāja is one of the few ice-free harbours in the Baltic Sea and therefore a home town for naval bases of both the Soviet Baltic Fleet and the Russian Empire, when it included Latvia. The city is today home to some 85,000 people.

During the Soviet Occupation, up to 30,000 of the inhabitants were Soviet military personnel and their families. This was one of the biggest naval bases in the Baltic Sea and the port was closed to all civil traffic in 1967. The town was a closed military city with very strict rules for permission to visit, even for people living just outside the town.

Interesting sites connected to the Cold War period are:

- Karosta, the military part of the town.
- The Karosta prison and museum.
- The museum “Liepāja during the Occupations”. Old Town.

Karosta Prison. Reflecting the 100-year history of Latvia

Karosta Prison or the *Naval Port Prison and Guardhouse* operated from around 1900 until 1997. The nationality of prisoners reflects the 100-year military history of Latvia: Russian, Latvian, German and Soviet soldiers were imprisoned here for breach of military discipline. Political prisoners from the Stalinist period were also held here. No one was ever able to escape.

Today the rooms are mainly fitted out as in the Soviet occupation period, with many Soviet symbols, sculptures and materials. The prison is known for the many activities it offers to tourists – see the facts box.



A garage for submarines. This building in the former military harbor can unfortunately not be visited but can only be viewed from a distance. The Soviet base was specifically a submarine base with 16 submarines and nuclear weapon deposits.

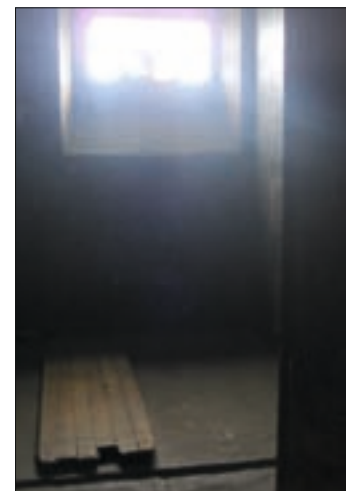
Karosta prison (Karostas Cietums)

Address: Invalīdu iela 4, Karosta. Immediately north of the canal.

Website: www.karotascietums.lv.

Opening hours: May-September: 10:00-18:00.
October-April: Booking required.

Guided tours and activities: The prison offers a comprehensive program of events and activities, including: an extreme overnight stay (in the prison cells), the show *Behind Bars*, the officers' buffet, and many other tours and thematic programs. The staffs dress in original Soviet military uniforms. All special activities must be booked in advance. See the website.



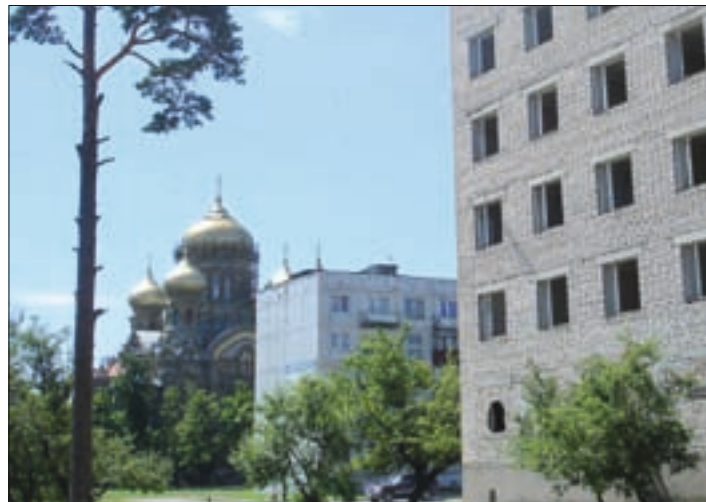
Liepaja, Latvia



Liepaja Karosta, a closed military town

Karosta is located north of an artificial canal leading to the former military port. It occupies a third of the whole of Liepaja and is an outstanding urban environment from an historical and architectural point of view, especially in terms of its original Russian military architecture. The town was founded, together with the naval base, in the 1890s by Emperor Alexander III. Since then it has functioned as an autonomous community of military people with its own infrastructure, power station, water supplies, churches, schools etc. Not even the inhabitants from the older part of Liepaja were allowed to come here. A Soviet atmosphere still hangs over Karosta.

Car for prisoner transport. Karosta Prison.



Left: From Karosta. The characteristic old red brick buildings date from the time of the Russian Empire. A few are restored but unfortunately many are in a very bad state of repair. Here can be seen the impressive remains of an indoor horse riding arena for military exercises.

Right: From Karosta. In the background: the cathedral of the Russian Orthodox Church consecrated in 1903 with the participation of the Russian Tsar Nicholas II and his family. During the Soviet period, it was used as a gym and cinema. In the foreground: the departure of military personnel to Russia after Latvia's independence left many half-finished and empty concrete apartment blocks. The number of inhabitants in Karosta fell from 25,000 to 6,000.

The museum "Liepaja during the occupations"

The museum is located in the old part of Liepaja and reflects the Soviet and German Occupations from 1939 until 1991, especially the local social and economic consequences and the deportations of 1941 and 1949 to remote parts of the Soviet Union and the GULAG camps.

The museum "Liepaja during the occupations". (Liepāja okupāciju režīmos)

Address: K. Ukstiņa iela 7/9.

Website: www.liepajasmuzejs.lv

Opening hours: 10:00-18:00. Friday: 11:00-19:00.

Closed Monday and Tuesday.

Zeltini Missile Base

The nuclear missiles at this base were mounted on vehicles where they were also fired from, unlike missiles that are permanently installed in silos. The base was built in 1961 and dismantled in 1991. The total base area was 300 ha.

There has been little restoration since the Soviet army left the site. Many buildings and installations are badly decayed but this has little impact on the atmosphere or on an understanding of the place.

The base facilities are spread across the whole area: different houses for officers and soldiers, command bunkers, bunkers for nuclear warheads, hangars for missiles and vehicles etc.

Zeltini Missile Base (Bāze Zeltiņos)

It is possible to visit the base area without guiding, at your own risk.

Address: Bāze Zeltiņos, Alūksnes novads. See map on opposite page. **Website:** www.bazezeltinos.lv

Guided tours: Guided tours can be arranged. Contact the area's administration at least two days in advance: baze@bazezeltinos.lv, (+371) 22 332 887 or (+371) 28 359 738.

Top: Crane and hangar used to mount the nuclear warheads on the missiles. In peacetime, without threat of war, the nuclear warheads were stored in small bunkers with very thick walls and roofs. Several of these bunkers can be seen in the area.

Middle: Hangar for missile vehicles. There are four such hangars on the base. The missiles were fired from the concrete tiled areas in front of the hangars.

Bottom right: One of the last monuments to Lenin left in Latvia is placed exactly on the spot in front of a hangar where a nuclear missile should have been fired from. This monument was originally located in the centre of the nearby town of Alūksne.

Bottom left: A missile R-12 (Soviet name) or SS-4 (NATO name) that was used at the base.



Aluksne, Latvia

Soviet military installations in Latvia in the 1980s

The map shows the military installations in Latvia in the 1980s. *Zeltini Missile Base* in the north-east of the country is marked by a red circle. In all, at this time, there were 8 missile bases in

Latvia. It is worth noting that Latvia's west coast was very heavily fortified with the submarine base at Liepāja having the second largest military staffing in the country after Riga. Inhabitants were not allowed to visit the west coast.



Soviet military installations in Latvia in the 1980s

- Land base for troops
- ⚓ Sea force base
- ✈ Military airfield
- 🚀 Rocket launchers
- 📡 Radar radio telescope
- 📡 Radar radio telescope
- ⚓ Submarine base
- ⚡ Communication centers
- ⬡ Main landfills
- ⌘ Frontline troops
- 🏭 Military factories
- 🎓 Military Officers' school

- Coastal security and monitoring zone
- Railroads
- Place and number of soldiers

Copyright:
Museum of the Occupation of Latvia, 1940-1991.

Secret Soviet Radio Telescope and Former Closed Town



The “Little Star”

The *Radio Telescope in Irbene* and the connected military town was built in deep secret. The 32-meter-wide parabolic radio antenna was formed in the shape of a large bowl.

The telescope performed military tasks and so a large area around the installation and the town was cordoned off. The Russian name for the centre was *Zvezdoshka* or *Little Star*.

When the Soviet army left the installation after the collapse of the Soviet Union, they tried to render the telescope useless by putting acid in the engine, hammering nails through the electric wires and destroying the control panels.

The site was taken over by *Latvian Academy of Science* and repaired and renewed. Today it is managed by *Ventspils International Radio Astronomy Centre (VIRAC)*. Its scientific importance is now directed at space research aimed at collecting observational data for radio astronomy research programs.

The Radio telescope’s precise military functions in the Soviet period are not known today, but the following story, while not verified, may be near to the truth.

A Soviet space espionage program was approved in 1969 and consisted of 12 radio telescope stations located across the world in places such as Cuba, Vietnam and Ukraine. The system was able to intercept NATO satellite communications as well as all telephone calls in Europe. Most important was the fact that the system could intercept conversations between the US Navy and the US State Department.

One of the stations in this space espionage program was the radio telescope in Irbene. A special task of this station was to intercept NATO’s submarine communications in the militarily strategic and important northern part of the Atlantic Ocean.

The nearby abandoned military village was inhabited by Soviet military staff and their families, in all some 2,000 people. The village was not marked on any maps. Today it lies in ruins but still with many of the marks of the Soviet period.



Secret Soviet Radio Telescope and closed town, Irbene

Today managed by Ventspils International Radio Astronomy Center, VIRAC. The telescope is located 30 km north of Ventspils and 200 km west of Riga.

Address: Ances pagasts, Ventspils novads.

Website: www.virac.eu.

Opening hours: The center is open to groups of visitors. Bookings must be made in advance by phone: 00371 63600347.

The former secret city of the centre is now in ruins and can be visited at your own risk and with great caution.

Irbene, Latvia



Lithuania

Occupied by Nazi and Soviet forces, 1940-1990

Lithuania was independent from 1918 until 1940 and then occupied from 1940 until it re-established its independence in 1990. Lithuania was occupied from 1940 until 1941 by the Soviet Union as a result of the *Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact* between Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union. Red Army troops crossed the Lithuanian border on 15 June 1940.

The elections to a new parliament were announced and only candidates approved by the Communists were involved. The new Soviet puppet government obediently set about applying the will of Moscow and the new parliament subsequently decided to convert Lithuania into a part of the Soviet Union.

In 1941, the German army invaded the Soviet Union and, hence, Lithuania. A new and independent Lithuanian government was formed but functioned only for a short period until it became clear that in practice Germans held all the power.

In 1944, the German army was driven out of Lithuania by Soviet forces and Soviet hegemony was re-established.

Soviet Lithuania, 1944-1990. Comprehensive Sovietisation

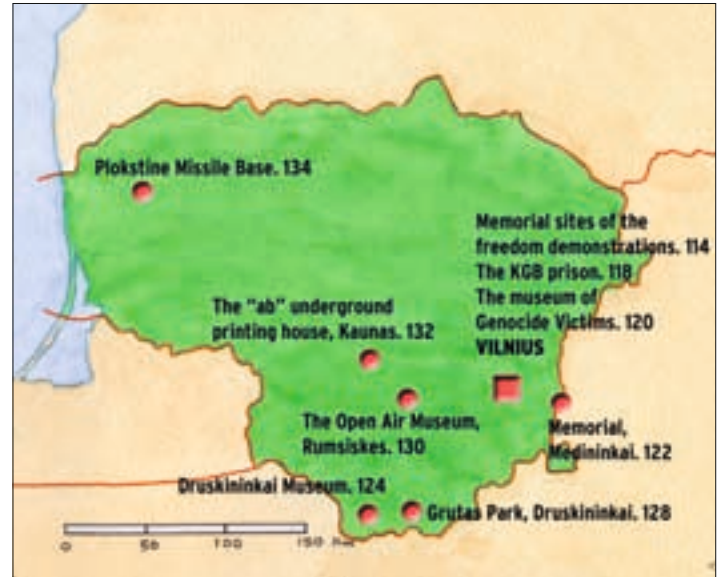
After the Second World War, a comprehensive Sovietisation of the Lithuanian society continued from the first occupation. The Lithuanian Communist Party and the authorities were in practice controlled from Moscow, from whence all orders came. Control over the Lithuanian society involved monitoring, prosecution and removal of “national and class enemies” which were:

- Partisans and members of underground organizations and supporters. Labelled “bandits” and “bourgeois nationalists”.
- Independent farmers. Labelled “kulaks”.
- Institutional employees (teachers, intellectuals etc.) and people with positions in the former independent Lithuania. Labelled “politically and socially unreliable elements”.
- Catholic clergymen. Labelled “reactionary Catholic clergy”.

The armed and unarmed Lithuanian resistance

The Lithuanian underground and armed partisan resistance was the biggest and strongest in the Baltic States. They expected a peace conference that would result in an independent Lithuania, but no help was forthcoming from outside. The main resistance ended in 1953, but the last partisans were killed as late as in 1965. A total of 20,000 partisans had then been killed.

Besides the armed resistance, there was a broad popular unarmed opposition, in particular expressed through illegal printed and handwritten materials, slogans painted on walls, demonstrations of young people as well as activities organised by the Church and dissident movements.



Mass deportations to remote parts of the Soviet Union

There were two groups of deported people: *Prisoners* sent to GULAG camps as slave labours, and *deportees* who should develop isolated regions, also through hard physical labour.

150,000 people were sent to GULAG camps as *prisoners*, mainly in Siberia. It is estimated that 20,000-25,000 died in the camps.

The *deportees* sent to isolated regions were mainly “kulaks” and so-called “bandit families” of punished individuals. 136,000 of these people were deported to Siberia, the Arctic zone and Central Asia.

Around 28,000 of them died in exile. After Stalin’s death in 1953, it became possible for many deportees to return to Lithuania in the following decades.

Reestablishment of Lithuania as an independent state

A reform movement, *Sąjūdis*, was created in 1988 with a program of democratic rights. The background was the policies of *glasnost* (openness in the society) and *perestroika* (reconstruction of the society) introduced by the Soviet leaders.

In 1990 a new elected parliament with many deputies who were supported by Sąjūdis declared the reestablishment of the independence of Lithuania. Lithuania was the first former Soviet country to declare independence but it was not accepted by the Soviet leaders. 23 people were killed and 700 wounded by Soviet military forces during 1991. Independence was finally secured following the collapse of the Soviet Union.

Lithuania

Jonas Žemaitis, second from the left, became leader of the armed partisan movement in Lithuania. He was elected chairman of the Presidium of the Council of the Movement of the Struggle for Freedom of Lithuania. This council was, following Lithuania's independence, approved as the country's legitimate government during the Soviet occupation. In 2009 he was therefore officially recognized as the Lithuanian president at the time when he was the leader of the partisan movement.

He was arrested in 1953 and sent to Moscow at the demand of Lavrenti Beria, leader of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Beria offered him his freedom if he would co-operate. He refused and was subsequently executed in Butyrka prison in Moscow and buried at the Donskoy Monastery. In 1997 Jonas Žemaitis received one of the highest Lithuanian awards, the 1st Class Order of the Cross of Vytautas.



Middle right: Steam locomotive and cattle wagons. Memorial at the railway station in Naujoji Vilnia, a suburb of Vilnius located 8 kilometres east of Old Town. This kind of train was used for mass deportations during the Stalinist period and many people were deported from this site. Address: Tremtinių/Pramonės streets.



Bottom right: Deported Lithuanians on their way to Siberia in a cattle wagon in 1951. 70% of all those deported were women and children. These people were told they were to be deported: "to remote regions of Siberia for the rest of your life".

Bottom left: Lithuanians deported to Trofimovsk in the region of the Laptev Sea, an area with permafrost north of the Polar Circle. The photo is from 1949. These deportations took place in 1941. In 1942-43, a third of the deported people died, mainly children and elderly people.



Imprisoned by the KGB, Deported and Finally Banished from his Home Country

A “bandit family”

The life of *Jonas Kadzionis* and his family includes many events that are common to the majority of the Lithuanian population who actively fought for independence.

Jonas came from a farming family of 10 children in the district of Ukmerge. One brother died in battle as a partisan in 1944 after refusing to join the Soviet Army. Another brother fled to the West for the same reason. In 1948 his mother, another brother and four sisters were deported to Siberia as a *bandit family* because of the partisan brother and also because they were *kulaks*, independent farmers who had not joined a collective farm. Jonas was not home when the police removed the family and therefore avoided deportation. He subsequently joined the partisan movement. He was happy to be able to fight for his homeland and was *more afraid of Siberia than death*. He married another partisan, *Malvina Gedziunaite*. A son was born in an underground partisan bunker in 1950. He fought as a partisan or *Forest Brother* in the forests from 1948 until 1953.

Sentenced to 25 years’ slave labour

Jonas was arrested along with his wife and interrogated in the KGB prison in Vilnius. He received a 25-year sentence and both he and his wife had to endure the punishment in the GULAG camps. Jonas remained in the camps for the whole of his

sentence and was only released in 1978. His wife Malvina took part in an uprising in 1954 in a camp in Kazakhstan, in which more than 500 prisoners were shot by the Soviet military forces.

Homecoming and further exile for 11 years

Jonas remembers the 25 years in the camps as a highly restricted life of great hardship. It is clear that only very mentally and physically strong people were able to stand 25 years or more in the GULAG camps.

On his release, he went home in his numbered prisoner uniform, the only clothes he had. For this reason he was arrested three times in Moscow.

When he reached his hometown, the authorities refused to let him stay. The local authorities were able to deny former “criminals” without a job the right to register and settle.

The KGB offered to help if he would cooperate. They were particularly interested in illegal Catholic writings. Jonas refused to cooperate, however, and he returned to Moscow and complained to the Ministry of the Interior. They sent him to Kaliningrad, the Russian enclave west of Lithuania.

He was only able to return to Lithuania in 1989 once free elections had been held and independence declared. His wife died in 1992. He now lives in his home region and has taken the initiative to restore and rebuild an underground partisan bunker.



Autumn 1948. The young Jonas Kadzionis, second from left, has joined the partisan unit in the so-called Algimantas military district, Bukagudis company. The name of the unit was Butageidis. The partisans in Lithuania were the best organized in all the Soviet countries and followed the lines of the old Lithuanian military tradition.

Opposite page: Jonas Kadzionis telling his story in an office in the former KGB prison in Vilnius (now the Museum of Genocide Victims). He was imprisoned here in 1953 before enduring 25 years of slave labour in the GULAG camps in Siberia. This punishment was followed by 11 years of forced exile in the Russian enclave, Kaliningrad, because the local authorities in Lithuania refused to allow him to settle in his home town given that he was a former “criminal” and, furthermore, not interested in co-operating with the secret police, the KGB.

Jonas Kadzionis returned home in 1989 after 36 years in exile. The reform movement had begun by then and this led to Lithuanian independence in 1990.



A Youth Spent in KGB Prisons and GULAG Camps

A young girl's resistance to the Communist regime

There were many young people in the Baltic countries who opposed the Communist regime, armed or unarmed, in groups or individually.

Birute Anulyte resisted all by herself. Her father was arrested and deported in 1946 simply because he was a teacher. Birute was 14 years old at the time. Her father was sent to a GULAG camp in Moldovia for a 15-year term. Teachers were one of the groups that the Communist regime saw as a threat and they were labelled "politically and socially unreliable elements".

Nineteen more of her relatives were also deported to Siberia

Birute decided to avenge the deportation of her father and to thwart "the red plague". She began writing messages on scraps of paper, which she placed in the pockets of older pupils in their restrooms, on tables in post offices, etc. For example, "I cannot believe that we have lost our independence forever? Have we sold our freedom so cheaply?" She also wrote critical poems. One day she dropped a poem on the floor at school and two boys from her class asked what it was. She just tore it up and threw it in the bin. The boys picked it up and glued it together and handed it over to the secret police, the KGB. She knew she had done something stupid so that day, afraid to go home, she went to stay with relatives.

Arrest, imprisonment and torture

A few days later she returned home and was immediately arrested by the KGB. She was taken to a prison in Trakai and interrogated. They showed her the glued letter, which she had signed "*The organisation of Lithuanian youth*". They wanted her to disclose the names of her non-existent co-conspirators. The interrogations took place at night, and by day she was prevented from sleeping. The 16-year-old was, among other things, tortured with electrical wiring and a fingernail was forcibly removed.

Deportation to the GULAG camps

After around one year, Birute was deported as a *criminal prisoner* to the GULAG camps.

She was moved around many different camps, all of which were marked by hard work, hunger and disease. Many of her fellow prisoners died under these circumstances. She worked, among other things, in agriculture, forestry, mining and glass production. She survived a stay in a so-called "arrest cell", which was no more than a large water-filled hole. Another time she was working in a deep mine shaft with many other women. Since she was the youngest, they asked her to go and fetch drinking



From the KGB archives. The 16-year-old Birute Anulyte, photographed by the secret police, the KGB, the day she was arrested.

Lithuania

water. Moments after she left the mine shaft, it collapsed with a huge crash. She was the only survivor.

At the glass plant, she worked the large grinders that crushed pieces of glass into glass flour. Once, the power went off and a woman was ordered into the grinder to clean it. Unfortunately, the machinery started up again and she was crushed.

Homecoming

Birute returned to Lithuania in 1954 after six years in captivity. Here, she was re-united with her mother, three sisters and a brother and, fortunately, her father who had also survived the GULAG camps. She later trained as a nurse, specializing in the care of children. She never married.

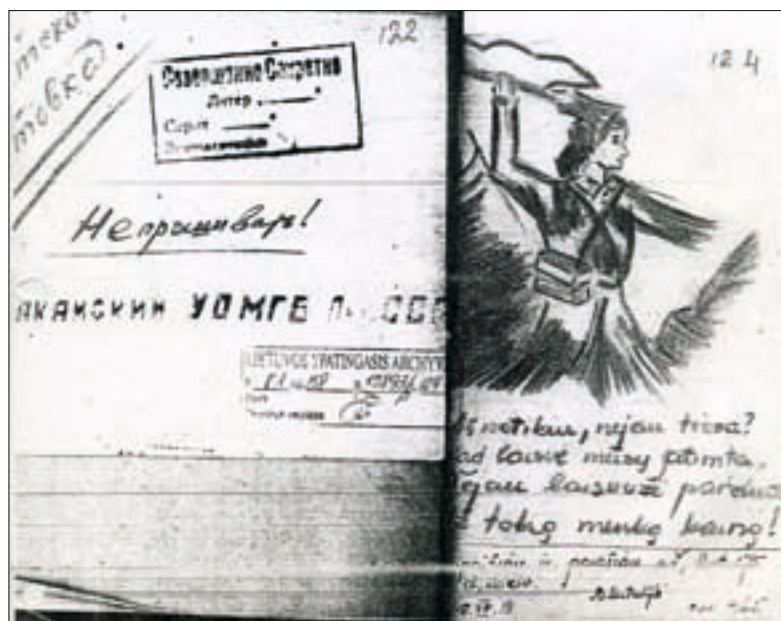
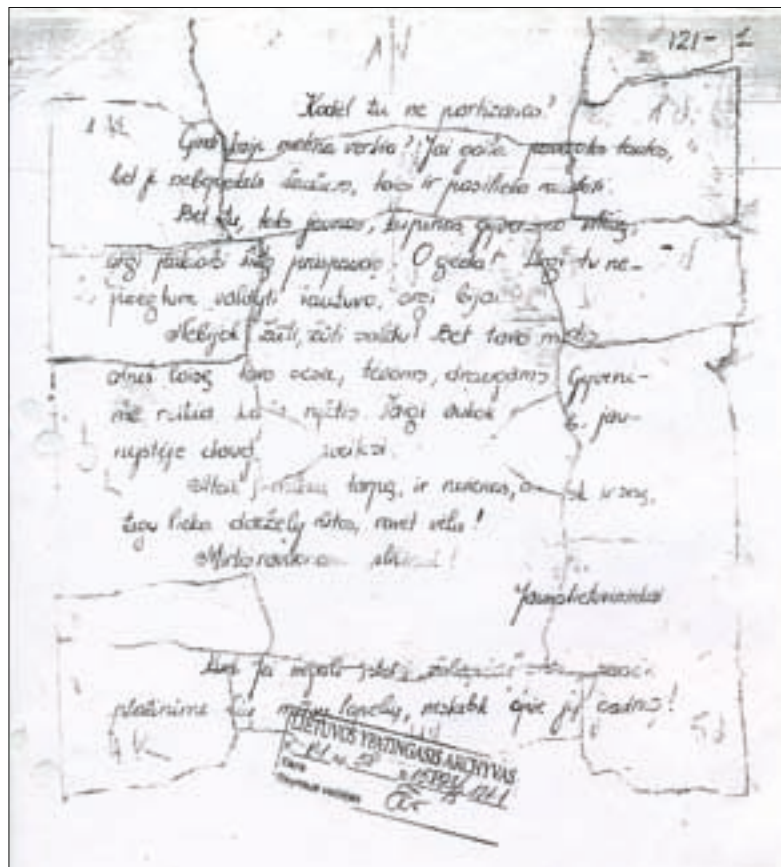
The whole family, now including children and grandchildren, decided to participate in the freedom demonstrations in January 1991 in Vilnius. Before participating, they decided openly who should take care of the children if any of the adults were killed.

Right, top: The poem that led to Birute's arrest, found in the KGB's archives. Two of Birute's classmates saw that she had thrown some scraps of paper into a bin. They picked up the pieces and glued them together. They then handed the poem over to the secret police who subsequently arrested, imprisoned, tortured and deported the young Birute to the GULAG camps. The poem calls for resistance against the Communist regime and is signed "The organization of Lithuanian youth". This made the message seem all the more important although Birute was actually working all on her own.



Left: Birute trained as a children's nurse when she returned from the GULAG camps. She learned from her experiences that people who are in prison or in hospital need to be engaged in activities. Therefore she taught the hospitalized children to make dolls. It was a great success and the children often left hospital with a collection of dolls made with Birute's help.

Right: From Birute's KGB file, including KGB stamps and endorsements. On the right can be seen one of Birute's poems and a drawing of a partisan.



Memorial Sites of the Freedom Demonstrations. 1991



Memorial to the fallen in front of the Radio and Television Committee building. The freedom defenders surrounded and tried to protect the building on January 13. The Soviet soldiers fired into the building, over the heads of the freedom defenders, and stopped the live television broadcast.

From the graves of the victims on the Antakalnio Cemetery. They all received one of the highest Lithuanian awards, the 1st Class Order of the Cross of Vytis.



The bloody January Events

Fourteen people were killed and more than 700 injured by Soviet military and security forces in Vilnius in January 1991.

Lithuania had already declared independence of the Soviet Union in March 1990. The following period was difficult with a weakening economy, energy shortages and high inflation because of economic blockade organized by the Soviet Union. Food prices increased and some products were rationed. The political situation was unstable. The Soviet leaders in Moscow and pro-Soviet groups in Lithuania were dissatisfied with the proclaimed independence, especially the Russian-speaking minorities, supported by the Moscow-backed sector of the *Lithuanian Communist Party*.

The new government then called on supporters of independence to protect the parliamentary building and other important public buildings, including radio and television centres. Hundreds of thousands of people all over the country responded to this call.

The Soviet military forces went into crucial action in January 1991. The fiercest attack on independence supporters took place at the Radio and Television Committee building and the TV Tower on 13 January. 13 freedom defenders were shot, one died of a heart attack and a Soviet soldier was shot by a fellow soldier.

The following day after this *Bloody Sunday*, 100,000 people surrounded the parliament and built anti-tank barricades. The Soviet forces retreated.

The Soviet military activities continued for several months. 7 custom officers and policemen were killed at the Medininkai border checkpoint on 31 July 1991.

The most important sites of the January events are:

- **The TV tower** (TV bokštas). Small exhibition about the January events on the ground floor. Several memorials. Observation deck and restaurant at a height of 165 metres. **Address:** Sausio 13-osios g. Located approximately 4 kilometres west of the Old Town.
- **The Radio and Television Committee building.** Memorial. **Address:** S. Konarskio g. 49.
- **The Supreme Council building or Parliament.** (Seimo rūmai). Memorial: part of the barricade built on January 14. **Address:** Gedimino ave. 53. (In the town centre).
- **The Antakalnio churchyard** (Antakalnio kapinės) in which the victims of the January Events are buried. **Address:** Main entrance from Karių Kapų Road. The cemetery is located 2 km north-east of the centre (Old Town).

Vilnius, Lithuania



A part of the wall around Parliament, built by people during the January Events, has been protected as a Memorial. It is now covered by a roof.



Right: Memorials in front of the TV Tower where the bloody Soviet military attack on the freedom defenders took place on January 13.

Bottom right: Painting from the museum. Artist: Navakas.

Bottom left: A small museum on the ground floor of the tower tells of the event. The portrait on the wall on the left is Loreta Asanavičiūtė. This 24-year-old seamstress was the only female victim, and became the most famous. She was run over by a Soviet tank and later died in hospital. The streets around the TV tower have been named after the victims.



Memorial Sites of the Freedom Demonstrations. 1991



Albinas Kentra with his camera (his "weapon" as he calls it) at the text of the restoration of Lithuania's independence. His video films of the January events can be viewed on request. Tel: +37060025485.

Lithuanian national songs were sung by people for days on end in front of the Parliament. Here are some of the most emotional parts of Albinas Kentra's video film of the singing revolution.



Unique video film of the sites where the January events took place

Albinas Kentra is a former partisan and GULAG prisoner. He comes from a family of freedom fighters in which three brothers were killed, two sisters imprisoned and their mother was in hiding until her death (1961). Today he is focusing on building a Forest Brothers Palace in Vilnius, revealing the road to freedom. He is Chairman of the *Lithuanian Freedom Fighters - Forest Brothers Association* (former partisans who fought against the Soviet totalitarian regime).

He filmed the January and other events, often around the clock, and captured the unique atmosphere of courage, hope and optimism of the freedom defenders.

When the Lithuanian Parliament restored Lithuania's independence in 1990, the Soviet Union demanded that the declaration of restoration be withdrawn. In January 1991, the Kremlin threatened to resort to force. The Lithuanian Parliament addressed the people, calling on them to defend key institutions against the Soviet military.

Thousands of Lithuanians responded and surrounded the Parliament, the TV Tower, the Radio and Television Committee building and the Press House. Fourteen defenders were killed and 700 injured in Vilnius by the Soviet troops during the January events. Albinas Kentra was present at all the dangerous spots and his video material was disseminated worldwide.

Lithuania's struggle for freedom resulted in the disintegration of the Soviet Union.

Opposite page:

Top: Freedom defenders in front of the Parliament.

Middle: Soviet military invading the Press House.

Bottom: Building of barricades around the Parliament.



Vilnius, Lithuania



The KGB Building and Prison. The Museum of Genocide Victims



The KGB building and prison. The Museum of Genocide Victims, Vilnius. (Genocido aukų muziejus)

See also the following pages about the museum's exhibitions on the armed partisan resistance and the mass deportations.

Address: Aukų str. 2A, Vilnius.

Webpage: www.genocid.lt/muziejus

Opening times: Wednesday-Saturday: 10:00-18:00. Sunday: 10:00-17:00.

Guided tours: Can be arranged in Russian and English. Book in advance is recommendable.

A building that recounts the most recent Lithuanian history

The main part of the building located in the centre of Vilnius dates from 1899. Some of the annexes were built later. The historical function of the building demonstrates the complicated and horrible nature of Lithuania's most recent history:

- Russian court (1899-15) when Lithuania was a part of the Russian Empire.
- Institutions of German occupation (1915-18, First World War).
- Conscription centre for the Lithuanian army (1918).
- Commissariat of the Bolshevik government (1919).
- Court of the Polish authorities when Poland occupied Vilnius and the surrounding area (1920-1939).
- Board of the Soviet repressive institutions in Vilnius (1940-41).
- The headquarters of the secret Nazi police, the Gestapo (1941-44).
- Lithuanian branch of the Soviet repressive institutions including KGB (1944-1991).

The prison in the basement of the building is as intact as it was in 1991 when the KGB left. It is authentically furnished. Today there are 19 cells in the KGB prison in the basement plus the guards' rooms, the search rooms, some torture cells and a courtyard for prisoner exercise. Small thematic exhibitions are on display in some cells.

The prison was originally larger, 50 cells, but many were used for the KGB archives in the 1960s.

Memorial in front of the KGB building on Gedimino Avenue.

The partisan Petras Vizraras-Vapsva died on this spot when he jumped from the third floor in 1953 during an interrogation by the KGB. The sidewalk has been re-laid with the original tiles. The plate on the street recounts the event. The plate on the wall tells about the KGB building and its functions.

The lower part of the building is carved with the names of anti-Soviet resistance fighters who were executed in the building during the Soviet occupation.



Vilnius, Lithuania



Two of the cells in the prison used for torture.

Left: A cell with soundproofed walls to prevent the cries of tortured victims from being heard. The straitjacket was used for immobilising the victims, if they resisted.

Right: The floor of this cell was filled with freezing water. The prisoners had to balance on the small platform in the middle of the cell until they fell into the water because of fatigue. It was impossible to sleep in this cell.



The execution cell in the basement of the building. More than 1,000 people were executed here between 1944 and the early 1960s. Most of them were buried in a mass grave in Tuskulėnai on the outskirts of Vilnius. See below.

Findings from the mass graves of executed people such as glasses, rings, buttons, shoes etc. are exhibited under the glass floor that protects the original floor.

Bottom: Memorials in front of the KGB building. In the background on both photos can be seen non-deciduous trees planted by the KGB near to the building in order to reduce the view through the office windows.

Left: A monument for the Lithuanian victims of the Communist regime. The stones are from the different regions of Lithuania.

Right: A monument for the people deported to the Laptev Sea region north of the Polar Circle in Siberia. The monument stands in front of the entrance to the Museum of Genocide Victims.



Columbarium for the executed people.

767 people killed from 1944 until 1947 in the KGB building's special execution room were buried in Tuskulėnai, almost in the centre of Vilnius. The area was connected to the Soviet security forces and the Ministry of Internal Affairs. The burial places of people executed after 1947 is unknown.

The remains of 724 people were found during archaeological excavations. They are now reburied in a columbarium. Address of the burial place and the columbarium: Žirmūnų str. 1F, Vilnius.



The Museum of Genocide Victims

The armed Lithuanian resistance and the deportations

A part of the former KGB offices is today a museum with exhibitions on the armed partisan resistance, the forced mass deportations of innocent people from Lithuania and a part of the history of the secret Soviet institutions, including the KGB. The KGB prison is part of the museum. See previous pages.

Comprehensive resistance against the Communist regime, but the help from abroad never came

20,000 Lithuanian armed partisans were killed by the Soviet army and secret Soviet institutions between 1944 and 1953. More than 50,000 people were engaged in partisan activities. Many were imprisoned and sent to GULAG camps.

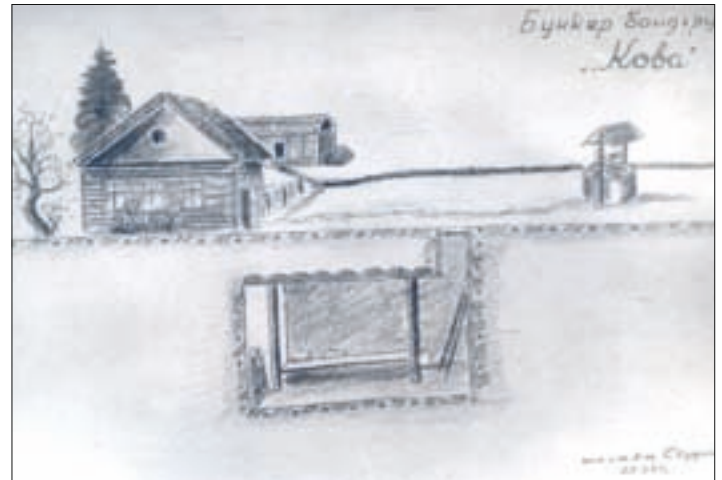
The museum provides information on the goals and organization of the partisan movement and daily life as illustrated by publications, photographs and personal belongings.

The partisan movement was fighting for an independent Lithuania after the Second World War, once it had become clear that the Soviet forces had occupied the country and were paving the way for a Communist puppet government. The partisans expected help from abroad but it never came. The power of the Soviet forces was great and the struggle unequal in the flat and densely populated country. It was relatively easy to infiltrate the partisan groups with traitors. In the early years, there were open battles between partisans and the Soviet forces, including the destruction of Communist offices, but the losses were very high. The partisans were therefore later mostly involved in informative activities such as printing and distributing periodicals, pamphlets etc.

Top: Armed and uniformed partisans. The partisan movement was largely organized along the lines of old Lithuanian military traditions. Note the harmonica on the man second to the right. The partisans had their own culture, in which songs played an important part. The men in the photo are, from left, Jonas Daugirdas (squad chief), Petras Krišilevičius, Bronius Paleckas (group chief) and Viktoras Krišilevičius. All were killed in 1948-49.

Middle: Sketch of a forest underground bunker used by partisans. The entrance was well hidden, as were the ventilation and smoke shafts. The sketch is from a book by the KGB from 1960, which was used for tracing the partisans.

Bottom: A rare photo. A secret Easter Mass for Lithuanian GULAG prisoners in Mine No 9 of Labour Camp 3. Inta, Komi ASSR (Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic), 1955.



Vilnius, Lithuania

The Museum of Genocide Victims, Vilnius. (Genocido aukų muziejus)

See also the previous pages about the museum building and the KGB prison.

Address: Aukų str. 2A, Vilnius.

Webpage: www.genocid.lt/muziejus

Opening times: Wednesday-Saturday: 10:00-18:00. Sunday: 10:00-17:00.

Guided tours: Can be arranged in Russian and English. Book in advance is recommendable. Seminars, film showings and meetings with former political prisoners, deportees and partisans are arranged too.



The mass deportations of Lithuanian citizens

The exhibitions show the methods the Communist regime used against the Lithuanian people and their scale. This is illustrated by means of photographs, letters and documents as well as clothing and homemade articles such as religious artefacts, jewellery, books and needlework.

The evictions involved two groups: *prisoners*, who were sent to GULAG camps and *mass deportees*.

The prisoners. The crimes of the prisoners were characterized as “betrayal of the motherland”, “counterrevolutionary activities” and “sabotage”. Their trials and military tribunals did not follow the simplest of democratic guidelines. Confessions under torture were accepted. The normal judgements were execution or 5, 10 or 25 years in prison or in a hard labour camp.

The deportees were mainly families of prisoners (“bandit families”) and farmers who refused to join the collective farms (“kulaks”). They were simply included in the group of “national and class enemies” and were deported to remote parts of the Soviet Union, where living conditions were extremely difficult.



Top: Different kinds of beautiful needlework done by deportees.

Middle: Only half of all the 136,000 deported Lithuanians returned to their motherland. Only in 1989-1991 it became possible to bring back the remains of the dead family members, to rebury in Lithuania. Around 28,000 died in exile.

Bottom: Sofija Grauzinienė and her three children, whom she brought up in deportation. Although the family was starving Sofija took in an orphaned child in the family. Perm region 1946.

No less than 39,000 children were among the 136,000 deported Lithuanians. 5,000 of these children died of hunger, epidemics and diseases because of a lack of sanitation or medical help.



Memorial. Execution of Lithuanian Policemen and Border Guard Officers



The executions in the guardhouse at Medininkai

At 4 o'clock in the morning on July 31, 1991, eight Lithuanian policemen and border guard officers were executed in *Medininkai* on the Lithuanian border with Belarus. They were killed by shots to the back of the head as they lay on the floor of the guardhouse. The executors were *Soviet OMON forces* from Riga (Special units of armed police forces). The custom officers were unarmed. The policemen were armed but with the order not to use the weapons to avoid provocations. One of the border officers, *Tomas Sernas*, miraculously survived, albeit disabled.

The establishment of the Lithuanian border posts was a logical consequence of the fact that Lithuania had declared itself independent in March 1990. The Soviet Union did not accept this independence and viewed the border posts as illegal.

Tomas Sernas has told that the OMON forces attacked the station from the nearby forest, dressed in Soviet uniforms. He was surprised to see the men, but not really afraid. He expected to receive a black eye, a bloodied lip, maybe, and for the Lithuanian flag to be destroyed, as had been the case in other similar attacks, but no more. He was to be married the next day and at least he had an interesting story to tell the guests. All prisoners were ordered into the guardhouse and told to lay down on the floor. The light was turned off and the executions began. At first, Tomas Sernas did not understand that shots were being fired because of the silencers on the guns. When it was his turn he was beaten around the head with the handle of a gun, then shot through the head. He was not found until the next morning.

Another border guard was killed at another guardhouse. In other places the staffs was beaten and the buildings were burned down or demolished. All the suspected OMON soldiers were Russian citizens. One of them is now imprisoned in Vilnius, the others are in Russia and not brought to justice.

Top: From the inside of the guardhouse. Photos of the executed policemen and border guards.

Middle: The guardhouse, today protected by a glass house.

Bottom: The day after the massacre.



The Memorial in Medininkai

The guardhouse is protected as a memorial, located approximately 100 meters from the customs post between Lithuania and Belarus, on main road 103 between Vilnius and Minsk. The key can be borrowed from the customs post if the house is closed. There are several memorials on the spot.

Medininkai, Lithuania



Tomas Sernas survived the massacre at Medininkai border post and is sentenced to life in a wheelchair. He was working as a biologist in Kaunas Zoo at the time and felt that he had to do something for his newly independent country so he volunteered as a border guard officer. All the other executed persons were volunteers. Today Tomas Sernas is a priest of the Evangelical Reformed Church of Lithuania in Vilnius.

All the murdered persons are buried at the Antakalnis Cemetery (Antakalnio kapinės) in Vilnius. They have all received one of the highest state awards, the 1st Class Order of the Cross of Vytis.

Exhibition on Medininkai at the Museum of the Customs Service, Vilnius

The museum has a special exhibition about the executions of the border guards and policemen at the Medininkai border post. The exhibition consists of personal belongings, documents, photographs and interviews.

Apart from this, the museum's collection contains material on the history of the Lithuanian customs service, including the occupation periods, 1940-1990.



Left: Tomas Sernas' blood can still be seen on the floor in the guardhouse.

Right: A memorial on the site. Seven holes in the sculpture symbolize the seven executed Lithuanians. The unfinished hole on the left symbolizes the survivor, Tomas Sernas.



The guardhouse. The day after the execution of seven Lithuanian policemen and border guard officers.



Museum of the Customs Service

Address: Jeruzalės str. 25 g.

Website: see: www.cust.lt/customs-museum.

Opening hours: Monday to Thursday 8.30–16. Friday 8.30–15.

Guided tours: Can be arranged in advance by phone, tel.: 8 5 279 63 46.

Druskininkai Museum of Resistance and Deportations

The regional history of resistance and deportations

The museum is founded by former deportees and functions on a voluntary basis.

It concentrates on the regional history and focuses on three topics:

- The armed resistance,
- The deportations,
- The unarmed resistance.

The museum is involved in the regional development of memorials for the partisans, including the reconstruction of partisan bunkers and thematic tours for visitors.

The armed resistance. Large losses in the district

The exhibition of the armed resistance is limited to the region of Dzukija, in which the *Dainava Partisan district* was founded. It was one of the nine military partisan districts in Lithuania. The Dainava district consisted of three corps. The Lithuanian partisan movement was quite well-organised and effective compared to many other Soviet occupied countries. The organisation was based on the principles of the Lithuanian army from the independence period before 1940.

The first partisan unit in the area was formed in 1944 and the armed resistance came to an end in practice in 1954. It is estimated that 2,000 partisans were killed in the district. The largest losses occurred in the first years, 1944-45. Most partisans were found and executed with the help of infiltrators.

The deportations to camps and isolated regions

People were deported as:

- *prisoners* sent to GULAG camps as slave labourers
- *deportees* who should develop isolated regions of the Soviet Union through hard physical labour.

The deportees from the post-war years came mainly from the countryside. The objective was to weaken the partisan movement and force people to join the collective farms. It is not known how many people were deported from this region but, from one village, Viršurodukis, 26 out of 96 inhabitants were sent away. After 1956, when people were allowed to return to Lithuania, around 1,000 people returned to Druskininkai. Many were people deported from other parts of Lithuania but it was easier for them to settle here because of a need for workers and the expanding regional development.

*The Museum arranges visits to several nearby reconstructed underground partisan bunkers in the forests. **Left:** The remains of a bunker before reconstruction, Norulių forest (Dzūkija National Park). **Right:** The bunker after the reconstruction in 1997. The*

bunker is approximately 6 square meters and was the hiding and living place for 4 partisans. The bunker was discovered by Soviet security forces and destroyed in 1947. All 4 partisans were killed.



Druskininkai, Lithuania

Druskininkai Museum of Resistance and Deportations

(Druskininkų rezistencijos ir tremties muziejus)

Address: Vilniaus al. 24, Druskininkai.

Opening hours: Wednesday – Sunday: 13:00 – 17:00

June, July, August, September: Tuesday – Sunday: 13:00 – 17:00. Outside opening hours or, if the museum is shut, call director Gintautas Kazlauskas. Tel.: (+370 313) 45 842, (+370 313) 52 831. Mob. (+370 656) 08 373.

Guided tour: “On the paths of the Partisans”. Visit to reconstructed partisan bunkers. By bus, 3-4 hours.

The history of Gintautas Kazlauskas and his family

Gintautas Kazlauskas is the director and one of the founders of the museum. He also works as a guide.

Both he and his family were deported to Siberia and their story is representative of many other deportations from occupied countries.

Gintautas' father, *Antanas Kazlauskas*, was a schoolteacher. During the first Soviet occupation in 1940-41, teachers were one of the categories of people who were deported, which meant that around 1,200 teachers and their families were sent to Siberia. Antanas Kazlauskas was in hospital at the time and therefore avoided the deportation but this did not prevent his wife *Anastazija* and their two children *Gintautas* (6 years old) and *Laima* (1 year old) from being sent. Laima died of the hard living conditions shortly after arriving in Siberia. A very ill Gintautas survived by a miracle. In 1947 *Anastazija* managed to flee back to Lithuania with Gintautas where they lived illegally with Antanas. *Anastazija* was arrested in 1949 and sentenced to three years in prison for escaping from Siberia. She was then deported once more. Antanas and Gintautas tried to avoid deportation but without luck. They were arrested and deported in 1953. Antanas and *Anastazija* were allowed to return to Lithuania from Siberia in 1957. Gintautas stayed in Russia for a number of reasons but returned in 1989 when the freedom movement started in Lithuania.

Top: *Gintautas Kazlauskas at the Druskininkai Museum of Resistance and Relics of Deportations.*

Middle: *Children of deportees. Tenga sovkhos, Farm No. 1. Altay region, Onguday district, 1947. Gintautas Kazlauskas is standing on the right.*

Bottom: *Anastazija and Antanas Kazlauskas with their son Gintautas. Lithuania, 1948, when the family was united after Anastazija's escape from Siberia with her son. A year later, she was jailed for three years and then sent back to Siberia.*



Druskininkai Museum of Resistance and Deportations



Adomas Akstinas travelled from Lithuania to visit the family of his son, who was deported in 1948. He is here photographed together with his grandchildren in Birikchul, Krasnoyarsk region, 1954.



Christmas Eve of the prisoners in a GULAG camp in Taishet, Irkutsk region, 1955.

Druskininkai, Lithuania

Young deported Lithuanians, mainly teenagers, working on construction of a railroad. Balakhtash, Krasnoyarsk region, 1950.

Bottom right: *Angelė Rėkiutė with her mother Kotryna and father Boleslovas. Griazny, Krasnoyarsk region, 1949.*

The brothers Vincas and Bronius Pigaga, both born in Siberia. Birikchul, Krasnoyarsk region, 1953.



Grutas Park. Soviet Sculptures and Propaganda



The Communist propaganda and personality cult

The overall aim of *Grutas Park* is to demonstrate the Communist propaganda and personality cult as well as the brutality of the regime in Lithuania during the Soviet period or, in the words of the park: “..... *the naked Soviet ideology which suppressed and hurt the spirit of our nation for many decades*”. The park is 23 hectares in size and consists of various exhibitions and activities. It was founded and financed in 2001 by a local person, *Viliumas Malinauskas*, who works in the mushroom and berry business. He won a tender called by the government to establish an exhibition of dismantled Soviet sculptures.

Grutas Park consists of:

- A Soviet sculpture exhibition.
- A museum built in the form of a local Soviet culture house.
- A picture gallery with art in the Soviet style.
- A restaurant.
- Amusement facilities for children: a playground and a zoo.



A unique exhibition of Soviet sculptures

Today, the sculpture exhibition is the main attraction in Grutas Park. Around 90 sculptures are located along a 2 km-long footpath, also with guard towers, barbed-wire fence and other fragments from Soviet GULAG camps. The sculptures show all Communist leaders, including *Lenin*, *Stalin*, *Marx* and *Felix Dzerzhinsky* (the founder of the secret Communist police) as well as many leaders of the *Lithuanian Communist Party* and officers from the *Red Army* – most of them ethnic Lithuanians. There were many opinions about these kinds of sculptures in all former Soviet countries after the fall of the Communist regimes. Should they be destroyed or preserved? In most countries they were nearly all destroyed, for example in Estonia, Latvia and Poland.

The exhibition in the museum building tells the history of the mass deportations of ordinary Lithuanian people and “political prisoners” and the extermination of the Lithuanian partisans.



Top: A Soviet train with a cattle wagon used for deportations. Note the small red flag on the top at the front.

Middle: The museum is built and partly furnished as a local Soviet culture house, as in the 1940s and 1950s.

Bottom: From the picture gallery. An agricultural expert advises the people at the collective farm. Soviet realism style.

Druskininkai, Lithuania



Soviet partisans from the Second World War.



Memorial to the Soviet Army. A sign with a photo from the Soviet period shows the original site of the sculpture on top of a pillar.



Grutas Park (Grūto parkas)

Address: Grūtas, Druskininkai.

Grutas Park is located in the south-west of Lithuania, 5 km from Druskininkai, 120 km west of Vilnius and 120 km south of Kaunas. Buses run from Vilnius to Druskininkai several times a day. Buses run from Druskininkai to Grutas Park. See the website.

Website: www.grutoparkas.lt

Opening hours: High season: 9.00-22.00. Low season: 9.00-17.00.

Bottom left: The region in which Grutas Park is located is known for its delicate mushroom dishes. Such dishes are served at the restaurant in the park but it is also possible to order ordinary dishes from the Soviet period, as seen on this menu.

Right: From the exhibition at the museum. Poster with Leonid Brezhnev (1906-1982), the General Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and hence also the political leader of the Soviet Union. The text is typical Soviet philosophy from the period: "Economic must be economical".

Left: Small train from Soviet period.

Right: Guard tower from a Soviet GULAG camp.



Reconstructed Siberian Yurt. The Open Air Museum of Lithuania

Deported to Siberia “for the rest of your life”

Recent history is represented at the *Open Air Museum* by:

- A reconstructed peat hut, a yurt, built and used by deported Lithuanian people north of the Polar Circle.
- A cattle wagon used for deportation.
- A reconstructed partisan bunker (a guide is needed to visit the bunker. Call the museum administration in advance).

In the summer of 1941, arrests and mass deportations took place in all Baltic countries. The deportations involved 18,000 Lithuanians. The reason for these deportations was simply to use the people as slave labour or, in the words of the official Communist documents to the deported people, to send them: “to remote regions of Siberia for the rest of your life”. The deportations were characterized by a separation of the men from the women and children. The men were sent to GULAG camps. Many people were sent to the Laptev Sea region, north of the Polar Circle with permanent frost. The stay was marked by cold, hunger, disease and death, which hit the old and the children first and foremost. In 1942-43, half of all deported Karelian Finns and a third of the Lithuanians on the island Trofimovsk died. After Stalin’s death, many of the survivors could return to Lithuania.

A reconstructed peat hut, a so-called yurt, from the Laptev Sea region, a place with permafrost and a temperature of up to minus 50 degrees. The windows were made of pieces of ice and the inside temperature never rose above freezing. The museum guide standing in the door is Irene Spakauskiene, who was deported to the area with her family when she was a small girl.

The Open Air Museum of Lithuania, Rumšiškės. (Lietuvos Liaudies Buities Muziejus)

The 195 ha area is located in beautiful countryside, adjacent to a large artificial lake.

The museum is an attraction for foreigners and locals alike.

It includes 183 traditional buildings exhibited as farmsteads and villages. Town buildings are grouped around a square. The museum has active exhibitions with weavers, wood carvers, potters and other craftsmen at work. Visitors can experience a way of life, traditional house construction and equipment techniques of different generations covering the period from the end of 18th century until the first half of the 20th century. The interior exhibitions show restored household articles and furniture, clothes etc.

Address: J. Aisčio g. 2, Rumšiškės (10 km east of Kaunas).

Website: www.llbm.lt

Opening hours: May – September: Wednesday – Sunday: 10:00 – 18:00. The park is open until 20:00 all year around. Only the park is open on Mondays and Tuesday, not the interior exhibitions. October - April: Tuesday – Sunday: 10:00 – 18:00. Interior exhibitions can only be visited with a guide from the museum.

Guided tours: Guided tours are conducted in English, German, Polish and Russian. Guided tours must be booked in advance. Tel.: +370 346 47392. Possibilities for thematic excursions (including local food tasting), hobbies and educational programs.



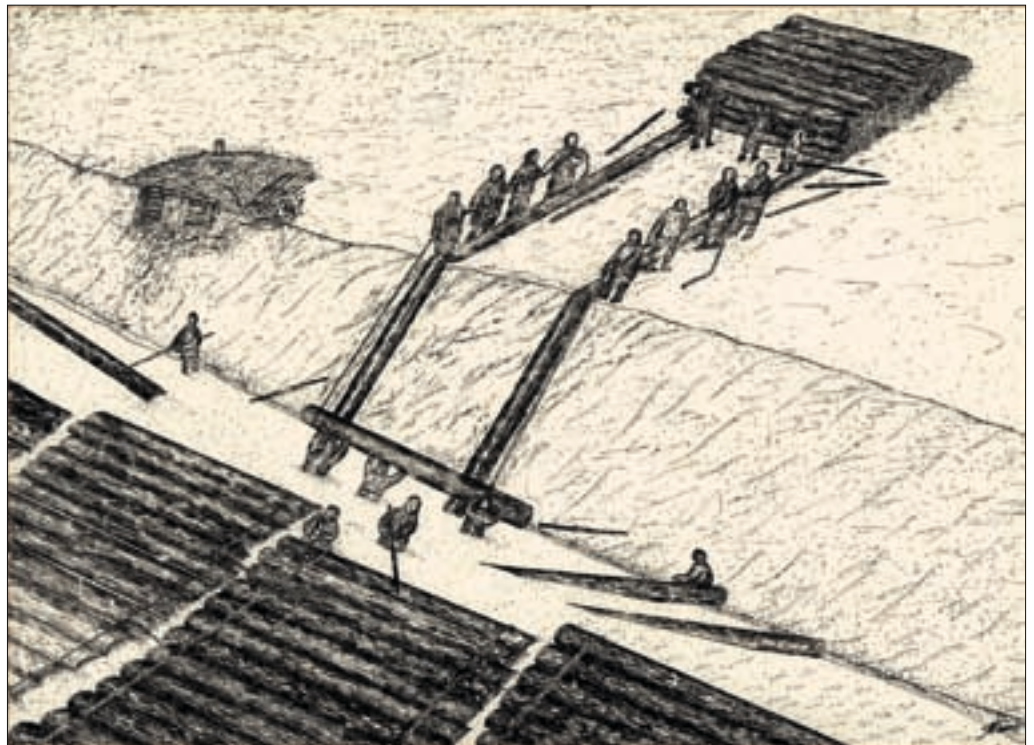
Rumsiskes, Lithuania

Drawings by Gintautas Martynaitis, who was born in 1935. He was a self-taught artist who created impressive drawings from Siberia. His family was deported as slave labours in 1941. His father was sent to a hard labour camp, and his mother with two small boys to the island of Trofimovsk near the Laptev Sea north of the Polar Circle. Gintautas Martynaitis worked as an electrician in Yakutia region from 1956 on. His brother died in 1955. Together with his mother, he returned to Lithuania in 1959. He died in 1991.

Top: Inside one of the large barracks. The temperature was below zero inside the house, except near the oven made from an iron barrel. There was no electricity and no possibility of lighting the house in the evening. Many people died under these living conditions, strongly exacerbated by the hard work, the cold and the suffering from scurvy and typhus.



One of the tasks in Trofimovsk was to drag logs ashore from the river, bind them together and drag them to the city where they were used for heating. It was extremely hard work in icy water and often snow storms.



The “ab” Underground Printing House

The illegal print media in occupied Lithuania

The secret “ab” Printing House was set up in 1979 by Vytautis Andziulis, a professional printer, and Juozas Bacevičius. The name “ab” comes from the initials of their last names.

The printing house was never found by the secret police although there were some close calls.

Printed publications and books played a crucial role for all kinds of resistance movements during the Soviet occupation and were produced both in Lithuania and smuggled in from abroad. Books were often camouflaged in Soviet book covers.

Many people were arrested, tortured, jailed and executed because of printing and distribution activities.

The “ab” Printing House

The printing house produced 23 different books in 138,000 copies, dealing with Lithuanian history, religion, philosophy and poetry.

The rooms for printing activities are constructed 7 meters under the home of Vytautis Andziulis and his wife Birute. Most of the printing machinery was self built. The offset press was a part of a washing machine.

It took 2 years to set up the printing facilities. The work was done without attracting attention from the neighbours and in such a way that it would not be detected if the police visited. Even the electrical wires from the printing rooms to the house above were carefully hidden. Such wires were often the way in

which police would find secretly constructed rooms for illegal activities.

A visit to the house also gives the possibility of seeing the impressive garden of the Andziulis family. It was flowers from this garden sold on the market that provided the funding to establish the printing facilities.

Only the two founders and Birute knew of the printing facilities. Birute took care of the three children in the house, who did not know anything of the activities. She guarded the house when the printing was taking place and also often helped with printing, type-setting and binding of the books. Juozas Bacevičius also took part in this kind of work but was mainly responsible for distribution, aided by his wife Adele.

The “ab” Printing House. („ab“ spaustuė)

Address: The collective garden village Salių, 5 kilometres north of Kaunas. The printing house is located in the home of the Andziulis family.

The printing house is today a branch of the Museum of Vytautas Didysis, Kaunas, also the Museum of War of Lithuania.

Telephone: Tel. (+370 ~ 37) 55 32 49, +370 601 86 521. Please call before a visit.

Opening hours: April 1– September 30: Tuesday-Sunday: 11–17. October 1 – March 31: Tuesday-Saturday: 10–17.

The home of the Andziulis family, located on the top of a hill on the banks of the small Salių River, north of Kaunas. It is today possible to visit these secret rooms and see the offset press and other original printing equipment. The photo is from a pamphlet and the text reads, “The secret echo from the mountain”.



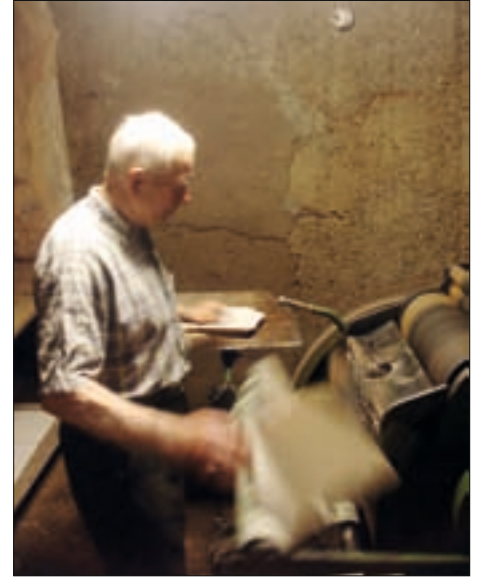
Juozas Bacevičius, who died in 1995, founded the secret printing house together with Vytautis Andziulis. He was a farmer and a deeply religious man. Atheistic Communist propaganda was the main reason for his activities. He died in 1995, unfortunately before his work had become fully known and appreciated. Both founders have been awarded the Order of the Cross of Vytis.



Kaunas, Lithuania



The entrance to the secret rooms with the printing facilities is in the greenhouse. A three-ton cement watering pool can be moved aside and the rooms under the house can be reached through a tunnel.



Vytautis Andziulis working at the homemade offset press.

Vytautis and Birute Andziulis in front of the greenhouse. The name of the printing house, "ab", is formed of the initial letters of the founders' names, Andziulis and Bacevičius.

In the home of the Andziulis family are also exhibitions on printing and underground activities.

The entrance to the memorial room of the Lithuanian armed partisans.



Plokštine Missile Base



The security zone around the top secret base was ringed by a 1700-volt electric barbed-wire fence. Security restrictions were often imposed on the local population. They were ordered to close their curtains and switch off the lights during night transportation of missiles and equipment. It is said that the local people knew more about the base than the soldiers.

The warhead depot. Eight missile warheads were stored in a nearby strong and secure depot. Extra missiles were stored in another depot. A garage construction housed two 25-meter long machines intended to transport and place new missiles permanently into the silos after firing of the old ones. Metal thieves stripped the site before the former base was protected by the National Park Administration. Only a minimum off the original equipment therefore remains.



One missile was more explosive than the total force used in the Second World War

There were nearly 40 Soviet missile bases in the Baltic States and Kaliningrad.

Plokštinė Missile Base was in operation from 1962 until 1978.

The missiles from Plokštinė could reach targets anywhere in Europe. One missile could probably carry up to a 5-megaton bomb, more explosive than the total force used during the Second World War, including the two nuclear bombs dropped on Japan. The normal size was 2.3 megatons. The targets were changed every 3-4 years for military reasons. In one period, the targets were cities in West Germany, Britain, Spain, Norway and Turkey. The missiles were programmed for the targets from the very start.

The base was armed with four medium-range missiles of the types R-12 (Soviet name) or SS-4 (NATO name). These missiles were active from 1960 and were fired from silos or open sites. From 1978 on, the SS-4 were replaced by so-called SS-20 missiles, which were fired from vehicles and easier to handle.

All the SS-4 missiles were scrapped after the *SALT II* arms reduction treaty between the U.S. and the Soviet Union in 1987.

The Cuban Missile Crisis

The Plokštinė Missile Base played a role in the so-called *Cuban Missile Crisis*. The Soviet Union had established missile bases on Cuba, near to the United States, who demanded that the bases be closed and threatened to forcibly stop the Soviet ships that were bringing the missiles to Cuba. Personnel from the Plokštinė Missile Base participated in transportation of missiles from Lithuania to Cuba (on a commercial ship from Sevastopol) as well as the following construction work in Cuba.

It is said that the first commander of the base, *Kalisnickenko*, refused to participate in the Cuban operation, and was therefore replaced. The commanders were rarely present on the base, only in case of increased military preparedness, such as the Czechoslovakian uprising in 1968, the most critical moment during the Cold War period, together with the Cuban Crisis.

Plokštinė Missile Base, Zemaitija National Park (Žemaitijos nacionalinis parkas)

Address: Plateliai Visitor Centre, Didžioji g. 8, Plateliai, Plungės r. (Plunges Region).

Webpage: www.zemaitijosnp.lt.

Opening hours: September-April.

Guided tours: The Missile Base can only be visited in the company of a guide from the Visitor Centre. For more details please contact the centre by email: info@zemaitijosnp.lt or by phone: 00370 448 49231.

Zemaitija National Park, Lithuania

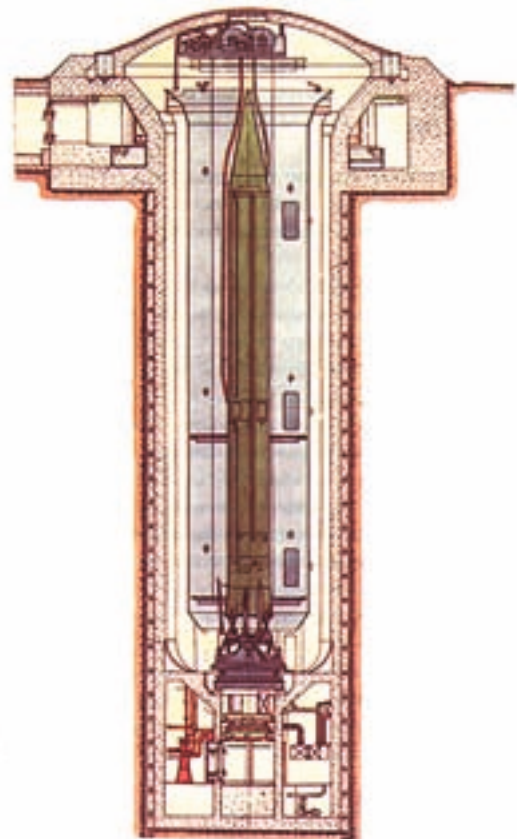


Plan of the base. The base had 4 silos and all necessary facilities in an underground complex in the middle: control room, electricity station, air conditioning system, rooms for staff etc. The base was rapidly built in 2 years and 3 months by 10,000 soldiers, mainly Estonians.



The top of the silos functioned as a protection shield for the missiles. They could be removed on rails in case of firing.

Bottom: *A missile in the silo. It is possible today to get inside one of the silos. The total length of the SS-4 was 23 metres and it had a start weight of 42 tons. Its top speed was 2,570 metres/second and it had a range of more than 2,000 kilometres.*



Norway

The Second World War. Invaded by Germany because of its strategic location in the North Atlantic

Norway declared itself neutral at the outbreak of war in 1939 but was still attacked by Germany in 1940. The reason was Norway's important strategic location in the North Atlantic, close to the Allies' shipping convoy routes from the United States to the ice-free northern Soviet harbours along the Barents Sea coast, including the major port of Murmansk.

The Norwegian Government resisted the German invaders. Most notably, the German battle cruiser *Blücher* was sunk in the Oslo Fjord by the defences of the *Coastal Artillery Fortress Oscarsborg*. The resistance in Norway was abandoned a few months after the occupation, although the king and the government continued the fight from the United Kingdom. The German occupation forces, together with a puppet government, were thwarted by a widespread and strong Norwegian resistance movement, the Home Front, which carried out sabotage and valuable intelligence activities.

The northernmost part of Norway, Finnmarken, was liberated by the Soviet army in 1944-45. It was an important achievement. From this area, daily attacks were carried out by German bomber planes against Murmansk, where military equipment for the Red Army was unloaded from convoy ships and put onto the railway.

Member of NATO and neighbour to the Kola Peninsula, one of the most powerful Soviet military centres

Norway had become more sceptical of neutrality following the German occupation during the Second World War and also the Soviet occupation of the Eastern European countries after the war. A Soviet invasion of Norway was regarded as possible. Norway was therefore one of the signatory parties to NATO's formation in 1949. (NATO: *North Atlantic Treaty Organization*).

After the war, the Russian Kola Peninsula was developed as one of the most comprehensive and highly fortified military centres in the world, and it was located on the border with Norway. The ice-free military harbours housed the *Soviet Northern Fleet*, with seven naval bases, several shipyards, air bases and factories producing military equipment. The area was home to more than 200 submarines, most of them powered by nuclear missiles. Around two-thirds of all the Soviet Navy's nuclear force was based here.

The main sea route from the Kola Peninsula to the Atlantic Sea was along the Norwegian coast. It formed the access route to the coastal areas of the United States and the Western European countries, as well as the American supply line to Europe in case of war.

Northern Norway in particular thus became a cornerstone

in the NATO defence system and it resulted in close military cooperation between the United States and Norway.

Northern Norway was simply developed as the first Western defence line in case of war with the Soviet Union, and the whole of Norwegian society was prepared for a "total defence" war in case of a Soviet invasion.

Behind this development was massive US economic support for the construction of air bases, harbours, arms reserves, fortifications and monitoring and warning systems, as well as support for fully modernised Norwegian military forces. Comprehensive secret service activities were an important part of the Norwegian role in NATO.

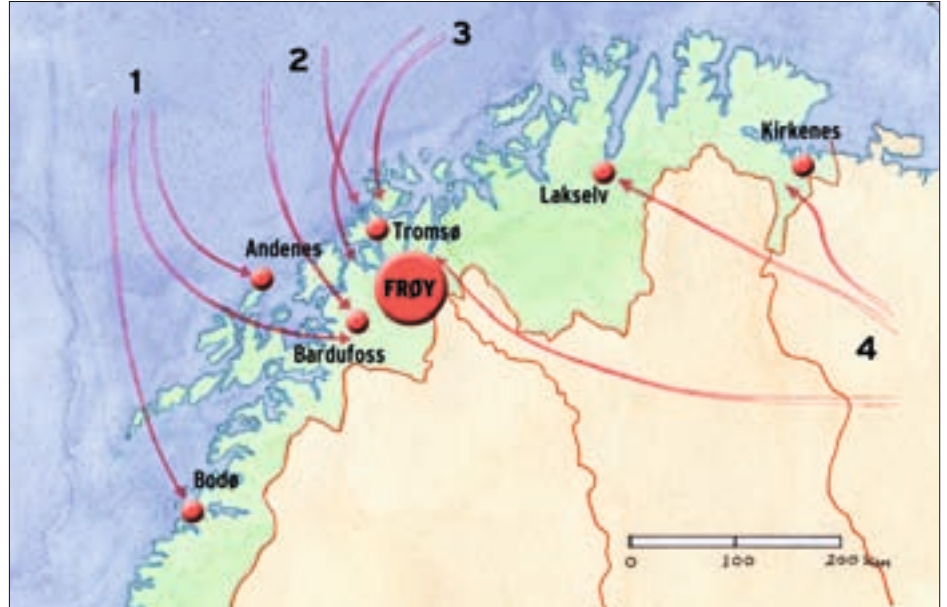


Norway

The arrows show a possible Soviet attack on Northern Norway.

1. Bombers,
 2. Parachute troops,
 3. Marine infantry, motorised infantry and tank forces,
 4. Motorised infantry and tank forces.
- The middle and southern parts of Norway were "hidden" behind Sweden and strong Swedish defence forces.*

The big red dot show the Frøy infantry line, located more than 500 kilometres from the Soviet border. This line were the most important northern Norwegian defence line in case of war because it was assumed that it would not be possible to defend Finmarken, the frontier region with the Soviet Union.



Norway was prepared for all-out war in case of a Soviet invasion. Never again did they want an invasion like that of 9 April 1940, when the Germans surprised an unprepared Norwegian nation.

Military equipment, arms, fuel stores etc. were spread all over the country, often hidden in buildings such as cottages, garages, storage buildings etc.



From the Frøy defence line, a strong infantry line built over the period 1950-90. See the map above.



The National Norwegian Aviation Museum

The Aviation Museum and it's relation to the Cold War period

The museum has three important links with the Cold War period:

- It is located in Bodø, a militarily strategic town from the Cold War period.
- It has a collection of planes that were active in the Cold War period and
- A new an extensive Cold War exhibition is being planned in a large rock hangar at the nearby Bodø Main Air Station.

The strategic location of Bodø.

The military headquarters for Northern Norway.

The Norwegian military headquarters for Northern Norway were located in Bodø. The reasons were that Bodø has:

- A location not too near to the expected battlefields in Northern Norway,
- Good communication lines to Southern Norway,
- Good physical potential for building military harbours and airports.

The National Norwegian Aviation Museum, Bodø (Norsk Luftfartsmuseum, Bodø)

Address: Bodø.

Website: www.luftfart.museum.no

Opening hours: Monday-Friday: 10:00-16:00, Saturday: 11:00-17:00. Sunday: 11:00-17:00.
Summer time, 15 June-15 August: 10:00-18:00.

Guided tours: Guiding and children's tours from July to mid-August. The museum offers guided tours every day. These are included in the entrance fee. Group tours must be booked in advance, at least four days ahead.



Bodø was a center for NATO activities in the Cold War period and developed as a highly americanised service and administrative town. In case of war, NATO forces would arrive to defend Northern Norway and commence offensive operations against the Soviet Union.

Bodø Main Air Station. Tasks in peace and war

The airfield was able to handle large air forces in case of war. It was intended that aircraft from the air station should contribute to weakening the Soviet air force defence system. Once this task was fulfilled, B-52 bombers would enter Soviet airspace with nuclear weapons. Norway had decided not to have nuclear weapons in peacetime, but Bodø Air Station was prepared for the reception of nuclear weapons in a special storage facility.

The main task during the Cold War period was surveillance of Soviet military activities in the North Atlantic, thereby securing Norwegian territory. No other air force in the NATO alliance confronted Soviet flights as frequently as Norwegian flights from Bodø did, sometimes more than a thousand Soviet planes a year.

Bodø involved in the U-2 crisis in 1960

Bodø came under the international spotlight during the U-2 spy flight crisis. The American U-2 pilot, *Gary Powers*, was shot down over the Soviet Union on his way from Pakistan to Bodø. The Norwegian government were required to deny this for political reasons, both national and international.

U-2s could operate over long distances and at extreme heights. The flight project was developed by the CIA and operations commenced in 1956, so it took four years for the Soviet air forces to hit a flight with a missile.

The successor to the U-2, the strong and improved SR-71 spy plane, landed several times at Bodø but only due to technical problems. U-2s are used to this day as a supplement to satellite photography, and in regions without advanced anti-aircraft defences such as Iraq, Bosnia and Kosovo.

Opposite page.

Top: A Soviet Backfire bomber armed with a nuclear capable cruise missile. One of the 1000 Soviet airplanes intercepted by Norwegian fighters outside the coast of Norway every year in the 1960s to 1980s. In the top year of 1972, more than 1.500 Soviet aircrafts was intercepted.

Bottom: Children as "flight-builders" in the Norwegian Aviation Museum.

Bodø, Norway



Oscarsborg Fortress

The main task of the fortress was to hinder access to Oslo

Oscarsborg Fortress is located on two small and connected islands in the middle of the narrow part of the Oslo Fjord. The task of the fortress was to hinder access by sea to the Norwegian capital Oslo at the end of the fjord.

The construction of the fortress in its current form was completed in the period 1845-1853. The large southern emplacement was, as today, equipped with 10 cannons. From 1895-1905, the fortress was a cornerstone in the third defence line around Oslo.

Oscarsborg is also an example of the extensive development of military equipment and weapons since the Second World War. The fortress played a military role in the war but had lost its military value only a few years into the Cold War period. Only the underwater torpedo battery was in full operation until 1993, because it could be used against enemy submarines trying to enter the fjord.

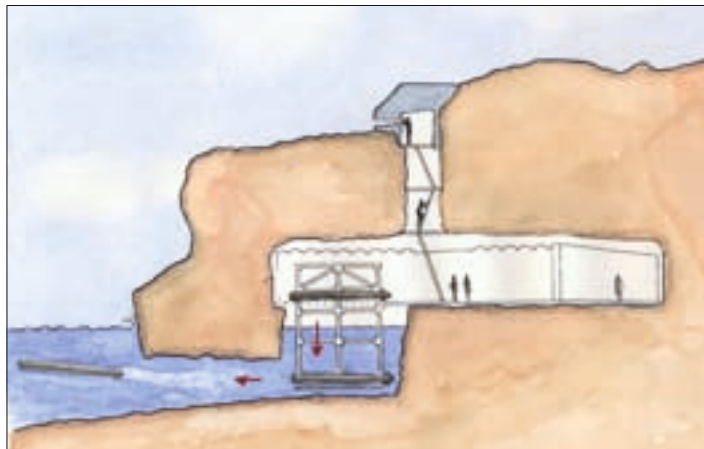
Sinking of the German cruiser *Blücher*

The fortress was in action on the night before the German occupation of Norway in 1940. A squadron of German battleships tried to sneak into the fjord under cover of dark to occupy Oslo via a surprise early morning attack. The first ship in the squadron, the enormous 12,200-ton cruiser *Blücher*, was shot and badly damaged from several Norwegian emplacements, and finally sunk by two torpedoes fired from the underwater battery at Oscarsborg when it sailed through the narrow passage where the battery was located. It is estimated that 650 Germans perished in the sinking. The other warships withdrew from the fjord. The next day, Oscarsborg was bombed by German aircraft and subsequently surrendered.

By delaying the occupational forces for some hours, the king and the government were able to flee safely from Oslo.

Today, a popular excursion spot

The islands can today be seen as a comprehensive, historical and military environment with many different constructions and buildings such as emplacements, the fort, torpedo battery, ammunitions depots, buildings for officers and men, residence of the commandant, building for all kinds of craftsmen working on maintenance and new buildings, etc. Military activities have now ceased and Oscarsborg is open to the public. It is a popular excursion place with four museums, the *Fortress Museum*, the *Coastal Artillery Museum*, the *Torpedo Battery* and the *West Shore Battery*, as well as many facilities for visitors such as a guest harbour, hotel, restaurant and café.



The torpedo battery. The underground and underwater torpedo battery was built around 1900. It was from here that the two torpedoes were fired that sank the German cruiser *Blücher* only a few hundred meters outside the battery.

The sketch at top. The battery consists of:

- Sighting towers above ground with access to operation rooms.
- Operation rooms such as a torpedo hall, storage, control room, generator and compressor rooms, rooms for personnel etc.
- Torpedo launch pads installed on a kind of elevator so that the torpedoes could be immersed in the water and fired.

The photo is from the torpedo hall where the torpedoes were installed on the launch pads (seen in the background).

The torpedo battery is only open to pre-booked visits.

Opposite page: Oscarsborg Fortress is located on two small islands in the narrow part of the Oslo Fjord, 25 kilometers south of Oslo. The unique military environment has many facilities for visitors and is worth a whole day's visit.

Oslo Fjord, Norway



Oscarsborg Fortress (Oscarsborg Festningsmuseum)

Website: www.nasjonalefestningsverk.no/oscarsborg

Access to the islands: There are frequent ferry connections to the town, Drøbak, on the mainland opposite Oscarsborg. Crossing: 10 minutes. Ferry tickets can be bought at the quay or on the ferry. In summertime there is also a weekly ferry connection from the centre of Oslo. See website.

Opening hours: Oscarsborg Museums: 9:00-17:00 every day. The islands are open to the public at any time, but it is only possible to stay overnight at the hotel.

Guided tours: It is possible to arrange guided tours and also to join tours without booking in advance. See the website. The torpedo battery can only be visited on guided tours. A special fortress trail takes about 1.5 hours. A brochure can be found at the harbour or can be downloaded from the website (see downloadable file at "Walk the fortress trail"). An activity trail for children is located on the northern island.



Herdla Torpedo Battery

Nazi German torpedo batteries along the Norwegian coast

Herdla Torpedo Battery was built in 1944 by the Nazi German occupation forces. It was a part of the *Herdla Coastal Fort* on the island of Askøy. The fort was established in 1940, together with an airbase.

During the war, the Germans established torpedo batteries at no less than 15 sites along the Norwegian coast to protect the entrances to major ports and as cover for the naval forces at sea. The batteries were run by the German Navy and the equipment came from German warships.

The Herdla Coastal Fort was to protect the north entrance to the important town, Bergen.

Herdla Torpedo Battery

The first torpedo tubes were mounted on a rotating plate above the water but inside a bunker. The torpedoes were shot out by compressed air through openings in the bunker. After dropping into the sea they would continue on to their target.

The torpedo tubes on Herdla came from the German warship *Königsberg*, which was sunk in Bergen harbour on 10 April 1940.

It was decided after the war to continue operating the Herdla Torpedo Battery because of its strategic location by Bergen.

The plant and the torpedoes were upgraded several times. A major modernisation took place from 1987 to 1992. The torpedoes were now fired from a bunker underwater and

directly out in the sea from four nailed torpedo cannon. The modernization was based on experiences in the Gulf War when it became apparent that new weapons could hit visible targets with great accuracy.

Several torpedo batteries, including Herdla, were put on standby in 2000 and finally closed in 2006.

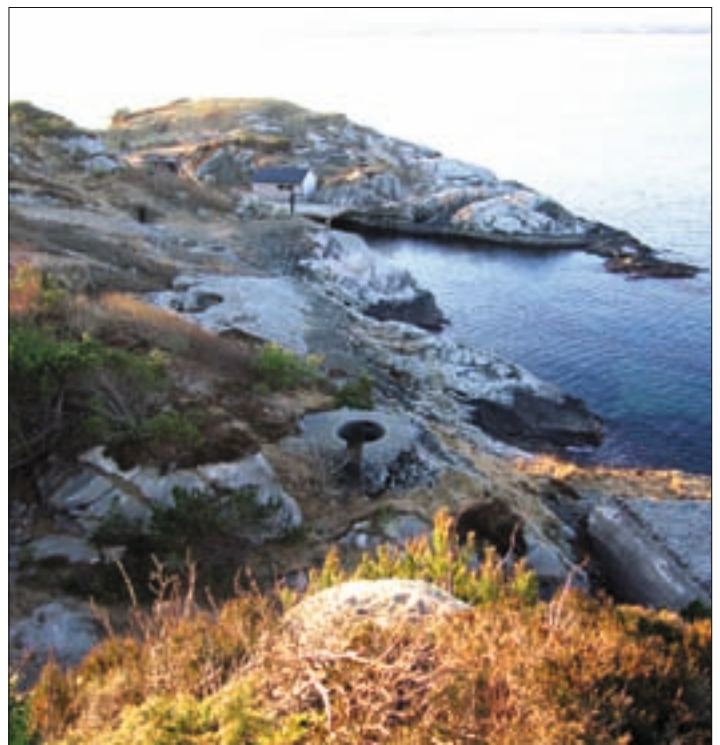
The underground installations: a command unit and a torpedo hall

The underground battery, constructed inside the mountain, consists of two main tunnels: *the Command Unit* and the *Torpedo Hall*.

The battery was protected against nuclear, biological and chemical weapons and had strict cleaning facilities at the entrances to ensure a clean and functional battery in case of an attack.

The Command Unit was the command site for determining the torpedo targets and the close defence of the battery (such as air artillery). All “offices” and facilities for the staff were placed in containers which hung on chains to prevent influences from bomb attacks.

The Torpedo Hall had all rooms for storage, preparation, firing and steering of the torpedoes as well as all functions and facilities necessary to the staff.



Askøy, Norway

Herdla Torpedo Battery (Herdla topedobatteri), Herdla Museum

The Torpedo Battery is likely to be opened to the public in 2012 but it is now possible to book a guided tour at the Herdla Museum. A main theme of the museum is the Second World War, when the Nazi German occupation forces had a coastal fort and an airbase on the island. The exhibition houses models of airplanes, the airbase and defence installations, plus objects from wartime. In 2010, the museum opened a new exhibition showing the German fighter plane "Yellow 16", which was lifted from the sea in 2006.

Herdla Museum is a branch of Museum Vest, which is responsible for the running of six local museums.

Address: Herdla Museum, Askøy (island).

Website: www.museumvest.no.

Opening hours of Herdla Museum: 1st June-15th August.

Every day: 12:00-17:00. 1st March-31st May and 15th

August-30th November: Sundays 12:00-17:00.



From the firing chamber.

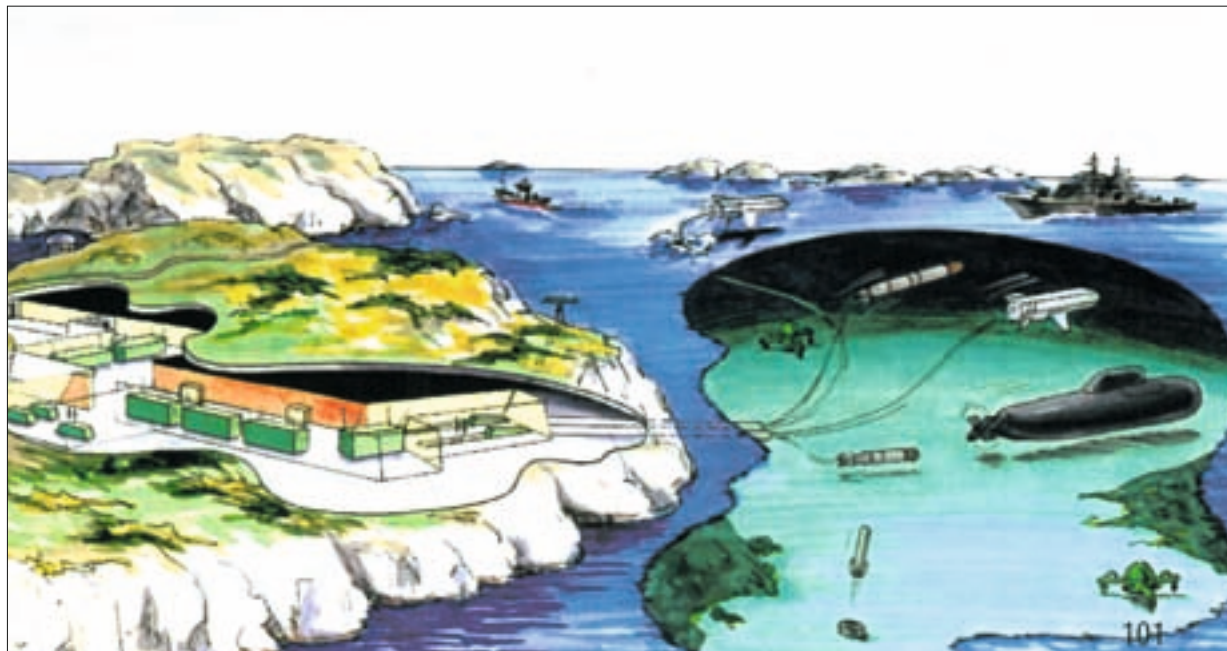
Illustration of an underground torpedo battery as part of an attack on the Norwegian coast. The torpedo defence of the coast was co-ordinated with warships, aircraft, submarines and minefields.

Opposite page, left:

The first Herdla Torpedo Battery. The torpedoes were shot out through openings in the bunker above the waterline.

Opposite page, right:

The Torpedo Battery can be found in the rock behind the house. Immediately to the left of the house can be seen the entrance gate to the battery. The radar dome in front of the house is a part of the battery's information system. The plants in the foreground are German cannon emplacements from the Second World War coastal fort.



The Meløyvær Fort

A part of the Frøy Line defence complex

The Meløyvær coastal artillery Fort is part of the Frøy defence line complex that was built between 1950 and 1990 (see the illustration in the introduction to Norway). The Frøy line is a strong inland infantry line located in the inaccessible landscape west of Finmarken in northern Norway. In case of war, this fortified line was to hold off the Soviet troops from Finmarken, Finland and the sea until the Norwegian army could be fully mobilized and the allied NATO forces could arrive. As such, the heavily armed region would play a central role in case of war.

The Meløyvær coastal artillery fort, with three 120 mm cannons, is located on seven small islands in the northern part of the Andfjord, at a very strategic location in the outer fjord. Five other coastal artillery forts are located on islands to the east and south of Meløyvær Fort to ensure control over the whole fjord complex.

The special task of these forts was to prevent Soviet forces from reaching the sea and the area to the south of the Frøy infantry line.

The most modern coastal artillery fort

The Meløyvær Fort belongs to the last generation of Norwegian coastal forts and is hence the most modern and effective. It replaced German artillery equipment on the island of Krøttøy from the Second World War. Construction began in 1983 and the fort was finished in 1989. The fort was decommissioned in 2002



The Meløyvær Fort, Andfjorden (Meløyvær fort)

The fort is likely to open to the public officially in 2012 but it is already possible to book a guided tour. The organizer is Valhall Hotel and Vacation Centre, located in a fully restored building that used to be a part of the former coastal fort.

Address: The island of Krøttøy. From the Harstad-Narvik Evenes airport it is 40 minutes by bus to Harstad, and 40 minutes by boat to Krøttøy. There are several express boat departures from Harstad to Krøttøy every day.

Website: www.valhall.no.

and finally closed in 2006.

The three cannons at the Meløyvær Fort are located on three different small islands. The command unit and the unit to determine the exact position of the enemies' ships are located on the island of Krøttøy. The fort had radar systems for both warning and shooting.

The bunkers in the mountain were protected against both conventional and nuclear weapons. They consisted of all necessary installations and facilities, including water and electricity supply, ventilation, gas filters and all kind of amenities for the soldiers such as bedrooms, kitchen, toilets and offices.

The cannons were produced at the Bofors factory in Sweden. The fort also consists of air artillery and installations for the defence of the area around the cannons, such as trenches.

Model of a 120 mm cannon with underground constructions. The grenades were automatically transported to the cannon from ammunition bunkers inside the mountains through 25-meter-deep vertical shafts. The total weight of a grenade with holster was 46 kilos and its maximum range was 25 km. The top and moving part of the cannon has a weight of 65 tonnes.

Opposite page, top: The Valhall Hotel and Vacation Centre, located in restored buildings which were a part of the costal fort.

Bottom: Testing the cannon.

Andfjorden, Norway



Poland

By the end of the Second World War a Communist regime had taken power with the help of the Soviet Union

At the *Yalta Conference* in 1945, it was decided between the Allies that a coalition government should lead Poland until free elections could be held. The members of the provisional government were the Polish government-in-exile, the *Home Army* (the biggest partisan movement during war time) and the *Communist Polish Workers Party*. After the war, Polish territory was under the control of the Soviet Army.

The “free election” that followed in 1947 was completely controlled by the Soviet Union and the Communist Party, who “won” 96% of the seats in parliament. The opposition was simply destroyed by administrative means and many members were murdered or forced into exile. The fact that the Western nations accepted this in spite of the Yalta agreement has been described as a Western betrayal of Poland to appease the Soviet dictator *Stalin*.

One of the most devastated countries after the war

Poland was one of the most devastated countries after the Second World War. No less than 21.4 % of the population died during the war, including nearly the whole Jewish population. Towns were ruined and the infrastructure destroyed as a result of the

German invasion in 1939 and, later, the battles between the advancing Soviet and the withdrawing German armies.

80% of the capital, Warsaw, was destroyed during the war, partly because of extremely heavy fighting between Polish partisans and the German Army (the *Warsaw Uprising*) but mainly because of the systematic use of dynamite by the German army in the last days of the occupation.

The post-war years were marred by economic depression and social unrest. Following pressure from the Soviet Union, the Communist government rejected an offer of support from the United States to rebuild the country (the so-called *Marshall Plan*).

Demonstrations and strikes against living conditions

The Communist regime never succeeded in achieving stable social development or sufficient and independent economic development. A rise in living standards during the 1970s was simply based on foreign loans. The Communist government steered society with a brutal hand and nearly always in close contact with Moscow. More than 200,000 people passed through the prisons from 1944 to 1956 for political reasons.

It was the general living conditions, such as lack of food and insufficient income that started a series of strikes and demonstrations. In 1956, a strike among workers in Poznan developed into huge riots in which 75 people were killed.

The regime turned anti-intellectual and anti-Semitic following demonstrations in the late 1960s. This was against a backdrop of in-fighting within the Communist party and anti-Semitic sentiment as a result of the war between Israel and Egypt and the Soviet Union's close relationship with its Arab allies. Approximately 20,000 Jews lost their jobs and had to emigrate, including many Jewish Communists. The same happened in other Soviet countries.

Strikes and demonstrations broke out in Gdansk and some other cities in 1970, during which hundreds of workers were cynically shot down. Price hikes led again to strikes in many cities in 1976.

A turning point for the opposition came in 1980 when a strike at the shipyard in Gdansk forced the government to accept the creation of *Solidarity*, a free trade union under the leadership of *Lech Wałęsa*. Hard struggles between the free trade unions and the Communist regime took place over virtually the next ten years, including many demonstrations that ended in fatalities and mass arrests.

In 1989, after the collapse of the Soviet Union, the first non-Communist Prime Minister, *Tadeusz Mazowiecki*, was elected as the first in any Communist bloc country.



Poland

Photos top: The Katyn Massacre.

Even before the Second World War, it was the Soviet Union's plan to include Poland in the Communist bloc by eliminating expected and potential opponents. Around 22,000 Polish military officers, policemen, intellectuals and prisoners of war were executed en masse in 1940 by the Soviet Army with the approval of the Soviet Politburo, including Stalin, and at the initiative of Berija, the leader of the Soviet secret police. The massacre took place largely in the Katyn Forest in Tver region west of St. Petersburg in Russia. This became known as the Katyn Massacre. The executed Poles were imprisoned by the Soviet Army when they fled east from the invading Germans in 1939, an invasion that had been agreed between the Soviet Union and Nazi Germany (the so-called Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact).

The massacre at Katyn has understandably become a national trauma for the Poles, often referred to as "The Polish Golgotha".

The photo is from a Katyn Memorial in the Warsaw church Karola Boromeusza na Powązkach, Powązkowska Street 14. 1000 plaques on the church wall are bearing the names of Polish officers murdered in Katyn.



Photo middle: Elimination of potential Polish political leaders.

The last commander of the Home Army (the biggest partisan organisation), General Leopold Okulicki, was sentenced to 10 years in prison in a trial in Moscow (photo) after the Second World War. Immediately afterwards he was executed in the Moscow Butyrka prison.

The background to this is as follows: representatives from the Home Army and the Polish government-in-exile were invited to a conference by a Soviet general (with Stalin's agreement). The topic of the conference was the upcoming Polish coalition government agreed by all the wartime Allies. The meeting took place in 1945. All participants were given a guarantee of immunity. In spite of this guarantee, the leaders were kidnapped by the Soviet secret police and sent to Moscow for brutal interrogation, torture and a parody of a trial.



The Polish Communist leaders attend the 1st May parade in front of the Cultural Palace in Warsaw, 1968.

From left, Józef Cyrankiewicz, Marian Spychalski, Władysław Gomułka (State Leader. First Secretary of the Communist party), Józef Kępa and Zenon Kliszko.



An Unbelievable Life Story from Recent Polish History



Witold Pilecki with his wife Maria and two children, Andrzej and Zofia. 1934.

Pilecki as a “volunteer” in Auschwitz concentration camp in 1940. He went there of his own free will, under a false name. He collected information about the camp and established an underground organisation. He escaped from the camp in 1943. He subsequently prepared plans to attack the camp, free the inmates and destroy the camp facilities but found no support for these plans. Camp photo from 1941.



Rotamaster Witold Pilecki

Witold Pilecki took part in many of the historical events that affected recent Polish as well as European history.

Pilecki achieved the Polish military rank of *Rotamaster* (Rotmistrz), which corresponds to the modern rank of Captain.

He was born in 1901 in Karelia, Russia. His family was deported by the Russian authorities after the *Polish Uprising*, 1863-64. Poland was then a part of the Russian Empire.

His grandfather spent seven years in Siberia for participating in the uprising. During the First World War, Witold Pilecki was involved in military and partisan activities in Lithuania and Poland and was honoured for his efforts.

Fight against the German invaders. Co-founder of a Polish partisan organization

He was mobilized prior to the German invasion of Poland in the Second World War and participated in heavy fighting against the advancing Germans.

Together with his former commander, he founded the *Secret Polish Army*, one of the first underground partisan organizations in Poland. The organization was later incorporated into the *Home Army*, also an underground organization.

Prisoner in Auschwitz of his own free will. Attack plans on Auschwitz

In 1940, Pilecki decided to enter the German concentration camp, *Auschwitz*, to collect information from inside and organise the inmates. He took a false identity and arranged an arrest. After two days of torture by the Germans, he was sent to Auschwitz. He there set up an underground organization that would hopefully be able to take over the camp following an attack from the Home Army or the Allies.

In 1943, he decided to escape and overpowered a guard (one of only a handful of escapes that succeeded). He travelled to Warsaw and wrote a detailed report on Auschwitz that was sent to London. He then made several plans to storm the camp to free the prisoners but they were not approved by the Home Army or the Allies.

Participation in the Warsaw Uprising. German prisoner-of-war

Back in Warsaw, he volunteered for the underground forces during the *Warsaw Uprising*, an extremely hard and bloody battle that took place largely in the sewers. Following their surrender, he was imprisoned in a German prisoner-of-war camp. After the war he joined a Polish military corps in Italy.

Poland

Back to underground work in Poland

The Polish government-in-exile ordered him back to Poland to organize an intelligence network but, in 1946, that same government requested that all partisans stop their activities against the Communist regime. Pilecki, however, continued, now collecting information on the Soviet terror, especially the executions and imprisonments in the GULAG camps.

Arrest and execution - and later rehabilitation as a national hero

In 1947, he was arrested by the *Communist Security Service* and was harshly tortured but revealed no important information about other people. At his trial in 1948, he was sentenced to death for "treason against the nation" and later executed at the Mokotow Prison in Warsaw. He left behind a wife and two children.

His story was kept secret in Poland during the Communist period. Today he is fully rehabilitated. In 2006, he posthumously received several medals, including *The Order of the White Eagle*, the highest decoration in Poland, *The Warsaw Insurgent Cross* and *The Auschwitz Cross*. Many Polish cities have named schools, streets and squares after him.

Witold Pilecki's place of burial after his execution is unknown, but he was probably buried in one of the rubbish dumps in Warsaw.

Below, right: Memorial to the victims of the Communist terror at the Powązki Cemetery, Warsaw. Many victims were buried in secret at this location between 1945 and 1955. Witold Pilecki's name is mentioned on one of the memorial plaques.

Below, left: From a street exhibition about Pilecki's life in 2008. The book, "*Rotmistrz Witold Pilecki*" by Jacek Pawłowicz, was named textbook of the year in Poland in 2009.



Pilecki was arrested by the Communist authorities in 1947 and was interrogated under torture. During a visit from his wife, he whispered about his present situation: "Auschwitz was but child's play". Here he is seen at the District Military Court in Warsaw where he was sentenced to death.

Mokotow Prison in Warsaw before the execution.



Museum of Independence

The opposition in Poland 1945-1989

The exhibition on *the history of the opposition*, 1945-1989, looks at the many different active and passive resistance movements fighting against the Communist regime, such as: the armed partisans operating in the forests, Catholic activists, youth and student organisations, university movements, human rights movements, independent trade unions as well as people working abroad to provide information to the Polish people.

The exhibition depicts the very broad and versatile resistance to the Communist regime, from the first mass demonstration in Poznan in 1956 in which 75 people were killed, 800 injured and 700 arrested, to the fall of the regime in 1989, mainly due to the activities of the strong free trade union *Solidarity* supported by the strong *Polish Catholic Church*.

The armed resistance was organised through *The Underground Polish Organisation Negotiating Committee* in 1946. As early

as 1947-48, the Communist authorities had already broken its structure and condemned its leaders to death or long-term imprisonment. Some local groups continued to operate for some more years.

The exhibition shows that many of those involved in the opposition to the Communist regime later became political leaders following the collapse of Communism.

Museum of Independence (Muzeum Niepodległości)

The history of the opposition in Poland, 1945-1989.

Address: al. Solidarności 62.

Website: www.muzeumniepodleglosci.art.pl

Opening hours: Tuesday-Friday: 10:00-17:00. Saturday and Sunday: 10:00-16:00. Free entry on Sundays.

From the exhibition. The banner reads "There is no bread without freedom".



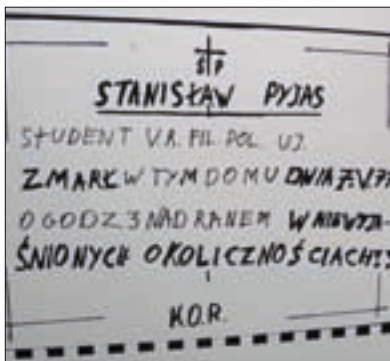
A historic museum building. The exhibition is located in the *Przebendowski Palace*, built in 1729 and, in itself, a piece of Polish history. Some of its many functions have been: a home for rich families, a hotel, a police station, a court, the residence of a Russian general and a trade union office. During the *Warsaw Uprising* of 1944, it was located right on the front line and changed hands four times. The seriously damaged building was reconstructed after the war. It became the *Lenin Museum* in 1955. After independence in 1989, it became the *Museum of Independence*.



Warsaw, Poland

Warsaw 1989. Demonstration against the Communist regime with a banner and pamphlets.

The Students' Solidarity Committees were established in the late 1970s. One of the reasons behind the establishment of the committees was the killing by the Security Service of a student, Stanislaw Pyjas. A notice on the wall of the house where he was killed says that he died in "unexplained circumstances".



Museum of Independence

"Solidarity", the turning point in the resistance to the Communist regime.

The first large strike against the regime broke out in *Poznan* in 1956. 75 people were killed by the authorities and several hundred more injured.

Most of the strikes, even the later ones, were caused by *the living conditions* of the Polish people, mainly the high food prices and lack of basic goods. Political demands were only raised later.

The decisive turning point came in 1980 after a strike at the shipyard in Gdansk when a strike committee forced the government to accept a free trade union, *Solidarity*, under the leadership of the electrician, *Lech Wałęsa*.

Solidarity's activities in the last ten years of the Communist regime in Poland were one of the main reasons for the collapse of the Communist regimes in the former Soviet bloc. It was ten hard years of difficult negotiations with the regime, strikes,

brutal killing of demonstrators, imprisonment of people and underground activities.

Solidarity was supported by *Pope John Paul*, the former Polish cardinal *Karol Wojtyła*. This was important support indeed in a very Catholic Poland.

In 1981, the government declared *Martial Law*. It was decided to outlaw Solidarity, thus leading to further strikes.

The matter became critical for all Communist governments in the late 1980s, set against the backdrop of, among other things, the *glasnost* and *perestroika* movements in the Soviet Union.

The so-called *Round Table negotiations* took place in Poland in 1989 between the regime and the opposition. It was then decided to re-legalize Solidarity and organise free elections. Solidarity won all the seats in the Senate. A non-Communist president, *Tadeusz Mazowiecki*, was thus elected.



The main reason for most demonstrations prior to the 1980s was the living conditions, high food prices and a lack of basic goods. Here, an empty butcher's shop in Warsaw in the 1980s.

Warsaw, Poland

Family life. Gdansk 1980. The leader of the free trade union "Solidarity", Lech Wałęsa, electrician, political prisoner and, later, president of Poland. Wałęsa is here together with his wife Danuta and two of his sons.



The Polish Parliament, 1990. Lech Walesa is sworn in as President.



Museum of X Pavilion, The Warsaw Citadel. Deported Polish People

An historic museum building

The exhibition *Siberians 1940-1956* is located in the Citadel, a fortress from the 19th century.

The fortress was built by the Russian Tsar to control Warsaw, and served as a prison until the 1930s. Some of its most prominent prisoners were *Josef Pilsudski*, Marshal of Poland, *Rosa Luxemburg*, Marxist revolutionary and *Feliks Dzierzynski*, a Polish nobleman and revolutionary Communist - and the founder of the secret *Bolshevist Police*, the *Cheka*, later known as the *KGB*.

The prison has been reconstructed and tells the history of Polish independence and resistance to invaders. Outside can be seen the former prisoners' yard and the place of execution.

On the first floor there is a very exciting art exhibition by the Polish artist *Aleksander Sochaczewski* (1843-1956). He participated in the uprising against Russia in 1863 and was sent to exile in Siberia. He is best known for his paintings and illustrations from this exile. He was sent to the so-called *katoga*, a system of prison farms in Imperial Russia. These were hard labour camps in uninhabited areas of Siberia which were later, to a certain extent, taken over by the Communists and transformed into the *GULAG* camps.



Siberians 1940-1956. The life of deported Polish people

The exhibition *Siberians 1940-1956* is in remembrance of the hundreds of thousands of Poles who were deported as prisoners or simply as slave workers and sent to prisons, forced labour camps, internment centres or remote places, mainly in deserted locations.

The mass deportations started as early as 1940, when the eastern part of Poland was occupied by the Soviet Union as a part of the Soviet sphere of interest, in line with the secret *Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact* between Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union. In total 320,000 Poles were deported in 1940 and 1941.

They were mainly *kulaks* (independent farmers), *political prisoners*, *intellectuals*, *military personnel* or simply *refugees* from German occupied territories. At this time, not only Germany but also the Soviet Union was responsible for crimes against the Polish people.

The exhibition focuses mainly on everyday life in the Soviet camps, illustrated by photos, paintings and drawings, with displays of patriotic and religious objects.

A very large number of Poles were deported to Russia and Kazakhstan at the beginning of the 1940s. In April and June 1940, around 280,000 Poles were deported and, in June 1941, another 40,000. 92,000 people were deported in 1944. It is not known how many people who were deported later.

A bread weight. An important tool in the GULAG camps and also symbolic of the living conditions: the very limited quantity of food and the importance of getting the amount of bread as promised. This weight is a copy made by a former soldier in the Polish Home Army, Lieutenant Mieczyslaw Jendruszczak. He was deported to Borovichi Prison Camp in Siberia in 1944 and returned to Poland in 1947.

Museum of X Pavilion. The Warsaw Citadel (Muzeum Pawilonu Cytadeli Warszawskiej)
"Siberians 1940-1956". The life of deported Polish people.
Address: ul. Skazańców 25.
Website: www.muzeumniepodleglosci.art.pl
Opening hours: Wednesday, Friday, Saturday and Sunday:
9:00-16:00.

Warsaw, Poland

Illustrated diary by the young Polish girl, Regina Dubiniec. She used the book "Leninskij sbornik" (about agriculture). She wrote about her personal life and experiences, the environment and political issues. Her father was a postmaster in Slonim (now Belarus) and was deported in 1939. The rest of the family was deported a year later. Regina Dubiniec returned to Poland in 1946.



The museum owns several oil paintings illustrating the deportations and living conditions. A motif of deported slave labourers by Janina Czuchnicka.



An "Evening in Kazakhstan" by Janina Bogusz.



The Memorial Museum of Jerzy Popiełuszko

The comprehensive role of the Roman Catholic Church in Poland

The *Roman Catholic Church* has always played an important cultural and political role in Poland, and Catholicism forms an important part of the Polish identity. It is estimated that around 90% of the population belongs to the Church, of which around 2/3 are practising Catholics. The Communist regime therefore allowed the Church to continue its work but without political activities directed against the Communist State.

Two people in particular from the Catholic Church gained influence over the resistance movement started by Solidarity in Gdansk:

- The *Cardinal Karol Wojtyła* from Krakow, elected as *Pope John Paul II*, and hence the head of the whole Catholic Church.
- The priest *Jerzy Popiełuszko*, closely associated with the free trade union *Solidarity*.

Karol Wojtyła was elected Pope in October 1978 and in June 1979 he visited Poland for the first time in that capacity. His visits and meetings with the Solidarity leaders were a very important show of support to the Solidarity movement.

Jerzy Popiełuszko became famous throughout Poland because of his social activities, connections with Solidarity and uncompromising stance against the Communist regime. He was kidnapped, tortured and executed by the secret police in 1984.

The life and death of Jerzy Popiełuszko. In opposition to the Communist regime

Jerzy Popiełuszko, born in 1947, was a charismatic person and in constant opposition to the Communist regime because of its human rights violations. He was involved in founding special

workers' communities (when trade unions were forbidden), arranging lectures on various topics for workers as well as charitable support for people persecuted by the regime. In 1978 he became chaplain to the steel workers in Warsaw.

His sermons contained political messages and motivated people to protest against the regime and to support Solidarity. His monthly *Mass for the Fatherland* which began in the early 1980s became known all over Poland because it was broadcast on *Radio Free Europe*. The sermons developed into mass meetings and were, at times, the only public meetings allowed, especially in the illegal periods of free trade unions.

The Polish secret police or the *Security Service of the Ministry of Internal Affairs* tried to silence him several times. He was terrorized, beaten, interrogated, imprisoned and his house and car damaged. In 1983, at the age of 37, he was arrested on fabricated charges but released following the intervention of the Church. A car accident was arranged to kill him but it failed.

In 1984 he was simply kidnapped, tortured and murdered. His body was dumped in a lake and recovered a few days later. It is estimated that 250,000-400,000 people attended his funeral, the largest gathering of people since the Pope's visit. The public reaction to his murder was strong and extensive.

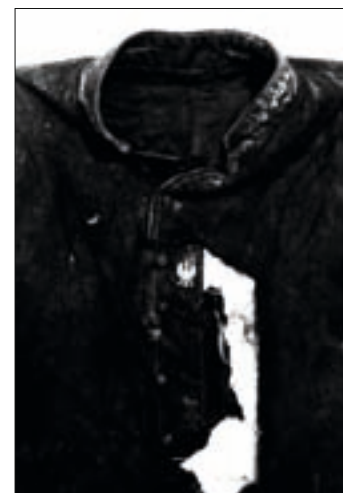
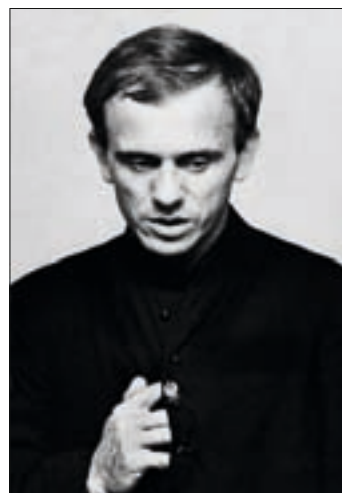
The Catholic Church commenced a beatification process in 1997.

The Memorial Museum

The museum tells mainly about the story of his life and activities and shows some of his personal belongings. A room contains his last clothes and photos from the day of his death as well as photos from his funeral. The museum also explains much of modern Polish history, especially the Solidarity movement.

Left: Jerzy Popiełuszko a few months before he was murdered. Note the Polish eagle on his jacket.

Right: The jacket after his murder in 1984 (from the museum).



The Memorial Museum of Jerzy Popiełuszko (Muzeum Sługi Bożego księdza Jerzego Popiełuszki)

Address: ul. Kardynała Stanisława Hozjusza 2. Near of Place Wilsona. The museum is located in the cellar of the Saint Stanisław Kostka Church. The grave of Jerzy Popiełuszko can be found in front of the church.

Website: www.popieluszko.net.pl/muzeum (only in Polish).

Opening hours: Wednesday-Friday: 10:00-16:00. Saturday and Sunday: 10:00-17:00.

Warsaw, Poland



The Saint Stanislaw Kostka Church where he practised from 1980 and today the location of his memorial museum and grave.

Top right: Demonstration in front of the church in 1988. The photo is taken from the church tower. Bottom of photo, left: The grave of Jerzy Popiełuszko. Top of photo, right: the demonstrators. Top of photo, left: the rows of policemen.



Jerzy Popiełuszko at a mass on the church balcony.

Colonel Kukliński Intelligence Museum

A private museum in honour of Colonel Ryszard Kukliński

This is a small and interesting museum in honour of the Polish colonel *Ryszard Kukliński* (1930-2004), one of the most valuable and high-ranking Western spy in the Soviet military system. The museum is founded and owned by professor *Jozef Szaniawski*, a close friend of Kukliński. The museum tells the story of his life and shows some of the materials, especially military maps, that he handed over to the *CIA, the American Intelligence Service*.

Kukliński came from a working class family with socialist traditions. His father was involved in the resistance against Nazi Germany during the Second World War and died in the Sachsenhausen concentration camp.

The most secret military documents were delivered to CIA

Kukliński was the chief of a planning unit in the Polish army and responsible for liaising with the top Soviet military leadership. From 1972 until 1981 he supplied the CIA with 42,000 pages of secret documents, such as:

- Soviet military operational attack plans on Western Europe.
- Specifications of more than 200 Soviet weapon systems.
- Reports from high-level meetings in Moscow.
- Detailed plans of secret command bunkers.
- Methods to avoid spy satellite detection.
- Plans to defeat the strikes of the free trade unions.

His reason for spying

Kukliński received no money for his activities but was motivated only by idealism and the wish to promote Polish national interests. He contacted the CIA on his own initiative and was working on his own; not even his family knew what he was doing.

He chose the military profession because of the brutal German invasion of the Second World War, combined with his strong sense of nationalism. He lost his loyalty to the Communist system and the Soviet army for several reasons:

- He realized that if there were a war, Poland would be a focus of nuclear attack, leading to the total destruction of the country and its population.
- The brutality of the authorities against the striking workers, especially in 1970 when Polish troops opened fire on shipyard workers who were striking against rising food prices. Forty-seven demonstrators were killed and hundreds wounded.
- Polish participation in the invasion of Czechoslovakia.

His escape, death sentence and rehabilitation

Kukliński had to flee urgently to the United States with his wife and two sons following a breach in CIA security. In U.S. he changed his name and was under constant protection. But he paid a high price for his activities: both his sons died under suspicious circumstances that were almost certainly murder.

Kukliński was seen as a traitor among Communists and a hero among anti-Communists. He was sentenced to death in absentia in 1984 by a secret military court in Warsaw, but fully rehabilitated in 1997. He died in 2004 and has been posthumously awarded with the honorary citizenship of many Polish towns, including Gdansk and Krakow. He is buried in the *Honour Row of Powązki Military Cemetery* in Warsaw.

Colonel Kukliński Intelligence Museum (Izba Pamięci płk. Kuklińskiego). **Address:** Stare Miasto ul. Kanonia 20/22, Warsaw. **Opening hours:** 12:00-14:30.



Warsaw, Poland



“Plan for the offensive operation. The front of the seaside”. 1970.

One of the plans that Colonel Kukliński handed over to the CIA. It shows the attack routes of the Polish section of the Soviet army

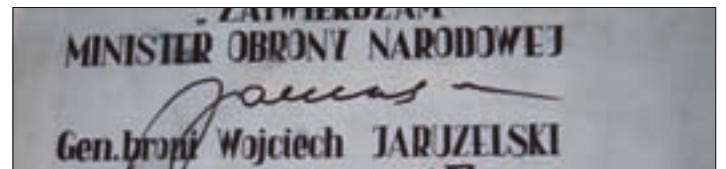
Opposite page.

Left: Kuklinski (standing) during the signing of a Defense Treaty in Moscow, 1980. On the left, the Russian Defense Minister, Dmitri Ustinov. He was also a member of the Politburo of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, the central policy-making and governing body of the Communist Party.

Right: Kuklinski (left), together with his friend Professor Jozef Szaniawski, the founder of the Colonel Kuklinski Intelligence Museum. They are standing in front of one of the Katyn memorials in Warsaw. 22,000 Polish officers, policemen, intellectuals and prisoners of war were executed en masse in Katyn in 1940 by the Soviet Army. The Poles had fled from the Nazi German invasion. Stalin used the opportunity to murder those whom he thought might be future potential enemies following a Communist takeover of Poland after the war.

as well as the targets of nuclear warheads. The Polish army numbered 1,150,000 soldiers after a general mobilization. It is noted that, according to this plan, the Polish section of the Soviet army would be “cannon fodder” for the Western forces before the Russian section of the army moved forward.

The map is approved and signed by the Communist Minister of Defence in Poland in 1970, Wojciech Jaruzelski. He was leader of the Polish Communist party from 1981 to 1989, Prime Minister from 1981 to 1985 and President from 1985 to 1990. He imposed the so-called Martial Law in 1981 in which it was stated that free unions such as Solidarity was forbidden.



A Former Closed Military Town

Closed military towns

In the former Communist countries there are several so-called closed military towns with important military installations such as airfields, harbors, missile bases, centers for military units, training grounds or towns producing important military equipment. The towns were closed to visitors from the outside and often erased from maps.

Many of the towns had been used by the military for decades. The reason was simply that they were located on important strategic military locations that did not change over the years. This strategic importance changed radically following the development of advanced military equipment connected to flights, submarines and missile technology in particular. Some old military towns are still of military importance; for example, the Russian ice-free ports on the Kola Peninsula at the Barents Sea.

Borne Sulinowo. A German training ground replaced by a Soviet military base

Borne Sulinowo is a small Polish town with about 5.000 inhabitants. It was a closed military town during both the Second World War and the Cold War period. It also represents a concentration of historically valuable locations connected to

Borne Sulinowo was built by the Germans in the years 1934-38 as a military base with training grounds and an artillery school.



recent history.

Borne Sulinowo was built by the Germans in the years 1934-38 as a military base with testing and training grounds and an artillery school. The German name *Grossborn* comes from a nearby village.

The base was opened by *Adolf Hitler* in 1938. The training ground housed General *Heinz Guderian's Army Corps*. An artificial desert was built near the Grossborn village and was used by the units of *Erwin Rommel's Africa Corps*.

A prison camp *Oflag II D Gross Born* was established in the nearby forest. It was divided into 3 parts: for Polish officers, for French officers and for Russian soldiers.

The remains of the so-called *Pomeranian Wall* can be seen near the town. It was a line of fortifications constructed from 1930-37 by the Germans to prevent an attack from Poland. This line, with almost 1,000 concrete bunkers, was reconstructed and reinforced in 1944 to stop the advance of the Soviet Army. Hard battles near the town lasted for more than two weeks.

One of the biggest Soviet military bases of the so-called *Northern Group of forces* was established in the town after the war. It included Borne Sulinowo town, the nearby military town Kłomino and a missile base near the Brzeznica colony. The area was under Soviet military jurisdiction and on maps was simply shown as forested area without any buildings.

After the Soviet period

The Soviet Army left the town in October 1992, a few years after the collapse of the Soviet Union. The Polish army soon took over and, in June 1993, the town was officially opened to the public for the first time. Among the first inhabitants were Polish repatriates from Siberia and Kazakhstan. They were now finally allowed to return to Poland after more than 50 years of forced resettlement in the Soviet Union.

Today, the central parts of the town are still dominated by houses from the German period, with an interesting town plan and valuable architecture. The town is also influenced by Soviet architecture, especially some large blocks of flats.

It is possible to pinpoint houses of special historical interest, such as the officers' house and casino, houses for *Guderian*, *Rommel* and *Eva Braun* and, from the Soviet period, the *KGB* headquarter.

Tourist office in Borne Sulinowo (Informacja Turystyczna)

Address: ul. Bolesława Chrobrego 3A.

Website: www.bornesulinowo.pl (only in Polish).

Opening hour: 8.00-16.00

Borne Sulinowo, Poland



Top left: The officers' house and casino, built during the German period.

Top right: Former soldiers barracks.



Right: Research and exhumation works in a former German prison camp from the Second World War, Oflag II D Gross Born.



Bottom left: From an abandoned Soviet military town Westfalenhof (Klomino) in the area.

Bottom right: From the former missile base near the Brzeznicza colony.



Russia

Russia and the Soviet Union

Russia was the dominant and leading state in the Soviet Union.

It was the world's largest state by area. Its total population stood at 293 million in 1991, the 3rd most populous nation after China and India.

The Soviet Union or *The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* was founded in 1922 by the leaders of the *Russian Communist Party*. Until 1991, the Soviet Union counted 15 republics.

It was an ideologically-based union of communist states based on councils led by workers (*soviets*) in villages, factories, regions etc. The Soviet Union was, in practice, governed by the Russian Communist Party in Moscow and Russian was the common language of administration. The federal Communist governments were deployed by Soviet or Russian authorities in nearly all republics, including the countries of Eastern Europe.

All means of production were in public ownership. Most wages, prices and even production itself was governed by a centrally planned economy.

In the second half of the 1980s, the Soviet leader *Gorbachev* introduced the policies of *glasnost* (openness in society) and *perestroika* (reconstruction of society). New non-Communist and broadly supported popular movements, mass protests and newly-elected parliaments without a Communist majority emerged in many Soviet states. It resulted in the collapse of the Soviet Union and independence for all the former Soviet states.

The background to glasnost and perestroika was that the Soviet states were characterized by inefficient state management, bureaucracy, control of inhabitants, violation of human rights, major economic problems and shortages of almost all products. Furthermore, the huge disparities in living conditions between the inhabitants of the Soviet Union and those of the capitalist Western countries were clear to all in both East and West.

The Great Patriotic War. Enormous losses

The Soviet Union lost 23-30 million people in the Second World War, or as it is called in Russian the *Great Patriotic War*. This was round half of all war casualties. 1,710 towns and 70,000 villages were destroyed as well as all industry and infrastructure in most war regions.

In 1939, a non-aggression pact was reached between Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union the so-called *Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact*. A part of this agreement was that the Baltic States, a part of Poland and Finland came under the Soviet sphere of influence. The Baltic States were occupied by the Soviet Army when Germany moved into the eastern part of Poland. Afterwards, the German Army continued into the Soviet Union.

In 1942-43, the Soviet Army succeeded in stopping the German advance and, in the following years, the German army was pushed back. When Nazi Germany surrendered in 1945, the Soviet Army liberated many eastern European countries from the Nazi regime. Unfortunately, these liberations turned into occupations when the Soviet Union simply imposed Communist dictatorships in all countries and incorporated them into the Soviet Union. The Soviet influence in these countries was in practice decided immediately after the war at the *Yalta Conference* between the Allied political leaders.

Stalin's crimes

Josef Stalin was the absolute leader and dictator of the Soviet Union from 1922 until his death in 1953.

All actual and suspected political opponents were executed, imprisoned or deported to GULAG camps. It is estimated that between 15 and 25 million people died because of Stalin's crimes.

Stalin's goal was to transform the whole Soviet Union from an agricultural into an industrial society. The methods used were incredibly brutal. Millions of people were deported to remote parts of the Soviet Union as slave labourers. Agriculture was forcibly collectivized. Society was controlled by a large secret police. National cultures were eradicated. Dissidents were persecuted.

Stalin was (and still is) popular among many people in Russia. It was probably because he emerged as a personal victor over Hitler's Nazi Germany and because he left the Soviet Union as a superpower with nuclear weapons and comprehensive military forces. Propaganda was a significant factor in the cult that built up around his personality.

The Russian dissident movement

The *dissident movement*, as it is called today, started in Russia and took hold from 1965-1985. A Russian dissident can be defined as a person who actively but peacefully opposed the totalitarian Communist system. The main task of the dissidents was to give truthful information to Soviet and foreign citizens about the system's propaganda and lack of democracy and human rights.

Some dissidents were well-known in the West such as *Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn* (writer), *Andrei Sakharov* (scientist) and *Roy Medvedev* (historian).

The dissident movement was not a large organisation or a party. They operated mainly as individuals or in small groups. A larger group was founded after the *Helsinki Agreement* in 1975, in which it was stated that the signatory countries, including the Soviet Union, should respect human rights and fundamental freedoms, including freedom of information.

Russia



The dissidents were persecuted by the authorities into forced exile in the Soviet Union, forced emigration, sentenced to labour camps and forced psychiatric hospitalization (and there subjected to electric shock treatment and insulin comas).

The dissidents demonstrated that resistance against the totalitarian system was possible. They contributed greatly to the West's knowledge of the Soviet Union, just as they were important for subsequent dissident movements in other Communist states. By the time controls were loosened in the Soviet Union in the late 1980s, the dissidents had paved the way for thousands of people to be ready to take on an active political role.

The Soviet Army was one of the main reasons for the Nazi defeat in the Second World War. Millions of Russians died on the battlefields, through combat or through hunger. In all, they lost more people than any other country in the world and this should not be forgotten. On the other hand, that victory was used to impose Communist dictatorships in the Eastern European countries that the Soviet Army had liberated from Nazi Germany at the end of the Second World War. These dictatorships, in practice governed from Moscow, led to fierce repression of the countries' populations and strong attempts to eradicate the national cultures over almost a 50-year period. Millions of innocent people were executed or deported to the GULAG hard labour camps and remote parts of the Soviet Union.



Russia

"The Chief Administration of Corrective Labour Camps and Colonies" or GULAG

Around 20 million people were imprisoned in the *GULAG camps* from 1930 until 1953. At least 4 million of them died. There were around 500 separately administrated camp complexes, some with hundreds and other with thousands of connected camp units.

GULAG is the acronym for *The Chief Administration of Corrective Labor Camps and Colonies*, a section of the secret Soviet police. It was a system of hard labour camps with slave labourers.

The camps were a part of the economic development of the Soviet Union, especially in remote areas with natural resources, but were also an important tool in the state terror and repression of the population.

The inmates were a mix of criminals and political prisoners, with an overwhelming number of Russians. Half of the political prisoners were sent to the camps without trial. The prisoners were subjected to hard labour and suffered from exhaustion, malnutrition and starvation, epidemics, and there was severe punishment, even execution, for prisoners who broke the regulations. The camps were comparable to the Nazi concentration camps.

The most infamous camps were situated in the Arctic or sub-Arctic regions where the cold was a major cause of death.



From the GULAG camp Perm 36. The camp is now a museum. It is located near the town of Perm, 1,250 kilometres east of Moscow, near the Ural Mountains. The camp was encircled with barbed-wire fences, with watchtowers at the corners. The camp was closed in 1988. In its last decades, it was used for political prisoners, who wore special prisoner uniforms.

For further information, see the museum's website: www.perm36.ru.



Russia

The photos are from 1990 and taken by the Polish photographer and journalist, Tomasz Kizny. In 1981, he co-founded DEMENTI, a Polish underground organization of independent photographers. Tomasz Kizny is the author and illustrator of the impressive book "GULAG" which includes both old and new photos from the camps (Published by Hamburger Edition HIS Verlagsges, 2004).

Top: From a GULAG concentration camp in the Western Siberian hinterland. The prisoners in this camp built the Salechard-Igarka railway line, the so-called "Dead Road", in the 1940s.



A swing in a GULAG concentration camp for the children of the commanding officer, Captain Andrey Maleyev, who lived with his family in a house situated outside the camp, one of the worst in Butugychag in the Kolyma Region. This camp had the highest death rate among prisoners. The swing was built by prisoners from materials available in the tin mine connected to the camp. The swing stands on the edge of a stone terrace so that the children could look down at the camp below with the barracks and prisoners.



Levashovo Memorial Cemetery. Burial Place for Executed People

Burial place of around 20,000 executed people

The *Levashovo Memorial Cemetery* north of St. Petersburg was the burial place for people executed by the *KGB* over the period 1937 until 1954. The executions took place in prisons in the city and the bodies were then brought, at night, to mass graves at the burial site. It is estimated that around 50,000 people were executed in St. Petersburg over the period, of which around 20,000 are buried here.

The years of Stalin's Great Terror

Most executions took place in the years of *Stalin's Great Terror* between 1937 and 1938. The actions were led by *Stalin* himself together with national and regional leaders of the *KGB*. It was a large-scale attack with the main objective of putting an end "once and for all" to social unrest and the presence of enemies in the Soviet Union. The action was directed at such "enemies of the people" as *kulaks* (independent farmers), *former opponents* (priests, White Army officers, Communists with different views than the Stalinists), *religious practitioners* (mainly women), so-called *border minorities* (Germans, Latvians, Finns, Greeks, Romanians and Estonians), *wives of "enemies of the people"*, *immigrants* to the Soviet Union and *rail and transport workers* (who had contacts with foreign countries).

An example: An old lady, *Aleksandra Petrovna*, who sold flowers at a cemetery, was arrested and shot because she told some people about the night burials and thereby "spread rumours".

Many of the victims had been repressed previously and had served their sentences but were seen as potential enemies. It was also decided to execute many people in the *GULAG* camps where they were to endure their punishments.

The judgments were decided by a special court comprising three people: the regional head of the *KGB*, the regional secretary of the *Communist Party* and the regional prosecutor. The judgments were simple: the most active and hostile elements were to be immediately executed and the less active but nevertheless hostile elements were to be sent to *GULAGs* for eight to ten years. The local decisions were carefully monitored from Moscow. Initially it was decided from Moscow how big the

quota of arrested people should be. The first order from Moscow to the St. Petersburg Region (Leningrad Region) "ordered" 4,000 people to be executed by shooting and 10,000 people to be sent to *GULAGs*.

Some 65,000-75,000 people were probably arrested in St. Petersburg during the years of Stalin's Great Terror between 1937 and 1938. At that time the city could be characterized as a multinational city, as reflected in the lists of arrested people, which comprised no less than 65 different nationalities. 18% of those arrested were people from foreign countries. Stalin considered foreigners to be potential spies.

Opposite page bottom:

Levashovo Memorial Cemetery is not an ordinary cemetery but a fenced piece of forest in which the executed people were buried. The site has a unique atmosphere. There are no dominating memorials or changes of the original forest inside the area.

It is not known where each person is buried. The forest is dominated by private people's more than 700 small memories such as iron and wooden crosses, stones, signs with names and texts, flowers and photos, all spread out on the forest floor or placed on trees. The area also contains many small memorials to nationalities such as the Poles, Germans, Finns, Norwegians, Estonians, Latvians, Lithuanians, Belarusians and Ukrainians as well as religious groups such as the Jews, Catholics and Russian Orthodox people.

The entrance. The burial sites of the executed people were well protected and kept in deep secrecy. The victims were buried at night. The cemetery was surrounded by a high wooden fence with barbed wire. Inside there was a path for watchdogs.



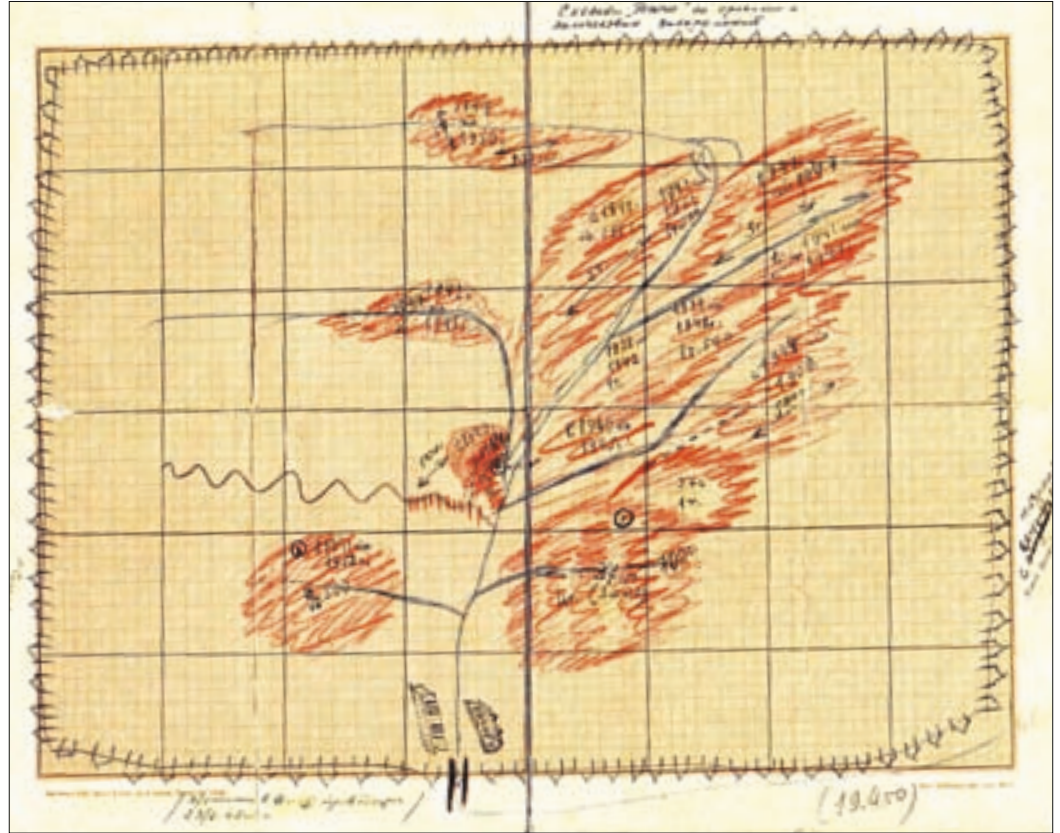
Levashovo Memorial Cemetery, St. Petersburg

The cemetery is located 20 km north of the centre of St. Petersburg and can be reached by train and bus (or taxi). A small museum is located in the former guard building, to the right after the entrance. **Address:** Gorskoe 143, Levashovo. **Website:** See: vizs.nlr.ru/eng.

Opening hours: 9:00-18:00.

St. Petersburg, Russia

A sketch made by the secret police, KGB, of the area, with years and numbers of the executed and buried people, in total 19,450.



The Anna Akhmatova Museum at The Fountain House

Anna Akhmatova. Life and poetry

The Russian poet *Anna Akhmatova* lived from 1889 until 1966. She had a large influence on Russian poetry and achieved a wide cult status among the Russian intelligentsia, also becoming a symbol of suppressed Russian heritage.

Her style can be described as melancholy, deep and simple but with great detail and a richness of shades. She addresses many themes such as a woman's love, a man's jealousy, memory and time, the city of St. Petersburg and the difficulties of living and writing under a terrorist regime. Her family were heavily persecuted and suffered greatly under *Stalin's* regime.

She was born in the Ukraine under the pre-name of *Gorenko* but took her great-grandmother's Tatar name *Akhmatova* as her artist's name. Her father was against her poetic writing and she did not want to embarrass the family. She spent her childhood and youth in Tsarskoye Selo near St. Petersburg.

She married the poet *Nikolay Gumilev* who headed an influential literary group in St. Petersburg. They had a son *Lev* but divorced in 1918. She had a short-lived marriage to the prominent assyriologist *Vladimir Shilejko* and later married the art scholar *Nikolay Punin*. Akhmatova's first husband Nikolay Gumilev was executed in 1921 for anti-Soviet activities. Nikolay Punin died in a GULAG camp and her son spent his 14 years in a camp.

Akhmatova was condemned as a "bourgeois element", writing "degenerated bourgeois salon poetry". Her verses were not published from 1923 to 1930, and from the end of 1946 to 1953. She was publicly called "half a harlot, half a nun" by *Andrei Zhdanov*, head of the Soviet Union's cultural policy. Her ability to write and publish works improved after Stalin's death, although in censored form. She is buried at the Komarovo Cemetery near her datcha, 45 km north-west of St. Petersburg. She posthumously received full rehabilitation.

Requiem is Anna Akhmatova's tragic masterpiece about Stalin's terror. In the Soviet Union it was not published uncensored until after her death. It begins as follows: "During the frightening years of the Yezhov terror, I spent seventeen months waiting in prison queues in Leningrad. One day, somehow, someone 'picked me out'. On that occasion there was a woman standing behind me, her lips blue with cold, who, of course, had never in her life heard my name. Jolted out of the torpor characteristic of all of us, she said into my ear (everyone whispered there) - 'Could one ever describe this?' I answered - 'I can.' It was then that something like a smile slid across what had previously been just a face". The 1st of April in the year 1957. Leningrad.

The Anna Akhmatova Museum at the Fountain House

Address: Liteynyy Prospekt 53 (access through the archway from the street).

Website: www.akhmatova.spb.ru/en

Opening hours: Tuesday – Sunday: 10:30- 18:30.

Wednesday: 13:00-20:00 p.m. Closed on Mondays.

Guided tours: Several tours and events can be arranged in English if booked in advance (tel. +7 (812) 579-72-39).

Thematic tours:

- Under the roof of Fontanny Dom (The permanent exhibition of the museum).
- Walking tour in the Garden of the Sheremetevsky Palace (The palace and its inhabitants).
- The shadows of what I still love (An exhibition about the poet Josef Brodsky).

Workshop (2 hours):

- A chest from the Sheremetevsky garret (Akhmatova's life and her poetry, the history of The Fountain House, St. Petersburg's life in the 19th and 20th centuries).

In addition, thematic walking and bus tours of St.

Petersburg's cultural history can be arranged. See the website.

The opposite page:

Top left: The Anna Akhmatova Museum is situated in the Southern Wing of the Sheremetevsky Palace. It was also her home from the mid 1920s until 1952.

Top right: From the museum. Akhmatova's room, 1945.

Middle left: The official announcement in the newspaper "Petrogradskaya Pravda" of the execution of Anna's former husband, Nikolay Gumilev, an officer, nobleman and poet. He was Number 30 on the list in the newspaper. The reason was "conspiracy against the Soviet authorities".

Middle right: Portrait of Anna Akhmatova. N. Tyrsa 1928.

Bottom left: The beginning of a poem by Akhmatova written on the back of a cigarette box by the writer Boris Pasternak as he remembered it. The poem was not published during her lifetime. "Wild honey smells like freedom, Dust – like a ray of sun. Like violets – a young maid's mouth, And gold - like nothing."

St. Petersburg, Russia



Kresty Prison and Psychiatric Clinics

The prison's history reflects Russian history

Kresty Prison is the remaining prison of St. Petersburg. The prison has 960 cells. It was originally built as a wine warehouse in the 1730s but was rebuilt as a prison (1867) and later extended (1890). The building forms a cross, hence its name “Kresty”. An administrative unit and a large church are built in the middle of the cross. The prison was the most modern and largest prison in Europe and also one of the first Russian buildings to have electric lighting, effective ventilation and central heating.

Many prominent political prisoners were detained in Kresty before the *February Revolution* (1917), among these *Leon Trotsky*, later the *People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs* and the founder and commander of the *Red Army*. The inmates were

freed and all archives destroyed during the February Revolution.

After the *October Revolution* (1917), it became a place of imprisonment for all kinds of anti-revolutionary people, the Tsarist government, non-Bolshevik politicians, the intelligentsia etc. In the Second World War it was used to hold people involved in stealing food in the besieged city as well as German prisoners of war.

The prison overflowed during *Stalin's* political repression and persecution after the war, often with 15-20 inmates in 8 square meter cells intended for two.

In 1964 it became a prison for pre-trial detentions. In the mid-1990s there were more than 12,500 inmates in a prison designed for 1,150. “Pre-trial detention” often meant months or years and was simply a way of wearing down the accused person.

On the banks of the river Neva. The big red brick complex to the right is Kresty Prison. The dome to the prison church, Alexander Nevsky Cathedral, can be seen in the middle of the prison complex.

The light building to the left is one of the psychiatric clinics

controlled by the secret police and in which dissidents were tortured to break them mentally and physically.

The address of the psychiatric clinic is: Arsenalnaya Naberezhnaya 9. Another psychiatric clinic is located in the nearby street ulitsa Akademika Lebedeva 5.



St. Petersburg, Russia

Punitive psychiatry. “No sane person would declaim against the Soviet government and Communism”

Kresty Prison was also used for dissidents who politically disagreed with the Communist regime. Many dissidents were forcibly admitted to psychiatric centres or hospitals to discredit their ideas as “mentally ill persons”, to break them mentally and physically and even to treat them medically with the aim of changing their dissenting political views.

The official reason for the psychiatric treatment was that “no sane person would declaim against the Soviet government and Communism”. The psychiatrists diagnosed “Sluggishly progressing schizophrenia”, an illness that affected the person’s social behaviour “with ideas about a struggle for truth and justice formed by a personality with a paranoid structure”.

The “treatment” included protracted fixation, electric shock treatment, electromagnetic and radiation torture, entrapment, enforced medication (narcotics, tranquilizers, insulin etc.), beating and lumbar punctures.

At least 365 people were treated for “politically defined madness”. Many of the survivors suffered serious mental or physical harm because of the treatment.

Some of the psychiatric centres are located near Kresty Prison, from where the dissidents were forcibly hospitalized.

Many centres were controlled by state security forces from the very start, in the late 1940s. In 1969, the KGB presented a plan for a network of centres. Many of the psychiatrists held high positions in the state security services.



The Military-Historical Museum of Artillery, Engineer and Signal Corps

One of the world's largest military museums

The museum has a collection of nearly a million exhibits of all kinds of military artefacts from missiles to medals and it has probably the world's largest collection of light arms and cold steels. The museum in itself is very interesting. The site was originally an outer part of the fortification of the Peter and Paul Fortress and was called Kronwerk, in German: "fortification in the form of a crown". The existing museum building is from 1860 and was built as a military arsenal in pseudo-Gothic style. A two-storey complex 472 meters long is built in the shape of a horseshoe. It is a unique monument of military architecture from the mid-19th century and with impressive rooms. The museum was founded in 1703 and has been housed in the Arsenal since 1868.

The main exhibition has 14 thematic parts of which the most relevant for the Cold War period are: The History of Rocket Armaments (including the ballistic missile history, the anti-aircraft and anti-tank systems), The History of Military

Communication and *Kalashnikov — A Man, a Weapon, a Legend* (see opposite page). The outdoor exhibition has more than 250 large calibre guns, tanks, vehicles, rockets and other military equipment.

The Military-Historical Museum of Artillery, Engineer and Signal Corps

Address: Aleksandrovskii Park, St. Petersburg. The museum is located immediately north of the Peter and Paul Fortress.

Website: www.artillery-museum.ru

Opening hours: Wednesday-Sunday: 11:00-18:00. Closed Mondays, Tuesdays and the last Thursday of the month.

Guided tours: Several guided tours can be arranged, including the History of developing Soviet rocket armament. Tours can be arranged in English. Booking required, tel. 007 (812) 232-02-96.

A mobile intercontinental missile complex RS-12 (Topol). In front, the missile container on a vehicle. On the left can be seen a staff vehicle and a vehicle with a Troposphere Relay Station. The Troposphere Radio System was a special Soviet communication system that could be used if other communication systems were put out of action in a nuclear war.

Facts about the missile: Weight: 47,200 kg. Length: 22.7 meters. Diameter: 1.9 meters. Operational range: 11,000 km. Accuracy: 200 meters. Speed: 17,400 km/hour. Warhead: Single 550 Kt warhead (it was possible to install additional warheads on a single missile). The Hiroshima bomb was 15 Kt and the Nagasaki bomb 21Kt.



St. Petersburg, Russia

Kalashnikov – A Man, a Weapon, a Legend

The museum has a special exhibition on the Russian small arms designer *Mikhail Kalashnikov* (born 1919) who designed the world's most famous assault rifle, the AK-47, an abbreviation of Automatic Kalashnikov 1947. It exists in several later versions but always with the same main design. The rifles are often simply referred to as “Kalashnikovs” without regard to the type.

The AK-47 has been used in half of all the world's countries and more than 100 million have been produced

The success of the AK-47 is simple: it is cheap and quick to produce in large numbers, it is automatic and it is easy to maintain and repair. It works perfectly under all conditions. It is also fairly light and accurate to within 100 meters, the area in which most battles were fought in the Second World War.

The design story of the weapon is as follows: Kalashnikov was wounded in combat in 1941 as a tank commander. At the hospital he heard some soldiers complaining about the non-automatic rifles. It was consistent with his own weapons experience. So he started designing light automatic weapons and was assigned to the *Main Artillery Administration*. His early work culminated in the AK-47, which had already become a standard weapon in the Soviet army by 1949. His work also included many kinds of machine guns.

What is it like to be the man who created a weapon that has killed so many people and is even used by terrorists? Kalashnikov answers: “I’m proud of my invention but I’m sad that it is used by terrorists. I would prefer to have invented a machine that people could use and that would help farmers with their work – for example a lawnmower”. “It is the Germans who are responsible for the fact that I became a fabricator of arms If someone asks me how I can sleep at night knowing that my arms have killed millions of people, I respond that I have no problem sleeping, my conscience is clean. I constructed arms to defend my country.”

Mikhail Kalashnikov has other talents. He has written poetry his whole life and was expected to become a poet. He has written six books, of which four are memoirs. He has also designed more than armoured weapons, including a hunting knife and a camp-fire set that can be seen at the exhibition. As far as his personal life is concerned, it should also be mentioned that his father was deported to a labour camp when he was a small boy.

The museum owns the most extensive collection of Kalashnikovs (especially the rare experimental ones), personal belongings, documents and photographs. Among the documents are the results of the first test shootings of his rifles, which were kept secret for more than 50 years.



The 30-year-old designer, Mikhail Kalashnikov, in 1949, the year in which the AK-47 became a standard weapon in the Soviet Army.

The text reads: “In the Department of Inventions of the People’s Commissariat for Defense of the USSR. 1949”.

Top: Experimental specimen of 1942. 7.62-mm submachine gun.

Bottom: Experimental specimen of 1948. 7.62-mm AK-47 rifle.

Both specimens are the only ones in the world.



Key Buildings from the Communist Era

Lubyanka. Headquarters and prison of the KGB. Address: Lubyanka Square.

In front of the headquarters: a memorial to the victims of the KGB has been raised by the human rights organisation MEMORIAL.

The main text on the memorial plaque says: “During the years of terror, over 40,000 people were shot in Moscow on groundless political charges. Their bodies were buried in the cemetery of the Yauza Hospital (now Hospital 23) from 1921-1926, at Vagankovo cemetery from 1926-1935, and cremated at the Moscow (Donskoi) Crematorium from 1934 until at least the early 1950s. Beginning in 1937, two NKVD (KGB) execution sites in Moscow neighbourhoods (Butovo and Kommunarka collective farms) were used as burial places”. The stone is from Solovetsky Island by the White Sea, the location of one the worst prison camps (later a prison). According to the writer Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn,

this camp was the “mother of the GULAGs”.

The monumental yellow building to the right was the main building of the KGB, which also owned many of the neighbouring buildings. Secret police heads from Beria to Andropov had the same office on the third floor and could look down at the statue of the KGB founder, Felix Dzerzhinsky, on the square (removed in 1991 to the “Graveyard to Fallen Monuments”).

The Lubyanka Internal Prison was situated in the courtyard of the building. It was probably one of the most infamous prisons in the world. Prisoners were shot in the courtyard during the Stalinist period. Those arrested were brutally interrogated in the basement.

Today it is the headquarters of the Border Guard Service, a directorate of the Federal Security Service. The large dark building in the background is the actual headquarters of the secret police.



Moscow, Russia

Moscow Serbsky Institute. Address: Lane. Kropotkin, 25/17 (north-east of the Kremlin). "No sane person would declaim against the Soviet government and communism". This statement was the reason why many dissidents were treated in psychiatric hospitals. Moscow Serbsky Institute in central Moscow was the main hospital in Russia for the psychiatric treatment of dissidents. Many of the psychiatrists had high positions in the state security service. The diagnosis "sluggishly progressing schizophrenia" meant that the person had "ideas about a struggle for truth and justice formed by a personality with a paranoid structure". At least 365 people were hospitalized because of "politically defined madness". The treatment included electric shock treatment, electromagnetic torture, enforced medication and beatings. Many survivors suffered serious mental and psychical harm.

Right: Nikolskaya 23, near the Lubyanka Square. Photo from 1936. 31,456 death sentences from Stalin's Great Terror were signed in this building between 1937 and 1938. the building has now been sold to a private investor and is in danger of being demolished.

Bottom right: The first KGB building in the area. Address: 11-13 ulitsa Bol. Lubyanka (the corner of ploshchad Vorovskogo). The KGB established its headquartering in this building in 1918 when it moved from Leningrad/St. Petersburg to the capital Moscow after the revolution.

Bottom left. The Yauza Hospital. Address: 9-11, Yauzskaya St. The cemetery of Yauza Hospital was used for the victims of Stalin's Terror in his first years of power after Lenin's death from 1921 until 1926. These were largely people that Stalin regarded as potential political enemies. Doctors at the hospital drew up false statements in which the death was justified by disease. Go left from the main entrance to find a memorial stone.



Key Buildings from the Communist Era

House on Embankment. Address: Sofiyskaya naberezhnaya. opposite the Kremlin on the banks of the Moscow River.

The House on Embankment was an exclusive complex of apartment blocks completed in 1931 with more than 500 apartments. It was built for significant figures in Soviet society such as party leaders, ministers, military leaders as well as people from the cultural elite. The complex had all necessary facilities such as post and telegraph offices, a bank, laundry, supermarket, beauty salon, restaurant, school, gymnasium and a theatre. Notable residents included the ministers Kosygin and Mikoyan, the commander of the Soviet forces in the Second World War General Zhukov, the KGB head Beria and Khrushchev, later leader of the Soviet Union. It is estimated that 100 ministers and 150 deputy ministers lived here. The complex is historically most well-known from the years of Stalin's Great Terror in 1937 and 1938 when a large proportion of the top Soviet hierarchy were arrested. It is estimated that one-third of the residents, around 700 individuals or so-called "enemies of the people", were executed or sent to the GULAGs. At that time it was the House of Fear. Nobody knew if or when they would be removed by the KGB. The arrests took place at night and, in the morning, it was clear who had been arrested because of the sealed doors to their apartments.



Moscow State University. Located in the south-west of the city at Sparrow Hills. Moscow has seven of these Stalinist-Gothic building complexes, also known as the "Seven Sisters". The others are: the Hotel Ukraine, the Kotelnicheskaya Embankment Apartments, the Kudrinskaya Square Building, the Hotel Leningradskaya, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Red Gates Administration. They were all built between 1947 and 1953.



Moscow, Russia

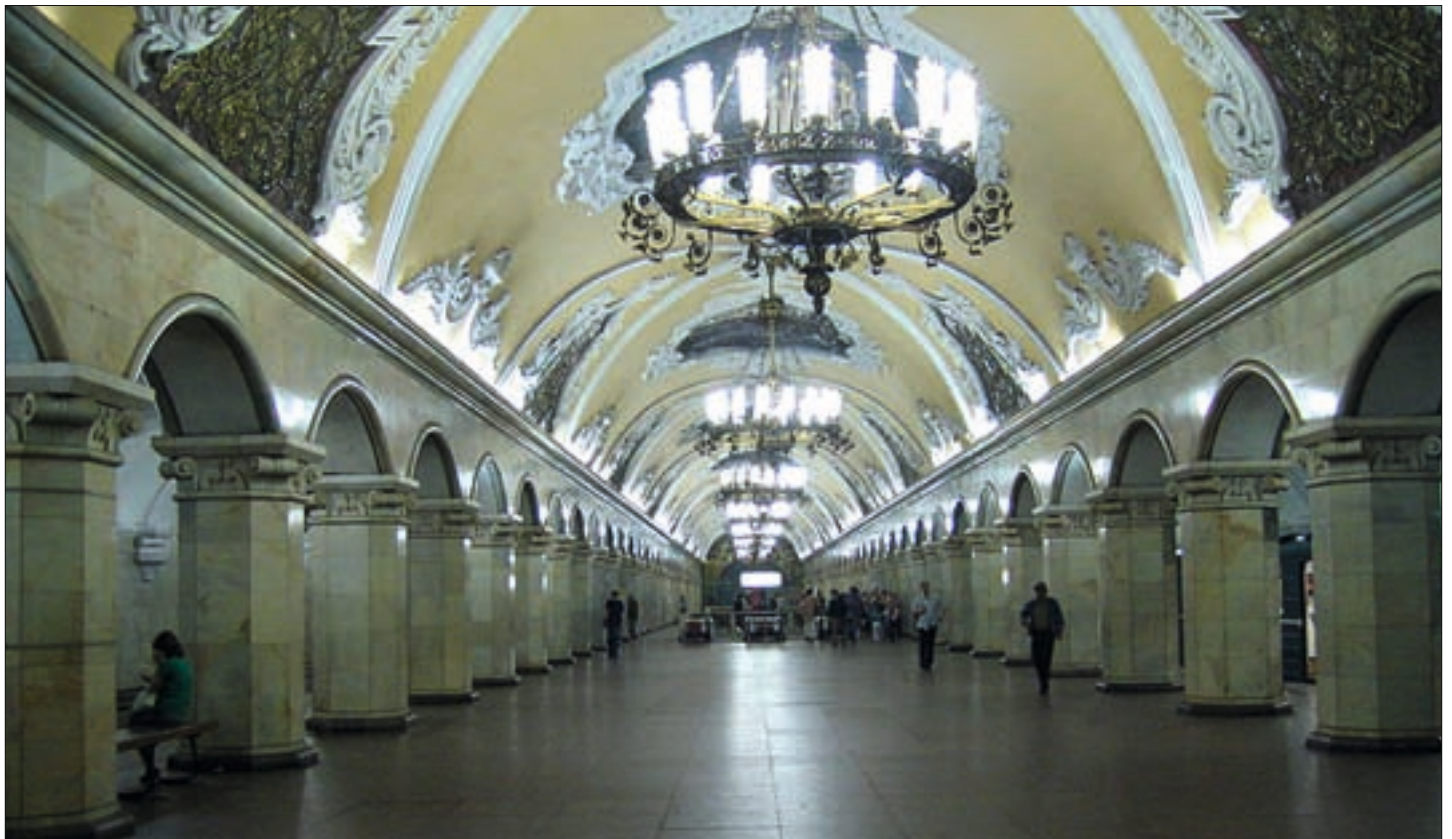
State Kremlin Palace. Located inside the walls of Kremlin. The building is also known as the Kremlin Palace of Congresses due to the Communist Party congresses that were held in the building as well as other mass state events. The Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev personally supported the construction of the building finished in 1961. It is remarkable how little the building is architecturally incorporated into the historical Kremlin environment. Several valuable old buildings at the site were demolished, including two monasteries.

Only half of the building volume is above ground. There are more than 800 rooms and seating for 6,000 people in the main meeting hall. Today it is mainly used for concerts and ballets.



Komsomolskaya Metro Station. Some of the oldest metro stations in Moscow are architectural and artistic monuments with sculptures, lavish mosaic floors and walls, as well as

chandeliers. Some of the finest are: Teatralnaya, Ploshhad Revolyutsii, Novokuznetskaya, Park Kultury, Kropotkinskaya, Kievskaya, Mayakovskaya and Belorusskaya.



Museum of the Human Rights Organisation “Memorial”

Arts and crafts from the GULAG Camps

MEMORIAL's main office in Moscow houses a small exhibition. A poster exhibition can also be seen in the entrance and in the stairway. The exhibition contains mainly graphic art, paintings, sculptures and hand-made miscellanea made by political prisoners and dissidents who were imprisoned in the GULAG hard labour camps. A description of the artists can be found on the website (select “site map” on front page).

The archives and library and a Reading Room are also open to the public.

MEMORIAL. Russia's biggest human right organisation

MEMORIAL is an international historical and human rights organisation founded in 1991. Its full official name is the *International Volunteer Public Organization “MEMORIAL Historical, Educational, Human Rights And Charitable Society”*. Some of the founders were dissidents such as *Andrei Sakharov*, *Lev Ponomarev*, *Yuri Samodurov*, *Vyacheslav Igrunov*, *Dmitri Leonov* and *Arseni Roginsky*.

The organisation arose in the years of perestroika in the late 1980s. The aims according to its charter are:

- To promote mature civil society and democracy based on the rule of law and thus to prevent a return to totalitarianism.
- To assist the formation of a public consciousness based on the values of democracy and law, to get rid of totalitarian patterns, and to establish firm human rights in practical politics and in public life.
- To promote the revelation of the truth about the historical past and perpetuate the memory of the victims of political repression exercised by totalitarian regimes.

One of MEMORIAL's main tasks is to support former GULAG prisoners financially and legally, for example, through rehabilitation processes. Another main task is to research the political repression and present the results in books, exhibitions, museums and in the media. An important part of its human rights activities is to monitor the former Soviet states, for example in Chechnya.

The organisation has also raised several concrete memorials such as the *Memorial to the Victims of the Gulag* on the Lubyanka Square in Moscow in front of the KGB headquarter.

Today more than 70 organisations in both former Soviet and other countries are connected to MEMORIAL.

“Free”. Benjamin Mkrtschjan. From the camp Iwdel-ITL, Ural. 1955.

Museum of the human rights organisation MEMORIAL

Address: Malyy Karetnyy pereulok, No. 12.

Website: www.memo.ru/eng

Opening hours: 11:00-17:00. Closed Fridays.

The MEMORIAL Society Archives

The History of Political Repressions Archive (1918-1956)

Opening hours: 11:00-17:00. Closed Fridays.

Opening hours of the Reading Room: 11:00-17:00. Closed Wednesdays.

The History of Dissidents in the USSR Archive

Opening hours: 14:00-18:00. Access only by appointment.

VIRTUAL GULAG MUSEUM - a source of knowledge on museums and memorials

Website: www.gulagmuseum.org

Content of the website: This website provides information about museums in Russia, Europe and Asia working on the themes of the history of the Soviet Terror, the GULAGs and the history of the resistance. The website contains information about the exhibitions, museum initiatives, and the exhibits of the archives and collections.

The website is being developed under the guidance of the Saint Petersburg Research and Information Centre MEMORIAL.



Moscow, Russia

"Reunion with the son". Benjamin Mkrtschjan. From the camp Iwdel-ITL, Ural. 1955.



Benjamin Mkrtschjan was born in Armenia. Educated at art school in Azerbaijan. Officer in the Red Army in Second World War. Prisoner of war in German KZ camps in Poland and French. Fled and joined the French partisans as commander of a grenade launcher unit. Back in Azerbaijan, he worked as a theatre designer. Arrested in 1950 because he had been prisoner of war in a foreign country. Sentenced to 10 years in a hard labour camp for treason and counter-revolutionary activity. Released in 1955. Rehabilitated in 1962.

"Burial of a prisoner", Benjamin Mkrtschjan. From the camp Iwdel-ITL, Ural. 1955.



Museum of the Human Rights Organisation “Memorial”



Top: “Morning in the camp”.

Bottom left: “Artist repairs the prisoner’s number”.

Bottom right: “Prisoners”.

All paintings are from a camp in Kotlas, Archangel and painted in 1952 by Michail Rudakow. He was born in Ukraine in 1914. Educated as an artist. Worked as illustrator for newspapers. Conscripted into the Red Army in 1940. Heavily wounded and imprisoned in 1941. Freed and sent to Moscow to undergo a special disease check. Arrested and sentenced to 5 years in a hard labour camp for anti-Soviet and counter-revolutionary propaganda and agitation. Released in 1953. Rehabilitated in 1957. Died in Moscow in 1985.



Moscow, Russia

"Black silhouettes". Painted by Boris Smirnow-Ruszezki in a camp in Rybinsk in 1948. Smirnow-Ruszezki was born into a noble family in St. Petersburg in 1905. Educated both as an artist and as a metal engineer. His family was arrested in 1938 (Stalin's Great Terror) and disappeared, probably executed. He was arrested in 1941 and sentenced to 10 years in a hard labour camp for anti-Soviet and counter-revolutionary propaganda and agitation. In 1951, after the sentence was served, it was immediately extended to life imprisonment. Smirnow-Ruszezki was released in 1954 and rehabilitated in 1956. He died in Moscow in 1993.



Left: Michail Rudakow. **Middle:** Boris Smirnow-Ruszezki. **Right:** Jewsej Winiwitin (self-portrait).



"Camps musician". Sketch by Jewsej Winiwitin, 1949. Born on a farm in the Altai region in 1915. Educated as an artist. Accused of inciting the kolkhoz peasants to rise up against the Soviet authorities. Sentenced to 8 years in a prison camp and deprived of his civil rights for a further 5 years. Released in 1945. Rehabilitated in 1959. Became blind in 1969.

State GULAG Museum

A museum of tragedy and horror

The exhibition contains all kinds of equipment from the Soviet hard labour prison camps as well as 1:1 scale mock-ups illustrating some camp situations.

One guide has said that one of his grandfathers was a prisoner and the other a guard. This illustrates the tragedies of many Russian families.

The GULAG camps, a slave army and a dead machine

GULAG is the acronym for the governmental agency called *The Chief Administration of Corrective Labour Camps and Colonies*. This agency administered the hard labour camps of the Soviet Union. The inmates were a mix of political prisoners and criminals. It was easy to be imprisoned in a GULAG, for example, for absences from work or anti-Communist jokes.

The prison camp system was simply used to develop remote parts of the Soviet Union, including the exploitation of its natural resources such as wood, coal, oil, uranium, etc. There were at least 476 separate camps, some of them consisting of thousands of connected sub-camps. The worst camps were those in the Arctic and sub-Arctic regions.

Half of the political prisoners were sent to the camps without trial. The prisoners were subjected to hard labour and suffered

from exhaustion, malnutrition, starvation and epidemics. There were severe punishments for those who broke the regulations, including executions. The GULAGs were comparable to the German concentration camps in the Second World War.

The most infamous camps were situated in the Arctic or sub-Arctic regions where cold were a major cause of death.

The GULAGs were radically reduced in size after Stalin's death in 1953 but the political prisoners continued to exist until the collapse of the Soviet Union.

It is estimated that 4-5 million people died in the GULAGs from 1930 to 1953.

State GULAG Museum

Address: st. Petrovka 16.

Website: www.gmig.ru (In Russian only).

Opening hours: 1st of April – 30th of September: 11:00-18:00. On Thursdays: 12:00-20:00. Closed on Mondays.
1st of October – 30th of March: 11:00-18:00. Thursdays 11:00-19:00. Closed on Mondays.

Guided tours: Possible in English but book a day in advance by email (info@gmig.ru).



From the exhibition.

Left: A full-scale scene from the GULAGs. A new prisoner is investigated when he arrives at the camp.



Moscow, Russia

The yard at the entrance to the museum with a mock-up of a watchtower and a fence with barbed wire illustrating a hard labour GULAG camp. On the walls, photos of some victims.



"In prison", R.G. Gorelev. The museum owns many paintings illustrating the GULAGs and Stalin's terror.



Andrei Sakharov. The Archives. The Museum and Public Center

Andrei Sakharov. Scientist, dissident and human rights activist

Andrei Sakharov was key to developing the Soviet nuclear bomb after the Second World War and was later a key person in efforts to promote civil human rights and political reforms in the Soviet Union. Although he participated in the nuclear bomb construction, he is best known for his opinions about the peaceful use of nuclear energy and the struggle against the nuclear arms race between the East and the West.

Sakharov was born in 1921 in Moscow and also died here in 1989 of a sudden heart attack.

The Sakharov Archives. Andrei Sakharov Museum and Public Center

The Sakharov Archives and Andrei Sakharov Museum and Public Center are structural units of one institute. They are located at two different addresses, but close to each other.

The *Sakharov Archives* are located in the building where he lived. They contain documents and materials from personal archives of Andrei Sakharov and Elena Bonner, as well as photos, audio- and video materials, and library. There is a permanent museum Exhibition at the Archives, with a focus on Sakharov's life, opinions and activities.

The Museum and Public Center describes important themes of Soviet society, such as the history of political repression in the Soviet Union and the resistance to the Communist regime.

1944. Ulianovsk. Andrei Sakharov as an engineer at Plant No. 3 (now Volodarsky Plant).



The Sakharov Archives

Address: Zemlyanoy val, 48-B, p.62.

Website: www.sakharov-archive.ru

Opening hours: 11:00-19:00. Closed on Saturdays and Sundays. Guided tours are conducted free of charge. Groups of 15 persons max. Reservations by phone: 916-2480 or 623-4401. Topics: *Milestones in the life and work of Andrei Sakharov* (his life and fate), *Cosmos Andrei Sakharov*, *"Andrei Sakharov's universe"* (scientific life), *"Sakharov and power"* (his political and public activities).

Andrei Sakharov Museum and Public Center

Address: Zemlyanoy val, 57, bldg.6.

Website: www.sakharov-center.ru

Opening hours: Hall with permanent exhibition: 11:00-19:00. Closed on Mondays.

Hall with temporary exhibitions: 11:00-19:00. Closed: Wednesday-Friday.

The exhibition displays materials on the following themes: *Mythology and ideology of the Soviet Union, Political repression of the Soviet Union, The road through the GULAG, Resistance to lack of freedom in the Soviet Union, Andrei Sakharov: Personality and Destiny.* Next to the museum there is a showroom for temporary exhibitions.

1958. Andrei Sakharov in the garden of the Institute of Atomic Energy in Moscow together with Igor Kurchatov, leader of the Soviet atomic bomb project.



Moscow, Russia



1985. October 25, Gorky. Sakharov and his wife Elena Bonner, a dissident and human right activist. This photo was taken shortly after his last hunger strike.

Andrei Sakharov's scientific life

Sakharov received a Ph.D. in 1947 in theoretical physics.

From 1948 on, he participated in the Soviet hydrogen bomb programme. In 1953 he obtained a D.Sc. degree and became a full member of the Soviet Academy of Sciences. In 1955 he played a key role in developing the first megaton-range Soviet hydrogen bomb, the design of which was known in the Soviet Union as "*Third Idea*" of Andrei Sakharov and Yakov Zeldovich. A larger variant of same design was produced in 1961 and was the most powerful nuclear bomb ever exploded.

He was appointed a *Hero of Socialist Labour* three times.

He continued working for the military-industrial complex, and concurrently worked in theoretical physics, mainly particle physics and cosmology.

Dissident activities

From the late 1950s, Sakharov questioned the moral, political and practical use of his work. He became vocal against the spread of nuclear weapons and wanted a peaceful use of nuclear technology.

In 1967 he wrote a letter to the Soviet leaders in which he warned against the nuclear arms race with the U.S. He called for acceptance of the USA's proposal on ABM (limitation of the anti-ballistic missile (ABM) systems used in defending areas against missile-delivered nuclear weapons). His proposals were rejected and he was prohibited from publishing his thoughts in the media. However, in 1968 he wrote the essay *Reflections on*



1987. At the Forum for a Nuclear-Free World in Moscow.

Progress. Peaceful Coexistence and Intellectual Freedom. Here he continued to argue against the arms race and spoke about the danger of a possible thermonuclear war. The manuscript circulated illegally and was later published outside the Soviet Union. Sakharov was subsequently excluded from all military-related work. In the 1970s he was fully involved in dissident activities and was co-founder of the *Moscow Human Rights Committee*. He married the human right activist *Yelena Bonner* in 1972.

In 1975 he was awarded the *Nobel Peace Prize* but he was not allowed to leave the Soviet Union to receive it. Elena Bonner received the prize and gave his acceptance speech in Norway.

He continued his dissident activities and protested against the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1980. Soon after that he was arrested and was sent into exile in Gorky (now Nizhny Novgorod), a closed city. It was an extrajudicial exile for an indefinite period. Sakharov was thus isolated from the external world.

From 1980 until 1986, he was under the round-the-clock surveillance by the KGB. He was allowed to return to Moscow in 1986 when the Soviet leader Gorbachev introduced *perestroika* (reconstruction of the society) and *glasnost* (openness in the society).

Sakharov then continued his dissident activities and supported the upcoming political opposition. In 1989 he was elected to the Russian Parliament, the *All-Union Congress of People's Deputies*, and became one of the leaders of the democratic opposition.

Donskoy Cemetery and Crematorium

Three mass graves with ashes from victims of Stalin's terror

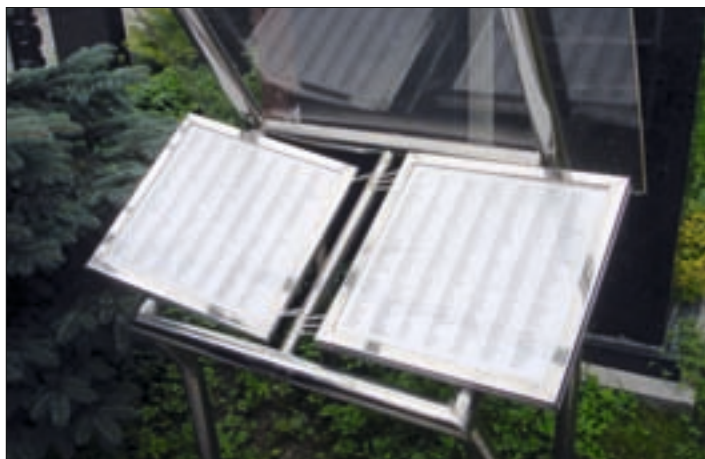
Donskoy Cemetery is one of the main burial places for people killed by the Stalinist regime from 1935 until 1953, especially in the years of the *Great Terror* of 1937 and 1938. These were people shot or tortured to death in Moscow's main KGB prisons, the Lubyanka and Butyrka. The bodies were brought to *Donskoy Crematorium* at night and burned. The ashes were dumped into nearby pits, now known as mass graves numbers one, two and three.

The Great Terror were planned and directed by the dictator *Josef Stalin* himself and the KGB head, *Yezhov*, later executed when he fell out of favour with Stalin. He is also buried here at Donskoy Cemetery.

It is estimated that around 10,000 people were burnt and buried at Donskoy Cemetery during the Great Terror. The objective was to put an end "once and for all" to "enemies of the people", which included *independent farmers* (kulaks), *political opponents*, *alleged followers of the Tsarist regime* (named "former people"), *Communists with different political views to Stalin* ("opponents"), *wives and families of "enemies of the people"*, *priests and other religious practitioners* as well as *foreigners* from many countries ("potential spies").

Around 40,000 people were killed in Moscow under the Great Terror and at least 700,000 in the Soviet Union as a whole. In addition, approximately one million people were sent to GULAGs, mostly for 10 years.

A memorial book placed by mass grave number three with the names of more than 5,000 identified victims that are known to be buried here. Because of prohibited access to the KGB archives, it is very difficult to find the exact names of the rest of the victims.



Donskoy Cemetery and Crematorium

Address: 3-y Donskoy proyezd. The Cemetery is located in the centre of Moscow, 7 km south-east of the Kremlin.

Remark: The cemetery is also called the New Cemetery of Donskoy Monastery and should not be confused with the neighbouring and much bigger Old Donskoy Cemetery, with Donskoy Monastery. The new cemetery is located south-east of the old one and a few minutes' walk from the monastery.

Mass grave number three, in use from 1945 until 1953. It is the grave of the latest executions, among them many foreigners. The memorial stones in the background were erected in memory of the German, Chinese and Japanese victims, among others. More than 900 Germans were executed between 1950 and 1953.

This grave also contains the ashes of the KGB chiefs, Yagoda, Yezhov and Beria, who were all primarily responsible for the terror and mass executions from 1935 until 1953. All of them were executed. Yagoda and Yezhov by their former chief and close collaborator, Stalin. Beria by the supporters of Nikita Khrushchev, who was to follow Stalin as leader of the Soviet Union.

One of Stalin's main judges, General Blochin, has his family grave here, a few metres from the mass graves. He was a member of the three-person committee that signed the execution orders and was also the head of the execution commandos.



Moscow, Russia

Donskoy Crematorium was built in 1927 as the first crematorium in Russia. It was closed in 1973 and rebuilt in 1990 as a church.

Executed victims of Stalin's Terror were burned and buried here from 1935 until 1953.



Mass grave number one. The grave is supplemented with individual gravestones placed by the descendents of the victims, and forms a personal and strong memorial.

The grave was the first to be identified when the search for the mass graves was permitted in Russia in the late 1980s. Mass grave number one is also the oldest of the mass graves at Donskoy Cemetery. On the memorial stone is engraved the following text: "Here lie buried the remains of the innocent tortured and executed victims of the political repression of 1930-42. May they never be forgotten".



Butovo Shooting Range. Execution and Burial Site

Butovo: from a landlord's estate to Stalin's mass graves

Butovo was a former estate south of Moscow taken over by the KGB after the revolution and used as an agricultural colony, shooting range and site for executions and mass graves.

The executions took place here from 1935 to 1953, but mostly in the years of *Stalin's Great Terror* in 1937 and 1938. Butovo Shooting Range is known as Moscow's *main killing field* and, among religious people as *Russia's Golgotha*.

The Great Terror were planned and directed by *Stalin* himself and the KGB head, *Yetzov*. The objective was to put an end "once and for all" to "enemies of the people". The number of local people to be sentenced was indicated by Moscow as "quotas". The trials against those arrested were brief and superficial. The most important thing was that the local authorities fulfilled the quotas, which were carefully monitored by Stalin and Yetzov.

From the archives of the KBG it can be seen that at least 20,761 people were killed and buried here, perhaps far more. The enemies of the people included *independent farmers* (*kulaks*), *political opponents*, alleged followers of the Tsarist regime (named "former people"), *Communists with different political views to Stalin* ("opponents"), *wives and families of "enemies of the people"*, *priests and other religious practitioners* as well as *foreigners* from no less than 60 countries (potential spies). Poles, Balts and Germans constituted the majority of foreigners. Many of them came to Russia to study and support the Communist regime. The foreigners were shot without trial. An American victim had brought his family to Russia "to educate his sons as Communists". The families of foreign people received false death certificates from the Soviet embassies with false dates and reasons for death, such as "TB of the lungs".

Those convicted were transported by night from central Moscow in food vans marked MEAT. The executions and burials took place through the night. A rare eyewitness from the KGB, a former commandant of Butovo, has reported how they were gathered together in a stone building from where the executioners took them one by one to the edge of the grave and killed them by a shot in the nape of the neck. At dawn a bulldozer would cover the bodies. The executioners had free access to vodka as well as eau-de-cologne to remove the spell of blood and gunpowder. The executioners came from the KGB in Moscow. They all received service medals such as the *Order of the Red Banner* and the *Order of the Red Star* as well as *high pensions*.

The 16 months of Stalin's Great Terror accounted for at least 700,000 death sentences. Approximately one million people were sentenced to 10 years in a GULAG camp.

Butovo Shooting Range.

The village of Butovo is located 27 kilometres south of Moscow and near the Podolsk Highway. The area is surrounded by a high wooden fence with barbed wire. A new large white stone church is built outside the memorial area.

Top: A small wooden church is built on the area because of the approx. 1,000 Russian Orthodox priests that were killed here.

Bottom: A building located just outside the memorial site and constructed by German prisoners of war. Until the fall of the Soviet Union, the building functioned as an international school for the KGB in which people from foreign countries were educated in secret activities. Today it is used by the Russian Orthodox Church.



Moscow, Russia

Top: From a panel next to the entrance. Secret Police photo's of the victim's that were executed and buried at Butovo Shooting Range. More than 20,000 people were killed here between 1935 and 1953, nearly all of them in the years of Stalin's Great Terror in 1937 and 1938.

96% of the victims were men, 4% women. 18 were over 75 years of age and 10 were 15 years or younger.

People from no less than 90 countries were executed and buried here.

Middle: The mass graves are indicated with grass-covered mounds.

Bottom: A wall with memorial plaques inscribed with the names of the executed people. There are still apple trees on the site from the period when the area was used for gardening by KGB officials.

When the Butovo estate was taken over by the KGB after the revolution it was used for the production of vegetables for the KGB officials. The field workers were prisoners accommodated in the former estate stables.

This work continued after the Second World War. Then the KGB officials were also allowed to build small cottages with kitchen gardens (datchas) on a part of the grave area, but it was not permitted to dig foundations or cellars because of the mass graves. The mass grave area was also used for strawberry production.



The New Tretyakov Gallery and the “Graveyard to Fallen Monuments”

Contemporary Russian and Soviet art

The New Tretyakov Gallery is devoted to Russian art from the beginning of the 1900s to the present day. It contains many modern Russian masterpieces, including works by *Malevich*, *Kandinsky* and *Chagall* as well as works of the avant-garde and underground art movements of the 1960s and 1970s. A part of the exhibition includes works of *Socialist Realism*, the Soviet Union’s only officially recognized art style, represented by paintings and, outside the building, sculptures.

Socialist Realism. The systems propaganda

Socialist Realism was an art style developed in the Soviet Union. It became the official state art policy for nearly 60 years and the objective was to further the goals of Communism. Artists who did not follow the official policy were pursued and severely punished.

Socialist Realism was officially defined by four rules adopted at the *Communist Party Congress* in 1934:

- Proletarian: art relevant to the workers and understandable to them.
- Typical: scenes of the people’s everyday life.
- Realistic: in the representational sense.
- Prospective and revolutionary: supportive of the aims of the State and the Party.

The typical motifs showed happy and muscular farmers and workers at collective farms and factories, heroic portraits of the Communist leaders and romanticized everyday situations.

All other kind of art styles, such as *Impressionism* and *Cubism*, that were practised in the Soviet countries prior to the revolution, were labeled as “decadent bourgeois art”, counter-revolutionary, unintelligible to the people, degenerative and pessimistic.

Socialist realism was openly a part of the systems *propaganda*. *Stalin* described the artist as “engineers of souls”. There was in fact no market among private people for art and the State owned all potential public art users (ministries, institutions,



Moscow, Russia

schools etc.). The artists became state employees and met the wishes of the State. This was similar to other activities in the Soviet Union: education, farming etc. After Stalin's death, the situation changed a little but it was still difficult for many avant-garde artists. An unofficial art exhibition in 1974 in a field near Moscow was destroyed by the police using water cannon and bulldozers (The Bulldozer Exhibition). The artwork was part of an exhibition that had previously been closed on its opening day by the Soviet leader *Khrushchev*.

Graveyard to Fallen Monuments.

A collection of Socialist Realism Sculptures

A collection of *Soviet sculptures* is located in the park area immediately north of the exhibition building. These were removed from public squares and buildings around Moscow after the collapse of the Communist regime. Among the Socialist Realism sculptures are also memorials to the victims of the GULAG camps.

The New Tretyakov Gallery and the "Graveyard to Fallen Monuments"

The New Tretyakov Gallery is a branch of the State Tretyakov Gallery.

Address: Krymsky Val 10. Opposite Gorki Park. The Graveyard to Fallen Monuments is located in a park area immediately north of the museum building.

Website: www.tretyakovgallery.ru

Opening hours: Tuesday-Sunday. 10:00-19:30.

Guided tours: Guided tours are available in many languages.

Statue of the first leader of the secret Communist police, Feliks Dzierżyński, which was removed from in front of the police headquarter at Lubyanka Square in central Moscow. Dzierżyński was a Polish nobleman and revolutionary.



All-Russian Exhibition Centre

Soviet architecture and atmosphere

The All-Russian Exhibition Centre is worth visiting because of its architecture, the many Communist symbols and the atmosphere from the Stalinist period. It is a large permanent exhibition area opened in 1938 with pavilions in the traditional Soviet architectural style as well as buildings inspired by local architecture from the former Soviet republics.

The area is also worth a visit because it has evolved into one of Moscow's most popular recreation areas, not least because of the enormous asphalt areas ideal for all kinds of roller skating and cycling.

In the beginning it was only an agricultural exhibition, and so there are many agricultural symbols and sculptures.

The exhibition was opened after years of delays and arrests of the planning team. The original idea was that all buildings should be in wood, like most buildings in the countryside, but a commission decided that it did not suit the present ideological direction.

The exhibition opened with 250 pavilions over 136 ha and 4.5 million visitors (1940). Industrial and building exhibitions moved in after the Second World War.

Today the area is administered by a state joint-stock company and is a mix of exhibitions, shopping centres, street markets, cinemas, amusements, cafes etc.

The All-Russian Exhibition Centre

Address: The Exhibition Centre is located near to the VDNK Metro Station. VDNK is the abbreviation for The Exhibition of National Economic Achievements.

Website: www.vvcentre.ru



Worker and Kolkhoz Woman.

The 24.5-meter-high and very famous sculpture in Socialist realistic style was made from stainless steel in 1937 for the Soviet Pavilion at the Paris World Fair (photo). It was later moved to Moscow. The worker holds a hammer and the Kolkhoz woman a sickle. The sculpture was taken down in 2003 for restoration. It is not known when (or indeed if) it will return.

Opposite page

Top left: The main entrance built in 1954. A kind of triumphal arch, monumental and classical in style. The columns feature large reliefs of people living and working in the countryside. The sculpture on the top shows a kolkhoz woman and a tractor driver.

Top right: The Uzbek pavilion built in 1939. An original building of beauty and elegance. It has been appointed as an historic and national monument of historic significance.

Bottom left: The Central Pavilion was built in 1954. The monumental building is 100 metres high including the spire. The building is decorated with many Communist symbols and sculptures, such as the groups with kolkhoz farmers on the top. The architectural style can be described as traditional Soviet classical architecture from the 1950s. The main entrance is decorated with a large bronze relief with flags and Communist symbols. It has been appointed as an historic and national monument of historic significance. Note that the special light stands are designed as sheaves. The exhibition was originally built for agricultural products.

Right bottom: Ukraine's pavilion built in 1938 with the use of national architectural components. A very special building with many interesting details. The facade is finished in Ukrainian majolica tiles. The entrance is abundantly decorated. A decorative ceramic wreath frames the entrance. A crown with a sprout interwoven with flowers and herbs is part of the building's top decoration. It has been appointed as an historic and national monument of historic significance.

The Peoples Friendship Fountain, with girls in national costumes from the former republics of the Soviet Union. They are made of bronze and gold-plated.



Moscow, Russia



The Central Museum of Armed Forces

Interesting objects from the Cold War period

The Central Museum of Armed Forces depicts the history of the Russian and the Soviet Army and Navy from the beginning of the 18th century to the present day. The collection includes over 800,000 military and historical objects.

Of interest from the Cold War period are, for example, the history of the missiles and missile technology, including examples of many types of both Soviet and American missiles at the outdoor exhibition.

The American U2 spy plane

Of particular interest are the *remains of the US U2 spy plane* shot down over Soviet territory in 1960. The story of the U2 is a real piece of Cold War history, with many typical historic elements of the period: the relations between the superpowers, the US and the Soviet Union, the development of weapon technology, the history of espionage, spy exchanges between the superpowers, propaganda, etc.

The U2 was a very high-altitude US reconnaissance plane developed in the early 1950s and, in the beginning, operated by the CIA (*Central Intelligence Agency*). The main task of the plane was to gain a better knowledge of the Soviet Union and other hostile states.

The U2 was able to fly at an altitude of 21 kilometres and was therefore beyond the reach of Soviet fighter aircraft and anti-aircraft missiles.

A large-format camera with special optics was developed to take high-resolution photos from the very edges of the atmosphere. The U2 was then able to photograph military installations and intelligence targets.

It was a single-seater aircraft with just one engine. Its glider-

like design and low weight were essential for its altitude but made it very difficult to fly.

The shooting down of Francis Powers

The U2 became publicly known when 31-year-old CIA pilot, *Francis Gary Powers*, was shot down over the Soviet Union in 1960.

The Soviet intelligence knew about the U2 but had no weapons against it until 1960 when a newly-developed missile hit the plane. Powers was unable to activate the flight's self-destruct mechanism before parachuting to the ground.

The US government claimed that "a weather plane has crashed because of difficulties with the oxygen equipment", not realising that the plane was in the hands of the KGB, almost fully intact. After months of interrogation, Powers apologised publicly for the US espionage. He was sentenced to 10 years in prison but was exchanged two years later in return for the KGB Colonel, *Vilyam Fisher*, alias *Rudolf Abel*.

Powers' return to the US was not a happy one. He was criticized for having failed to destroy the plane and for not using the suicide pin. He defended himself by saying that he had not provided critical information and had acted as "a fine young man under dangerous circumstances".

The Central Museum of Armed Forces

Address: 2, Ulitsa Sovetskoy Armii

Website: www.cmaf.ru

Opening hours: Wednesday-Sunday: 10:00-17:00.

Guided tours: Guided tours are possible in English. Contact the Excursion Office on arrival.



Left: Photo of the Fili bomb flight factory in Moscow taken by the U2 pilot, Carmine Vito, in 1956. The quality of the photos was very high given the distance of the craft.

Opposite page.

Top: The U2 spy plane built by the Lockheed Corporation, an American aerospace company.

Bottom: The remains of the U2 shot down over the Soviet Union in 1960. From the exhibition at the Central Museum of Armed Forces.

Moscow, Russia



Museum of Regional Studies. The Museum of the Northern Fleet

Murmansk, a fairly new but already a historical city

Murmansk, with around 350,000 inhabitants, is located in the long, deep and narrow Kola Fjord, approximately 50 kilometres from the beginning of the fjord at the Barents Sea. Murmansk has a natural and ice-free port.

It is a new town founded in 1916 during the First World War for strategic reasons. The railroad was built as far as the town so that weapons, ammunition and supplies from the UK, France and US could be forwarded to allied Soviet Union via ships, on a route from the Atlantic and north of Norway. This route was later one of the most important military lifelines between the UK, US and the Soviet Union in the Second World War. It was known for the huge losses of ships and lives caused by German submarines. Furthermore, Murmansk city and port were bombed for long periods by German aircraft based in occupied northern Norway. During the war, the city was virtually ruined. The important port area and railroad were constantly demolished but immediately repaired. The ships' cargoes were loaded onto rail wagons as soon as the ships arrived in the harbour. Both ships and railways left the harbour soon after, and often under constant German bombardment. 78 large convoys arrived in Murmansk between 1941 and 1945. It is from this period that the city gets its Soviet epithet as "the hero city".

Murmansk Museum of Regional Studies

The museum tells the natural and cultural history of the Murmansk region. The exhibition gives an especially good impression of the destruction in the Second World War and the subsequent reconstruction of the towns and society. The exhibition also tells the local history in connection with the collapse of the Soviet Union and the ensuing consequences.

Address: 90 Lenina Prospect

Website: www.murman.ru/culture/museum.

Opening hours: Saturday-Wednesday: 11:00-18:00. Closed Thursdays and Fridays.

The Museum of the Northern Fleet

The museum owns many effects from the Northern Fleet. A part of the exhibition tells the development of the fleet after the Second World War. A special section deals with the sinking of the submarine *Kursk* in 2000.

Address: 15 Tortseva st.

Opening hours: 9:00-17:00. Break 13:00 and 14:00. Closed on Tuesdays and Wednesdays.

Museums in Murmansk

Murmansk is the most well-known town on the *Kola Peninsula*. The area is heavily fortified. The military forces are located in several towns and bases along the northern coast of the Barents Sea. Murmansk itself today has no military force.

Murmansk has two museums of modern history: *Murmansk Museum of Regional Studies*, a large modern museum covering nearly all aspects of the development of the region and the *Museum of the Northern Fleet*, a more traditional museum but with many interesting exhibits.

The Russian Northern Fleet

The Kola Peninsula is headquarters of the *Russian Northern Fleet*, which is the most powerful of Russia's four fleets and accounts for two-thirds of all the Russian Navy's nuclear forces. The fleet consists of nuclear-powered missile and torpedo submarines, missile warships, anti-submarine ships and an aircraft carrier.

The main task of the Northern Fleet in case of war in the Cold War period was to operate in the Atlantic Ocean and, in particular, to prevent a link from being made between the US and Europe.

Map of the northern part of the Kola Peninsula, with Murmansk and the concentration of the Northern Fleet's naval bases and shipyards.



Murmansk, Russia

From the exhibition at the Murmansk Museum of Regional Studies.

Demonstrations in Murmansk because of the so-called August Coup in 1991. Some hard-line Communists from the government and KGB leaders tried to depose the Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev and take power in the Soviet Union. They failed notably because of large public demonstrations and the Russian President, Boris Yeltsin, who climbed on the tanks by the parliament and addressed the crowd, who wanted to defend the parliament. Unexpectedly, this event was broadcast by the TV. A planned attack on the parliament building was cancelled and those responsible for the coup were arrested.

The demonstrator on the left is a supporter of the coup and the poster says: "Attention please! Communist fascism is attacking us. Take a position - your future solidarity !!!".

The demonstrator on the right is against the coup. The poster says: "The GKChP (State Committee of Emergency) is our curse. Yanayev and K. are criminals". This refers to two of the coup's leaders, Gennady Yanayev, the Vice President of the Soviet Union, and Vladimir Kryuchkov, the Chairman of the KGB.



View of the historical harbour area of Murmansk. It was here that convoys of Western allied ships loaded weapons and supplies for the Russian and Soviet Army during both the First and Second World War.



Sweden

The military situation during the Cold War period

Sweden was not occupied by German or other foreign forces during the Second World War. This was probably one of the main reasons for its exceptional prosperity after the war, backed up by American economic support (the *Marshall Plan*).

The Swedish military situation during the Cold War period was characterized by:

- Political neutrality
- A strategic location in the front line with the Soviet Union
- A very strong coastal defence force and a strong air force. This contributed to a deterrent effect, an official Swedish defence policy which aimed at preventing a Soviet attack.
- The country was prepared for total war in case of an attack from the Soviet Union.
- Sweden was self-sufficient in most of its military equipment such as cannons and aircrafts.

Neutrality, but near contacts to the United States and NATO

It would have been impossible for Sweden to be neutral in the case of a war between NATO and the Warsaw Pact. In fact, the Swedish military forces were directed openly against the Soviet Union. The only realistic and successful possibility of defending Sweden in case of war was on the basis of support from the United States (and hence also nuclear support). Military ties with NATO were therefore kept deadly secret by the Swedish government because of its official policy of neutrality.

Sweden's strategic location

Most Soviet attack plans throughout the Cold War period involved the Nordic countries because of the Soviet desire for military control of and access to the North Atlantic. Another reason for the Soviet Union's interest in controlling access to the Baltic Sea was the many shipyards that could repair the *Warsaw Pact's* ships in case of war.

It should also be noted that half of the border between Western Europe and the Soviet countries is formed by Sweden. Control of this border led to many confrontations between Swedish and Soviet aircraft in the Baltic Sea, including the downing of a Swedish surveillance aircraft in 1952 (the *DC-3 affair*).

Other confrontations involved Soviet submarines. One of these submarines, the U137, ran ashore in 1981 inside the restricted zone of the Karlskrona naval base, and resulted in a political crisis between Sweden and the Soviet Union.

A strong coastal defence and a strong air force

The eastern coast of Sweden, along a length of more than 1500

kilometres, probably had the most powerful coastal defence system in the world. The system consisted of coastal artillery, submarines, battleships and aircrafts. No less than 90 heavy cannons (typically 7.5 cm cannons) with large underground facilities were strategically located along the coast, together with a large number of bunkers and pillboxes.

For a long time Sweden had the fourth largest air force in the world, with no less than 30 bases and a large number of smaller hangars mainly connected to motorways that could be used as runways in case of war. One of the main tasks of the Swedish air force was to hinder attacks from Soviet antisubmarine flights against NATO submarines with nuclear missiles in the Baltic Sea.

Swedish Military Heritage (Sveriges Militärhistoriska Arv)

Swedish Military Heritage is a network of 25 museums that are run or supported by the Swedish government. Most of the museums describe the defence of Sweden during the Cold War period. Information about the museums: www.smha.se



Sweden

Two different plans for a Soviet military attack on the Nordic countries:

Top: the **isolation** of Sweden and

Bottom: the **invasion** of Sweden.

The background to both plans was the Soviet desire to control the North Atlantic and hence submarine access to the sea routes between the United States and Europe as well as access to the coastal areas of Western Europe. It must be stressed that there were many different plans for a Soviet attack on the Scandinavian countries throughout the Cold War period but that the Soviet Union's main purpose was always to gain control of the North Atlantic. It must also be noted that the existence of the plans has never been officially admitted by the Soviet Union.

It must also be emphasised that nuclear weapons probably formed a part of these plans or, at least, later plans with the same main objectives, although it seems that many military Soviet plans from the Cold War period were largely based on traditional military forces.

The isolation plan (top).

The main idea of this Soviet attack plan was not to invade Sweden but to go around the country, across the Danish Belts, and also to attack northern Norway from the Kola Peninsula. Sweden would then be "isolated". The Soviet Union hoped that Sweden would remain neutral as in the Second World War, when Germany invaded Denmark and Norway. The Swedish coastal defence force was probably deemed to be too strong, especially the air force, and it would therefore take too long for the Soviet forces to reach Norway and the Atlantic.

The invasion plan

This plan is from the early part of the Cold War period and was published in the periodical *Military Review*, 1964. The plan was presumably current until the early 1960s when military strategies changed because of the development of missiles and fast, long-range aircraft.

The plan also operated on the basis of an invasion of southern Norway through Sweden, in addition to the strategically important northern Norway. The northern part of Sweden was to be attacked from Finland. The blue arrows show that the invasion of the sea would come from the Baltic States (detailed Swedish city maps were later found in the Lithuanian military archives).



Red arrows: Military operation lines.

Light red area: The probable Soviet military interest zone in the Norwegian Sea.

Red arrows: Initial military landing operations.

Black arrows: Subsequent military landing operations.

Blue arrows: Initial military maritime operations.



The Army Museum

Sweden's military history

The museum recounts Sweden's military history from the Viking Age to the present day. The museum is worth visiting if only for the many unique types of historical full-scale scenes, along with many illustrative models. The focus of the museum is primarily humankind and how it is influenced by war. The exhibition is chronological.

A special exhibition tells the history of the Cold War and the following period. It includes a description of Sweden's neutrality policy, soldiers' barracks, the Berlin Wall and the history of the Swedish nuclear bomb.

In the Artillery Hall on the ground floor can be seen a Soviet missile warhead for a nuclear bomb. There is also a new exhibition about *Swedish Peace keeping forces* during the past 50 years.

The museum was built as a military armoury in 1867 but was already in use as a museum by 1877. In the foreground an armoured car used by the United Nations peacekeeping forces. The museum also tells the story of many of the more recent regional conflicts around the world in which Swedish peacekeeping forces have been involved.



The Army Museum. (Armémuseum)

Address: Riddargatan 13, Östermalm, Stockholm

Website: www.sfhm.se

Opening hours: July-August: Tuesdays: 10.00 - 20.00. Monday, Wednesday-Sunday: 10.00 - 17.00. September-June: Tuesdays: 11.00 - 20.00. Wednesday-Sunday: 11.00 - 17.00. Mondays closed. Holidays: See website.

Guided tours: During July and August there is a daily guided tour in Swedish at 13.00 and in English at 12.00; no advance booking is necessary. During the rest of the year there is a guided tour in Swedish on Saturdays and Sundays at 13.00.

Part of the exhibit on the Cold War period is an “everyday” scene with people looking at war reports on TV (in front of a big modern Swedish military vehicle). It raises the question as to whether the media has today steered content away from war news and towards entertainment.



Stockholm, Sweden

A Soviet missile warhead for a nuclear bomb.

NATO's name for the missile of this warhead was the SS-4. Its total length was 22 metres and it had a start weight of 47 tons. Its top speed was 2,570 metres/second and it had a range of more than 2,000 kilometres, which meant that it could reach targets anywhere in Europe from bases in the Communist countries. The Soviet Union had around 40 missile bases in the Baltic States and Kaliningrad. The SS-4 was active from 1960 on. In 1978 it was replaced by the SS-20 (which could be fired from a vehicle).

One missile could probably carry up to a 5 megaton bomb, more explosive than the total force used during the Second World War, including the two nuclear bombs dropped on Japan.

According to the INF Treaty of 1987 between US and the Soviet Union, all medium-range missiles and the warheads would be scrapped. This warhead was not destroyed, however, but buried by the Soviet forces near a former missile base in south-east Estonia. It was found by the Estonian military forces in 2002 together with 24 other warheads.

The Swedish nuclear bomb programme.

Left of photo: Swedish-produced equipment used for building a nuclear bomb. Right of photo: A film illustrating a nuclear bomb attack at Stockholm.

In the years following the Second World War, Sweden decided to remain neutral and defend itself from invaders. The threat came from the Soviet Union and its nuclear weapons. It was therefore decided to develop and produce a Swedish nuclear bomb. The view was that Swedish neutrality would only be taken seriously if a potential invader knew that the country had a strong defence capability, with serious consequences for the aggressor. It was also considered that Swedish soldiers had to be equipped with the same weapons as their opponents.

The plan was to produce 100 warheads in 10 years. Two reactors were allocated to produce the plutonium and the SAAB factory was to build an aircraft to operate the bomb. 300 people were involved in the programme. The project was well advanced before it was stopped, primarily for political but also for financial reasons. Two pieces of necessary hardware had already been produced: a neutron pulse generator (the final trigger for a nuclear bomb) and a nuclear implosion unit (a cone of explosives around the plutonium core). In the 1960s, the political opposition to the nuclear programme was so strong that it was decided that Sweden would not be an atomic power.



Arholma North, Arholma Battery

A coastal cannon battery for the protection of Stockholm

Arholma North consisted of a large coastal artillery cannon (10.5 cm), which was operated from an underground installation that had all necessary facilities for 110 people. The battery was completed in 1968 and closed down in the 1990s. The cannon had completed 269 drill shots.

After the shutdown, it was appointed as a national monument and opened to the public in 2008. A large proportion of the original furniture and military equipment are still present.

The function of the battery

Arholma North is located on the island of Arholma in the outer part of the Stockholm archipelago. Together with other cannon batteries on other islands, its task was to protect the entrance to the capital from hostile invasion, and especially access to the harbour of Kapellskär, on the fairway to Stockholm and Arlanda airport.

The cannon was operated together with another cannon on a neighbouring island, Ovanskär. Together the two cannons were called the *Arholma Battery*.

One of the cabins for overnight stays on Arholma North. The cabins were originally for the workers who built the gun battery.



Arnholma North (Arnholma Nord). Arnholma Battery

Address: Norra bryggan 9, 760 41 Arholma.

Website: www.arholmanord.se • www.batteriarholma.se

Visit and facilities: It is only possible to visit the underground military installations on guided tours, which are also available in English.

Connected to the battery area are a youth hostel with accommodation (single, double and family rooms), café, kiosk, guest kitchen and sauna. Kayaks and bicycles are available for hire. Groups can order lunch and dinner. Please contact Arholma North by email or phone to book or for any questions. There is a restaurant and a food store in the nearby village (open daily in the summer).

Email and phone: info@arholmanord.se; +46 176 560 40

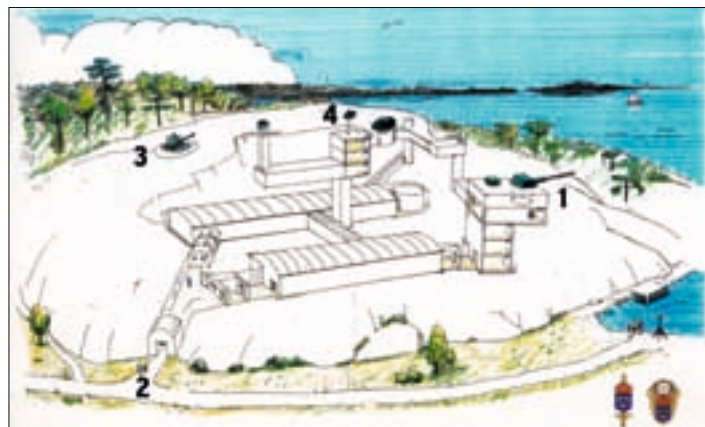
How to go there: You can get to Arholma by boat or by bus/boat from Stockholm. See the website or contact Arholma North for more information.

Arholma North is situated on the northern tip of the island, 20 minutes walk from the harbour. There are no buses or taxis. Luggage can be transported by appointment.

About the island: Arholma is one of the most well-known islands in the Stockholm archipelago. Arholma is known for its characteristic “small island” atmosphere and a society featuring traditional old wooden buildings, small fields and forests, overgrown rock areas and a rocky coast. More than half of the island is a nature reserve.

The drawing shows the underground construction in the mountain, which was necessary to serve the cannon.

1. The cannon (see also the photo on opposite page). 2. The entrance to the battery. 3. Aircraft gun defending the battery. 4. A small radar to pick up enemy units close to the battery.



The Island of Arholma, Sweden



The cannon is located in the midst of the beautiful Swedish coastal landscape, a good enough reason in itself to visit the island of Arholma.

In order to operate the cannon, there was an entire military community inside the mountain. It consisted of 110 people. They had all necessary facilities so it was possible to survive at least one month in case of chemical or biological attack.

From the central control room where all information was gathered and where targets and precise locations were determined. There were also defence forces outside the battery to combat enemies that might land on the island.



The Hemsö Fortress



An old prohibition sign. However, it would probably not have been relevant for spies from the Warsaw Pact to visit the island.

One of the officers who participated in the construction of the Hemsö Fortress was Stig Wennerström, a Soviet spy who was very highly placed in the Swedish military. It means that the Warsaw Pact may have known about the fortress in detail from the beginning. In the late 1960s another spy Stig Bergling was an officer on the fortress. He stole secret documents about Swedish military installations which he sold to the Soviet Union.

It is a unique experience to visit the fortress, not least because all the installations and effects (even the smallest) have been maintained, in contrast to the other former military installations in countries around the Baltic Sea. Many of the military installations are also in a position where they could be immediately put back into operation.

A military strategic location

The Hemsö Fortress, located on the island of Hemsö, was one of the cornerstones of the coastal defence artillery during the Cold War period. The site is of strategic importance because of the harbour at Härnösand and a navy depot in Gustavsvik.

The idea of a fortress emerged in 1883 but the first defence installations were built in 1916 (the ruins can still be seen).

The batteries, built in the 1950s and 60s consist of:

- A heavy battery on Storåberget with three cannon turrets, each with two 15.2 cm cannons.
- A light battery on Havstoudd with 7.5 cm cannon.

The objective of the batteries was to defend the coast from enemy warships. A Soviet invasion from the sea would be answered by Swedish missile flights, submarines, warships and, in addition, the coastal artillery. The maximum range of the heavy cannon was 22 km. The batteries were protected by air defence cannon and other kinds of defences in the area.

The heavy battery on Storåberget

The main part of the plant is 40 meters underground and blasted into the mountain. There are lift shafts to take shells up to the cannons on the surface. 340 men were to live here in isolation for 3 months in case of war and nuclear attack. The light battery on Havstoudd was managed by 112 men. All necessary facilities were provided, such as rooms for managing the cannon (firing control room etc.), power station, technical workshops, rooms for administration, all kind of rooms for daily staff chores, shop, hospital etc. The battery was closed down in 1989.

The Hemsö Fortress (Hemsö Fästningen)

Address: The island of Hemsö.

The Hemsö Fortress is administered by a private company, Destination Hemsö.

Website: www.hemsofastning.se

Visit: There is a ferry to the island. See sailing times on the website (twice an hour during the day). The ferry station is located approximately 20 km north of Härnösand (take the A4 road from Härnösand and turn right toward Hemsö after 10 km). From the ferry station, Sanna, on Hemsö it is 15 minutes by car to the fortress.

Opening hours and guided tours: June 22-August 16 (subject to change, see website). Daily from 11:00-17:00. Last guided tours starts at 16:00. Tours can be arranged throughout the year. The fortress has a restaurant with a view over the Baltic Sea.

Hemsö, Härnösand, Sweden



The museum cannon from the heavy battery on Storråberget with three cannon turrets, each with two 15.2 cm cannons.

Right: *From the light battery on Havstoudd with a 7.5 cm cannon.*

Bottom: *From the underground plant in Storråberget.*

The camouflaged entrance to the plant.



The Rödbergs Fort. A Part of The Boden Fortress

Sweden's northern defence flank

The *Rödbergs Fort* (The Red Mountain Fort) is one of five nearby forts with fixed artillery in the *Boden Fortress complex*. The Rödbergs Fort is the only one in the complex open to the public. The fortress represented Sweden's northernmost defence flank and is the biggest, most classified and most expensive of all Sweden's fortresses.

The construction of the fortress complex began in 1901 and it fell into disuse in 1998.

The main objective of the fortress was to defend Sweden from a northern attack from Russia and, later, the Soviet Union.

The Rödbergs Fort (Rödbergsfortet)

A tour of the underground bunker is only possible with a guide.

It is possible to stay overnight in one of the fort's dormitories, in beds dating from the 1940s (min 20 persons). It is also possible to order military "rations" from one of the fort canteens (minimum 20 persons). These special services must be booked in advance.

Address: The fort is located around 5 kilometres south-west of the centre of Boden. Follow the signs marked "Militär Historia" (Military History).

Website: www.rodbergfortet.com

Open from: June 21 – August 14.

Guided tours: The guided tours start daily from in front of the cafeteria at 11:00, 12:00, 13:00, 14:00 and 15:00. The tour lasts 90 minutes. Can be booked in advance. Guided tours can be arranged in English and booking in advance is then essential. Special guided tours can also be arranged by bus to interesting and secret sites of the whole Boden Fortress complex (including the radio bunker and a flank battery). Information and booking by telephone +46 (0) 70-266 31 62. Questions can also be answered by e-mail: rodbergfortet@rodbergfortet.com.

The Defence Museum, Boden

A visit to the Rödberg Fort can be complemented with a visit to the Defence Museum in Boden. It is a modern museum showing the history of the Swedish Armed Forces from the late 1800s to the present day. **Address:** Granatvagen 2 (old A 8 Regiment). **Website:** www.forsvarsmuseum.se

Opening hours: Wednesday-Sunday: 11:00-16:00.

Guided tours: Guided tours in English are possible. Booking required.

During the Second World War, it was prepared for an attack from the German Army, which had occupied Norway. The Boden Fortress was also the command centre for the Swedish air and land forces in the north.

The Boden Fortress

The forts of this fortress complex are located on ridges around the military strategic town of Boden on a main road from north to south and bridges over the Luleå (a river).

During the Second World War, no less than 15,000 soldiers served in the fortress, mainly operating fixed artillery.

The total fortress installations, no less than 1,200, can all be found within a radius of 25 km. The crew consisted partly of soldiers who operated the fort's fixed cannons and partly of soldiers who operated in the field on small batteries and moving cannons. Each of the large fixed cannons was operated by 500 soldiers.

The Rödbergs Fort

The Rödbergs Fort is the largest of the forts in the Boden Fortress complex and also the only remaining authentically furnished fort.

The fort was able to operate in isolation, with all necessary facilities such as rooms for managing the canon (firing control room, ammunition room etc.), power station, technical workshops, hospital, shop, rooms for administration and all kind of rooms for daily staff chores. The fort was prepared for the survival of 500 soldiers in 2 months.

From the fort there is a spectacular view of the landscape, including the surrounding hills on which the other forts are located.



Boden, Sweden



Right: The Rödberg Fort is one of five nearby forts in the Boden Fortress complex. The forts are located around the military strategic town of Boden on a main road from north to south.

Below: The huge Rödbergs Fort located on top of a mountain. The “buds” on top of the fort are cannons. One of these cannon can be seen above.



The Swedish Air Force Museum

The Swedish air-force, one of the world's strongest

Sweden probably had the third or fourth strongest air force in the world during the Cold War period. Its main task was, along with the heavy coastal artillery, to hinder a Soviet invasion by attacking the invading ships. The flights operated from more than 30 bases. In case of war there were a large number of small hangars connected to straight motorways that could be used as runways.

The extensive air force was only possible because Sweden had its own flight production (the *Saab Company*) and a strong economy for decades after the Second World War.

The Swedish Air Force museum

The museum is due to open in June 2010 following extensive rebuilding and construction work.

The new museum will house a permanent exhibition on Sweden during the Cold War period. The main attraction will be the remains of the DC-3 that was shot down by the Soviet Union over the Baltic Sea in 1952.

One of the museum's cornerstones will still be the unique collection of aircrafts from the beginning of the 20th century. All the Swedish-produced Cold War military aircraft will be present: Tunnan, Lansen, Draken, Viggen and today's Gripen – and all of them produced in Linköping, where the museum is situated.

The museum will also have a new Science Centre for children and adults with different experiment stations (Why are aircraft able to fly?). For children in particular, there will be a "flying workshop".

The DC-3 affair. A Swedish flight shot down in the Baltic Sea

In 1952, the electronic intelligence plane DC-3 79001 was on a routine mission along the border between Sweden and the Soviet Union in the Baltic Sea. Its aim was to pick up signals from Soviet radar stations in order to ascertain the extent of their air defences. It was probably also part of a secret cooperation programme with the UK and US (but not proven).

The connection to the flight was suddenly interrupted on June 13. Despite extensive searches, the first trace was found on June 15 in the form of an uninflated life raft damaged by fire. Three days later, a Swedish Catalina flight that had participated in the rescue operation was shot down by a Soviet aircraft, although the crew survived. The Soviet Union admitted this attack and stated that the aircraft had crossed the sea border, but they did not admit the shooting down of the DC-3. Sweden maintained that both aircrafts had been in Swedish territorial waters. It caused an acute diplomatic crisis between Sweden and the Soviet Union. It was not until 1991 that the Soviet Union

admitted the shooting down of the DC-3.

Information relating to this affair was "classified" by the Swedish military and government, because of neutral Sweden's possible link to UK and US and the nature of the secret mission (although Sweden was not prohibited from operating on international waters). The wreck of the DC-3 was discovered in 2003, fifty years later, by a private diving company. Only four men were found.

There are still many unanswered questions, not least of interest to the families of the dead crew, such as: Where are the four men, and their parachutes? Who were not found in the wreck? Why did the Soviet Union attack this DC-3? For this reason, and especially because of the military authorities' silence in this regard, the DC-3 affair became a national disaster and it emphasized the seriousness of Sweden's location on the frontline with the Soviet Union.

The Swedish Air Force Museum (Flygvapenmuseum)

The new exhibition will open June 12, 2010.

Address: Carl Cederströms gata 2, Linköping

Website: www.flygvapenmuseum.se

Opening hours: June-August: 11:00-17:00. Wednesday evenings until 20:00. September-May: Tuesday – Sunday 11:00– 17:00. Wednesday evenings until 20:00.

Program activities arranged every other Wednesday evening. Open on Mondays during school holidays.

Guided tours: Guided tours are conducted in English, German, French, Spanish and Portuguese. Booking required.

Top left: A DC-3 flight.

Top right: The staff. The government and the military authorities soon realized that the DC-3 had been shot down by a Soviet aircraft. Because of "classified information" many versions of the accident soon spread; for example, that all men had survived and were imprisoned in GULAG camps. Such information brought hope to the families (and because of this only one of the widows remarried after 1952). In 2002, the Swedish government apologized for the misinformation and silence. The eight men were later awarded posthumous medals of the highest possible level for their efforts on behalf of Sweden.

Bottom: After the salvage. The reconstruction of the DC-3 at the Muskö submarine base. The wreck has now been handed over to the Swedish Air Force Museum as the main attraction in the Cold War exhibition.

Linköping, Sweden



Aeroseum



It is possible to sit in the cockpit of a fighter jet.



A huge underground hangar complex

The Aeroseum is located in an underground hangar complex 22,000 square meters large and built for the Swedish Air Force unit *F9 Air Wing* in the town of S ve in the north of Gothenburg (G teborg). F9 (1940-1969) was the home fighter wing for the city and harbour of G teborg. They also provided air security for the strategically important west coast of Sweden.

An exhibition explains the Cold War period and history of the site.

The hangar complex was a top-secret military complex carved out of solid rock 30 meters underground and was able to withstand a nuclear attack.

The complex consists of two rock shelters, an old part of 8,000 square meters (from the early 1940s) and a new part of 22,000 square meters (from the early 1950s), which now houses the Aeroseum.

In the hangars there was room for a full squadron of fighter aircrafts as well as all kinds of service facilities related to amunitions, repairs, staff etc. The hangars are still fully equipped and can today still act as an air operations centre if necessary. The Swedish Air Force vacated the site in the 1990s and it was declassified in 2003.

The museum includes both civil and military aircrafts – such as the famous Swedish-produced Draken, Lansen and Viggen fighter aircrafts.

Opposite page:

Bottom: The whole underground hangar complex with existing and planned exhibitions.

Middle, left: One of the flight entrances to the bunker complex.

Aeroseum

Address: S ve Dep , Holmv gen, Gothenburg (G teborg).
Museum address: Holmv gen 100. The Aeroseum is located around 10 kilometres north of the old centre of Gothenburg.

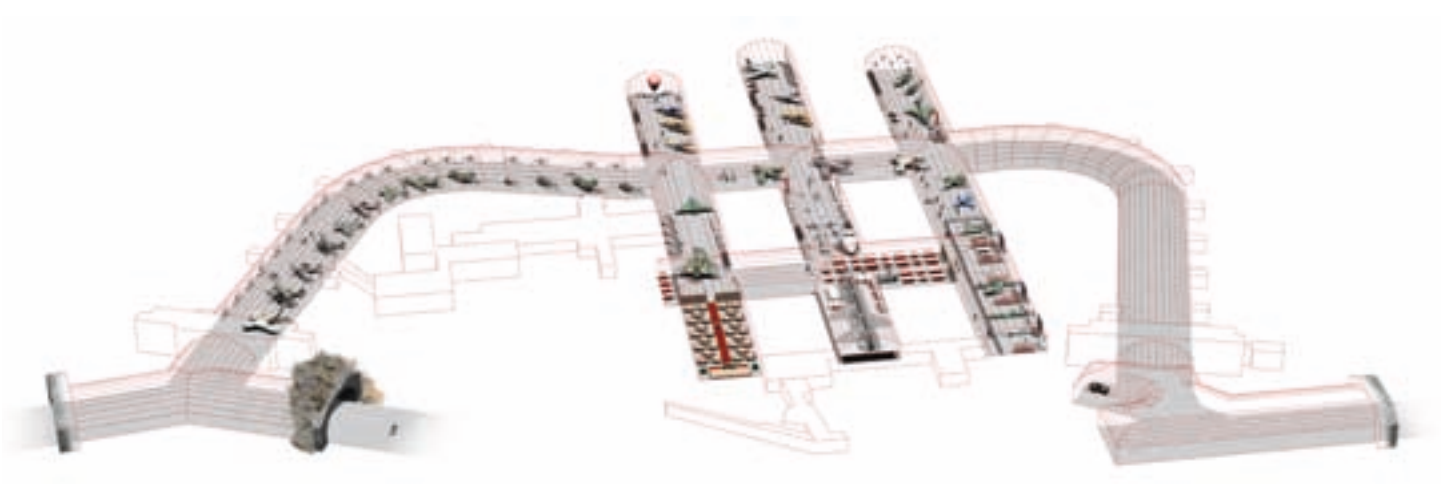
S ve Dep  is the former military site of Gothenburg City Airport. The Aeroseum is located on the east side of the civil airport (not at the civil terminal). Follow the sign down a small road prior to the military guard post at S ve Dep .

Website: www.aeroseum.se

Opening hours: 11:00-18:00 (including school holidays). *Low season:* Tuesday-Sunday: 11:00-18:00.

Guided tours: A guided tour of the underground hangar complex is possible for groups, also in English, German and Spanish. Booking required, tel. +46 (0) 31 – 55 83 00. The tour takes 2-3 hours, including a coffee break.

Gothenburg, Sweden



The Military Preparedness Museum



Battery Helsingborg consisted of four 15.2 cm cannons with a 24-kilometre range. One of them forms part of the museum. The other three have been sealed. The drawing shows how the cannon covered the northern part of Øresund and hence the entrances to Copenhagen from the north. The water was also mined in case of war and closed to submarines by means of underwater nets.

The Military Preparedness Museum (Beredskapsmuseet)

Address: Djuramossavägen, Viken. (See map on website).

Website: www.beredskapsmuseet.com. **Opening hours:** July: 10.00-18.00. June, August: 11.00-17.00. April, May, September, October: Wednesday, Tuesday, Sunday: 11.00-17.00. November-March: closed. **Holidays:** see the website.

Guided tours: Can be arranged in English the whole year round.

A photo taken immediately after the building of the bunker. "Ej godkänd i censuren" means "Disapproval of censorship".



A battery complex from the Second World War

The museum is arranged in an underground fortification, *Battery Helsingborg*. The battery was built in 1940, immediately after the German invasion of Denmark. The purpose was to protect Sweden from a German invasion and to control the northern part of the belt, Øresund. It was also intended to protect neutral Swedish airspace from foreign aircraft (both a German and a British plane were shot down by the battery).

The whole battery was built in record time, only 47 days, and in secret. The battery was staffed by 300 coastal artillerists and consists of four large cannons and connected facilities and equipment such as air defence towers, shelters, barracks, moving lights, observation sites and monitoring stations.

After the Second World War, the battery became a part of the very strong Swedish coastal defence system. The battery was closed in 1990 after 50 years of operations, following the collapse of the Soviet Union.

Southern Sweden in the Cold War period

Battery Helsingborg did not lose its strategic location after the Second World War. It was the most important part of the defence system in southern Sweden, Skåne, for two reasons:

- the Danish belts were important for the Soviet Baltic Fleet to reach the Atlantic in case of war,
- an invasion of Skåne, probably partly carried out by Soviet invasion forces from Denmark.

The battery underwent extensive changes throughout the Cold War and was equipped with modern weapons systems. The Command Centre was converted into a nuclear weapons secure centre so that it could function in isolation for 30 days.

There was generally an extensive strengthening of the coastal defence installations along the south coast of Skåne. No less than 61 coastal cannon bunkers were present in the mid-1980s. Some were the most advanced and effective in the world.

The museum

The museum consists of:

- An underground bunker with a 29 ton heavy gun. The bunker contains an exhibit on the history of the battery (it is located 100 metres from the museum centre).
- An underground command bunker with exhibits on the Second World War.
- A hall with heavy military equipment, nearly all produced in Sweden (tanks, vehicles, guns) and an exhibit on the Cold War period.
- A soldiers' barracks with authentic interior.

Helsingborg, Sweden

The cannon bunker seen without its roof. The grenade holsters are ready in the middle room. From here the holsters would be taken to the projectile room. Afterwards the holsters and projectiles would be taken to the gun pit. The two rooms in the back are for staff, the first one for personnel operating air guns to protect the bunker. (Illustrator: Jörgen Waltermark).

This slogan was coined in the Second World War by Bertil Almquist, a famous Swedish children's author, illustrator and newspaper artist. The yellow and blue colours refer to the Swedish flag. The text "En svensk tiger" can have two meanings: "A Swedish tiger" or "A Swede is quiet" (with strangers who may be spies).



Bottom: Sweden's biggest ever mobile cannon for grenades, 21 centimetres in diameter. Nine of these cannons were bought by Sweden during the Second World War from the Germans and delivered in 1944. The Germans were paid in iron and coal. The cannons were used by the Swedish military until 1980. They were to be used for firing nuclear shells. The Germans used them in the defence of Normandy on D-day and they constituted the heaviest German artillery on the coast. The cannons were produced by the SKODA factory in Pilzen, Czechoslovakia. The name of the factory at that time was Reichwerke Hermann Göring.



The Naval Museum

The Naval Museum (Marinmuseum)

Address: Stumholmen (central harbour area).

Website: www.marinmuseum.se

Opening hours: October-December: Tuesday-Sunday 11-17. January-April: Tuesday-Sunday 11-17. May: 10-16. June-August: 10-18. September: 10-16. Free entry from January-April and October-December.

Guided tours: The museum offers guided tours in the summer period, among these a guided tour around the island of Stumholmen (on which the Naval Museum is located). Boat tours with a museum ship on Wednesdays, Fridays and Sundays. Also boat tours to Kungsholm Fort in July. Special group tours can be arranged.

New exhibition. The museum has opened a new exhibition about the Cold War in the Baltic Sea in the period 1979-89. A special hall will be opened in 2012 with the submarine Neptun, a technically advanced submarine from the Cold War period that was active in connection with the grounding of the Soviet submarine the U 137 outside Karlskrona.

Aspö: The island of Aspö, south of Karlskrona, was fortified to protect the harbour entrance. Today there is a small museum for movable coastal artillery and several military constructions, also in operation during the Cold War, such as a radar station and some batteries.

The sites are managed by the Naval Museum.

See ferry schedule on: www.affv.se/Foretagskund/Battrafik

The museum ship Västervik, a torpedo boat with both torpedoes and missiles. The boat was active at the naval base until the end of the 1990s. When the Soviet submarine the U 137 ran aground, the Russian commander was interrogated on board the Västervik. See photo on the opposite page.



Karlskrona. Sweden's main naval base for decades

The town of *Karlskrona* was founded in 1680 as the south-eastern base of the fleet because of its central location in the Baltic and favourable ice conditions. It played a central role at the end of the 17th century when Sweden managed to acquire territory in northern Germany, Finland, Estonia and Latvia.

A barrier of islands around the city offered the fleet protection. Both island and mainland were also protected by fortifications.

Karlskrona was not a “self-grown” but a “planned” city, with an interesting town plan and highly valuable architecture, mostly connected to the naval activities. It became a famous European centre for shipbuilding, architecture, town planning and defence technology. In the 18th century, the *Karlskrona Naval Shipyard* was Sweden's largest place of employment. The town is on UNESCO's list of irreplaceable *World Heritage Sites*.

The Swedish Navy's main base is still situated in Karlskrona. The activities are carried out in ten locations.

The town was closed to foreigners during the Cold War period.

The Naval Museum is located in the historic harbour area

The museum is located in a new building in the harbour area on the island of *Stumholmen*, with its extraordinary historical and valuable naval environment. All navy activities here were phased out at the beginning of the 1990s.

The Naval Museum tells the naval history from 17th century until now. Interesting parts of the museum exhibition are: *an extensive model collection of ships and old galleon figures, an underwater tunnel* (a genuine wreck can be seen if the water is clear) *the Dunders Deck* (a boat deck and experimentation area for children) and a *ship simulator*.

The most relevant part of the exhibition in terms of the Cold War period is some of the museum's boats and the submarine exhibition showing Sweden's 100-year submarine history, from the first submarine *The Shark*, which could operate some hours underwater, to the highly technical *Gotland submarines*, which can spend weeks at sea. Sweden is a leading nation in the development of submarines (as well as weapons and military aircraft).

Several of the museum's ships were operating during the Cold War period, among these the torpedo boat *Västervik* (see photo), the mine sweeper *Bremön* and a coastguard ship.

Karlskrona, Sweden



The Soviet U137 submarine ran aground near Karlskrona in 1981 on a spy mission.

The vessel was not only inside Swedish territorial waters but also inside the military restricted waters around Karlskrona and only 30 kilometres from the town centre. The grounding was a world sensation and provoked a serious crisis between Sweden and the Soviet Union, not least because the submarine was armed with nuclear warheads on its torpedoes. The Soviet Union did not admit that the grounding had taken place but the Swedish military was able to measure the nuclear radiation from a spy boat near the submarine. The grounding could have ended in disaster. The Soviet Union gave the order to blow

up the submarine if the Swedish military tried to board it. A heavily armed Soviet destroyer was also not allowed to enter the waters. After ten days, and following difficult and protracted negotiations, the Swedish government decided to release the vessel and the crew. The submarine was towed out by the Swedes.

During the Cold War period, there were nearly 20 submarine hunts or incidents involving foreign submarines in Swedish territorial waters but not one was so closely observed by the international media as the grounding of the U 137.

The Soviet Commander Gusjin (third from left) and the Political Commissar on board Besedin (second from left) on their way to an interrogation together with the leading Swedish interrogator, Commander Karl Andersson (fourth from left). Gusjin was only 35 years of age and Besedin 30. The Soviet Union was highly disturbed by the publication of this photo showing military personnel.

The Naval Museum. To the left can be seen the mine sweeper Bremön, one of the museum's ships.



List of Photographers



Albinas Kentra, Lithuania, is one of many who immortalized events in the former Soviet States during the countries' transition to independence.

There is little photographic or film material from the Communist period prior to these events due to the Communist censorship, for example, of demonstrations, national protests, hearings and prisons.

Visual material from the GULAG camps is extremely limited, despite the fact that millions of people died in the camps. There are very few photos of dead prisoners.

This lack of photos and films is probably one of the main reasons why the mass extermination of people in the GULAGs is still so relatively unknown, and generally not considered as a crime on a par with the crimes in the German concentration

camps. Harrowing evidence is available with regard to these latter, in the form of photos and films, not least of dead prisoners, many taken by the Allies when they liberated the camps.

The extent of the crimes in the GULAG camps are not fully understood in comparison with many other crimes against humanity. The historian Norman Davis mentions the following names of GULAG camps: Solowezki, Belomorkanal, Waigatsch and Kolyma. He stress that these names are unknown to most people in the world but more people were killed in these GULAG camps than the total number of deaths in the two World Wars in Ypres, Somme, Verdun, Auschwitz, Majdanek, Dachau and Buchenwald. (*Battlefields of the First World War and Concentration Camps of the Second World War*).

Druskininkai Museum of Resistance and Deportations, Lithuania: Front page, middle right. 124. 125 middle and bottom. 126. 127.

The Museum of Genocide Victims, Vilnius, Lithuania: Front page, bottom right. Inside the cover at the front, bottom. 10. 109 top. 109 bottom left and right. 110. 119 top right. 119 bottom right. 120 top, middle and bottom. 121 top, middle and bottom. 216.

The Museum of the Barricades of 1991, Riga, Latvia: Inside the cover at the front, top. 93.

Fridthor Eydal, Iceland: 1 middle right. 74 bottom right. 75 bottom left and right. 76.

The Ministry of Interior and Health, Denmark: 3.

Wikipedia: 8. 9. 77 top. 176 bottom. 177. 192 bottom left. 195 top.

Anna B. Bohdziewicz/ REPORTER Agencja Fotograficzna, Poland: 11 left.

Ulstein Bild, Germany: 11 right. 49. 53 top. 57 bottom. 58 bottom right. 61 bottom left.

Danish Forest and Nature Agency, Regional Office Storstroem: 12 middle.

The Historical Collection of the Air Force, Denmark: 12 bottom.

Colonel Kuklinski Intelligence Museum, Warsaw, Poland: 13. 158. 159.

The Cold War Museum Langelandsfort, Denmark: 14. 15 bottom left and right.

Morten Kjærgaard, Denmark: 15 top. 16 bottom. 17 top right. 113 bottom left. 213 bottom. 214.

Cold War Museum Stevnstfort, Denmark: 17 bottom.

Tulle Kelam, Estonia: 19, 21 bottom.

The Estonian Film Archives: 20 top left. 32 bottom.

Estonian Open Air Museum, Tallinn: 20 top right. 21 top left and right.

Heidi Tooming, Estonia: 24 middle.

The Museum of Occupation and of the Fight for Freedom, Tallinn, Estonia: 27 bottom. 32 top.

Martin Esbensen, Denmark: 27 top. 31 bottom right.

The Estonian War Museum, Viimsi/Tallinn, Estonia: 28.

KGB Cells Museum, Tartu, Estonia: 31 top left.

The Estonian State Archive, Tallinn: 33.

Forest Brothers Farm, Vastse-Roosa Village, Estonia: 35 top left and right.

Kristjan Luts, Estonia: 38 middle.

A.L.A.R.A. AS., Paldiski, Estonia: 39.

Degerby Igor Museum, Finland: 44 middle and bottom.

Christoph Links Verlag, Germany: 64 bottom. 65 bottom left and right.

IRS/ Scientific Collections, (documentation Stalinallee), Germany: 51 top.

Landesarchiv Berlin, Germany: 54 top.

The Marienfelde Refugee Centre Memorial, Berlin, Germany: 56. 57 top right.

AlliiertenMuseum/Junge, Berlin, Germany: 59 top right.

The Stasi Museum, Berlin, Germany: 60. 61 top middle and right. 59 bottom right. Back page bottom right.

Arne Erik Larsen, Denmark: 64. 65 top and middle. 140 top. 141 bottom.

The Berlin-Hohenschönhausen Memorial, Germany: 61 top.

The Border House in Schlagsdorf, Germany: 67.

Prora-Museum, Rügen, Germany: 67 top right.

Franz Zadniecek, Germany: 67 bottom left.

Documentation Centre for Victims of the German Dictatorship, Schwerin, Germany: 69.

The Peenemünde Historical Technical Information Center, Germany: 74 middle. 75 top.

Photo Deutsches Museum, Germany: 75 bottom.

Jon Baldvin Hannibalsson, Iceland: 77 bottom.

The Museum of Occupation, Riga, Latvia: 75 top. 79. 80. 81. 82 bottom right. 87 top and middle. 89 top right and bottom. 91. 103. Back page middle.

Ilgvars Gradovskis, Latvia: 83.

Latvija Sodien, Latvia: 85 bottom.

Helena Selmina, Latvia: 87 bottom right.

The State Archives of Latvia, Riga: 89 top left and top middle.

The Museum of The Popular Front of Latvia, Riga: 94. 95.

Andris Biedrins, Latvia: 100 top. 104 middle and bottom. 105.

Ventspils International Radio Astronomy Center, VIRAC, Latvia: 104 top.

The museum in the TV Tower, Vilnius, Lithuania: 115 bottom right.

Albinas Kentra, Lithuania: Front page top right. 116. 117.

Birute Anulyte, Lithuania: 112 bottom. 113 top and bottom right.

The archive of The Museum of the Custom, Vilnius, Lithuania: 122 bottom. 123 bottom.

“Lapteviečiai” brotherhood, Lithuania: 131.

The Museum of War, Kaunas, Lithuania: 132.

Daiva Puplesyte: 134 bottom left. 135 bottom left.

Plokstine Missile Base, Zementija National Park, Lithuania: 135 bottom right.

National Fortification Heritage, Oslo, Norway: 137 middle and bottom.

The National Norwegian Aviation Museum, Bodø, Norway: 138. 139. 194.

Oscarsborg Fortress, Oslo Fjord, Norway: 141 top.

Gunnar Furre, Norway: 142 bottom right.

Bjørn Terjesen, Norway (from the book “Kystartilleriets undervannsforsvar 100 år”): 142 bottom left. 143 bottom.

Roberta Luciani Havran, Norway: 143 top.

Einar Veimoen: 145 top.

www.kystfort.com: 145 bottom.

KARTA Center Foundation, Warsaw, Poland: 147 middle and bottom. 151 right. 153 bottom.

Instytut Pamięci Narodowej (www.en.pilecki.ipn.gov.pl), Warsaw, Poland: 148, 149 top, middle, bottom right..

Lukasz Szelemej (www.szelemej.pl), Poland: 149 bottom left.

Witold Krassowski, Poland: 152.

Erazm Ciolek, Poland: 153 top. 156. 157 top right and bottom.

Museum of X Pavillion in the Warsaw Citadel, Poland: 155.

Borne Sulinowo Municipality, Poland: 160. 161 top left, top right and middle.

The human right organisation MEMORIAL, Moscow, Russia and MEMORIAL, Germany: 73 top. 163. 167. 175 top. 176 top. 178. 179. 180. 181.

B. Pasternak, private collection: 175, middle.

Museum “Perm-36”, Perm, Russia: 164.

Thomasz Kizny: 165.

The Anna Akhmatova Museum at the Fountain House, St. Petersburg, Russia: Inside the cover at the front, middle. 169.

A. Makarov. The Military-Historical Museum of Artillery, Engineer and Signal Corps, St. Petersburg, Russia: 172.

The Military-Historical Museum of Artillery, Engineer and Signal Corps, St. Petersburg, Russia: 173.

State Gulag Museum, Moscow, Russia: 183 bottom.

Sakharov Archives and Exhibition, Moscow, Russia: 184. 185.

Bengt Gustafsson, Sweden: 199.

B. Eklund, Forsvarsmakten, Fortifikationsverket, Sweden: 202 bottom right.

Björn Grankvist, Sweden: 204. 205 bottom.

Fästningsguiden i Norr, Sweden: 206. 207 top left and bottom.

The Swedish Air Force Museum, Linköping, Sweden: 209.

Daniel Karlsson/Aeroseum: 210. 211.

Krigsarkivet, Sweeden: 212 bottom.

Jörgen Waltermarck, Sweden: 213 top.

Bertil Almquist, Sweden: 213 middle.

The Naval Museum, Karlskrona, Sweden: 215 bottom left

Åke Håkansson/Aftonbladet, Sweden: 215 top.

Andi Loor/Aftonbladet, Sweden: 215 bottom right.

Johannes Bach Rasmussen, Denmark: Front page top left, middle left , bottom left. 1 top left and right. 1 middle left. 1 bottom left and right. 2. 4. 16 top. 17 top left. 22. 23. 24 top left and right, bottom left and right. 25. 26. 29. 30. 31 top right, bottom left. 34. 35 middle and bottom. 36. 37. 38 top and bottom. 41. 42. 43. 44 top. 45. 47. 50. 51 bottom left and right. 52. 53 bottom left and right. 54 middle, bottom. 55. 57 top left. 58 left. 59 top left. 61 top left. 62. 63 middle and bottom. 66. 68. 69 top left. 70. 72. 73 bottom. 74 bottom. 82 top and bottom left. 84. 85 top left and right. 86. 87 bottom left. 88. 89 middle. 92. 97. 98. 99. 100 bottom. 101. 102. 109 middle. 111. 112 top. 114. 115 top, middle and bottom left. 118. 119 top left and middle. 119 bottom left and middle. 122 top and middle. 123 top. 119 bottom left. 120 top. 120 middle. 114 top. 123 top. 125 top. 128. 129. 130. 133. 134 bottom right. 135 top and middle left. 140 bottom. 147 top. 150. 151 left. 154. 157 top left. 161 bottom. 166. 167 bottom. 170 and 171. 174. 175 bottom. 182. 183 top. 186. 187. 188. 189. 190. 191. 192 bottom right. 193. 195 bottom. 200. 201. 202 bottom left. 203. 205 top and middle. 219. 220. Inside the cover, back. Back page top Back page bottom left.

The Baltic Initiative and Network

THE COUNTRIES AROUND THE BALTIC SEA
BETTER INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING
INFORMATION ABOUT THE COLD WAR PERIOD
TOLD FROM SITES WHERE EVENTS TOOK PLACE

The Baltic Initiative and Network

This book is a result of a co-operation between the *Øhavsmuseet* (Archipelago Museum), *Department Langelands Museum*, Denmark, and the *Baltic Initiative and Network*.

The idea behind the Initiative is to strengthen mutual understanding between the countries of the Baltic Sea by exchanging information on their recent history, particularly the Cold War period.

The idea is that the history should be told through and from the historically valuable sites at which historical events took place.

Such sites and connected museums are described in this book.

Contact for the Initiative: Mr. Johannes Bach Rasmussen, Møllegade 20, 2200 Copenhagen N, Denmark. E-mail: jbach@get2net.dk.

Chairman of the Initiative Group: Mr. Ole Loevig Simonsen, Denmark.

Collection of prison doors. The Museum of Occupation and of the Fight for Freedom, Tallinn, Estonia.



PROTECTION OF HISTORICALLY VALUABLE INSTALLATIONS AND SITES FROM THE COLD WAR PERIOD

DENMARK

BEVARING AF HISTORISK VÆRDIFULDE ANLÆG OG LOKALITETER FRA PERIODEN MED DEN KOLDE KRIG

ESTONIA

KÜLMA SÕJA AEGSETE AJALOOLISE VÄÄRTUSEGA RAJATISTE JA PAIKADE KAITSE

FINLAND

KYLMÄN SODAN AIKAISTEN HISTORIAALLISESTI ARVOKKAIDEN RAKENTEIDEN JA KOHTEIDEN SUOJELU

GERMANY

DER SCHUTZ HISTORISCH BEDEUTSAMER ANLAGEN UND GEDENKSTÄTTEN AUS DER ZEITPERIODE DES KALTEN KRIEGES

ICELAND

VARÐVEISLA MANNVIRKJA OG SÖGUSTAÐA ÚR KALDASTRÍÐINU

LATVIA

VĒSTURISKI NOZĪMĪGU AUKSTĀ KARA INSTALĀCIJU (OBJEKTU) UN VIETU AIZSARDŽĪBA

LITHUANIA

ŠALTOJO KARO PERIODO ISTORIŠKAI VERTINGŲ ĮRENGINIŲ IR VIETŲ IŠSAUGOJIMAS

NORWAY

BEVARING AV HISTORISK VERDIFULLE ANLEGG OG OMRÅDER FRA DEN KALDE KRIGENS TID

POLAND

OCHRONA WARTOŚCIOWYCH POD WZGLĘDEM HISTORYCZNYM INSTALACJI, MIEJSC ORAZ OBSZARÓW Z OKRESU ZIMNEJ WOJNY

RUSSIA

ОХРАНА ИСТОРИЧЕСКИ ЗНАЧИМЫХ СООРУЖЕНИЙ И ОБЪЕКТОВ ЭПОХИ ХОЛОДНОЙ ВОЙНЫ

SWEDEN

BEVARANDET AV HISTORISKT VÄRDEFULLA LÄMNINGAR FRÅN KALLA KRIGETS EPOK

The Historical Sites. Traces from many Historical Periods

The Historical Sites. Traces from many Historical Periods

Many of the historical sites described in this book have *traces and relics from periods other than the Cold War*.

The military sites in particular have continuous histories, with building components and installations that date far back. The reason is that military sites have often had the same military strategic importance for hundreds of years.

Other kinds of sites also have interesting histories that go further back, for example the two sites described on these pages: *Berlin Tempelhof Airport* and *Friderichstrasse S-train station* in Berlin. Their histories are particularly connected with the inter-war period and the Second World War.

Berlin Tempelhof Airport is located in the centre of Berlin and was built at the beginning of the 1920s. It was closed in 2008 due to its location in the middle of a residential area with no room for expansion. The airport was reconstructed in 1934 and was intended to be the main airport for the capital of the Nazi Third Reich. The main building from this period can be seen in the background to the photo. The airport was called the “mother of all airports” because of its functionality and it was the first airport with an underground railway (now Platz der Luftbrücke).

The airport is today mainly known for the so-called Berlin

Airlift, 1948-1949, when West Berlin was blockaded by the Soviet authorities.

The memorial on the photo commemorates the victims of the Airlift, when British and American aircraft brought supplies to the 2 million residents of West Berlin by means of more than 200,000 operations from Tempelhof Airport. The three “spears” on the top of the memorial symbolize the three air corridors used by the aircraft. 78 people died in the operations, including 41 Britons, 31 Americans and 6 Germans.





The Palace of Tears. Berlin Friederichstrasse Railway Station is located in the centre of the capital. It was built in 1878. An underground line was finished in 1923 and an S-train station was opened before the Summer Olympics in 1936.

The complex was heavily damaged in the battle of Berlin in the last days of the Second World War. The SS military forces flooded the underground system on the day of capitulation by exploding

a connection to a nearby channel.

During the Cold War period it was a former central border station between East and West Berlin. The so-called Palace of Tears (Tränenpalatz) is the only remaining building of a larger complex. It was the waiting room for those waiting for an exit permit from East Berlin and it was here that they had to take leave of their relatives.

Sculpture in front of the station in memory of the Jewish children. After the so-called "Crystal Night", an anti-Jewish pogrom in Nazi Germany in 1938, thousands of Jewish children started at or passed through Friederichstrasse Station, leaving Germany as part of the Refugee Children's Movement.

A memorial plaque on the station building. "Just before the end of Hitler's criminal war, two young German soldiers were hanged here by inhuman SS bandits".





norden

Nordic Council of Ministers
Ved Stranden 18
1061 Copenhagen K

This travel guide describes selected important historical relics, sites and museums in the Baltic Sea region telling the history of the Cold War period. There is public access to nearly all the sites included in the book.

It covers places such as missile bases, large artillery batteries, secret police prisons, closed military towns, partisan bunkers, execution and burial sites, nuclear bunker complexes, secret printing houses, former Soviet sculptures and architecture along with many of the sites where important events took place, such as demonstrations, freedom struggles etc.

The museums described recount the histories of the Berlin Wall, the military build-up in both East and West, the military crises, the terror of Stalin and the Communist secret police, the armed and unarmed resistance in former Soviet countries and its satellite states, the deportations of slave labourers to remote parts of the Soviet Union, the deportations to the GULAG camps and the struggles for freedom from Communist regimes in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, East Germany and Russia.

Top left: Vilnius. Memorial in front of the Radio and Television Committee building, in memory of the victims of the January events in 1991 killed by Soviet military and security forces.

Top right: Forest Brothers' Farm, Vastse-Roosa Village, Estonia. Reconstructed partisan bunkers. The owner of the site, Meelis Mottus, is the son of a partisan or Forest Brother. Authentic partisan food is served to visitors.

Middle: Museum of the Occupation of Latvia 1940-91, Riga. A violin made by the deportee, Voldemars Sprogis, out of soup bones and thin pieces of board. Early 1950s.

Bottom left: Borne Sulinowo, Poland, a former closed military town. Soviet paintings on a wall in a ruined part of the town where Soviet military staff lived.

Bottom right: The Stasi Museum. Research site and memorial Normannenstrasse. Berlin, Germany. A spy camera is hidden in a nest box.