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A HISTORY OF THE ITALIAN AND GERMAN PRISONER
OF WAR CAMPS IN UTAH AND IDAHO DURING
WORLD WAR II

by

Ralph A. Busco

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree

of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

History

Approved:

Major Professor

Head of Department

Dean of Graduate Studies

Utah State University
Logan, Utah

1967

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ABSTRACT

A History of the Italian and German Prisoner
of War Camps in Utah and Idaho During
World War II

by

Ralph A. Busco, Master of Science

Utah State University, 1967

Major Professor: Dr. Douglas D. Alder
Department: History

The United States offered an ^{ideal} ideal situation for prisoner of war camps during World War II. The remoteness of the states of Utah and Idaho offered also an ideal situation to intern prisoners.

The United States established 141 base camps and 313 branch camps. Out of this number, Utah and Idaho represented a total number of nine base and twenty-one branch camps. Utah and Idaho had under their supervision approximately 11,660 or 3.6% of the prisoners in the base camps.

The Utah and Idaho camps were under supervision of the United States War Department. Their basic source for the administration came from the written provisions within the International Red Cross Geneva Convention of 1929.

It was discovered that a few former Italian and German prisoners of war have returned to live in Utah and Idaho. Also many other individuals that were connected with the camps have added their personal contributions.

(115 pages)

CHAPTER I

A HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF PRISONER OF WAR CAMPS

A soldier becomes a prisoner of war when he has fallen into the hands of the captor. All soldiers, or whatever species of arms, can be made a prisoner either fighting or wounded, on the field or in the hospital, or by individual surrender or capitulation. Prisoners of war can also be those attached to an enemy for its efficiency and promotion, all captured disabled men or officers on the field or elsewhere, and all enemies who have thrown away arms asking for quarter.¹

History has subsequently brought various repetitions of warfare. War most always will bring soldiers into captivity. Primitive warfare had a decisive effect upon the recognition toward the status of a prisoner of war. The defeated enemy has usually promptly been destroyed on the battlefield. Foreigners were real potential foes not considered as equals and not entitled to rights.

Egyptians and Assyrians displayed their prisoners conspicuously. The purpose being to help demonstrate the glory of the conquerors and

¹Wilbur W. White, White's Political Dictionary (Cleveland and New York: World Publishing Co., 1947), p. 226, and "Prisoners of War," Encyclopedia Britannica, 1960, Vol. XVIII.

serve as warnings to belligerent neighbors. Systematic torture was practiced at the feet of the conqueror or the executioner.¹ The Old Testament has also sanctioned the destruction of subjugated tribes² plus the massacre of male members.³

Records report that prisoners in China were sacrificed at the altar in 532 B. C., but evidently not all suffered this fate. Some of the soldiers were at least admonished not to inflict a second wound or take a gray-haired prisoner.⁴

The Greeks urged that the highest human dignity be offered to all members of their own race, but they recognized no such obligations toward barbarians. However, for those enemies who surrendered on the battlefield, the opportunity for ransom was sometimes granted.⁵

Prisoner treatment was less harsh among the Romans than among the Greeks. Only those who had borne weapons against Rome were reduced to captivity. The Greeks, forced to limited imperial expansion, attempted to assert supremacy by mutually slaughtering their prisoners.⁶ The Romans

¹William E. S. Flory, Prisoners of War: A Study in the Development of International Law, (American Council on Public Affairs: Washington, D. C., 1942), p. 10.

²I Samuel 15:3 and Deuteronomy 20:16-8.

³Deuteronomy 20:13-4.

⁴Herrelee Clessner Creel, The Birth of China, (New York: Frederick Mngar Publishing Co., 1937), p. 207.

⁵Flory, op. cit., p. 11.

⁶Coleman Phillipson, The International Law and Custom of Ancient Greece and Rome, (London, 1911), p. 25-36.

at various times used their prisoners for festive purposes, but the Greeks did not. Prisoners were killed when their slaughter would terrify the enemy and glorify the conquerors or when they became an encumbrance. Economic self-interest of the captors probably produced an improvement in the position of the prisoners. This occurred when the practice of enslavement began to take precedence over other methods of treatment. In later years the Roman law began to favor the slave and forbade his being killed without reason. Rome and Greece, therefore, presented the prisoner with a dilemma. It was then difficult to say which was less humane, immediate slaughter on the battlefield or lifetime enslavement.¹

In Rome, between 200 and 150 B.C. it has been estimated that some 250,000 prisoners of war were brought to Italy as slaves. Slaves, procured cheaply, were preferred over hired free labor, partially because they were not liable to be drafted for military service and could be exploited ruthlessly without fear of consequences. Cato's² directions for handling slaves showed that they were treated like cattle. He callously recommended that they be turned out to starve when they were no longer fit for profitable work. The slaves often worked in irons and at night were housed in underground prisons.³

¹Ibid., p. 13.

²About 150 B.C., Cato, the Censor, wrote his book On Agriculture, a practical manual for the owner of a large estate. See William E. S. Flory, Prisoners of War: A Study in the Development of International Law (American Council on Public Affairs: Washington, D.C., 1942), p. 10-12.

³Arthur E. R. Boak, A History of Rome to 565 A.D. (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1955), p. 155.

Christian doctrines of equality and brotherhood encouraged many individuals to treat the slave not as a beast of burden, but as a member of the family. Ransoming also incurred a forward step to enslavement. Tendencies then developed toward considering war captives as prisoners of the state rather than of the individual who took them. Thus, at the time of the Roman conquests of Julius Caesar, a captive could under certain circumstances become a freedman within the Roman Empire.

Christianity of the Middle Ages was interpreted to condone greater severity in warfare against infidels. Treatment afforded captives and members of defeated nations or tribes changed along with warfare. Late into the 17th century in Europe, enslavement of enemy soldiers declined during the Middle Ages. Ransoming, however, was still widely practiced. King Richard the Lion Hearted, during the crusades, was a notable example of ransoming. There also was a continued development of mercenary soldiers who tended to create a better atmosphere for a prisoner. It was known that perhaps in a future battle he might become captured.

Political philosophers in the 16th and early 17th centuries expressed their thoughts about the laws of war. Grotius, one of the most famous, stated in his De jure belli et pacis ("Law of War and Peace: 1625") that victors had the right to enslave their enemies but he advocated exchange and ransom instead.¹

¹E. C. Trimble, "Prisoners of War," Encyclopedia of Social Sciences, ed. Edwin R. A. Seligman XI-XII (1957), 419-421.

Perhaps the first systematic writer on international law was a man known as Victoria (1500's). He advocated two cardinal principles for evaluating the legality of warlike acts. He considered further infliction upon the prisoner after obtaining the final victory was unnecessary. Secondly, he felt that it was illegal to harm innocent people not participating in the hostilities except when necessary. Victoria pointed out that the enemy could be pursued and slain to prevent them from returning to battle, but the children, aged, women and non-combatants should be spared. Victoria said that the slaughter of captives was no longer warranted since it was not necessary to attain victory. A proper procedure would be to hold them for ransom.¹

By the Treaty of Westphalia (1648) prisoners of war were released at the close of the war without ransom. This treaty has been generally taken as marking the end of the era for wide spread enslavement of prisoners without payment of ransom. Modern rules relative to the treatment of prisoners generally started appearing approximately a hundred years after the signing of the treaty.

A new attitude of morality in the law of nations or international law had a profound effect upon the 18th century. Montesquieu, the French political philosopher, wrote in his famous *L'Esprit des Loix* ("Spirit of Laws," 1748), that the only right in war that the captor had for a prisoner was to prevent him from doing harm. The captive, instead of being treated like a piece of disposal property for the will of the victor,

¹Flory, op. cit., p. 14.

became merely removed from the scene of battle. Jean Jacques Rousseau and Emma de Vattel have written on the same theme. They have developed what may be called the quarantine theory for the disposition of prisoners. It suggests that war was a relation of state to state, not a relation of man to man. Individuals became enemies only as soldiers through accident. The aim of war becomes the destruction of the enemy state. Therefore, the right to kill soldiers exists as long as they are armed. They become ordinary men as soon as they surrender and are no longer instruments of the enemy. It has been generally felt that these writings more or less reinforced already developing attitudes. This continuing trend toward improved methods can be evidenced in the more recent camps.¹

The American Revolution afforded no strict observance toward any set of rules for the treatment of prisoners. The British most generally applied customary harsh punishments. Their action was in direct relation to treatment given individuals during domestic disturbances.² The American armies took steps to avoid continued mistreatment of British captives. At one stage of the conflict George Washington wrote to Lt. Gen. Thomas Gage on August 11, 1775, stating: "My duty now makes it necessary to apprise you, that for future I shall regulate my conduct toward those gentlemen, who are or may be in our possession, exactly by the rule you shall observe towards those of ours, now in your custody."³

¹Ibid., 15-16.

²Ibid., p. 17.

³Lt. Col. George G. Lewis and Capt. John Mewha, History of Prisoner of War Utilization by the United States Army, 1776-1945, (Department of the Army Pamphlet, 1955), p. 1-2.

A basic principle was illustrated by this warning. It has influenced prisoner of war practice throughout history. A belligerent nation has a tendency to treat either good or bad prisoners in much the same manner as his own men are treated by the enemy.¹

The United States negotiated a treaty of friendship with Prussia (1785) shortly after the end of the Revolution. It became a first for the United States in systematic regulations dealing with prisoners by nations not at war with each other.²

It has been assumed during the War of 1812 that prisoners were satisfactorily treated. Any contrary evidence is extremely meager.

In 1842, Daniel Webster, U. S. Secretary of State, wrote the following letter:

Prisoners of war are to be considered as unfortunate and not as criminals, and are to be treated accordingly, although the question of detention or liberation is one affecting the interest of the captor alone, and therefore one with which no other government ought to interfere in any way; yet the right to detain by no means implies the right to dispose of the prisoners at the pleasure of the captor. That right involves certain duties, among them of providing the prisoners with the necessities of life and abstaining from the infliction of any punishment upon them which they may not have merited by an offense against the laws of the country since they were taken.³

During the Mexican War there appeared to be mutual satisfaction regarding treatment and exchange of prisoners. In 1847, the Commander-in-Chief of the American naval forces wrote to the Mexican Minister of

¹Trimble, loc. cit.

²Flory, loc. cit.

³Flory, op. cit., p. 18.

Foreign Relations. The letter concerned the "kind and liberal treatment" granted American prisoners in Mexico, "which has been fully reciprocated by us towards those Mexicans who have fallen into our own hands."¹

The Crimean War generally appears to have been in line with established treatment. One major advance was established at Constantinople. It provided for an organization to facilitate the transmission of mail between Russian prisoners.

By the middle of the 19th century, a definite body of principles for treatment was more generally recognized in the civilized world. In 1863, Francis Lieber became the first to summarize regulations respecting prisoners in his U. S. Army publication, so-called Lieber Code.²

Dr. W. B. Hesselstine has pointed out, concerning prisoners in the Civil War (1861-1865), "that each side displayed mismanagement, congestion, and unfitness in officer personnel, and that in the North as well as in the South one finds disease, filth, depression, disorder, vermin, poor food, lack of elementary sanitation and as a result, intolerable misery and death on an appalling scale."³ It was evident that the bitter struggle between North and South hampered exchange of prisoners. A

¹Lewis and Mewha, op. cit., p. 25-26.

²Flory, loc. cit.

³W. B. Hesselstine, Civil War Prisons: A Study in War Psychology, (Ohio: Ohio El. Press, 1930), p. 137.

successful system of exchange would have greatly reduced the number of prisoners held.¹

The South became embarrassed in its attempts to care for the hordes of captives at a time when its own transportation and supply system was breaking down. Frightful conditions existed at Andersonville, Belle Isle, and Salisbury. An example of Andersonville is stated as being:

The Andersonville prison, until the soldiers built huts for themselves, was but a stockaded enclosure of sixteen and a half acres in southwestern Georgia. Mosquito-infested tents; myriads of maggots; pollution and filth due to lack of sanitation; soldiers dying by thousands; men desperately attempting to tunnel their way to freedom; prison mates turning on their fellows whom they suspected of treachery or theft; un-baked rations; inadequate hospital facilities; escaping men hunted down by bloodhounds--such are the details that come down to us from incontrovertible sources.²

Observance of principles in the Civil War and in the Franco-Prussian War (1870) left much to be desired toward gains made in improving wounded soldiers and prisoners.³

An unsuccessful prisoner of war conference was held in 1874 at Brussels, Belgium. In 1899 and 1907 at the Hague, Netherlands, an

¹Official reports as analyzed by J. F. Rhodes states that the Confederates captured 211,000 Federal soldiers. Some 16,000 were released on the field, while the Federals captured the enormous number of 462,000, of whom 247,000 were paroled on the field. Subtracting those paroled on the field, the Confederates took nearly 195,000 Unionists and the Unionists about 215,000 Confederates. See J. G. Randall and D. Donald, The Civil War and Reconstruction, (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1961), p. 336.

²J. G. Randall and David Donald, The Civil War and Reconstruction, (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1961), p. 336.

³Lassa Oppenheim, International Law, (London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1940), p. 553.

international conference drew up rules of conduct which had gained recognition in international law.¹

Prisoners of war were numbered in the millions during World War I. There were many charges on both sides that the rules were not being faithfully observed.² This situation prompted the nations of the world to gather at Geneva, Switzerland. They formulated a detailed code of some 97 articles which governed the fate of millions of prisoners during the Second World War. It was ratified by France, Germany, Great Britain, the United States and many other nations. Unfortunately ratification was refused by Japan and the Soviet Union.³

World War II

World War II presented millions of persons the possibility of becoming a prisoner of war under widely varying circumstances. They experienced treatment ranging from excellent to barbaric.

Germany (Nazi) Prison Camps

Nazi Germany presented an unparalleled situation during World War II. Adolf Hitler and the Nazi state had deliberately begun and systematically

¹Lewis and Mewha, op. cit., p. 47-48.

²Herbert C. Fooks, Prisoners of War (Federalburg, Md.: Stowell Printing Co., 1924), p. 123-136.

³U. S., Statutes at Large, XXXVII, Part 2, 2021-2101.

carried out a vast program of biological warfare against civilians and prisoners of war.¹

Prisoners of war were used in armament factories and in any possible way to help foster German fighting at the front. Although it was a flagrant violation of the Hague and Geneva Conventions, it constituted the least of worries for the millions of soldiers captured by the Third Reich.²

The main concern for the prisoners was survival. However, the odds were greatly against the Russians. There were some five and three-quarter million Soviet war prisoners. Inmates of the POW camps were liberated by the Allied troops in 1945. There were scarcely a million found alive.

Approximately a million had been released or allowed to serve in the collaborator units set up by the German Army during the war. Starvation, exposure and disease brought death to two million Russian prisoners of war. At Nuremberg a good case was organized that the remaining million had died from the above cases or been exterminated by the S. D. (S. S. Security Service). Partial German records also show 67,000 were executed.³

¹Allan Bullock, Hitler: A Study in Tyranny, (New York: Bontom Books, Inc., 1961), p. 632.

²William L. Shirer, The Rise and Fall of the Third Reich: A History of Nazi Germany, (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1960), p. 951.

³Alexander Dallin, German Rule in Russia, 1941-1945: A Study of Occupation Policies, (New York: St. Martins, 1957), p. 426-27.

Alfred Rosenberg wrote General Wilhelm Keitel¹ concerning the fate of the Soviet prisoners of war:

A large part of them have starved or died because of the hazards of the weather. This could have been avoided. There was food enough in Russia to provide them.

However, in the majority of cases the camp commanders have forbidden food to be put at the disposal of the prisoners; they have rather let them starve to death. Even on the march to the camps, the civilian population was not allowed to give the prisoners food. In many cases when the prisoners could no longer keep up on the march because of hunger and exhaustion, they were shot before the eyes of the horrified civilian population and the corpses were left. In numerous camps no shelter for the prisoners was provided at all. They lay under the open sky during rain or snow

Finally, the shooting of prisoners of war must be mentioned. These . . . ignore all political understanding. For instance, in various camps all the "Asiatics" were shot²

A comparatively milder treatment was given to Western prisoners of war. This was especially true of the American and British men. Treatment depended mainly upon cruelty of individual commanders in the form of instant murder. For example, seventy-one American prisoners of war were slaughtered in cold blood. This occurred during the Battle of the Bulge near Malmedy, Belgium, on December 17, 1944.

Occasionally Hitler also ordered the murder of Western prisoners. This was the fate of fifty British flyers who in the spring of 1944 were caught escaping from a camp at Sagan. These orders for the immediate killing of airmen increased as the Anglo-American bombing increased over Germany.³

¹A. Rosenberg was classified as a "philosopher" under Hitler's Third Reich and W. Keital was a Field Marshall.

²Shirer, op. cit., p. 952-53.

³Ibid, p. 954.

One of their foremost camps was located at the top of a wooded hill three miles southeast of Bad Orb called Stalag 9-B Wegscheide. Some 6,500 Allied soldiers were reported to be starving to death. Another horrifying camp was known to the Germans as 326 at Eselheide, some eleven miles southeast of Bielefeld. It housed 9,500 Russians who had survived for months on nine ounces of bread a day and soup faintly reminiscent of vegetables.¹

Thus, the Nazi prison camps are something that the human race would like to forget but perhaps never will.

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (Russian) Camps

The basic treatment of Soviet prisoners of war evolved from Marxist-Leninist concepts of war and revolutionary war. The U.S.S.R. has represented a working class where the bulk of enlisted men in the enemy's army ought to be considered brothers of Soviet people. This was because they, too, would have a working class background. Their only need would be liberation from the capitalist bosses.

Time, location, and circumstances under which capture took place was a significant part in determining the individual prisoner's vulnerability to indoctrination camps. For instance, the year of capture--later or earlier--for Germany's chance of victory, affected the prisoners' thinking.

¹U. S. Congressional Record, 79th Cong., 1st Sess., 1945, XCI, Part 3, 3328-3329.

The first twenty-four hours in a prisoner's life were mentally the most taxing. Nazi propaganda¹ was given to their soldiers emphasizing that Soviets would not take prisoners.

The Soviets were actually not prepared for the hordes of men captured. At the Battle of Stalingrad it was estimated that from 80,000 to 100,000 prisoners were taken. By the end of 1944, an additional 400,000 to 500,000 men fell into Soviet hands.²

In addition to three or four million German prisoners, smaller groups of Romanians, Austrians, Hungarians, Italians and Finns were in Soviet captivity.

Similar incidents occurred when the Soviet armies drove through Manchuria in August, 1945. This drive resulted in the capture and transfer to Siberia of an estimated 900,000 Japanese prisoners.³

Marches to collecting centers or transit camps became an especially critical phase in the prisoner's capacity to survive. Rail transports from the collecting centers to permanent camps afforded a similarly high mortality

¹The reason for such Nazi propaganda was to encourage their soldiers to fight harder for their lives and to escape capture. The Japanese were very successful in this endeavor by telling their soldiers that it would be a disgrace to their country for them to be captured by the enemy.

²Wilfred O. Reiners, Soviet Indoctrination of German War Prisoners, 1941-1956, Center for International Studies Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Cambridge: By the author, 1959, 1959), p. 6-13.

³David Dallin and Boris Nicolaevsky, Forced Labor in Soviet Russia, (New Haven: Yale U. Press, 1947), p. 278-79.

rate to the prisoners (in November, 1941, 1,500 PW's out of a total of 3,500 died on a transport from Jawas to Karagonda).¹

Prisoners tried to live in absurd conditions. The captured were forced to live in dilapidated buildings surrounded by barbed-wire fences and sentry boxes. Camps were also located in forests which forced the men to sleep on the ground with the use of only one blanket. In addition, there was no soap, towels, or medicaments. Although food was insufficient, there was no starvation as soup was served in meager portions.²

As a result of these conditions, frequent epidemics caused the death of many prisoners. Of a total of 700 prisoners in Jawas, 400 perished from December, 1941 to June, 1942, whereas out of 3,000 prisoners in a camp in the Urals, 2,500 died from typhus between May, 1942, and fall of 1943. A large majority died from over-exposure of the Russian subzero weather. For example, out of the 93,000 prisoners taken at Stalingrad, the almost unbelievable number of only 6,000 survived to return to Germany after the war.

The majority of the permanent camps during this early period were located in the Ural Mountains and Southern Siberia. This was done in order to discourage the escape of prisoners and to ease the Red Army's supply problems. Officers were usually separated from the men and sent to Krasnogorsk, Cordi-Cranki, and Jelabuga.³

¹Reiners, op. cit., p. 14.

²Dallin and Nicolaevsky, loc. cit.

³Reiners, op. cit., p. 44-45.

Therefore, the Soviets handled prisoners during a sixteen year period from 1941-1956. In order to bolster the Soviet war effort, manual labor became the chief purpose for which prisoners were used from 1941-45. Actually from a legal standpoint, there were no limitations upon the compulsory employment of the prisoners of war. This was because Russia¹ did not belong to the Geneva Convention of 1929.²

Political activities were located in labor camps with the purpose of (a) promoting maximum labor output; and (b) selecting suitable personnel for more advanced political indoctrination. Soviet-sponsored political activities aided the latter process by use of interrogations, autobiographies, and informer services.³

The methods by which the Communists extort false confessions are by no means new methods. The various devices of coercive interrogation have been known for centuries. These principles are based primarily on simple, easy ideas of an individual's physical and moral strength.⁴

Schools were organized according to nationality sectors such as German, Austrian, Italian, Hungarian and Rumanian.

¹Russia and Japan were the only major nations that did not join the International Red Cross Convention, 1929, governing PW's.

²Dallin and Nicolaevsky, loc. cit.

³Reiners, op. cit., p. 40, 44.

⁴U. S. Congress, Senate, Committee on Governmental Operations, Hearings, Communist Interrogation, Indoctrination and Exploitation of American Military and Civilian Prisoners, 84th Cong., 2nd Sess., 1956, p. 202.

The German prisoners exemplified the best Soviet schools because of their large numbers. However, all the different camp nationalities were basically the same.

Maximum political indoctrination was reserved for the officers' and recreation camps, as well as the A-schools (Anti-Fascist Schools). It served a host of political and propaganda schools. The NKFD (National Komite Freies Deutschland--National Committee Free Germany) and the BDO (Bund Deutscher Offiziere--League of German Officers) were short-term instruments of wartime propaganda and political expediency for the Russians. "Conversion" of its members to communism was not originally contemplated as an end in itself. It occurred by a process of osmosis. The Soviets exploited the Germans by using anti-Nazi sentiment, utilized the symbol of German nationalism, de-emphasized communism and permitted a maximum of free expression in order to win initial support for the two organizations.

As the short-term goals of the BDO and the NKFD either were attained or became obsolete, both organizations became ideal breeding grounds and screens for further political indoctrination. The A-schools were attended by many of the BDO and NKFD members. The height of activities of the NKFD/BDO occurred in the years 1943-44. In 1945 both organizations were officially dissolved.

The purpose of training a communist elite was accorded to the A-schools. Their students were selected from among promising collaborators from all the prison camps. The techniques employed were advanced lectures in Marxist-Leninist doctrine, group discussions, self-criticism, autobiographical critiques and a rigid discipline. Graduates would return to

prison camp as "activists," or be attached to Red Army units as "propagandists" in war time. For example, the German prisoners were intended to be placed into key positions in East Germany after the war. At the height of the "Free Germany" movement between 35 percent and 45 percent of the officers and approximately 75 percent of the enlisted men identified themselves with either the NKFD or the BDO. The year 1944 marked the greatest increase following the collapse of the central front and the assassination attempt upon Hitler. However, these percentages are not very meaningful in view of the different levels of collaboration expected by the mass entry into the NKFD in labor camps.¹

Approximately 50 percent of the Lunovo camp were graduates of the A-schools composed of 50-55 members. About 40 members attained prominent positions in East Germany after their repatriation. About 90 percent of all A-school graduates from Krasinogorsk repatriated to East Germany and were there in responsible positions. Of those A-school graduates repatriated to West Germany, including agents, one out of every five or six is believed to have remained an active Communist. The others either quickly withdrew from politics or broke with Communism after a struggle.²

¹Reiners, op. cit., p. 45.

²The striking percentage of successful indoctrination, if indeed it reflects ideological change rather than mere behavioral compliance, must be attributed both to the initial selection procedures and to the teaching methods of the A-schools. Of course, the A-school graduate also anticipated immediate rewards for his allegiance to Communism and often found himself in a position of being committed to a course of action from which he could not retreat. See Wilfred O. Reiners, Soviet Indoctrination of German War Prisoners, 1941-1956. Center for International Studies, Mass. Institute of Technology (Cambridge: By the author), p. 66.

Soviet prisoner indoctrination camps were similar to the Nazi's concentration camps in their destruction to life. However, throughout Russia they were organized mainly for the purpose of forced labor during World War II. Many prisoners were retained after the war to continue the labor program. However, the prime objective then became indoctrination of the prisoners to the Communist system. The Communists believed that upon the prisoner's return home the treatment would remain effective in the purpose of establishing a better Communistic system.

Japanese Imperial Army Prison Camps

Inevitably the Japanese had also captured a large number of allied prisoners of war during World War II. Approximately one-third of these were American. Periods of captivity could have ranged from three and one-half years to a few days. Prisoners lived under conditions of severe hardship. They were starved, filthy and lacked adequate clothing. Periodically, torture was also practiced. Like most captors, Greeks, Germans, Russians, etc., the Japanese were wholly unprepared to manage a large body of prisoners of war.¹

Historically, the most know Japanese mistreatment came when approximately 11,000 Americans surrendered at Bataan Islands, Philippines, on April 9, 1942. The large majority were required to make the "death march" from Mariveles to Camp O'Donnell, a distance of about 100 miles. Most of the journey was made on foot but part of the way they were carried in baggage cars. Ranging from five to twelve days to make the trip,

¹Brig. Gen. Hugh J. Morgan, Col. Irving S. Wright, and Lieut. Col. Arie Van Raven Swaay, "Health of Repatriated Prisoners of War from the Far East," Journal of American Medical Association, CXXX (April, 1946), 995.

approximately one-fifth of the group died along the wayside. Many of the stragglers were shot or bayoneted by the guards. Rice was issued from time to time in small quantities, but many of the men received nothing to eat throughout the entire period of the march. Water was available in artesian wells as well as in many contaminated streams and puddles. Medical care consisted of only what the American prisoners were able to provide for themselves. It was during the first six weeks at O'Donnell that 1492 Americans died. The prisoners taken at the fall of Corregidor were brought into Manila Harbor on a ship and made to walk ashore before the citizens of Manila to Bilibid Prison. Bilibid had been an old condemned Philippine penal institution.

Fifty-six American nurses were among those taken prisoner on Corregidor. They were later moved to Santo Tomas University. They were given inadequate quantities of rice with occasional bits of fish plus dried meat and greens.¹

The death rate in the main prisoner camp at Cabanatuan, P. I., was between 40 to 60 per day in a population of 6,000-9,000 or roughly one percent per day during the months of June, July, and August of 1942.²

This defeat of the American Filipino forces and the fall of Bataan and Corregidor brought a change in Japanese policy. Transportation, because the Philippines were nearer to the home islands, brought about this

¹Major Steward Wolf and Lt. Col. Herbert S. Ripley, "Reactions Among Allied Prisoners of War Subjected to Three Years of Imprisonment and Torture by the Japanese," American Journal of Psychiatry, CIV, (Sept. 1947), 182-83.

²J. E. Nordini, "Survival Factors in American Prisoners of War of the Japanese," American Journal of Psychiatry, CIX, (October, 1952), 242.

transference. Emphasis was transferred from auxiliary military operations to labor designed to get as much material (copper, chromite, manganese) as possible produced and shipped to Japan.¹

Hunger, however, reduced men with previously accepted levels of behavior and self-respect to incompatible attitudes and actions. Men quibbled over portions of food and were suspicious of men in more favored positions than themselves. Prisoners also took advantage of less clever or enterprising fellow prisoners, stole, and rummaged in garbage. The prisoners' personality became distorted by increased irritability, unfriendliness, and sullen withdrawal.² Hunger often affected a man's thinking to anything beyond the next bowl of rice. A haunting fear was added to this hunger that the supply of food might be reduced or stopped at any time.

Disease was very abundant. Plaguing nearly all and killing thousands were fever, chills, malaise, pain, anorexia, abdominal cramps from recurrent malaria and dysentery. Adequate treatment was rare. Physical work was often required of men suffering with physical illness. Beriberi, xerophthalmia, diphtheria, flu, typhoid fever, along with tuberculosis and pneumonia caused continued sickness and death. Also, most men experienced bouts of apathy or depression ranging from slight to prolonged deep depressions. This resulted in a loss of interest in living and lack of

¹Bruno Lasker, Human Bondage In Southeast Asia, (North Carolina: U. of North Carolina Press, 1950), 316.

²P. H. Newman "The Prisoner of War Mentality: Its Effect After Repatriation," British Medical Journal, I (January, 1944), 8.

willingness or ability to marshal the powers of will necessary to combat disease.

Living conditions were uniformly miserable. Clothing, bedding, and housing were insufficient and contributed much misery. Camps were dark, dismal and dreary with a lack of soap and warm water. Body lice and fleas were well fed under these conditions. Sick, tired and weak men performed hard physical work on farms, factories, ship yards, docks, coal and copper mines.

One of the most distressing psychological features tormenting the men further was a highly indefinite period of incarceration. The future was visioned to the prisoners as continued hunger, cold, disease, forced labor, and continued subservience in the face of shouting, slappings, and beatings. There was no escape from the continuing daily contacts with irritating, incompatible fellow prisoners. All men experienced a strong yearning for freedom of movement from oppression resulting in a smothering hemmed-in feeling. The sight of sickness and death of friends increased the burden of many. Infrequency of news from home further aggravated the sense of isolation and abandonment.¹

The deprivation of sex was not a major or serious problem to most men under the circumstances. The sex drive was minimal and nonexistent when the men were experiencing anxiety, depression, disease or hunger. Sexual interest was reflected by an increased incidence of nocturnal

¹Nardini, op. cit., p. 243-5.

emissions by masturbation and homosexual practices. This only occurred when the food supply or living conditions were better accelerated.¹

There were many direct physical and moral abuses from the Japanese. At some time during their imprisonment at least 90 percent of the men received some direct physical punishment. Low-ranking soldiers or ex-soldier prison guards meted out most of the punishment. A large factor contributing to the prisoners treatment was a white race hatred by the Oriental Japanese. Much punishment occurred also because of the sadistic behavior in the Japanese personality. Punishment came in the forms of standing at attention, silent and motionless for hours or being slapped at with stocks, straps, wooden slabs or any convenient wieldable object. Clothing, food, mail and Red Cross packages were often intentionally seized, destroyed, or kept from the men. Men were marched long distances through the city streets of Japan to work, tattered, torn and weak. Physical exercise in the form of calisthenics was demanded of all men before, during, and at the end of the day's hard work. Executions, camp jails and solitary confinement were practiced. At various stages of the war, prisoners were subjected to Allied bombings, torpedoeing, and shelling from shore installations while being concealed in unmarked installations and ships.²

¹Newman, op. cit., p. 9.

²Nardini, loc. cit.

Approximately 12,000 or 40 percent of the 30,000 men of the Army, Navy and Marine Corps survived the period of imprisonment.¹ The people who survived this ordeal possessed individual qualities. The will to live in a prison was of primary importance. It was important to look forward and backward and retain an active identification with one's home country-men instead of with the miserable prisoner group. Chances of a survival diminished when the will to live was weak in the beginning or defenses were poor. The individual who merged with the prison environment fared badly. A persistent recollection toward remembrance that one was an American, a father, a soldier, an officer, etc., became an acceptable ego-supporting defense concept. The will to live in everyday ordinary circumstances seemed to be sustained by the existence of a favorable balance of everyday satisfaction with the past, present, and some reasonable hope for the future. Undue emphasis by the men had to be placed on the past and future to overlook, repress and ignore the present.²

¹Those who gave up earliest and easiest were the younger men, viz., in the 18-22 years span, who lacked the maturity, philosophic concepts, fortitude, independence and the buffering effect of at least several years of military experience which they needed to withstand the initial shock.

The next most vulnerable group was in the 45 to 55 year span and then 33-45, 55 plus, and 23-33 in order, with the 23-33 year span having the most favorable status for survival. It might be noted that many of these men who survived made a gradual transition from the very different category of soldier to professional prisoner of war. See J. E. Nardini, "Survival Factors in American Prisoners of War," American Journal of Psychiatry, CIX (October, 1952), 246.

²Nardini, op. cit., p. 246.

Again some of the prisoners lived for the opportunity of tasting the pleasure of life such as--a cool beer, hot dogs, a steak dinner, home cooking, a new car, a clean bed with a mattress, the hometown, the mountains, or just plain freedom.

Cleverness, adroitness of thinking, dealing with people and general cunning were often great contributing factors to survival. Pure intelligence unrelated to interpersonal dealings and long-range prediction was of less advantage. A good retained sense of humor was also important to a prisoners chance of survival. A willingness to keep busy but not over-work to use up energy were highly desirable. Courage was essential but not to be applied in direct fighting back or escape. These were mostly out of the realm of possibility and only brought further travail and tragedy.

Another way used to help tolerate the misery of confinement was a disguised way of striking back at their captors. Some examples of these measures included surreptitious acquiring of news, bribing of Japanese guards, utilizing knowledge of the natural Japanese schizoid-paranoid temperment by playing one against the other, smuggling news, letters, food, Japanese dictionaries and medicines, and in some instances successful contamination of the captor's food.¹

The survivors of this prolonged miserable circumstance of living under Japanese rule can be called an experience unique in the history of the American people.

¹Nardini, op. cit., p. 247-8.

United States of America Camps

The United States, December 7, 1941, took its first prisoner of war in World War II. He was a Japanese sailor manning the baby submarine caught at Pearl Harbor. Thereafter, he was in the United States, but was far from being alone.¹ There were 425,806 prisoners of war held in the continental limits of the U. S.--371,505 Germans, 50,571 Italians, 5,413 Japanese.² They were located in every state in the Union³ at 141 base camps and 313 branch camps.⁴

Prisoners of war in 1941 and 1942 were only considered as a security problem.⁵ They were a necessary result of warfare and were a drain on the manpower of the Army. The Army had to furnish guards and administer overhead to run the camps. They were locked up tightly in barbed-wire enclosures, had posted guards around the fences, and were fed and

¹This was an address of Maj. Gen. Archer L. Lerch, the Provost Marshal General to the Forum of the Cooperative Committee, Feb. 28, 1945. It was submitted into the Congressional Record by Andrew J. May, Representative of Kentucky.

²U. S. Congressional Record, 79th Cong., 1st Sess., 1945, XCI, Part 10, A1021-A1023.

³Lewis and Mewha, op. cit., p. 91.

⁴There were 32,000 PW's on military and civilian work projects which terminated June 15, 1946. All of these prisoners, removed from the United States, were returned to the theaters in which they were captured, for rehabilitation, except the 175,000 British-captured prisoners, who were returned to the British. All were repatriated by June 30, 1946. Of the 425,806 PW's interned in the U. S. camps, 791 Germans, 131 Italians, and 38 Japanese died. See Congressional Record, 80th Cong., 1st Sess., 1947, XCIII, Part 1, 805.

⁵Congressional Record, loc. cit. According to U. S. Official Documents as of March 1, 1945, the U. S. had shot 56 prisoners who attempted to escape--36 died and 21 were wounded. The army guards had been taught to shoot to kill, if necessary, to prevent escape.

housed. Nothing was achieved in return for their trouble except for the insignificant labor which they did within the enclosure. They were nothing more than an economic and administrative burden.

However, as the war progressed, thousands of new prisoners began to look like an untouched pool of available manpower. They were present in America at a time when manpower was a desperately needed commodity. In the latter part of 1942 and early 1943, the work program began to get underway. It was modestly confined to work on army posts. The prisoners were put to work for post engineers, building and repairing roads, plus doing carpentry and various forms of maintenance labor. They worked in laundries and as stock clerks for the post quartermaster. The motor pools worked them in greasing, washing, repairing, and servicing nontactical vehicles.

The manpower problem was becoming more acute in 1943. However, prisoners were still increasing because of German reverses in Africa. From June 1943, through January, 1944, thousands of former members of the Africa Corps were transported to this country. The Army inaugurated the so-called contract labor program to help overcome this labor shortage.

Farmers and contractors of the nation were told that they could use prisoner of war labor under two conditions: (1) Prisoner of war labor could not compete with free labor; (2) Under no circumstances could one employer use prisoners at a lower wage than he would have to pay civilians.

Safeguards were set up to insure that the two policies were carried out. It was mandatory, to insure that prisoners did not compete with

free labor, that every prospective employer first obtain certification from the local office of the War Manpower Commission. The office would make verification to the fact that there was no free civilian labor in the community to do the type of job that he needed accomplished. The same local representative would certify the prevailing wage for that type of labor. Prisoners were then furnished to the prospective employer when available.

The prisoners received only 80 cents a day for their labor of the hourly wage paid by the contractors. The contractor's check was deposited directly into the treasury of the United States. It was surprising how the labor program developed into a \$100,000,000 a year business for the government in 1944. Over \$22,000,000 was paid the government by private contractors after deducting contract allowances for transportation, housing, and subsistence. A profit was made to the government because the employer was required to pay the same rate per unit of work completed that would have been paid free civilian labor.

The War Department realized an estimated savings of over \$80,000,000 from the prisoners who did work on army posts, camps, and stations throughout the country. Prisoners, working for the army, performed a total of 19,567,719 man-days of work. This work ranged from such highly skilled work as watch repair to common maintenance labor.¹

During 1944, the total man-days worked for private contractors was 10,181,275. The bulk of the work was in agriculture, which accounted for 5,705,909 man-days.

¹Congressional Record, loc. cit.

Prisoners worked for the nation's farms from one border to the other. If a prisoner refused to work, he was automatically put on a "bread and water" diet. Generally it would only take one or two days of hunger before he would once again return to work. The prisoners replaced the farm labor that had gone to war or had migrated to industrial towns attracted by higher paid war jobs. Prisoners, in the South, picked cotton, cut sugar cane, harvested peanuts and tobacco and cut pulpwood. In the West they gathered the sugar beets and grains. Prisoners in the North and East sections canned fruit and vegetables while harvesting many other farm crops.¹

The War Department also set up large scale, re-education programs for the prisoners. They employed newspapers, magazines, radio, movies, and study courses. General Bryan, assistant provost marshall general, made the following statement:

Ever since we received the first prisoners in the U. S., we have been impressing on their minds the attitude of the U. S. toward life and government. At first the effort was made in connection with the work program. During the past year a more formal program has been added. We have made and are making available to the prisoner the truth which he has not been able to learn at home. He is not being propagandized. We are taking men meandering in a morass of myths and conducting a well-calculated, thorough and pointed program of exposition.²

It was true that the re-education programs were set up wherever possible. However, the United States failed in respects of teaching the

¹Idem.

²"Army Re-educates U. S. Held Nazis," The Salt Lake Tribune, June 26, 1945.

prisoner the English language. One of the best medias of overcoming propaganda is being able to read the language of the involved country. There were far too many prisoners that returned to their home without being schooled.

The United States' policy toward its prisoners of war was seriously aimed at fulfilling the Geneva Convention (1929) and to a large degree was successful. It was the governing treaty for prisoners of war during World War II. The convention was ratified and proclaimed in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution of the United States.¹ It then became the solemn duty of the War Department to carry out the provisions of the law.²

Italy capitulated, September 8, 1943, and soon afterward declared war on the German Reich. The Allied Governments accorded Italy the status of a cobelligerent because of its position. The surrender of Italy permitted the employment of its prisoners of war on work directly connected with military operations.

The Provost Marshall General worked to formulate a plan of operations. It was decided that all Fascist prisoners of war would be segregated and confined as military prisoners by the Italian Government. The remainder would be organized as Italian service units to be attached to and placed under the command of the U. S. Army. Therefore, the plan included these features:

¹It was signed by the several powers on July 27, 1939. It was ratified by the Senate of the U. S. on January 7, 1932, and signed by the President on January 16, 1932.

²The provisions of the law are displayed in Chapter two contained therein the Geneva Conventions of 1929.

(1) Italian prisoners would be organized into numbered Italian service companies consisting of five officers and 177 enlisted men.

(2) Pending release of the Italian Government the units would work under parole.

(3) Approximately twenty companies would be activated progressively.

(4) An Italian service unit headquarters would be established under ASF and would be commanded by an American officer.

(5) Initially, the units would be employed to further the United States war effort. Work on military installations received first priority.¹

The I.S.U. workers received \$24 a month. One-third of this was in cash and the other in script to be used in canteens.² Food and housing were also given to these men in addition to the regular pay check. In many places they worked a 58-hour schedule to supplement American civilian labor. This was where an acute shortage had threatened operations essential to the war effort.

In view of their co-belligerent status, the stigma of wearing "PW" stamped clothing was removed. They were issued United States uniforms with an "Italy" insignia on the left shoulder. They were allowed to go about their work without armed guards, but still remained under supervision. They were permitted to make visits to post exchanges, theaters, chapels on the post, and occasional group recreational trips off military reservations. The War Department also permitted them to be visited by friends and relatives.

¹Lewis and Mewha, op. cit., p. 93-94.

²Canteens contained gum, candy, beer, cigarettes, etc.

The I. S. U. were still prisoners of war. They were given concessions because of Italy's status and because the men helped shorten the war.¹

While in the United States, 960 of the 435,788 prisoners of war interned in the United States Camps died. This is broken down as follows: Germans, 791; Italians, 131; Japanese, 38. The above amount represents approximately one-tenth of one percent deaths per year of internment.² This is a remarkable record in comparison to the death rate in other World War II camps.

In managing over a third of a million enemy soldiers, the United States was successful in striving to promote their ideals toward American democracy and in obtaining the maximum return from their labor.³

The Korean War

The United States was the largest contributor of armed forces on the side of the United Nations when the Korean War broke out in 1950. Communist China and North Korea were the oppositional forces with both sides formally signifying adherence to the Geneva Convention of 1949.

The Communists captured about 7,190 Americans and 229 Turks in this war, while the United Nations Forces captured about 120,000 Chinese and North Koreans.

The average overall ordeal for the U. N. Forces may be divided into two basic phases: the earlier period of marked physical deprivation and

¹Congressional Record, loc. cit.

²U. S. Congressional Record, 80th Cong., 1st Sess., 1947, XCI, Part I, 1947.

³Honorable House Representative Robert Sikes (D-Florida), and Honorable Samuel Dickstein (D-New York), opposed the U.S.'s pampering prisoners of war. They accused the War Department of soft treatment, lax administration and lack of effort to curb the Naziism which flourished in the camps. They also criticized the way the U. S. failed to re-educate the prisoners. See Congressional Record, 79th Cong., 1st Sess., 1945, XCI, Part 1, 980 and 79th Cong., 1st Sess., XCI, Part 3, 3328-3329.

abuse, mostly at the hands of the North Koreans; and later exposure to the emotional stress of the Chinese communist indoctrination program.

The men captured by the North Koreans were held in captivity for as long as sixteen months. They underwent experiences strikingly similar to those American prisoners of the Japanese during World War II. These included long, forced "death" marches, exposure to freezing weather without adequate clothing or shelter, submarginal diet, vicious beatings for minor or alleged transgressions and the witnessing of the spectacle of fellow prisoners shot in cold blood. All suffered from malnutrition and dysentery with extensive absence of medical care.

The Chinese Communist Forces, by October, 1951, had taken custody of all United Nation prisoners of war. The Chinese employed many different methods of emotionally isolating the individual prisoner. They removed his leadership by transferring all officers and higher-ranking noncommissioned officers to separate camps. They discouraged close personal bonds by offering material rewards for "informing" on one another. They attempted to undermine previous emotional identification by an extensive program of lectures and discussions. Family, religion, military units and country were some of these identifications making available new ideals and potential gratifications to replace the old.

Largely for their propaganda value program, they extracted "petitions, confessions, self-criticisms," and pro-communist articles and recordings. They were also used in acquiring and maintaining an increasing emotional and intellectual hold on their captives.¹

¹Robert J. Lifton, "Home By Ship: Reaction Patterns of American Prisoners of War Repatriated From North Korea," American Journal of Psychiatry, 110 (April, 1954), 733-739.

Political conditioning was carried out by lectures and group discussions. They were at first compulsory but later set up in the form of "special study groups" for the "advanced students." Throughout their program intensive pressures were applied to those who seemed initially most susceptible. A system of rewards and punishments for "cooperation" or resistance and skillful manipulative methods to control group reactions was employed.

The men exposed to this complex of pressures experienced a formidable challenge to their emotional integration. They were confronted with an inscrutable new authority. It was sometimes harsh and threatening and sometimes overtly friendly being almost kind. However, it was never fully trustworthy and constantly demanding acts and attitudes contrary to previously held loyalties and ethical concepts. Most of the prisoners learned to "play it cool" while in the camps. This meant being inconspicuous, cautious, holding back strong feelings, not getting "on the wrong side" of the Chinese, "cooperating" a little where necessary. They attempted to avoid major collaboration by establishing some point beyond which they would not go in their "cooperation" with the enemy. There were some who were unable to successfully set these limits. Their anxiety, when attempting to defy authority, would usually separate them from "playing it cool" to more active collaboration.

The term "brainwashing" was later applied to these coercive methods and indoctrination techniques employed by the Communists.¹

¹Edgar H. Schein, "The Chinese Indoctrination Program for Prisoners of War: A Study of Attempted Brainwashing," Psychiatry, XIX, (May, 1956), 149-172.

Detailed provisions for repatriation of the prisoners was included in the Korean War Truce agreement in 1953. The prisoners were given an opportunity to choose to return to their homeland, to remain with their captors or to go to some other country. The Neutral Nations Repatriation Commission supervised sessions which representatives of the prisoners own nation were permitted to talk with him and possibly persuade him to return home. After the final accounting was made, over 21,000 communist troops chose not to return home and 21 American soldiers remained.¹

Out of the 7,190 Americans captured in Korea about 4,428 men survived. It is very interesting to observe that there were 229 prisoners from the country of Turkey. They were subjected to exactly the same conditions in the Chinese camps as the Americans. After the war, 229 Turks returned from their camps. They survived because of the great love for each other among the Turks, their Moslem attitude, being struck by a great deal of self-sacrifice and humanity, and their hard headed practicality.²

The United States was deeply concerned over its low survival rate and ordered an investigation. The brainwashing was found to have little lasting effect upon the prisoners. Authorities, however, brought fourteen servicemen to trial by court-martial, for their acts of misconduct while in the prison camp.³

¹Trimble, loc. cit.

²William E. Meyer, "Communist Indoctrination: It's Significance to America," a tape-recorded speech given at Utah State University, 1960.

³Trimble, loc. cit.

The Viet Nam War

The United States, early in 1965 found itself once again fighting a war in Southeast Asia, in the country of Viet Nam.

America has no organized prison camps. The South Viet Nameese forces operate all the prison camps which have been open to Red Cross inspection since December, 1965.¹

Arthur Sylvester, Assistant to the Secretary of Defense, has reported that: "Most of the captives who do not qualify for prisoner of war status enter the Chieu Hoi Program and are usually released in a few months. Prisoners of war, including North Viet Nameese Army regulars, are detained in prisoner of war camps."²

During the course of the war, America has been turning over captured Viet Cong and North Viet Nameese to the South Viet Nameese forces. The disgraceful feature is that they have tortured and killed hundreds of these men. Throwing the prisoners from aircrafts and drowning them has been their purpose for eliciting desired information.³

Concerning the Viet Cong camps, it was reported that two U. S. Marines escaped from their captors. Sgt. James S. Dodson and Cpt. Walter W. Eckes told of their capture and escape near the northern city of Da Nang,

¹Kenneth Crawford, "Prisoners of War," Newsweek (August 15, 1966), 32.

²Letter from Senator Frank Church, (D-Idaho), to Ralph A. Busco, Washington, D. C., July 19, 1966.

³"Instructive episode; confusion over the threatened trial of the American Flyers held by the North Viet Nameese," Nation (August 8, 1966), 108.

Viet Nam. They told of being held captive a month and a half during which they were led barefooted at rope's end through villages and along jungle paths. Each day for several weeks, the two Marines had to listen to a half-hour English language broadcast from the Hanoi radio. Propaganda material was sometimes given them to read. However, they emphasized that in no way were they mistreated or forced to divulge information. In many villages controlled by the Viet Cong, people gave them food to eat.

They seized an opportunity to disarm the Viet Cong guards when they were careless about their captured American-made carbines. Finally, after four days of eluding pursuers, they walked into a small South Viet Nameese village.¹

Hanoi, North Viet Nam, has declined inspections of prison conditions by the Red Cross. There has been the threat that captured American pilots would be put on trial as war criminals. Hanoi makes this justifiable by asserting that the fliers are guilty of unprovoked attacks which would nullify the Geneva Convention rules.²

However, as of late Ho Chi Minh has administered a different program. He has placed the pilots in a special PSY war weapons system. The Pilot system is to deter further escalation of the air attacks on North Viet Nam. It is designed to keep Haiphong harbor open, protect Haiphong city, and preserve the dike and irrigation installations upon which North

¹The New York Times (June 27, 1966), 7.

²Kenneth Crawford, "Prisoners of War," Newsweek (August 15, 1966), 32.

Viet Nam's food supply depends. It was also designed to discourage any United States thought of using nuclear weapons. In essence, Ho said not to escalate the war any more or he would kill the U. S. pilots.¹

Thus, prisoner of war camps have evolved throughout history from primitive to modern times. They have somewhat advanced simultaneously along with civilizations in structure and treatment.

Prisoners of war most always come from one of the most brutal happenings in history--that of warfare. The problem has been that belligerent and detaining powers alike have most generally been wholly unprepared for the numerous men captured.

The modern trend in prisoner of war camps has recently been some type of propaganda program. This has been used in some form or another by all the nations having captives. It seemed futile to try not to convince the prisoners that the detaining power's way of life was the most successful.

As previously mentioned, the nations involved have generally achieved insufficient results. These conditions have generally been contrary to the established set of rules drawn up by the International Committee of the Red Cross.

The threat of war is always present in our never ending advanced society. Inevitably, prisoner of war camps will once again be established.

¹"Hanoi's Special Weapons System," National Review (August 9, 1966), 765.

CHAPTER II

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE GOVERNMENT FOR PRISONERS OF WAR

The International Red Cross provides the government for the prisoner of war. It is a national and international agency. It was established with the original purpose of protecting and caring for the sick and wounded of war. The organization extended its activities as it matured. This extension included the prevention and alleviation of human suffering in peacetime as well as in War.

The Red Cross idea originated on a battlefield in northern Italy. Henri Durant, a young Swiss, came upon the scene on the bloody battle of Solferino. It was a battle fought between Austria on one side and France and Italy on the other. Durant witnessed approximately 40,000 men who were lying dead or dying on the battlefield without adequate medical care. These wounded were transferred to a nearby town of Castiglione. The whole town became a temporary hospital. Every available building such as churches, schools and private homes were filled.

Durant then proceeded to organize a corp of attendants from the people of the town. Anyone who could bind wounds, feed and comfort the injured was used.

In 1862 Durant published Un Souvenir de Solferino, in Geneva, Switzerland. He described the horror of the plight of the thousands of wounded who were left without proper care. A four year persistent campaign

was carried on throughout Europe to ensure better care of victims of war. He emphasized that some type of organization should be formed in every country in order to give aid to the wounded in time of war.

In 1863 a committee was formed to put Durant's dream into reality. The International Committee of the Red Cross was organized and set forth the fundamental principles of the Red Cross. This was done when thirty-six delegates from sixteen countries met at Geneva on October 26-29, 1863.

On August 8, 1864 a diplomatic conference was held in Geneva. Representatives of twelve governments drew up the first international treaty concerning prisoners of war. Thus, the first Geneva convention provided protection to the wounded, medical supplies and personnel caring for them. An emblem was adopted of a red cross on a white field. This symbol was necessary in order that hospitals, ambulances, doctors and nurses could be recognized on the battlefield. The convention delegates also suggested that the International Committee promote the development of the Red Cross in all countries, friend or enemy.¹

As wars continued throughout history, the original convention was revised. Many new conventions were adopted to extend Red Cross protection to victims of warfare at sea (1907),² to prisoners of war (1929)³ and to civilians in the time of war (1949).⁴

¹"Red Cross," Encyclopedia Britannica, 1960, Vol. XIX.

²Jean S. Pictet, "The New Geneva Conventions for the Protection of War Victims," American Journal of International Law, XXXV (July, 1951), 462-463.

³U. S., Statutes at Large, XXXVII, Part 2, 2021-2101.

⁴U. S., Treaties and Other International Agreements, VI, Part 3, 3114-3695.

The 1929 Prisoner of War Convention was held at Geneva on the initiative of the International Committee. It governed the fate of millions of prisoners during the Second World War. It was signed by some 47 states. However, the convention was not fully implemented but it can be said that it proved its value.¹ It ensured an average treatment of prisoners which was apparently better than in World War I.²

The Geneva Convention 1929 is a detailed code of some 97 articles. A few pertinent provisions of the Geneva Conventions are:

(a) They (meaning prisoners of war) must at all times be humanely treated and protected particularly against acts of violence, insults and public curiosity.

(b) Prisoners of war have the right to have their person and their honor respected.

(c) The power detaining prisoners of war is bound to provide for their maintenance.

(d) Prisoners of war shall be lodged in buildings or in barracks affording all possible guarantees of hygiene and healthfulness.

(e) The food ration of prisoners of war shall be equal in quantity and quality to that of troops at base camps.

(f) Canteens shall be installed in all camps where prisoners may obtain, at the local market price, food products and ordinary objects.

(f) The use of tobacco shall be permitted.

¹Pictet, op. cit., p. 469-472.

²Fooks, op. cit., p. 123-136.

(h) So far as possible, belligerents shall encourage intellectual diversions and sports organized by prisoners of war.

(i) Belligerents may utilize the labor of able prisoners of war, according to their rank and aptitude, officers and persons of equivalent status excepted.

(j) It is forbidden to use prisoners of war at un-healthy or dangerous work.

(k) Labor furnished by prisoners of war shall have no direct relation with war operations. It is especially prohibited to use prisoners for manufacturing and transporting arms or munitions of any kind, or for transporting material intended for combatant units.

(l) Punishments other than those provided for the same acts for soldiers of the national armies may not be imposed upon prisoners of war by the military authorities and courts of the detaining power.

(m) In no case may prisoners of war be transferred to penitentiary establishments (prisons, penitentiaries, convict prisons, etc.) there to undergo disciplinary punishment.

(n) Prisoners of war shall be subject to the laws, regulations, and orders enforced in the armies of the detaining power.

(o) Subject to the approval of the camp commander, prisoners of war are allowed to appoint their own spokesman. In officer camps the senior officer is the spokesman.¹

¹U. S. Congressional Record, 79th Cong., 1st Sess., 1945, LXXXI, Part 10, A1021-A1024.

The express purpose of the Geneva Convention delegates is to protect the individual rights of prisoners of war. War is the biggest threat to civilizations today. Man as a human being has a fundamental right to be protected. The Geneva Conventions of 1929 and the New Convention of 1949 have and will provide the rules of international law for the express protection of victims of armed conflicts. It is hoped that they will remain as a standard for governing prisoners of war in years to come.

CHAPTER III

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF PRISONER OF WAR CAMPS IN UTAH AND IDAHO

The Geneva Conventions have stipulated that prisoners of war must be interned away from combat areas. The United States, therefore, offered an ideal situation away from the European and South Pacific combat areas. This situation also helped ease the burden of guarding the prisoners in Europe. Base and branch prisoner of war camps were located in every state of the union, as previously mentioned. The states of Utah and Idaho were part of this ideal situation to intern prisoners. Utah and Idaho are remote areas in relation to many other states that are endowed with heavy industry. These prisoners were generally interned close to army or navy bases or to distant farm areas. This procedure enabled the War Department to succeed in security measures.

The United States established 141 base camps and 313 branch camps throughout the states. Out of this number, Utah and Idaho represented a total number of nine base and twenty-one branch camps. The two related states represented 15.7% of the base and 14.9% of the branch total.

The United States' highest total war prisoners interned at any one time was 425,806. Utah and Idaho had under their supervision approximately 11,660 or 3.6% of the prisoners in the base camps. However, the exact totals for branch camps is not known because of their

repetitious construction along work sites in farm and industrial areas.¹

The U. S. War Department set up a uniform system to be followed for the administration regarding prisoners of war in the various states. Their basic source for the administration came from the written provisions within the Geneva Convention of 1929. The Utah and Idaho camps were part of this overall policy to conform to these standards.²

Labor

These prisoners afforded the United States an untouched pool of available manpower. A lot of work was conducted on Army posts for their general maintenance. As the war progressed, the contract labor program was initiated to overcome an acute labor shortage. This enabled the base camps to set up branch camps close to farm areas.

Labor of able prisoners of war was utilized according to rank and aptitude (Art. 27). Employment was prohibited for prisoners who were physically unfit (Art. 29) or if the type of work was dangerous or

¹The precise total of prisoners varied from day to day due to new captives sent to the United States. Totals also varied due to deaths by escapes or illness. The War Dept. and Y.M.C.A. records did not always contain an accurate total number.

²Most of the information for this chapter was derived from the following sources: The National Archives of the United States, PMGO: Idaho and Utah Prisoner of War Camp Inspection Reports and Labor Reports, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1946; United States Department of Defense; (Available on microfilm at Utah State University) and World Alliance of Young Men's Christian Associations, War Prisoners Aid of the World's Committee of YMCA's, Geneva, Switzerland, from their library, 1945-46. (Available on photo copies at Utah State University).

unhealthy (Art. 32).¹ Personal services for members of the Army were also prohibited.²

It was rather specifically pointed out that no prisoner labor could be used in dangerous work or for the promotion of war operations. There could be no use of prisoners for the manufacture and transportation of arms or munitions, or for transporting material intended for combatant units (Ar. 31).³

Prisoner of War Base and Branch Camps were located throughout Idaho at: Blackfoot, Franklin, Emmett, Farragut,* Filer, Fort Hall, Idaho Falls, Marsing, Payette, Pocatello AAB, Preston, Rigby, Rupert,* Shelley, Sugar City, Thomas, Upper Deer Flat and Wilder. There were located throughout Utah at: Bushnell General Hospital, Clearfield,* Deseret Chemical Warfare Depot,* Fort Douglas,* Dugway Proving Ground, Hill Field,* Logan, Orem, Salina, Tooele,* Tremonton, and Utah ASF Depot.* (note the locations on the illustrated maps).⁴

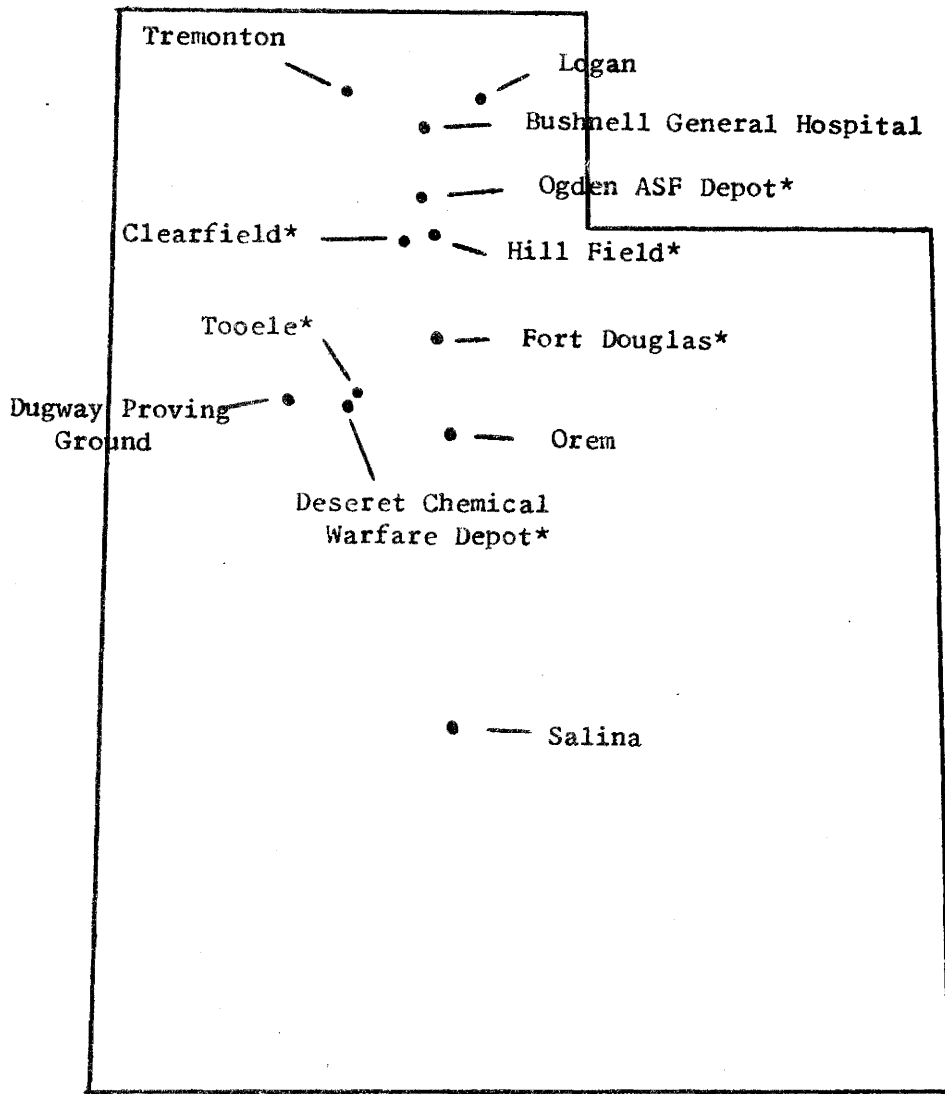
Camp Rupert was located in the flat country of south central Idaho, twelve miles west of Rupert and six miles north of Burley, Idaho. The primary purpose of the camp was to help the farmers in the area with the harvesting of sugar beets.

¹Articles refer to the Geneva Convention of 1929. Hereafter, all subsequent article numbers will refer to this convention.

²John Brown Mason, "German Prisoners of War in the United States," American Journal of International Law, XXXIX, 1945, p. 210-13.

³Major Maxwell MacKnight (of the Prisoner of War Division Office of the Provost Marshall General), "The Employment of Prisoners of War in the United States," International Labour Review, L, No. 1 (July, 1944), p. 54.

⁴* Designates Base Camps.



0 Scale 80 miles

Fig. 1. Map of the State of Utah

Prisoner of War Camps

*designates base camp

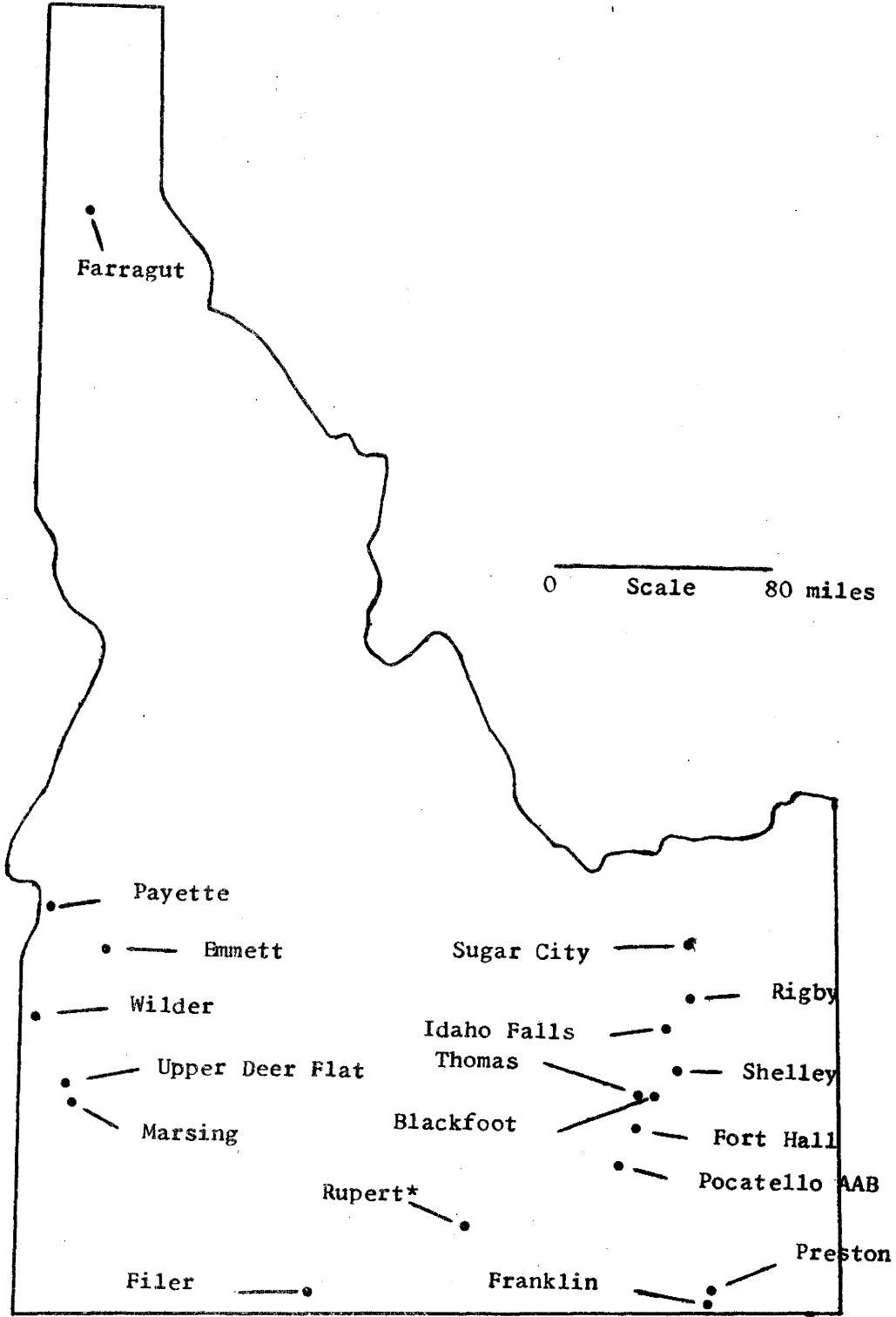


Fig. 1. Map of the State of Idaho

Prisoner of War Camps

*designates base camp

Many farmers complained during this period that the prisoners were not getting adequate food. "Blacking out" on work was reported. It was later discovered that it was not insufficient food, but only the body position assumed when hoeing beets. It was surprising that most of the complaints had come from farmers of German descent. Most farmers were pleased with the quality of work being done in comparison with the usual Mexican nationals. There was no evidence contained in the report that disciplinary action was taken against slow workers.¹

A branch camp located at Preston, Idaho, was another example of farm labor. Seen below are two German prisoners in a potato field near Camp Preston.



Fig. 3. PW's working in potato field
Camp Preston, Idaho²

¹Punishment of prisoners of war consisted of a maximum of thirty days in prison, with a maximum of fourteen days on bread and water. In eight camps that were visited, only sixteen prisoners had been punished in more than three months. No man had been given the maximum penalty.

²Picture given by Hans Johann Gruenheit, Logan, Utah, May 18, 1966.

Ruggerio Purin, an Italian soldier, became a prisoner of war early in June, 1943. Ruggerio, after being captured near Tunisia, Africa, found himself in Scoutsbluff, Nebraska within a month's time. He, like all Italians, was given special privileges by the signing of the I. S. U. parole agreement. The prisoners who still favored Mussolini's Regime were still considered regular prisoners of war and were treated accordingly.



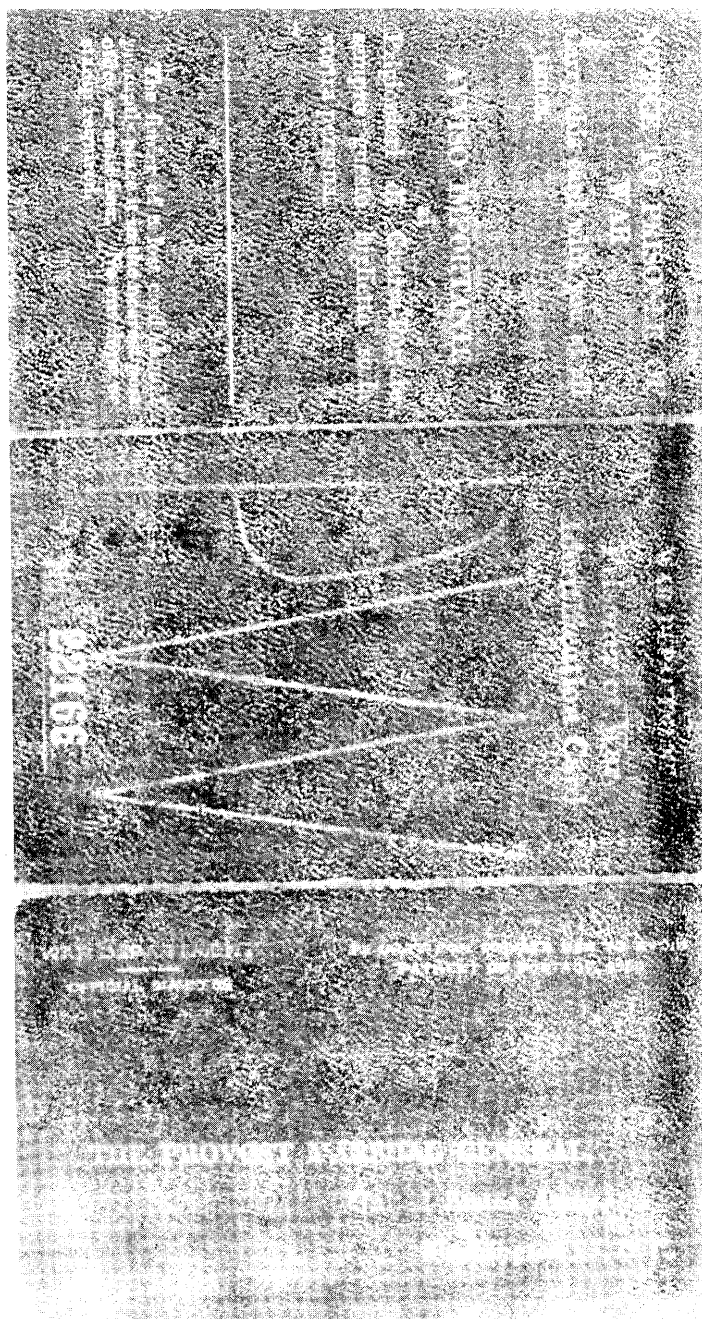
Fig. 4. Ruggerio Purin²

Mr. Purin was worked hard as a prisoner of war. In Scoutsbluff, he was required to pick sugar beets. He was required to work up to as much as twelve hours in one day. They were paid the regular eighty cents a day wage.¹

After working in Nebraska eight months, Ruggerio was transferred to the Black Hills Ordinance Depot, Iglee, South Dakota, for over a year. He labored there in the ammunition dump. Captain Paul E. Brown wrote a letter of recommendation to all the Italian

¹The prisoners were paid the regular PW pay of 30¢ per day. The U. S., after the war, paid the Italian government the additional \$1.40 back pay to equal a \$2.20 regular wage scale. This extra money was supposed to be given to the Italian prisoners, but Mr. Purin said he never received any.

²Picture received from Ruggerio Purin, Midvale, Utah, February 7, 1965.



**HEADQUARTERS, AIR FORCE SERVICE FORCES
PROVOST MARSHAL GENERAL'S OFFICE**

THIS IS TO IDENTIFY:

RUGGERIO P. PURIN
Pvt.
Serial No. 2-1-198


Whose signature, photograph, and fingerprints appear hereon.

(Fingerprint of war on limited parole)

(Fingerprint of war's signature)

PAUL E. BROWN, Capt., Inf.
(Grade)
(Arms or service)

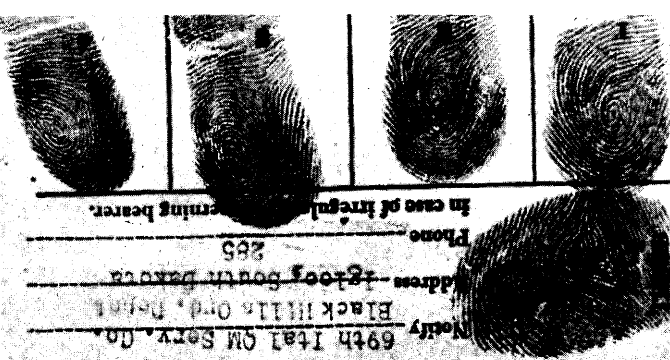
Counter-signed: *[Signature]* NO-3603-1



RUGGERIO P. PURIN
PVT. 7-1-195

Date of birth 6 Jan. 1922
Color eyes Blue Hair Blonde
Weight, 172lb.; height, 5 ft. 10 in.

FINGERPRINTS—RIGHT HAND



Nately 69th Itai GM Stry. Co.
Black Hills Ord. Depot
Address 18003 South Dakota
Phone 288

In case of irregularities, reporting bearer.

¹Identification card received from Ruggiero Purin, Midvale, Utah, February 7, 1965.

prisoners. The letter stated that the Italians were excellent workers while here in the United States. It was designed to help the men gain an easier return to America after the war was over.

Early in 1945, Ruggiero was transferred for a six months stay to Camp Hill Field, Utah. He spent most of the time working in Salt Lake City loading machine guns and ammunition.

It was here in Salt Lake City, at Fairmont Park where he met his future wife seventeen days before his return to Italy.

Ruggiero, now an American citizen, was asked an evaluation of his treatment while he was a prisoner of war in the United States.

I was treated better by the American Army than by my own Italian Army. I suffered while in the Italian Army. There were various times when I even had to beg for food from civilians in order to stay alive.

I remember returning home to Italy after the war was over. It was later that the girl I met in Salt Lake City came over to Italy and our marriage followed. I loved Italy and I wanted to stay there, but my wife wanted to return to live in the United States. I remembered how humane my treatment was here as a prisoner of war. Otherwise, I would never have returned to live in this country. I think this treatment is a credit to the United States, and as many people that are interested should know about it.¹

¹Interview with Ruggiero Purin, Midvale, Utah, February 7, 1965.

This picture is of a prisoner who performed the task of cooking. Shown in the background is the mess hall set up in a tent at that Preston prison camp.



Fig. 6. PW cook at Camp Preston¹

Giuseppe "Joe" Battisti was an Italian prisoner of war from 1942 to January 14, 1945. He was first interned at Amarillo, Texas, and was then sent to Camp Ogden ASF Depot, Utah.² Presently an American citizen, he resides in Ogden, Utah and is employed by the O. U. R. and D. Sign Painting Co.

¹Gruenheit, loc. cit.

²Interview with Giuseppe Battisti, Ogden, Utah, November 7, 1965.

He was first captured at Casablanca, Morocco, by the English. Joe claims that while in American custody he was treated like an animal. There were many ill feelings toward the American lieutenant in charge. The American officer forced him to participate in any kind of work which he desired.

After joining the Italian Service Unit (I.S.U.), the treatment toward labor became fair. Each prisoner was assigned to his own particular job. He was designated to work as a depot messenger for eight hours a day, five days a week, for twenty-five script dollars a month.¹

Another typical job performed by an I. S. U. member was being a car driver. Sgt. Dan. J. Mei stated that prisoner August Innocente was his "right hand man" during his stay in America. Dan said he liked and respected this Italian man very much.²



Fig. 7. Giuseppe Battisti³

¹Script is similar to coupons being redeemable to the prisoners at the canteen for cigarettes, candy, etc. The script could also be saved and redeemed into money at the end of internship.

²Letter received from Dan J. Mei, Westchester, Illinois, Oct. 21, 1965.

³Picture given by Giuseppe Battisti, Ogden, Utah, November 7, 1965.

Hans Johann Gruenheit was a very interesting prisoner of war. He performed a different type of labor while in the U. S. camps. Hans was a drafted German soldier under the Hitler regime. He was shot Nov. 27, 1944, in Hungary while fighting Russian soldiers. Shortly after he was confined into the hospital at Berchtchgarden, Germany from Dec. 9, 1944 to March 17, 1945. After that time he was released to go home on a pass at Gellsenkirchen. The American forces invaded the town while Hans was there. The authorities discovered that he was a member of the Third Reich Army. He was naturally classified as a prisoner of war.



Fig. 8. August Innocenti¹

About 1,000 additional soldiers were captured along with Hans. They were all transported through France and Spain in open railroad cars. French soldiers afforded the German captives very rough treatment and civilians threw rocks and debris into the cars. After being transported on U. S. Liberty Ships, the prisoners found themselves in New York on May 5, 1945. Another three days and two meals a day found them in Phoenix, Arizona. There were office girls at this camp who asked them information

¹Picture received from Dan J. Mei, Westchester, Illinois, October 21, 1965.

concerning the whereabouts of their families. Then the Red Cross paid for a telegram to be sent home to Hans's parents. He was allowed to tell them where he was and that he was all right.



FIG. 9. Hans Johann
Gruenheit¹

Hans went from Phoenix, Arizona to the large base camp at Rupert, Idaho. He was then transferred to the branch camp at Preston, Idaho, to be in charge of supplies issued from the camp. The guards would leave early in the morning to take the prisoners to work in the beet or potato fields. Hans "jokingly" said that he would issue the U. S. personnel guns with which to guard his own fellow prisoners. He was always dressed in a clean uniform after having access to the clothing supply.

The German prisoner of war said of his stay in Preston, "It was the most carefree time in all my life."²

¹Picture given by Hans Johann Gruenheit, Logan, Utah, May 14, 1966.

²Interview with Hans Johann Gruenheit, Logan, Utah, May 14, 1966.

Camp tent facilities were torn down in December 12-17, 1946, and Hans went to Ogden¹ and then to Stockton, California for two months before he left the United States.²

Education

The War Department set up a large scale re-education program for the prisoners. However, the program was late in getting started to be effective. The International Y.M.C.A. acted as a central agency to help prisoners receive textbooks.

Prisoners were allowed to set up these educational programs of various types under the supervision of the camp authorities. They were allowed to subscribe to newspapers and periodicals of wide circulation published within continental United States in the English, German, and Italian languages. The printings were checked by censors to prevent enemy propaganda.

Sture Persson, Y.M.C.A. camp inspector, reported that at Camp Clearfield Naval Depot, Utah, the educational program was conducted entirely by the Germans themselves. Lectures and discussions were held,

¹While at Preston, Hans met Chris Hansen, Whitney, Idaho, who delivered gas to the prison camp. Mr. Hansen told Hans that whenever he wanted to return to the U. S. after the war was over, he would be glad to sponsor his way back. In 1953, Chris helped sponsor Johann and his German family to come to America. Mr. Gruenheit is now an American citizen.

²He went, from Stockton, Calif., down the Pacific Ocean, through the Panama Canal to Great Britain. The English kept 175,000 men prisoner there from Feb., 1946 to May, 1948, for the re-building of England.

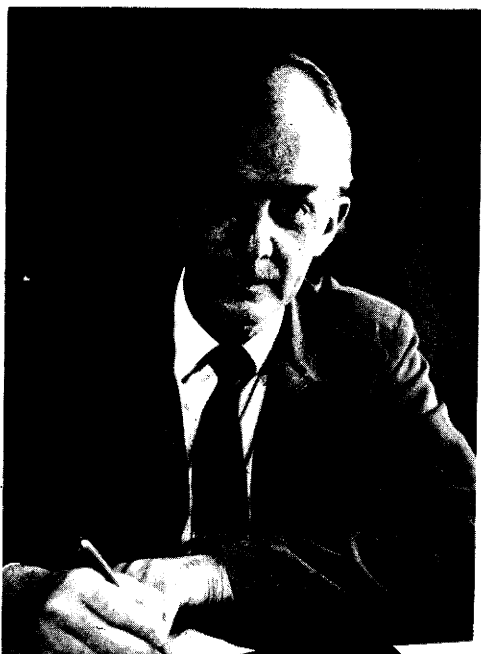


Fig. 10. Sture Persson
Y.M.C.A. Camp Inspector²

five nights a week--two hours a night, concerning economic and political aspects of other countries.¹

Karl Gustof Almquist, Y.M.C.A. camp inspector, met the camp spokesman upon his visit to the camp and wrote the following in his report:

The Spokesman told me that there was a great many young men among the prisoners of war and he very strongly felt the responsibility of giving them the opportunity for education so that some day they could carry on their work in the Germany of the future. The problem was to hold the interest of the young prisoners of war and find out what they really could do in that direction. As all youth,

they preferred to spend their leisure time in playing football or doing nothing. Certainly sport was a good thing, but when it took the interest away from more useful things it was not. This, briefly, was the problem as told me by the men of the camp. Of course they also had older men in the camp. However, on the whole the problem was to keep among the prisoners of war a loving spirit and interest in spiritual things.

Concerning the teaching of American history, he frankly gave as his opinion, that it was necessary to give also the German and European background of history. It was impossible to understand American history if they had no idea of their own history. During the Nazi regime they had been taught only one side of their own history and been deluged with propaganda. Could they but discover the right picture of their own history, it would mean everything to them. Therefore, the spokesman asked for books on German history written by well-known German historians before 1932. The

¹Persson report, March 21, 1946. See Appendix B.

²Picture received from Sture Persson, Gammelgarden, Farlov, Sweden, July 16, 1966.

teachers of German history now were teaching what they remembered and learned by heart. The most necessary books were books on their own history, authorized by the Office of the Provost Marshall General.¹

Fort Douglas, Utah camp was offered a proposal by J. L. Kingsley to provide for an intellectual division program to be employed within the camp. It was the first indication in the camp reports expressing an attempt to propagandize the prisoners of war to the United States democratic system.

It was proposed that the canteen be stocked with better magazines and periodicals so that the "right kind" of reading material could be put into the hands of the prisoners. Perhaps the most powerful medium of propaganda available to them was the use of motion pictures. It was necessary to have a steady flow of American films circulating throughout the camps. A prisoner, it was recommended, should be selected as a Director of Studies to organize and promote educational and recreational activities. The pertinent problem involved prisoners who had not gone beyond the elementary school level. Therefore, the bulk of the subject matter was being taught in the areas of American history, geography, languages and mathematics. The problem current to the most camps was a shortage of adequate textbooks and books in the German language.

Camp Hill Field, Utah was located five miles on the south end of Ogden, Utah and east of Sunset and Clearfield. The prison camp was referred to as OATSC or the Ogden Air Technical Service Counsel.

¹PMGO Camp Clearfield Inspection Report, Karl Gustof Almquist, July 6, 1945.

Italian Camp Spokesman, Leone Ghirudato and Maresciallo Bergongoli were also Directors of Studies for the prisoners within the camp. They expressed antagonistic feelings toward Italian officers, but also possessed a hatred for any American propaganda as antagonistic towards them.

Attendance at education classes was optional. The American history and English were the most popular classes as evidenced in Camp Rupert where a large number attended. Other classes in different subjects (crafts, arts, painting) were held during their spare time.¹

The spokesman at Bushnell General Hospital stated that the library was in need of more books. The interest was reported as great but they preferred fiction and books of travel. They especially liked illustrated ones which could help them to get a more concrete understanding of the life described.

Except for individual studies, there was no possibility for education or teaching. This is an understandable situation in a hospital where the men were brought only for medical treatment. This was also a problem in most branch camps that the men had little in a way of recreation or education. This is somewhat explainable by the great number of camps and by their temporary character.

¹Mr. and Mrs. Lynn O. Pitcher, 2729 Harrison, Ogden, Utah have in their possession some fine art paintings by former German and Italian prisoners of war from Camp Ogden ASF. The prisoners presented them as a gift for appreciation while they were here as prisoners. The Pitcher's used to work with stage plays which provided prisoners enjoyable entertainment.

Health and Medical Care

The United States was obligated to take all sanitary measures necessary to assure the cleanliness and healthfulness of the camps.¹

The detaining Power was required to furnish free all necessary medical and hospital treatment.² Therefore, the prisoners were supposed to receive the same medical and surgical treatment accorded to American Army personnel.

Bushnell General Hospital was designated by the War Department to provide for the care and treatment of war patients.

It was located on a 640-acre tract of land just south of the city limits of Brigham City, Utah. This was formerly a branch camp of Hill Field, housing Italians, but had been changed into a base camp with Germans.

Colonel Hardaway, an elderly medical doctor, had the supervision of the whole hospital. He reported to Karl Gustaf Almquist that the hospital was intended primarily for American soldiers and they had only a few wounded German prisoners of war. There were about forty beds for them which was very little in comparison with the approximately 4,000 beds for American soldiers.³

Johann Gruenheit received left hip and shoulder wounds incurred in an accident while he was driving a truck that overturned near American Falls, Idaho, September 4, 1945. He received care and treatment at the

¹Geneva Convention 1929, Art. 13.

²Ibid, Art. 14.

³Y.M.C.A. report of Karl Gustaf Almquist, July 13, 1945.

State Hospital, PW Camp Rupert, Idaho. It was reported by the hospital that he was not seriously wounded and was discharged on September 12, 1945, to return to Camp Preston, Idaho.¹

Camp Facilities

In general, the Geneva Convention of 1929 prescribed that prisoners of war should be lodged in buildings or barracks affording certain guarantees of hygiene and healthfulness. The retainers were the same as for the United States troops at base camps (Art. 10). The location of these camps were generally near existing military installations (Utah General Depot, Camp Douglas). Use was also made of Federal Government camps formerly belonging to the Civilian Conservative Corps, the National Youth Administration, the Farm Security Administration and other governmental agencies, including state and local fairground buildings, armories, schools and auditoriums. In some instances privately owned facilities were converted to house prisoners of war.²

Prisoners of war camps were an entirely new establishment which followed a standard layout plan. It has been described as follows:

The basic feature of the plan is the compound. A camp consists of one or more compounds surrounded by two wire fences. Compounds are separated from each other by a single fence. Each compound houses four companies of prisoners or approximately 1,000 prisoners. The housing and messing facilities are equivalent to those furnished to United States troops at base camps, as required by the Geneva Convention. These facilities consist of five barracks, a latrine containing showers and laundry tubs with unlimited hot and cold

¹Hospital report received from Hans Johann Gruenheit, Logan, Utah, May 14, 1966.

²Mason, op. cit., p. 200.

running water, a mess hall and an administrative building for each company. In addition, each compound is provided with a recreation building, an infirmary, a workshop, a canteen building and an administration building. The compound area is sufficient to provide outdoor recreation space. Each camp also has a chapel, a station hospital and a large outdoor recreation area for the use of all prisoners at the camp.¹

The food ration of prisoners of war had to be equal in quantity and quality to that of the troops of the detaining power at base camps. Therefore, the same rules applied to prisoners receiving rations equal to those of American troops.

However, Inspector P. Schnyder de Wartensee, upon visiting Camp Clearfield, reported that there had been reductions in the food supplement. He said:



Fig. 11. Inspector P. Schnyder de Wartensee³

The food was very satisfactory, in quality and quantity, up to about May, 1945, when regulations were issued to all the Camp Commanders to cut the rations. This has been found constantly objectionable, because the amount of food allowed to the Prisoners of War could not make up for the amount of energy lost due to the increased work required. Some improvement should be made or the work will suffer.²

The defeat of Germany and the fact that decreased food rations coincided with the Armistice, led many prisoners of war to believe that measures of reprisal were taken against them.

¹MacKnight, *op. cit.*, p. 50.

²PMGO, Camp Clearfield Report, P. Schnyder de Wartensee, March 14, 1946.

³Picture received from Paul Schnyder de Wartensee, Musegg 30, Lucerne, Switzerland, August 11, 1966.

This led them to believe that the United States did not recognize the Geneva Convention of July, 1929.¹

The United States provided clothing, linen and footwear to be furnished at a necessary minimum. Prisoners received special work clothes wherever the nature of the work required it. The prisoners were issued renovated army clothing when their uniforms wore out or changes in climate required it. All of their clothing except German uniforms was marked "PW" in big black or white letters, (Art. 11 and 12).

Camp Ogden ASF Depot, Utah followed the typical Army plan. The physical plant contained two separate stockades, 20' x 100' barracks located 1,000 feet apart. It was capable of housing 1,000 prisoners each.

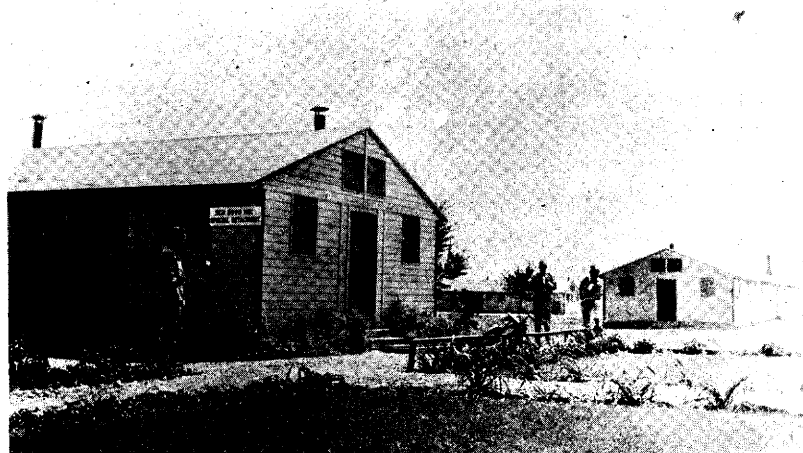


Fig. 12. Prisoner of War Barracks
Camp Ogden ASF Depot, Utah²

¹Guy Metraux, International Committee of the Red Cross, A Report on the Activities of the Prisoner of War Division, United States of America, July 1943 to May 1946, p. 4. Received in a letter from P. Schnyder de Wartensee, Musegg 30, Lucerne, Switzerland, August 11, 1966.

²Picture received from Dan J. Mei, Westchester, Illinois, October 21, 1965.

Camp Tooele, Utah, was located three miles from Tooele, Utah, at a site called Warner, Utah. The camp had only one stockade for housing 1,000 prisoners. It was situated on a level terrain in the north extreme of the Tooele Ordinance Depot reservation. The prisoners slept fifty each in individual heated oil stove barracks on canvas cots. There was a guard house at each four corners of the stockade. It also retained a double graduated hogwire fence with a barbed wire overhand surrounding the entire stockade.

The camp at Preston was typical of most all branch camps. Camps were hurriedly constructed near farm areas so the use of tents became the main housing devise. A guard house and a hog-wire fence was built around the tent camp.

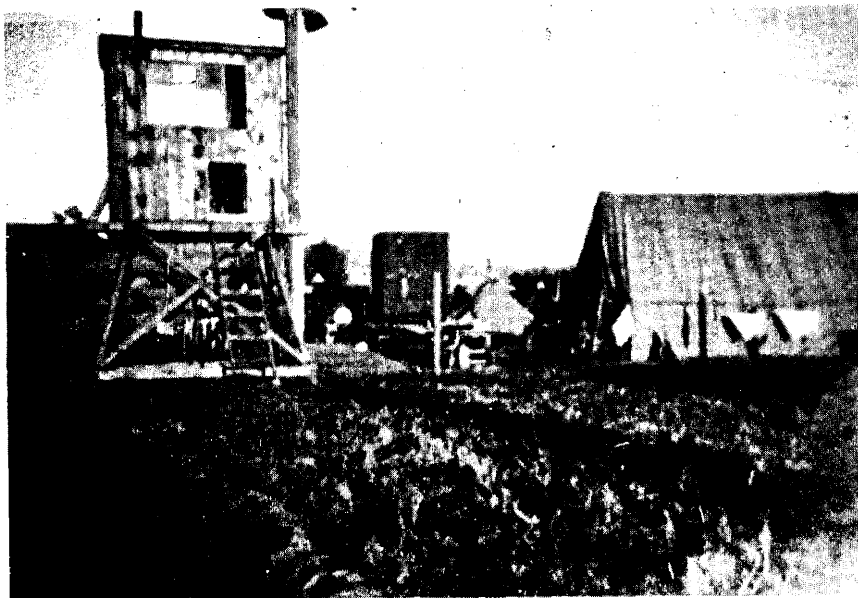


Fig. 13. Prisoner Branch Camp Preston, Idaho¹

¹Picture given by Hans Johann Gruenheit, Logan, Utah, May 14, 1966.

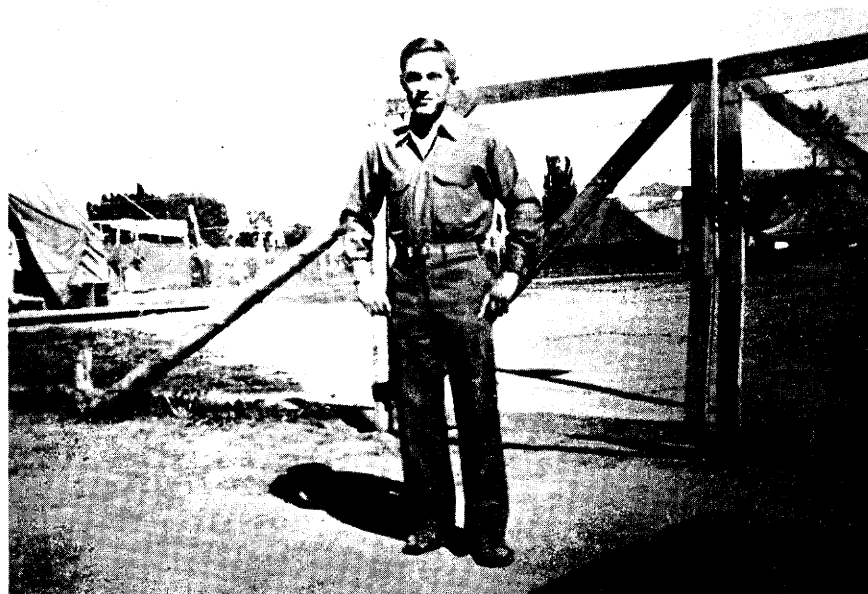


Fig. 14. A closer look at the barbed-wire fence surrounding Camp Preston¹

Recreation

In most all the camps, the prisoners had their organized sports. Soccer was the favorite exercise for the Germans and boccie was the most-played Italian sport. Equipment was provided by the United States and Y.M.C.A. for the indoor and outdoor sports, handicraft tools, motion pictures, fine arts (painting), musical instruments and theatrical equipment.

Camp Deseret, Utah, was one of the smallest base camps. It was formerly a branch camp of the Tooele German prison station. The inspectors reported that aside from the usual education classes the camp highlight was a concert every Sunday performed by its nine-piece orchestra.

¹Picture given by Hans Johann Gruenheit, Logan, Utah, May 14, 1966. The man in the picture is unidentified.

Camp Ogden ASF Depot was especially proud of its 30-piece orchestra. A concert was given at least once a week at the depot or in an adjoining area such as Salt Lake City, Brigham City, etc., to interested parties.



Fig. 15. Camp Ogden ASF Italian Service Unit Brass Band¹

Prisoner of War Joe Battisti played on the Utah Depot ISU league team that was acclaimed champions in the "District Soccer League." The

¹Picture given by Mr. and Mrs. Lynn O. Pitcher, 2729 Harrison, Ogden, Utah, July 25, 1965.

league consisted of teams from the Ogden Arsenal and Salt Lake City. It was the second consecutive year that the ISU Depot Soccer team had won the league championship.¹

Religion

Religious services were held within the individual camps. The prisoners enjoyed complete liberty in the exercise of their own faiths. (Art. 16). Services were ministered to by captured chaplains, ministers and priests but mostly by American civilian ministers.

Camp Hill Field's services were conducted by Catholic Priest Monsignor Giovanoni from St. Mary's of Wasatch. The camp was one hundred percent Catholic in religion which was unusual in comparison with other prison camps.

Camp Ogden ASF Depot provided weekly Catholic and Protestant services. Father Girouf, of St. Joseph's Church, Ogden, Utah, was in charge of the Catholic services. The Evangelical services were performed by Pastor Clemens Harms, Brigham City, Utah.²

Karl Gustaf Almquist spent several hours talking with Pastor Harms on July 10, 1945, and said this about their talk:

Pastor Harms belongs to the Missouri Synod and is himself a second generation American of German ancestry. I got a very good impression of his serious and industrious work in this and other camps (Prisoner of War Camps Clearfield and Bushnell General Hospital, Utah). As he has a rather small

¹Victory News, Sept. 15, 1945, p. 3 (Published Semi-Monthly in the interest of the Personnel of the Utah Army Service Forces Depot).

²Pastor Harms is presently a Lutheran Minister, Missouri Synod, South Dakota.



Fig. 16.
Pastor
Clemens E. Harms
1945²

congregation at Brigham, he was glad to have the opportunity of being useful in this special kind of work. After the service he was accustomed to spending some time talking with the prisoners of war and they, on their side, seemed eager to grasp the opportunity to talk over their religious problems. Pastor Harms had served the Lord's supper to the prisoners of war. His quiet and fine character and his good manner of expressing his Christianity and human feelings were guarantees of nobility of spirit and trustfulness sincerely valued by the prisoners of war.¹

Pastor Clemens Harms (who speaks German) stated that he could not remember exactly when he began conducting services for the German prisoners of war. His first recollection was a Christmas service held in the prisoner of war ward at the Bushnell Hospital in Brigham City during 1944. His work gradually expanded so that at one time he served the camp at the ASF Depot in Ogden, the Naval Supply Depot in Clearfield, the compound and Bushnell Hospital, Brigham City, the prisoner of war branch camps at Tremonton and Logan, Utah, and for a few Sundays, even in Preston, Idaho.³

¹Y.M.C.A., op. cit., July 10, 1945

²Picture from Clemens E. Harms, Pastor, July 26, 1966, Sioux Falls, South Dakota.

³Letter to the author from Clemens E. Harms, Pastor, July 26, 1966, Sioux Falls, South Dakota.



Fig. 17. Naval Supply Depot, Clearfield
Evangelical Congregation, July, 1945¹

Pastor Harms remarked of his experience with the prisoners of war:

Throughout my work with the German prisoners, I was most cordially received by the American staff in charge. We conducted our services as we saw fit without any interference whatsoever. The camp personnel also was very cooperative in arranging times for worship so that all the camps could be served. The prisoners who attended the services were very appreciative. They were happy that they could receive spiritual ministrations. I have very fond memories of the work done among the German prisoners of war.²

On the following page is a picture of the interior of the chapel at ASF Depot, Ogden. Services were conducted at least once a week within the chapel for the prisoners of war.³

¹Picture from Clemens E. Harms, Pastor, July 26, 1966, Sioux Falls, South Dakota.

²Letter from Clemens E. Harms, *loc. cit.*

³Der Lutheraner, early in 1946, p. 21. (Official organ of the Lutheran Church - Missouri Synod.)



Fig. 18. Chapel Utah ASF Depot, Ogden¹

Morale and Conduct

The detaining Power held all prisoners subject to their laws, regulations and orders. All the rules and regulations affecting their conduct and activities were posted in the prisoners' language. The Geneva Convention stated that prisoners were not to be exposed to any cruel or inhumane treatment other than for mis-conduct. (Art. 45).

Camp Fort Douglas, Utah possessed a particular low morale of the guard personnel which led to a recommendation that one hour should be a devotional indoctrinating personnel in proper conduct. It was especially to be kept in mind that every officer and enlisted man at a prisoner of

¹Picture from Clemens E. Harms, Pastor, July 26, 1966, Sioux Falls, South Dakota.

war camp was an advertisement for democracy. His own particular duties and his attitude toward the prisoners could have a very decisive effect positively or negatively.

Increased activities improved the morale of the prisoners which helped to decrease the security problems. The progress of the war could

have been an effect to the morale of the prisoners. It was proposed that if the proper ground work was now obtained, the future would not receive any repressions.¹



Fig. 19. Gene Miconi²

Prisoner of war, Gene Miconi, was closely connected with morale and conduct. He was born in Rome, Italy, in 1919. Gene was first captured at Tobruck, Africa, by the English, and remained prisoner for five years from 1941-1946. He was interned in Suez, Egypt and South Africa before being transferred to the United States.

¹PMGO, Camp Fort Douglas Reports, J. L. Kingsley, December 19-21, 1944.

²Picture given by Gene Miconi, Ogden, Utah, November 7, 1965. Gene is seen pictured here with his wife. Gene, Joe Battisti and Mario Alfonsi all met their wives while in Camp Ogden ASF. They were allowed to associate with the girls after signing the ISU pledge. The American girls went to Italy, after the war was over, to marry these former prisoners and then were allowed to return to the United States with them.

He was an interpreter for the Ogden ASF Camp because of his workable knowledge of English. Mr. Miconi expressed that many army personnel were unsympathetic towards them. The guards' morale would have been far better if they would have been given an opportunity to fight abroad and capture prisoners rather than stay at home and do the tedious work of guarding them.

Gene's morale was affected while a prisoner because he became aware of the value of freedom. He said that he always waited for the day when he would once again have his freedom.¹

Inspector Karl Gustaf Almquist visited the Ogden Camp on July 10, 1945, and wrote an account of an unfortunate incident which occurred at the Ogden Camp.

On the day before I visited this camp there had occurred the accident of a guard at a side camp of Camp Ogden, shooting with a machine-gun and killing eight sleeping prisoners of war. It was not a favorable time for my visit. In spite of this lamentable accident, however, I was allowed to make the visitation according to schedule. The assistant Executive Officer, Lt. Stover, in whose company I walked around the camp, very much regretted that such a thing could happen, especially in a country which, as the United States, wanted to live up to the Geneva Convention and considered it an honor to observe its rules literally. He assured me that all that could be done to investigate the dead should be done.²

Inspector Almquist reported the incident as an accident but there is always the possibility that it was brutality. It would have to be quite an accident for a guard to kill "out right" eight men while they were sleeping.

¹Interview with Gene Miconi, Ogden, Utah, November 7, 1965.

²PMGO, Camp Ogden ASF reports, Karl Gustaf Almquist, July 10, 1945.

However, Camp Douglas was a little different than Camp Ogden ASF. Camp Douglas was actually a segregation camp for non-cooperative prisoners evidencing subversive activities.

Major Paul A. Newland reported:

This camp is by its very nature composed to harbor only subversive elements. As such, its main intelligence problem should be to discover those prisoners of war who are not to be classified as subversive and get them to volunteer for unrestricted labor so that they can be transferred to working camps for non-commissioned officers. It was stressed that great care should be taken never to allow any subversive leader to be transferred to a working camp merely because he desires to volunteer for unrestricted labor, but that only those who are approved as nonsubversive by camp authorities should be allowed to volunteer for such labor.¹

A feeling among the prisoners developed in this subversive camp that all in life had failed for them. Whatever happens to Germany in the war seemed a divine judgment to them. The pastors asked the prisoners to keep in mind the word of God from Isaiah, stating, "God have mercy upon us, forgive us our sins."²

At Camp Tooele, Utah, the general morale of the camp was fairly good. But even there one incident occurred involving a guard that fired a gun at a prisoner for refusing to obey orders of no smoking while in the process of working. Tooele was typical of many other camps. A prisoner escaped and returned on his own accord by cutting holes through a lower portion of the double fence and then walking approximately 500 feet before returning.³ Perhaps these escapes can be attributed to the

¹PMGO, Camp Douglas reports, Major Paul A. Newland, Feb. 17, 1945.

²Ibid., Feb. 17, 1945.

³PMGO, Camp Tooele reports, D. L. Schwieger, January 24, 1944.

barbed-wire psychosis which drives a man away from a camp, perhaps for only a twenty-four hour period.

Sture Persson noted while visiting Camp Rupert that some of the leaders in the camp held onto old ideas and ideals very much. The occupying powers in Germany were given much blame for the war. The only guilt they seemed to feel was that Germany had lost the war and not won it. His only answer to them was that hatred and discouragement should not gain a foothold in their minds. It should be proved by now that hatred never builds up anything better.¹

Camp Farragut had distinct conduct and morale. It was part of the prisoners "rehabilitation" program or retraining program to sign parole agreements.

Cited here is an example of the agreement:

I hereinwith promise, on the honor of a German soldier, that during the tenure of this parole, I will not escape and will not undertake anything which could make easy as escape for myself or another prisoner, or encourage the same.

Especially do I pledge myself:

(1) to accomplish the task assigned to the best of my ability, (2) to return promptly to camp from assigned work, (3) to do nothing that could in any form whatsoever be injurious to the interest of the Detaining State.

I understand that I may withdraw this promise by personally submitting a written notice to that effect to my Company Commander.²

Colonel Frank E. Meek, prison camp commandant, impressed upon the navy personnel that a prisoner was a soldier and not a criminal. He had not participated in anything dishonorable and was entitled to this respect. He was not to be subjected to insult and was not to be abused or sworn at.

¹PMGO, Camp Rupert, Sture Persson reports, March, 1946.

²PMGO, Camp Farragut, Hilyer F. Gearing reports, February 8, 1945.

It was the duty of the security guard to protect him from indignity.³

A former Italian war prisoner, who presently calls America home, is Mario Alfredo Alfonsi. He was very receptive about his stay in America. General morale of America and its conduct made a definite impression upon him. Mario was taken prisoner while aboard the Italian submarine Glanko in November, 1940. It was torpedoed by the British almost two hundred miles from Gibraltar. From that time on from 1943 through January 14, 1946, he was a prisoner of war. He was sent along with 500-600 prisoners to the United States, going first to the states of Tennessee, Kansas, and finally to Utah.

He expressed that while in the custody of Great Britain he was interrogated once every day. However, in the United States custody he was not required to give any more information other than his name, rank, and serial number. Mario felt that treatment, while in the custody of the United States was very fair.

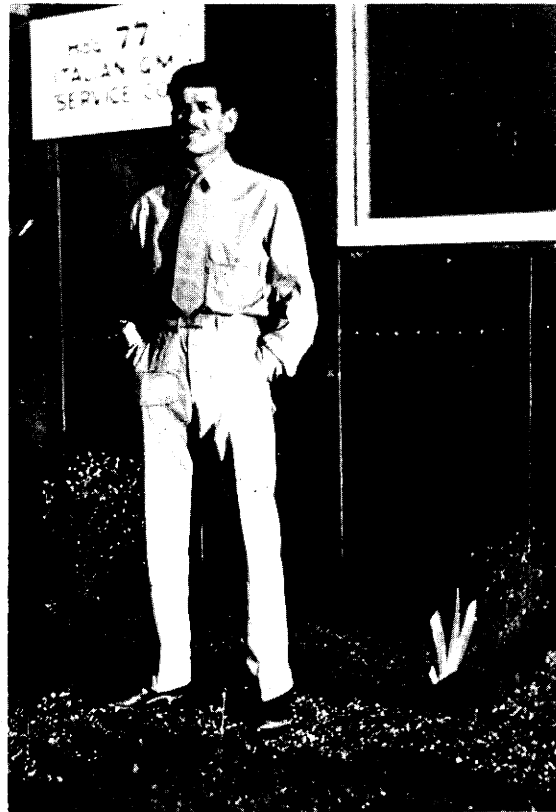


Fig. 20. Mario Alfredo Alfonsi¹

¹Picture received from Mario Alfredo Alfonsi, Ogden, Utah, November 7, 1965.

Fair to him meant good food and clothing with warm adequate living conditions. His only complaints were that the barracks were a little overcrowded and that he could never really become accustomed to the fence surrounding the prison camp. It was just the idea of being fenced in which really bothered him the most.

The former prisoner, under ISU status, was required to work eight hours a day and five days a week as a lift operator and experienced no physical hardship.

Mr. Alfonsi appears to be a very sincere individual. On being questioned concerning ill feelings toward the United States during his stay in the prison camp, he explained that war is war and nations fight against each other. Although he is now a loyal American citizen, he would always possess a love for his homeland of Italy. Mario felt



Fig. 21. A Group of Italian Prisoners in Camp Ogden ASF¹

¹Picture from Dan J. Mei, Westchester, Illinois, October 21, 1965.

indirectly indoctrinated to the American democratic system because of the fair treatment during his prisonership.¹

The conduct accorded prisoner of war Joseph Giordano prompted his return to America after the war. He was captured while fighting for Italy against the British at Tobruck, Africa, on January 21, 1941. Joseph was a prisoner in the U. S. from May, 1943 to January, 1946. He felt that the war was not the fault of the leaders of any one country. This helped him realize his position as a prisoner.²

These Italian prisoners of war (picture on page 29) don't appear to show evidence of low morale or abuse by beatings or lack of adequate clothing or food.

Giuseppe Battisti was one of many editors who helped publish an Italian newspaper for the prisoners at Camp Ogden ASF. He also did much of the art work for the newspaper. The newspaper contained ISU camp news about general happenings around the camp such as types of work, sports and satire stories. It was a helpful stimulant to boost the prisoners morale and to see exactly what they were thinking about during their confinement as a prisoner.³ Following are some loose translations of poetry from the paper:

Ritmi Dal Ritorno, meaning Rhythm Come Back, tells the story of a prisoner who has been away from home. He meets a little girl, upon returning home, and later finds out that she is his own daughter.

¹Interview with Mario Alfredo Alfonsi, Ogden, Utah, Nov. 7, 1965.

²Interview with Joseph Giordano, Roy, Utah, Nov. 7, 1965.

³See Appendix C for a sample of the newspaper and art work.

Ritmi Dal Ritorno¹

I have been away four years and my wishing has been in vain. I just need one letter to satisfy my appetite. Every day I pray to Jesus and God. It's all right to tell me what happened to my family life.

A sweet pleasant voice whispers and remembers when your mother picks you up and tells you to be calm. We know you are a prisoner, for every day that goes by my heart was in torment. I was deprived four years without a life. I could be happy, instead I was tormented to run away from home. I gave thanks from God for a beautiful day.

I went back home and rested after the run. I was very tired and fatigued. I sat down on the rock while I looked around. I heard a voice talking by the brook. There I saw a girl with an older man. I got closer to them (the Italian prisoner). The girl saw me coming and ran to the elderly man. The man asked her why he scared her.

Stated the prisoner:

"I have a little girl at home. Please don't be scared. Did I scare you? No, but you open the wound in my heart. So little one you suffer already. Your heart should be lily white."

"I wish to be a dove to fly over my mother's tomb," said the girl.

"Why did you talk like that?" the prisoner asks.

"Don't you have mommy and daddy to treasure," asked the girl. "I had a father one day. He left our home one day and never came back. He always went to church. On my knee for him I pray one day to come back. One day all these people surround me. I reached my doorstep and they told me my mother is dead. The man took me under his arm," she said.

"What is your name dear little one?" asked the prisoner.

"My name is Gesuina," she stated.

The prisoner cried, "On my heart rest your head, for I am your father. I am back. No more tears, for now we can be happy. We will follow the boys carrying our cross in church. We go now and thank God."²

¹Italian PW and I.S.U. Camp Newspaper, March, 1945, p. 24. (Obtain at Utah State University). The newspapers were translated by Mrs. Balbina C. Ropelato, Ogden, Utah, December 17, 1965.

²The reader should keep in mind the difficulty in translating a poem from Italian to English language. The poem is as close to verse form as possible. It doesn't possess high literary quality but only expresses some of the feelings that the prisoners possessed at this time in their lives.

An American G. I. contributed an article which was also pertinent to the feelings at the time among the Italian prisoners.

It reads like this:

Strictly G.I.

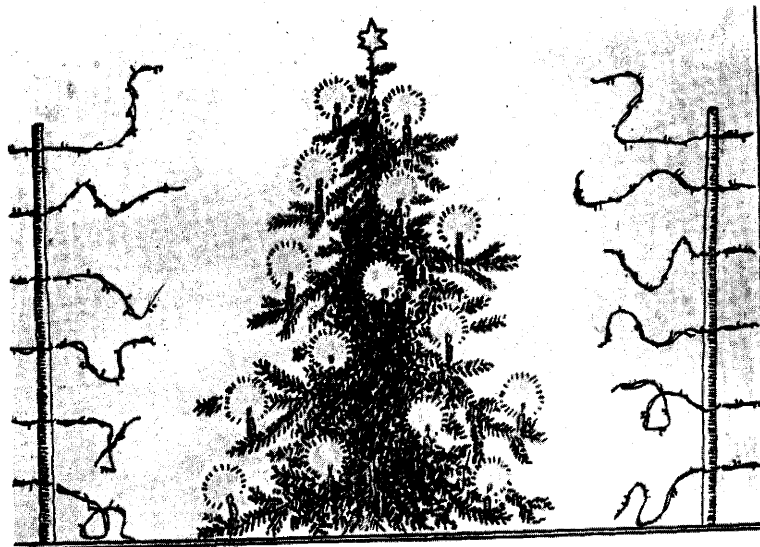
. . . suffering is because of sin, the common burden of mankind. By freely accepting our share of this burden we lighten for everyone. All of us must suffer and everyone must be affected by suffering. And it will either make men hard and bitter and even mean and always on the defensive, or it will make them sympathetic, tender, and full of pity and understanding. The effect of suffering on a man depends on his attitude toward suffering. He who resents it will naturally be embittered. But the one who sees it as a just thing, will not be bitter. And he who sees God's mercy in it will be a better man for it.

It seems to me that we can increase human happiness by all suffering to enrich our personalities. Through suffering we can grow in understanding, pity and love for others. Last but not least, by it we pay our share of the debt of sin.¹

Pastor Clemens E. Harms, Pastor, received a gift at Christmas time. It was a Christmas card that expressed one of the most warm and gentle symbols of morale among the prisoners. It was designed by Wilhelm Blosch, a German prisoner. The card depicts the fact that even at Christmas time, the barbed wire fence around the prisoners, opens for the spirit of festival. It also exemplifies a tremendous love and respect which the prisoners must have had for Pastor Harms. He must have afforded them much spiritual satisfaction and comfort during this crucial time in their lives.²

¹Italian PW and I.S.U. Camp Newspaper, September, 1945, p. 16. The American G.I.'s name was not attached to the article.

²Letter from Clemens E. Harms, loc. cit.



Ehre sei Gott in der Höhe und Friede auf
Erden und den Menschen ein Wohlgefallen.

Weihnachten 1945
im P/W Camp Bushnell, Utah.

Fig. 22. Weihnachten 1945 in PW Camp
Bushnell, Utah¹

¹Picture from Clemens E. Harms, July 26, 1966. The picture was designed by Wilhelm Blosch, a German prisoner of war.

Pictured below is the inside cover from the same Christmas card given to Pastor Harms. The writing in German on the card means in essence: "A happy Christmas Feast with wishes for you and your wife. Your thankful branch of the German War Prisoners of the P/W Camp Bushnell."¹

**Ein frohes Weihnachtsfest
wünscht Ihnen und Ihrer Frau
Gemahlin Ihre dankbare Gemein-
de der deutschen Kriegsgefangenen
des P/W Camps Bushnell:**

Wilmun Blösch, Henry Horstmann, Paul Hoppe
Hans Fink, Wilhelm, seb. Walter Gubrius
Willy Kewzings, Hans Eckert, Ernst Saborski
Emald Gecke, August Kiedel, Julian Hunt
Wassermann, Josef Herrmann
Pfeiffer Albert, Gimmig Luviv
Wiegel Heinz, Gerhard Grosch
Kühn Hermann, Rudolf, Hans, Peter, o. s. t.

Fig. 23. Inside of Christmas Card

¹Picture from C. E. Harms, loc. cit.

The prisoners began a movement to return home after completion of the war in Europe. It was in accordance with War Department plans that every prisoner would be required to return home. The Italian and German prisoner would be replaced with American workers at the earliest possible date.

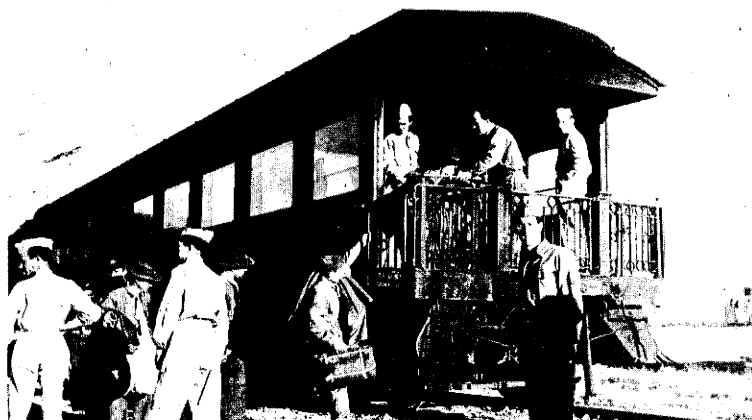


Fig. 24. I.S.U. officers and enlisted men say good-bye to friends at the Ogden ASF Depot as they board the train en-route for the first lap of their journey back to Italy¹

The prisoner of war camps in Utah and Idaho were only a representation of two states out of the forty-eight. Their camps were constructed and supervised in correlation with War Department instructions to try to follow explicitly the Geneva Convention 1929 rules.

The base camps were most generally able to follow the rules. However, facilities, especially in the branch camps, were not always adequate. The branch camps, as previously stated, were rapidly constructed at

¹Picture received from Dan J. Mei, Westchester, Illinois, October 21, 1945.

locations providing local citizens a pertinent labor force. Textbooks, teachers, clothing, heating units, recreation equipment, etc., were not always available at the camps.

The acute labor shortage in the United States was the prime importance which the prisoners were required to fulfill during their internment. It was always possible that more prisoners could have been utilized to labor projects. However, the savings in time and money to the people in Utah and Idaho was tremendous.

The German prisoner wasn't allowed to mingle with the people as much as the Italian, because of their signed I.S.U. pledge. These men made a lot of friends, even though they were prisoners of war, that even remoteness will never be able to erase. It is this author's estimation, that the supervision accorded the prisoners by the U. S. Army and Navy personnel, played a definite factor in the prisoners attitude toward the democratic system. It was evident that the German and Italian men were subjected to heavy propaganda by the Hitler and Mussolini regimes. It was no doubt a surprise to some of these men to be able to see democracy in operation. The people in Utah and Idaho were called upon to play a vital part of this intricate system. They performed the Geneva Convention rules just as successfully as any of the forty-eight and maybe even more so.

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War Prisoners' Aid of the World's Committee of YMCA's, Geneva

The World Alliance of Young Men's Christian Associations 37, Quai Wilson, Geneva, Switzerland, has a comprehensive list of prison camp inspection reports throughout the United States. The reports include inspections made by their Field Secretaries, War Prisoners' Aid of the World's Committee of YMCA's.

Commission for German History of Prisoners of War

The bureau for German History of Prisoners of War, Martiusstrasse 8/11, Munich 23, Germany, possesses material on the Utah and Idaho camps.

Their main purpose has been to gather information concerning German prisoners of war located throughout the United States and other parts of the world during World War II.

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Miconi, Gene. Ogden, Utah, November 7, 1965.

Persson, Sture. Gammelgarden, Farlov, Sweden, July 16, 1966.

Pitcher, Lynn O. Ogden, Utah, July 25, 1965.

Purin, Ruggerio. Midvale, Utah, February 7, 1965.

Schnyder de Wartensee, Paul. Lucerne, Switzerland, August 11, 1966.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

P M G O

Idaho and Utah Prisoner of War
Base and Branch Camps

Alphabetically by Name of Camp

Blackfoot, Idaho	Orem, Utah
Bushnell General Hospital, Utah	Payette, Idaho
Clearfield, Utah*	Pocatello AAB, Idaho
Deseret Chemical Warfare Depot, Utah*	Preston, Idaho
Fort Douglas, Utah*	Rigby, Idaho
Dugway Proving Ground, Utah	Rupert, Idaho*
Franklin, Idaho	Salina, Utah
Emmett, Idaho	Shelley, Idaho
Farragut, Idaho	Sugar City, Idaho
Filer, Idaho	Thomas, Idaho
Fort Hall, Idaho	Tooele, Utah*
Hill Field, Utah*	Tremonton, Utah
Idaho Falls, Idaho	Upper Deer Flat, Idaho
Logan, Utah	Ogden ASF Depot, Utah*
Marsing, Idaho	Wildor, Idaho

*Designates Base Camp

APPENDIX B

Prisoner of War Base Camps

Total Number prisoners interned.

Activation date.

United States Army Military Leadership.

United States Army and the World Alliance of Young Men's Christian Association (Y.M.C.A.) inspection reports of base camps.

Camp Deseret Chemical Warfare Depot, Utah

Smallest base camp in Utah

Inspectors: U.S. - P. Schnyder, May 26, 1945
 Y.M.C.A. - Luis Hortal, August 15, 1945

Bushnell General Hospital, Brigham City, Utah

Commanding Officer: Colonel Robert M. Hardaway
 Captain W. H. Smith
 Executive Officer: Lt. Col. Robert D. Smith
 Provost Marshal: Capt. Joseph K. Koper
 Lt. Philips

Inspectors U.S. - Capt. D. L. Schwieger, March 21, 1944
 Y.M.C.A. - Karl Gustaf Almquist, July 13, 1945
 Luis Hortal, August 11, 1945

Camp Clearfield Navy Depot, Ogden, Utah

Activated: April 20, 1945

Commanding Officer: Captain Sawin
 Adjutant and Asst. Executive Officer: Lt. Curtis
 American Chaplain (Protestant): Earling

Inspectors: U.S. - P. Schnyder, May 31, 1945
 Y.M.C.A. - Karl Gustaf Almquist, July 12, 1945
 Luis Hortal, August 14, 1945
 Sture Persson, March 31, 1946

Fort Douglas, Utah

Activated: Summer, 1944 - Italian prisoners
 Autumn, 1944 - German Prisoners

Numbers: 4 officers

3024 non-commissioned officers
 196 enlisted men
 3227 total number

Commanding Officer: Lt. Colonel W. R. Dwyer
 Lt. Colonel W. S. Hannan
 Executive Officer: Major Roberts
 Asst. Executive Officer: Second Lt. J. O. Kingsley
 Chaplain: Capt. David Jones (Episcopalian)
 Stockade Commander: Major Obie S. Mueting
 Camp Spokesman: Willi Basler

Inspector: U.S. - Major Paul A. Newland, February 17, 1945
 Y.M.C.A. - Helmut J. Knoll, February 1, 1945
 Karl Gustaf Almquist, July 6, 1945
 Luis Hortal, August 14, 1945

Camp Hill Field, Utah

Numbers: 161 non-commissioned officers - Italian
 945 enlisted men

Commanding Officer: Colonel Paul Wolfe
 Prison Camp Commander: Major Andrew Blase
 Executive Officer: Capt. J. P. Loffredo
 Asst. Executive Officer: 1st Lt. Mario A. Meffeo
 Camp Spokesman: Leone Ghirudato
 Maresciallo Bergongoli
 Intelligence Officer: Capt. J. D. Loffredo
 Floyd A. Spencer, October 8, 1945

Inspectors: U.S. - M. A. Meffeo, January 20, 1945
 Y.M.C.A. - Luis Hortal, August 12, 1945

Camp Ogden ASF Depot, Utah

Activated: December 21, 1942

Numbers: 34 non-commissioned officers - Italian
 1464 enlisted men

Commanding Officer: Colonel Arthur J. Erickson
 Executive Officer: Capt. Peter Lauritzen
 Colonel Edward Baer
 Asst. Executive: Lt. Stover and Lt. Bartholomew
 Adjutant: Capt. J. W. Young
 Camp Spokesman: Fiuzzi Archimede
 Maresciallo Capo

Inspectors: U.S. - De Koven L. Schwieger, October 15, 1944
 - P. Schnyder, May 30, 1945
 Y.M.C.A. - Luis Hortal, March 8-9, 1945
 - Karl Gustaf Almquist, July 10, 1945
 - Sture Persson, March 19, 1946

Camp Tooele, Utah

Activated: December 27, 1943

Numbers: 1,000 men - German

Commanding Officer: Lt. Col. Frank C. Meek
 Camp Spokesman: Oberwachmeister Fritz Lingenfelder

Inspectors: U.S. - D. L. Schwieger, Capt. C.M.P., January
 24, 1944
 - Edward C. Shannahan, Major, C.M.P. Field
 Liaison Officer, May 25, 1944
 - A. M. Schwichtenburg, Colonel, M. C.
 Director, Hospital Administration,
 December 16, 1943

Camp Rupert, Idaho

Activated: German, May 10, 1944

Numbers: 2 officers
 529 non-commissioned officers
 2466 enlisted men
 13 enlisted men bearing nationality of Russian

Commanding Officer: Colonel Dott E. Smith
 Executive Officer: Captain Schwlzi
 Asst. Executive: Captain Mossbauer
 Adjutant: Captain Fagin
 Stockade Commander: Capt. Chesley C. Richardson

Inspectors: U.S. - E. G. Scharnahor, Major CMP
 - De Koven L. Schwieger, Capt. CMD
 Y.M.C.A. - Luis Hortal, March 6, 1945
 August 6-10, 1945
 - Sture Perrson, March 13-14, 1946

Camp Farragut, Idaho

Activated: September, 1942

Numbers: German - 748 enlisted men

Commanding Officer:	Capt. F. H. Kelley
Executive Officer:	J. G. Arkins
Prison Camp Commandant:	Lt. Colonel Frank E. Meek
Executive Officer:	Capt. M. Reeves
Camp Spokesman:	Carl Merschemke

Inspectors:	U.S.	- Hilyer F. Gearing, February 8, 1945
		- Lyle F. Dawson, March 30, 1945
		- Capt. Wm. J. Rouquat, May 4, 1945
	Y.M.C.A.	- Luis Hortal, July 24, 1945

APPENDIX C

Prisoner of War Camp Papers

Sample copy of the Italian PW and I.S.U. Camp Newspaper, parts of which were translated into English as evidenced in Chapter 3.

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CONSIDERANDO

ORA

di WILLIAM C. BULLIT

LA TRAGEDIA DI *Versailles*

Il trattato di Versaglia, alla fine dell'ultima guerra mondiale, stabilì un penoso armistizio, non una pace. Possiamo noi trarre dagli errori di coloro che formularono il trattato qualche ammaestramento che possa consigliarci nel definire, alla fine della presente guerra, una pace duratura? Colui che tentasse di rispondere onestamente a questa domanda, dovrebbe confessare che, * nella migliore delle ipotesi, egli potrebbe solamente fare un po' di luce soltanto nell'oscurità che copre il presente e il futuro dell'umanità.

Allo scoppio della guerra, nel 1914, la rapidità dei mutamenti nella vita umana divenne troppo vertiginosa, l'esempio di evoluzione e di rivoluzionamento troppo intricato perché una mente limitata potesse comprenderlo.

Il controllo dell'uomo sulle forze della natura bruta è andato poi aumentando con incredibile velocità; ma l'uomo ha acquistato poca cosa se non ha aumentato ed esercitato il controllo sopra le forze della sua propria natura.

Nei laboratori del mondo, nuovi strumenti di guerra si stanno perfezionando: strumenti che faranno sembrare il più grande "blockbuster" di oggi, un gioco da ragazzi. Qualora l'uomo non fosse capace di aumentare il suo controllo sopra l'invidia, l'odio, la malizia e la crudeltà che sono bene addentro nella sua stessa natura, egli impiegherà quel suo aumentato controllo sulle forze della natura bruta per distruggere la maggior parte del genio umano e tutti i meravigliosi acquisti della civiltà.

Questa questione di carattere morale deve essere il presupposto di ogni problema mirante ad una pace duratura e solo una non limitata intelligenza può rispondervi. Risposte possono facilmente essere date da superficiali colonnisti e da abili colonnisti; ma in verità, la risoluzione è compresa solamente da Dio.

Vi fu allora un'occasione mediante la quale la conferenza di Parigi dalla quale uscì il trattato di Versaglia, avrebbe potuto dare vita ad una pace durevole? Sembro allora che vi fosse una occasione.

- Vid. -



ISU. OGDEN UTAH N.5 / MAR.
 9-10-44

APPENDIX D

Sample copy of Giuseppe "Joe" Battisti's art work in the Italian PW and I.S.U. Camp Newspaper.

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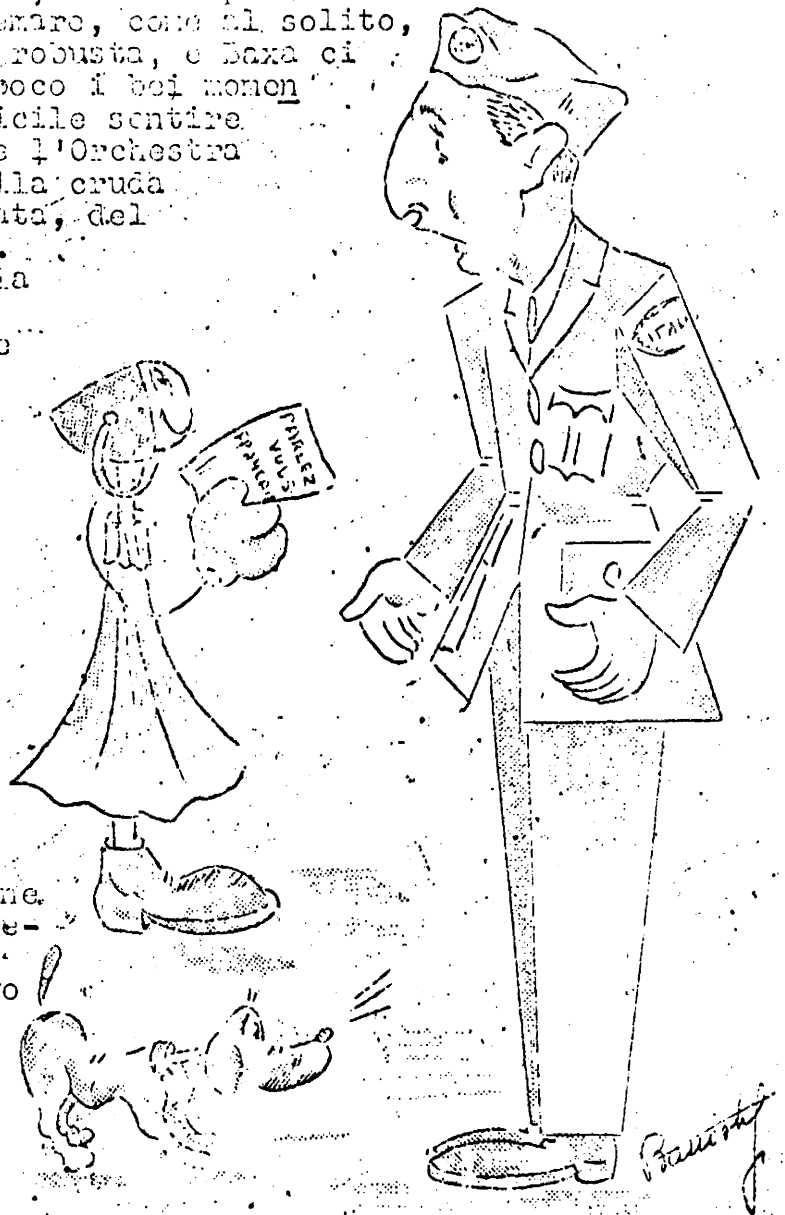
tati per un momento nella sua Napoli assoluta. Tomellini ci ha ** grandemente soliazzati con la sua spassosa imitazione del trombone e Vighiotta ha modulato, con la sua solita grazia, due canzoni che furono applaudite a lungo.

Sono molto piaciute pure le quattro bambine. Noi, loro graziosamente succinti costumi; si sono prodotte in due numeri di * danza. Bresci ha fatto tremare, come al solito, le pareti con la sua voce robusta, e Baxa ci ha fatto rivivere per un poco i bei momenti in cui non ci era difficile sentire della buona musica, mentre l'Orchestra ci ha subito richiamati alla cruda realta' con musica sincopata, del resto eseguita molto bene.

Ma il pezzo forte della serata e' stato, cosa non nuova nelle cronache delle feste nostre; Lucchini, .. dal naso adunco e provocante, che si e' aggrappato al microfono, ed ha mandato il pubblico in vera delizia.

L'orgia di risate da lui provocata, ha scosso le pareti, tanto che, per un istante abbiamo tenuto che, non soddisfatto di quella ciclopica ovazione, il pubblico volesse far subire al grande Lucchini, la stessa sorte che toccò ad Alma Rubens, dopo la proiezione di un film da lei interpretata.

Noi auguriamo al bravo Lucchini altre glorie, perche' noi lo consideriamo "Un Pezzo Forte", capace di divertire, come pochi lo sanno, il nostro pubblico, che di buona allegria ne ha molto bisogno.



APPENDIX E

Sample copy of the Y.M.C.A. Camp Inspection Reports which are similar to the PMGO War Department Reports on microfilm.

USA, 3204.

War Prisoners' Aid of the
World's Committee of Y.M.C.A.
Geneva.

REPORT ON VISIT TO GENERAL PRISON CAMP, UTAH (USA).

On 20 May 1945.

by Mr. Karl Gustaf ALMQUIST, Field Secretary, War Prisoners' Aid
of the World's Committee of Y.M.C.A.

ADMINISTRATIVE DATA:

Commanding Officer :	Colonel Arthur J. Ericsson
Adjutant :	Lt. Young
Executive Officer :	Colonel Edward Baer
Assistant Executive Officers :	Lt. Keimet P. Stever Lt. Bartholomew

RELIGION:

Although there are no prisoner of war pastors in this camp, the chapel, where Catholic and Protestant services are held every Sunday, are well furnished, the equipment including altar hangings and crucifixes which are gifts from the Ecumenical Commission. Father Circuf, of St. Joseph's Church, Ogden, Utah, is in charge of the Catholic services and Pastor Clemons Arms, Brigham, Utah, takes care of the Evangelical services. I am sorry I could not meet the Catholic priest but I had an opportunity to see Pastor Arms, at Brigham, and spend several hours talking with him. Pastor Arms belongs to the Missouri Synod and is himself a second generation American of German ancestry. I got a very good impression of his serious and industrious work in this and other camps (Prisoner of War Camps Clearfield and Bushnell General Hospital, Utah). As he has a rather small congregation at Brigham, he was glad to have the opportunity of being useful in this special kind of work. After the service he was accustomed to spend some time talking with the prisoners of war and they, on their side, seemed eagerly to grasp the opportunity to talk over their religious problems. Pastor Arms had served the Lord's supper to prisoners of war. His quiet and fine character and his good manner of expressing his Christianity and human feelings were guarantee of nobility of spirit and a trustworthiness sincerely valued by the prisoners of war. I suggest that we send him our reprinted theological books and 100 copies each of our devotional books which he can distribute in the camps. I told him that the Ecumenical Commission would be glad to support his work and that he might write us if he needed material for his religious work in the camps.

Even though there were no patients to visit on this day, I felt that my visit nevertheless might have been of some value as it stressed the importance of the religious work and was a reminder, both to the American officers and the spokesman, of that fact. On this particular camp all was well arranged because they had the good fortune to have such a good civilian pastor as Reverend Clemens Harris to take care of the Lutheran services.

Karl ... of ...

APPENDIX F

The following is a list of German prisoners of war which attended Pastor Clemens E. Harms' evangelical services in the year 1945. They were prisoners of war in the States of Utah and Idaho during World War II.

Pastor Harms had each prisoner write his name in a roll book. However, some of the names were not written clear or with adequate addresses. Alfred Koch, Logan, Utah, was responsible for translating the names and addresses.

<u>NAME</u>	<u>ADDRESS</u>
6/7/45	
Schulz, Heinrich	Berlin
Werner, Herbert	Dresden 23, Hubertusstr. 32
Ellerbarken, Erwin	Halle in Westfalen, Kunsebeck 62
Huber, Herman	Munchen-Ost, Holzstr. 12
Thanz, Ewald	Dorum, uber Wesermunde
Becker, Dietrich	Neubruchhausen, bei Beckum
Keonut, Albert	Olbernhau/ Neue-Schonhs
Fiedli, Arthur	Limbach, i. Sa.
Kabus, Karl	Erkheim, Schwaben
Lowenberg, Wilhelm	Elisau / , Kreis Kutno.
Moritz, Richard	Neu-Langsov, bei Werbig-Kreis Leb.
Rau, Theodor H.	Gelsenkirchen, Westfalen
Bruder, Hampel	Neustadt O/S
Rausch, Heinrich	Lunen a/d Lippe, Kirchstrasse 11
6/14/45	
Richter, Karl	Vollmerg, Kreis Schluchten
Ernst, Barwieck	Ratzlingen, Bzrk. Margdeburg
Goetze, Martin	Gasthof Graenitz, uber Freiburg
Mambar, Leonhard	Langlau, Kreis Gunzenhausen Mittelfranken
Melpert, Willi	
Romberg, Wilhelm	Soest, Gatteroperweg 95
Meyer, Walter	Beckum-Westfalen, Prosenauweg
Buttner, Hans	Wutzburg
Huster, Martin	Marieneg, i. Vogtland
Hutinger, Eugen	Fisssginheim, bei Ludwigshafen
Furlaff, Wilhelm	Grossjestin, bei Kolberg Pommern
Taenzer, Walter	Apfelstaedt, in Thuringen
Hund, Friedrich	Schwabach, Lindenstr. 24
Crouebach, Otto	Kaiserslautern, Beethovenstr. 22
Felgner, Arno	Wettersdorf, Bzrk. Dobeln
Schulze, Alfred	Luckstedt, Kreis Osterburg
Goppel, Nicklaus	Ansbach, Mittelfranken
Wirth, Gottfried	Taubaldsmuhle, Post Helmbecht

Schwarze, Helmut
Niebuhr, Willi

6/28/45

Unbeheud, Ernest
Scheffler, Herman
Kutteman, Johann
Teske, Otto
Gubke, Gerold
Delling, Alfred
Bucke, Karl
Pfeifer, Kurt
Neumann, Erhard
Lingmann, Johannes

8/7/45

Kremp, Johannes
Borchers, Kaspers
Felgner, Herbert
Heimrodinger, Paul
Klibs, Rudolf
Roofls, Konrad
Lohrenz, Gunter
Hager, Kilian
Kasper, Johann
Kathmann, Wilhelm
Wohnhas, Robert
Muller, Friedrich
Zeitler, Otto
Myer, Max
Ehrhardt, Hans
Mieth, Wolfram
Urban, Adolf
Kofschnitzki, Erich
Fitsch, Dr. Christian

15/7/45

Rohrer, Karl
Pamkoke, Gustov
Schelbuch, Eugen
Braun, Otto
Siegel, Karl Heinz
Heinrich, Walter
Bek., Karl
Muller, Jakob
Lang, Karl
Bazarowski, Leopold

Neuengorma bei Dornburg
Nateln, Kreis Uelzen

Hassel, Saar
Untergruggenbach, Heilb.
Bocholt, in Westfalen
Hohenewerbergen, Kreis Verden, Aller
Schwabach, Bayern
Diethensdorf, Sachsen
Toruesch, Holstein
Dresden, Sachsen
Drebach, Erzgebirge
Tripsa, Lam. Bez. Kassel

Konigsberg, Ostpreussen
Holtheide, Kreis Leer, Ostfriesland
Reichenbach, Sachsen
Stuttgart
Lippe
Norden, Ostfriesland
Lubeck
Oberalbach bei Nurnberg
Gr. Zeissig, Kreis
Delwenhorst in Oldenburg
Geislingen, Steige
Karlsruhe, Baden
Selm, Westfalen
Marienberg, Sachsen
Ettischleben, bei Arnstadt, Thuringen
Borsdorf
Hausen, im Tannus
Eспенkrug
Emmerich, am Rhein

Frei-Laubesheim, Rhein
Bielefeld, Eckendorferstr. 21
Stuttgart, Bad Kannstadt, Limburgerallee 7
Schauernheim, Ludwigshafen, Rhein, Steigerstr. 21
Niederbieber, bei Neuwied
Leidorf, Riesengebirge, Schlesien
Herrenberg Krs. Boblingen
Huhnerfeld, Saar
Wien 2, Erlafstr. 8/8
Wien IX, Wahringer-Gurtel 130

29/7/45

Metzler, Hans Gunter
 Donal, Hermann
 Floreck, Herbert
 Doberstein, Rudolf

Cottbus, Sandower Hauptstr. 4
 Bornheim b/Bonn
 Thale/Harz, Obersteigenerweg 28
 Wartigau

5/8/45

Franke, Willi
 Nick, Jakob
 Jager, Hans
 Teichmann, Arno
 Schneider, Kurt
 Scholz, Julius
 Schidat, Josef
 Arndt, Gerhard
 Sofsdorf, Erich
 Maier, Karl

Wahnfried, Werra Hessen
 Weinheim, Baden
 Drossdorf bei Olswitz
 Leipzig, S3
 Wittgendorf B 16 Chemnitz
 Posen
 Litauen, Lithuania
 Sachsenhausen, Waldeck
 Kassel, Funffurterstr. 4
 Maulburg, Wiesental

19/8/45

Schnittcher, Hermann
 Dalheimer, Rudolf
 Dasler, Walter

Essen, Rustermark 70
 Breienthal, Bez. Trier
 Schwarzbach, Schlesien

26/8/45

Baudszus, Fritz
 Linz, Armin
 Zuter, Johann
 Herzog, Dieter
 Schreiber, Siegfried

Jagsten über Schilling Ostpreussen
 Schweinfurt, Rittergafstr. 2
 Wilsau, Kreis Bentheim
 Karlsruhe, Baden
 Leipzig, Kaiser-Wilhelm Strasse 44

2/9/45

Segmüller, Heinrich
 Goebel, Manfred
 Dahl, Otto
 Spill, Andreas
 Witzmann, Werner
 Pickatz, Johann

Walshausen, Pfalz
 Schluchtern, Hessen-Nassau
 Saarau, Schlesien
 Bad Hersfeld, Bez. Kassel
 Stutzerbach, Thuringen
 Zawadzki, Oberschlesien

15/9/45

Prassler, Alfred
 Kratzer, Johann
 Engel, Adolf
 Witze, Rudi

Oberndorf, in Thuringen
 Alfeld, über Herzbruck, Mittelfranken
 Regensburg, Bayern
 Scharfenberg, Sachsen

20/6/45

Neddermeyer, Walter Hamburg
 Otenauf, Hans
 Heider, Hermann
 Funk, Karl

Gera, Richterstr. 21, Thuringen
 Piohelshohe b/Posen
 Schaffhausen, Kreis Heidelberg

Gerling, Werner
 Pfeifer, Willi
 Polkow, Walter
 Wolfram, Heinz
 Norstmeier, Wilhelm
 Cres, Rudi
 Lienemann, Gerhardq
 Herold, Georg
 Hindritz, Jan Berenz
 Langer, Karl
 Schlafke, Erich
 Krusche, Hermann
 Tietjen, Johann
 Brochmann, Karl
 Schmidt, Erich
 Stadler, Fritz
 Palmic, Henri
 Becker, Lorenz
 Hennig, Kurt
 Foeris, Matthias
 Ruschke, Hermann
 Wietmer, Artur
 Hahn, Rudolf
 Cohrs, Heinrich
 Walff, Hans
 Losemann, Wilhelm
 Sorgatz, Alfred
 Berger, Karl
 Wirdtz, Hermann
 Ross, Friedrich
 Iggene, Hans
 Fitsche, Rudolf
 Pflaumer, Karl
 Ott, Alfred

29/7/45

Eberlein, Walter
 Bauer, Hans
 Arnds, Karl
 Wege, Ludwig
 Metternich, Karl
 Burmeister, Martin
 Cutterstein, Heinz
 Kerchling, Gustav
 Kelch, Gustav
 Kirn, Gottlieb
 Schrodi, Kristian
 Schonau, Theodor

26/8/45

Dzinballe, Willi
 Muller, Karl
 Horn, Ludwig

Dortmund, Stahlwerkstr. 77
 Haaspe in Westfalen
 Hamburg
 Premzlau a/Main
 Freienhagen
 Bockau im Erzgebirge
 Oldenburg
 Fulmbach
 Georgsdorf, Kreis Bentheim
 Hornitz bei Zittau
 Borgsdorf, bei Berlin
 Margsdorf, Kreis Kreuzburg O/P
 Sandbostel Bez. Bremen
 Hamburg Lohbrugge, Hindenburgstr. 4.
 St. Kilian, bei Schleissingen, Thuringen
 Fahnsdorf, Steiermark-Osterr.
 Zossen, bei Berlin
 Marburg a. Lahn
 Melzen, Hannover
 Geilenkirchen
 Achim, bei Bremen
 Litzmannstradt, Polen
 Thalheim, Sachsen, Plan 7
 Hamburg-Altona
 Schwerin, i/M.
 Munster i. Westfalen
 Ringenwalde (Ostsee)
 O'bach Annweiler
 Wremen, Kreis Wesermunde
 Bayreuth, Bayern
 Norden, Ostfriesland
 Niederlichtenau uber Fulsnitz i. Sachsen
 Weissenburg i. Bayern, Wildbuststrasse 12
 Neuhof, im Taunus, bei Wiesbaden

Cranwahl No. 4 bei Annaberg
 Erzgebirge, Sachsen

Muhlheim, Ruhr
 Vierenburg, Harz
 Ohlau in Schlesien
 Linkenheim
 Sesau, Kreis Freiburg, i. B.
 Mollendorf, Mansfeld

Peisterwitz, Kr. Ohlau, Schlesien
 Wallendorf, Thuringen
 Schneckenlohe, Oberfranken

Rausch, Adam
 Dygar, Otto
 von Grunhagen, Hans
 Wurzel, Peter
 Lang, George
 Glockler, George
 Korz, Johann

Mainz, Ginzheim
 Rosseu /Braunsberg, Ostpreussen
 Helmerkamp, Celle
 Kirchenlamitz, Oberfranken
 Kirchenlamitz, Oberfranken
 Albeck/Ulm a. D.
 Volklingen, Saar

9/9/45

Bauert, Karl
 Himmlein, Konrad
 Reuter, Jakob
 Bode, Willi
 Engel, Walter
 Mangel, Helmut
 Plamann, Karl
 Geisler, Heinrich
 Sarolatzki, Walter
 Meh, Erios
 Popp, Arthur
 Goebel, Hermann
 Tammen, Wilhelm
 Hennig, Kurt

Badenweiler, Amt Mullheim Baden
 Frankfurt, a/M
 Bonn a. Rhein, Stephanstr. 1
 Gottiggen, Deutsche Garden
 Aschersleben, Harz
 Litzmannstadt
 Koslin, i/P.
 Liegnitz, in Schlesien
 Essen, Rheinland
 Minten, Kr. Vangard, Pommern
 Kirchenlamitz, Oberschlesien
 Erfurt, Thuringen
 Hohenkirchen, Friesland
 Uelzen, Ham. Luisenstr. 18

8/6/45

Schulz, Heinrich
 Huhn, Rudolph
 Hemp, Fritz
 Pechhold, Max
 Pedenouth, Hans
 Schautner, Franz
 Schule, Paul
 Pfitzmann, Bernhard
 Henning, Willi
 Hermann, Josef
 Hammann, Eugen
 Haschem, Kurt
 Neeb, Wilhelm
 Fubrisius, Oskar
 Grosch, Erhard
 Hofmann, Georg
 Hangel, Alfred
 Blossch, Wilhelm
 Kasper, Wilhelm
 Fruh, Hans
 Wiegel, Heino
 Stief, Heinrich
 Killiau, Kurt
 Mielke, Martin
 Fuchs, Konrad

Berlin
 Frankfurt, on der Oder
 Strausberg, bei Berlin
 Schwarzdorf, bei Mitritz, Oberfranken
 Stuttgart
 Hinterbruhl
 Berlin
 Schonbrunn, Kreis Sprottau
 Strenlow, uber Grimmen Pommern
 Mannheim
 Bolander/Westmark
 Berlin-Friedrichsfeld
 Ebertshausen, bei Limburg, Lahn
 Zinten, Ostpreussen
 Malkwitz, Oschatz, Sa.
 Untertschring/Munchen
 Sornwitz/Dresden
 Konstanz/Bodensee
 Herold/Unterlahn
 Nurnberg, Moosstr. 46
 Tespe, bei Luneburg
 Konigsheim bei Glatz, Schlesien
 Mannheim-Kafertal
 Regenwalde, Pommern
 Laffenau, bei Nurnberg

Kassmann, Bruno
 Kuhn, Hermann
 Feess, Gerhard
 Sahir, Heinrich
 Eckart, Hans
 Hoffmann, Ernst
 Happe, Paul
 Tuffna, Ernst
 Stadlmais, Hermann
 Horstmann, Henry
 Haefner, Bernhard
 Fasel, Ludwig
 Richter, Eugen

23/6/45

Krause, Heinz
 Schartner, Franz
 Geske, Ewald
 Kuchel, Friedrich
 Stein, Paul
 Hoffmann, Helmut
 Pfann, Fritz
 Sakonoshi, Ernst
 Himmel, Oswald

16/7/45

Pischer, Fritz
 Wolff, Walter
 Granitz, Gerhard
 Moller, Alexander

30/7/45

Ehler, Willi

6/18/45

Olschewski, Max
 Schoenrock, Karl
 Halle, Gerhard

23/6/45

Schulz, Heinrich
 Rascher, Heinz
 Lehmenkuhler, Bernhard
 Huser, Ernst
 Reuter, Anton
 Martin, Heinz
 Tricher, Josef
 Rottschafer, Walter
 Rauhut, Paul

Magdeburg
 Dietenshausen, Kreis Wittgenst.
 Altheim, be Ulm
 Rogallen, Kreis Lyck Ostpreussen
 Gau-Odenheim, Rhein-Hessen
 Leipe, Kreis Jauer No. 10b
 Oberlauterbank, Kreis Jauer
 Hartmannsdorf, Kreis Zwickau a/Sa.
 Koblenz/Rhein
 Hamburg
 Steinbach-Hallenberg i. Thuringen
 Hummertroth, Post Hoehst, Odenwau
 Berlin, Grunewald

Langenbielau, Schlesien
 Wien
 Hamburg
 Tutschfelden im Braggau
 Idar-Oberstein
 Schneidemul
 Worms
 Arnsberg, Westfalen
 Wartegau, Litzmannstadt

Gotha/Thuringen

Karlsruhe

Bromberg-Westpreussen
 Pommern
 Corlitz

Berlin
 Leipzig
 Arnsberg
 Niederskreisbach uber Betzdorf Sieg., Rheinland

Jena
 Hoff
 Bielefeld
 Posen

Essner, Bernhard
 Junkersdorf, Engelbert
 Holz, Franz

Dusseldorf
 Rheinland
 Zeutern/Bruchsal

27/8/45

Schulze, Reinhold
 Hoppe, Karl
 Muller, Hermann
 Kern, Johannes
 Freitag, Heinrich
 Scholz, Heinrich

Gelsenkirchen
 Schildberg
 Konigsberg Ostpreussen
 Weissenborn-Creysa, Kassel
 Lipschin, Kreis , Post Lienfeb
 Berlin

8/7/45

Schrall, Josef
 Kutsch, Albert
 Reddenauer, Konrad
 Schaffler, Alfred
 Podrazil, Alois
 Hondl, Rudolf
 Duld, Josef
 Kuhndt, Josef
 Kronwald, Alfred
 Gemitz, Johann
 Menzel, Heinrich
 Grafling, Viktor
 Plenberger, Franz
 Bauer, Rudolf
 Keller, Reinhold
 Dunkler, Gerhard
 Lahs, Paul
 Scholz, Heinrich
 Ehler, Willi
 Baudach, Wilhelm
 Belles, Karl
 Tocsecke, Heinz
 Schaeufele, Hans
 Leitsch, Kurt
 Pellny, Kurt
 Lange, Michael
 Heine, Hans
 Ziller, Max
 Scholler, Jurgen
 Feem, Henrik
 Heifez, Walter
 Herrmann, Friedrich
 Kloo, Otto
 Lerch, Hans
 Willner, Horst
 Vetter, Helmut

Wien
 Lodz
 Zickau
 Posen
 Wien
 Wien
 Wien
 Muhlheim, Ruhr
 Besserabien
 Tawoggen

Glucksburg
 Klagenfurt, Karnten
 Litzmanstadt
 Limbach, Sa.
 Jena
 Gramsdorf
 Berlin
 Dresden
 Waldenburg
 Worth, Main
 Stolberg, Harz
 Langenau, bei Ulm a/D.
 Magdeburg a/Elbe
 Koln
 Montig, Kreis Rosenberg, Westpreussen
 Hannover
 Nieder /Erzgebirge
 Potsdam, Babelsberg
 Herligenhafen/Holstein
 Mannheim
 Konstanz, Kreuzlingerstr. 4
 Bodenrod, Hessen
 Hochheim/Main
 Konigsberg, Preussen
 Briesen, bei Brieg/Breslau

Nickel, Albert
 Demmler, Konrad
 Thiel, Walter
 Rohde, Walter
 Kunkel, Kurt
 Kuhn, Bernhard
 Munster, Ludwig
 Richter, Franz
 Phannstiel, Kurt
 Ehler, Willi
 Kloo, Otto

31/7/45
 Mertineit, Erich
 Kuist, Heinrich
 Meyer, Hans

7/8/45
 Wettling, Ernst

28/8/45
 Reissmann, Helmut
 Bobzin, Friedrich Wilhelm
 Kruger, Karl
 Ehler, Willi
 Pillaty, Ewald

28/8/45
 Raittsel, Andreas
 Geise, Walter
 Ehler, Willi

Lyckland, Ostpreussen
 Crottendorf, Erzgebirge, Gartenstr.
 Bochum, Hattingerstr. 279
 Demmin, Luisenstr. 10
 Berlin, Johanniterstr. 7
 Frankfurt/M., Leerbachstr. 84
 Echtendingen, Bei Stuttgart
 Kotfer, Anhalt
 Nurnberg
 Grunwettersbach, Hauptstr. 13
 Bodenrod, Hessen

Saalau/Ostpreussen
 Obersuhl, bei Kassel
 Torgau, Elbe

Karlsruhe/B., Gebhardstr. 14

Luby, Mecklenburg
 Solsfeld, Baden
 Grunwettersbach bei Karlsruhe
 Seenwalde-Ortelsburg, Ostpreussen

Munchen, Bavaria
 Dorlin, Preussen
 Grunwettersbach bei Karlsruhe

VITA

Ralph A. Busco

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: A History of the Italian and German Prisoner of War Camps in Utah and Idaho during World War II

Major Field: History

Biographical Information:

Personal Data: Born in Montpelier, Idaho, August 29, 1941, the son of Sylvester and Nathel Busco.

Education: Attended grade school and junior high in Montpelier, Idaho; graduated from Montpelier High School in 1959; received an Associate of Science degree from Weber Junior College, Ogden, Utah, in June, 1961; received a Bachelor of Science degree from the Utah State University with a major in History and Secondary Education, in June, 1964; received the Master of Science degree from the Utah State University, with a major in history, in June, 1967.

Professional Experience: Played varsity football at Weber Junior College in 1959-61; served a mission for the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormon) in the country of Switzerland, 1961-62; a member of Pi Kappa Alpha social fraternity while attending Utah State University; and is currently teaching social studies at Kearns High School, Salt Lake City, Utah.