### Table of Contents

**5 Machiavelli & the Ethics of Control**  
**Dr. M. Raphael Johnson**  
His book *The Prince* knocked down a hornets' nest, due to the many controversial statements it contained. Are today’s American ruling elites Machiavelli’s greatest disciples? . . .

**11 America’s Greatest Generation?**  
**Alex S. Perry Jr.**  
News reader Tom Brokaw claims Americans were gung-ho to go off to fight the Japanese and the Germans after Pearl Harbor. But, in spite of (or is it because of?) his seven million-dollar-a-year salary, Brokaw is not telling it like it was . . .

**21 The Crematoria at Auschwitz**  
**Russell Granata**  
A detailed analysis of the data available regarding the crematoria of Auschwitz-Birkenau proves that the theories (or, more accurately, fables) of mass executions in the so-called “death camp” are actually nothing but a house of cards, with each card being a falsehood. . . .

**29 The Return of “Mr. Death”**  
**Fred Leuchter**  
Fred Leuchter, America’s leading expert on gas chambers and other modes of capital punishment, explains how he became a Revisionist and the trials he had to suffer for telling the truth. Here’s his paper delivered to last year’s TBR conference. . . .

**32 The Very First Republic of Texas**  
**Frank Jackson**  
A little-remembered but still exciting chapter of Texas history is brought to light. . . .

**35 FDR’s Favorite Commie**  
**Dr. M. Raphael Johnson**  
In fighting Nazi Germany, was “Uncle Joe” Stalin merely defending the motherland, or is that a false scenario? A book review. . . .

**43 Adolf Hitler’s Tragic Life**  
**R.M. West**  
To be acceptable to the establishment, you practically have to dismiss Adolf Hitler as a devil in human form. What made this ever-controversial German leader tick? Was he out to conquer the world? . . .

**51 “City of the Gods” Emerges from Cambodian Rainforest**  
**John Tiffany**  
A lost city of temples was found in Cambodia in the 19th century. So grand were the remaining ruins that the natives, who had only vague knowledge of the mysterious city themselves, believed it must have been built by gods or giants . . .

**55 A Look Into the Private Journals of an American Icon**  
**Michael Collins Piper**  
Unusual insights into the thinking of “Lucky Lindy,” the famous flier, are provided by his daily journals from World War II. . . .

**63 A Cancer Infects the National Socialist Party in the Form of Röhm**  
**Waffen SS Gen. Leon Degrelle**  
The radical Nazi Ernst Röhm and moderate leader Adolf Hitler both wanted to establish a new kind of German army. But they found themselves on a collision course, thanks to Röhm’s continuing provocations. . . .

**67 Unforeseen Consequences of Yalta**  
**Robert L. Logan**  
After making hypocritical promises about their glowing and altruistic war aims, the Big Three got down to real business at Yalta and a vindicative, barbarous power-fest to upend the world began. Unfortunately, the power of Josef Stalin had been underestimated. . . .
M any of us are now wondering whether the truth about the events of Sept. 11 will ultimately be told or whether they, too, will be subjected to what Jean Jacques Rousseau bluntly described as “falsification of history.”

It took many years for the machinations and intrigues that led up to such tragedies as the sinking of the Lusitania, the attack on Pearl Harbor, the JFK assassination and Watergate—among other landmark events—to be dissected by honest historians who determined that although these events altered the course of history, the “official” version in each case wasn’t even true.

On the cover of this issue of TBR is a well-known painting of Italian Renaissance political advisor, writer and thinker Niccolo Machiavelli, the subject of our lead article.

What is amazing about the work of Machiavelli is the extent to which the American ruling class has adopted his political methods to extend and consolidate their own illegitimate rule. Our cover story on this great Italian is dedicated to pursuing this idea: that the American “elitists” are pure Machiavellians, and, therefore, to understand Machiavelli is, to a great extent, to penetrate the minds of the plutocratic ruling clans and cults. The connection between present U.S. domestic policy and Machiavelli’s ideas on political domination is too close to be coincidental. Read our lead story, starting on pages 4 and 5, for more.

This issue also features the second place winner in TBR’s essay contest. (We brought you the first place winner in our March/April 2001 issue). While NBC’s talking head, Tom Brokaw, wrote of “the greatest generation” in a book of that title, our essay by Alex S. Perry Jr., a member of that generation, takes a closer look at what Brokaw didn’t tell his readers.

The ever-controversial subject of “the Holocaust” is the topic of two pieces in this issue of TBR. First is an article representing the research of Carlo Mattogno, the leading Holocaust Revisionist in Italy and certainly one of the cutting-edge researchers working on the face of the planet today. This is an English translation of Mattogno’s work as presented by America’s own Russell Granata at TBR’s Second International Conference on Authentic History and the First Amendment held last June in Washington, D.C. Mattogno compares what is claimed about the alleged crematories at Auschwitz with the very real evidence which points in other directions entirely. We also bring you the paper presented by Fred Leuchter, of the report that outlined his findings during a scientific study of the reputed gassing facilities at Auschwitz. Leuchter tells what price honest men pay for telling the truth.

A very real Holocaust is the subject of a new book by author Joachim Hoffman, Stalin’s War of Extermination, recently translated into English and reviewed here by our colleague, Dr. Johnson. It turns out that Hitler’s invasion of the Soviet Union was defensive in nature—not offensive. Stalin was planning to invade not only Germany, but all of Western Europe. Here’s the truth at last in a published book.

Speaking of Hitler—who is always a topic of fascination for the major media—writer R.M. West takes a new look at Hitler from a different perspective that’s worth considering.

In addition, Gen. Leon Degrelle’s always fascinating accounts return this issue with a continuation of his overview of the growing conflict between Hitler and his longtime close associate-turned-rival, Ernst Röhm.

On page 51 we take a jump back into the ancient past and examine the mysterious “lost city” in Cambodia known as Angkor. The city was rediscovered as recently as the 19th century, but already myths have come to be attached to its legend that need to be dispelled. The truth about this forgotten city of temples is fantastic enough, without resorting to embellishments. Indeed, incredible as it might sound, there is reason to think the site is linked to Giza, Egypt and the pyramid complex located there.

Our longtime contributing editor, Michael Collins Piper, takes us on a highly-readable excursion through little-known entries from the otherwise much-discussed Wartime Journals of Charles Lindbergh, the famed aviator. Although many are familiar with Lindbergh’s public addresses and quotations therefrom, Piper’s guided tour of the flyer’s diaries provides you some additional insights into “Lucky Lindy” that you’ve never had unless you’ve actually tackled the massive Wartime Journals on your own.

We wrap up this issue with a bit of Americanca, two stories dealing with America’s always-larger-than-life state, the former Republic of Texas. Frank Jackson’s first contribution tells of Texas, long before the Alamo. His second tells of America’s little-known “second Ellis Island,” the city of Galveston, which was a jumping-off point for widespread Eastern European Jewish immigration into the American heartland.

TBR is happy to announce that June 14, 15 and 16 will be dedicated to a third international conference on Revisionist history and the First Amendment, to be held in Washington, D.C. This conference will be even more stimulating, unique and educational than last year’s confab which attracted over 400. This year, nearly every major area of Revisionism will be tackled, from U.S. politics to Eastern Europe, with a new cast of speakers presenting papers, each with his own unique “take” on Revisionism, politics and the professional distortion of history American universities specialize in. Note the ad on the back cover.
t has been well over a month, at the time of this writing, since the horrible, kamikaze-like atrocities in New York City and at the Pentagon claimed thousands of innocent lives. And, as everyone knows, these incidents were followed up with a rash of anthrax attacks, which also claimed American lives. It is no surprise to well-informed Revisionists that the controlled media is full of so-called experts, corrupt academics (who support the CIA/Israeli line without fail) and recently dusted off, vulgar, Cold War-era slogans. None of this prattle, in any respect, provides any semblance of reasoned discussion on the realities behind these major criminal actions.

The present media argument is that these terrible acts were the work of Osama bin-Laden, a millionaire Saudi businessman who, around the mid-1990s, came out of nowhere to become the “mastermind” of international terrorism. Mr. bin-Laden, however, has denied any involvement in these recent attacks, which certainly is not the typical operating procedure of terror groups, where normally many obscure cells claim responsibility for politicians slipping on ice. At the time of this writing, no one has claimed responsibility for the attacks. It is claimed that this man leads a network of terror cells and activists throughout the Middle East and Central Asia. However, as the U.S. government rains missiles upon yet another hapless Third World country and puts more American soldiers in harm’s way, a few points should be kept in mind for the intelligent reader when dealing with these pressing matters: There can be no question that the operation carried out on September 11 was massive, requiring the utmost discipline and coordination of hundreds of people, both in Asia and in North America. We are dealing with at least four large jets from two major airlines that hit their targets—without a hitch—at the two most visible symbols of American financial and military power. This does not include the likely back-ups traveling on other flights. This meticulously orchestrated attack does not have the characteristics of a normal terrorist operation.

At present, there is no terrorist organization operating anywhere, that anyone knows of, that has the capability, sophistication and manpower to pull such an operation off, which was done evidently without the slightest difficulty and with hardly a hitch. The blame immediately assigned to Mr. bin-Laden, with little or no actual evidence, is suspicious to say the least. By definition, terrorist groups are small, organized into decentralized cells of a dozen people at the most. Recruits are generally not taken from the upper strata of society, where the sophistication necessary to engage in such operations as the 9/11 incidents could be found. (In Afghanistan, there is no upper stratum of the population.)

Osama bin-Laden has not, in any respect, showed this level of sophistication in previous actions attributed to him. A few bombs at American embassies were terrorist boilerplate, not related to this massive and highly intricate operation that slaughtered thousands of Americans. In fact, no one in the Middle East, or in world terrorism in general, has ever shown such coordination. Many Revisionists are finding it hard to believe that these terrorist groups, who have not succeeded in removing one solitary Jewish settler from the West Bank or making even the slightest dent in Israeli military might, now suddenly are capable of operations that many major intelligence agencies would have difficulty completing with such near-perfect success.

Moreover, the old infrastructure of the terror groups is largely a memory. Previously, the Soviet Union was funding and providing intelligence and military advice to Syria and Iraq. Such states, in turn, were funding anti-Western military operations, providing passports and other supplies, as well as diplomatic protection. Today, such a relationship has disappeared. Iran and Egypt are, today, far from radical states. Syria is run by a young man with little interest in politics. Further, the Syrian government has moved closer to the United States since Syria cooperated with Desert Storm in 1991. Gone are the days when Assad or Abu Nidal could shake down the Saudis to fund their operations in Lebanon and elsewhere. Iraq is prostrate, incapable of feeding her population. The Afghan Taliban is broke, struggling daily to maintain control of a small portion of Afghanistan with 1970s-vintage weapons and a complete lack of discernible income, and Libya has apparently long since retired from the terror business.

In short, the terrorist network in the Middle East is but a shell of its former self. But even when it was functioning at its most efficient level, not even the most daring of terrorist leaders ever attempted an operation at such a scale, never mind being able to pull it off.

Of course, the above is little more than a few random thoughts, evidently not interesting enough to be part of America’s present shrill conversation about the attacks. One thing is crystal clear, however: The only real beneficiary of the attack is Ariel Sharon, Israeli prime minister. Now, finally, he does not need to maintain even the pretense of worrying about the peace process. He has a free hand with the Intifada, and one shudders to think of its use. Israel no longer has to worry about pictures of Palestinian kids with bullets in their backs, or bulldozed Palestinian homes, which have been haunting them in the Western media. Certainly, Sharon has not the slightest worry of any diminution of American assistance or any serious anti-Zionist rhetoric by anyone with any power in the near future.

Temporarily, at least, it appears that the Palestinian cause has suffered a major setback, and the moral capital gained by the murders of children Shin Bet committed over the last 18 months is a distant memory. Zionism again appears an “embattled” and “civilized” idea immersed in a sea of violence and irrationality. There is not the slightest benefit to the Arab cause to be found in recent terrorist acts.
Botticelli painted Pallas and the Centaur to memorialize the Florentine triumph over the pope's devious behavior. The centaur, symbolizing the Pazzi conspiracy, cowers before the goddess of wisdom, symbolizing Lorenzo the Magnificent and Florence, who is pulling him away from the crumbling Vatican.
Politics is about power, or, more accurately, about the mode and manner of its use. It is equally about morality, or the constraints one is required to place upon the use of power. Morality is the action of reason, or the mind, upon the will, or the appetites, and therefore, morality in politics concerns the application of reason to the unlimited and directionless will-to-power. In order to critique the abuse of power, then, one must have a concept of moral behavior, a notion of the good and at least a rough idea of the purpose of life.

Niccolò Machiavelli (1469-1527) was the first thinker in modern Western history to worry about skillful manipulation of power and to define political rule as such. Many, such as Leo Strauss (1899-1973), in his thoughts on Machiavelli, believed him to be the embodiment of the will-to-power, the notion of power without any external moral standard or constraint. Others believe Machiavelli to be just the opposite, publishing his works on the methods of manipulating political power precisely to warn the opinion leaders of the Italian states of his day of the methods of political enslavement. Either way, Machiavelli needs to be studied because his understanding of the uses and abuses of political power is as relevant today as in the 16th century, and there is no question that the manipulation of power for the sake of the personal ends of the ruling classes has not changed. Machiavelli, then, becomes a powerful tool in understanding the methods and mentality of America’s present corrupt ruling establishment.

This essay will explain Machiavelli’s idea of the methods of political enslavement, or more accurately, the manipulative uses of political power serving the private ends of its masters. Its purpose is to further illumine the American political, social and moral landscape, where an elite cabal of party leaders, bankers and industrialists, federal judges and other bureaucrats, media oligarchs and university professors have effected a revolution in American life over the last 40 years. Their methods of both reaching power as well as maintaining it are nearly exactly as Machiavelli had explained in many significant respects.

Machiavelli’s two major works are The Prince* (1513) and Discorsi sopra la prima deca di Tito Livio (“Discourses Upon the First Ten Books of Titus Livy,” 1513-1515). It will be these that this essay relies upon, using the recently edited and translated volume on these two works by David Wootton (Niccolò Machiavelli, Selected Political Writings, Hackett, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1994), considered the most accurate, lively and faithful of our modern translations. The Prince will be cited as “P,” with “D” for Discourses throughout the text.

Machiavelli’s work deals solely with the use of political power. Its dynamics was his sole concern. More specifically, he deals with how anyone can acquire power and then keep it. For Machiavelli, the conception of maintaining power revolves around the all-important idea of convincing one’s subjects that this use of power is legitimate. In Western history, Machiavelli was the first to deal with the questions of propaganda and psychological warfare as a part of statecraft. Machiavelli did not believe for one second that any of the princes with whom he had a personal relationship were legitimate rulers, and therefore, if they were to hold on to power, they needed, above all, to convince the population that they were legitimate rulers. Whether or not he was acting in an advisory manner to Italian princes, or their hapless subjects, is another matter, and much ink has been spilled on this topic. For Machiavelli, regardless, the notion of political power was largely psychological.

Importantly, within the pages of The Discourses, there is much information on political liberty. Such suggests that Machia-
This right has two extremely useful consequences for any state. The first is that citizens, for fear of being accused, dare not attempt to do anything that might harm the state, and if they do try to do anything they are immediately and impartially crushed. The other is that one gives an institutionalized outlet to those resentments that build up in a city. Otherwise, when these resentments have no institutionalized outlet, they cause people to act outside the law, which leads to the collapse of the whole political system. (D 102)

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“A prince wishing to keep his state is very often forced to do evil; for when that body is corrupt whom do you think you have need of to maintain yourself... you have to submit to its humors and to gratify them, and then good works will do you harm.”

—Niccolo Machiavelli

This is of importance for two reasons: Firstly, Machiavelli begins this chapter by referring to “public accusation” as a “right,” and that it is useful for offenses against public liberty. Soon after, however, he describes people being publicly accused as daring to “harm the state.” He then refers to their “crushing” as “impartial.” In other words, if the procedures are correct and accepted by the public mind as legitimate, then the state can crush its opponents under the color of law. The power is identical, as is the interest. The psychology is, however, that there are institutional “procedures” that provide the crushing of one’s enemies with some pseudo-legal coating. He says something similar in Chapter 9: “If you become an absolute ruler in a republic, you should also consider how much more praise, once Rome was ruled by emperors, was awarded to those emperors who abided by the laws and were benevolent than those who were the opposite.” (D 111)

Secondly, in Chapter 33, he warns the prince against being evenhanded with his subjects only in time of need: “For each person will conclude that he does not have you to think for the good you do him, but your enemies.” (D 136) Even in Chapter 58, in an interesting passage seemingly attacking monarchy, Machiavelli claims that the population is just as good as a monarch in making laws. He concludes by claiming that both make mistakes, and the multitudes are just as susceptible to fits of passions as are individual rulers. Such clearly shows that Machiavelli certainly had some interest in moderating the power of monarchy, but, more often than not, in the interest of the state itself.

These sorts of passages are typical of Machiavelli in that one is able to take both a cynical and a positive interpretation of it, and this is probably no accident. The cynical is that he is advising dictators to permit some liberty to justify their power; the positive is that he is asking for certain rights and privileges for his people in the guise of acting in the prince’s interest. It is precisely that he might be doing both, that is, ingratiating himself with his clients while also assisting the Italian people, that has kept interest in Machiavelli so strong over such a long period of time.

Chapter 18 is of interest to the present American condition. The issue here is whether or not a corrupt people can ever be free. Many American nationalists seek salvation in the restoration of constitutional government or in “getting our people elected.” This view is refuted rather well here:

Moreover, the institutions and laws that have been established in a republic at the time of its foundation, when the individuals who made it up were good, are no longer appropriate when they become bad. If the laws of a city are relatively easily changed to take account of changing circumstances, the institutions, on the other hand, never change, or do so only at long intervals. The result is that the new laws are insufficient, because the institutions that remain unchanged distort their impact. (D 127)

Machiavelli was a republican, of sorts, under certain circumstances. He realized, however, that political liberty is only possible when a people is worthy of it. Our present state, the state of the complete revolutionizing of American society and the de facto overthrow of the American political and social order and of basic moral norms, cannot be understood without reference to the people who both affected it and were affected by it:

If you want to take power in a republic and change its constitution for the worse, you will only succeed if the citizens have long been corrupt, if little by little, for generation after generation, decay has set in. Now this is bound to happen, as I have explained, whenever the republic is not regularly renewed by the exemplary conduct of good citizens or not brought back to first principles with new laws. (D 198)

It is not institutions that make citizens good. It is the combination of a strong culture, religion and morals that does this. The Constitution has been overthrown precisely because American citizens permitted this to happen. The decay, so to speak, began previous to the revolution, or else the revolutionary politics of the previous three generations is inexplicable. Elites can always be expected to behave in rapacious ways. The common people are far from immune to this. But when revolutionary elites seek to overthrow a moral and political system, they need to be able to count on a weak, effeminate and corrupt population to stand out of the way, or, as in the case of America, largely assist the revolutionary regime in its thinly disguised agenda.

*   *   *

Machiavelli’s general task, regardless of who he might have been writing for, was to understand the methods of control. The Prince, Machiavelli’s most famous book, was primarily concerned with this. The present essay centers around the idea, easily proved, that the American republic (that is, its constitution, religion, traditions and general moral understandings) was over-
themselves: as is evidenced by such statements as these from the new elite tradition has been replaced by an "elite" left-revolutionary cabal, a new moral code for Americans. Thus, the American republican no longer suitable to the new global order that also required a revisionalist and republican ethic of American political history was unnecessary to maintain the level of consumption and definition of happiness our new elites have come to deem most profitable. The transition to this new order is largely occurring through and within a partisan oligarchic media monopoly that has effectively become a "one-party" state that utilizes and manipulates what is left of the American political parties to further its platform. The intricate and subtle are often thrown in the 20th century (particularly the second half thereof) and replaced by what is effectively a "one-party" state that utilizes an oligarchic and partisan media monopoly to change the ideas of the American population to better suit its largely economic ends. Nihilism and emotivism in ethics have become necessary to maintain the level of consumption and definition of happiness our new elites have come to deem most profitable. The traditionalist and republican ethic of American political history was no longer suitable to the new global order that also required a new moral code for Americans. Thus, the American republican tradition has been replaced by an "elite" left-revolutionary cabal, as is evidenced by such statements as these from the new elite themselves:

- "Nationhood as we know it will be obsolete, all states will recognize a single, global authority. . . . National sovereignty was not such a great idea after all." (Strobe Talbot, former deputy secretary of state. "The Birth of a Global Nation," Time, July 20, 1992.)
- "Every child in America entering school at the age of five is insane, because he comes to school with certain allegiances toward our Founding Fathers, toward his parents, toward our elected officials, toward a belief in a supernatural being, and toward the sovereignty of this nation as a separate entity. It's up to you, teachers, to make all these sick children well by creating the international child of the future." (Chester M. Pierce, Harvard professor of education. Quote from his keynote address to the Child International Education Seminar, Denver, Colo., 1993.)
- "Children and women can be our Trojan horse for attacking the citadel of poverty, for undergirding democracy, dramatically slowing population growth and for accelerating economic development." (James P. Grant, past executive director of UNICEF, in a speech at the International Development Conference, 1993.)
- "I think [all private property] should be in the public domain. We should get it all. Be unreasonable. You can do it. Yesterday's heresy is today's common wisdom. So I would say, let's take it back---let's take it all back." (Brock Evans, vice president of the National Audubon Society, from a speech at a "Growth Management Forum" at the New England Environmental Network at Tufts University, November 1990.)
- "To hell with the news. I'm no longer interested in news. I'm interested in causes. We don't print the truth. We don't pretend to print the truth." (Ben Bradlee, former executive editor of The Washington Post, at a recent Smithsonian Institution symposium.)
- "Our job is to give people not what they want, but what we decide they ought to have." (Richard Salant, president of CBS News.)
- "Fundamental, Bible-believing people do not have the right to indoctrinate their children in their religious beliefs because we, the state, are preparing them for the year 2000 when America will be part of a one-world global society, and their children will not fit in." (Peter Hogeland, former congressman from Nebraska, in a 1983 radio show with Everett Sileven.)
- "Extremists fail to provide a viable pathway from the Cold War to the global village." (Hillary Clinton, It Takes a Village---And Other Lessons Children Teach Us, Simon and Schuster, 1996.)
- "We routinely write scare stories about the hazards of chemicals, employing words like 'cancer' and 'birth defects' to splash a little cold water in reporters' faces. . . . Our press reports were more or less true. . . . Few handouts, however, can be totally honest, and ours were no exception. . . . We were out to whip the public into a frenzy about the environment." (Jim Sibbison, former EPA press officer, in a Washington Monthly article in March of 1984.)

Pope Alexander VI had a number of children, two of the recognized ones being Lucrezia Borgia and Cesare Borgia. The latter (shown above) was "The Prince" to whom Machiavelli dedicated his book of that title. Borgia narrowly missed being elected a pope himself when he was poisoned and unable to attend the voting session of the cardinals, of whom he was one. Cesare's father, Alexander, was the pope who scandalized Martin Luther into launching the Reformation by (among other things) buying the papacy and holding orgies in the Vatican. As for Cesare Borgia, he was noted for his cruelty, and for over three years filled the thoughts and slimmed the purses of the people of Florence.

Literally thousands of other examples, directly from America's new elite, could be added. America is presently a left-revolutionary oligarchy. The importance of understanding Machiavelli's The Prince is that it provides a blueprint of sorts by which such a revolutionary elite can take power and maintain it. From here, then, one can apply Machiavelli's insights to our present unfortunate condition.

One of the primary means by which the revolution was affected was by the skillful mobilization of minorities and other "special-interest" groups. Whether it be blacks or homosexuals,
recent immigrants or the handicapped, the regime promised them additional benefits for loyalty and suitably directed political activism. Machiavelli explained this method in The Prince:

In addition, anyone who finds himself with territory in a region with different customs... should make himself the leader and protector of neighboring powers who are weaker than he is, and should set out to weaken his powerful neighbors... Outside powers will always be urged to intervene by those in the region who are discontented, either because their ambitions are unsatisfied, or because they are afraid of the dominant powers. (P 10)

And again in Chapter 16:

Rules either spend their own wealth and that of their subjects, or that of other peoples. Those who spend their own and their subjects' wealth should be abstemious; those who spend the wealth of others should seize every opportunity to be generous. Rulers who march with their armies, living off plunder, pillage, and confiscations are spending other people's money, and it is essential they should seem generous, for otherwise their soldiers will not follow them. (P 50)

If, in all Machiavelli's work, the frame of reference was updated, it would not take a genius to understand that this sort of behavior has been adopted by the American ruling classes as a way to cement their own power. However, the great Italian gives a subsequent warning:

The simple truth is there is no reliable way of holding on to a city and the territory around it, short of demolishing the city itself. He who becomes the ruler of a city that is used to living under its own laws and does not knock it down, must expect to be knocked down by it. Whenever it rebels, it will find strength in the language of liberty and will seek to restore its ancient constitution. Neither the passage of time nor good treatment will make its citizens forget their previous liberty. No matter what one does, and what precautions one takes, if one does not scatter and drive away the original inhabitants, one will not destroy the memory of liberty or the attraction of the original inhabitants. (P 17)

As Machiavelli knew even in the early 16th century, control is far more than about armies, battles and decrees. Control is also, if not primarily, about minds, attitudes and ideas. Control in modern life concerns as much psychological warfare, controlled chaos and institutionalized humiliation as it does the "coming police state." The difficulty is that armies, battles and decrees are easily referenced and measured, while psychological manipulation and mind control is not; rather, it is often imperceptible. As a result, the focus of much nationalist and patriotic literature has concerned itself with formal institutions, as if these can be separated from the people who run them and the ideology that justifies them. There can be no tyranny when a culture does not sanction it and, at least tacitly, accept it.

Machiavelli is writing about the nature of political power at the dawn of the modern era in the West. States were becoming wealthier, monarchs more independent. Armies were becoming larger and technology was proceeding accordingly, providing more lethal and effective weapons. For Machiavelli, clearly, the notion of power was changing. The Prince was written to explain the changes in the idea of power and authority in a brand new era, an era of moral sickness that Machiavelli was one of the first, if not the first, to correctly diagnose.

Machiavelli was quite interested in the idea of a public image of a ruler. In Chapter 18, Machiavelli enters into a discussion of formulating a positive public image as a means of solidifying control. The true face of a ruler is another matter, and one should not hesitate to show it when the occasion permits. Machiavelli seems almost to have been living in the “Clinton era” when he wrote this:

Everyone sees what is happening, but not everyone feels the consequences. Everyone sees what you seem to be; few have direct experience of who you really are. Those few will not dare speak out in the face of public opinion; when that opinion is reinforced by the authority of the state, in the behavior of all men, and particularly of rulers, against whom there is no recourse at law, people judge by the outcome...

The vast majority of men, so long as their goods and their honor are not taken from them, will live contentedly, so you will only have to contend with the small minority who are ambitious, and there are lots of straightforward ways of keeping them under control. (P 55-56)

It is quite clear that Machiavelli was writing here about a primitive form of psychological warfare. In this respect alone can we claim that our modern ruling classes are Machiavellian, and that our specifically modern way of doing politics derives directly from his (seemingly) amoral writings. In other words, when one does not have the moral right to rule, these become the things one must do to hold onto power. Legitimate exercise of political power does not need “public image” makeovers or manipulative decrees. From this, one comes to a crystal clear understanding of American politics that is more important than any textbook on American political institutions. Such is made abundantly clear from this passage in Chapter 20:

But when a ruler acquires a new state, which is simply added on to his existing territories, then it is necessary to disarm the people, with the sole exception of those who have actively supported you in taking power. And they, too, over time, as the opportunity occurs, should be encouraged to become weak and effeminate. (P 84)
As natural law ethics was rejected by Western Europe, the notion of royal absolutism came into existence, that is, rule without moral constraint. (This notion was unknown to medieval monarchs.) Politics soon became a contest of wills and appetites primarily, rather than legal arguments or dynastic claims. Machiavelli’s world was soon to flower into the so-called “Enlightenment,” wherein the tyranny of absolutism was transformed into the tyranny of the machine, the will of the stronger, the economy and the impersonal bureaucracy. Given the modern relativization of morality, there is no place within the system to stand to fight back against what has become the specifically modern condition. What Machiavelli was actually writing about, regardless of his intended audience, was the moral justification for totalitarianism. He was writing about the nature of modernity and its political ramifications. He prophesied that it would not be a pleasant place.

Additionally, concerning another well-known modern political trick, Machiavelli predicted the manipulation of war to cover for domestic crimes:

He is always plotting and carrying out great enterprises, which have always kept his subjects bewildered and astonished, waiting to see what their outcome would be. And his deeds have followed one another so closely that he has never left space between one and the next for people to plot uninterruptedly against him. (P 68)

The central idea in both The Prince and Discourses is that politics is not about morality but rather the unrestrained exercise of will. If there is one notion that defines the modern era, this is likely it. If individuals live according to modernity’s understanding of human behavior and motivation, then they have no right to complain when it is done to them by economic or political powers. This is the paradox of modernity: Unrestrained freedom of will suits the interests of individuals in certain circumstances but soon becomes a “moral” problem when someone stronger commits the sort of acts that oppress and crush other people. Individuals then suddenly speak of abstract rights and natural law. Tyranny does not drop from the sky, Machiavelli claims, but must have a fertile field from which to sprout.

Machiavelli, in the early 16th century, sought to understand the morality of the newly emerging politics of modernity. His writings both assisted the regimes he lived under as well as warned the population of the coming institutionalization of political amorality. In this case, the amorality emanates from states immeasurably stronger than ever before, better armed and wealthier. One of the worries one feels when reading Machiavelli’s work is discerning the alarm Machiavelli might have felt in describing our contemporary methods of power that utilized a war machine better trained, equipped and led than at any other time in Western history. The amorality of modernism was about to unleash that exponentially increasing power upon a population that, from then until now, seemed little disposed, or little capable, to do much about it.

*The Prince*, by Machiavelli. Yale edition. Handbook for a kingdom, then and now. One of the great classics of all times. Item #162, softcover, 88 pages, $12 less 10% for TBR subscribers. Add $2 S&H. Order from TBR BOOK CLUB by calling 1-877-773-9077 and charging to Visa or MasterCard. 

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**The Power of the Medicis**

Machiavelli’s last hero was the famous condottiere (leader of a band of professional mercenary soldiers) and grand duke of Tuscany, Giovanni de’ Medici, known as Giovanni della Bande Nere (“John of the Black Bands”). He fought for Pope Leo X in the Italian wars, but later changed sides and fought for Francis I of France. His nickname probably derives from the black bands he put on to mourn Leo’s death. His military company was also known as the Black Bands. Giovanni died in December 1526, falling mortally wounded while advancing with his troops to prevent an army of 14,000 Germans from crossing the Po River. The Medicis were an Italian family that directed the destinies of Florence from the 15th century until 1737. Of obscure origin, they gained immense wealth as merchants and bankers, became affiliated through marriage to the major houses of Europe, and produced three popes (Leo X, Clement VII and Leo XI) and two queens of France (Catherine de’ Medici and Marie de’ Medici). Until 1532 the republican constitution of Florence was outwardly upheld, but the Medicis exerted actual control over the government without holding any permanent official position. They sometimes fell into disfavor, however, and were exiled from Florence in 1433-34, 1494-1512 and 1527-30. Through their patronage of the arts they helped to make the city a great repository of European culture. The first important member of the family was Giovanni di Bicci de’ Medici, 1360-1429, whose sons founded the two branches of the family.
While Spain was declining economically and politically its art and literature attained their finest growth. The greatest “Spanish” painter of the late 16th and early 17th centuries was Domenico Theotocopuli, or Domenikos Theotokopoulos, better known as “El Greco” because he was born in Greece (specifically in Candia, the capital of Crete, 1541). His work expresses the spiritual aspect of Spanish art, although he was originally an iconographer. Shown here is his painting of St. Jerome, one of the fathers of the Catholic Church, painted between 1571 and 1600. St. Jerome (c. 342–420), is venerated for his acetic piety and for his monumental Latin translation of the Bible, represented here by the large codex on which his hands are positioned.

Following an old convention, the artist depicts him in the robes of a cardinal. (There was no actual College of Cardinals in St. Jerome’s time, of course.) This composition proved popular and was produced in at least four versions by El Greco and his shop; one of these is in the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City. Both Italian and Byzantine influences may be detected in this portrait. The elongated and upthrust triangle which frames the entire silhouette is in striking contrast to the downward convergence of the beard and the folds of the “cardinal’s mantle.” It is thought that a 100-year-old man named L. Cornaro posed for this portrait in 1566.

Although modern painters have found El Greco a source of inspiration, many of El Greco’s contemporaries viewed his work as that of a madman because of its strange combination of realism and visionary power. Thus he left no real followers in his own era.
The Greatest Generation

THE TRUTH ABOUT FREEDOM’S EAGER BEAVERS

BY ALEX S. PERRY JR.

In this first-person account, the second place winner of the TBR essay contest, himself a tail-end member of what NBC anchorman Tom Brokaw ingratiatingly called America’s “greatest generation”—the generation of Americans who were born in the 1920s, came of age in the Great Depression and fought in World War II—explains why Brokaw’s book is seriously overrated. He also explains why many members of that generation—himself included—who once were so proud of how they “served their country” and thought they had “saved the world” (and surely no one would question their honor, courage and perseverance) are today ashamed of how they were bornswoggled into that horrible, unnecessary war.

Tom Brokaw’s The Greatest Generation, Random House, Inc., 1998—hereinafter GG—is proof that Brokaw is unable to call a spade a spade. Should Brokaw ever do so about World War II, Adolf Hitler, Franklin Roosevelt, Winston Churchill, Benito Mussolini, Josef Stalin or Japan’s leaders during this period, he would lose his $7 million per annum broadcasting position.

This writer was in the Army Air Force during World War II. I did not have to go: I had a perfect medical excuse. I had a punctured eardrum that failed to heal after a mastoid operation when I was eight months old. But I wanted to go. The movie industry influenced me, as it did the rest of the nation. It influenced even those who did not know how to read, and if they did know how to read, they would have read practically nothing contradicting what they saw on Saturday night, as the same tribe that controlled the movies also controlled the news media.

Rep. Hamilton Fish (R-N.Y.) said he was ashamed of the part he played in World War II. Fish did more about World War II and the part the United States played in World War II than did all the armed forces put together. Fish was the congressman from President Franklin Roosevelt’s district. Fish made the first speech in Congress asking for a declaration of war against Japan on December 8, 1941, the day after Pearl Harbor was attacked. Of that speech Fish later said: “I am ashamed of that speech today, as I now know about Roosevelt’s infamous war ultimatum that forced Japan’s leaders to fight.”1 Fish also said, “Roosevelt’s ‘day of infamy’ has been turned into hypocrisy, deceit and ashes by the searchlight of truth on the causes, events and results of the war.”2 “Roosevelt,” Fish said, “was the main instigator and firebrand to light the fuse of war.”3

Another man very disappointed with World War II was Gen. George Patton, the hero of World War II if there ever was one. Patton had been as gung-ho about the war as any 18-year-old could be. He literally believed the prewar and wartime propaganda that Germany was a threat to America’s freedom, and he acted on this belief. He wanted to kill as many Germans as he could. He inspired the troops under his command to do likewise, and they killed surrendered German soldiers in droves.4 Of course, there was the problem of what to do with the surrendered German troops, because there were so many of them. Killing them was one way to eliminate
the problem, but killing them inspired those not yet captured not to surrender, but to fight to the death. Gen. Dwight Eisenhower expressed the sentiment, “Too bad we couldn’t have killed more,” in a letter to Gen. George Marshall in 1943. However, this remark was deleted when Eisenhower’s papers were published.5

As soon as the war was over, Patton began to express doubts about World War II. This change of heart can be detected in The Patton Papers, published in 1974 by Houghton Mifflin Co.6 After the war, Patton began to take up for the German people. On July 21, 1945, Patton wrote to his wife:

_“Berlin gave me the blues. We have destroyed what could have been a good race, and we are about to replace them with Mongolian savages. . . . It’s said that for the first week after [Soviet troops] took it [Berlin], all the women who ran were shot, and those who did not were raped.”_7

In August, Patton had dinner with French Gen. Alphonse Juin. Patton’s diary entry for August 18 quotes Gen. Juin: “It is indeed unfortunate, mon general, that the English and Americans have destroyed in Europe the only sound country—and I do not mean France.”

In an August 31 letter to his wife, Patton wrote: “Actually, the Germans are the only decent people left in Europe. . . . I prefer the Germans.”

Patton began to compare the Germans “with the French, the Italians, the Belgians and even the British. This comparison gradually forced him to the conclusion that World War II had been fought against the wrong people.”8 On December 23, 1945, Patton was killed, so his voice of disappointment was silenced forever.

Patton, however, was not the only person to express his regrets about the destruction of Germany. Winston Churchill was another one. After the war, he told Parliament (on November 2, 1946) that they had “killed the wrong pig.”9 Perhaps Churchill was thinking of what he had told the world, long before Adolf Hitler became chancellor of Germany:

_It is the duty of the civilized world to reconquer Russia. The Soviets do not represent Russia; they represent an international concept entirely foreign and even hostile to what we call civilization. . . . To win against Russia, militarily and morally, would be too heavy a task for the victors [of World War I] alone, and as we must do it, we will do it with Germany. Germany knows Russia better than anybody else. . . . That will be for her the great opportunity. It will be this opportunity that will permit a proud and faithful nation to avoid defeat and humiliation. . . . She will pass thereby, almost without transition, from a cruel fight against us to cooperation with us. Nothing is possible in Europe without Germany; everything is possible with her.”9_

Any man in Brokaw’s position cannot afford to say anything good about Hitler. But before 1939, the volume of favorable remarks that were made about Hitler is astonishing. At that time, he was widely considered the greatest leader the world had ever known. He had millions of admirers in Europe and throughout the world. Brokaw has to say what the establishment wants him to say, in order to keep his job. In spite of the fact that there are more good things to say about Hitler than bad, only the bad things can be spoken. Brokaw’s tome only rehashes the prewar, wartime and postwar propaganda clichés that were designed to get America involved in what became World War II, and to make the nation feel satisfied that it had done the right thing in completely destroying Hitler, the government he gave Germany, Germany’s industry, and Germany itself.

If a nation is going to go to war, then that nation cannot afford to tell the balanced truth about the enemy nation, and anyone who does during wartime will be tried and sentenced for sedition, and possibly executed. The warmongering faction has to get its citizens mad at the enemy, and in the proper mood. It has to get its citizens to think they are fighting for the world’s good, and for Christian or other religious righteousness, and the enemy is evil and ruled by the devil. So it was with the propaganda against Hitler and Germany, and so it has been ever since.

Sefton Delmer, head of British research for propaganda broad-
book that everyone was rushing, lemming-like, to get into some branch of the armed forces in order to do his duty to bring justice to the world by ending Hitler's regime, which was called a threat to civilization, world peace and freedom because Hitler wanted, or so it was maintained, to take over the whole world and put it in bondage.

Most World War II veterans, if they do brag on the part they played during the war, never mention that they were drafted. They were in the service for one reason: not to defeat Hitler or for patriotic reasons, but because they were drafted. Does serving in the Army prove anything if one has to go anyway to keep from being put in prison, disgraced or maybe killed? No one has a choice during war. Everyone goes into slavery in order to “fight for freedom.” Of the 16 million who went into military service during World War II, fewer than 600,000 volunteered, and the majority of those who did, volunteered only because they knew they would be drafted shortly and volunteered for appearance’s sake or to get into some less-undesirable branch of the services than the infantry. (Few men find it attractive to slosh through the mud during wet weather with feet infected with trench foot, a heavy rifle in hand and a heavy pack on the back, to sleep in a pup tent in the winter on a battlefield or in a foxhole, and eat from a mess kit washed with sand and rainwater.)

Nevertheless, those who first “heard the call” were drafted September 16, 1940—that is, a little more than a year before Pearl Harbor. They were limited to one year’s training, and would have been discharged except that Congress violated its promise in August 1941 and voted that the length of service be extended.

Servicemen found out that bed wetting would give them an honorable discharge, and soon men began going on sick call in droves for bed wetting. No doctor in the Army knew how to stop it. No known medicine would work. It was finally stopped by changing the Army’s discharge law. From then on, if a man did wet his bed, he stayed in the service and just had to sleep on a wet, stinking mattress. James Martin elaborates on bed wetting and other means of getting out of the Army:

It is obvious that evasion of conscription by failure to register was no doubt the course chosen by a small minority, while the tiny band which defied it undoubtedly were steeled by a deep faith in some principled ethic or strong religious conviction. For the vast majority, registration and superficial cooperation was the route taken, with the objective in a staggering number of instances being that of gaining a discharge from the armed services or seeking a status of incapacity. In an extended comment on this side of the picture, John McPartland [Harpers, Feb. 1974, 186-92] related that at one time the Army decided that bed wetting was sufficient reason for a discharge, and that shortly after that, the incidence of bed wetting went up 1200 percent in one Texas training camp. A “wave of psychoneurotic discharges” followed, and it was only stemmed when the War Department issued a circular [that] removed bed wetting as a justification for discharge. But there were a number of other avenues open to unenthusiastic conscripts: “MB 1-9, the Army manual for spotting malingerers, was never better than a lap or two behind the 10 to 20 percent of our troops who hit the sick book in high hopes of home... . There were more AWOLs than civilian strikers during the war, more hours lost in desertion,” declared McPartland, “than were lost because of strikes.”

This British anti-Nazi propaganda poster was mild compared to the anti-Hitler efforts of the United States, which excelled in printing and designing such posters. Contrary to propaganda (like Tom Brokaw’s), many conquered countries were ecstatic to see the Nazis enter, even areas without large ethnic German populations.

We should always remember that this bed wetting took place during the Depression, when 11 million people were unemployed and were desperately looking for work. In the Army they would have received three all-you-can-eat meals a day, a place to sleep in comfort (much of the time), new clothes, shoes, a place to shower, no rent to pay, free laundry and a $21-a-month salary with no withholding taxes, equal to $210 a month in today’s dollars. All this princely income before the war, and no fighting to do. Yet these patriotic Americans did not want to serve their country as Congress thought they would.

I had only one uncle who served for a while, and he got out as soon as a law was passed that allowed 35-year-olds to leave the service if they wanted to. Brokaw says nothing about how his drafted father got out of the service, but he does say that he, himself, Tom, was born in 1940 (GG 3) and spent his “ages from three to five... . on an Army base in western South Dakota.” So his dad must have rushed to get drafted around 1943. The father had at least three years to volunteer, but did not, again illustrating how anxious many men were to do their duty. But this man, being in his early 30s, could only have been somewhere between 30 and 33
years old when he was drafted. Therefore, Brokaw's dad was too young to take advantage of the 35-year-olds discharge law. At most he spent only two years in the service, and in a very safe place at that. All this is deduced from the limited information available, because Brokaw does not give the details. Anyway, it would have been interesting had Brokaw told his readers exactly how and when his dad did receive his honorable discharge. As it is, it is still interesting, maybe more so, wondering why he did not tell us this.

One statement in Brokaw's discussion of his dad's military activities hardly makes sense: "When Dad returned home, it was the first time I saw my mother cry." This statement does not make sense, because as Brokaw says in the sentence leading to this one, his dad never left home: "My father, Red Brokaw, . . . was an all-purpose Mr. Fixit and operator of snowplows and construction machinery, part of crew that kept the base functioning. [i.e., the base where Tom says he lived from ages three to five.] When he was drafted, the base commander called him back, reasoning he was more valuable in the job he had."

If he was called back, then Tom's dad was working at the base before he was drafted.

Some men never “heard the call.” They preferred a convict's striped uniform to the Army uniform. The U.S. government imprisoned 16,000 conscientious objectors. Brokaw says nothing of the 17,000 or so GIs who went AWOL as soon as they hit the beach at Normandy, and how these soldiers made their living by stealing from the Army. Trainloads of clothing, food, fuel and other supplies were stolen and sold openly to the French on the streets of Paris and other places. So much fuel was stolen that Gen. George S. Patton's tanks ran dry, and he could not move. Such was the attitude of the French and many American soldiers about winning the war. Carl Dreher, quoted by James J. Martin in Revisionist Viewpoints, gives this particularly absorbing testimony on how it happened:

In the line of crimes involving government property, which constitute one of the negative correlates of morale, the Army of the United States probably established a new low. In the fall of 1944 and the following winter, an “amazing psychological situation,” in the words of an Army authority, existed in the European theater, with gasoline, cigarettes, soap and other negotiable commodities disappearing from the supply lines in truckload, carload and trainload lots, hundreds of thousands of dollars being sent home by small groups, and between 12,000 and 13,000 soldiers AWOL and supporting themselves largely by crime. On the day when Patton's tanks reached the Siegfried Line and ran dry, U.S. Army trucks were backed up the whole length of the Champs-Élysées [in Paris], with GIs selling gasoline and cigarettes openly to the French populace. No army is ever free of looting, but it is questionable whether any other army ever looted itself on the scale of ours.15

The looting was not confined to the war front. It also went on on the home front. On the war front, it went under the name of crime. On the home front, it went under the name of legitimate business. For example, in 1962, the General Accounting Office affirmed that John McConne, when he was interviewed by Congress for the post of director of the CIA, and his associates made $44 million on an investment of $100,000 building ships for the Navy during World War II. And McConne's operation was small in comparison to many others.14

Secretary of War Harry Stimson said, “If you are going to try to go to war, or to prepare for war, in a capitalist country, you have got to let business make money out of the process, or business won’t work.” During the period of trying to go to war or preparing to go to war, between middle-1940 and late-1941, Congress appropriated $36 billion for the War Department alone. This was more than the Army and Navy combined had spent on World War I.

Many wars are fought for commercial reasons, to destroy an enemy that has become too competitive or to make money from war contracts. Freedom and other idealistic reasons are thrown in, in order to make the domesticated human herd stampede into the enemy's territory, but it is the business end of the conflict between nations that determines the outlook for war or peace. As James J. Martin relates:

One would have to admit that for some of the cooperators in “defense,” the war era itself was pretty wonderful. Few things angered the mouthpieces of the new internationalism more during the war than charges that it might also be, and was, profitable to its political exponents and their business and legal associates. But there must have been something to the charge, especially after Comptroller General of the United States Lindsay C. Warren's testimony before the House of Representatives in 1943 and 1944, that more than $50 billion of “slush” had already been skimmed off some war contracts, and that extensive lobbying in behalf of war production firms was going on, conducted by officers after leaving the armed services. (This latter has become a veritable industry in itself, in the last quarter of a century.)15

It was also very profitable for members of Congress. They strove to get war contracts and subcontracts to favored constituents, airfields and military bases in their districts and were rewarded for doing so with lavish campaign contributions, votes and other payoffs. Lyndon Baines Johnson got fabulous contracts for Brown and Root Construction Co. in Texas, and they rewarded him with a fortune.16 Brown and Root got the cost-plus contract to build the Corpus Christi Naval Air Base with no previous air base construction experience.

And business surely went after the money. A new relationship developed between business and government. Before 1940, businessmen were dubious about doing business with the government. But this attitude began to rapidly change. No one could ever dream during the depression of the amount of money that could be made from government contracts. The rate of return on net investment ranged as high as 50 percent to as low as 20 percent. The government spent more than $300 billion for war materiel and services and more than $17 billion on investments in ammunition factories, shipyards, aluminum mills, chemical plants and other industrial facilities. The aircraft industry soared and became the nation’s largest industry. The government did not operate these facilities. They were leased to private contractors. These contractors were given an option to buy after the war, and plants were sold after the war at giveaway prices.
Brokaw fails to mention anything of the hundreds of American pilots landing in Switzerland and Sweden in order to avoid the horrific odds against their survival, an intentional evasion of their honorable and sacred duty. He also overlooks the fact that some of the Army field hospitals were overloaded with soldiers with self-inflicted wounds.17 These actual facts refute Brokaw’s statement: “These young men and women were eager for the assignment. They understood what was required of them, and they willingly volunteered for their duty.” (GG 3.)

American boys were so eager and willing to do their duty that they were actually praying to get wounded or killed, and when wounded, they thanked God for the blessing. Stephen A. Ambrose gives a description of the desperate picture in which American soldiers were wishing for injury or death:

“There were two things in front of you always,” Cpl. Clair Galdonik of the 90th Division remarked: “the enemy and death…. Sometimes morale was so low that you preferred death instead of a day-by-day agonizing existence. When you are wet, cold, hungry, lonely, death looked very inviting. It was always close at hand, and I found myself being envious of a dead comrade. At least he suffered no more, physically or mentally.”

Getting out of there honorably was every man’s dream—thus the expression, “million-dollar wound.” Sgt. John Sabia took five machine-gun bullets in his right thigh. His CO asked if he could make it back to the aid station on his own, as the company couldn’t spare a man. “Hell yes, I can do it.” Sabia took a tree limb to use as a crutch and began hopping awkwardly in the snow. After 10 meters he stopped, turned around, waved his limb in a gesture of defiance and exuberance, and bellowed to his buddies in their hole: “Hey you bastards! Clean sheets! Clean sheets!”

Pvt. Donald Schoo of the 80th Infantry recalled seeing one of his buddies, named Steehhourst, take a hit from an 88 that blew off his right hand: “He was crying and running around, yelling: ‘I’m going home! Thank you God, I’m going home!’” Capt. Roland of the 99th Division recalled: “Men began to wound themselves one way or another in order to get away from the front.”

One of the horrors of that war was trench foot infection. So many soldiers had infected feet and could not walk and had to be carried to their sheltered pillbox positions at night and to their firing positions in the morning, lost their toes and had to have their feet amputated that senior Army officers who never got to the front and never knew what was going on from direct observation threaten to court-martial those whose feet became infected, because they suspected it was done deliberately, much the same as a self-inflicted wound. “During the winter of 1944-45, some 45,000 men had to be pulled out of the front line because of trench foot—the equivalent of three full infantry divisions.”

The soldiers could not help getting trench foot given the conditions under which they had to live. Nevertheless, the threat of court-martialing shows a suspicious attitude on the part of senior Army officers because they knew how far World War II soldiers would go to get out of combat once they found out what was actually involved, no matter how enthusiastically some may have “volunteered to do their duty” in the beginning.

The young women who eagerly volunteered did so because they wanted to be where the boys were. “At Supreme Head-quarters, Eisenhower and Bedell Smith seemed to have much of their time consumed with the most mundane matters”—one of

“Friendly fire” was a serious problem for GIs in World War II. COBRA was the code name for an immense bombing operation during July 24 and 25, 1944. It was designed to help the breakout of ground forces from the Normandy beachhead near St.-Lo. The plan was for some 1,800 bomber planes to pulverize the German defenders, after which the GIs were to press forward, hopefully with little resistance. The attack was actually scheduled for July 25, but thanks to a communications snafu, many of the planes dropped their load early, and so inaccurately, that 25 American soldiers were killed and 131 wounded. Here, American soldiers are photographed digging out the dead and wounded GIs after the COBRA blunder. The wartime caption, used by the U.S. Army to describe this photograph, read: “After German shelling, Yanks dig out men buried in their foxholes.”
which was “which generals were sleeping with which WAC drivers. [Brig. Gen. Everett] Hughes noticed that Brig. Gen. Henry B. Sayler, the chief ordnance officer, was looking tired, and wrote in his diary: ‘H.S. has his chauffeuress [sic] back, and looked red eyed.’”

Eisenhower had a love affair with his female orderly, Kay Sommersby. He wanted to divorce Mrs. Eisenhower but was not man enough to stand up to Marshall, who told him, in so many words, to break it off.

Another of Brokaw’s notions that needs a little elaboration in order to make it understandable is found on the inside of the book’s dust jacket: “At a time in their lives when their days and nights should have been filled with innocent adventure... they were fighting in the most primitive conditions possible across the bloodied landscape of France [and] Belgium...”

Brokaw should know there were five invasions of France. One was done by invitation only. Germany came to France because France had declared war on Germany and mobilized to attack Germany. Hitler would not have invaded France had France acted in a less hostile manner toward Germany. When the Germans entered Belgium and Netherlands, Belgian and Dutch people welcomed the German soldiers as they came in, chasing the French soldiers back home. Many gave the “Hitler salute” and directed the German military traffic, showing them the best way to go to overtake the French army. The Germans returned these favors by helping the Belgians and Dutch to cross the rivers from one side to the other, whenever the bridges were destroyed.

“A telegram in German army files indicates that King Leopold [of Belgium] was furious at the looting and willful destruction of his country by the withdrawing French and British troops.” In other words, Leopold was glad to be rid of the French and British troops. The German army of 100,000 captured, within a few weeks, the French army of 6 million, which shows the enthusiasm the average Frenchman had for fighting off the German armed forces.

When the Germans captured France, only the armies were involved. Hitler conducted his campaign against France according to the rules of civilized war. No French towns or cities were bombed. They made every effort not to damage anyone’s property. When the Germans reached Paris, they were perfect gentlemen, even down to the lowest foot soldier. They treated the French soldiers with great respect, and bragged on how well they fought.

No French woman was raped. Whenever a French lady entered the public transportation system on which German soldiers were seated, they would stand and offer her their seats. All these acts of courtesy and respect were demanded by Hitler of his armies throughout Europe. French homes which were “occupied by Nazi officers during the whole period of occupation” were “left in almost immaculate condition when the Germans evacuated.”

William L. Shirer made a fortune with his *The Rise and Fall of the Third Reich* (Simon & Schuster, New York, 1960), a book about the German National Socialists with so many errors and deliberately false statements that it is impossible for anyone to correct in its entirety. But in his earlier *Berlin Diary*, he gives a somewhat different story by relating how the French women fled Paris because of their fear as to what the Germans would do to them:

> It seems the Parisians actually believed the Germans would rape the women and do worse to the men. They had heard fantastic tales of what happened when the Germans occupied a city. The ones who stayed are all the more amazed at the very correct behavior of the troops—so far.

On page 331, Shirer says the Germans came into Paris as tourists:

> I noticed today some open fraternizing between German troops and the inhabitants. Most of the soldiers are always under strict orders to be civil and behave themselves.

One can also find a glowing account on how the Germans conducted themselves in France in the Time-Life Books on World War II. Time-Life Books are noted for their hatred of Hitler and Germany, but in *Blitzkrieg: World War II* this description is given of the German conduct:

> The Germans, trim, fit and superbly disciplined, made a dramatic contrast to the fleeing French soldiers. They were always under strict orders to behave themselves, and they did. “Wir sind keine Barbaren” (“We are not barbarians”), they told civilians in places they overrun. They smiled, they helped old ladies cross the streets. They did no looting... The initial astonished reaction of Frenchmen was that the Germans, despite all they had heard, were really quite “correct.”

Peter H. Nicoll describes the mildness and goodness of the German peace terms presented to France:

> The third fact is that so far from treating France with harshness and in [a] sense annexing her, Hitler made it clear that his own purpose, in dominating her for the time being, was to be in full control of the coast of France against the naval and military threat of Britain. And, in fact, he occupied only the west area. The mildness of his terms astounded Pétain and all others... Here were no ruthless and savage conquerors, but mild and reasonable victors who desired from their victory only safety for themselves and, that guaranteed, the fairest possible terms of cooperation permanently with their late opponents.

Hitler allowed the French to retain their navy. He said France needed it to defend her empire in Indochina. This refusal to take control of the French navy is a strong indication that Hitler had no intention to capture the world or stay in France forever. But Hitler’s refusal to take control of the French navy was the cause of France’s second invasion. This time it was done by the British.

Churchill demanded that the French send the ships to Britain. The French naval authorities said they would not surrender their ships to England. When the French had made it plain they would not give up their ships, the British navy sneaked...
up on the French navy on July 3, 1940, and pulled off an attack on the French fleet at the Algerian port of Mers-el-Kebir, killing 1,200 French sailors.

But not all of the French navy was located at Mers-el-Kebir. Some battleships were located at Dakar, Senegal. The fine French battleship Richelieu was located there, plus 60 million pounds of Belgian and Polish gold. That was enough to cause Churchill to overlook the possibility that France would declare war on England if the attack were undertaken.

Churchill's cabinet demurred, but Gen. Charles de Gaulle agreed with Churchill's plans to capture Dakar. De Gaulle wanted to lead the French troops who had escaped with him to England at the time of Dunkirk on this expedition in order to gain recognition and prestige. But Senegal let it be known that de Gaulle would not be welcome. On September 23, 1940, at sunup, Dakar was attacked. The third invasion was under way. But the [Vichy] French were ready this time. Irving gives the details:

It was a humiliating fiasco. The assault forces never got off their troopships. De Gaulle's aviators landed on the airfield and were arrested by the local gendarmerie. His emissaries were fired upon as their boat entered port, and turned back. The Richelieu, which Churchill had covetously described to Smuts as "by no means permanently disabled," opened fire through the gathering fog with her new 15-inch guns, as did the Dakar fortress batteries, which hit the cruiser Cumberland amidships and put her out of action.

The next day's brawling off Dakar was equally messy. The British sank a French submarine; the shore guns savaged [the] Barham. On the day after that, Gen. Spears, accompanying de Gaulle, radioed that the latter had thrown in the sponge and would proceed to Bathurst [Banjul], in Gambia, a British colony 100 miles down the west African coast. At 9 A.M., a French submarine slapped a torpedo in the battleship Resolution, and she too beat an undignified retreat. Morale among the French defenders was high. Churchill dithered; his ministers demanded they cut their losses.28

The buck did not stop with Churchill. He found plenty of scapegoats to be savage and vindictive toward.

Fewer than 1 percent of the Frenchmen had anything to do with the underground "resistance." In other words, more than 99 percent cooperated with the Germans. Over 100,000 French soldiers joined the German army in its fight against Bolshevism. Danish, Norwegian, Dutch, Belgian, Romanian and Spanish legions of volunteers fought in the anti-communist crusade. After the war, most of these soldiers were either killed or served long prison terms. The Spanish soldiers and those who escaped into Spain avoided the postwar punishment.29 When the Germans attacked Russia, on June 21, 1941, most Frenchmen considered their war with Germany over and were eager to see Germany win. To them, the chief menace to their country and to civilization was communism. They regarded the new war as a crusade in which they could join and forget their differences.30

The fourth invasion of France, the Allied invasion, (really the American invasion, as the British actually did next to nothing), was unlike the Germans' in every aspect. But the way it was told to the home audience after the War Department had expertly and severely filtered the news, the population had nothing to believe except that the American Army was a "band of angels" on a holy mission. "The most primitive conditions possible," as Brokaw describes "the bloodied landscape of France [and] Belgium," was American made. The crimes committed by individual American soldiers—rape, thievery and murder—surpassed the crimes of the "Nazis" in every respect. Even American generals were stealing from the French civilians.31 During one period, over 500 rapes were reported per month. The French, Dutch etc
were complaining so much that Eisenhower suggested public hangings; but he never got around to it. Maj. Gen. LeRoy Lutes reported that the French were looking forward to the day “when they are liberated from the [drunken and disorderly] Americans.” He also noted that: “The Germans did not loot either residences, stores or museums. In fact, the people claimed that they were meticulously treated” by the Germans. Therefore, he concluded that “the Allied propaganda about the Germans” was unmistakably false.

Before the fourth invasion and during the American battles in France, the Allies dropped over 590,000 tons of bombs—equal to almost half the amount of bombs dropped on Germany during the entire war—on the cities of France. The purpose of bombing before the invasion was to destroy the French transportation system, but the centers of the transportation system were in the cities. Consequently, over 1 million French homes were destroyed with the Allied “precision bombing,” and some cities—Caen, Saint-Lo, Carentan, Montebourg and Valgnes—were completely liberated off the face of the Earth, with hardly a house left standing. For every German killed during these raids, the lives of four Frenchmen were taken.

Says David Irving:

[In preparing for the Allied invasion, Operation Overlord, which came on June 6, 1944, D-Day], the Germans prepared 40,000 extra hospital beds throughout northern France, with 28,000 more standing by in Paris and Brussels, in addition to 20,000 in southern Germany. [All these extra beds were expected to be used to handle German combat casualties during the first few weeks of the invasion campaign.] “[But by the day that Overlord actually began, every one of these beds was filled with French victims of the pre-Overlord bombing campaign.”

Had Hitler actually been the kind of man the propaganda said he was, would he have allowed these Frenchmen to have occupied hospital beds intended for German casualties?

When Frederick C. Crawford, president of Thompson Products, Inc., returned from the inspection tour of the European battle fronts at the request of the War Department, he gave an amazing address on the conditions as he had found them to have been in France during the German occupation. Crawford spoke on January 3, 1945, to the New York Chamber of Commerce, and his comments were published the next day in The New York Sun, the only newspaper in the United States to carry this address.

Crawford said the French prospered under German domination. He said he had been told before he went on his mission that France had been suffering, but instead he found that a “consumer boom” existed in France. He had expected to find the French “deliriously happy” with the coming of the Americans to liberate France from the clutches of the German dictator, but instead he “found a cold shoulder.” The French were hoping that the German conditions would continue. Crawford emphasized that had these conditions remained in France for a while longer, they would have wanted them permanently. He also found that the Belgians were satisfied with the German occupation.

Irving brings out an interesting sideline issue on the British invasion of France and how the British fought the Germans. In the first place, the British did not want to invade France. They thought it was too dangerous. But since the American generals insisted on it, because Russia wanted it, the British were forced to go along. Nevertheless, they did what they could to not get too involved in the fight, because Churchill did not want English boys to be killed if their lives could be saved “at the expense of foreigners.” So the British Gen. Bernard Montgomery did what he could to avoid battle, because “[T]he commanders feel the blood of the British empire . . . is too precious to waste in battle.”

The British did not put any of their good ships into the fight. They were all “anchored up in Scapa Flow.” The way the British conducted themselves at the expense of everyone who was trying to help them borders on blackmail or treason, if all the Allies can be thought of as one country. It was treason to the pretended cause, just the same. It was an action that, if an American soldier had done it, would have given cause for his commanding officer to shoot him for desertion.

I

rring’s The War Between the Generals details how the war was fought in France and elsewhere and how the Allied generals behaved behind the scenes, not as high-class gentlemen, but as immoral and irresponsible, whisky-headed idiots absorbed in their own pleasure, publicity and promotion, with little concern for anyone else, except their government-supplied mistresses. The description of the war in France is not a charming picture, and not many who will read Irving’s book will ever want to have anything to do with the Army again, as the details are so vivid that one feels he has been through the torture of it all and would like to forget it. It is also an analysis of the shameful way in which Americans were fooled and misled on every important point by their own political and military leaders with the cooperation of the news media during World War II and thereafter.

All this wonderful prosperity that Hitler gave to the French came to an abrupt end as the Allied bombing prepared France for their unwanted liberation. It is interesting, contrasting the easy manner in which Germany captured France and how, after the capture, the French began to admire the Germans and wanted to cooperate and help the Germans, and on the other hand the hard, brutal methods employed by the Allies in liberating France. The French people wished the Americans had never come and wanted them to leave as soon as possible.

The French were so overwhelmed over being liberated by the Americans from their German “slave masters” that they took up arms and fought with the Germans, both head-on and rear-guard. It was dangerous for a high-ranking Allied officer to expose himself in any area that had been overrun by American troops.

Capt. Russell Grenfell says he found the enthusiasm for liberation in France entirely different from the radio version heard at the time:

Alex S. Perry Jr., a “tail-end” member of the generation that fought in World War II, resides in the state of Mississippi.
of their liberation that they were taking any good opportunity of sniping their liberators.29

Second Lt. John Eisenhower graduated from West Point on June 6, 1944, D-Day, and was sent directly to Europe as an “eager” platoon leader and ready to do his duty, if Brokaw’s description of the American soldier’s enthusiastic attitude in true. Surely one of those young men who so willingly volunteered to save the world by never leading a platoon, but who indeed did enjoy his dad’s protection by never being involved in combat duty all during the war, he observed: “The attitude of the French was sobering, indeed. Instead of bursting with enthusiasm, they seemed not only indifferent but sullen. There was considerable cause for wondering whether these people wished to be ‘liberated.’”40

Young John visited the British section of the Normandy beachhead and found very little damage and no visible dead enemies. London seemed more like a war zone to him than the British sector of Normandy.41 By the way, West Point and Annapolis became the two most sought-after schools in America, not because of any desire for the majority of students to seek a lifelong military career, but because it meant doing their military duty with honor for four years without the danger of facing enemy bullets on the battlefield, and with the possibility that the war would be over by graduation time.

France’s last invasion, the fifth, was when the French invaded France. De Gaulle rode into Paris on American wheels to set up a new French democratic government. The fighting in France did not stop as soon as the battle fronts moved into Germany. To get rid of those who wanted Germany to win, the “resistance,” which made up less than 1 percent of the French population, and the de Gaulle forces initiated horrible massacres of the French civilians in the late summer of 1944. American troops were under orders from the policymakers in Washington, D.C. not to interfere, and the news media did not report on these atrocities, but an English journalist, Sisley Hudleston, who spent the war inside France, recorded his eyewitness account:

There has never been, in the history of France, a bloodier period than that which followed the liberation of 1944-45. The massacres of 1944 were no less savage than the massacres of the Jacquerie, of St. Bartholomew, of the revolutionizing terror, of the commune; and they were certainly more numerous and on a wider scale. It is estimated that 20,000 persons lost their lives under the Reign of Terror, that 18,000 fell in the frightful butchery that followed the war and insurrection of 1870-71. The American service put the figures of “summary executions” in France in the first months of the liberation at 80,000. A former French minister (Adrien Tixier) later placed the figure at 105,000.42

The Germans lost around 100,000 soldiers fighting the American and English invaders. The French citizens that the French “resistance” executed were called collaborators, but they were really future political opposition to de Gaulle, had they been allowed to live and vote. So de Gaulle fought for “100 percent political democracy”—and that was what World War II was all about: “freedom” and “democracy.” Counting the 105,000 Frenchmen killed by their invading countrymen and the ones killed by the American bombers, France lost more people than did Germany from the war during this portion of the liberation period.

The only decent, humane invasion France underwent during World War II was the German invasion.4 This invasion would not have happened had France not acted toward Germany by declaring war on her. All the other invasions were cruel, savage, bloodthirsty and extremely brutal.

Brokaw needs to think realistically of the Americans and not romantically before he begins to tell the American public how it really was. If Congress had not passed a draft law to force American citizens into the Army to take up the fake cause of “freedom,” it would not have gotten enough men to fill one troop-carrying ship on its way to Europe.

*The Eye of Vichy, by Claude Chabrol. These newsreels were produced by the Germans and French during the occupation of France. These movies are astonishing—they show how well off the French were during those years. Item #240, VHS, 110 min., $32.95. Add $3 S&H. Order from TBR BOOK CLUB by calling 1-877-773-9077 and charging to Visa or MC.

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I can’t help feeling the most intense anxiety and solicitude on your behalf—since your disaster in the [Shenandoah] valley, my prospect for a furlough is greatly diminished. I think my duty is plain. I ought not to leave now, even if I could do so—so, my beloved, you must be brave and cheerful without me for awhile—to be separated from you is the hardest trial of my life.

Father writes me that though discouraged by our late disasters, he is still hopeful as to the final result. . . . I must confess I would be willing to take a musket and fight to the bitter end rather than submit to these miserable Yankees. I feel they have put themselves beyond the pale of civilization by the course they have pursued in this campaign. This beautiful and fertile valley has been totally destroyed. Sheridan has had some of the houses, all of the mills and barns, every straw and wheat stack burnt. This valley is one great desert. I do not see how these people are to live.

—A letter to his wife by Gen. Stephen D. Ramseur, dated Oct. 10, 1864, regarding the devastation inflicted on the Shenandoah Valley in 1864 by the Yankees. Nine days after writing this, Ramseur was mortally wounded in battle in the valley.
I have always considered it an honor to be spokesman for the researcher who has been referred to as “that modern Renaissance man.” The last time I spoke to an audience about Mattogno was at the inauguration of the “David Irving Real History USA” meetings.

On that occasion, Germar Rudolf was quoted as stating that the most productive Revisionist researcher of the 1990s was the Italian Carlo Mattogno. Then I proceeded to address the audience on 40 points concerning that productive Italian. Well, this time I report on “77 Carlo Mattogno Points Concerning Auschwitz Cre - mations.” These points are buttressed by his magnum opus, which is being published in Italy. Its title is I forni crematori di Auschwitz: Studio storico-tecnico con la collaborazione del dott. ing. Franco Deana. [“The Auschwitz Crematories: A Historical-Technical Study with the Collaboration of Doctor of Engineering Franco Deana”]. Without making reference to his major work, it would be impossible for Mattogno to meaningfully discuss Auschwitz cremations.

This work represents the first scientific study on cremations at Auschwitz, although there had been prior work by others, which Mattogno cites as preliminary studies. The cremation question had been one of the big unsolved problems in the historiography of the Auschwitz camp. It was in 1989 that it came out of the collective hysteria closet to which it had for decades been relegated, and only then did it begin to assume some scientific connotation, thanks to Jean-Claude Pressac, who came out with Auschwitz: Technique and Operation of the Gas Chambers.

The merit of that French researcher ends here, however. Pressac attempted to confront the problem on a scientific plain, but his deficient procedures and conclusions revealed a lack of technical knowledge, which also continued to be evident in his second book on Auschwitz, which appeared in 1993, entitled Les crematoirs d’Auschwitz: La machinerie du meurtre de masse. Such deficiencies made Mattogno feel that the necessity was even more pressing for someone to make a rigorous scientific treatment of this topic.

Mattogno wanted to be that someone. He began occupying himself with the general problem of cremation in the summer of 1987. It was during the next year that he began his valuable collaboration with a doctor of engineering, Franco Deana. Dr. Deana has been indispensable for the scientific organization of this work. Equally as valuable was the collaboration with a German engineer whose name must remain unrevealed and whose assistance unfortunately has not been available since 1991. It is thanks to these gentlemen, and a few others, that Mattogno was able to visit the camps at Auschwitz, Buchenwald, Dachau, Mauthausen and Gusen.

At first this study was confronted with the technical problems of duration-time of cremation and the amount of fuel consumption during the cremation process, but the publication of Pressac’s first book in 1989 gave Mattogno new incentive and expanded his field of interest and historical level.

It was in 1993, at a time when Mattogno thought that his research was almost complete, that Pressac, in his second book, indicated the existence of a vast trove of materials on Auschwitz cremations located in the Viborskaja Street Moscow archives.

Mattogno had already seen some parts of these things in photocopy form in an extract at the Auschwitz State Museum, based on heretofore little-known documents found by Pressac and which were published in the 1994 anthology entitled.
In 1995, accompanied by Jürgen Graf and Russell Granata, Mattogno was able to see in the above-mentioned Moscow archives, the approximately 88,200 pages of the Auschwitz Central Building Administration Document Collection which contained an abundant correspondence between that office and the firm of Topf and Sons of Erfurt (Germany)—the same company that constructed the Auschwitz crematory ovens.

In the years 1997 and 1998, Mattogno found important new documents in archives of Poland and Holland.

Among Mattogno's research trips, in the spring of 1999, he visited, together with Graf, both the museum and the crematorium of Terezin, from which both sites revealed significant material for his major book.

During the summer of 1999, Mattogno concluded his research in the Erfurt municipal archive wherefrom on August 5, 1996, he had already obtained custody of a considerably large amount of documentation concerning the activity of the Topf company. This was not confined solely to the construction of crematory ovens.

The Structure of the Mattogno Study of the Auschwitz Cremations—Through the passing years, Mattogno's initial Study Plan broadened considerably, both on the historical, as well as on the technical level—to the point where it became necessary to put this study into two volumes—one volume to contain its own text, and the other volume for copies of the documents.

The Auschwitz gasogene-fired, coke-fueled cremation ovens, were actually simplifications of civilian crematory ovens—but since it was so difficult for anyone to find any really meaningful information concerning these installations, even in the specialized literature—Mattogno decided he would fill that void by beginning his study with an explanatory introduction of those installations. This constitutes Part One of Volume One.

Because the Auschwitz crematory ovens were actually simple combustion systems, Mattogno thought it would be helpful to preliminarily present general principles of cremation combustion techniques and the chemical processes which are verified in the course of a cremation. He presents both the general theoretical principles and construction of a gasogene-fired, coke-fueled crematory oven, with an accurate description of its structure and function. In this way, the reader receives a basis for understanding cremation technology.

After all, since the crematories of Auschwitz were the result of the technology of their own time, it seemed it would be helpful to go back over the history of modern cremation with particular references to gasogene-fired, coke-fueled ovens, such as those which were installed at Auschwitz—without neglecting the other heating systems such as gas, electricity and naphtha. In this way, the reader is provided basic information regarding the development of all those combustion installations (including all their known problems) spanning from the last decades of the 1800s, up to World War II. This historical synthesis of crematory ovens is carried out with a parallel study of installations designed for hygienic-sanitary mass cremations (in cases of wars, epidemics, or other natural disasters).

Mattogno has positioned this information at the end of his work with a brief analysis of contemporary crematory ovens.

Scientific cremation experiments, which were carried out in Germany (and in Switzerland) during the late 1920s, are utilized as a firm experimental basis for confronting and resolving essential questions of cremation duration and fuel consumption of a gasogene-fired, coke-fueled cremation oven, which are examined in detail in two specific chapters.

To present the public with as complete a picture as possible of Auschwitz cremation, Mattogno has not neglected the legal and statistical aspects with specific reference to Germany. These topics are presented in Part One of Volume I.

In Part Two, Mattogno has outlined the activities of the Topf company in the planning and constructing of civilian crematory ovens (which were among the Topf company's various other installations), describing in detail the structure and operation of the Topf crematory ovens which were fueled by coke, gas, and electricity. In this section is also found reports on the numerous patents (and applications for patents) which were granted, notice, or submitted between the 1920s and the 1950s.

After his general introduction concerning the production of Topf company crematory installations for civilian use, Mattogno then presents information regarding the crematory facilities which were planned and constructed for the German World War II concentration camps. He begins with the facilities at Dachau and Gusen (they had two-muffled crematory oven cremation chambers heated by naphtha, which were later converted to coke-fueled facilities).

With this, Mattogno gets into a main theme of this work, which begins with a documented history of the construction of the Auschwitz-Birkenau cremation ovens. This is followed by an accurate presentation of the structure and the operation of these technical installations—crematory ovens of two, three, and eight muffles—and an exposition of the Topf company projections in case of the necessity of mass cremations in that camp.

Three fundamental questions: duration of the cremation process, capacity of the crematory, and fuel consumption of the Topf Auschwitz-Birkenau crematory ovens are all scientifically treated on the basis of a large amount of documentation.

To ascertain the duration of the cremation process, Mattogno draws from experimental data—specifically from the scientific cremation experiments which used a coke-heated crematory oven that were carried out by engineer Kessler in Germany during the late 1920s, as well as experimental tests which were conducted by the engineer Jones in England during the 1970s in a gas-heated crematory oven—to an extract of the cremation lists of the Gusen crematory, and to the lists of the cremations nearly completed of the crematory of Westerbork.

The register lists of the cremations of Terezin (in which Mattogno studied the vast compilation of 717 consecutive cremations which took place from October 3, and November 15, 1943)—all this data furnishes an important comparison regarding the average duration of cremations, the results of which constitute the lower limits which are documented as being possible in the cremation installations of that era.

The treatise of the problem of cremation capacity of the Auschwitz-Birkenau crematory ovens contains a preliminary study of the outer limits of the constant functioning of the installations (which would have been subject to inevitable slag-formation down-time: the shutting down of crematory ovens for the removal of slag build-up from the grills) as well as the question of muffle load—that is regarding the possibility of cremating several cadavers at the same time (simultaneously) in one muffle. This
The Topf ovens at Auschwitz-Birkenau were designed for the cremation of single cadavers, and trying to exceed their technical limits could not have brought any economic advantages in the cremating.

The Soviet-Polish Expert Reports on the Kori coke-heated crematory ovens in the concentration camps at Lublin-Majdanek, Sachsenhausen and Stutthof, which are being presented for the first time in an Italian language translation (leaving aside any purely propagandistic aspects they may have) actually provide an indirect proof of the accuracy of the Mattogno assertions regarding the duration of a cremation, which is 60 minutes.

The Soviet experts who worked out an orientation chart to determine the combustion time (duration) of cadavers in various crematory ovens operating at the temperature which was the normal running temperature of a crematory oven—that is 800 degrees Celsius—ended up with results of a cremation duration time amounting to two hours. At a temperature of 1,000 degrees, which was the maximum outer limit of the Birkenau ovens, that corresponded on the chart to a cremation duration of an hour and a half.

The Soviet experts avoided the obstacle of an assumption in which the temperature of the ovens catches up to 1,500 degrees Celsius, whereby at such a temperature the duration of the cremation process would figure to be 15 minutes, which is simply absurd.

Those Soviets also alleged that four or five corpses were stuffed altogether into every cremation chamber—and that nevertheless, the duration-time of the cremations still remained at 15 minutes, which is twice as absurd.

With these tricks those Soviet experts attributed to the Auschwitz crematory ovens a cremation capacity absolutely excessive. Now we shall see the how and the why.

In this treatise, Mattogno did not limit himself to simply assessing the numerical data. He also examined the historical issues concerning the planning and construction of the Auschwitz-Birkenau crematory ovens.

Heat balance and calculation of crematory oven coke-fuel consumption, is based upon specific experimental data: that is the consumption of the Topf two muffle-chambered crematory oven of the Gusen crematorium.

The calculations hold account of the technical data concerning coke in the ovens (with a detailed study concerning the hourly heat loss in the Gusen oven and in the two- and three-muffle ovens at Auschwitz-Birkenau) as well as a classification of corpses, which come in three main types: normal, medium, and thin.

Fuel consumption (as well as the total combustion air, theoretical air, and surplus air) is calculated for every type of oven and for every type of corpse.

In order to better evaluate the technical characteristics of the Topf crematory ovens at Auschwitz-Birkenau, Mattogno also thoroughly studied the coke and naphtha crematory ovens for the concentration camps which were constructed by the Hans Kori company of Berlin—which was the main competitor of the Topf company, as well as those of the Ignis-Huettenbau company which were installed in the crematory of Terezin. These were without doubt the most efficient installations of all those which were constructed in Europe during the 1940s.

The last topic dealt with in Part Two is legal regulations concerning cremation in the concentration camps, and of the compatibility of the camp crematory oven system to those regulations.

The Mattogno study is based upon absolutely, and without exception, first-hand sources. The bibliographical sources are listed in the Bibliography, and those which are documentary are cited in the notes.

Mattogno first of all collected the most significant German technical literature which still existed on this topic. He included this information as well as patents which still existed on civilian crematory ovens (recognizing that many civilian crematory oven patents were lost in World War II due to the Allied bombings or otherwise unavailable). At the same time he has put himself in contact with various manufacturers of crematory ovens, and he has visited crematories in Italy and in France.

To understand the structure and functioning of the Topf and Kori crematory ovens, Mattogno studied in particular the stored German documents such as the Zentralbauleitung [central construction administration] of Auschwitz, as well as other documents housed in various other European archives. With that, he inspected and photographed the installations still existing in the former German concentration camps of:

1. Auschwitz: Two Topf double muffled ovens which were badly reconstructed by the Poles—one Kori moveable naphtha burning oven;
2. Buchenwald: Two Topf triple muffled coke heated ovens (one prepared also for being heated by naphtha) the same as those installed in Crematory II and III at Birkenau;
3. Dachau: One Topf double muffled coke heated oven which was originally a moveable naphtha heated oven, and four Kori coke heated ovens;
4. Gusen: One double muffled Topf coke heated oven which was originally a moveable naphtha heated oven;
5. Mathausen: One Topf double muffled coke heated oven, the same model as the three double muffled ovens installed in Crematory I at Auschwitz, and one Kori coke heated oven;
6. Gross-Rosen: One Kori mobile naphtha fueled oven;
7. Lublin: Five Kori coke fueled ovens and one Kori mobile naphtha fueled oven;
8. Stutthof: Two Kori coke fueled ovens and one Kori mobile naphtha fueled oven;

In the second volume of his magnum opus, Mattogno illustrates installations in detail with 360 photographs subdivided into eleven sections, each section dedicated to a specific installation. This documentation contains photographs of installations which up to now have been unknown (such as the Terezin crematory ovens) or little noted even among the specialists, such as the crematory ovens of Gusen, Gross-Rosen, Stutthof, and also of Lublin-Majdanek.

It is also to be noted that the photography of these installations represents a significant new development, showing for the first time their essential elements, which is indispensable for understanding their structure and their functioning.

The second volume contains 270 documents, many of which have never been published before or are unknown to specialists. The first 101 documents refer to civilian crematory ovens. The
documents numbered from 102 to 143 concern the civilian activity of the Topf company. Lastly, those documents numbered 144 to 270 are a selection of the most important documents concerning the Topf crematory ovens at Mauthausen, Gusen, Buchenwald and Auschwitz-Birkenau (plans, designs, projects, cost estimates, shipping notices, invoices, service instructions, diagrams, etc.), about the Kori ovens concerning the above-mentioned areas (above all, original designs and designs very much cared for by Soviet experts)—these concern technical and administrative questions and about the crematory bureaucracy in the concentration camps.

The Importance of Cremation Studies to Auschwitz Historiography—On January 27, 1945, the Soviet military entered Auschwitz. For propaganda reasons, they quickly appointed various investigation commissions which were supposed to shed light on alleged crimes by the Germans in that camp. The activities of these commissions naturally did not try to assess what really happened, but simply tried to give the appearance of being scientific as per the political directives of the communist party.

There is no doubt that the campaign which was the most nefarious and ominous for western historiography was that one which was sponsored by four engineers: two Poles and two Russians, which came up with the number of victims at Auschwitz: the mysterious 4 million.

It is not known with certainty whether this figure was proposed—or imposed—by the Polish-Soviet commission based on the so-called eyewitnesses or if it was drafted from their declarations. Mattogno inclines toward the first hypothesis because the Soviets, in order to attempt to destroy National Socialist ideology, needed to present this as the apex of horror and to identify National Socialism with Auschwitz.

The Soviets in August 1944, having already attributed to the Lublin-Majdanek camp an enormous number of victims—that is 1,500,000 deaths—35 times more than the real figure for Auschwitz then, they therefore imposed a figure even more erroneous, from where we get the necessity of 4 million.

It is important to determine by what aberrant pseudoscientific processes the Polish-Soviet investigating commission came up with such a figure. Those experts, in order to reach the conclusion to which they had to give a scientific appearance, did not use any document, but instead they based it exclusively on their presumed cremation capacity of the crematory ovens and on the presumed cremation pits at Auschwitz—and not only did they attribute to these systems a cremation capacity 10 times more than reality, but they multiplied it for an activity-time full of blunders—that is for the entire existence of the above-mentioned systems, only partially limited by so-called “coefficients of inactivity,” which is rather imaginative. This was the way the mythical figure of 4 million was presented and remained in vogue until the year 1989.

But here Mattogno is anxious to point out that although it was fashionable then, it was not factual at that time, and it still is not factual today. It is certainly important that the first figure (of 4 million) was deflated down to 1,100,000 according to the Auschwitz State Museum, and even down to 631,000 (the minimum figure) as per Jean-Claude Pressac—the question as to just how many; instead, is due to the numerical restructuring of the capacity of the cremation systems.

Let’s have Mattogno clear up this essential point. In 1945, the self-styled eyewitnesses enthusiastically embraced the cause of the 4 million, and to justify it they resorted to technically absurd declarations. For example, “witness” Henryk Tauber declared to the Soviet investigators that the ovens at Birkenau normally cremated four to five cadavers within 20 to 25 minutes in every crematory muffle chamber. And the other self-styled eyewitnesses quickly fell in line with this order of magnitude and even surpassed it. And so we get the self-styled eyewitness Dov Paisikovic affirming that the cremation of one cadaver took four minutes.

In effect, it is only with such absurdity that they could “demonstrate” the mystical figure of 4 million. But when this has collapsed, the absurd testimony of Tauber and his colleagues, instead of being scattered among the wreckage of Soviet propaganda, remains set and indestructible, and incredibly, there are still many adherents of the holocaust who take these people seriously.

At this point it is easy to understand the importance of the study of cremation in the historiography of Auschwitz, which is explicit in some essential sub-points:

Sub-point (A). The Soviets found in Auschwitz 536 cadavers and 46 registries of the deceased (Sterbebücher) which contained the names of approximately 67,200 deaths. Although these registries referred (with some gaps) to the period from August 1941 to December 1943, they nevertheless showed the order of magnitude of the mortality which contrasted in a strident way with the mythical figure of 4 million. Therefore those registers were very secretly transferred to Moscow and no commission of inquiry concerning Auschwitz has ever mentioned them. They reappeared only after the collapse of communism in Russia. Now the study of cremation allows verification to determine if the popular figure of Auschwitz deaths is technically possible, or in other words, is the story of mass extermination technically possible.

Sub-point (B). History of the alleged homicidal gas chamber at Auschwitz is still based essentially on pretentious eyewitness testimony: If these witnesses concerning cremations have lied, then for what reason should we believe in their declarations concerning homicidal gassings?

We shall subsequently see what conclusions result from the study of cremations at Auschwitz, but first we shall clarify essential parts of this topic, which brings us to:

The Beginning of Modern Cremation—Cremating human cadavers had been going on in Europe for more than a thousand years even before the time of Homer, and human cremation continued to be practiced until the year 785, when it was prohibited under penalty of death by Charles the Great with his decree of Paderborn.

In the following centuries, in Christian Europe, [or Christendom as it was called] the cremation of cadavers fell completely out of use as a funeral custom. Its revival took place with the modern cremation movement which began in 1849 when the German philologist Jakob Grimm delivered a speech on this topic at the Berlin Academy of Science. The idea was quickly picked up and disseminated enthusiastically among tireless pioneers such as the military medical doctor Trusen, Prof. Moleschott, Prof. Richter, Prof. Reclam and Prof. Küchenmeister. The first cremation in a crematory oven in Europe occurred on the October 9, 1874, in Dresden, Germany in a Siemens temporary or prototype
crematory oven. The remains of an English woman were cremated on that occasion. She was Lady Dilke, who had been the wife of the secretary of state, Dilke. This was followed by the cremation, on November 6, of the remains of the wife of Wiesbaden sanitary commissioner Thilenius, and yet still others, but then these experimental cremations became prohibited by the government of Saxony.

Italy quickly was in the forefront of the modern cremation movement both from the legal as well as the technical point of view. The principle of cadaver cremation was recognized by the Italian sanitary regulations of September 6, 1874.

This period saw a great fervor of studies and of experiments which resulted in the construction of several types of crematory ovens. Modern cremation had to satisfy the prevailing aesthetic and economic requirements which were formulated for the first time at a conference convened in Dresden on June 7, 1876.

The first crematorium in Europe was erected in Milan, Italy in 1875. It was equipped with a Polli-Clericetti cremation oven and was inaugurated on January 22, 1876, with the cremation of the cadaver of Albert Keller.

The first German crematory was placed into service in Gotha on December 10, 1878, and for the following 12 years, the Gotha crematory remained the only crematory in all of Germany. During the last decade of the 1800s, the number of crematories in Germany had changed very little, and in 1900 there were merely five. An increase was recorded only during the years just before World War I so that in 1913 the number of crematories had grown to 40. By the end of World War I there were 52. During the period between the two world wars, the German cremation movement grew as follows:

- In 1920 there were 54 crematories; in 1925 there were 66 crematories; in 1930 there were 104 crematories; in 1935 there were 114 crematories. With the opening of the crematorium at Laehr on July 16, 1939—the last crematorium built before the outbreak of World War II—the number of crematories had reached 122 within the old Reich, and within the territory of Greater Germany there existed altogether 131 crematories, of which five were in Austria, and four in the Sudetenland.

Because at first the practice of modern cremation was a novelty—often taken hostage by the dominant cultural atmosphere—consequently there existed only a few crematories in Germany—and the number of cremations remained very meager for quite a long time and only began to grow in a consistent way after World War I. It remained under 100 until 1886, went up to 1,000 in 1902, and went to 10,000 in 1912. In 1918, the number of cremations was 15,878 and in the following years it grew quickly until exceeding 100,000 cremations in the year 1939. Altogether, from 1878 to 1939 in Germany, 1,201,823 corpses were cremated. In 1939, the number of deaths in Greater Germany was 1,007,122 of which there were 102,022 bodies cremated. In 1940 there were 108,630 cremations; in 1941 there were 107,103, and in 1942 there were 114,184.

As Far as Crematories Were Concerned—at the end of 1938 in Germany, there were 130 crematories while in England there were 47, in Italy 37 (of which 7 were out of service), in Sweden and Switzerland 22, Denmark 16, Norway 10, Czechoslovakia 9, France 6, Russia 2, and in Belgium, Finland, Holland, Portugal and Romania—each of those countries had only one crematory. After Germany, the other European countries recording the largest number of cremations were England (16,312 cremations), Switzerland (7,071 cremations), the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia (5,535 cremations), Sweden (4,434 cremations), Denmark (4,031 cremations), Norway (2,261 cremations) and France (1,340 cremations).

But the Japanese hold the world record for the number of crematories as well as for the number of cremations. Already in the year 1912 Japan possessed a good 36,723 crematory installations. In the year 1929, the Japanese cremated 622,492 cadavers.

The Crematories in the German Concentration Camps—The institution of crematories in German concentration camps goes back to this long tradition. In fact, during the Third Reich when the first concentration camps were instituted, the administrative SS authorities, not anticipating the high rate of mortality which they were to encounter in the following years, normally sent the cadavers of their deceased to civilian crematories. It was only thereafter, when the mortality began to increase at such a high rate beyond their expectation, that they decided to institute their own crematories within the camps. Originally the Konzentrationslager Buchenwald used the State Crematory at Weimar. From September 5, 1938, to May 3, 1940, the deceased inmates of the Konzentrationslager Mauthausen were brought to the Municipal Crematory at Steyr. The Konzentrationslager Wewelsburg, up to at least December of 1941, brought their deceased to the crematory at Bielefeld, while the Kriegsgefangenen-Arbeitslager Gross-Rosen, from August 21, 1940, until January 28, 1943, used the municipal crematory at Legnitz. And believe it or not, at first even Auschwitz relied upon a civilian crematory—the one at Gleiwitz (spelt “Gliwice” by the Poles).

As soon as the German concentration camps began to provide their own crematories, they were subjected to the same strict legislation regulating civilian crematories, as derived from the “Decree on the Performance of Cremations in the Crematory of the Sachsenhausen Concentration Camp” which was declared by Himmler on February 28, 1940. According to these regulations, the urns containing the ashes of the cremated prisoners could be buried in a cemetery at the place of origin of the deceased. Subsequently, with the tragic worsening of the sanitary conditions of the camps, the crematories became indispensable hygienic-sanitary instruments and the cremations were carried out without a lot of legal restrictions.

Origins of the Auschwitz Crematories—At Auschwitz there originally existed one single crematorium with three two-muffle ovens or cremation chambers. For the camp at Birkenau there was initially projected one crematorium with five three-muffle ovens. In August of 1942 the SS authorities decided to install at Birkenau another three crematories. This decision was taken as a result of two facts: the expected increase of the population of the camp having to take on up to 200,000 prisoners, and the affliction of the terrible typhus epidemic which broke out at the beginning of July of 1942. So throughout the entire Auschwitz-Birkenau complex there existed five crematoria described in the following way:

- At Auschwitz itself, the crematory with three two-muffle chambered ovens.
- At Birkenau, Crematories II and III, each with five three-muffle chambered ovens, as well as Crematories IV and V, each with eight-muffle chambered ovens. Taken altogether, there existed therefore 52 muffle chambers at Auschwitz-Birkenau as of July
of 1943, which went down to 48 muffle chambers with the closing of Crematory I. The equipment of Auschwitz-Birkenau was not on a par with the other camps, but that does not mean that it was disproportionate; after all, neither was the natural mortality rate of Auschwitz on a par with the other camps. For example the camp at Dachau, which had a crematory with a two-muffle chambered oven, when in March of 1942, the local authorities projected or planned a new crematory with four ovens, the average mortality rate was at two deaths per day; and in the camp at Buchenwald when the two new three-muffle chambered crematory ovens were installed, the average mortality rate was between eight to 12 deaths per day. But on the other hand, when the SS authorities decided to construct the three crematories just mentioned, mortality at Auschwitz was at the rate of 277 deaths per day. Therefore for Auschwitz they projected an increase in the number of crematory oven muffle chambers eight times more than they projected for Buchenwald, but with a daily death rate 23 times higher.

On the other hand, from a letter from the head of the Auschwitz Zentralbauleitung [central building administration] dated July 10, 1942, it turns out that a crematory with five three-muffle ovens was planned for 30,000 inmates, which amounts to a muffle-inmate ratio of 1 to 2,000.

The 46 muffles at Birkenau were therefore planned for 92,000 inmates, but, as has been stated, according to the initial SS plans, the Birkenau camp was to hold 200,000 prisoners, and that would have required 100 muffles. So from a practical standpoint, the number of muffles at Birkenau was not enough in terms of the population increase which was planned for that camp.

**Structure and Operation of the Birkenau Crematory Ovens**—The crematory ovens of Auschwitz were simpler systems than those in use in civilian crematories. The Topf company got the Auschwitz contracts not because their products were the best, but simply because they were the least expensive. By assembling two, three and four crematory ovens in a single structure, the Topf company created competitive installations because they knew how to save a remarkable amount of material. But with that, in the process of cremations, there were problems which did not occur in the single ovens of the competition. On the contrary, the shoddy quality of the Auschwitz ovens appeared documentarily from the correspondence between the Topf company and the Zentralbauleitung of Auschwitz: it turns out that practically not a month went by without the verification that there were damages of various kinds, some so serious as to compromise the functioning of the entire system, such as the case of Crematory IV, which had to be shut down after some months of operation.

The crematory ovens had gasogene-fired, coke-fueled cremation chambers known as muffles, and an ash-collecting receptacle. In the gasogene, which was situated at the posterior part of the oven, was found the oven hearth grill on which the coke was burned. The combustion products entered the muffle through an appropriate aperture and invested the cadaver which lay on a refractory clay grill. The cadaver was introduced into the muffle chamber through a special door which was located at the rear of the oven. The residuals of the cadavers fell through the fissures of the grill down onto the ash-pit below, where they were completely consumed, and then from there the ashes were removed through an appropriate door located under the cadaver-introductory door. The air for corpse combustion was supplied from a blower connected to the oven. The by-products of the combustion of the cadavers, and the exhaust produced by the draft of the chimney, entered into the smoke duct from where it went on up into the chimney.

During the operation of the crematory ovens, because of their structure, the chimney gave off smoke, but did not emit flames, contrary to what was asserted by various so-called eye-witnesses.

**The Duration of the Cremation Process and the Consumption of Coke**—The cremation of a cadaver is a natural chemical-physical combustion process which requires its own natural time to be carried out. In the best civilian crematory ovens working with coke, the average duration of a cremation took approximately 80 to 90 minutes. The main combustion of the cadaver took place within approximately 60 minutes, after which the residual particles dropped down through the bars of the grill onto the ash-pit below, where they stayed for another 20 to 30 minutes until their complete combustion. Then the ashes were extracted from the crematory oven.

In the Auschwitz crematory ovens, the average duration for the completion of a cremation was approximately 60 minutes, not because these systems were more efficient, but because they followed a different practice, which went like this: Soon after approximately 60 minutes, and after the residuals of one cadaver had dropped down into the ash-pit, another cadaver was quickly introduced into the muffle chamber. Therefore, two cadavers were in the oven at the same time, but one cadaver was in its initial stage of the cremation process, while the other cadaver was in its final stage. This system of cremation would not have been carried out in the civilian crematories because it was illegal.

The Auschwitz crematory ovens were planned and built for the cremation of one single cadaver at a time. The very same planning engineer, the Topf company engineer Kurt Prüfer, when he was interrogated by the Soviets in 1946, confirmed that the crematory ovens of Birkenau could cremate one cadaver per hour per muffle, and furthermore, he declared that the attempt, which was conducted in his presence to try to cremate two cadavers together in one muffle, failed.

**CARLO MATTOGNO** is an Italian scholar with a broad and specialized education ranging from the classics to the military. His Greek and Latin studies were followed by university work in philosophy, plus Oriental and religious studies. While serving in the Italian army, Mattogno attended three schools and he has become an accomplished researcher. In 1979 he became dedicated to the discipline of historical Revisionism. In the service of truth, he has shown how Jean Claude Pressac is unjustified in promoting the legend of mass extermination of millions of Jews at Auschwitz via gas chambers. Mattogno has exposed Pressac’s ignorance of the structures and functioning of both crematory ovens and gas chambers, and the nature and use of the disinfectant Zyklon B.

**REVISIONIST RUSSELL GRANATA** was born and raised in Rochester, New York and was a youngster still at home with his parents when the Japanese attacked the U.S. Navy at Pearl Harbor. In no time, he and some of his friends were in the local Navy recruiting office trying to volunteer— but first they had to get parental permission because they were underage. Ever since World War II, he has made California his home. Russ holds a master’s degree from the University of Southern California.
Coke consumption of the ovens varied according to the model. For a very thin adult cadaver—which in Auschwitz at that time was just about the norm—this was averaging approximately 32.5 kg of coke fuel for the two-muffled oven, and approximately 22 kg for the three-muffled oven, and approximately 16 kg for the eight-muffled oven.

**Coke Consumption in 1943**—From March 1 to October 24, 1943, for the crematories of Auschwitz-Birkenau, there was supplied altogether 641.5 tons of coke. During this period, the number of prisoners who died of natural causes was approximately 19,000. The number of prisoners alleged to have been homicidally gassed is given as approximately 118,000—altogether approximately 137,000 dead who were allegedly all cremated in the crematory ovens. Now, for the real dead that turns out to be an average coke availability of approximately 33.8 kg per cadaver, which comprises also the coke used for heating up the ovens and is therefore quite compatible with the consumption of the ovens. But if the dead really came to 137,000, the consumption of coke per each cadaver would have to 4.7 kg and that is simply impossible.

Therefore during the period I have cited above, the crematory ovens cremated only the cadavers of prisoners who had died of natural causes.

**The Duration of the Fire-Resistant Masonry of the Cremation Ovens**—In 1941, the duration of the refractory or fire resistant lining of the Topf crematory ovens, which were heated electrically, was up to 3,000 cremations.

However, the electrical heating system guaranteed a uniform diffusion of heat which prolonged the life of the refractory masonry lining of the oven walls. In fact, the Topf coke-fueled two-muffled oven at Gusen, which was a subsidiary camp of Mauthausen, resisted only about 3,200 cremations, which comes to 1,600 cremations per muffle. Then after that, the refractory oven walls had to be dismantled and renovated.

As I have pointed out previously, the official death figure at Auschwitz which is actually given is 1,100,000 persons, the largest proportion of which (that is at least 800,000 persons) were supposed to have been cremated in the ovens, and the rest of them were supposed to have been cremated out in the open air. Well, even if we assume an extreme limit of 3,000 cremations, the 52 crematory muffle of Auschwitz-Birkenau could have cremated 156,000 corpses. The cremation of 800,000 corpses would therefore have required five complete replacements of the refractory walls of all the crematory ovens. However in the archives of the Auschwitz Zentralbauleitung, which has the register of all replacement orders made by the Topf company, there is no trace of this work, which means that it was never performed. Therefore it follows that the cremation of 800,000 cadavers in the crematories of Auschwitz-Birkenau was technically impossible.

As far as the cremation in so-called “cremation pits,” the figure which is presented by the so-called eyewitnesses is absolutely excessive. There is no doubt that in the early summer of 1942 until the opening of the two crematories in March of 1943—especially when the high death rate from a typhus epidemic was raging through the camp—there is no doubt that several thousands of corpses were burned out in the open—probably with rudimentary camp-brick furnaces. But that does not have anything to do with the burning of at least 300,000 alleged homicidally gassed people. This allegation is categorically refuted by the two American aerial photographs taken on May 31, 1944, during that crucial time of an alleged mass extermination of Hungarian Jews, when, according to the so-called eyewitnesses, at Birkenau there was supposed to have been two enormous cremation pits in the area of so-called Bunker 2, and another five enormous pits in the courtyard of Crematory V—pits which, we are told, swallowed up thousands of cadavers per day.

During that entire period of time, it would have been possible to cremate on the average, out in the open air, approximately 9,500 cadavers, which would have required a total burning surface of around 7,600 square meters.

The two aerial photographs do not show the slightest trace of any of this alleged activity: In these photographs there appears a single minuscule column of smoke which arises from the courtyard of Crematory V and which corresponds to a burning surface area not greater than 50 square meters, 7,600 square meters against 50 square meters: Here therefore also collapses the story of mass open-air cremation. The small column of smoke mentioned previously, is explained by the documented fact that on May 31, 1944, the four crematory facilities in Birkenau were not in operation and were being repaired, and that therefore cadavers of prisoners who had died of natural causes had to be burned out in the open air.

**The Lies of the So-Called Eyewitnesses**—The scientific study of cremation at Auschwitz demonstrates that no mass cremation occurred, and consequently no mass extermination occurred.

Furthermore this demonstrates in an irrefutable way that all—and let me repeat, I say all—the so-called eyewitnesses have shamelessly lied about cremations of the cadavers at Auschwitz, and there does not exist one single witness who has rendered any plausible technical declaration in this regard. But after all, since they so shamelessly lied about the cremation of the cadavers, why should they be believed about the homicidal gassing of the Jews?

Of course there is no reason to believe them, because they have lied about cremations in order to try to cover their lies about homicidal gassings—the one lie is inseparable from the other, and the destruction of the one lie inevitably brings the destruction of the other.

**FOOTNOTE**

1 [A gasogene or gazogene is an apparatus for aerating liquids.—Ed.]
A century ago, professional baseball players were widely considered to be louts and drunkards, hardly worthy of emulation by America's youth. One man, however, broke from the herd and became America's first true sports idol.

Pitcher Christopher (Christy) Mathewson was popularly known as "Matty" and sometimes "Big Six." Stories vary as to the origin of the latter nickname, but the most likely genesis was a line from sportswriter Sam Crane, who likened Matty to New York's most dependable fire brigade, popularly known as the Big Six.

Born on August 12, 1880, in Factoryville, Pennsylvania, Mathewson was the son of a gentleman farmer father and a fairly well-to-do mother. A star athlete in baseball and football at Bucknell University, Mathewson spent his summers playing minor league baseball. In 1900, while toiling for Norfolk in the Virginia League, he compiled a 20-2 record, a gaudy statistic that caught the eye of the New York Giants, who brought him up for a try out at the end of the season. With indifferent results, they returned him to Norfolk. Cincinnati drafted him for $100, and then Redlegs owner John T. Brush traded him back to the Giants.

When Mathewson arrived in Gotham, the established teams were the New York Giants and the Brooklyn Superbas (later the Dodgers) of the National League. The Giants had enjoyed some success in the 19th century but were in a down cycle when Brooklyn won National League pennants in 1899 and 1900. The Yankees (initially known as the Highlanders) did not appear until 1903, when the Baltimore Orioles of the upstart American League moved to New York.

With the arrival of Mathewson and manager John McGraw (aghast to find Mathewson playing first base, McGraw put him on the pitcher's mound for good), the Giants quickly became the toast of the town. Mathewson's appearance was as clean cut as his lifestyle; coupled with his pitching achievements, they made him a highly marketable commodity. He authored a book, *Pitching in a Pinch*, appeared in vaudeville reviews and would take on challengers in chess matches, often playing several opponents simultaneously.

By age 32, Mathewson had won 300 big league games. He had been a 20-game winner 12 seasons in a row (including four 30-game seasons). Two seasons are especially noteworthy: in 1908, he pitched 390-2/3 innings, posted a 37-12 mark, hurled 12 shutouts and posted a minuscule 1.43 ERA; in 1905, his World Series performance consisted of three complete game shutouts against the Athletics.

Mathewson finished his playing career in 1916 with a grand total of 373 victories, which ranks him behind only Walter Johnson and Cy Young. His career earned run average was 2.13, which was surpassed only by Mordecai “Three Finger” Brown of the Cubs. By today's standards, when managers are quick to yank starting pitchers in favor of long relievers, setup men and closers, Mathewson's record of 435 complete games is perhaps his most astonishing achievement.

Though everything had gone Matty's way both on and off the diamond, his fortunes quickly ebbed with his pitching skills. At the end of his career with the Giants in 1916, he was traded to Cincinnati so he could serve as the Redlegs' manager. Soon thereafter, Matty's younger brother Henry, 31, who had pitched briefly (and poorly) with the Giants, committed suicide. At the same time, Mathewson was at loggerheads with Cincinnati first baseman Hal Chase. Rumors swirled about Chase, who was supposedly linked to gamblers who were attempting to fix games (the Black Sox scandal of 1919 was not an anomaly but the culmination of trends that had been brewing in baseball for some time). Responding to Chase's suspicious behavior on the field, Mathewson suspended him in August, 1918. Chase then filed a lawsuit for the paychecks he missed through the end of the season. The whole affair so discouraged Mathewson that he resigned the following month and enlisted in the Army, where tragedy awaited him. It would be wrong, however, to conclude that Mathewson ended up another victim on the battlefields and trenches. He was not shipped to Europe till after the armistice. Then a training accident involving poison gas eventually led to seven years of health problems, culminating in tuberculosis.

Mathewson died on October 8, 1925, at the age of 46, just a few hours after the first game of the World Series. For the remainder of the series, the participants, the Washington Senators and the Pittsburgh Pirates, wore black armbands in memory of Mathewson, who was buried in the Bucknell College cemetery in Lewisburg, Pennsylvania.

When the National Baseball Hall of Fame was formed in 1939, it was a no-brainer to include Mathewson among the inaugural honorees, who also included Babe Ruth, Walter Johnson, Cy Young, Ty Cobb and Honus Wagner. Mathewson's big league career, which began in 1900, was matched by few and surpassed by none during the remainder of the 20th century.
With the reinstatement of capital punishment in the United States, the ancient execution equipment in place at the state prisons had to be used. None of it had worked properly in the first place, and, being old and dysfunctional, it could not be expected to work properly in the future. Because my father had worked so long in the Massachusetts prison system (more than 40 years) and because I was an engineer, I was asked to investigate the Massachusetts electric chair and determine what needed be done to make it functional.

Because I was familiar with the Massachusetts system I was asked by more and more states to help them rebuild and repair their execution equipment to enable them to conduct a competent execution and not torture the executees. By 1990 I was on a first name basis with every warden in the country and was consulting in all states with a capital punishment requirement.

I invented the lethal injection machine, built improved electric chairs, designed and built gallows and designed gas chambers. I had written the established protocol for all four modes of execution and was the only federal court certified expert in execution technology and electrocution technology. ABC News, in a profile televised on Prime Time Live, dubbed me “Dr. Death.” I routinely testified in court on defective equipment and botched executions.

[Revisionist] Dr. Robert Faurisson contacted me in 1988 on the referral of the U.S. prison system on behalf of Ernst Zundel, who was facing trial in Canada on a freedom of speech issue regarding the alleged existence and operation of gas chambers for mass human executions by the German government during World War II. I was to appear as an expert witness in the court at Toronto. I accepted.

In my capacity as expert witness, I was briefed with all manner of Holocaust literature and sent to Poland to investigate the alleged gas chambers at Auschwitz, Birkenau and Majdanek. With the aid of my draftsman, film crew and forensic samples taken from the European gas chambers analyzed in the United States, testified in court and presented a document now known as The Leuchter Report. This testimony and report, accepted as evidence in the Canadian court, forever disproved the existence of gas chambers at the investigated locations. I appeared on

**THE RETURN OF ‘MR. DEATH’**

**BY FRED LEUCHTER**

The following first-person account is by Fred Leuchter, an expert on the operation of lethal gas chambers, who came to question whether such devices were used by the German Nazis against Jews and others during World War II. It was presented by Leuchter at the three-day BARNES REVIEW SECOND INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON AUTHENTIC HISTORY AND THE FIRST AMENDMENT on June 16, 2001.

**THERE’S NO BETTER ‘BEST WITNESS’ THAN FRED LEUCHTER . . .**

Fred Leuchter is an American citizen, born near Boston in 1943. He was educated in the Massachusetts public school system and graduated from Boston University in 1964. As an electrical (electronic) engineer, Mr. Leuchter designed and built navigational and meteorological instrumentation utilized by the U.S. Navy and airborne photographic equipment used by the U.S. Air Force in Vietnam. He was awarded several patents for meteorological instrumentation and optical encoding. Later he went on to become an expert on gas chambers and to invent the lethal injection machine used in some U.S. executions. He became interested in questions regarding the “Holocaust” and came to the conclusion that it did not happen as depicted by the court historians. This resulted in his persecution by the establishment, especially in Germany, where freedom of speech is nonexistent.
Ernst Zundel’s behalf for two reasons: his right of free speech, and his right to present an adequate defense. Those two reasons are still important now.

For this, I was vilified and attacked both verbally and physically by various Jewish organizations including the Anti-Defamation League [of B’nai B’rith] and the Klarsfeld Foundation [notorious “Nazi-hunters”—Ed.]. I was prosecuted for practicing as an engineer without a license, a charge which was later dropped by order of the court. Three court-appointed lawyers withdrew because of death threats. I was represented by Kirk Lyons, from Texas, alone, the one and only time a “foreign” attorney was allowed to practice, without co-counsel, in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. Despite lies circulated by the Anti-Defamation League, I was not “on probation,” and the only constraint required by the judge (and she noted to my lawyer it was not really a constraint) was that I should not say I was licensed. I had never made such a claim, and no license is, or was, ever required in any state.

I was followed by Mossad agents, threatened constantly and had my house firebombed. Police from all over the state had to come to protect my family and me. Because of threats to prison wardens and state officials, and Jewish legislators threatening to pass illegal “laws” to prevent my working for states, my business was totally destroyed. I, for the most part, became an unemployable pariah.

I was asked the following year [1989] to appear as an expert in a German court in Munich, again for Zundel, which I did. I was ruled competent to appear the following year [1990], something which the pro-Holocaust zealots [desired to] prevent. It would be unthinkable that competent expert testimony should ever be given in a German court destroying the Holocaust myth. Earlier that same year [1989], the German minister of science had ruled that The Leuchter Report was a scientific document. It was legal to discuss the report. I spoke a number of times while in Germany that year, most notably at Weinheim, where I was translated by Günter Deckert, to a group of academics.

Later that year, and unbeknownst to me, the enlightened German minister of science, who had classified The Leuchter Report as a scientific document, had been removed by the pro-Holocaust zealots, and, because I spoke about the report, a decision was made to arrest me. This can be done since, under the Napoleonic code [which applies in Germany], a law can be applied retroactively. Now they had to get me to [come] to Germany.

Meanwhile, I went to England to speak at a history club meeting at the request of David Irving. I was taken into custody while on stage and speaking by the chief inspector [from] the Chelsea police station, without a warrant, at the behest of the pro-Holocaust zealots. I was imprisoned with all manner of common criminals that evening and was questioned by two officers of her majesty's Immigration Service from 2:00 A.M. to 6:00 A.M., looking for some excuse to deport me. At 8:00 A.M. I was met by another officer of her majesty's Immigration Service, who was concerned that British law was being violated by my detention. He made it clear that I did not matter, but the law did.

I was told that I was to be deported first to France, then Belgium and finally Germany. This would all take several weeks. If I demanded to be sent home to the United States, however, this bureaucrat would do so, in compliance with the law. I had demanded so the prior evening, on tape, and since the other officers were not abiding by the law, he would. I repeated my demand to go home, and I was returned to New York City at her majesty’s expense. I was officially persona non grata in the United Kingdom, as is inscribed on my passport.

Several months later I was asked to appear on a live German television show in Munich. I qualified the appearance to deal only with the electric chair and executions in the United States, since I had been advised that my report was no longer a scientific document, and such discussion [was therefore] banned. I was not aware of the retroactive application provision of the Napoleonic code. I flew to Munich with my wife and, while at the television station awaiting broadcast, I was seized by officers of the Mannheim Police. I had been set up. I inquired about the existence of a warrant and was told none existed. I responded that I would not go to Mannheim and was told that I would be taken by force. And so I was. The television show host begged the police to allow me to go on the show first. But they refused. (I was about to air the entire illegal procedure, live.)

I was spirited across Germany in the dead of night, photographed and fingerprinted. I was permitted to see my lawyer for 10 minutes before I saw the judge. Due process being nonexistent in Germany, [the judge] committed me to the “bastille” without delay. I remained in Mannheim Prison in solitary confinement for six weeks. Prison officials, because of the lax security, were afraid that someone would kill me; and thus I was not permitted out of my cell. I endured several searches and was permitted to possess a “spear” I made from an old mop. I had only two showers the entire time I was there. I remained locked in through one riot and many early-morning threats outside my door.

My attorney was finally able to secure a bail hearing after six weeks. I was taken in handcuffs to the court and brought before a panel of three judges, who, after hearing my attorney’s pleas, denied bail. The lead judge ordered me handcuffed and returned to prison. I made a remark to my lawyer about this “kahn-
garoo court,” which the lead judge did not like. He asked me directly what my objections were, and I gave him my complaints. They agreed to consider bail, retired to deliberate, and returned granting bail.

I was taken to their chambers and given coffee while we awaited the posting of [a] bond. I agreed to return in several months for trial. If convicted, I faced eight years. I was [officially] freed and was [temporarily] returned to the prison to get my things and, subsequently, placed on a Lufthansa plane to the United States. I was afraid the court might change its mind and turn the plane around. It turned out my fears were not unjustified.

I planned to return to face trial. A week prior to my court appearance, I was called by an attorney, who shall remain nameless, who represented an inmate in Mannheim, who shall also remain nameless, with a message from his client, to whom I shall be forever grateful. I was told that the day following my release the prosecutor returned [from vacation] too late to prevent my “escape.” He had enough power to replace the three judges who [had] granted my bail, revoke my bail and issue a fugitive warrant for my immediate arrest, all without advising my attorney. I was further told that if I returned to Mannheim I would immediately be returned to Mannheim Prison, where I would be murdered.

I discussed the matter with my attorney, who said that it could not be true [he believed he would have been told by the German officials of these developments]. I decided not to return and asked my attorney to advise the court of my decision, and why.

My attorney appeared at court, and, before he could advise the court that I would not be appearing, all I had told him was confirmed. The bail was returned. No explanation was given [as] to the court’s failure to advise him earlier.

In the meanwhile, I had [again] been threatened with death if I returned, and my family and friends had also been similarly threatened. At that point, I determined that it would be best if I lowered my profile. I dropped out of sight.

The end result of all this was the breakup of my marriage, the destruction of my personal life and the loss of my business. In addition, I was “unemployable.”

I accepted a job in California. I lived there for several years and that’s where I met Terri, my present wife. I cannot discuss for whom I am working and what I am doing for fear that there will be reprisals. The project that I am working on, being almost completed, permitted me to accept a kind invitation to renew many old acquaintances and attend this conference.

Lastly, I would like to mention the movie Mr. Death. Errol Morris, the producer, had started the movie some seven years earlier but put the project on a back burner. He managed to find me two years ago and wanted to begin the film again. The film story was to be told similarly to President [John F.] Kennedy’s Profiles in Courage: my investigations in Poland and my subsequent destruction by Jewish organizations. His first cut of the film did precisely that.

[Morris] chose to call me “Mr. Death” instead of “Dr. Death” to avoid confusion with Dr. [Jack] Kevorkian, who had been given the same name as me. All his films contain only one person and [narrative from both] the subject and the producer. [His first cut of the film] was shown at Harvard University in Cambridge. The viewers came away from the screening believing that there were no gas chambers used by the Germans during World War II.

Subsequently, Morris’s arm was twisted by various Jewish elements, resulting in a new second half to the film—with the same Jewish troublemakers, who had caused me so much grief in the past, spewing out their foul lies. Even the chemist who analyzed the Auschwitz samples, and determined them to be cyanide free, now was lying as well, causing one to ask if he perjured himself in court. Further, attempts were made to try to make me look foolish. The end result was a film that failed to earn [Morris] his expected Oscar, failed to be accepted and shown by the contracting television company and which finally had to be sold for distribution through Blockbuster.
A ragtag mixture of “Anglos” and Mexicans are growing restless in Texas. They proclaim Texas a republic. Santa Anna saddles up and beads toward San Antonio to smite the upstarts. —It all sounds very familiar. The story of the Alamo and the 1836 Texan revolt against Mexico is well known even to the historically semiliterate. Yet the conflict referred to in the opening sentences did not occur in 1836 but in 1813, when Mexico was in revolt against Spain, and Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna Perez de Lebron was a 19-year-old lieutenant in the Royalist army of Spain.

As a criollo (or Creole), Santa Anna was of pure Spanish ancestry, but his prospects for social advancement were limited by the ruling class (peninsulares or gachupines) of Spaniards who had been born in Spain. The military offered a better chance for advancement than the civilian world, so at the age of 16, Santa Anna enlisted in the army of Spain. In 1811, he was ordered to report to Veracruz (his hometown) to join Col. Joaquin de Arredondo, who was gathering troops for punitive expeditions against rebels and Indians in the remote provinces to the north.

While Spain was still a formidable power in the first decade of the 19th century, she had taken some severe body blows. After Napoleon invaded the Iberian peninsula in 1808, Spain was in no condition to administer her colonies in the New World. By 1814, even though the king of Spain had returned to the throne, a number of independence movements had been set in motion and were gathering momentum. By 1825, most of the Latin American nations on the map today were founded.

After Father Hidalgo proclaimed Mexican independence in his famed Grito de Dolores (literally “Cry of Suffering”) in 1810, Spain had its hands full putting out political fires. An area of present-day east Texas was designated the Neutral Ground, neither under the control of Spain nor the United States. As one might expect, this power vacuum sucked in criminals, malcontents and misfits from both sides. The already porous border had long attracted American adventurers known as filibusters (no relation to the political terminology). These vagabonds are not to be confused with Stephen F. Austin’s colonists, who did not arrive until 1821, the year Mexico gained its independence from Spain.

When the situation in the neutral territory grew intolerable, the United States authorized Lt. Augustus Magee to clean it out. He did so—with draconian efficiency. In so doing, however, he came into contact with a number of Mexican political refugees who told him that Texas was ripe for the taking. One was Bernardo Gutierrez de Lara, a Mexican rebel against the crown, who convinced him to invade Mexico. In January 1812, Magee resigned his commission in the U.S. Army and proclaimed himself a colonel in the Republican Army of the North, which he recruited in New Orleans.

On August 7, 1812, Magee led an army of 800 ethnic French...
A committee, under the leadership of Richard Ellis (standing center with papers), drafted the Texas Declaration of Independence. It was signed on March 2, 1836. It ended with the words, “We do hereby resolve and declare that our political connection with the Mexican nation has forever ended; and that the people of Texas do now constitute a free and independent republic.” At the moments these leaders were signing their Texas Declaration of Independence, Santa Anna was attacking the Alamo. Seventeen years earlier, a younger Santa Anna was involved in putting down a revolution not of settlers, but of ill-prepared soldiers of fortune.

Creoles, Americans, Indians, Spaniards and Mexicans to Nacogdoches, at that time one of the few towns of any size in Texas. They captured not only Nacogdoches but also Trinidad de Salcedo and Presidio la Bahía, a south Texas fort, where Magee died, not from combat but from fever. Moving on to the San Antonio area, the rebels won two battles, killed hundreds of Royalists, captured horses and supplies and executed two Spanish governors. But success was not long-lived. In August 1813, Arredondo, now a general, led 1,830 men from Laredo to San Antonio. On August 18, he crushed the rebels at a battle near the Medina River. Republicans not killed in battle were executed. All in all, some 800 of them fell to the Royalists. Santa Anna, though just 19 years old, had already proved adept at carnage. The cruel methods he had employed for the previous two years served him equally well at Medina.

That would seem to have ended any troubles with republicans and rebels, but, in 1819, a Virginian named James Long had other notions. With a band of 120 followers, he took over Nacogdoches, declared the independence of Texas and his own presidency. Spanish soldiers drove him out of Texas, but he returned a year later. Leaving his pregnant wife Jane at a fort on the Bolivar peninsula near Galveston Island, Long and his followers met with officials from newly independent Mexico. They sent him to Mexico City, where he was shot—though whether it was intentional or accidental was never established.

It was Jane Long, however, who went down in history, as she gave birth to the first “Anglo”-American baby in Texas and became known as the “Mother of Texas.” As disconnected as this may seem to be from the earlier and later rebellions, it offers a clue as to why the former failed. It was not a movement of settlers but of soldiers of fortune. Not one child was born of the 1812-13 adventuring. By way of contrast, Austin’s colonists brought their womenfolk, started families and created communities. They suffered losses but eventually prevailed. Had the Spaniards also brought their women with them, there would have been much less mating with Indian women, far fewer mestizos, and the history of Mexico would have been very different.

At the time of the pre-Austin rebellions, the province of “Tejas” was sparsely populated and barely governed by Spain. Much like the conquistadors who preceded them, the republicans were motivated more by illusions of glory than by dreams of an independent republic. But in the heart of Mexico, there were equally ambitious officers, such as Santa Anna, ready to march north to squash poorly thought-out independence movements and build up their military reputations.

The 1835-36 conflict gets far more attention—as it should, since it set in motion historical forces that reverberate to this day. While “Remember the Alamo!” is a familiar cry even today, no one remembers Medina. Yet the initial rebellions should not be completely overlooked.

BIBLIOGRAPHY


Available in the San Jacinto Museum of History store.


Frank Jackson is a charter subscriber to TBR and occasionally does some writing on historical subjects for this and other “contrari-an” magazines.
African or Asiatic? — What is a Semite?

Although many philo-Semites and friends of those who consider themselves to be Semites (whether they are or not) would have one believe that Semites are in essence Asians, the truth is that Africa is clearly the original homeland of the Semitic language speakers. A Semite is a speaker of one of the Semitic languages (also known as the Hamito-Semitic or Afroasiatic language family), and these languages are primarily centered in Africa. The Hamito-Semitic language family is spoken by more than 200 million people in north Africa; parts of east, central and west Africa; and west Asia (especially the Arabian peninsula, Iraq, Syria, Jordan, Lebanon and Palestine).

Linguistic theory holds that the Hamito-Semitic language family came into being in Africa, for only in Africa are all its members found, aside from some Semitic languages encountered in west Asia. The existence of the Semitic languages in west Asia is explained by assuming that the Semites of Africa migrated from east Africa to west Asia in very ancient times. (At a later date, some Semites returned from Arabia to Africa.)

Some of the better-known Semitic languages are Arabic, Akkadian (now extinct), Hebrew, Berber, Amharic and Aramaic (the language of the Jewish Talmud, still spoken by several hundred thousand people in the Middle East and elsewhere including by Christian Arabs).

Other branches of the language family include ancient Egyptian and modern Coptic, the various Cushitic languages of northern east Africa, such as Oromo and Somali, and the Chadic languages of west Africa, such as Hausa, spoken by some 25 million people in Nigeria, Niger, Cameroon and Togo.

Right, the Tifinagh alphabet is used by the Tuareg of northern Africa, a branch of the Semitic Berber peoples. Traces of this alphabet, descended from the Libyan script of antiquity, have been found at various ancient sites in North America, according to some epigraphers.

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A village meeting in the West African country of Niger, where the Hausa tongue, one of the languages of the Semitic family, is spoken.
One of the first and most important steps to political radicalization is the gradual realization that history is a political weapon. In fact, history is one of the main weapons of social control presently used by the managerial state to justify its power and policy priorities. Therefore, Revisionist history is dripping with politics, and, in most significant ways, inseparable from social commentary.

World War II remains the focal point of history in the late 20th century and the beginning of the 21st. Few political conversations and debates do not, eventually, swing into this well-known territory. The destruction, not only of fascism (which can only be understood in its historical context) but of nationalism and various forms of non-libertarian conservatism, were considered "tainted" and relegated to personal eccentricity. For western political thought, the debate was between liberalism and Marxism. At present, the struggle must take place within the same contrived and controlled milieu.

It should not be difficult to understand, therefore, the political ramifications of Revisionist history. The oft-repeated claim that history is somehow an autonomous discipline in relation to politics is pure bunk, and those who make the claim are either dishonest or simple minded. It is with this background that one needs to approach the book being reviewed here, the first-rate historical tome Stalin's War of Extermination, by Joachim Hoffman.

After reading this large and copiously documented book, one is immediately struck by the realization that this represents, at the intellectual level, a paradigm change in the historiography of World War II, regardless of the nervous denunciations this work will undoubtedly receive. The reason "paradigm change" is an appropriate phrase to use here is that the set of introductory phrases used in every secondary school and university lecture on the subject has now been rendered obsolete, exposed as childish and simply false. The stock set of phrases that control and limit the normal lecturing attitude of historical pedagogy are these paraphrases, unquestionably well known to any educated person:

- "Hitler and the German Army, without any cause, invaded the progressive USSR in 1941."
- "The German Army was incorrigibly brutal and tortured Russians without mercy."
- "Germans are naturally violent and warlike."
- "Stalin was engaged in routine Army maneuvers when the Germans invaded."

Many others could here be reprinted, but the litany is common enough. Thus, even the most mild and unassuming mention of a different view has always, at best, received startled stares, or, at worst, threats of violence.

It seems that it is precisely to answer those modern stock phrases (the use of stock phrases and "official" slogans is the transformation point from "history" proper to social control) that Joachim Hoffman has written his book. Originally in German and recently translated partially by German scientist Germar Rudolf, the work reads extremely well. Dr. Hoffman himself is a world historian.
renowned specialist in the structure of the Red Army, and spent a
goodly portion of his career as a staff researcher for the German
army. He is presently retired.

The structure of the work is rather clear, being chronologi-
cally ordered from the preparations for Stalin’s attack on Ger-
many to the endless and horrid atrocities of Red Army soldiers on
(particularly) German non-combatants in Poland, Romania,
Czechoslovakia and Germany herself. The main issues are pri-
marily Stalin’s preparations and the proofs for his aggressive
designs, the treatment of Stalin’s own troops by the NKVD and
other strictly party and political organizations, the comparative
treatment of POWs, and, importantly, the purpose and content of
Soviet propaganda, especially in relation to the treatment of Ger-
man non-combatants near the end of the war. This treatment
itself provides the bulk of the books last few chapters. Its sheer
size and massive documentation make previous works in this
field obsolete and provide the student of this particular era with
all the information one needs to come to a reasoned and educated
conclusion about the moral guilt for this most destructive, waste-
ful and violent eras of world history.

After reading this work, there can be no doubt in the mind
of the honest reader that Hitler did not, in the normal sense of the
term, wage an aggressive war against Stalin’s USSR. Ample proof
is offered that, in fact, by every conceivable measure, Stalin was
feverishly preparing aggressive war against Germany, and, of
course, from there, to the remainder of Europe. Massive concen-
trations of light mobile infantry, maps distributed to Soviet troops
that include detailed sections on Germany, reconnaissance mis-
ions over Germany proper, reports from German intelligence,
admissions from captured Soviet officers, and recently obtained
documents from USSR archives all conspire to make it impossible
to deny Stalin’s aggressive intent, thereby relegating Hitler’s
invasion as purely preemptive. Here is a brief list of the military
principles from Stalin agreed to before the war:

1. The RKKA . . . [the Red Army] is an offensive army,
the “most offensive of all armies”;

2. The war will always, in all cases, be conducted on
enemy territory, with the fewest possible casualties
among one’s own forces, and ending with the utter
destruction of the enemy;

3. The proletariat in the hostile country is a potential
ally of Soviet power, and will support the struggle of the
Red Army through revolts in the rear of the enemy army;

4. War preparations are preparations for attack;
defensive measures serve solely to protect preparations
for attack and the execution of an offensive in the facing
direction;

5. There is no possibility of the penetration of hostile
forces into the territory of the USSR. (36)

Quite simply, Red Army war plans existed solely for offensiv-
ence, and, at the time, the only conceivable opponent of signifi-
cance was Germany. Stalin had announced to the Red Army brass
that, since the USSR has long since attained military superiority,
strategy should be “to abandon all defensive tactics and adopt a
military policy of attack operations” (39). On May 5, 1941, six
weeks before the surprise German attack, Stalin spoke thusly:

The incredible amount of documentation for this extremely
important point—that Stalin was planning an invasion of
Germany and western Europe by extension—leaves no doubt in
the (honest) reader’s mind, and turns not only World War II but
any honest appraisal of Germany on its head.

Under Stalin, the average soldier had very little trust in
the military leaders, or the political leaders within the
army who actually held the reins of power. Within the
German army at the time, such a lack of trust was
unknown. Germany did not need to resort to endless executions
or torture to maintain troops at the front. For Stalin, terror and
unremitting propaganda were the only means whereby this could
be accomplished, even as the politicians and press in America
were enthusiastically praising the “heroic Red Army.” (Order No.
3” (released in July of 1941) within the Red Army read in part:
“[A]ll commanders and soldiers” who retreated from the front
were either to be court-martialed and sentenced to death or merely
“annihilated on the spot” (95). By Soviet “law,” any retreat
whatever, regardless from whom it was issued, resulted in death.

For Stalin and his political police who in reality ran the
army, there was no such thing as a “POW.” There were either
inhuman animals, who were simply executed, or “traitors to the glori-
ous Soviet state.” If a soldier was caught deserting or deserting,
not only was he executed, but members of his family were also tor-
tured to death (109-110). Stalin, not Hitler, issued the infamous
“fight to the death” orders that wasted countless millions of lives,
both combatant and non-combatant. Additionally, Stalin relied on
fabricated reports of mass torture—in such terms as not to be
repeated here—that awaited any Russian who fell into the hands
of the “fascist scum.” All of which, of course, were lies designed to
terrify the peasant soldierly. The condition of Soviet prison camps
was described by a report issued by an Advanced Unit of the Se-
cret Field Police of the 48th German Army Corps of July 1, 1941:

The new conditions in our country, the present interna-
tional situation, full of unexpected possibilities, demand a
revolutionary power of decision and constant readiness to
launch a devastating attack on the enemy. . . . All forms of
agitation and propaganda are to be directed to one single
goal—to the political, moral, and fighting preparation of all
personnel to wage a just offensive and an all-out destroying
war . . . all personnel are to be educated in the spirit of
active hatred of the enemy, to an eagerness to take up the
struggle with him, to a readiness to defend our nation on
the territory of the enemy, and to deal him a lethal blow. (75)

Not only had Stalin demanded offensive war, but also demand-
ed the complete destruction of the “enemy,” which, again, could
only have been Germany. A Maj. Koskov, commander of the 24th
Infantry Regiment of the 44th Infantry Division, testified that:

In the view of the regimental commander, the justifica-
tion—namely the evacuation of the western Ukraine,
“because the Soviets were allegedly attacked without
preparation” was in no way true, because Soviet military
preparation had been under way for a long time, and, in
accordance with the need and intensity of these military
preparations, the Russians would have attacked Germany
of their own accord in two or three weeks at the latest. (83)

After reading this work, there can be no doubt in the mind
of the honest reader that Hitler did not, in the normal sense of the
term, wage an aggressive war against Stalin’s USSR. Ample proof
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ence, and, at the time, the only conceivable opponent of signifi-
cance was Germany. Stalin had announced to the Red Army brass
that, since the USSR has long since attained military superiority,
strategy should be “to abandon all defensive tactics and adopt a
military policy of attack operations” (39). On May 5, 1941, six
weeks before the surprise German attack, Stalin spoke thusly:

The incredible amount of documentation for this extremely
important point—that Stalin was planning an invasion of
Germany and western Europe by extension—leaves no doubt in
the (honest) reader’s mind, and turns not only World War II but
any honest appraisal of Germany on its head.

Under Stalin, the average soldier had very little trust in
the military leaders, or the political leaders within the
army who actually held the reins of power. Within the
German army at the time, such a lack of trust was
unknown. Germany did not need to resort to endless executions
or torture to maintain troops at the front. For Stalin, terror and
unremitting propaganda were the only means whereby this could
be accomplished, even as the politicians and press in America
were enthusiastically praising the “heroic Red Army.” (Order No.
3” (released in July of 1941) within the Red Army read in part:
“[A]ll commanders and soldiers” who retreated from the front
were either to be court-martialed and sentenced to death or merely
“annihilated on the spot” (95). By Soviet “law,” any retreat
whatever, regardless from whom it was issued, resulted in death.

For Stalin and his political police who in reality ran the
army, there was no such thing as a “POW.” There were either
inhuman animals, who were simply executed, or “traitors to the glori-
ous Soviet state.” If a soldier was caught deserting or deserting,
not only was he executed, but members of his family were also tor-
tured to death (109-110). Stalin, not Hitler, issued the infamous
“fight to the death” orders that wasted countless millions of lives,
both combatant and non-combatant. Additionally, Stalin relied on
fabricated reports of mass torture—in such terms as not to be
repeated here—that awaited any Russian who fell into the hands
of the “fascist scum.” All of which, of course, were lies designed to
terrify the peasant soldierly. The condition of Soviet prison camps
was described by a report issued by an Advanced Unit of the Se-
cret Field Police of the 48th German Army Corps of July 1, 1941:

The new conditions in our country, the present interna-
tional situation, full of unexpected possibilities, demand a
revolutionary power of decision and constant readiness to
launch a devastating attack on the enemy. . . . All forms of
agitation and propaganda are to be directed to one single
goal—to the political, moral, and fighting preparation of all
personnel to wage a just offensive and an all-out destroying
war . . . all personnel are to be educated in the spirit of
active hatred of the enemy, to an eagerness to take up the
struggle with him, to a readiness to defend our nation on
the territory of the enemy, and to deal him a lethal blow. (75)

Not only had Stalin demanded offensive war, but also demand-
ed the complete destruction of the “enemy,” which, again, could
only have been Germany. A Maj. Koskov, commander of the 24th
Infantry Regiment of the 44th Infantry Division, testified that:

In the view of the regimental commander, the justifica-
tion—namely the evacuation of the western Ukraine,
“because the Soviets were allegedly attacked without
preparation” was in no way true, because Soviet military
preparation had been under way for a long time, and, in
accordance with the need and intensity of these military
preparations, the Russians would have attacked Germany
of their own accord in two or three weeks at the latest. (83)

The incredible amount of documentation for this extremely
important point—that Stalin was planning an invasion of
Germany and western Europe by extension—leaves no doubt in
the (honest) reader’s mind, and turns not only World War II but
any honest appraisal of Germany on its head.
On entering the prison cells, the sight was so horrible that it cannot even be described in words. Over 100 bodies, of men, old people, women, girls approximately 16 years of age, lay in the cells, shot and mutilated with bayonet wounds. (249)

On the German side, the mass death of Soviet POWs cannot be attributed (alone) to German brutality. Harsh weather made it difficult for German officers to be maintained in any tolerable condition, never mind Soviet POWs. There can be no question as to German reprisals or harsh behavior in respect to Soviet prisoners, but there is little question (as will be seen later) that German treatment of POWs was far more humane than the converse. Germany had signed the Geneva and Hague conventions and observed them. The USSR did neither. Generally speaking, the German general staff had ordered amnesties of Soviet prisoners as early as July of 1941. These former POWs were resettled in the occupied territories. By November, according to Soviet data, the Germans had released 292,702 POWs. One of the constant themes of the testimony of Soviet POWs was the fear that there families would be killed or imprisoned (by the NKVD) if it was found that they were captured (120).

The omnipresent political police were attached to each and every Soviet military unit, numbering in the millions. This fact alone proves that the saturation propaganda—both in the USSR and the United States—that Soviet troops were fighting for the “fatherland” was sheer nonsense, and each and every soldier was carefully watched for even the slightest sign of what was arbitrarily defined as “disloyalty.” A Soviet air force captain named Ogrisko testified in 1941:

You can imagine the relationship for yourself. When you consider that there is a political commissar or controller for every military leader. . . . In the army, for every two soldiers there is a third who acts on behalf of the apparatus as a member of the Komsomol, of the party, or NKVD. In the officer corps, the ratio is 1:1. (127)

There was simply no belief in Stalin's mind that the average Soviet soldier or officer had any love for him, Marxism or for what the “motherland” had become. Of course, in the United States public school children were taught—and still are taught—that the “brave” and “glorious” Soviet Union troops withstood the fascist attack, and tragically lost millions upon millions in their brave resistance.

The losses of the USSR were indeed massive (the objective figure hovers around 7 million, though typical Soviet exaggerations are being taught today as fact), but any objective estimate must include substantial numbers of self-inflicted wounds, from summary executions, to Stalin's wicked “scorched earth” policy in the occupied territories (leaving peasants with exactly nothing, hastening the deaths of millions), to incredibly incompetent military decisions that left millions dead and captured. The book documents them with consummate skill.
One of the greatest contributions to scholarship that this book presents is in its description of the unspeakable Ilya Ehrenburg being at the very center of the Soviet propaganda effort against the Germans, an effort, it must be noted, that is still repeated today and mistaken for history. It might be argued that Ehrenburg was at least partially to blame for the inhuman treatment of German non-combatants nearer the end of the war by his bizarre and psychotic pronouncements:

They are perverts, sodomites, addicted to all forms of bestiality. . . . They grab Russian girls and drag them into brothels . . . they hang priests . . . they wear belts with the motto "God is with us" but beat dying prisoners in the face with their belts. . . . Culture, to them, means fountain pens and safety razors. They use the fountain pens to jot down how many girls they have raped; they shave with safety razors, then use straight razors to cut off the noses, ears and breasts of their victims. (229)

The brazenness of this sociopathic utterance is even worse than its actual content. Nearly each of Ehrenburg’s charges was specifically and regularly carried out by Red Army troops at the time of its writing as well as afterward. The fact that he would worry about the Germans’ “hanging priests” (after the Bolshevik record in this regard) is so surreal that this reviewer had difficulty actually typing the lines. His lines read:

They defile women and hang men, they get drunk and sleep off their orgies like pigs. Murder is commonplace for Germans. They torture children, hang old men and rape girls. They torture children and torment the wounded. If a fascist soldier finds no booty in a house, he kills the housewife. The women-killer knows how to murder. He strangles girls. He sets fire to villages. He erects gallows. The Germans buried men alive. They buried children alive. They killed millions of innocent people. Hundreds of thousands of children have been killed by the Germans (and this is in
Ukraine alone). They killed infants and branded prisoners, they tortured and hanged... (232)

We despise the Germans, because they are morally and physically shameless. We despise the Germans for their stupidity. We despise the Germans for their lack of elementary human dignity. We despise the Germans for their greed. We despise the Germans for... their bloodthirstiness—which is related to sexual perversion. We despise the Germans for their cruelty—the cruelty of the weasel, which throttles the defenseless. We despise the Germans for their crimes, for their thoughts and feelings, for their malignant sores. We despise them, because we are human beings, and Soviet human beings to boot. The sight of German men and women turns one's stomach. (237)

This particular quote mocks the suffering of German women who have lost their husbands or sons:

We see the greedy German hyenas licking their lips; and we say briefly, “My lady, you are waiting for peasants. You have already gotten what you deserve. . . . Weep, German woman! . . . and when you get sick of weeping, then dance and be merry . . . in spring, the snow will melt, and you will smell the stink of bodies!” (239)

Ehrenburg bears great responsibility for the tortures of German women and children inflicted near the end of the war, and after the war. Ehrenburg’s trash is being taught as fact, and makes up a major part of the lingering American and Jewish hatred for Germans and their famous blindness to their suffering. It should be noted that Librarian of Congress James Billington, in his most recent book The Face of Russia, includes Ehrenburg as a significant aspect of “Russian” culture. Ehrenburg’s words are still very much alive and effective, making up a major part of the American educational regime’s vision of Germany and Germans. What makes this specific part of the book so shocking is the painful similarities between Soviet and American propaganda concerning the Germans.

The atrocities committed by the “glorious” Red army are documented here at a level never before accomplished. Putting American and Ehrenburgian ideas into practice, Col. Eliseev, Divisional Commander within the 153rd Infantry Division officially announced the following in 1944:

We are marching into East Prussia. Soldiers and officers of the Red Army will be permitted the following: 1. To exterminate any living German. 2. To plunder property. 3. To rape women. 4. To commit arson. 5. There will be no arrests of soldiers of the ROA [anti-communist Russian Liberation Army]. Every bullet for them is wasted. They will be beaten to death or trampled underfoot. (291)

Given that the political police controlled each and every commander and individual soldier, such a pronouncement must have had the immediate approbation of the Communist Party and thus of Stalin himself. It is impossible, given the structure of the Red Army in relation to the NKVD, that such words could be isolated rhetoric.

Clearly, Stalin’s War of Extermination is necessary reading for any serious grasp of World War II. The myths, as well as the long-standing malicious lies, are demolished one by one, under the air-cover of mountains of never-before-translated Red Army documents and other primary sources, both Russian and German. This review, lengthy as it is, could never do the book justice. It can be nearly guaranteed that any honest student of history will wear through his copy in a matter of months, finding so much uncensored historical information within the pages that is, frankly, available in no other reference work on the subject.

TBR publisher Willis A. Carto calls the book a tour de force, and “must reading” for any student of true history interested in an unbiased account of the bloody legacy of communism, Russia’s part in starting World War II and the real war of aims of the Stalin regime, glossed over by so many mainstream sources who prefer to blame the convenient scapegoat Adolf Hitler for WWII.
These photos are from snapshots that were smuggled out of Russia during Josef Stalin’s reign of terror. They were taken by the father of a BARNES REVIEW reader, who was a diplomat. Unfortunately, we do not have detailed information allowing us to write an individual caption for each picture. They show Ukrainian peasants who are starving, or, in many cases, starved to death. An estimated 9 million Ukrainians died in this entirely man made famine, as the Bolsheviks systematically removed every scrap of food they could find from the land and crushed the ability of the people to produce it.
According to Science News, paleobotanists claim to have found fossils of plants with substantial roots that lived at least “10 million years” earlier than it was previously thought such organisms existed. The significance of such plants is that they substantially reduced the amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, making the Earth far more tolerable for animal and human life.

The multicultural sewer is leaking. Again, establishment and authoritarian radicals in academia and in the culture have been dealt another blow. In an excavation of a site at Cactus Hill in southern Virginia, a very “Clovis” style point was found, dated to be about 15,000 years old. Previously the theory was that Indians migrated about 12,000 years ago from Siberia, leaving their spear points as evidence. (Such points were called “Clovis,” after the place in New Mexico where they were first uncovered.) Dennis Stanford, an archeologist from the Smithsonian, has stated that, first, there are no Clovis points in Siberia (thus debunking the “migration” theory for the explanation for the advanced projectile point technology of North America), and that the points found in Virginia point to a European origin, given that “Clovis” points have been found in Iberia. A hostile media (the “coverage” of Stanford’s findings in Newsweek, for example, bordered on hate) is again worrying about damage control. Yes, friends, it is all coming apart.

In an interesting Revisionist twist, the figures on the number of American soldiers and Marines killed during the Korean War has been revised downward—significantly. The Pentagon has revised the figures down from 54,246 killed, derived from an unknown bureaucrat around the time of the armistice, to 36,940. It seems that the unnamed bureaucrat had mistakenly included all U.S. military deaths worldwide to the Korean conflict. Odd—that seems like an awful lot of non-combat deaths, nearly 20,000 for three years.

Amazingly, as has been revealed by a publication called On Target (dated April of 2000), President George H.W. Bush and Henry Kissinger developed a plan to depopulate large tracts of Middle Eastern land, to be taken over by Soviet Jews. It turns out that a former American ambassador to Saudi Arabia, James Akins, traveled to London to warn the British government of these plans. Such, however, might not surprise people who realize that a complete domination, militarily, of the Middle East was part of the original plans for a greater Israel founded by the Zionist movement. The original Zionist map at the Versailles Peace Conference showed Israel occupying southern Lebanon, Palestine, the Golan Heights, southern Syria and the Trans-Jordan.

The radical Jewish party, named Herut (in coalition with Likud, which accepts the boundaries in this map implicitly), uses this map as its party logo, including the phrase Kahak, or “only thus.”

According to the June 19, 2000 issue of Time, the Confederate submarine H.L. Hunley will be raised from the Atlantic grave it was sent to in 1864. The sinking of the Union naval vessel the USS Housatonic was the first sinking of a ship by a submarine in world history, a technology pioneered by the Confederate States of America. The Hunley was financed by a group of Louisiana businessmen and put together in Mobile, Alabama. It mysteriously took on water and hit bottom after the sinking of the Housatonic. The raising of the sub means that it can be studied for the first time. Its restoration process will take up to 10 years. See picture to right.

Is it just us, or do others find it odd that in Dwight Eisenhower’s Crusade in Europe, Winston Churchill’s The Second World War or Charles De Gaulle’s Mémoires de Guerre, there is not one single solitary mention of gas chambers killing millions of Jews?

The definition of “Revisionist” is expanding. According to the leftist rag The Times of London, the awarding of German professor Ernst Nolte the Konrad Adenauer Prize by the Germany Foundation has caused a stir in the Jewish-dominated press. His crime? Certainly not denying “the Holocaust,” certainly not supporting the policies and persona of Adolf Hitler, but merely to claim the obvious historical fact that National Socialism developed as a response, among other things, to the Bolshevik empire in Soviet Russia. Significantly, this changes the concept of “Revisionist” the Zionists have used to destroy the lives and careers of the non-Jews who oppose their domination. It now covers anyone who does not accept the global official thesis that Hitler came to power for no reason other than to destroy Jewry. This is what passes for history; this is academics today.

One of the Revisionist tendencies of TBR in the area of prehistory and ancient history is to reject the notion that “early man” was necessarily primitive. In some cases, he clearly was not, nor is “science” solely in the domain of modern man and compatible only with secularism and modernism. Ancient societies often were technologically advanced, and realizing such things is changing they way honest historians (all nine of them) look at history and its artificial, Enlightenment-created division into “periods.” Such “periods” no longer correspond with the facts. According to the December 1995 issue of Popular Science, the first underwater tunnel, obviously a major feat of engineering, was completed in 2160 B.C. on orders from Queen Semiramis of Babylon. This tunnel connected the two halves of the ancient city, an amazing architectural accomplishment.

Additionally, in the June 27, 1998 issue of Science News, it has been discovered that ancient Mesopotamians developed a means whereby rock was manufactured from silt. They had developed a synthetic basalt that was melted along with the silt at temperatures of around 1,200 degrees centigrade. Of course, such high levels of technology were not supposed to exist in ancient societies. This quite harshly calls Enlightenment assumptions about the origin of man and his relation to nature into question.

French explorer Jean-Marie Chauvet, according to the December 1995 issue of Popular Science, has found an entire prehistoric “art gallery” in a French cave. So far, radiocarbon dating—from a perfect means of dating archeological finds—has determined that these are the oldest cave paintings in the world. What makes these interesting, other than their age, however, is that they are far from primitive. Their depictions of animals, some long extinct, clearly possessed creative and artistic skills at an extraordinary level, and this might be changing some archeologists’ and historians’ minds about who these people, obviously fully human, actually were.

According to the Associated Press of October 3, 2000, the wreck of the World War II German battleship Scharnhorst has been found in Arctic waters more than a half a century after it was sunk by Allied forces. The function this ship played off the coast of Norway was to stop the morally illicit trade in wartime goods between Britain and America and the Soviet Union. As such, its function was heroic. Once the ship was sunk in 1943, it meant that the United States could continue helping FDR’s favorite communist butcher, “Uncle Joe” Stalin, win “the war against fascism.”
What has become of our world? This question is being asked by millions of Europeans and Euro-American-Americans, who find themselves strangers in their own lands. Pity those who seek their old homes in places that once seemed impregnable, and now find only twisted timbers and poisoned wells. But what was the genesis of such a cataclysm? What was the deadly force that has all but pulled a civilization down? Were we to ask the anti-Europeans currently in charge of our history, those who observe with remorseless eyes the forlorn remains of our society, they would have a ready answer: The near ruin of our world was the work of one man—the man who caused World War II. If we are to reexamine their indictment, then surely we must try to understand the beliefs and aims that propelled this man into action.

Most of us would know the name of the accused without it being spoken, and many of us are at least familiar with the general outline of his life—this dazzling and terrible man—but even now, more than half a century after his death, he still evades the clear focus of history. Unlike a Napoleon or Caesar, both of whom slipped easily into history’s pages by personifying the culmination of a great historical event, the blurred figure of this 20th-century giant, this so-called shatterer of a world, has yet to find a resting place in the past. This is so because he remains a contemporary of ours, inextricably bound to us by the great culture war that has raged within the European world from his era to our own—he is still a palpable presence in this continuing struggle, suspended between the past and the future like the disquieting ghost of “the flying Dutchman,” Vanderdecken, captain of a phantom ship.1

But before moving to his years of power, let us first sketch in the earlier years of this “Tragic European,” those years of prelude to a life that was to reach epochal heights only to end in such far-reaching tragedy that it now represents the tragedy of an entire world.

Adolf Hitler was born of German parents at Braunau am Inn, near the border of Germany in the multiethnic Austro-Hungarian empire. His father, then his mother died by the time he was 18 years of age. After his mother’s death he lived in Vienna
for six years where he earned a precarious livelihood as an artist, selling drawings and water colors of scenes in and around the imperial capital. In 1913, as if consciously confirming his Germanness, he left Vienna and moved across the border to Munich. With the outbreak of World War I the following year, he joined the German army, surviving four years of trench warfare on the Western Front, where he was twice decorated for bravery. In October 1918, shortly before Germany’s collapse and the subsequent armistice, he was blinded in a poison gas attack. After staying at a hospital in Pasewalk, Pomerania, during which time he recovered his sight, he traveled back to Munich and reported to another army unit there. Upon his arrival, in the early days of 1919, he found Munich in the hands of a revolutionary communist government. But at the end of April the Marxist regime was overthrown in a bloody fight by regiments of the German army and nationalist “Freikorps” troops. Having witnessed the short-lived, but deadly Red Terror that had haunted the streets of Munich, he now resolved to enter the arena of German nationalist politics; and while still a soldier he volunteered as a political speaker for the army.

One night he visited a sparsely attended meeting of a small nationalist workers party gathered in an ill-lighted back room of a seedy Munich restaurant. After Hitler made an impromptu speech that evening, he was invited to become a member of the organization; he decided to join the seemingly unpromising group some days later. In the spring of 1920 he left the army and rented a single room with one small window at 41 Thierschstrasse, where he would live for years in monk-like simplicity, but he was free to pursue his political career by working full-time for the budding nationalist group he had joined the year before. By July 1921, at a meeting called to settle a major policy question, he was overwhelmingly elected leader of the party whose flag he had designed a short time earlier using the old Germanic symbol of life, the hakenkreuz.

Now that we have reached the point from which the historic trajectory of Hitler’s life begins—from where in a blazing arc of 24 years he was to overshadow the colossus Prince Bismarck as the greatest leader of the German nation; become master of Europe from the gates of Moscow to the French shores—we should begin to move beyond the bare-bones narration of facts and into the realm of contemplation where truths are sometimes found. This then is not biography, or even history in the ordinary sense, but an attempt to reveal a less murky profile of this historic figure, as glimpsed through the turbulent political crosscurrents of our time. To begin with, it must be asked: What was the fundament of Hitler’s political thought upon which he would construct the electric edifice we know as the Third Reich? National Socialism was not an original concept of his, as we shall see, although he is remembered for giving it that name. The idea of a nationalist-socialist society had existed in earlier forms at least since the 18th-century Prussian state of Frederick the Great, who rephrased the French Louis the Great’s, “I am the state,” with the Prussian corporatist variant, “I am the first servant of the state.” Adolf the Great (or Terrible), if one might append such an appellation to a populist, was called the leader of his people, a people who he declared stood above the state, and was the sole source of his authority. Hans Frank, a former Reich minister, awaiting his fate at Nuremberg, would write in his memoirs: “Folk and Führer, Führer and folk were betrothed. Each searched [for] and desired the other, each trusted the other.”

It should be said here that even in the last horrific months of World War II, the vast majority of these people remained steadfastly loyal to him. With the nation’s cities and towns in flames and much of the countryside being overrun, he was still the most popular national leader in the European world. So, we ask: From what roots did the popular appeal of his National Socialism grow? We know he found inspiration in the activities of Benito Mussolini, who had already by the early 1920s founded the first modern populist corporate state in Italy following World War I. But the real source of his nationalist-socialist thinking lay in Germany itself.

Just as the Germanic peoples of Europe had emerged as a coherent group only after many generations of genetic change—so the modern nationalist-socialist idea that was nurtured in the mind of Hitler, emerged from a long developing German “Volkish” (folk) system of thought. The populist Volkish movement had been gaining popular support since the 1890s—and following Germany’s debacle in 1918, the movement became both mentor and natural ally of groups attempting to revitalize the German nation. But if we were to seek a still earlier antecedent of nationalist-socialist thinking, then it would have to be German romanticism.

Romanticism rose in the 19th century as a reaction to 18th-century rationalism, a system of thought that denied a spiritual dimension to reality and attempted to resolve all questions by experiment and rational explanation. The romantics rejected rationalism as a shallow system of thought, likening its investigative procedures to that of viewing the universe through a crack in a door where each answer gave rise immediately to new questions. (A bone that still sticks in the rationalist throat.) A primary reason for the rising popularity of romanticism and later of the Volkish movement in Germany was the vast economic and political dislocations that followed the triumph of rationalism: The Industrial Revolution and its political twin the French Revolution. But the subsequent failure of the German Romantic Revolution of 1848 had the effect of turning Germans away from a solely anti-rationalist movement, and toward a movement rooted in their Volkish traditions—in a word, their Germanness.

In Munich in the spring of 1919, a considerable body of Volkish literature was readily available to Hitler—as it was in much of the rest of Germany and Austria. We have no way of knowing which Volkish writers the then 30-year-old soldier/artist, now newly committed to populist politics, was most influenced by at that time. But we do know, as he later acknowledged, that the tutelage of Dietrich Eckart, a man some 20 years his senior, had a prime influence on his political thinking during those critical post-war Munich years. Eckart, born in Neumarkt, Bavaria in 1868, was a poet and playwright, who had adapted Ibsen’s romantic play Peer Gynt to a Volkish theme by depicting the rustic protagonist as a Faustian hero. He was also an energetic purveyor of Volkish literature in his magazine In Plain German—publishing,
in addition to his own writing, the work of other Volkish theorists, including Alfred Rosenberg, who he would introduce to Hitler and who later became the prime delineator of National Socialist philosophy.

It is likely that Eckart had discussed with his disciple such seminal Volkish works as German Writings, 1878, a collection of essays written by Paul de Lagarde, a visionary German scholar who is called father of the Volkish movement. Born in 1827, Lagarde saw first-hand the destructive effect materialistic modernity was having on traditional German life. He was bitterly disappointed when the long hoped-for physical union of Germany, accomplished finally in the early 1870s, did not bring along with it Volkish spiritual unity as well. Unification had unleashed an increased wave of materialism that threatened to wash away the spiritual foundations of traditional German society. He saw the rapid acceleration of industrialism, and the attendant blight of rootless urbanization as a threat to both the folk and nation. Lagarde conceived of a nation as the physical manifestation of a spiritual ideal that gave its people their identity and their strength. Thus he called upon Germans to reject their materialist state and to replace it with a society that reflected the folk's instinctive spirituality.

Lagarde also rejected what he considered to be a contaminated Christianity, so tainted by Old Testament legalism that the true spirit of Christ had been lost. (This recalls the teachings of Marcion, a second-century Christian who condemned the Old Testament as a self-serving Jewish fiction, and accepted only the Gospel of the non-Jewish St. Luke and just 10 of the letters of the apostle Paul as sacred text.) Lagarde faulted Paul for trapping the church in an alluring net of rigid and immutable dogmatism that interpreted Christ's revelation of God as a static and distant Being. Instead, according to Lagarde, the essence of Christ's message was that every individual is intimately linked to an accessible God. This dynamic inner force, called the "Geist" by early German mystics is the longing of a soul to find mystical union with God and His universe—a sublime impulse that frees each person to follow their own intuitive path. Goethe famously says, "Within thee there is a universe as well." Lagarde also believed that the Germanic folk, as a still young people untouched by the corruption of a long history, was uniquely suited through its unspoiled spirituality to guide Europeans away from the snares of an artificial materialism, and toward their destined spiritual union with God's presence in His natural world. Lagarde's call for such a mystical Germanic Christianity and a Volkish state found widespread support among those who felt that the churches as well as the state were failing to meet the challenges of modernity assailing their society.

In 1899 Houston Stewart Chamberlain, the expatriate son of an English admiral, who had been living in Germany for many years, published in his adopted language a massive two-volume paean to the Germanic folk entitled The Foundations of the Nineteenth Century. This scholarly tome of over a thousand pages—an overview of European culture clothed in philosophical Volkish trappings—became a best-seller in Germany and the gospel of Germany's Volkish faith. Chamberlain became a devoted Wagnerian in the 1880s, later he married Richard Wagner's youngest daughter Eva and from then made his home at Bayreuth, site of the annual Wagner Ring festival. He was also an admirer of Hitler, who he applauded as early as 1923, calling him "the great simplifier of all problems." In the winter of 1927, as this prophet of a noble Germanic destiny lay paralyzed and dying, Hitler traveled to Bayreuth and kissed the old man's hands.

If Comte de Gobineau, the author of The Inequality of the Races (1853), can be called the messenger of European death, then Houston Stewart Chamberlain should be called the proclaimer of European salvation through the Germanic folk. Gobineau posited that all great civilizations are created only by pure races, and that racial mixing is the cause of their eventual destruction—thus his dire prediction that European civilization was doomed since the commingling of mixed blood with the blood of the founding northern European race was inevitable. Chamberlain, a true Victorian optimist disagreed, believing that European racial integrity could be guaranteed by the moral force of Germanic spirituality, and this, linked with the phenomenal 19th-century advances of science and technology, the future of the European world was truly limitless.

Here, as a Volkish thinker, Chamberlain diverged from Paul de Lagarde in that he did not regard industrialism as a threat—so long as the industrial development was to serve the racial and spiritual needs of the folk. With regard to maintaining racial integrity through Volkish spirituality, Chamberlain cited Kant's Ding an sich, the innate sense of the essence of things that lies outside the realm of rational understanding, arguing that there is a spiritual as well as a physical aversion to racial mixing. Thus by combining Germanic spirituality with European science, he said, a world could be saved—but with this caveat, the need for balance between the material and the spiritual in European society: Nothing could be more dangerous for a people, he cautioned, than

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Above, a caricature of Adolf Hitler by the American cartoonist Broder. It depicts Hitler as a screaming banshee, the microphone swaying from the power of his voice; his hands clenched in a psychotic rage.
to possess a science without poetry or a civilization without culture. He also warned Europeans that they must always remain alert in the defense of their nationhood. The Greeks lighted the world with their art, the Romans with their law, but in the dazzle of their accomplishments, they had somehow lost their sense of self. Unlike the Jews, who clung to their identity as to the stout limb of a tree in a tempest, the Greeks and Romans—oblivious to their mortal peril—followed the gradual path into the abyss. In Rome, during the latter stages of the Western Empire, men with not a drop of Roman blood began to assume the mantle of emperor. The entire Mediterranean, infected with this one-world mania, became a “chaos of peoples,” as the nations melted away in a caldron of universal Romanism.

The one group to escape this calamity was the Jews. So it was that the Jews and the Germanic peoples of the north were the only racially pure groups to survive the wreckage of the Western Empire’s final collapse. From their first appearance in the north the pure-blooded, Asiatic Jews—representing a closed, alien nation and armored with the Mosaic law, the Talmud, their financial cleverness, and iron will to endure—presented an implacable threat to the Germanic Europeans. (Chamberlain included in the “Germanentum,” along with the Germans and their cousins the English: the Kelts, the Scandinavians, the French, the Slavs and the white people of North America.)

Contrasting the materialism of the Old Testament with the spirituality of Christ’s message, Chamberlain quotes from Deuteronomy vi, God’s promises given to the Jews in return for their worship of Him, according to Moses: “I shall give thee great and goodly cities, which thou buildedst not, and houses full of all good things which thou filledst not, and wells digged which thou diggedst not, vineyards and olive trees, which thou plantedst not.” And in Deuteronomy vii, “Thou shalt consume all the peoples which the Lord thy God shall deliver thee. Thine eye shall have no pity upon them.”

Chamberlain saw the Jews and the Germanic peoples as engaged in a struggle on two levels: Not only was there the intractable religious animus that existed between the two groups exemplified by the Christians’ loathing of the Jews as the descendants of the killers of Christ the Savior, but, similarly, there was the Jewish scorn for the followers of Christ, who they considered an apostate Jew and a false messiah, and who is referred to, behind the veil of Aramaic, in the scrolls of the Talmud as a “fool,” “sorcerer,” “idolater,” “dog,” “bastard,” and “the hanged [one].”

There also was a struggle on the cultural level, where Jewish materialism was seen as distorting European life as a whole. Chamberlain held that if Jewish influence were to become dominant in European culture then the sublime Germanic spiritual impulse would probably be extinguished. Lest the reader of today thinks Chamberlain’s fear of Jewish power was only a passing delusion peculiar to the late-Victorian era, he need only turn to the words of the most celebrated advocate and orator of Roman antiquity, Marcus Tullius Cicero, cited both in The Foundations and in Bolshevism From Moses to Lenin: A Dialogue Between Adolf Hitler and Me, a Volkish pamphlet written by Dietrich Eckart and published in Munich in 1924 shortly after his death:

During the course of Cicero’s defense of the proconsul Flaccus, who at the urging of powerful Jews stood accused of corruption in Syria, Cicero lowers his voice in the echoing Capitol chambers of Rome so only the judges can hear him, saying, “Softly, softly! The Jews have already gotten me into a fine mess. . . . I have no desire to furnish further grist for their mills.”

Like Lagarde, Chamberlain saw the need for an inner Germanic revolution that would release the spiritual power of the folk and open all Europeans to its cleansing energy, but he argued that the Jews stood in the way of such a revolution because of the cabalistic schemes they had set in place to subjugate the European nations. Yet as a historian, Chamberlain felt bound only to describe the situation. At the end of Vol. I of The Foundations, he explained: “I, a modest historian, who can neither influence the course of events nor possess the power of looking clearly into the future, must be satisfied . . . in showing the distinction between the Germanic and the non-Germanic.”

But another scholar did not feel the need for such discretion, and did propose a program for action. In 1890, Hermann Ahlwardt published in Berlin a book entitled The Desperate Struggle Between the Aryan Peoples and Judaism, in which he recommended that Germany should expel the Jews, as they had been expelled from other European nations in earlier times (and, indeed, as the Europeans in North America had expelled the Indian nations from their midst and resettled them). In this same year of 1890 (when Hitler was just one year of age) all university fraternities in Germany and Austria declared themselves to be Judenrein (“Jewish free”).

After Germany’s 1918 defeat, the problem of a coming Germanic revolution was much on the minds of Volkish thinkers. In 1921, the year Hitler was elected to head the rapidly growing National Socialist party, the Munich poet Stefan Georg wrote a messianic poem in which he prophesied the appearance of a Volkish revolutionary leader: “He bursts the chains, restores on fields of rubble / His order; . . . on the people’s banner / Pins the true sign and through wild storm and terror / . . . he leads his faithful band / To the day’s deed—the New Reich’s planting.”

But how would this new Germanic state look? With the establishment in February 1919 of a liberal system of government at Weimar, and in the wake of the Marxist upheaval in Russia a year earlier, many Germans began to look for a “third way”—a path that would lead them away from the rampant excesses of both capitalism and communism. The concept of a “third way,” grew popular with other Europeans as well, but it was strongest among the Germans since the idea was met in Germany by the steadying presence of deep-rooted Volkish thought. In his book The Third Reich, 1923, a popular work written a decade before the Third Reich came into existence, the Volkish writer Moller van den Bruck predicted that the future Germanic state would be based on the spirituality and traditions of the folk. As a still unspoiled people, the Germanic folk would fashion a new state by reaching back to their origins where an instinctive social corporatism and a spiritual zeal unleashed by the “Geist” had earlier made possible the Gothic cathedrals that remain the wondrous signature of their culture’s awakening. Carl Schmitt, a Volkish lawyer who considered the liberal state and its parliamentary
system as just another form of capitalist business practice, agreed with van den Bruck that party politics prevented the social and spiritual union of the folk.

In a Volkish state, what was needed was a superpersonal arrangement, whereby corporate entities existed as autonomous channels between the people and the state, encouraging the free flow of ideas and personal activity, and providing a sense of belonging for the individual. This was the Italian corporate-state model where the various occupational corporations gave the people a stake in their state’s destiny while providing for their personal needs. In Germany, however, under the Fuhrer-prinzip (leader principle) the leader would supersede the state by deriving power directly from the folk, and would be first among equals only so long as he retained the spiritual trust of the folk. Above all, it would be the leader’s responsibility to promote the folk’s general well-being—thus in such a populist construct the corporations and the state would stand in the second rank to the folk and leader.

While all of these Volkish political ideas enlivened the parlors, cafes and streets of 1920s Munich, Oswald Spengler, the oracle of unstoppable European decline, dwelt brooding in his flat above Munich’s Isar River. Spengler’s name was becoming a byword among many of those who were disenchanted by the decadence blighting European society. In 1918 he had published the first volume of The Decline of the West, an elegiac prose-poem dedicated to Europe’s “dying” civilization. Most who knew his name had not read his work, yet they were convinced by the book’s notorious title that their world was doomed. But to draw such a conclusion from the title alone was to misread his message.

The theme of the book and his soaring contribution to historiography was to disabuse us of the abstract and meaningless notion of “humanity.” History was not a single-track chronicle of humanity’s long climb from savagery to “civilization,” but is, instead, the story of myriad civilizations—all unique from the others, some succeeding and some failing to fulfill their destiny. Although our Faustian civilization, like all the others, is destined to wither and die, said the fatalist Spengler, there is still much for us to do if we are to be deserving inheritors of its greatness. That is a challenging thought; still, a melancholy hangs over much of his work—the closing words of a later pamphlet read like a cry of despair: “Faustian civilization one day will lie in fragments, forgotten—our railways and steamships as dead as the Roman roads . . . our giant cities and skyscrapers in ruins like old Memphis and Babylon. . . . Our duty is to hold on to the lost position, without hope, without rescue. . . . That is greatness.”

These dark sentiments were, of course, not popular with those who were striving to rally a people to its lost glory. Again Hans Frank from his cell in Nuremberg remembering 1930s...
Germany, when Hitler’s populist course was set and he was greeted everywhere by adoring crowds: “Above everything there was sunshine, happiness, rejoicing... Above everything smiled the great magician Hitler, blessing, bewitching, touching their hearts... wedding with the German people.” The prophet of our cultural twilight could not stand against this sunny, season of rebirth; thus was Spengler to die in 1936, an isolated man.

This then has been a brief view of the Volkish ideas current during those critical Munich years of the 1920s when Hitler was busily hammering together the framework of his German revolution. In his only book Mein Kampf (“My Struggle”), written in the fortress prison at Landsberg after the failed 1923 putsch, he said that a state should not be judged by the loftiness of its culture, but by whether it has provided for the future good of the bearers of that culture (the folk). Such thoughts make it clear that Volkish ideas formed the bedrock of Hitler’s populist National Socialism. Houston Stewart Chamberlain said: “Ideas are immortal.” Goethe said: “Whatever you can do, or dream you can, begin it. Boldness has genius, power and magic in it.”

Now we turn to Hitler’s years of destiny. We have the dates, we have the lists of events, but soon we must look beyond the time-and-event mechanism we call history, if we hope to catch a meaningful glimpse of this baffling figure. Example: It seems that he sought power not only to advance the cause of the German folk, but also to use the folk in a grander design—to redeem and defend all of the Germanum. But let us follow the linear mode a bit further: There is the continuum of early triumphs; not a false step for so long after he becomes chancellor in 1933, that some begin to think of him as charmed. In January of the next year he signs a pact with Poland, placing an amicable state on Germany’s eastern border, and breaching the thicket of alliances the French had planted to ring Germany.

Later that year when von Hindenburg dies, he assumes the office of president in addition to chancellor; the road ahead seems clear to carry him as far as his destiny would go. In this same year film-maker Leni Riefenstahl documents the party rally held at Nuremberg: The Triumph of the Will is a film that portrays the leader no longer as suitor of his people, but as Durer’s heroic Knight who, after making a perilous journey, arrives unscathed to rescue the German folk. In 1935 a special election is held in the Saar region (detached from Germany in 1919) to determine whether the Saarlanders wish to reunite with the rest of their fellow Germans; the French have offered them economic inducements to remain a separate entity, and the German leader is forbidden to appear in the Saar during the pre-election campaign. Still, 90 percent of the voters elect to rejoin the Reich. In March 1936 he throws the dice and reoccupies the demilitarized German Rhineland (prohibited by Versailles); only short-lived grumblings are heard from the Allies.

In 1938 the German people by a vote of 99.8 percent, and with the acquiescence of the British and French, approve Austria’s union with the Reich. Five months later, the leaders of Britain, France and Italy meet with Hitler at Munich, and an agreement is signed ceding the Czechoslovak Sudetenland to Germany. Thus, in little more than five years, Hitler nullifies most of the egregious elements of the Versailles Treaty; transforms a defeated nation into one of renewed optimism and energy; and gathers into the national fold (as he promised) all the major German groups that had, for various reasons, been forced to live outside their homeland. All are reclaimed except for a half million militant Germans living in the former German port city of Danzig and a connecting corridor cut through German territory. These were awarded by the peace treaty to the otherwise landlocked Polish state. So the Danzig question now springs up to block the hitherto unimpeded path of Hitler’s remarkable record—and like the sphinx with its deadly riddle, this question threatens to destroy those charged by fate to solve it.

In the summer of 1939, when the Danzig situation began to take on the shape of a crisis, no one in Europe wanted war—certainly not Hitler, whose program for the resurrection of his nation had thrived on peace. Still, war did come—and when it came it was wrapped in a complex bundle of miscalculations, hidden agendas and misunderstandings. The British and French had committed to support Poland as a maneuver to maintain European peace; but these guarantees only encouraged little Poland to refuse to seriously engage in talks with Germany. In addition, all three of the governments confronting Berlin miscalculated the German leader’s commitment to the union of the German folk. And finally, Hitler probably underestimated the political and economic power of his enemies (particularly the Jews who enjoyed a disproportionate share of influence in both Paris and London). Thus when Germany finally moved against Poland after the negotiation deadline had passed, and three days later the British and French reluctantly sent unanswered ultimatums to Berlin for a withdrawal—the curtain was rising on a classical Greek tragedy set in the modern-day world.

It would have been surprising if the uninterrupted successes of Hitler’s leadership from 1933 to those first few days in September 1939 had not inflated his sense of personal destiny to the point that he now saw himself as the agent of Germanic salvation—and perhaps even planted in some secret corner of his mind the fatally seductive sense of his own infallibility. During this string of triumphs he could not have escaped that euphoric state of grace—particularly known to athletes—as being “in form,” when one has an intuitive feeling of being in perfect balance; and that for as long as this equipoise continues all challenges will be overcome. Examples: In August when the threat of war hangs over Danzig, he confounds Allied planners by signing a pact with his arch-enemy Stalin. Again the following spring, he astounds the world by the ease with which he defeats France and drives the British to the channel seeking escape. His stars were seemingly in alignment—he was, beyond doubt, “in form.” Earlier he told a group in Munich, “I go with the certainty of a sleepwalker along the path laid out for me by Providence.”

Apparently, now, with the French defeated and the British...

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in disarray, he turned his attention to the Germanentum.” Long ago Volkish thinking had defined his enemies: materialism (especially Jewish influence), liberalism (a capitalist sham) and internationalism (communism and global finance). Volkish thought had also identified his potential allies within the Germanentum, particularly the British. When talking with Lord Londonderry in 1936, he said: “How often during the last war, when I was opposite British troops, did I say to myself that it was absolute madness to be fighting against these men who might well have belonged to our own people!”

During the Polish crisis, he offered to reach an arms agreement with the British and to guarantee borders in the west, should the Danzig question be settled. After war broke out and Danzig was reunited with Germany, he offered peace. In 1940, as France was collapsing, he lifted the bombardment of the British armies trapped at Dunkirk, and allowed over a quarter of a million troops to escape by sea—but no invasion of England followed. The impatient German people began to ask what was holding things up. On May 12, 1941, Hitler’s invasion of the Soviet Union was crowned by early success during the summer and fall of 1941. Then, as winter set in, he came to a halt within sight of Moscow. The following spring his armies wheeled south reaching the Caucasus Mountains, but a winter counter-offensive by communist forces trapped 22 divisions at Stalingrad, and the freezing survivors were forced to surrender. The Germans never recovered from this hammer blow; a series of new reverses soon made it clear the war could not be won.

It was now that Hitler’s role changed from defender to victim—not because he had blaspheomed, as Capt. Vanderdecken did, but because he had quietly, almost humbly, undertaken a superhuman task. The Greeks called this hubris, and defined it as courage beyond reason. Homer gave us the example of the Greek hero Ajax, who covets the armor of the Greek half-god Achilles. Hubris is what the driven find when destiny deserts their cause. Hitler’s cause was the Germanentum; he had willed himself its defender. (Fittingly, French troops were among the last defenders of his burning Berlin.) But after Stalingrad he took upon himself the task no human is meant to carry out—that of turning destiny around. This threatened to destroy the very cause he had staked his life to promote. Had he left the field when he saw the war was lost, then a conciliator (Goering?) following the great revolutionary might have preserved the honor of the idea and his cause. But hubris foreclosed that choice.

This was a survey of a man’s intentions and an attempt to reveal something of his true likeness by outlining the beliefs from which his actions grew. Hitler was without doubt the towering figure of the 20th century—and its most tragic figure. He remained to the end a populist, loyal to the Volkish vision that had revolutionized his politics. His genius was that he could see farther than most into what our future would be, if we did not remain faithful defenders of our European culture. What he saw then is what we see now, half a century after his death: Our world in shambles and besieged by those who would put an end to it. His answer was the Germanentum, the people of the north, as the bulwark.

**FOOTNOTES**

1. The legend of Vanderdecken—variously known in different versions of the stories as Van der Decken, Van Demien, Van Straaten, Van Eyk, Falkenberg etc—is supposedly based upon a real sea captain and a real ship that set sail in 1660 or 1726. Sometimes the ship herself is dubbed “The Flying Dutchman,” but that is an error.—Ed.

2. Lukacs, 203.

3. Ibid., 252.

4. Chamberlain offered a convincing argument that Christ, as a Galilean, was not racially a Jew at all since the province of Galilee, a part of Herod’s Jewish kingdom at the time, had been inhabited from time immemorial by non-Semitic tribes who historically practiced the religion of their rulers.


6. Ibid., 345.

7. Ibid., 577.


10. Lukacs, op. cit., 96, 212.


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. . . Except Real News . . .

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- Rabble-rousers physically attack officials of a legitimate government. Later, military sites are attacked and much personal property destroyed. Military officers are specifically targeted during battle, contrary to the accepted norm for combat of the day.1

- The rights of citizens to a fair trial, to confront their accusers and to know and address criminal charges against them are abruptly suspended. Thousands are placed in jail without just cause.2

- A world leader manipulates a nation into a war to which a majority of the citizens object. Millions of innocent men and women are killed as a result.3

- A nation viciously attacks a lightly-armed, non-combat vessel of an ally, clearly flying her national standard, machine-gunning survivors in the water to attempt to hide the event. Most news outlets ignore the story completely.4

- A nation’s people are punished for the crimes of its leader. They are bombed and starved for over a decade by an international alliance. Millions die of curable diseases.5

- Land, houses and personal property of one group—particularly targeted for their ethnicity and religious beliefs—are confiscated by another ethnic group. When those whose property has been stolen protest with stone throwing, heavily armed military troops respond with tanks and other sophisticated war machinery, crushing the protesters even further.6

- Foreign nationals hijack two passenger jetliners and proceed to crash them into two heavily-occupied corporate office buildings, killing thousands of helpless civilians.7

All the above could be considered acts of terrorism—or patriotism—depending upon which side you view them. As you can see, terrorism and patriotism come in many forms.

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1 This is how British newspapers would have described the tar-and-feathering of John Wilkes Booth, the assassin of Abraham Lincoln.

2 This is how the most famous British newspaper, the Daily Express, would have described the suspension of habeas corpus during the Civil War.

3 Had Americans known about FDR’s machinations to get the United States into World War II and the outlandish belief that the attack on Pearl Harbor was a surprise, citizens would have objected more strenuously to America’s intervention in that war.

4 The infamous attack on the USS Liberty was covered by almost every news outlet in America for decades after the event. If Americans had known the brutal truth about the perpetrator of this attack on U.S. forces, they would have demanded an immediate declaration of war against Israel.

5 A truthful description of ongoing sanctions and military attacks on Iraq that have done far more to punish innocent civilians than to oust Saddam. And again, if Americans knew the truth about the suffering of the Iraqis, they might demand an end to the present policy, which must be called genocide.

6 Truthfully describes the confiscation of land and property and the brutal suppression of the Palestinian people by Israel.

7 Describes the attack upon the World Trade Center—packed with innocent civilians from 50 countries—by terrorists on Sept. 11, 2001, and viewed by many hardline extremists as a justifiable target and a patriotic act. Why did they do it? Why would anyone commit such an unspeakable act of terror against such a munificent nation? Without getting the truth about the motivations of these extremists (which you won’t in your mainstream news) you may never know.
The 1860 discovery of the Angkor temples—collectively the world’s largest religious monument—opened up this “lost city” to the world. The legend became fact, and a stream of explorers, historians and archeologists came to Angkor to investigate these vast buildings. Gradually, some of the mysteries were explained, the Sanskrit inscriptions deciphered and the history of Angkor slowly pieced together, mainly by French scholars in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Now it is known that Angkor was the great capital city of the Khmer empire from the city’s founding in about A.D. 880 until about 1225.

The history of Angkor dates back to the kingdom of Funan. This kingdom was established by an Indian Brahmin, and in A.D. 200, the country was peacefully settled by Indian traders. Four hundred years later, the kingdom had become a prosperous trading region. As the area was located on the pilgrim route between China and India, Hinduism and Chinese Buddhism were adopted by the new settlers.

The Indian and Chinese influence can still be felt in “Roat Kampuchea” (the communists, who took over in 1976, changed the country’s name from “Cambodia”), and the temples of Angkor resemble Hindu and Buddhist temples that can be found in northern India and in Nepal. Around A.D. 600, the Funan empire lost much of its power to the kingdom of Chenla. The capital of this new empire, Sambor, was located about 40 miles to the southeast of Angkor.

In A.D. 800, the kingdom of Kambuja was established, and King Jayavarman I took control over the kingdom. (All Khmer kings have names with the suffix -varman, meaning “armor” or “shield.”) Jayavarman built several capitals near Angkor, was responsible for many social changes and was able to seize land to

King Sisowath ruled Cambodia from 1904 to 1927. By his era, the Angkor complex had long been nothing more than a legend to Cambodians. The distinctly Mongoloid characteristics of his physiognomy provide an interesting contrast to the remarkably Caucasoid features of the ancient creators of the Angkor complex of sacred buildings.
Above, one of the 54 stone towers of the Bayon, each with four faces of Lokesvara, a Boddhisatva (an enlightened helper of mankind, in the Buddhist religion—one who has attained the level of nirvana but chooses to remain among mortals out of sheer compassion). These faces have been said to resemble the countenance of Jayavarman VII, the builder of Angkor Thom. The faces are pointed exactly north, south, east and west. Fifty-four was a sacred number to the adepts of the very ancient civilization that focused on the precession of the equinoxes. This picture is from Heaven’s Mirror—Quest for the Lost Civilization, by Graham Hancock and Santha Faiia.

A monk strolls through the grounds of the little-known temple of Bakong at Roluos. Together with the temples of Prak Ko and Prei Monli, Bakong forms a pattern corresponding to three stars in the Corona Borealis as they appeared at dawn on the spring equinox in 10,500 B.C. (Interestingly, the Great Sphinx at Giza is said to have been aligned with the constellation Leo about the same time—10,500 B.C.) Other Angkor-area temples reflect the stars of Draco and other nearby constellations, demonstrating an advanced knowledge of astronomy by the builders. Bakong is built on the foundations of a man-made mountain of much older origin than the temple itself.
the north and to the east. In A.D. 889, a nephew of Jayavarman became the new emperor, and he was able to bring peace and unity to the Khmer kingdom. In A.D. 944, Jayavarman V established many Mahayana Buddhist temples near Angkor and moved the court to Yasodharapura, at Angkor. Culture prospered, and so did the Khmer empire.

In A.D. 1000, Suryavarman, a young man who may have come from the Malayan provinces of the empire, ascended the throne of Kambuja. He is credited with the planning and foundation of the city of Angkor. In A.D. 1051, Udayadityavarman II succeeded Suryavarman, and continued to build the city of Angkor, and restored many of the temples. Angkor was now both a sacred temple city and the center of a vast irrigation system.

Massive expansion of the city continued throughout the next 200 years, and ambitious building programs expanded the city. Many temples were built, spread out over about 40 miles around the village of Siem Reap. The temples are famous for their bas-reliefs, many of which depict some sort of apsaras, a celestial water nymph or dancer of Indra’s heaven. (Many people, imagining “apsaras” to be a plural, incorrectly speak of “an apsara,” by which they mean a female figurine. Even scholars often make this mistake. Actually the plural of “apsaras” is “apsarases.” “Apsara” is Sanskrit for “moving on the waters.”)

Another misconception is embodied in the name of one site, “the Terrace of the Leper King,” at Angkor Thom. There is a legend that a Khmer king who was a great builder was also a leper. The 11th-century terrace is supposedly named in honor of this king, whose statue is said to be found there. However, the statue is in fact that of Yama, the god and judge of the dead.

Angkor Wat, perhaps the most famous temple, is dedicated to the Hindu god Vishnu and was constructed during this period. Angkor Wat, built under King Suryavarman II in the early 12th century, is the highest achievement of Khmer architecture, and is today the “flagship” of the temples at Angkor. The temple is a huge pyramid structure. The compound at Angkor Wat covers an area of 4,920 by 4,265 feet and is surrounded by a vast moat 590 feet wide. Along the causeway leading to the enormous entrance gate are balustrades shaped as giant serpents, which are believed to represent emblems of cosmic fertility. The temple consists of a towering complex of terraces and small buildings that are arranged in a series of three diminishing stories and surmounted by five towers. The roofed and unoofed structures are covered with bands of finely carved stone sculptures. The walls are covered with reliefs that illustrate Hindu mythology, principally scenes relating to the god Vishnu. The mass of bas-relief carving is of the highest quality and the most beautifully executed in Angkor. All the “temple mountains” of Angkor are filled with three-dimensional images, and every inch of the walls is covered by Hindu and Buddhist sculptures.

In the late 12th century, King Jayavarman VII is credited with building Angkor Thom (with the famous Gate of the Dead) and the Bayon at the center of Angkor Thom, arguably putting excessive demands on the people’s energies and resources. Heavy taxation may have contributed to the decline and fall of the Khmer civilization.

Much featured at the Bayon are eerie, smiling, six-foot-high visages of Bodhisattva Lokeshvara, the Enlightened Being of Compassion, the Lord of the World in the Buddhist religion. These are perhaps the most striking of all the Angkor sculptures. The colossal faces on each of the Bayon’s 54 secondary towers gaze impassively toward the horizon. It has been called “the most amazing piece of architecture in existence.”

Beginning about A.D. 1200, Angkor and the Khmer empire started to decline. When Jayavarman VII died, the Thai (Siamese) empire in the west emerged as a major power in the region. The Thai capital was moved to Ayudhya, near Angkor, and obviously threatened the Cambodians. In A.D. 1389 the Thais attacked Angkor, and the city fell for a time into their hands. The 15th-century invasion of the Khmer kingdom by the Thais resulted in the final abandonment of Angkor (1431). The city was deserted, and the capital was moved eastward, to the region of the present capital, Phnom Penh.

Today, archeologists from all over the world are actively involved in the restoration process of the temples, but much of the history of the “lost city” of Angkor is still a mystery.

Miraculously, little damage has been done to the Angkor region as a result of the bloody civil war that recently terrorized the Cambodians. The Khmer Rouge, a typical communist organization that murdered 2 million Cambodians in a little-remembered holocaust, organized guerrilla activities against Prince Sihanouk’s government. In 1975, many Buddhist monks who lived in the Angkor temples were massacred, along with the majority of the Buddhist population. By definition, this is genocide; but protests by the liberal establishment have been muted.
THE TBR HISTORY QUIZ

1. How long did the Hundred Years War last? (a) About 95 years. (b) About 100 years. (c) About 115 years. (d) About 125 years.

2. (a) What weapon proved decisive in the early battles of the Hundred Years War? (b) What weapon proved decisive in the late battles of the war?

3. (a) What was the cause of the Hundred Years War? (b) How did the war affect the course of history? (c) Who won it?

4. What era has been called the Second Hundred Years War? And why is it of particular interest to Americans?

5. How did Old Faithful, the geyser discovered in 1870, get its name?

6. Where would you find the only diamond mine in North America?

7. Which of “the Evergreen State’s” volcanic peaks erupted in 1980, sending smoke and ash 12 miles into the air?

8. Where does the term “Yankee” come from?

9. What state, which for a short time called itself New Connecticut, was an independent republic before it joined the union?

10. Where in America were the first log cabins built?

ANSWERS:

1. (c) About 115 years—116 to be more precise. During this 1337-1453 war between France and England, bands of mercenary soldiers robbed and burned their way across the fertile fields of France. It was not, however, a period of continuous warfare, as was the 30 Years War.

2. (a) The English longbow amazed continentals with its ability to penetrate all but the heaviest armor and the fact that a skilled Bowman could get off three arrows in the time it took a French crossbowman to reload. (b) The French deployment of a new secret weapon—the cannon—made castles obsolete.

3. (a) The king of England owned several duchies in France, resulting in a conflict of interest—as a French duke, he was supposed to be loyal to the French king, but since he was a king in his own right, he overlooked these responsibilities. (b) Due in part to the new weapons deployed on the battlefield, the system of feudalism became obsolete, and the nation-state as we know it arose, with strong central governments in France and England. (c) France is generally considered the winner, although it was a Pyrrhic victory.

4. The period 1689-1815 was termed the Second Hundred Years War by Arthur Buffington, in his 1929 book of that title. This second time of conflict between France and England included, among its various aspects, the American War for Independence.

5. Since its discovery, the Wyoming geyser has shot a column of water about 150 feet high into the air roughly every 75 minutes. The temperature of the water is just below the boiling point, and the reentrant of the water is just above the boiling point, and water about 150 feet high rises up to a column of old faithfulness, the American War for Independence, and line of conflict between France and England. And the great war justly called a dramatic victory.

6. At Crater of Diamonds State Park near Murfreesboro, Arkansas. Visitors are allowed to search the open fields for diamonds and may keep any they find, provided the diamond weighs no more than five carats. Diamonds were first found there in 1906, including the 40.23-carat "Uncle Sam" diamond. Over 70,000 diamonds have been found there.

7. Mount St. Helens, in the Cascade Range. A tremendous explosion took place at 8:32 a.m. on May 18, 1980, and over 1,300 feet of the mountain top was blown off, reducing Mount St. Helens from 9,600 feet to 8,300 feet.

8. The matter is uncertain, but the prevalent view is that it is a corruption of a Dutch name, Jan Kees. This was the Dutch equivalent of our "John Doe," a moniker used on a legal paper when a person’s real name is unknown.

9. Vermont, between 1777 and 1791, was an independent republic. It coined its own money and was the first American government to ban slavery, on July 2, 1777. Vermont became a state of the union on March 4, 1777, and the first to be admitted to the Union.

10. In Delaware, the Blue Hen State, by the Swedish settlers (including ethnic Finns) who arrived in 1638 at the site of present-day Wilmington. They named it Fort Christina, in honor of Sweden’s 12-year-old queen. It was the first permanent settlement in what is now the U.S. state of Delaware. It was also the first permanent settlement in the New World. Today it is a state of the union.
During the years leading up to World War II, Col. Charles Lindbergh broke a lifetime tradition and began keeping detailed diaries of his day-to-day activities, chronicling his views toward the public issues and personalities of the day, addressing in particular those aspects of U.S. policy relevant to the growing troubles in Europe.

Lindbergh felt so strongly about the necessity of derailing the drive toward war that he felt that it was his duty to step out of his own effective, self-imposed exile from public life and put his reputation forward as a voice of reason in opposition to the ever-burgeoning push for war. With this in mind, Lindbergh felt it vital to keep a diary of that stormy period. He realized, soon enough, that his real views on many issues were being distorted by a hostile, war-mongering media and while he acknowledged that his diary could not cover everything, it would "show the falsity of at least some of the stories told."

In later years, Lindbergh's concerns were proven correct. When, at the urging of publisher William Jovanovich, Lindbergh read just one of the more than 20 biographies that had been written about him, Lindbergh did so, later sending Jovanovich a document of 76 typewritten pages listing factual inaccuracies in the book in question, a volume largely based upon newspaper stories as the sources. Ironically, according to Jovanovich, this Lindbergh biography was actually one of the more temperate and even-handed volumes written, yet it too relied upon the very "falsity" that rightly concerned Lindbergh.

In 1970 Jovanovich prevailed upon Lindbergh to publish extensive excerpts from his journals. The final published volume, covering some 1,000 pages, appeared under the title *The Wartime Journals of Charles Lindbergh*, covering the period from March 11, 1938, to June 15, 1945, at the time the war was winding down.

Prior to publishing these diaries, Lindbergh wrote his publisher a letter reflecting on the period that he spent “re-rereading”
his journals for the first time after so many years and preparing them for publication. According to Lindbergh:

You ask what my conclusions are, rereading my journals and looking back on World War II from the vantage point of a quarter-century in time. We won the war, in a military sense; but, in a broader sense, it seems to me we lost it, for our Western civilization is less respected and secure than it was before.

In order to defeat Germany and Japan, we supported the still greater menaces of Russia and China—which now confront us in a nuclear-weapon era. Poland was not saved. The British empire has broken down with great suffering, bloodshed, and confusion. England is an economy-constricted secondary power. France had to give up her major colonies and turn to a mild dictatorship herself. Much of our Western culture was destroyed. We lost the genetic heritage formed through eons in many million lives. Meanwhile, the Soviets have dropped their iron curtain to screen off Eastern Europe, and an antagonistic Chinese government threatens us in Asia.

More than a generation after the war’s end, our occupying armies still must occupy, and the world has not been made safe for democracy and freedom. On the contrary, our own system of democratic government is being challenged by that greatest of dangers to any government: internal dissatisfaction and unrest.

It is alarmingly possible that World War II marks the beginning of our Western civilization’s breakdown, as it already marks the breakdown of the greatest empire ever built by man. Certainly our civilization’s survival depends on meeting the challenges that tower before us with unprecedented magnitude in almost every field of modern life. Most of these challenges were, at least, intensified through the waging of World War II.

Are we now headed toward a third and still more disastrous war between world nations? Or can we improve human relationships sufficiently to avoid such a holocaust? Since it is inherent in the way of life that issues will continue between men, I believe human relationships can best be improved through clarifying the issues and conditions surrounding them.

I hope my journals relating to World War II will help clarify issues and conditions of the past and thereby contribute to understanding issues and conditions of the present and the future.

Although publication of the diaries stirred up new debate over Lindbergh’s prewar views, the book became a best-seller and was actually a semifinalist for the National Book Award.

Among many others, Lindbergh received a fan letter from former first lady Jacqueline Kennedy Onassis, whose late husband, President John F. Kennedy, along with his brother, Joseph P. Kennedy Jr., had been avid supporters of the America First movement, for which Lindbergh was a leading spokesman. In her letter, Mrs. Onassis referred to the Kennedys, saying, “That family—and me—adore you more than anyone,” an interesting nugget of history noted in A. Scott Berg’s 1998 biography, Lindbergh.

Lindbergh’s reflections in the published Wartime Journals provide a fascinating look at Lindbergh’s wide-ranging private life and travels throughout the United States and Europe and his acquaintances and friendships with some of the most prominent figures of the period. However, like most journals and diaries of public figures, the Wartime Journals contain a great deal of personal data and other material that is of interest only to the author (and his family) and to Lindbergh devotees.

However, Lindbergh’s views on a variety of matters such as history, culture, religion, law, and, of course, the subject of U.S. involvement abroad were addressed quite thoroughly throughout the journals and the excerpts that follow are among the most pointed and representative of Lindbergh’s thinking at the time. Lindbergh emerges as a thoughtful, introspective philosopher, guided by a self-assurance and a sense of humor, and a knowledge that he was veering onto a course that could (and did) impact upon his place in history and on the future of the world.

Of special interest, in historical retrospect, are Lindbergh’s comments on the impact of the news and entertainment media of the time on shaping public opinion, toward both Lindbergh himself and the views that he put forth in the public arena. Lindbergh was very much aware of—and wary of—what might delicately be termed “news management” and found himself quite occupied with the problem as he sought to make his views heard.

What follows are relevant excerpts from Lindbergh’s journals on public affairs and his personal philosophy. The excerpts are arranged in chronological order, from August 27, 1938, up through December 8, 1941—the day following the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor—at which time Congress declared war. The dates of the journal entries appear in parentheses at the end of the selection. The subtitles above each entry are provided by The Barnes Review as a guide to the subject matter therein.

The Reality of Soviet Russia

This is a strange country. They preach the doctrine of dividing between people according to their need. There is great poverty and at times actual starvation. Yet I have never seen a greater waste of food than at some of the lunches and dinners we have attended. The people who have, in Soviet Russia, do not seem to be greatly concerned about those who have not. I do not believe the idea of division, equality and state ownership will last long. Given a chance, the social classes will develop, much the same as in the past. The signs are in the parties, the dinners, the women’s dresses, decorations etc. Of course, there is already a great difference in the salaries and privileges of different people. (Saturday, August 27, 1938)

Politicians and Public Affairs

My primary interest lies in the character of a man, and not in whether he is a Republican or a Democrat. I would as soon vote for one as the other. The issues between them are quite superficial at this time. I think, however, that they will begin to clarify and become more fundamental from now on. Whether or not future issues will choose to follow either of these parties remains to be seen. As far as I am concerned personally, I have but little fear of being classed as a Republican for long. I have too little interest in either politics or popularity.

One of the dearest of rights to me is being able to say what I think and act as I wish. I intend to do this, and I know it will cause trouble. As soon as it does, the politicians will disown me quickly enough—and I will be only too willing. I shall have far more interest in my own ideas than in their support. At least I shall hold my self-respect—and possibly that of a number of other people. I have no intention of bending my ideas or my ideals to conform to the platform of either party. One must make certain compromises in life—that is a part of living together with other men—but compromise is justified only when the goal to be gained
is of greater importance than what is lost in compromising. (Saturday, October 7, 1939)

On Running for President

Among other things, I enjoy too much the ability to do and say what I wish to ever be a successful candidate for president. I prefer intellectual and personal freedom to the honors and accomplishments of political office—even that of president. (Wednesday, October 11, 1939)

The Wrong Kind of Pacifism

I went to see All Quiet on the Western Front—the bloodiest film I can ever remember seeing. I wanted to find out what type of war film was being shown these days. It is a terrible play and enough to turn anyone against war; but I think it is not a very constructive type to place before the people of America today. We do not want a nation that is afraid of war if it should become necessary to enter one. And All Quiet on the Western Front will turn people against war more through fear than through intellect. It will not add to the courage of our country. (Thursday, October 19, 1939)

Henry Ford—American Genius

I talked to [Henry] Ford about the war, the industrial situation in America, about his ideas of decentralization etc. He is a combination of genius and impracticability, with the genius definitely on top. Ford is a great man and a constructive influence in this country. One cannot talk to him without gaining new ideas and receiving much mental stimulation. His greatness is demonstrated by his vision and his success industrially and by his interests and activities in many other fields. (Thursday, December 28, 1939)

Man’s Law vs. Natural Law

Legal terminology always annoys me, but some of it seems essential under the conditions lawyers have let themselves get into. They are so tied by tradition and complication that they have as unique a language as a baby who is just learning to talk and can be understood only by mother and nurse. It is a sort of second childhood for the law, though. Why is it that men with an excellent education—long college training and all that—can’t state their ideas and agreements in good English?

Sometimes I divide things done by man in my mind into two groups: those that must conform to natural laws (such as the design of an airplane); and those that are not bound by any more discipline than comes from the ideas and arguments of man himself. Of course, all action—even law—comes eventually within the plan of nature. It is only in the thoughts of man that he really passes beyond nature’s bounds.

How interesting and enlightening it is to compare the streamline of an airplane to the awkward, complicated and conflicting chapters of a law book. The success of one is clearly measured by nature, while the value of the other is estimated by partisan men. How beautiful and simple life really is, and how complicated man tries to make it. He worships God on the one hand; tries to improve upon Him on the other. The fallacy is rarely seen. (Tuesday, April 30, 1940)
The Folly of War

To me, the worst part of this war is the hereditary loss to the countries involved. And the best men are killed first in war. The effect of this is shown in England today. The leaders she might have had were killed in the last war. (Sunday, May 12, 1940)

The Problem With the Newsreels

Everything considered, my personal feeling toward motion-picture operators is not the best. Still, this present situation concerns the welfare of the country and should not be decided on personal feelings. But what advantages and disadvantages are there in speaking for the sound pictures at this time? The advantage is that additional millions of people will be reached. The disadvantages include the fact that only a small portion of my speech would be carried and that I would not be able to control its setting. The news companies could sandwich my picture and talk between the sack of cities and the mangled bodies of refugees. Once they have such a film, they can cut it and use it in any way they like. I decided against speaking for the sound films. (Sunday, May 19, 1940)

Ignoring Essentials

I become more and more disturbed about the trends and conditions in this country—the superficiality, the cheapness, the lack of understanding of, or interest in, fundamental problems. National debt increases; we involve ourselves unwisely and unnecessarily in the European situation; and we seem to have no understanding of our own limitations. (Saturday, August 17, 1940)

Controlling Public Debate

[R. Douglas] Stuart says he is having trouble buying radio time for the America First Committee. Some of the radio stations have taken the stand that the committee has to do with a “controversial issue” and therefore comes under the code they have formed against selling time for controversial issues. It is a fine state of affairs if the question of war and peace cannot be debated before the American people because it is a “controversial issue.” (Tuesday, October 1, 1940)

News Management

The newsreels again requested that I read part of my address for them after I had broadcast. In the past I have refused their requests—first, because of the difficulty they have often caused for me; second, and much more important, because of the Jewish influence in the newsreels and the antagonism I know exists toward me. . . . However, this is a critical period, and I think it is worth the chance. (Monday, October 14, 1940)

Personal Privacy vs. Principle

[My wife’s antiwar] address has been played down in the newspapers. There is very little notice of it in any of them. . . . It is strange, our desire in this instance for newspaper attention. For many years we have tried to avoid the attention of the press. For years we refused to speak over the radio, to give statements or interviews, to take part in political meetings. Now, this morning, we are disappointed because Anne’s address last night is not carried in the papers on our breakfast table. How can we justify this attitude, this seeming inconsistency? It is not that we enjoy seeing our names in the paper or having attention drawn to us any more than before. That is as unpleasant as ever; and it adds to our difficulties of life; we cannot go to theaters or restaurants, or walk together on the streets without being stared at, or run after, or annoyed in some other way. As I analyze it, I think our apparent change in attitude is due to the intensity of our feeling about the causes we support.

In the past, the publicity and attention was focused on us, like a brilliant, burning, hardened spotlight. Now, the light is thrown upon an approaching danger—upon war, famine, disease, and revolution. And our attention is focused upon the problems it illuminates. They are so important that the few diverging rays that still fall upon us we hardly notice. We are no longer the objects upon which the light is thrown; we ourselves are behind and beside it, trying to guide it, that we and others may see the better and act the more intelligently in this crisis. (Wednesday, December 25, 1940)

‘Christmas’ vs. Christ vs. Christianity

It seems to me that Christmas has deviated as much from the birth of Christ as Christianity has from His teachings. The keynote at the birth of Christ was simplicity. The keynote of Christmas today is luxury. The birth and life of Christ were surrounded with things mystical. Christmas and Christianity today are surrounded with things material. Sometime I would like to have Christmas in our home that conforms to the true spirit and significance of that day 2,000 years ago—a Christmas unadorned by tinsel, uncluttered by gewgaws and ribboned boxes, unstuffted by roast turkey and sweet potatoes; a Christmas pure in its simplicity, akin to the sky and stars, of the mind rather than the body. It should be almost the reverse of a modern Christmas. One should eat too little rather than too much, see no one rather than everyone; spend it in silence rather than in communication. Christmas should be a day that brings one closer to God and to the philosophy of Christ. (Wednesday, December 25, 1940)

Hunting for Survival

I do not mind shooting a bird to eat occasionally, especially if I am on an expedition of some sort, and I thoroughly enjoy target shooting with rifle or shotgun. But this pleasure in seeing something happy and beautiful fall maimed and fluttering, I do not feel the chance. (Monday, October 14, 1940)

Cultural Differences

I am beginning to feel the world is divided into two groups of people (how easy it is to divide problems into two for the convenience of your momentary argument): those who are inherently suspicious of everything and those who are not. In my experience it seems that Latin blood (and Asiatic) tends to suspicion, while Nordic blood tends away from it. Personally, I prefer to be with people who are not suspicious about everything in life. And, as a matter of fact, I think the “suspicous” people are wrong more of the time than their opposites. (Tuesday, February 4, 1941)

An Aviator Views the Moon

A huge, blood-red moon rose in the evening. It made me think of Europe and bombed cities. Whenever I see the moon now, I think of the bombing that is going on over there. As the moon rises here, it is high over Europe, and bombs are almost certainly falling on English and German cities. (Friday, April 11, 1941)

Survival of the West

Sometimes I feel like saying: “Well, let’s get into the war if you are so anxious to. Then the responsibility will be yours.” In com-
parison to the work I am now doing, the fighting would be fun. But my mind tells me that we better face our problems and let Europe face hers without getting messed up in this war. I have an interest in Western civilization, and I have an interest in my race, or culture, or whatever you want to call it, and I have an interest in the type of world my children are going to live in. That is why I will probably stay on the stump with the pacifists and why I will resign my commission if necessary and never regret my action in doing so. This war is a mistake; we will only bring disaster if we enter it; we will do no good either to Europe or ourselves, and therefore I am going to put everything I have behind staying out.

No one, not even Germany, was more responsible for the conditions which caused this war than England and France. They declared the war without consulting us. If it were possible to help them win, the result would probably be Versailles all over again. Europe must straighten out her own family affairs. Our interference would simply cause another postponement, as the last war did. Europe faces adjustments that must be made, and only she can work out what they are going to be. (Friday, April 25, 1941)

**Who Favors War?**

The pressure for war is high and mounting. The people are opposed to it, but the administration seems to have “the bit in its teeth” and hell-bent on its way to war. Most of the Jewish interests in this country are behind war, and they control a huge part of our press and radio and most of our motion pictures. There are also the “intellectuals,” and the “Anglophiles,” and the British agents who are allowed free rein, the international financial interests and many others. (Thursday, May 1, 1941)

**A Narrow Escape**

We were met at the Minneapolis airport by various members of the local America First Committee and driven to the La Salle Hotel, where I was given the “Nordic Suite.” What a press story that could make. But “Nordic” out here doesn’t mean what it does in the east. In Minnesota the word “Nordic” has no anti-Semitic taint. And the situation is probably saved because, as I learned soon after arrival, [British diplomat] Lord Halifax and his party stayed in this same suite and left only yesterday. (Saturday, May 10, 1941)

**The People vs. the Press**

As I go around to these meetings I feel that, without question, if this country is run by [the] people, we will not enter this war. I always feel this way after one of our meetings is over; but I know that tomorrow, or the day after, as I read the misinformation and propaganda in our newspapers, I will begin to wonder whether people can withstand such a barrage indefinitely. And even if they can withstand it, will popular opinion be enough to keep us out of the war? Which is stronger, the money and power and propaganda pushing us into war, or the will of the people to stay out? (Saturday, May 10, 1941)

**On Patronizing Children**

... There is nothing worse than being confronted with a group of children if you have made no plans for their entertainment. I am not one of those politicians who can go out and pat their heads and talk about what fine-looking boys and girls they are. I remember how I felt about such things when I was a child, and I have too much respect for them and for myself to do it. (Monday, June 23, 1941)

**A Prejudiced Press**

American press accounts of the war are so prejudiced and confused that it is almost impossible to obtain a balanced picture. Reports from Russia are headlined while those from Germany are played down, although the latter are certainly the most accurate. Results of Royal Air Force raids over the [European] continent are exaggerated, while results of German raids over England are minimized. The result is that the impression given by our newspapers is far more favorable to the British cause than is warranted by the facts. (Saturday, June 28, 1941)

**Media Lies and Misinformation**

The newspapers continue to misquote my address and to remove sentences from their context. Sometimes what they carry between quotation marks is completely made up and does not even approximate what I have said, or even what I believe. (Thursday, July 3, 1941)

**Frequency vs. Precision**

Personally, I prefer to speak less often and with more careful preparation. Most of my friends want me to speak more often and with less careful preparation. (Sunday, July 6, 1941)
On Having his Phone Tapped

Captain Smith (of America First) came at 3:30. He had phoned to say he had an urgent message that he must deliver personally. The message is that the FBI began tapping our telephone last Saturday and has a constant watch on it. The men in the FBI are, according to Smith, on the whole, friendly; they are simply following out orders. Smith says the America First telephones are also tapped. I told him to tell everyone in America First that there was nothing we wished to hide and that if our phones were tapped we should speak more plainly, rather than less plainly in the future. I told him to tell his friends on the FBI that if there was anything they didn’t understand in my own phone conversations, I would give them additional information. Captain Smith says he is certain the phones are tapped and that the information came from friends of his on the FBI, who are also friendly to me. Personally, I think it is probable that they are tapped, but I still have some question. It really makes very little difference as far as I am concerned. My main interest lies in knowing whether or not these tactics are being used by the administration. (Monday, July 7, 1941)

Three Groups Promoting War

When I mentioned [in a speech in Des Moines] the three major groups agitating for war—the British, the Jewish and the Roosevelt administration—the entire audience seemed to stand and cheer. At that moment whatever opposition existed was completely drowned out by our support. (Thursday, September 11, 1941)

The Unmentionable Subject

My Des Moines address has caused so much controversy that Gen. [Robert] Wood has decided to hold a meeting of the America First National Committee in Chicago. I must, of course, attend. I felt I had worded my Des Moines address carefully and moderately. It seems that almost anything can be discussed today in America except the Jewish problem. The very mention of the word “Jew” is a cause for a storm. Personally, I feel that the only hope for a moderate solution lies in an open and frank discussion. (Monday, September 15, 1941)

Private Candor vs. Public Reticence

[America First leader] John Flynn came at 11:00, and we talked the situation over for an hour. Flynn says he does not question the truth of what I said at Des Moines, but feels it was inadvisable to mention the Jewish problem. He feels as strongly as I do that the Jews are among the major influences pushing this country toward war. He has said so frequently, and he says so now. He is perfectly willing to talk about it among a small group of people in private. But apparently he would rather see us get into the war than mention in public what the Jews are doing, no matter how tolerantly and moderately it is done. (Thursday, September 18, 1941)

Truth Not Important to Press

The opposition paper here [Ft. Wayne, Indiana] is carrying a large advertisement in which statements are attributed to me which I never made. As far as the “war party” is concerned, what I actually say seems to be of little importance. They quote me as saying what they wish or think that I said. They do not bother to refer to my addresses, which are all available; at best, they refer to some garbled newspaper account. The result is that I am often

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**Tea—The Origins of a Worldwide Phenomenon**

Tea was first discovered, legend has it, in 2737 B.C., when some tea leaves accidentally blew into a pot of water boiling for the emperor of China, Shen Nung, who had issued an edict that, for sanitary reasons, all drinking water in China was to be boiled first. Besides regular tea, he also studied the uses of hundreds of other herbs in the form of tea. Of course, herbal teas were also known in Europe, going back at least to medieval times. Chinese tea was introduced into the West either by Dutch or Portuguese sea captains in the 17th century. England and Russia developed quite a taste for the beverage. The Russians brought it into their country by camel caravans, beginning under Empress Elizabeth in 1735. The tea at the Boston Tea Party, an event that made coffee America’s national drink, came in solid, compressed blocks or tablets, with elaborate three-dimensional designs. In places such as Tibet, these were used as a gold-free, banker-proof form of money. Eighty percent of the tea consumed in the United States is iced. The first record of iced tea comes from the 1904 World’s Fair in St. Louis. Fairgoers are said to have poured their hot tea over ice to cool off from the summer days. In 1908, the tea bag was invented by Thomas Sullivan of New York.

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quoted as saying things which I not only never said, but which I never believed. (Friday, October 3, 1941)

**Catholic Leaders Oppose the War**

We returned to the hotel after the meeting. People kept coming up to the room until 12:30. Father [John] O’Brien [of Notre Dame University] showed me a telegram he had just received, to the effect that a poll of the Catholic hierarchy showed that ninety percent were opposed to entering the war. (Friday, October 3, 1941)

**Popular Opinion vs. War Propaganda**

[The] strength and influence [of the America First movement] is growing rapidly, but the power of our opposition is great. The amazing thing is not that we are so close to war but that we have been able to hold the war forces back as long as we have. Their ranks include the American government, the British government, the Jews, and the major portion of the press, radio, and motion-picture facilities of the country. We have on our side the mass of the people, but it is a question of how long the people can withstand the flood of propaganda with which the country is being covered. They have no accurate source of information to which to turn. Also, regardless of the attitude of our people, it is a question as to whether the president will force us into war by actions and incidents which will make it unavoidable. He is in a position where he can force war on us whether we want it or not. (Saturday, October 4, 1941)

**On Speaking the Truth**

[Former President Herbert] Hoover told me he felt my Des Moines address was a mistake (the mention of the Jews in connection with the war-agitating groups). I told him I felt my statements had been both moderate and true. He replied that when you had been in politics long enough you learned not to say things just because they are true. (But, after all, I am not a politician—and that is one of the reasons why I don’t wish to be one. I would rather say what I believe when I want to say it than to measure every statement I make by its probable popularity.) (Monday, October 6, 1941)

**Reporting War News**

[Paul] Palmer [an editor with Reader’s Digest] says one of the reasons why the papers give such an erroneous impression about the war is that the editors have discovered that their newsstand circulation drops whenever they headline Axis successes. As a result, they try to find some Allied success to headline, no matter how insignificant it may be. (Wednesday, October 8, 1941)

**Pearl Harbor**

The radio is announcing that Japan has attacked the Philippines and the Hawaiian Islands and that Pearl Harbor has been bombed. An attack in the Philippines was to be expected,
although I did not think it would come quite so soon. But Pearl Harbor! How did the “Japs” get close enough, and where is our Navy? Or is it just a hit-and-run raid of a few planes, exaggerated by radio commentators into a major attack? The Japanese can, of course, raid the Hawaiian Islands, or even the West Coast, with aircraft carriers. But the cost in carriers and planes lost is going to be awfully high unless our Navy is asleep—or in the Atlantic. The question in my mind is, how much of it has been sent to the Atlantic to aid Britain? (Sunday, December 7, 1941)

The Back Door to War

Phoned Gen. [Robert] Wood in Boston. His first words were, “Well, he [President Roosevelt] got us in through the back door.” . . . The president spoke at 12:00. Asked for a declaration of war. Senate passed a declaration of war unanimously. Only “no” in the House. What else was there to do? We have been asking for war for months. If the president had asked for a declaration of war before, I think Congress would have turned him down with a big majority. But now we have been attacked, and attacked in home waters. We have brought it on our own shoulders; but I can see nothing to do under these circumstances except to fight. If I had been in Congress, I certainly would have voted for a declaration of war. (Monday, December 8, 1941)

Michael Collins Piper is the author of Final Judgment: The Missing Link in the JFK Assassination Conspiracy and Best Witness, about the Mel Mermelstein case. He is presently a correspondent for the American Free Press newspaper, based in Washington, D.C.
Unsatisfied with the Junker-dominated Reichswehr (as the German army was called at the end of World War I), both Adolf Hitler and Ernst Röhm wanted Germany to have a “popular army,” wherein all the commanders would beolders of the faith (i.e., National Socialists), and in which every man would be a warrior for a doctrine. That goal would be realized, after years of caution, in the Waffen SS. However, this common goal did nothing to prevent the two German leaders from eventually suffering a fatal collision. Röhm, according to Leon Degrelle, was really the one who provoked that drastic turn of events.

Hitler would be able to build a true “popular army” only on a very small scale at first, because the Reichswehr, terribly jealous of its monopoly, would set up many obstacles to its recruitment until 1941. In contrast to the recruitment of the throngs of the SA that Röhm, the adventurous latter-day condottiere, had swept in after him much too fast and without sufficient control, recruitment to the Waffen SS would be physically, politically and morally the result of a long and rigid selection process. It would be formed of the best built, the most convinced and the most disciplined young men of the Reich, of those with the strongest character, who had a crusader’s faith in National Socialism, in Hitler, their leader, in the mission of Teutonism and, after 1940, of the Europe of the 20 comrade peoples who would be found in its ranks. The schools of the Waffen SS for training and for the forming of their cadres would be of a Spartan severity. Discipline was the first of its laws. A Trappist monk did not live more soberly. An officer candidate would sometimes lose a dozen kilograms during his 10 months of instruction.

Thus in 10 years a million young volunteers would be trained in a Spartan manner: volunteers at first from Germany and then from the whole of Europe, all fanatic believers in a revolutionary faith and all builders, as comrades in arms, of a continent that was at last to be one politically, socially, economically, spiritually. Never before had anyone ever seen—or, beyond doubt, will anyone ever again see—a European army of a million young volunteers inspired by such an ideal, or representing such physical and moral worth.

But that Waffen SS would be the materialization of long years of progressive toil, passing from a battalion to a regiment, then to three divisions not very well armed, then to divisions quite formidably equipped, then to army corps and to armies. Time would permit—as under Napoleon—the selection one by one, for their bravery and for their competence, of thousands of young officers of the very first order. A good many of them for all that were ex-servicemen from 1918, become young again among the young, like the unforgettable Zepp Dietrich, commander-in-chief of the Sixth SS Armored Army; like Gen. Gilles, commander of the glorious Viking; like Félix Steiner, commanding general of the Fourth Armored Corps; or like the grandfather of the Waffen SS, whom everyone affectionately called Papa Hauser.

But the majority, who had come up from the Hitlerjugend (Hitler Youth), or from similar organizations all over Europe, were magnificent young men, like Kurt Meyer, the legendary “Panzermeyer,” commander at the age of 34 years of the 18,000 young lads of the Waffen SS Division Hitlerjugend; or like the dazzling Lohengrin, Joaquin Peiper, commander of a tank regiment in the same division at the age of 29.

All of them without distinction had to submit preliminarily to the same iron discipline, and to the same ideological education, earning each of their promotions by their courage in combat and by their decisiveness. I myself, commander at the age of 37 of the Waffen SS division Wallonia, then of the Army Corps Occident, had been a simple soldier on the Russian front for eight months, then corporal, then noncommissioned officer, then second lieutenant, and so on, earning each new rank “for an act of valor in
combat.” That was the hard and fast rule in the Waffen SS.

You went to the Tolz War School only after you had first given repeated proofs of your gift for command in becoming a noncom at the front, and had displayed bravery there by earning the Iron Cross. It was comrades with the souls of leaders and heroes that were placed at the head of the troops and not just those good at schoolwork, who were the usual ones at the old military academies of the past. The soldiers of the Waffen SS also had to be morally men of a high standard. 402,000 of them died in combat. They were the first everywhere, always at the hardest positions. The least fault, in the Waffen SS, was stringently punished. Stealing a knife would get you five months in prison. A Waffen SS man had to be clean and healthy. A revealed homosexual was shot before the entire troop.

Forming an army like that suddenly was not possible. The human material available to Röhm was good for street fighting and for propaganda. But it was worthless for forming a coherent army rapidly and completely, an army modern and exemplary in every way and commanded by leaders of irreproachable moral fiber.

Röhm himself was a pack leader. Incapable of carrying out an arduous mission requiring creativity, at the first test on the border, by some ill-considered and tumultuous action, he would have turned the old Reichswehr into a chaotic army heading ineluctably for disaster. Hitler was farseeing, and he would one day have his “Red Army” thanks to the Waffen SS. But that would come only after years of cleverly sidestepping a thousand traps without falling into one.

Röhm, the mercenary, was too much in a hurry. He was becoming annoyed at the cleverness of the statesman. In 1933 and 1934 his irritation would become progressively more and more fraught with menace. Their differences grew still more serious from the fact that in the socioeconomic sphere, too, Röhm was totally reckless, a revolutionary with an unstable brain.

And there, too, Hitler would be a realist. He had understood perfectly that a synthesis of the economic interests of the Reich could be accomplished only by respecting all the various components of the nation. Capitalism was one of them. Röhm wanted to crush it. Hitler did not. He intended to base his revolution not on a vast social uproar by disorderly masses, but on elites: political elites, social elites, cultural elites, and the elites that constantly renew the industrial world when it is free.

A business leader is the product of a long selection. The rich man’s son, if he is intellectually limited, will be a failure in the modern world. Industrialists and economists who can control the development of markets, rationalize production, coordinate their management and labor teams, and open new paths for the production of goods are also elite human beings, their minds always alert, aware of the risks they run but possessing the force of character necessary to surmount them.

Hitler was bent on giving these very different elites a reasoned and sincere social spirit and leading them to an effective conception of society based on a hierarchy of merit. But he had no foolish wish to set off charges of dynamite under employers of

Hundreds of Germans fought on the so-called Republican side during the Spanish Civil War, like the soldiers shown here of the Thaelmann Battalion, flying the communist hammer-and-sickle flag. Ernst Thaelmann was the leader of the German Communist Party. He was arrested after the Reichstag fire and sent to Buchenwald, where he eventually died. The battalion fought in some of the war’s most vicious actions, defending Madrid against tanks and bombers operated by fellow Germans who were of a fascist bent. Many of these Red soldiers had fled Germany when Hitler took over in 1933.
labor and creators of wealth who were as much a part of the working world as a bricklayer or a welder. Persecuting the creators of employment, crushing them under an unjust and irrational state control, economically torpedoing their labors—that would weaken the Reich rather than cure it.

It would also make it impossible to eliminate unemployment. It would end all possibility of strengthening and restoring the Reichshehr, which was still, in 1934, the sole bulwark of the nation. There was no other solution for the moment but to maintain that bulwark, the Reichshehr; however imperfect, however full of preconceived notions, however little prepared mentally to transform itself strategically and technically, if only so that it might be joined, after years of difficult preparation, to an ideological army more dynamic and more reliable, the Waffen SS, the true “Grand Army” of Hitlerism.

There would be evolution, not a blind smashing of everything. Hitler had hardly become chancellor when he declared: “I am resolved to suppress severely any endeavor which would tend to disturb the present order. I shall oppose a second revolutionary wave with all my might, for the National Socialist state cannot tolerate any private intervention in its sovereign domain, particularly in its public jurisdiction.” (Benoist-Méchin, vol. III, 171.)

Revolution by violence was thus a closed chapter. “Revolution,” Hitler had said, “is not a permanent state, and it must not become a permanent state.” “We have the task of attaining one position after another and little by little occupying each position in an exemplary fashion.”

And again: “The victorious German revolution has entered the evolutionary stage, that is to say, the work of normal and legal reconstruction.” He was fundamentally a pragmatist.

Others, like Röhm, bent upon reaching for the moon, were not. Hitler tried once more to warn them: “From now on any action that is not in harmony with the laws of the State will be suppressed severely and without mercy, for the National Socialist state cannot tolerate any private intervention in its sovereign domain, particularly in its public jurisdiction.” (Brisaud, 159.)

Röhm had bluntly taken a stand in direct opposition to the affirmations of his leader: “We are not a bourgeois club but an association of resolute political combatants. The revolutionary line will be maintained. I want to lead revolutionaries, not men who are pleasing to the shopkeepers.”

Hitler was determined to be very patient in this instance as well. He had always been patient. Röhm was a comrade of the early days. His SA men for years had sacrificed themselves in his behalf. Despite their excesses, he could not deny them his gratitude. Röhm’s social threats did not disturb him. There wasn’t much he [Röhm] could do in that area.

It was Hitler who was establishing relations with the industrial leaders. On the military plane, however, it was a different story. A conflict between the Reichshehr and the SA could be catastrophic for Germany. And it was that conflict that Röhm was seeking with his series of provocations.

Leon Degrelle was an individual of exceptional intellect, dedicated to Western Culture. He fought not only for his country but for the survival of Christian Europe, preventing the continent from being inundated by Stalin’s savage hordes. What Gen. Degrelle has to say, as an eyewitness to some of the key events in the history of the 20th century, is vastly important within the historical and factual context of his time and has great relevance to the continuing struggle today for the survival of civilization as we know it.
The native people of Lapland are known as the Sámi. While Sámi reindeer pastoralism goes back only some 300-400 years, the link between the Sámi and the reindeer is an ancient one. From the earliest known times, the reindeer was an important source of food and clothing for these people. Beyond that, it also featured in the cosmology of the Sámi. At the time of the earliest records, about 1,000 years ago, all Sámi groups hunted wild reindeer and probably kept some tamed deer as decoy and transport animals.

The Sámi people are one of the aboriginal peoples of the Fennoscandian area (Scandinavia, Finland, eastern Karelia and the Kola peninsula), and for centuries they lived more or less disconnected from other European civilizations. They are often referred to as Lapps, but they prefer to be called Sámi. “Sámi” is the name they use for themselves and their country.

The formerly used name “Lapp” is possibly a rough translation of an old Sámi language tribal name, “Vuowjos,” which comes from a Sámi word for a wedge-shaped piece, vuowje, in the clothing (evidently a feature of that tribe’s traditional outfits). This was first translated as lappalainen in Finnish, which is derived from the corresponding Finnish word lapp(u) (a piece of cloth), and later drifted to the old Swedish/Norse languages in the form lapp/lappir. Nowadays the use of “Lapp” is not recommended because it suggests that the Sámi are wearing patched-up clothing, hence it is viewed as derogatory.

Thousands of years ago the ancestral Sámi hunted moose and game and carved pictures of these animals in the rocks of northern Norway. A century after the birth of Christ, Tacitus described people called “Fenni” who dressed in animal skins and slept on the ground. They are also mentioned in texts from the 700s, wherein it is described how they hunted game over the snow with curved pieces of wood strapped to their feet, which came to be known as “skis.” The hunting of wild reindeer declined during the 1500s, and this hunting people adapted their survival strategy to become herders of semi-domesticated reindeer. Along the coast, many Sámi became dedicated fishermen.

The Sámi languages (there are several of them) are Finno-Ugric tongues and are the closest relatives to the Baltic-Finnic languages (Finnish, Estonian). It is believed the Sámi people came to the areas now known as Finland and eastern Karelia during and after the last ice age, following herds of reindeer. They were living by the Arctic Sea some 5,000 years ago, as revealed by archeological evidence. Some 1,500 ancient rock drawings have been found in the areas where they dwelt. According to some linguists, the ancestral tongue of the Lapps and Finns influenced the Germanic languages of the Indo-European family, just as tongues akin to Basque are believed to have influenced the Keltic languages.

Now the aboriginal Sámi people can only be found north of the Arctic Circle.

Some archeologists have linked the oldest known Scandinavian stone age culture, the so-called Komsa culture by the Arctic Sea, to the ancestors of the Sámi. The Sámi simply did not believe in war and so they “disappeared” in times of conflict.
The Yalta Conference, more properly called the Crimea Conference, actually represented the culmination of a series of war and peace conferences conducted by the victorious Allies to deal with the vanquished Central/Axis Powers from the Paris Peace Conference of 1919 (treaties of Versailles, Saint-Germain and Trianon) after World War I, to the Atlantic Charter, as well as the Quebec, Teheran, Yalta and Potsdam conferences after World War II.

They effectively destroyed old Europe, helped create and then extend the reign of communism, indirectly awakened and created communist China, and led to the political bipolarization of the world for half a century. Both world wars, and on both sides—the Central Powers and the Allies, were caused by precisely the kind of entangling, chain-reaction international treaties that the American Founding Fathers had wisely warned against.

The Cold War, the split between the major Allied powers of World War II, commenced just four years after Yalta, and left Europe and the world divided and polarized. The division was exacerbated by raw edges at the interface where communism directly confronted the West, namely, between East and West Germany, North and South Korea, and North and South Vietnam. The last two eventually resulted in new wars, costing the lives of 100,000 Americans and millions of Koreans and Vietnamese. Another raw “loose end” left over from Stalin’s boundary settings in East Europe is as yet unsettled. It is the matter of the Konigsberg district in Prussia, which today remains a cesspool of [former] Soviet corruption and misrule in Central Europe. Even in the Southern Hemisphere, in Africa and South America, communist and capitalist forces competed and vied for control of Third World peoples and resources.

On the face of it in 1945, and until the collapse of the Soviet Union half a century later, the “America Firsters” in prewar America appeared to have been absolutely correct in predicting that communism would be the sole beneficiary of war against Germany. What the American Firsters did not foresee, however, was that the United States, and with it, the entire English-speaking world also benefit materially from the war, albeit at great cost to European culture and civilization.

As is well known, the overwhelming majority of the American people opposed U.S. intervention in the war in Europe. President Roosevelt was of an entirely different mind however. Deliberately contradicting the will and intent of Congress, the president used every subterfuge he and his advisors could devise (such as the “Lend Lease” program) to violate American neutrality and supply aid and arms to Britain and the Soviet Union. The president’s apologists sardonically comment that Mr. Roosevelt was simply ahead of public opinion. Leading American historians of the time, such as Harry Elmer Barnes and Charles Callan Tansill, and many more since, have reported on the president’s actions. Indeed, much evidence now exists that the president, having failed to provoke Germany into retaliating, then proceeded to provoke the Japanese with economic sanctions, knowing that the Tripartite Pact (Anti-Comintern Pact) between Germany, Italy and Japan would compel the Axis powers to honor their pledge to their Asian partner. Dr. Tansill labeled this maneuver “Roosevelt’s back door to war.” Regrettably, the Japanese eventually took the bait, launching their infamous attack, and the United States entered the war with broad popular support and enthusiasm.

It is characteristic of the many conferences held by the United States and the United Kingdom before, during and after the two world wars that they proceeded from a righteous proclamation of the noblest of sentiments and intentions at the outset
of the war, to a hardening of attitudes and the threat of punishment in mid-conflict, when the tide has changed in favor of the Allies, and, finally, when the enemy has capitulated, conclude with the absolutely punitive, unjust, shortsighted provisions of the peace diktats—Versailles and Yalta. Wilson’s Fourteen Points were the initial righteous bait in World War I, the Atlantic Charter in World War II.

Roosevelt and Churchill proclaimed the noble Atlantic Charter in August 1941—before America’s formal entry into the war and long before the outcome of the war was certain. The other members of the Allied coalition, including Czechoslovakia, Poland and the Soviet Union, also subsequently agreed to the charter, the most important points of which were (paraphrasing):

1. The Anglo-American alliance seeks no aggrandizement, territorial or otherwise.
2. The alliance desires to see no territorial changes that do not accord with the freely expressed wishes of the peoples concerned.
3. The Anglo-American alliance respects every nation’s right to self-determination.
4. The alliance will endeavor to further the enjoyment by all states, great and small, victor and vanquished, of access, on equal terms, of the trade and the raw materials of the world, which are needed for their economic prosperity.

Of course the Allies absolutely abhorred and condemned racism, or ethnic cleansing, as it is now referred to, as practiced by National Socialist Germany. The immediate cause of Britain’s and France’s declaration of war against Germany had also been a lofty, but an empty, one—to preserve the integrity of Poland (a goal that was conveniently forgotten when the war ended).

By 1943, when the eventual Allied victory seemed assured, unconditional surrender was demanded at Casablanca, and, in 1944-45, when the outcome was certain, the Teheran Conference, where Stalin and Roosevelt promised and toasted the deaths of 50,000 German officers, to be shot after the war along with other “war criminals.” All previous altruistic mouthings regarding the postwar treatment of the vanquished were discarded.

In September 1944, after the successful D-Day landings, the Quebec Conference was convened, at which the Morgenthau Plan was approved by Roosevelt and Churchill. Gen. Eisenhower was instructed to abolish the German government, the Nazi Party and the Wehrmacht, to close schools, universities, radio stations and newspapers, and to prevent his troops even from speaking to Germans (the “no-fraternization policy”), except to give orders. It also strove to put Germans on a near-starvation diet and to reduce Germany to a primitive agricultural state.

Eleanor Roosevelt used to boast that Secretary of the Treasury Henry Morgenthau was “Franklin’s conscience.” Harry Dexter White, who was later exposed as a communist agent whose real name was Harry Weiss, was in turn Morgenthau’s close associate and advisor. President Roosevelt systematically ignored or rejected the good advice of his secretaries of state and war, Cordell Hull and Henry Stimson, preferring to follow Morgenthau’s directions. On April 12, 1945, the day before he died, the president assured his secretary of the treasury: “Henry, I am with you 100 percent.”

Among the provisions of the Crimea Conference was one that stated that the United Kingdom, the United States and the USSR possessed supreme authority with respect to Germany, even to its complete dismemberment if deemed desirable. On the matter of reparations, Germany was to pay in kind for the losses suffered by the Allied nations during the war. Reparations permitted the removal by the victors of all manner of industrial plants, transport, machine tools etc for at least two years after unconditional surrender. Moreover, annual deliveries of goods from current production were to be made for an indeterminate period. The third form of “in kind” reparations permitted the use of German labor. Under this provision the Soviet Union mainly, but also France, retained German POWs in labor camps for years after the war ended. The Soviet Union also abducted hundreds of thousands of German civilians for labor in the USSR.

Yalta also permitted the Soviet Union to establish all national borders in East Europe, including shifting the borders of Poland farther west into former German territory. Stalin arranged to have contiguous borders with all the countries of Soviet-occupied East Europe so as to be able to intervene directly should circumstances demand, as the Soviets later did in Hungary and Czechoslovakia. The Soviets were granted complete political control over the eastern half of Europe. Churchill, believing that the Americans were so obsessed with the defeat of Germany that they really had no other postwar political considerations or proposals in mind, therefore jotted his proposal on a piece of paper, giving the Soviet Union about 95 percent control over all of East Europe, with the Western powers getting partial control over Greece and Yugoslavia. Stalin understood this language immediately and seized upon it. Thus, according to renowned French historian Arthur Conte, Yalta defined “le partage du monde”—the division of the world. The subsequent polarization of the globe, between Moscow and Washington, was initiated there and was not to end for half a century.

While the expulsion of ethnic Germans from all of East Europe had been discussed earlier at the Teheran and Yalta conferences, the plan was finalized at the Potsdam Conference six months after Yalta. Some 15 million Germans were to be “transferred in an orderly and humane manner” from their ancestral homes in East Europe to the western rump of Germany, which of course was itself destitute and desolate. In the process of this massive ethnic cleansing, which proceeded in a totally disorderly and inhumane manner, approximately 2 million Germans were murdered.

Ironically, before the treaties of Versailles, St. Germain and Trianon, which put countless millions of ethnic Germans under Czech, Polish and French control, there had been few racial (ethnic minority) problems in Europe. For centuries Germans had lived as neighbors with the other peoples of East Europe. In fact, the governments of the various East European states had actually invited German settlers into their countries. Many people, including presidents Wilson and Coolidge, had foreseen that the failure to provide self-determination would provide great difficulties in the future, if not a casus belli. To a great extent, Hitler’s
aggressive policies were directed at those artificial countries established after World War I in order to return all Volksdeutsche (ethnic Germans) to the German state.

Gratuitously, the Western Allies invited the USSR to join in the war against Japan several months after the German surrender. The southern part of Sakhalin and adjacent islands were ceded to the USSR. The Chinese communists in their “Long March” had previously moved to the north to make the communist Chinese controlled area contiguous with the USSR, thereby facilitating the defeat of the Chinese nationalists on the mainland.

After World War I the main concern of the Allies (France, the United Kingdom and the United States) was to collect reparations in gold and to ensure that Germany could not become a dominant power on the European continent. To this end, the Allies totally abolished the Austro-Hungarian empire and reduced the size of Germany proper. In the void created, the Allies invented several hybrid countries like Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia in which peoples who were traditional enemies were supposed to live together in blissful harmony.

This unnatural arrangement soon came unraveled. In the late 1930s, the agrarian Slovaks separated from the urbanized Czechs and became firm allies of Germany. Likewise, in Yugoslavia the Catholic Croats and Slovenes soon parted from the Orthodox Serbs and supported the German war effort. The victorious Allies of World War II, apparently not learning anything from experience, reestablished Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia after World War II under communist rule. At the first opportunity, in 1989-90, when the Soviet Union collapsed, the Slovaks again, (without German help) took leave of the Czechs, while the Croats and Slovenes again, of their own volition, fought for their independence.

Strong and convincing arguments can be made to the effect that the punitive and shortsighted provisions of the Paris Peace Conference in 1919 set the stage for World War II, just as the Pax Sovietica arranged at Yalta would result in the Cold War as soon as the Roosevelt administration departed the scene. Furthermore, considering the consequences of the destruction of old Europe in the 20th century and subsequent events, it may also be argued that American intervention in those wars in support of Mother England actually distorted the continent’s natural development. Pursuant to Britain’s “balance-of-power” policy on the continent, Germany could not be permitted to become dominant. It must be recalled that the United Kingdom and France—confident that their colonies and former colonies would support them—declared war against Germany in both wars—not the other way around.

The attitudes and comments of the Allied personalities involved in the horrendous decisions made at Yalta are of great interest. The American delegation included President Roosevelt and his closest adviser Harry Hopkins (who actually lived in the White House with Franklin until Eleanor threw him out), both of whom were charmed by and trusted in the good faith of Josef Stalin and, incidentally, both of whom had to be carried into Livadia Palace because of physical disabilities. The U.S. delegation also included: Alger Hiss, a key aide, later convicted of lying about his communist affiliation, Averell Harriman, Edward Stettinius, Chip Bohlen, admirals William Leahy and Ernest King, generals George Marshall and Edwin Watson. Harry Hopkins has now—through the Venona intercepts—also been identified as a Stalinist agent.

The American delegation, and especially Roosevelt, displayed a total ignorance of communist designs and intentions. Early on, Roosevelt had formed a favorable opinion of Stalin. Such worthies as the Czech leader Eduard Benes had earlier shared his evaluation of Stalin with the president: “Once Stalin has given you his word, you can absolutely rely on it.” In 1941 the president chastised the U.S. ambassador to the Soviet Union, William Bullitt, for being too critical of Stalin and fearful of Soviet intentions.

Roosevelt, who thought no one could resist his charm, upon his return from Teheran is quoted as confiding his opinion of Stalin to Frances Perkins, his secretary of labor: “I like him, and I think he likes me.” Shortly after Yalta, Roosevelt told his Cabinet: “I think that something entered into Stalin’s nature [during his early education for the priesthood] of the way in which a Christian gentleman should behave.”

The tyrant charmed other Americans at Yalta as well. Harriman once assured Jan Ciechanowski, former Polish ambassador to the United States, that “Stalin is not interested in world revolution.” Gen. Henry Arnold: “I see no notable difference between Stalin’s ideology and Roosevelt’s, and I believe that one makes a big mistake in calling Stalin a communist.” Gen. Marshall’s evaluation was: “Stalin is not a communist; he is a realist.” Alger Hiss, Harry Hopkins, Henry Morgenthau, the president’s wife Eleanor and any number of the president’s closest advisers had even warmer feelings for Stalin.

President Roosevelt, who was born to a family of privilege and wealth, tried to ingratiate himself with Stalin by taking a strong stand against colonialism and imperialism, including the British variety. At one point, Roosevelt even told Churchill: “I know you won’t take it ill of me when I say that I personally get along better with Stalin than I can with your Foreign Office.”

Winston Churchill too was—at the time—infatuated with Stalin. Churchill toasted the tyrant at Yalta: “I walk through this world with greater courage and hope when I find myself in relation of friendship and intimacy with this great man, whose fame has gone out not only over all Russia but the world.”

The object of the American delegation’s trust and affection, whose true reputation seems to have been known to all except the Americans, was quite another animal. While Churchill was at Harrow and Roosevelt was at Groton, learning to be proper gentlemen, Stalin was already the leader of terrorist gangs and a bank robber. He possessed a cunning more common in the East than the West. Indeed, in 1941 he told the Japanese Foreign Minister Matsuoka that: “I, too, am an Asian.” Suspicious of all, and ruthless in punishing his enemies real, imagined, or deliberately created, Stalin remained always under perfect self-control. He has been described as “banal and dangerous as a Caucasian dagger and as cold-blooded as the dagger is cold steel.” Stalin was
Examination of the Foreign Policy of Franklin Delano Roosevelt and Its Aftermath

...least 500,000 Russians. For more, see the ad on page 39 and the accompanying arti-

cents copious and documented information from declassified Soviet archives regard-

FOOTNOTES:
1 See John Nugent’s article entitled “The Great Patents Heist,” page 27 of the March/April issue of TBR, for the stunning facts about the millions of German patents stolen by the carload by the victorious Allies in 1945. Although this theft is little referenced, it was worth billions of dollars to the successful, but larcenous,

2 Joachim Hoffman’s stunning new book, Stalin’s War of Extermination, presents copious and documented information from declassified Soviet archives regarding the terrorism in the Red Army which Hoffman estimates cost the lives of at least 500,000 Russians. For more, see the ad on page 39 and the accompanying article beginning on page 35 of this issue.

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also an excellent judge of the weaknesses of others, such as, for example, Hitler. Of him Stalin said: “Obviously a brilliant man, but he has one fatal weakness—he doesn’t know when to stop gambling.”

Besides his military advisors, with Stalin at Yalta were his political robots Molotov and Gromyko, both of whom effectively supported the dictator’s dogmatic and single-minded purpose. Stalin’s idée fixe was the pursuit and advancement of Soviet goals, namely, expansion to the West with the ultimate aim of communizing all of Europe. Arthur Conte pungently and accurately describes the tone and tenor of the meetings of the “Big Three” at Yalta (Franklin Roosevelt, Winston Churchill and Josef Stalin) with the phrase: “One could no more imagine Stalin at Yalta without pursuing his single-mindedness of purpose, i.e., his determination to expand Soviet borders and lay the groundwork for future European advances, than one could imagine Roosevelt without his Hopkins or Churchill without his cigar.” Thus, and by whom, was Pax Sovietica formulated.

The 21st century opened with an entirely new correlation of forces—consequences of Yalta and the destruction of Europe. Whereas at the birth of the 20th century Europe still dominated the world scene, at mid-century, after two world wars, she lay in ruins and replaced by the “Big Three,” America an ocean away, Britain a channel away, and Russia lagging behind. Within five years after Yalta, Britain, almost destitute and without its empire, could no longer be considered a world power. There remained but two great powers during the Cold War bipolarized period—the world of communism, led by the Soviet Union, and that of capitalism, led by the United States. When the USSR dissolved in 1990, the “Big Three” of the mid-20th century was reduced to just one world superpower: the United States.

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The Noble Atlantic Charter
The following is the text of the Joint Declaration (Atlantic Charter), allegedly signed by Franklin Roosevelt and Winston Churchill on August 14, 1941, as it appeared in The New York Times, August 15, 1941:

The President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister, Mr. Churchill, representing His Majesty’s Government in the United Kingdom, being met together, deem it right to make known certain common principles in the national policies of their respective countries on which they base their hopes for a better future for the world.

FIRST, their countries seek no aggrandizement, territorial or other;

SECOND, they desire to see no territorial changes that do not accord with the freely expressed wishes of the peoples concerned;

THIRD, they respect the right of all peoples to choose the form of government under which they will live; and they wish to see sovereign rights and self-government restored to those who have been forcibly deprived of them;

FOURTH, they will endeavor, with due respect for their existing obligations, to further the enjoyment by all States, great or small, victor or vanquished, of access, on equal terms, to the trade and to the raw materials of the world which are needed for their economic prosperity;

FIFTH, they desire to bring about the fullest collaboration between all nations in the economic field with the object of securing, for all, improved labor standards, economic adjustment and social security;

SIXTH, after the final destruction of the Nazi tyranny, they hope to see established a peace which will afford to all nations the means of dwelling in safety within their own boundaries, and which will afford assurance that all of the men in all the lands may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want;

SEVENTH, such a peace should enable all men to traverse the high seas and oceans without hindrance;

EIGHTH, they believe that all of the nations of the world, for realistic as well as spiritual reasons, must come to the abandonment of the use of force. Since no future peace can be maintained if land, sea or air armaments continue to be employed by nations which threaten, or may threaten, aggression outside of their frontiers, they believe, pending the establishment of a wider and permanent system of general security, that the disarmament of such nations is essential. They will likewise aid and encourage all other practicable measures which will lighten for peace-loving people the crushing burden of armaments.

Robert K. Logan is a library technician and writer. He is an avid cross-country skier and snowmobiler. Mr. Logan resides in Saskatchewan.
bring history into accord with the facts. TBR is certainly not trying to “deny history.” In fact, we do know why some people—who are not the Revisionists—are, in your words, “so engrossed in changing facts of history,” particularly in regard to “the Holocaust.” The reason is because, as Jewish-American Professor Norman Finkelstein declares in his book, The Holocaust Industry, “the Holocaust” is now, in his words, “an indispensible ideological weapon” used by Israel and the American Jewish community to advance their political interests and to achieve, he says, “immunity from criticism, however justified.”

You say you have “personal knowledge” of a French prison where gassings were conducted in a particularly unusual fashion. You refer to an “eyewitness account,” but it’s not clear if you were the eyewitness or if you are repeating another person’s account. Please provide us more data immediately.

We don’t deny POWs suffered and never suggested life as a POW was a picnic. However, your own POW experiences have absolutely nothing to do with issues such as, for example, 1) how many Jews actually died at Auschwitz—some Jewish sources claim 4 million while other Jewish sources claim several million less—or 2) whether there is hard forensic evidence of people being “gassed” at Auschwitz, for example. For years we were told of gassings at Dachau. Now even Jewish scholars say that’s a myth.

And by the way, one of the most respected Revisionists is a former Allied POW held by the Nazis, Doug Collins of Canada, who has been threatened with criminal action because of his Revisionist views.—Ed.

I DON’T BELIEVE RUSSELL BURROWS

In reference to Russell Burrows’ trap door cave, when I grew up during the 1920s and 1930s in southeastern Ohio, the area was known as the Switzerland of Ohio. The hills were rugged and steep—very steep indeed—and my brothers and I wandered far and wide. On my grandfather’s farm, there was a drift mine in a hollow that entered a four-foot vein of coal. Farther up the hillside, under the shadow of a cliff, another portal penetrated a two-foot vein. There were hundreds of portals in southeastern Ohio where land owners dug their own coal. Today, 70 years later, it takes a trained eye to spot any trace of these mines. The 38th parallel tracks through southeastern Ohio and on west through Illinois. Along this latitude, the average yearly rainfall is about 40 inches, and the temperature can reach 100 degrees in the summer and 20 below in the winter.

If this thawing and freezing by the weather eliminated all the drift mine portals in Ohio, then does Mr. Burrows expect me to believe that a rock, delicately balanced over a cave for centuries in Illinois, could suddenly flip up and swallow a hiker? I don’t think so. Perhaps Mr. Burrows knew a jeweler who passed down to him his reference books and tools of the trade. If so, since Mr. Burrows is retired and has rocking chair money coming in, couldn’t he hole up in his cellar and crank out antiquities until the cows come home?

CLYDE R. KENNEDY
RUSHVILLE, OHIO

NOW THEIR PRO-ANTI-FEDERALISTS

I’ve noticed numerous references and newspaper columns on the Anti-Federalists recently. Rarely have these men been referred to in patriotic literature in the past, but, presently, Joe Sobran has been writing of them, and the patriotic news groups are abuzz about them. It seems no coincidence this occurs just after the TBR publication of M. Raphael Johnson’s well-written story on these misunderstood patriots. Johnson’s piece has been reprinted numerous times on the World Wide Web and elsewhere. I think Sobran and others should give him—and TBR—at least a footnote. I think TBR has started a new (and welcome) trend.

WALTER JEROME
WESTFIELD, NEW JERSEY

ROMANTICIZING ISLAM?

As much as I am an enemy of Zionism, I also strongly reject any romanticization of Islam. The Muslim “religion,” in my opinion, is not a religion at all, but a sacrilized military doctrine, one that was devised to establish Arab hegemony over lands historically Byzantine and Christian. While not all Muslims are violent, and certainly very few are terrorists, it must be said that wherever Muslims have appeared in any significant numbers, they have begun organized warfare against their host nation. Their entire imperialist spread over the Middle East and north Africa, into Spain and elsewhere, was based almost entirely on forced conversions and military conquest. Almost from the moment of its inception Islam organized itself into military bands for the sake of jihad. Not only does Islam permit organized violence, but war is a major part of its theology. Islam has no more claim to the Middle East than Zion.

WAYNE L. SANDSTROM
BEATRICE, NEBRASKA

MANIPULATING HISTORY

The state-sponsored schools will never tell you this, but governments routinely rely on hoaxes to sell their agendas to an otherwise reluctant public. The Romans accepted the emperors not because they wanted to, but because the carefully crafted illusions of threat appeared to leave no other choice. The oldest trick in the book is for would-be tyrants to create the “enemies” they need.

In 70 B.C., an ambitious plutocratic politician, Marcus Licinius Crassus, wanted to rule Rome. The largest single private landholder in Rome, Crassus used some of his wealth to help back Julius Caesar against Cicero. At this time, Rome was still a republic, which placed very strict limits on what rulers could do. But Crassus had no intentions of enduring such limits to his personal power. He contrived a plan. Crassus seized upon the slave revolt led by Spartacus in order to strike terror into the
HESS & HITLER

I'm writing on two separate, but connected, matters, i.e., Hess and Hitler. There is little doubt that Hess flew to Scotland to try to achieve peace between two brother nations. While we may question the actions of some Germans in the way they carried out their duties in the war (in the same way the actions of some Germans in the way they look after their men's spiritual needs?) there is little doubt that Hess acted out of conviction and took a real gamble—for peace.

TBR readers may be interested to know that a few years ago the farmer who owns the land gave permission for a stone monument to be erected on the spot where Hess landed. The monument paid homage to Hess and his mission and became known as the “Peace Stone.” Unfortunately some extremists took it upon themselves to daub the monument and cover it with propaganda posters, and then one Ameer Anwar of the Trotskyite Socialist Workers Party smashed the stone with a sledgehammer. This was on November 18, 1993. All was carried out in front of TV cameras.

A Scottish newspaper, The Daily Record, carried a picture of the Asian student the very next day, complete with his sledgehammer. All took place on private land—and yet Mr. Anwar was never prosecuted. Anwar is now a trainee solicitor and has become a hate figure in Scotland as he tries to stir up any event and make it “racist.” When a monument to communists who took part in the Spanish Civil War was damaged by burning tires in the Welsh capital, Cardiff, a local newspaper, The South Wales Echo, treated it as a criminal act almost beyond compare.

Of course, the communist volunteers went to join an army which regularly shot, tortured and mutilated Spanish men, women and children. They also had a penchant for desecrating churches, digging up religious corpses and torturing and murdering priests and nuns. Isn’t it amusing how a monument to a prisoner of peace can be smashed with the blessings of the media, and yet minor damage to a monument to Red terror brought forth copious amounts of tears from the same brand of media.

I hope your features on Hess will make more people aware of the dangerous mission he undertook and his reason for doing so—to end a fratricidal war destroying Europe.

Now to Hess’s boss. I am not a student of Hitler and would not class myself a fan of him or his regime. However, that doesn’t mean that one should accept, at face value, some of the nonsense put out by a propaganda machine that is still rolling on. I had to raise a smile at the letter which addressed his supposed “satanism.” There are many quotes from Hitler, who was born Catholic, which prove that he had great regard for Christianity.

Good or bad, Hitler was no satanist. He described the Belgian SS Gen. Leon Degrelle, who was a practicing Catholic before, during and after WWII, as the ideal choice had he wished for a son. Do we really think a “satanist” would want a devout Catholic son who insisted on priests at the front to look after his men’s spiritual needs?

David Bushkovitch
New York City

Hess & Hitler


A massive study of human evolution that fairly represents all sides to the debate. Probably the most complete study of the subject yet done. It is written, however, for the layman.


The archeological finds by Dr. Walter Alva at the necropolis of Sipán in Peru are some of the largest in the pre-Incan field. They deal with a little-known people called the Moche. Most of the relics of Sipán, unfortunately, have been stolen, although at least three tombs, richer in gold and silver than any other site excavated in the Americas, remained intact. This work, in part, concerns itself with the question of the “private ownership” of archeological treasures and the problem of looting of historical sites.


This is a new revisionist biography of the infamous symbol of the Wild West of OK Corral and Tombstone fame. Unfortunately, much of what has been attributed to him in the past is a myth. This book shows why and how.


The St. George Educational Trust (Forest House, Liss Forest, Liss, Hampshire GU33 7DD England) has re-released this classic work on the modern system of economics by great traditionalist scholar Hilaire Bello. This brief work is simply written for the layman, and contains summations of the basic principles of economic science and an excellent section on the fraud of usury. This is a must for patriots.


An excellent work, solely from primary sources, of the attitudes, strategy and tactics of the German High Command. Written by the German general staff members themselves, this book covers D-Day from the German point of view, and covers German preparations and the invasion itself.


Interesting and needed approach to that most misunderstood and unjustly maligned era, the “middle ages.” Unfortunately a bit biased against Catholicism in certain areas, it remains very useful for the student of history. Very little of significance is left out of its purview.