With his novel Gebürtig (Born Where), published in 1992, Robert Schindel became one of the best-known authors of contemporary Austrian Jewish literature. He had, however, long been a strong presence on the Austrian literary scene. He started writing poetry in the late 1950s, but did not pursue a literary career seriously until 1969, when he co-founded the literary journal Hundsbliume. At this time, Schindel supported himself by means of a number of odd jobs working as a postal worker, librarian, journalist, and teacher of the unemployed. In 1986 he became a freelance writer, supplementing his income with projects for the Austrian film, television, and radio industries. Schindel’s early work covers a wide range of topics; his later work reflects his increasing preoccupation with the Holocaust, his family’s history, and his personal experiences as an Austrian Jew.

Robert Schindel’s parents, Gerti Schindel and René Hajek, were exiled Jewish Austrian communists active in resistance against the National Socialists. In summer 1943, they returned from France to their native Austria under the assumed identity of “Alsatian foreign workers” Susanne Soël and Pierre Lutz. The exiled Austrian Communist Party had sent them to organize a resistance cell in Linz, Austria. When their son was born on 4 April 1944, he was registered as Robert Soël. Soon thereafter, Gerti Schindel and René Hajek were arrested and deported to Auschwitz. Hajek was murdered at Dachau in March of 1945, while Schindel survived Auschwitz and Ravensbrück. She returned to Vienna to reclaim her son, whom she had been able to hide, ironically enough, in an orphanage run by the National Socialists (Wiener Kinderheim der Nationalsozialistischen Volkswohlfahrt).

Growing up in an Austrian society that remained silent about the Holocaust, its victims, and the country’s complicity in the events, Schindel came relatively late to his Jewish Austrian identity, both in his personal life and in his literary work. His parents’ political activism and his mother’s continued involvement with the Communist Party informed much of his childhood and provided a more positive identity than did his Jewish ethnicity. From 1961-1967, Schindel was an active member of the Communist Party. While studying at the University of Vienna, he was the leading voice of the most radical wing of the Austrian student movement. From 1968 to 1978, Schindel’s political radicalism took him outside the established party system and brought him into contact with Maoist circles. While never crude or simplistic propaganda, Schindel’s literary work reflected his political views.

In the early 1980s, Robert Schindel rejoined the Jewish Community of Vienna. This was not motivated by religious convictions but by the realization that his existence was shaped by the fact that he was Jewish and the son of victims of the Nazi regime. This shift toward his Jewish heritage is reflected in Schindel’s work. His linguistically innovative and structurally
complex writings took a more personal direction. In his poetry, Schindel started to explore his own history in relation to the Holocaust and its legacy. It was, however, his novel Gebürtig, published in 1992, which established him as a major voice among the “second generation” Jewish writers in Austria. The novel was an instantaneous success in Austria and Germany and was translated into English and Hebrew. In 1998, it was made into a movie with Schindel as co-author of the film script.

Gebürtig is a compelling, multi-layered exploration of the legacy of the Holocaust for the second generation, the children of the victims, the perpetrators, and the bystanders. Complex in structure, with changing narrative perspectives and several interwoven plot lines, the novel is set in Vienna in the early 1980s. The various plots revolve around Danny Demant, whose biography strongly resembles that of the author. Demant’s circle of friends includes Jewish and non-Jewish Austrians. Their interactions and conversations reflect the uneasy relationship between the two groups. The ignorance of other Viennese about the Viennese Jews and their history manifests itself in a general inability to understand each other. On the other hand, an erotic attraction exists between the two groups, and practically every subplot of the novel involves a Jewish/non-Jewish couple. These relationships, however, inevitably break down because of the impact of the past on the present.

A central theme of the novel is the question of what it means to be Jewish forty years after the Holocaust. The Jewish protagonists of the novel represent different paradigms of Jewish identity: assimilation, dissimulation, Judeo-centrism, or denial of one’s Jewish identity. These different modes of identity underline the fact that there is no such thing as a monolithic Jewish race, as one of the non-Jewish characters of the novel maintains. They also point to the difficulties of developing a positive Jewish identity in a society that is still anti-Semitic. It becomes clear that all the Jewish protagonists establish their identity in response to the anti-Semitic Jewish stereotype promoted by the Nazis. This reflects Schindel’s convictions that contemporary Jewish identity is rooted in the existence of the concentration camps.

Yet, Gebürtig does not solely focus on the second generation but seeks to remember the victims of the Holocaust. Danny Demant, an editor by profession, comes across many stories of concentration camp victims like those of Sonja Orkun and Ilse Jacobsohn-Singer. Another victim’s story is presented as a novel within the novel, in the form of a manuscript that Demant is in the process of reading. The manuscript tells the story of Hermann Gebürtig, who, after surviving the Austrian concentration camp Ebenee, emigrated to the United States and subsequently became a world-renowned writer and Austria-hater. The Austrian journalist Susanne Ressel convinces him to return to Austria to testify in a trial against Egger, a former concentration camp guard, whom her father, a fellow inmate of Gebürtig’s in Ebenee, had recognized on a mountain hike. Her father suffers a heart attack and dies, but Susanne Ressel insists that the trial take place. Being in Vienna rekindles Gebürtig’s love for his former home and he is considering moving back when Egger’s acquittal returns him to reality. Gebürtig’s experiences in Vienna, the covert and open anti-Semitism he encounters, as well as the way he is courted by Viennese politicians, present a satire of Viennese society’s desire to suppress the past at all costs and, at the same time, its readiness to exploit a now famous victim as long as he is willing to forget the past.

Another of the novel’s plot lines involves Konrad Sachs, a German and the son of the Nazi official in charge of occupied Poland. Sachs is so tortured by nightmares about his childhood memories that he suffers an existential crisis. Only after following Demant’s advice to go public with his story does he find inner peace. Sachs’s character is based on Niklas Frank, son of Nazi war criminal and governor-general of the Generalgouvernement of Poland Hans Frank, whose publication of his memoir Der Vater (The Father) in the late 1980s caused quite a stir in Germany. What is important about the Sachs-plot within Schindel’s novel is that by confronting the past, Sachs is able to free himself from its burden. This luxury is not accorded to the Jewish protagonists of the book. The epilogue of the novel entitled “The Despairing” describes Demant’s experiences as an extra in the television production of Herman Wouk’s Winds of War. In front of a replica of the concentration camp Theresienstadt, forty Jews, survivors or children of survivors of the Holocaust, play the roles of camp inmates. The epilogue’s symbolism suggests that neither the victims nor their children can free themselves from the burden of the past. They are condemned to relive it. The novel thus paints a very somber picture of what it means to be Jewish in Austria forty years after the Holocaust.

Schindel’s preoccupation with this topic continues, especially with the question of how to commemorate the Holocaust and its victims. A poem in one of his recent poetry collections Immernie (2000) provides an example of the type of commemoration the author prefers. The poem is called “Dreizundzwanzig Jahre (Eine Chronik nach R. Hilberg)” [“Twenty-Three-Years (A Chronicle According to R.Hilberg,)”] and is offered in translation on page 3.

Works Consulted:
http://www.schindel.at (The official homepage of Robert Schindel, which contains biographical and bibliographical information, excerpts from his works, etc.)

About the Contributors:
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TWENTY-THREE YEARS
(A CHRONICLE AFTER R. HILBERG)

Robert Schindel*
Trans. David Scrase

In the windswept squared-off grid Galicia
From the village Nevermore the gentlemen chased
The Jews out and on to the edge of the forest
The same Jews who had dug the pits
Into which they were now piled and shot

A soldier stood there as the Jews
Were forced to undress and walk past him obediently
And lie down next to Mama’s corpse and Papa’s corpse
So he could shoot them with the others

A woman with half-length blond hair
Passed the soldier looked at him and then
Began to point to herself with her slender arms

With a flourish she ran her arms down
Showing her naked body to the soldier
And said: twenty-three years

A slight gust of wind caught her hair hardly any older than she
The Wehrmacht soldier saw it even her pubic hair quivered
Then he shot her in the stomach

Today the man is ancient surrounded by his grown-up family
And will soon die. Of all numbers he knows twenty-three well
Because the same number of grandchildren provided him
With a mild winter after his life of truly hard work

* The German text can be found at http://www.entwuerfe.ch/entwuerfe18/Text1.html.

The Center for Holocaust Studies at the University of Vermont is pleased to announce the publication of the following titles:


This collection of twelve essays honors Marion Pritchard, who has been recognized by Yad Vashem as Righteous Among the Nations for her work in Holland during World War II. A member *emerita* of the Advisory Board of the Center for Holocaust Studies, Pritchard received an honorary degree from the University of Vermont in 2003.


An assistant professor of history at the University of Vermont, Huener is the co-editor, with Professor Francis R. Nicosia, of *Medicine and Medical Ethics in Nazi Germany* (2002) and *Business and Industry in Nazi Germany* (2004) both published by Berghahn Books. Huener is also a member of the Center for Holocaust Studies Faculty Steering Committee.


With a historiographical overview by Nicosia and Huener, these six essays represent the proceedings of the second Miller Symposium organized by the Center. The contributors are Gerald Feldman, Harold James, Peter Hayes, Simon Reich, Michael Allen, and Volker Berghahn.


Embacher has written for the Bulletin of the Center for Holocaust Studies at the University of Vermont (vol. 4, No. 1) (vol. 4, No. 2). She is Ausserordentliche Professorin at the Institute for History, Salzburg University, in Austria and was a member of the Historikerkommission, a committee of historians charged with investigating and reporting on the whole complex of expropriations in Austria during the Nazi era and on restitution and/or compensation after 1945.


Born in southern Bohemia and educated at the universities of Brünn, Prague, and Oxford, poet and artist Hahn now lives in Middlebury, Vermont. The Center for Holocaust Studies published translations of his poetry with some of his art as the third in its series of occasional papers in 1998. An exhibition of his art will be held in conjunction with the Miller Symposium on the Arts in Nazi Germany (see below).

**Events**

**Kahn Lecture**

Thursday, 8 April 2004
4:00 p.m.
Memorial Lounge, Waterman Building
“*The Necessity of Poetry After Auschwitz*”
Jack Zipes
University of Minnesota

**Concerts (in conjunction with the Miller Symposium)**

Thursday, 22 April 2004
8:00 p.m.
“*An Evening with Madame F*”
Claudia Stevens
Recital Hall of the McCarthy Arts Center
St. Michael’s College, Winooski, Vt.

Saturday, 24 April 2004
8:00 p.m.
“*Music of the Holocaust*”
Paul Orgel
Southwick Music Complex Recital Hall

**Third Miller Symposium**

The Arts in Nazi Germany

Sunday, 25 April 2004
Campus Center Theater, Billings Student Center

Speakers:
Jonathan Petropoulos
Claremont McKenna College
Pamela Potter
University of Wisconsin, Madison
Eric Rentschler
Harvard University
Alan Steinweis
University of Nebraska, Lincoln
Frank Trommler
University of Pennsylvania
Michael Kater, moderator
York University, Toronto

**Look for more information in the mail soon!**
We tend to view the Holocaust through the horrific figures of the Endlösung, the “Final Solution.” Six million Jews murdered throughout Europe by various, but equally lethal, means leads to questions like: Where? How? Why? By whom? Rather quickly attention centers on the death camps (in Poland), on the gas chambers, and on perpetrators such as Mengele.

Despite the careful methodological approach of Raul Hilberg, the situation of Jews in Germany from 1933 to 1945 tends to be relegated to a position of secondary importance, forgotten, or ignored. To be sure, Germany’s Jewish population even in 1933 represented at most some ten percent of that ultimate tally of six million dead. But the breakdown of the figure of 566,000 human beings in Germany that the Germans designated “racial” Jews is revealing. Within five months of Hitler’s coming to power on 30 January 1933 no fewer than 26,000 had already emigrated. By the end of 1933, a total of 63,000 had left. These figures are derived from the German census of June 1933 and from the assessment of the Reich Association of Jews in Germany in 1941.

The year 1938 saw a number of anti-Jewish measures (abolition of the legal status of Jewish communities; registration of all Jewish property; a ban on Jews practicing medicine; the imposition of the names “Sara” and “Israel” on all Jews, and the “J” stamped in their passports) culminating in Kristallnacht. As a direct result of all these events, Jewish emigration from Germany reached new heights: 49,000 departed in 1938 and 68,000 in 1939, before the outbreak of war in September. These figures are remarkable given the reluctance of the rest of the world to receive such emigrants—we may consider the Evian Conference and the Kindertransport, it is true, provided refuge for 50,000 children from the Reich. The detailed account succeeds in large part because it is set down without the dubious benefit of hindsight.

At the end of the war in May 1945 the figures run approximately as follows. Of the original 566,000 “racial” Jews, as many as 346,000 were able to emigrate. About 200,000 were murdered. This means that about 20,000 Jews in Germany were able to survive the Third Reich. Some 15,000 survived in the open. These are the names “Sara” and “Israel” on all Jews, and the “J” stamped in their passports) culminating in Kristallnacht. As a direct result of all these events, Jewish emigration from Germany reached new heights: 49,000 departed in 1938 and 68,000 in 1939, before the outbreak of war in September. These figures are remarkable given the reluctance of the rest of the world to receive such emigrants—we may consider the Evian Conference and the Kindertransport, it is true, provided refuge for 50,000 children from the Reich. The detailed account succeeds in large part because it is set down without the dubious benefit of hindsight.

We learn much about the availability of food, both for him as a Jew and for Eva, his wife, as a Christian in a mixed marriage. Likewise, we learn of the restrictions regarding the acquisition of clothing, for example, or of tobacco. We can also see clearly the constant deterioration in conditions: the loss of material possessions and privileges; the loss of personal liberties; the moves into one Judenhaus after another.

We also learn of the behavior of non-Jewish Germans toward the Jews they see, what they say and what they do. How the “people” respond to the ever-decreasing Jewish population linguistically is a major concern of the philologist Klemperer, who plans a book on LTI (Lingua tertii imperii), or the “language of the Third Reich.” It is also the main component of Mieder’s two articles on Klemperer, alluded to above. The article for the
Festschrift for Marion Pritchard lists much of what Germans said to Klemperer and his acquaintances as they tried to show sympathy in any way possible under the circumstances. Mieder shows how some of these words of compassion “helped him, as an individual Jew, to cope with living in those dark years.” (Mieder 2004, 122).

It is, however, not only the verbal interaction that helped Klemperer cope. Many varied individuals performed kind deeds. While some clerks haughtily stated that he, Klemperer, was not entitled to something that he had been granted the previous week, other salespeople added a little or surreptitiously handed over something forbidden to Jews because of one decree or another. Actions speak louder than words, it is said, and to be given radishes when you are not allowed to have them is surely sweet, but to know that there are people who do not despise you because you are marked as a Jew, and who go out of their way to demonstrate their friendly disposition is gratifying, and at least as sweet. The unknown person who crossed the road to shake Klemperer’s hand and shrugged off the latter’s admonition that such an action was endangering their lives, was showing courage, humanity, and sympathy. The tram driver who talked openly to Klemperer as he stood on the front platform to which Jews were restricted is likewise making a difference, however small, in the hopeless situation of a man persecuted by the regime and its adherents and shunned by the indifferent.

Not least interesting in the picture of German society given us by the Jewish diarist is Klemperer’s record of the policemen of the Third Reich. Juxtaposed with the Gestapo agents bent on the destruction of all Jews, including those, like Klemperer, married to non-Jews, are the ordinary policemen who would normally be working for the general good, but who are now obliged to enforce laws not designed to protect the citizen, but to degrade if not destroy those whose German citizenship had been taken from them.

Klemperer nicknames the two Gestapo agents who are assigned to him “Boxer” and “Splitter,” names that refer to their preferred methods of intimidation. Against this bestial behavior Klemperer ranges the police, if not considerate, behavior of the ordinary policeman, who addresses the former professor with the formal “Sie” rather than the “du” that, when used to address a stranger is a mark of disrespect and contempt. A Viennese woman observed that “in the government offices [in Dresden], tax, police etc., all except the Gestapo…were courteous to Jews in a way that was almost a mark of opposition” (20 April 1939).

The ordinary policemen of Dresden differ markedly from the Gestapo not only in speech, but also in behavior. One clusters as he is expected to (5 April 1936), but is respectful and sympathetic. On 27 November 1938 (not long after Kristallnacht) two policemen and a civilian come to search the Klemperer residence for weapons. “[T]he civilian was the worst,” the “second, younger policeman…was good-natured and courteous.” They found Klemperer’s saber from World War I and both Klemperers were police…was good-natured and courteous.” They found Klemperer’s saber from World War I and both Klemperers were policemen and a civilian come to search the Klemperer residence for weapons. “I saw your star and I greet you; I condemn this outlawing of a race, as do many others.” I: ‘Very kind—but you must not talk to me, it can cost me my life and put you in prison.” The man was disdainful of the risk to himself, wanting only to convey his feelings to Klemperer.

The Klemperer diaries achieve magnificently what they set out to do: they record the significant small events in the lives of Jews (and Christians). It is true that major events such as Kristallnacht are more or less ignored. But in this regard Klemperer is right: history takes note of the big events and describes, analyzes, and debates them in detail. As those who experienced those events, great and small, rapidly die out, we must be grateful for the contemporary chronicles of that time, among whom Klemperer’s diaries must rank as one of the greatest.

List of Works Consulted:


BRUNDIBÁR

Katherine Quimby Johnson

Although today the children’s opera Brundibár is most often associated with Theresienstadt (Terezín), it was created in 1938, three years before the Nazis converted the garrison town named after the Austrian empress into a “model camp” and ghetto. Composer Hans Krása, a native of Prague, collaborated with Czech playwright Adolf Hoffmeister on this project, which tells the story of a boy and a girl (Little Joe and Annette, as they are called in the English libretto) whose have lost their father and who seek milk for their sick mother. They have no money, but they decide to follow the example of the organ-grinder, Brundibár, and sing for coins. He mocks them and chases them away. A sparrow, a cat, and a dog inspire a multitude of children to join the brother and sister. Together they sing a charming song, collecting a pile of pennies. Brundibár tries to steal their money, but the children catch him and recover the coins. The opera closes on a triumphant note, celebrating the love of parents and country.

By the time it premiered in the winter of 1942 at a Jewish orphanage for boys in Prague, Krása had already been deported to Theresienstadt. The following summer the director and the cast, as well as the other children from the orphanage, were also shipped to Theresienstadt. Even at this “model” camp inmates performed forced labor during the day. But in the evenings a rich cultural life was permitted. Under these conditions Brundibár was re-staged, this time with a mixed ensemble and an orchestra. It premiered in Theresienstadt on 23 September 1943 and ran for approximately fifty-five packed performances. The opera’s appeal to the inhabitants of Theresienstadt is obvious; it is easily understood as a story of the powerless, in the form of children and animals, overthrowing their oppressor, in the form of the bully Brundibár. To underline this message, the poet Emil Saudek altered the last lines to emphasize fearlessness as well as a love of justice and a willingness to defend it. However, life did not imitate art. All but a handful of the children were deported from Theresienstadt to Auschwitz, where they perished, as did most of those associated with the opera, including Krása.

The opera, however, lived on. A search of the World Wide Web reveals performances in 1997/98 in Aubervilliers, France; in 1999 in Kansas City; in 2002 in Oswego, New York; and in 2003 in Australia and Jerusalem. In 1996, the two-year Vermont Symphony Orchestra and Chorus, conducted by Robert de Cormier, performed Brundibár with a mixed ensemble and an orchestra. It premiered, this time with a mixed ensemble and an orchestra. It premiered in Theresienstadt on 23 September 1943 and ran for approximately fifty-five packed performances. The opera’s appeal to the inhabitants of Theresienstadt is obvious; it is easily understood as a story of the powerless, in the form of children and animals, overthrowing their oppressor, in the form of the bully Brundibár. To underline this message, the poet Emil Saudek altered the last lines to emphasize fearlessness as well as a love of justice and a willingness to defend it. However, life did not imitate art. All but a handful of the children were deported from Theresienstadt to Auschwitz, where they perished, as did most of those associated with the opera, including Krása.

Concern for the helpless is, however, almost all that these two works share. Where the Wild Things Are continues to be popular with preschoolers. We are All in the Dumps is, at best, suited for a third or fourth grade discussion of social issues. In fact, its real audience is adults. It is exactly the sort of picture book that adults find impressive and admirable because of its artistically sophisticated concept and its social message. It is not the sort of book children choose for themselves. Indeed, as his career has continued, Sendak has turned increasingly to illustrated books for adults, including Kleist’s Penthesilea (1998). His interest in stage decoration and set design is evident in illustrated versions of several familiar musical stage works, including opera (Cunning Little Vixen, 1985) and ballet (The Nutcracker, 2001).

Sendak’s illustrations for Brundibár join his social advocacy with his interest in stage works. His palette is soft and bright, reminiscent of central European folk art. His characters’ costumes and the details of the setting reinforce this idea, while the fashions worn by the townspeople and the yellow star on the doctor’s sleeve suggest the historical context. (Kushner does his own part to reinforce the central European theme by returning to the names given the children in the original, Pepicek and Aninku.) Each illustration is packed with action and visual interest, from kittens swarming the milkman to the mob chasing Brundibár. A black bird appears on most pages, transformed at the end into a triumphant red. The illustrations also include a number of details that will require adult explanation, such as the yellow armbands on some of the characters, the Wilhelmminian helmet on Brundibár’s monkey, who gives a raised-arm salute in one picture, and the significant little black moustache on Brundibár himself. The scene when the children arrive home, having accomplished their mission, is also interesting. After all the Stars of David scattered throughout the story, a crucifix is revealed on the bedroom wall, while the departing doctor says “mazel tov.” While this is open to interpretation, I take it to be a restatement of the message brought by the 300 children, “People are happy helping.” The doctor helps his patient just as a wide variety of children, some dressed in rags, others wearing the yellow armband, help Pepicek and Aninku.

Tony Kushner, playwright and “baby-boomer Sendak acolyte,” as one reviewer describes him, has written a text that shifts the focus from food—ice cream, bread and pastries, milk and butter—to commerce. This shift is most obvious when the chil-

dren reach the town square, “and everyone everyone everyone was there, buying buying, busy buying.” (Sendak’s illustration of a dog with a collar made of banknotes underlines the point.) Such a re-writing is in keeping with Steven Dedalus Burch’s description of Kushner’s approach to material, “Kushner is less concerned with remembering the events in history and more committed to a historical narrative that would connect to a contemporary American audience and force them to examine their own complicity in the general and wholesale overturning of the American progressive social agenda in place since the Depression” (Burch, 380). What irony that this indictment of capitalism is published by Hyperion, once owned by Disney, and now part of the Time Warner Book Group!

Kushner may well offer provocative insights into the ills at the heart of contemporary American society, but it is obvious that he does not understand the unique demands of the picture book audience. Picture books are meant to be shared by adults and children, with the adults reading aloud and the children looking and looking at the pictures (and, with any luck, asking questions about them). Kushner addresses only the adult half of the picture book audience. The children to whom the book is read, those who determine the true popularity of a picture book by repeated requests for re-readings, will not understand the abstract argument Kushner is making.

That Brundibar is not likely to become a favorite read-aloud is not only due to Kushner’s distortion of the original text, but also to a certain infelicity of language. The absence of a father is announced in a dismissive aside: “Oh, our daddy died when we were babies” “and we don’t remember him at all.” The vendor’s songs are in verse, but only the baker’s adheres to rhyme and meter. The milkman’s rhyme “Milk for kiddies, milk for mudders,/ milk for cats from Bessie’s udders!” works best for those with New York connections.

That the text could have matched the caliber of the illustrations is apparent in occasional passages. For example, the children have given up their quest and are huddled under some newspapers when a four-legged friend appears: “‘Right you are,’ hissed a silky voice, a talking cat! ‘Cats know how it feels to hear: No milk for you, now shoo, now scat!’” Here the language is particularly suited to the speaker. Moreover, the identification of their mutual lack of power gives rise to empathy and forges a connection between the children and the animal that is, well, powerful.

Kushner’s ending is also interesting. To musical accompaniment, illustrated by a variety of children playing (labeled) instruments, the rest of the children sing, “The wicked never win! [...] Tyrants come along, but just you wait and see! They topple one-two-three!” Turn the page and there is a note from Brundibar reminding the children—and the reader—that when one bully leaves the stage another is waiting to take his place. It is precisely this message that children understand. Far too many of them, no matter what sort of neighborhood they live in, have experienced first-hand the abusive power of bullying. The original Brundibár is about bullying, both on an individual and societal scale. Had Kushner set aside his personal political agenda and concentrated on the material at hand, this could have been a great picture book, of a caliber with Where the Wild Things Are. By dividing the villains between the character of Brundibar and the society around him, and by making explicit so much of what was implicit in the opera, Kushner and Sendak have diluted the power of the story. Although the message is delivered by children and not by adults (another prerequisite for a good picture book), the result is the very last thing one would have expected from the artist who created In the Night Kitchen and Where the Wild Things Are, a didactic picture book. While this is not a bad book, if more care had been taken to match the quality of the words to the quality of the illustrations, it could have been a great one, one that would stand the test of time as the opera itself has. By far the best way to experience this story for both adult and child would be to explore the illustrations while listening to a recording of the opera that inspired it.

Works Consulted:

Primary Sources:


Maurice Sendak.


Secondary Sources:


Summer Course

The Holocaust and Holocaust Education will be offered for the eleventh time this summer, from 21-25 June 2004. Information about the public lectures on 22 and 24 June will be mailed later this spring.
This is an important book for scholars and students of the Holocaust. Indeed, it is a book that anyone interested in the welfare of the human race should read. In this solidly documented yet highly readable study, historian Eric D. Weitz looks back at the twentieth century to make the argument that not only was it the “century of genocide,” but also that two major components of modernist thinking, the ideas of “race” and “nation,” have been fundamental to the perpetration of mass murder. To prove his points, Weitz begins with the Armenian genocide and then offers four extended case studies: the Soviet Union under Lenin and Stalin, Nazi Germany, Democratic Kampuchea, and the former Yugoslavia, specifically during the Bosnian War. Weitz is well aware that genocides have occurred for millennia and that his four main examples are, regrettably, not the only atrocities of genocidal proportion to have been perpetrated in the twentieth century. However, he wisely chooses those instances for which his own training has best prepared him to explain the contexts. Thus, Weitz, an expert on the history and development of Communism, includes the debacles in Democratic Kampuchea and Bosnia because of the former’s attempt to “correct” and the latter’s to “perpetuate” Communist regimes, and he excludes the tragedy in Rwanda because its antecedents had little to do with Nazi Germany or the Soviet Union. What Weitz gains by limiting his examples is the room to discuss each case in adequate detail. He thereby counters possible objections to comparative methodology by revealing certain common characteristics of modern genocides, while at the same time documenting what makes each genocide singular. Weitz addresses directly arguments about the uniqueness of the Holocaust, warning that if “we insist on the incomparability of the Holocaust, we place it outside of history.” He fully acknowledges that it was “an atrocity of monumental proportions and the greatest tragedy in Jewish history,” and that the “Nazis’ industrial-style killing of Jews, rooted in Germany’s highly developed bureaucratic and military culture, was and is unprecedented.” On the other hand, we must not ignore the fact that “many states, not just Nazi Germany, have organized the systematic killing of populations defined along national or racial lines” (12).

Weitz’s thesis is that all modern genocides share certain characteristics: a regime comes to power with a revolutionary agenda for creating a utopia with some kind of homogenous population (whether of class, race, ethnic or religious affiliation); to achieve this homogeneity, individuals must be categorized (made “legible” in James Scott’s term) and purged; categorization and purging require state apparatuses and the mobilization of popular support and participation; the transition from propaganda and categorization to murder is facilitated by some crisis. Weitz uses this model to analyze the specific features of each of his case studies. In the Soviet Union enemies in theory may have been “legible,” but in fact proved to be protean. While egalitarian ideology held out the promise for any individual to be re-educated, the brutal reality was that a “whole variety of experiences and activities—class background, political affiliation, ‘asocial’ tendencies, sheer bad luck—could land people in the vortex of purge operations” (97). Weitz emphasizes the specifically genocidal goals of Nazi Germany and Democratic Kampuchea. Although the Judeocide was certainly a state-directed process, Weitz points out that the implementation of Nazi policy involved thousands of people, deeply “implicating substantial segments of the population in the racial practices of the regime” to the point where the “social death and physical annihilation of Jews and others became a mass project” (133), and where individuals did not need decrees from Berlin to invent more humiliating and violent ways to inflict pain or to murder (134-35). The goal of homogeneity is the key to understanding the Khmer Rouge revolution. The first order was the destruction of all identity papers; what followed was a “classification and elimination madness” (Jean-Louis Margolin). Despite the country’s leaders’ boasting, the goals of Democratic Kampuchea were not completely new. What was unprecedented—and infinitely tragic—was the lightning speed of implementation due to the determination to succeed where previous Communist revolutions had failed (189). As for the Bosnian War, it may well be the case most vivid to readers of Weitz’s study. His categories, by this point well-illustrated, add a clarity to events that seemed inscrutable at the time to many in the West. The utopia at the heart of this genocide is nationalist. Slobodan Milošević “grasped immediately the power of nationalism,” urging the Serbs in Kosovo in 1987, for example, to “‘stay here. This is your land. These are your houses. Your meadows and gardens. Your memories’” (192). Weitz recognizes that Milošević did not invent Serb nationalism, but he argues convincingly that, “it was clearly the most extreme, most exclusive, virtually racialized version that Milošević adopted and to which so many Serbs responded with enthusiasm” (195).

The most important corrective to common views Weitz offers here—and the comparative method reinforces it—is that the genocide of Bosnian Muslims was “a state-directed operation. It was not an eruption of age-old hatreds, a kind of natural disaster that every so often swirls up from the landscape, but a policy conducted by political and military elites” (222). Propaganda that disseminated ideologies of homogeneity, together with organized state-directed violence, were needed to change traditional, local rivalries into genocidal rage.

The number of genocides perpetrated since 1945 makes it hard to swallow the argument “Never again.” For this reason, what I appreciate perhaps the most about Weitz’s study is its conclusion: race, he suggests, “has nothing to offer as the basis for building a more humane, less violent world” (253). He heralds the international tribunals that try genocidal crimes committed in Bosnia and Rwanda and quotes Václav Havel’s vision of “devolution of power from the nation-state to the levels above and below” (253). Sharing his suspicion of the state, “especially when populations invest in it so much hope and desire,” Weitz suggests that Havel’s political vision “holds the best chance for making genocides a part of our history, not our present” (254). I agree.

Irene Kacandes
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Over the past two or three decades there has been a rapid growth in the number of institutions where the Holocaust is taught. In some colleges, like UVM, this growth has gone from one course, usually emanating from the department of history or political science, to sufficient courses to enable students to fulfill the requirements for a minor. Programs in, or centers of, Holocaust studies have lately begun to change their focus slightly and include “other genocides,” such as those in Armenia or Cambodia. (It is worth noting that from its inception in 1995 the program at the University of Nevada, Reno has been “The Center for Holocaust, Genocide,- and Peace Studies.”) Teachers of such courses and such programs have only recently been offered suitable textbooks. For the want of an appropriate book, we at UVM, for example, were obliged to write and publish The Holocaust: Introductory Essays as recently as in 1996. There are now signs that there will soon be a choice of appropriate textbooks—at least at the college level.

Our textbook was a collaborative effort involving discussion with those in the area who taught the Holocaust and could themselves write a chapter or two. The Holocaust and Other Genocides, edited by Helmut Walser Smith, has a similar genesis and “is the result of the labors and support of many people” (p. xv) connected with the Tennessee Holocaust Commission, primarily teachers from universities and schools throughout the state. This collaborative effort is admirably successful.

The book has four major sections. The first, and longest section, is on the Holocaust and runs from religious prejudice, through racism, to the killing process, resistance, and rescue. The second section deals with the representation of the Holocaust in the arts. It contains chapters on literature, monuments and memorials, photographs, and film. The third major section contains chapters on other genocides, specifically those in Armenia, Bosnia and Kosovo, and Rwanda. The last section centers on ethics.

The book is intended for a curriculum at the college and high school level and is impressive as such. It provides the necessary historical background and enables teachers to offer details and facts instead of mere lip service to events similar to those of the Holocaust. The approach is avowedly “interactive.” Documents and “timelines” for each genocide are especially valuable. We may compare through the “documents,” for example, the images of genocidal war in poems by the children of Theresienstadt and in Bosnia. A fascinating document at the end of the chapter on the Armenian genocide is the letter written in July 1916 by the German ambassador in Turkey, Wolff-Metternich, to Chancellor Bethmann-Hollweg.

It contains the sentence: “In the carrying out of its program, the solution of the Armenian question through the extermination of the Armenian race, the Turkish government has refused to be daunted, either by our interventions or by the interventions of the American embassy and papal delegates, or by threats of the Entente Powers, and least of all by considerations of public opinion in the western world” (p. 167). Even though the ambassador does not use the word “final” before the word “solution,” the sense of finality is implicit. All the words used have a familiar ring for Holocaust scholars. Were one to replace the words “Armenian” and “Turkish” by “Jewish” and “German,” only one aspect of the statement would strike the careful reader as inconsistent: the speaking out of the “papal delegates.” Pope Pius XII did not speak out and unequivocally condemn the killings of the Jews. On the other hand, the Armenian victims were Christians; in 1916 the papacy, accordingly, did not remain silent.

Equally striking are certain formulations in the “Hutu Ten Commandments” from the year 1990. The first commandment procribes the marriage and concubinage of Hutu and Tutsi. The Tutsi are, according to the fourth commandment, “dishonest in business,” and are typically money lenders (p. 210). The “timelines” provided are illuminating. We are, most of us, aware of the markings worn by Jews in the Third Reich and the similar patches worn by Jews in the Middle Ages. Reading of precedents like this one does not shock us or surprise us. But to read of the rights granted to Jews in the nineteenth century and then learn that similar rights were accorded to the Armenian Christians during the same period is more striking. In Belgian-administered Rwanda, one’s ethnic identity was marked on identification cards from the year 1933!

The parallels in linguistic abuse, in the euphemistic statements used for evil actions, became clear to us all during the Bosnian massacres described, then as now, as “ethnic cleansing.” A document in the chapter on Rwanda lists some of the Nazi euphemisms (such as “Final Solution,” and “special actions”) together with some of the Hutu equivalents: “Final Solution” (!) “Do your work” (i.e. murder), and “public safety committees” (i.e. killing squads).

Some teachers may find the questions and suggested discussion topics given at the end of each chapter useful in the classroom. Others may prefer to rely on their own approaches and experience, but will still benefit from the suggestions proffered. Certainly the final section, on the ethical and religious dilemmas stemming from the prevalence of genocide in today’s world, is a useful addition to the factual accounts preceding it. The sub-headings are informative. For example: “What is a Choiceless Choice and the Extent of Moral Blame?” The suggested discussion centers on Styron’s Sophie’s Choice, but there are links provided to other pages in the book, such as “Chaim Rumkowski’s Address on the Deportation of the Children from the Lodz Ghetto.”

In sum, The Holocaust and Other Genocides is an excellent resource for teachers but also for anyone who wishes to obtain more understanding of the Holocaust and other genocides. It is an effective mix of history, contemporary documents, and curricular aids. The “Glossaries,” “Timelines,” lists of “Further Reading,” and the index make this book a comprehensive and useful addition to any Holocaust library and not just an excellent textbook.

David Scrase
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In presenting Stephan Lewy’s biography, Lillian Belinfante Herzberg not only recounts his survival of the Holocaust, but also illuminates his life’s struggle to understand his father, the Germany he had to leave in order to save his life, and his own memories and nightmares. Herzberg alternates between the third person and the first person voices, exposing the reader to the visceral impact of events on the young Stephan.

His life story serves as a further testament to the inhumanity that swept across Europe in the 1930s and 1940s. Lewy’s perspective is the more valuable because it stretches from his childhood memories to his efforts to cope with these memories as an adult. Throughout the volume he attributes his remarkable resilience and fortitude to his father’s influence, offering them as the reason for his survival. While luck was clearly on his side more than once, his survival of the Holocaust is truly remarkable.

The opening chapters of the book are ambiguous, particularly in their portrayal of Lewy’s father, Arthur, who was orphaned and grew up in the care of the Auerbach Orphanage near Berlin. He served in World War I and met his future wife after the war. and grew up in the care of the Auerbach Orphanage near Berlin. He served in World War I and met his future wife after the war. Their courtship is described in tender and, at times, somewhat saccharine, terms. Here, especially, Arthur is depicted as a soft, gentle man with “his quiet way.”

This contrasts sharply with the introductory first-person narration, which describes his father’s heavy use of corporal punishment, treatment repeatedly defended as preparation for Stephan’s struggle for survival.

On the other hand, the relationship between Stephan and his mother, described in the first-person, is depicted as unequivocally gentle and loving. Her death in 1931, when Stephan was barely six years old, marked a time of great change for him. The National Socialists were gaining power, even as the elder Lewy lost most of his savings and property and decided to send Stephan to the institution that raised him, namely the Auerbach Orphanage.

In the orphanage Stephan learned to be “unfeeling, unmerciful, unrelenting.” The move to the orphanage clearly caused a loss of identity and awoke a sense of abandonment as he became one orphan among many. While the third-person narrator implies that his training in swallowing his pride along with his tears and in facing obstacles with an iron will was a source of strength, the first-person narrator consistently contradicts this stark view. Despite the imperterable façade presented by both narrators, it is clear that Lewy suffered from deprivation and rejection. He also experienced anti-Semitic taunting on his daily way to school.

In 1933-34 Arthur Lewy was interned in Oranienburg. When restrictions on Jews eased during the 1936 Olympics, Arthur met and fell in love with Johanna, the aunt of one of Stephan’s fellow orphans. They married in 1938 and Johanna became Stephan’s second “Mutti,” and a powerful influence on his life. The mellowing of Arthur’s treatment of his son is attributed to Johanna’s positive influence.

In 1939 Arthur and Johanna decided to send Stephan on one of the Kindertransporte (children’s transports) into presumed safety in France, even as they worked to emigrate to America, planning for Stephan to join them after they had settled.

Stephan lost contact with his father as soon as he entered France. On the run, hiding from the Gestapo, he had more than one close encounter but he always, somehow, managed to escape. He found only temporary refuge in homes set up by benevolent organizations. Most often hungry, cold, and surrounded by disease, he brought to bear all those qualities that he had supposedly acquired from his father’s and the orphanage’s rough treatment. A more likely explanation, however, is that being thrown into an incomprehensible situation aroused his survival instinct. In the midst of his struggles, he never gave up hope of being reunited with his parents, who, in the mean time, had managed to reach Boston.

When he did re-establish contact, Johanna immediately initiated the emigration process for him. After all too typical delays, Stephan arrived in New York in June 1942. The following chapters describe his discovery of the new comforts available to him in America, even as he struggled to find work and to learn English. Above all, the seventeen-year-old was overcome by a feeling of freedom, especially freedom from fear.

In 1943 Stephan was drafted, received his U.S. citizenship, and went to Europe to fight Nazi Germany as a member of Patton’s Third Army. Their experience on the battlefield did not prepare the men for what they discovered when they liberated Buchenwald in April 1945. Lewy recalls the American soldiers’ shock and rage. Lewy lost his faith in mankind and especially Germans. He accused the residents of the town, who claimed ignorance of the camp, of a “blind obedience to authority” that allowed them to ignore the brutality unleashed upon the Jewish population.

Lewy’s father died of a stroke during this time. In discussing his father’s death, Lewy reminds the reader that he owes his toughness and survivor instinct to his father’s strict upbringing. Once more he is apparently unable to give himself credit for the man he had become.

Lewy received the Bronze Star for outstanding service to his division. Following his honorable discharge, Lewy used the G.I. Bill to finance a degree in business administration, which he received in 1953. He married and started a family.

Despite his success in business, finding closure to the defining experiences of his life has never come easy to Stephan Lewy, (who contributed his story to The Holocaust: Personal Accounts, published by the Center for Holocaust Studies in 2001). Trips to France and Germany do not seem to have healed his wounds, despite the support of his stepmother and his wife. His volunteer work with students, sharing the story of his traumatic encounters with them, seems to have brought him some sense of the value of his early experiences.

Lewy’s story is important not only as a survivor account, but also as a description of how a new life could be created out of the ruins. Having lost so much and having struggled so fiercely to build a life worth living is itself a testament to his greatness as a human, a greatness that stems from within.

This short book is a diamond in the rough. It is of particular interest for Holocaust studies because it illuminates the situation of children who were left behind or sent away by their parents. Lewy’s ambivalence toward his father could be profitably compared to Ruth Klüger’s tangled relationship with her mother. This readable volume would, however, have profited from careful editing. Too many spelling errors remain, especially in the case of German words, and there is no such thing as a “sojourn into freedom” as the subtitle asserts.

Gabriele Wurmitzer
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The Center for Holocaust Studies at The University of Vermont was established in 1993 to honor the scholarly and pedagogical legacy of Raul Hilberg, Professor emeritus of Political Science at The University of Vermont. His monumental work, The Destruction of the European Jews, changed the way historians and students around the world view the Holocaust. Since Dr. Hilberg began his research at the University of Vermont in the late 1950s, what was a reluctance to confront the facts of the Holocaust has given way to a hunger for the truth.