

THE **POLISH REVIEW**

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“Between Mexico and San Francisco”*

Motion Made by the Republic of Cuba at Pan-American Conference

During the Pan-American Conference, the Polish question was discussed only once but in an unexpected and rather firm way, which aroused numerous but purposely silenced commentaries.

The delegation of Cuba made a motion in connection with the Polish question to a preparatory committee saying, that:

“The whole world has not yet recovered from the shock received by the resolutions taken at Yalta in connection with the Polish question.

“It is an established fact, that the present war started because Poland, defending her sovereignty and national honor, refused to cede part of her territory to Germany. Moreover, it is beyond any discussion, that in order to support Poland and in fulfilling its international obligations, the British Empire declared war on Germany.

“In the course of the present war—a war without precedence in mankind’s history—it has been repeated, over and over again, that never again shall be perpetrated the crime of any power, however strong this power should be, occupying unjustly and contrary to law, territory of another state without taking into consideration the will of its population.

“This principle has been confirmed in the Atlantic Charter, which repeats the principle of free decision on the part of the nations, as well as the principle of respecting the sovereignty and territorial integrity of the states.

“At Yalta, partition of the Polish territory was decided upon without taking, at all, into consideration either the Polish Government’s wishes, or those of the inhabitants of the territories to be ceded to Russia.

“At Yalta, one went even as far as to create a Polish Government without consulting the will of the Polish people, and without taking into account the legal Polish Government in London, which is recognized by all the Governments throughout the American continent.

“At Yalta, Poland was treated, not like our Ally in this war against totalitarianism, but as one of the Axis satellites, one of the satellites which lent its services to Hitler’s or Mussolini’s cause—just because they lacked the courage of the Poles to oppose those who trampled their sovereignty and threatened their territorial integrity.

“The American states with a small population and not too large territory cannot look on the Polish questions with indifference. If that, which had been decided, should ever be carried out, we would be in permanent danger that we, ourselves, could become the victims of a partition completely contradictory to the will of the population. So we do not feel assured by solemn declarations as to the contrary, because there could not be said in the future more than has been written in the course of the last four years about Poland—and in spite of that, Poland’s partition was decided at Yalta.

“The delegation of the Cuban Republic has the privilege to propose to the Pan-American Conference, for the solution of war and peace problems, the following declaration:

1: The United Nations are of the opinion that Poland’s traditional frontiers be respected by leaving her, at least, as she was when subjected to German aggression.

2: The United Nations will not agree, regardless of the motives and reasons, to changes in the sovereignty of the territories without having considered the population’s and the Government’s will.

3: The policy of seizing territories, if even only by means of treaties, cannot be accepted by international law and no American state will agree to such a procedure of territorial expansion.”

This motion, not being part of the questions, was not accepted in the order of the debate, but was widely commented upon by the Mexican press, that praised Cuba for her daring stand.

* Excerpts from an editorial in *Dziennik Polski*, London, March 23, 1945.

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Captured by the Poles

Front Cover: Artillery unit of Polish Second Corps on the Italian front.

The Price of Poland's Contribution to the Allied War Effort

FIRST to fight, Poland as a nation has, on the basis of population figures, suffered more terrible losses than any other of the United Nations.

More than 28% of the population of Poland, some 10,000,000 persons in a country whose pre-war census showed 35,000,000, have been killed, deported, or have fallen on the field of battle.

Military losses total 1,045,000 casualties. During the September, 1939 campaign in Poland, the Polish Armed Forces suffered 831,000 casualties, including 220,000 killed and wounded, 420,000 prisoners taken to camps in the Reich, 181,000 prisoners taken by the Russians and the remainder interned in several countries at that time neutral.

Since then, in the Norwegian and French campaigns of 1940, the Libyan campaign of 1941-42, the Italian campaign of 1944, and on the Western Front, up to December 31, 1944, the Polish Army has lost more than 32,000 men killed, wounded or missing.

The air force and navy lost more than 2,400 killed, wounded or missing, including casualties sustained during the Battle of Britain.

Of the 460,000 Polish soldiers held as prisoners of war in the Reich, 400,000 are being used for forced labor, while the remaining 60,000, including 17,000 officers, are in prisoner of war camps.

Casualties of the Polish Home Army, that has been recognized by the United States and Great Britain as an integral part of the Polish Armed Forces with full belligerent status, total more than 180,000 killed, wounded or missing. These figures include losses suffered by the Home Army during the 63-day Battle of Warsaw in 1944. In that insurrection alone more than 250,000 troops and civilians were casualties.

Of the 9,000,000 civilian casualties suffered by Poland, 5,000,000, 14% of the population, were killed, starved or perished in concentration camps. Approximately 3,000,000 of this number were Jews exterminated in the notorious German lethal and torture chambers, death camps, etc. The German practice of taking first five, later 100 Polish hostages for every German victim of the Polish Underground accounts in part for these high figures. The 2,000,000 Poles—men, women and children—met death in mass round-ups or were executed as hostages in concentration camps or prisons, or merely starved to death. Many too paid with their lives for participating in the Underground or by resisting the Germans in some way or another.

Still others were killed in punitive expeditions staged by the enemy in the guise of retaliatory measures. Such expeditions were carried out against 800 Polish villages of which 300 had been totally destroyed and all of their occupants murdered.



Drawing by S. Horowicz

The words "un aviateur polonais"—a Polish flyer—appear on many graves all over the world.

More than 3,000,000 Poles have been deported to Germany since Poland was occupied in 1939, including able-bodied men, women and children taken for slave labor or men forcibly drafted into the Wehrmacht.

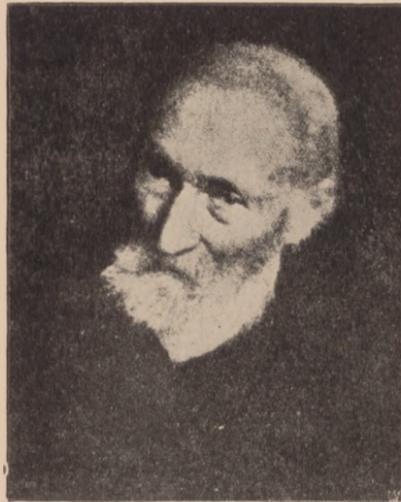
Poles deported to Russia total about 1,230,000, of whom some 150,000 men women and children have been evacuated after the Polish-Russian Pact of July, 1941. About 150,000 men were drafted into the Red Army. Some 270,000 perished in the Soviet Union, while another 662,000 Poles taken to Russia are still unaccounted for.

Polish economic losses have been equally tragic. In order to make room for German colonists and to incorporate various territories into the Reich, the Germans had deported some 1,500,000 Poles from the Western Provinces into the former Government-General, while an additional 200,000 Poles were deported from the vicinities of Lublin and Zamosc.

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EXPLORATION OF SIBERIA BY POLISH POLITICAL EXILES

by GEORGE RAYMOND



Benedykt Dybowski opened up Lake Baikal to science.

DURING the nineteenth century, when Poland lay partitioned among three rapacious neighbors, her people refused to admit that they had been subjugated. Once every generation the martyred country summoned the flower of its manhood to armed combat with the enemy, while year in and year out prisons overflowed with political prisoners and thousands of Poles were banished to the boundless reaches of arctic Siberia or to hard

labor in Russian salt mines. Among these exiles were many Polish scientists who rather than surrender to despair, decided to make the best of their misfortune and often in the face of insuperable obstacles embarked on the exploration of Siberia. Ironically enough, it was to these men she had deprived of freedom that Russia owed numerous outstanding works on the flora, fauna and inhabitants of what was then in many respects an unexplored land.

The dean of Polish naturalists and explorers in Siberia was Benedykt Dybowski. Born in the Nowogrodek district of Poland in 1833, he studied medicine and sciences at the University of Tartu, and later at Breslau and Berlin, where he received his doctorate in medicine. In 1862 he was ready to join the Department of Zoology at Warsaw University. But the Poles were preparing the anti-Russian insurrection of 1863. Dybowski joined the organizers. With several other Poles, he was arrested and sentenced to death, but through the intervention of his former professors, his sentence was commuted to exile in Eastern Siberia.

Earning his living by felling trees, Dybowski devoted his spare time to research in natural history. Living in the Buriat country at the mineral springs of Darasun near the Tursa River, Dybowski and two fellow exiles, Wiktor Godlewski and Ksiezopolski studied the fauna of the region. His research proved that contrary to popular belief, the fauna of Eastern Siberia differed from that of European Russia.

At Darasun Dybowski's activity as a physician brought him close to the Buriats. Having won the confidence of these simple Mongolian shepherds, he visited their homes, wrote down their legends, studied their customs and dress and took anthropological measurements of them.

After many efforts, Dybowski was able to secure permission for himself, Godlewski and Ksiezopolski to settle at Kultuk

on the southern shore of Lake Baikal in Eastern Siberia late in 1868. Refusing to subscribe to the theory of European scientists that the lake was poor in invertebrate fauna and that its depths were devoid of life, Dybowski was determined to disprove the theory.

Without funds and with no instruments except a microscope which he brought from Warsaw, Dybowski had to exercise his ingenuity in carrying out his ambitious program. Ksiezopolski did the housekeeping, while Dybowski and Godlewski prepared their instruments and conducted the research. Unable to procure rope, they had to twist their own. In their first year they used up 325,000 feet of rope. Some of their lines were 9,750 feet long. They also made their own plummets to ascertain the lake's depth, miniature dredges to bring up mud, nets to catch lake fauna and traps to ensnare shell fish.

They did not even have a horse and had to pull their instruments along the lake's icy surface to spots where they cut the ice many feet in depth. "We spent several weeks on the lake's surface, without a tent, making our beds on snow and ice," wrote Dybowski. "We returned to Kultuk with swollen faces, cracked lips and red-eyed, but the task we had set out for ourselves, had been accomplished." Working in these conditions, Dybowski and Godlewski measured the depth of Lake Baikal from one end to the other and found it to be deepest at 4,875 feet.

Dybowski collected countless zoological specimens, scores of samples of bottom mud and water for chemical analysis and measured the lake's temperature at various depths. Upon his return to Kultuk he spent sleepless nights preserving,

studying and classifying his materials.

Dybowski's research on Lake Baikal continued for six years. His results were far-reaching. The lake's fauna proved not only unusually rich but exceptionally interesting, including animal forms of the most varied origins. In addition to the protozoa commonly found all over Siberia, the lake revealed fresh water crustaceans and such forms of salt water life as sponges, anthipods and the Baikal seal. Prior to Dybowski's study, six kinds of anthipods were known to scientists; Dybowski added 110 new types of anthipods, described ten new species and sub-species of fish and discovered the life habits of some of them. He gave his unusually rich collections of molluscs to his brother, Dr. Wladyslaw Dybowski, an outstanding zoologist, who described 88 new species. Other Polish scientists worked up other parts of his collection.

Dybowski's work was not received with enthusiasm by the St. Petersburg Academy, but the sheer weight of evidence presented forced criticism to abate. The Russian Geographical Society bestowed upon Dybowski and Godlewski the highest award—the gold medal. The czar offered to add Baikal to his name, which was regarded as the greatest Russian distinction. Dybowski refused, declaring his own name was quite sufficient.

Since Dybowski's day, Russian scientific institutions lavishly equipped many expeditions to study Lake Baikal. New marine animals were discovered, but Dybowski will forever remain the discoverer of Baikal's fauna and the true conqueror of the lake itself for science.

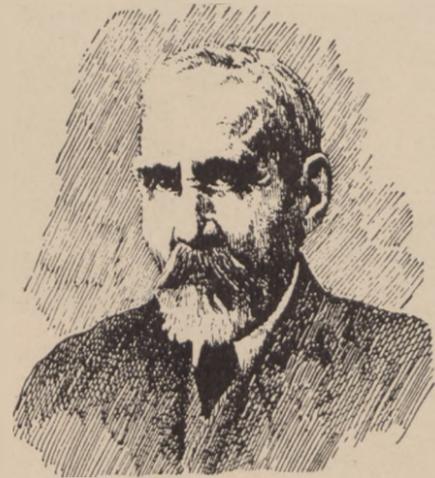
In 1868 Dybowski interrupted his Baikal studies for several months to join General Skolkov's expedition exploring a tributary of the Amur, the Assuri and the maritime region on the Sea of Okhotsk. Dybowski discovered fresh water shrimp in Lake Chanka and collected many curious fish and birds.

Several years later Dybowski revisited the site of the Skolkov expedition on Strielov Bay near Vladivostok at his own cost. Having built a rowboat with Godlewski and another fellow-exile Jankowski, they rowed their way thither by water routes, collected specimens, hunted tigers, captured a new species of stag and sent hundreds of skins of birds and mammals to Warsaw, to Taczanowski.

In 1876 the scientific societies in Russia and abroad prevailed upon the Russian Government to permit Dybowski's return to Poland. In his 12 years of exile, he published some 20 scientific works; using Dybowski's materials, Taczanowski published a work on the birds of Eastern Siberia, describing 434 species of birds, among these 80 new types.

Dybowski returned to Siberia of his own free will to continue his research. From 1879 to 1883, he was a physician on the subarctic peninsula of Kamchatka and in that time made five trips around the peninsula (5,000 square miles) on horseback or on dog-drawn sleds; on each trip he collected birds, spiders, molluscs and sponges and conducted detailed anthropological research on Kamchatka's natives.

He also tended the Aleutians settled on the Komandor and Bering Islands. In an effort to save these tribes from starvation, he prevailed on the authorities to permit the transfer of 15 reindeer to Bering Island and brought them there himself. To the Komandor Islands he took rabbits and goats to teach the natives to raise domesticated animals. He found-



Edward Piekarski wrote a four-volume dictionary of the Yakut tribe's language.

ed a clinic for lepers, suppressed epidemics of typhus and small pox, tried to improve sanitary conditions in cities and settlements. His name became legend. When in 1903 Professor Morozewicz visited the Komandor Islands, he reported that the reindeer herd brought by Dybowski had become several thousand strong.

In 1883 Dybowski accepted the chair of zoology at the University of Lwow. Revered and loved by his students, he crusaded for Darwinian evolution. In these years he wrote up his Siberian materials, published a number of scholarly dissertations on anthropology, and on comparative and systematic anatomy, printed numerous biographies of Siberian exiles and his own memoirs. Throughout his lifetime he published 175 scientific articles on a variety of subjects. Retiring in 1906, he continued to be active until his death in free Poland

in 1930 at the age of 97.

Aleksander Czekanowski, a fellow-exile and colleague of Dybowski, was born in Volhynia in 1832. While still a student at the Universities of Kiev and Tartu, he became interested in natural sciences, especially geology. Participating in the Polish uprising of 1863 against Russia, Czekanowski was arrested and exiled to Siberia. He had to walk a distance of 1,500 miles from Kiev in the Ukraine to Tobolsk in Western Siberia. On the way he and his friend, Mikolaj Hartung, also a naturalist, got together a large collection of insects and studied the various species of ants in their collection.

In 1866 Czekanowski was transferred from the trans-Baikal area to Padun on the Angara River where he was forced to work in the fields to earn a living. However, his spirit remained unbroken and even there he found the time and energy to stick to his research. He made a number of interesting geological observations and assembled rich collections.

Through the intervention of friends, Czekanowski was permitted to move to Irkutsk and work in the Siberian section of the Russian Geographical Society. From 1869 to 1871 he explored the shore of Lake Baikal, from Irkutsk to Kultuk, and the course of the Angara River between Irkutsk and Lake Baikal. Bulletins on his research appeared already in 1870. Several years later, he published a volume on "Geological Research in the Government of Irkutsk, with a Geological Map." His stratigraphic and paleontological research shed a new light on the entire structure of the Baikal area and placed the coal layers of the

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Russian map showing mountain range in Eastern Siberia named after the Polish explorer Jan Czerski.



Journal of the Expedition of Aleksander Czekanowski along the Rivers Tunguska, Olenek and Lena in the Years 1873-75. St. Petersburg, 1886.



Top row: Battle posters: "Every shell—one dead German," "To Arms in the ranks of the Home Army," "In fight—revenge for the blood of thousands of Poles." Below: Posters for civilians: "Hygiene and cleanliness fight epidemics," "Batting fires you defend Warsaw—Fire-fighting is military action."



THESE POSTERS WERE WEAPONS IN THE 63-DAY BATTLE OF WARSAW

FOR nearly five years of German occupation before the great Warsaw Uprising in the summer and fall of 1944, Poland has fought the invader by every possible means. The Polish Underground consisted not only of the Home Army, but also of civilians who fought in the way for which they were best trained.

Among these latter were artists who not only during the five previous years of occupation, but also in the blood and fire of the Warsaw Battle used their talents to combat the mortal enemies of Poland.

Using posters these Polish artists turned to propaganda work with the famous humor of the Poles. At the outbreak of the Warsaw Insurrection, they conceived posters warning or instructing the civilians on various vital subjects.

Reading the posters

illustrated here counter-clockwise, the first shows avenging Polish bayonets tearing at a German swastika; the second calls for Home Army volunteers; "Every shell—one dead German," orders the third, warning Polish soldiers to conserve precious ammunition; "Hygiene and cleanliness are the best ways to combat epidemics," instructs the fourth; while the fifth calls upon every citizen to help fight the raging fires that engulfed the entire capital during the later stages of the battle.

In the center is a rare postage stamp circulated in Polish-held districts of Warsaw during the insurrection. Issued August 1, 1944, it depicts Home Army soldiers throwing grenades on the barricades of Warsaw, while above are the letters A.K. (Home Army) and the legend, "military mail."



Polish postage stamp issued by the Warsaw Insurrectionists, August 1, 1944.

POLISH MAQUIS

by HALINA TOMASZEWSKA

"I WAS a Maquis," one of them told me. Another began, "When I was a Maquis . . ." There were among them old and young men, often ragged, sometimes dressed in some strange uniform. Everyone wore something red and white, sometimes a small flag pinned to his uniform, an arm-band, or a pocket clumsily embroidered with a flag and an eagle. They wore the same insignia on their overseas caps, berets, forage caps, even the officers wore eagles cut out of tin cans.

These were the Polish Maquis whom one could meet by the thousand in Southern France. While in the north the Poles had formed their own Underground, those in the South had joined the French Maquis.

For the four years of German occupation, the forest-covered mountains of the Massif Central and the Alps sheltered these fighters for freedom. Men in the Underground forces represented many nationalities, various professions and political outlooks. There were the radical "Franc Tireurs et Partisans Français," the conservative "Armée Secrète" formed by officers of the regular French Army, the international "Mouvement Ouvrier International," as well as many independent loosely formed groups and brigades. The Maquis, at first supplied with arms dropped from Allied planes, captured the rest that they needed from Germans. Sporadic raids became incessant, almost daily attacks on German communications, convoys and even on the smaller mountain garrisons. Hidden in mountains impassible to tanks or armored cars, the underground grew in strength until in the battle for the Vercors plateau, the Germans besides burning a number of villages and murdering hundreds of civilians who supported our cause, were forced to resort to aerial bombings and landing paratroops in an attempt to put down the uprising.

During those famous battles for Vercors, several professors and students of the Polish secondary school in Villard-de-Lans in the Department of Isere fell. Poles fought in the Massif Central, in the Alps and on the Riviera. They belonged to various armed organizations, for a man escaping from Nazi terror is not particular how he fights them, just so that he can get back at his former oppressors. Today one can meet thousands of such Poles scattered throughout Southern France.

Antoni Z. from Lwow fought and defended his native city in 1939. Then he reached France in time to fight in the spring campaign. After three years of German slavery, he escaped. Hearing of Allied landings in the south, he reached France along with four British and four American aviators.

"By the time we got to France," Antek related, "a good part of the population already belonged to the Underground. The better and larger organizations had their own requisitioned food supplies and even quarters in villages, while the poorer ones had to stay in the forests and mountains. There were also in those forests, various groups of bandits who had always fought for their own ends. They remained independent, naming their own officers, and maintaining their own 'courts martial.' We kept away from them, for they would suffer no interference.

"We moved from band to band until we chanced on the F.T.P. led by a Russian colonel known as 'Michel.' On August 16 to 17 when the Allies were already approaching our positions, word passed along our mountain that we were to attack Thonon-les-Bains. I don't know who planned the attack, but all groups took part in it—old men as well as boys scarcely able to hold up their rifles."

"How many were there?"

"God knows. Three, perhaps five thousand, every other one unarmed, but making enough noise so that the enemy

ÉTAT FRANÇAIS		N° 3774	
CARTE D'IDENTITÉ			
Nom	DUCHENE		
Prénoms	Jean		
Domicile	2 Place des Terreaux		
Profession	employé de banque		
Ne le	12-XII-1881		
à	Bressure	Dép. 2 Seines	
filz de	Duchene Alfred		
et de	Vidal Marie		
Nationalité	Franç.		
	Signature du titulaire. <i>Duchene</i>		

SIGNALEMENT		Changements de Domicile	
Taille	1.60		Timbre humide
Visage	roux		
Teint	cl.		
Cheveux	bl.		
Moustaches	bl.		
Front	h.		Timbre humide
Yeux	gr. v.		
Nez	m.		
Bouche	m.		
Menton	m.		
Signes particuliers	m.		
		Visa de l'autorité ayant établi la carte. 1948	

Fake *carte d'identité* (identification card) issued to Mr. Aleksander Kawalkowski (known as "Justyn"), leader of Polish Underground Forces in France. Mr. Kawalkowski is now Polish chargé d'affaires in Paris.

thought General Eisenhower himself with his army was upon them. Half way to Thonon we opened fire and began throwing grenades.

"The German garrison in Thonon consisted of 600 men led by a colonel. However, the odds were not so much in our favor, for many of our Maquis who carried weapons did not know how to shoot. The town fell after an hour of hard fighting.

"The Maquis took the town, sent the prisoners up into the mountain strongholds and went on to Evian-les-Bains. There we captured a large Gestapo quarters and an entire German hospital. Toward evening when we were already looking about for suitable quarters, a rumor spread that a whole German convoy was heading toward Evian to retake the town. Ten minutes later not a single Maquis was left there. We gathered and reformed late at night in the mountains."

I met one such boy at a Polish Army recruiting station in Marseille. Edek, son of a Polish miner in the Department of Ardeche, looked ten years old, but claimed to be 18, showing an identification card with a badly forged date of birth.

Regardless of his true age, Edek was an experienced Maquis, having spent the last 12 months in the mountains. In an amusing half-Polish, half-French speech, he told me his story.

Just a year ago he was still going to mining school in Ardeche. At home he heard his two older brothers planning an escape to the mountains. At night other youths would

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POLISH MINIATURE PAINTERS IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE 16th CENTURY*

by ANNA MARIA MARS



The Annunciation by Stanislas Mogila. 1527. From the Book of Hours of Queen Bona Sforza. (Bodleian Library, Oxford).

POLISH miniature painting during the first half of the sixteenth century directly results from the penetration of the Renaissance into Northern Europe and illustrates its later modifications. It is outstanding in Polish art of the sixteenth century, though, as yet, it has not been sufficiently explored from the angle of artistic individuality.

Like the Italian, the Polish Renaissance owed much to contemporary art patronage. King Sigismund I and his Queen Bona Sforza, set the fashion in this new movement,

and their example was naturally imitated by members of their Court. For the Polish aristocracy already in constant and sympathetic touch with the intellectual and artistic trends of Western Europe, was eager to encourage and protect artists and scholars who demonstrated the new ideals and the new ideas. Frequent journeys abroad, as well as correspondence which was so generally and agreeably practised in the days of the humanists, contact with the most learned minds of the epoch, and studies in foreign Universities—first Italian, and later German and French—provided the interplay of influence and experience necessary for the development of new artistic forms and tendencies.

Cracow was the center of artistic enterprise in Poland during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and possessed a definite character and tradition of its own. In the period of Gothic art an individual school of architecture had sprung up there, and in the course of the next hundred years, the influence of Cracow painters spread far beyond the frontiers of Poland. Every branch and manifestation of medieval creative art seems to have met here and exchanged influences, so that a distinct and characteristic form evolved. Wit Stwos and his works, for instance, strongly affected not only wood-sculpture, but other branches of plastic art as well, while engraving considerably affected all Polish painting of that period. The word "plagiarism" had no importance in the Middle Ages and artists freely used one another's inventions.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, however, with the first flowering of the Renaissance came the search for new forms and achievements. Engraving became a sort of messenger and interpreter. By means of it, knowledge of

the works of renowned European masters became available, and Polish artists were thereby able to enrich their own creative possibilities by applying and modifying certain borrowed motifs, without copying them exactly—a method which became popular throughout the Continent, and particularly in the central European countries at this time. It is possible to cite many examples of this, and there is proof that the method was also used in Cracow.

Two miniature painters of this epoch belonging to the School of Cracow are worth studying. The elder of the two, who still belonged to the Gothic School, and whose identity has not yet been firmly established, I shall refer to as the "Master of the Behem Codex." The younger, Stanislas Mogila, was a renowned painter and above all, an excellent miniaturist.

"The Master of the Behem Codex" was a typical artist of that transitional period, but unfortunately, only a few of his works have been preserved. He probably sprang from the setting of the Cracow Guilds, and was trained in the workshop of the miniaturists of the Cathedral. He also became acquainted with foreign art and devoted



The Virgin and Child by Stanislas Mogila. 1529. From the Book of Hours of King Sigismund I. (British Museum, London).

his studies to Flemish and Italian illuminated manuscripts, of which there were a number in Cracow. In his earlier work he still kept to the form of the Gothic School, but his treatment of the subject



The Founding of a Church by the Master of the Behem Codex 1500-1506. From the *Liber Pontificalis* of Erasmus Ciolek. (Czartoryski Library, Cracow).



Workshop of Tailors by the Master of the Behem Codex. After 1505. From the Behem Codex. (University Library, Cracow).

are drawn with a masterly knowledge of perspective and architectural fore-shortening.

The Behem Codex, whose famous name is attached to the unknown artist who created it, was his greatest achievement and is now in the Library of Cracow University. About 1505, Balthasar Behem, municipal clerk in Cracow, ordered twenty-five miniatures from one of the painters' workshops. He intended to embellish the new book of rights and privileges of the town with these miniatures, but his death in 1511 prevented him from carrying out this plan. The miniatures were finished but the privileges of twelve guilds only were entered in the book.

Stanislas Mogila belonged to the new world from the first. His creative activity



The Adoration of the Magi by Stanislas Mogila. 1527. From the Book of Hours of Queen Bona Sforza. (Bodleian Library, Oxford).



The Purification of the Virgin by Stanislas Mogila. 1527. From the Book of Hours of Queen Bona Sforza. (Bodleian Library, Oxford).

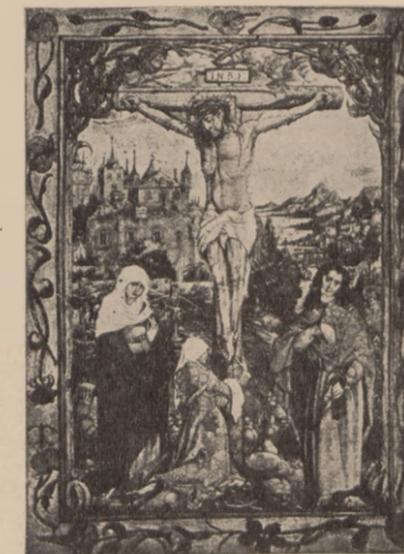
was already that of the Renaissance. His next work, the style of which already shows a similarity to the Behem Codex, is the *Liber Pontificalis* of Erasmus Ciolek, now in the Czartoryski Library in Cracow. This manuscript was probably executed between the years 1500-1506, and illuminated at the order of Erasmus Ciolek, the well-known humanist and statesman, who later became a bishop. The work shows a high degree of competence, and the interiors

ing. But it seems probable that he was born soon after 1480 and died about 1540. He was trained in the workshop of the "Master of the Behem Codex." Almost certainly he went abroad, where he came into contact with the new artistic ideas. On his return to Poland, he entered the Cistercian Monastery in Mogila, near Cracow, where the abbot, Erasmus, who was a savant and patron of the arts, was in touch with foreign humanists, notably with Erasmus of Rotterdam. In the monastery Mogila found the atmosphere he needed for the development of his individuality. His fame must have been considerable, for the statesman Bishop Tomicki commissioned work from him and wrote:—"Brother Stanislas of Mogila paints better and more beautifully than any other artist I know."



St. Jerome by Stanislas Mogila. 1528. From the Book of Hours of Adalbert Gaszold. (National Museum, Munich).

A comparison with the style of his other known works suggests that the miniature of the *Crucifixion* in the *Liber Pontificalis* of Erasmus Ciolek is probably his first work. In spite of the elaborate landscape which fills the whole background, in this scene the problems of space are not the main interest of the painter. The figures and the cross are assembled in such a way that while keeping the laws of perspective they serve first of all the purpose of decoration. The border is also quite different from others in the *Liber Pontificalis*, and is of typical Flemish character. The group composed of the Virgin and St. Mary Magdalene kneeling by the Cross is clearly derived from the scene of *The Dedication* in the series *The Life of the Virgin* by Albrecht Dürer. The same group is repeated again by the Polish painter in Queen Bona Sforza's Book of Hours. *The Crucifixion* marks a point from which it is possible to study the beginnings of Mogila's artistic career, his early connection with the "Master of the Behem Codex" and the link between the earlier and later periods of his development.



The Crucifixion by Stanislas Mogila. 1500-1506. From the *Liber Pontificalis* of Erasmus Ciolek. (Czartoryski Library, Cracow).

is very little known, and it is for this reason that I will deal with him in greater detail than with the "Master of the Behem Codex," whose work has already met with appreciation in European art-history.

Exact details of Mogila's life are lack-

of the Behem Codex" and the link between the earlier and later periods of his development. As his fame grew with the years, Mogila had to enlarge his workshop and take more pupils. This becomes apparent when we observe his later pictures, in which the work of other hands can clearly be seen. However, Mogila, considering himself to be the Master of his workshop, put his signature even under the immature illuminations of his assistants.

About the *Book of Hours of Queen Bona Sforza*, we only know that by the nineteenth century it was in the possession

(Please turn to page 14)

* Condensed from *The Burlington Magazine*, London, Vol. LXXXVI, No. 502, January, 1945.

AN OPERATION WITH POLISH MUSTANGS

by F/Lt. S. M. GREEN

“ATTENTION! Attention! Briefing for all pilots, 14.00 hours.” The airfield tannoy rings out across the camp of the Polish Mustang Wing. The pilots pause for a moment over their lunch, then continue eating and discussing the latest rumors. The weather overhead is sunny, with a few clouds about; but on the whole it looks hopeful for the “show.”

A few minutes before two o'clock a motley array of pilots begins to collect around the Intelligence tent. They look a tough gang, wearing all manner of sweaters, jackets and colored scarves. Appearances don't matter in the air, but these young men know well the reception they might receive if they had the misfortune to come down in enemy territory.

At two, with everyone assembled in the briefing room, the Wing Commander comes in, wearing his familiar French beret, a relic of 1940, and addresses the pilots. He speaks in English because one of the squadrons in the Polish Wing is British. The job today is to provide a protective fighter sweep for a large force of Dakotas and Stirlings, which is to drop supplies to advanced allied infantry. The “Winco” runs over the route the Wing will take, which is marked up on a big map for all to see. He warns them that the G.A.F. may try to interfere with the operation and must be stopped at all costs. Then after a few brief words on the formation in which the squadrons will fly, the weather on the “other side” and the time of take-off, etc., the pilots go off to their aircraft at squadron dispersals.

Half an hour later thirty-six aircraft start up and taxi out to the end of the runway in use. For a while the airfield is filled with a deafening roar as the Mustangs take off in pairs. A few minutes later they fly back over the aerodrome in formation and set course. It is three o'clock.

Soon they cross the Belgian coast flying in a south-easterly direction. It is strange not to encounter any flak here; it would have been very different a few months ago. Already, one can see signs that the Belgians are once again a free people. As the aircraft pass low over a small town, red, yellow and black flags can be seen hanging from some of the windows. The people wave. Already the Belgians are draining the areas flooded by the Germans as an anti-invasion measure. Civilian transport is again on the roads and even an occasional train is observed running down the railway. A few months ago, prior to the liberation, cars and trains were rare sights, being easy prey for passing Allied aircraft.

The country becomes flatter and the dykes and canals become more numerous. The Mustangs are over Holland now. Someone reports a number of aircraft far away on the starboard of the R/T. As they get closer they are recognized as the head of the stream of tugs and gliders heading northwards. More and more aircraft come into sight, all heading northwards. They form a very impressive spectacle and it is grand to feel that they are all ours—Allied planes forming an aerial cover for our valiant ground forces pressing ever deeper into the Reich.

The Mustangs cross the stream, turn northwards and commence a patrol on the eastern side of the “big boys,” ready to stamp out any attempt the Luftwaffe may dare to make to interfere.



Two Polish airmen.

Further north there are signs that the Wing is approaching the battle area. Vast road convoys can be seen heading north, loaded with supplies for the front. They pass over a field hospital clearly marked with large red crosses on all the tents, and down there is a tiny spotting plane skimming the tree-tops. Over there smoke issues from a fire in the middle of a town where fierce hand-to-hand street fighting is probably in progress. Ah! What's that to the left? Four Typhoons are diving one after the other on a road and firing their cannons. Yes, they are “beating up” some of the few remaining “Jerry” lorries which are trying to scuttle away unnoticed. But they are cold meat now.

The Hunt doesn't seem to want to play today. The sky is filled with aircraft but they are all ours: Stirlings, Dakotas, Spitfires, Mustangs and Thunderbolts. There won't be any “joy” for the Polish Wing today; but even so they don't relax their vigilance for one moment. For two hours they protect the seemingly never-ending stream of airborne supplies for the troops fighting below.

Eventually the last wave of Dakotas heads southwards for home, having left behind their gliders. The job is completed and the Allied Army can fight on with new vigor, knowing that whatever may befall them on the ground the Allied Air Forces will not fail them.

The Polish Wing turns for home, their task completed. As they fly over Flanders the sinking sun brings out beautifully the color contrasts of the countryside. The cottages with their pale blue washed walls and red roofs, the greens and browns of the fields and here and there a patch of blue cabbages make a very attractive picture. Somehow this land looks different now—happier. Belgium seems to be smiling to the Polish Wing in gratitude for the part it has played in her liberation.

Soon the pilots land back at their base in England after four long hours in the air. It is seven o'clock and they are hungry. At supper or over a glass of beer in the bar they discuss the “show.” It wasn't exciting, but these tired pilots are content in feeling that they have helped strike another blow towards victory.

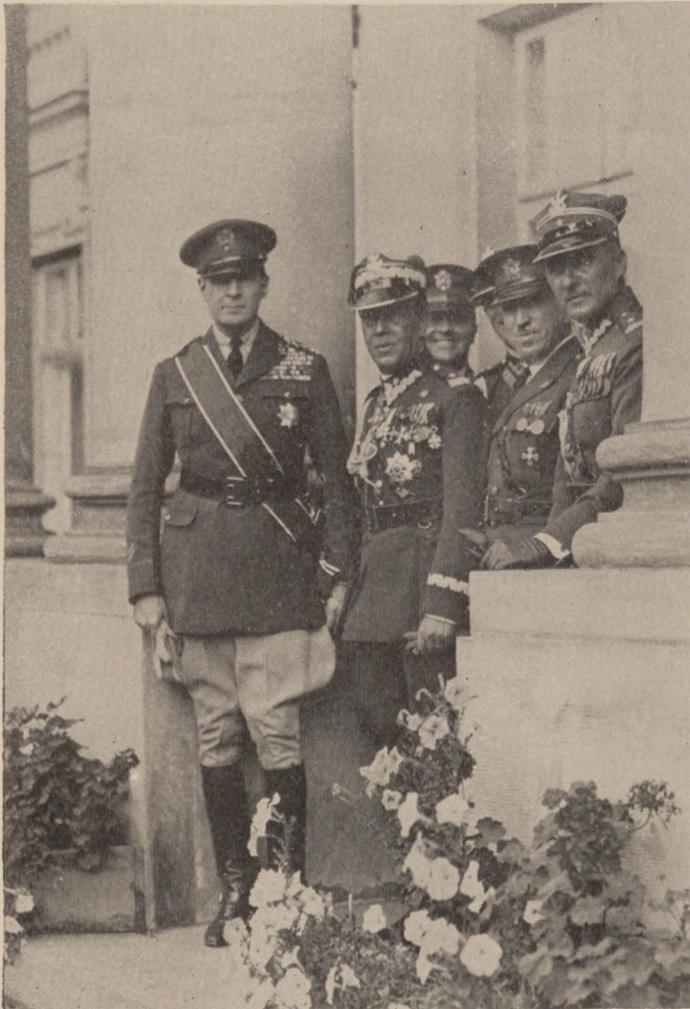
GENERAL MACARTHUR'S VISIT TO POLAND

GENERAL Douglas MacArthur, now commander of the Allied Forces in the Southwest Pacific, visited Poland in 1932 as American Chief of Staff. He arrived in Warsaw, the Polish capital, on the afternoon of September 7th and was met at the station by high Polish and American officers. After the playing of the American National Anthem, General MacArthur inspected the guard of honor.

The same evening General MacArthur left with military attaches of other countries for Volhynia to attend the military maneuvers there. Two Polish divisions—infantry, artillery and cavalry—were already in position. General MacArthur went everywhere and saw everything, and followed the maneuvers with the discerning eye of a military expert. A cavalryman himself, he took particular interest in the Polish cavalry, praised its skill and admired its horses. One could see that he would have liked to ride with them.



General Douglas MacArthur before the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier, Warsaw, 1932.



General Douglas MacArthur wearing Grand Cordon of *Polonia Restituta* during his 1932 visit to Warsaw.

In the afternoon General MacArthur visited the famous stables of Count Potocki. The pure bred Arabs interested him most. He asked whether he could try one and the Polish cavalrymen present admired his skill on horseback. His good sportsmanship made him many friends.

After the maneuvers a reception was given in his honor at which toasts were exchanged. The Polish commander praised MacArthur's soldierly qualities and pledges of Polish-American friendship were renewed. General MacArthur expressed his high appreciation of the progress the Polish Army had made in equipment and training. Realizing that the Polish Army had been formed out of nothing, General MacArthur said, the Polish soldiers and particularly the cavalry had shown themselves to be first class. His remarks were greeted with loud cheers. Thus another link was added to the chain of Polish-American friendship.

On September 10th, General MacArthur was back in Warsaw. In the morning he placed a wreath on the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier. In the afternoon he was received by Marshal Pilsudski and in honor of his visit to Poland was invested with the Grand Cordon of "*Polonia Restituta*." His adjutant, Captain Davis, received the Cross of the same order.

General MacArthur remained in Poland two more days during which he visited the airfield in Warsaw and attended receptions given in his honor. During his short visit he made many friends both among soldiers and civilians.

In April, 1942, the Polish Government in London with the consent of President Roosevelt conferred upon General Douglas MacArthur, the highest Polish military decoration, the "*Virtuti Militari*" First Class to show its appreciation of his immortal defense of the Philippines.

Poland's highest award for valor, Order of "*Virtuti Militari*," dates back to 1792, in the reign of Poland's last King, Stanislaw August. The First Class of the Order was originally conferred upon only six persons, among them Marshal Foch, King Albert of Belgium and King Alexander of Yugoslavia. The "*Virtuti Militari*" was also awarded to the city of Lwow for its glorious defense in 1918-1920.

POETRY BY ALEXANDER JANTA

SOCRATES

*All Greece glorified in beauty, cruelty and youth,
Looked to the high Olympus where her proud gods met,
When he, the hairy prophet, knew and taught the truth,
Braved the anger of Athens, and defied her threat.*

*They will kill you, old man, for the eternal crime
Of knowing what we are and what justice must be.
He said: Freedom will live after the end of time.
I drink this cup of poison to Her and to me.*

FROM CERVANTES

*This is what all your courage and all your dreams are
worth,
O soldier without hope! O madman without blame:
Your brave heart lies in ashes, fools inherit the earth,
And Dulcinea laughs at the sound of your name.*

*Her laughter still rings clearly for all of us to hear,
The only heritage of your faith and your life.
It knows the power of windmills, and scorns our hope-
less strife,
It will mock every courage, and break every spear.*

—Translated by Susanne Wieniawa

EXPLORATION OF SIBERIA BY POLISH POLITICAL EXILES

(Continued from page 5)

Irkutsk district at the jurassic era.

Next Czekanowski explored the deposits of lapis lazuli around Irkutsk and in 1870 his remarkable work received the Russian Geological Society's gold medal. The following year Czekanowski made three scientific trips, one to study the size of the coal beds near Irkutsk, another to explore the navigability of the Angara River, and the third to examine the lapis lazuli deposits in the Baikal region. Other Polish exiles accompanied Czekanowski on this last expedition: Benedykt Dybowski, Wiktor Godlewski, and the painter Stanislaw Wronski.

Following the termination of Czekanowski's research in the Baikal area, the Geographical Society entrusted him with the exploration of the little-known region between the Yenisei and the Lena Rivers, following the Tunguska and the Olenek Rivers. The scientific results of this two-year expedition were considerable and important, for the astronomical, meteorological and magnetic observations made by Czekanowski and his companion, F. F. Miller, as well as the information gathered on the terrain's topography, completely changed the region's cartography. Later, Czekanowski returned to his research at the mouth of the Olenek on the Arctic Ocean and along the Lena, outfitting an expedition thither at his own cost. This time he was accompanied by another Polish exile, S. J. Weglowski. In seven months the two explorers covered some 7,000 miles and collected more than 1,500 paleontological specimens from 24 places, while Weglowski accumulated 3,000 botanical and 7,000 entomological specimens.

Czekanowski's excellent collections provided rich material for the research of scholars in all fields of the natural sciences. Important too were his contributions to ethnography. The notes he gathered during his last expedition furnished material for an excellent dictionary of the idiom of the Tungusic tribes of Kandaghir.

In 1876 Czekanowski was amnestied and permitted to go to St. Petersburg. But he did not stay there long. In an attack of melancholia from which he suffered following a serious

case of typhoid in Siberia, he took his own life by poison in 1876.

Jan Czerski was another Pole who made a name for himself as an explorer of Siberia, a geologist and a paleontologist. Born in 1845 in Vitebsk province, Czerski attended school in Wilno. The last year of his studies coincided with the Polish insurrection of 1863. He was arrested and exiled to Siberia, where he was conscripted into the Russian Army. Unable to stand the hard military life, he fell gravely ill, and in 1869 was freed from military service. In 1871 he received permission to go to Irkutsk. From this time dates Czerski's scientific activity in the Baikal region. His first exploit was to identify stone age tools and animal bones found in that area. His energy and efficiency quickly spread his fame as an outstanding osteologist. He published several articles on his scientific observations near Omsk and Irkutsk.

In 1873 Czerski was sent by the Siberian section of the Russian Geographical Society to conduct geological research in the bare peaks of Kitoi and Tunka. He was accompanied by the Polish exile, Mikolaj Hartung, a chemist by profession who gathered botanical and entomological data and made chemical analyses of mineral deposits. Hartung was already known for his work on the salt marshes of Eastern Siberia. The pair crossed the Tunkin and Kitoi mountain range three times. Hartung collected 1,500 botanical specimens while Czerski gathered ethnographical data on the almost extinct Soyot tribe living near the Sea of Okhotsk.

At the recommendation of the Geographical Society in 1877, Czerski undertook one of his most important assignments: geological research of Lake Baikal's southeastern shore to throw light on the history of the Lake's formation. It took him five years to complete this research, which was followed by the tracing of a detailed map of the lake's shoreline, using a scale of ten feet to the inch, published by the Society of Mineralogy in 1886.

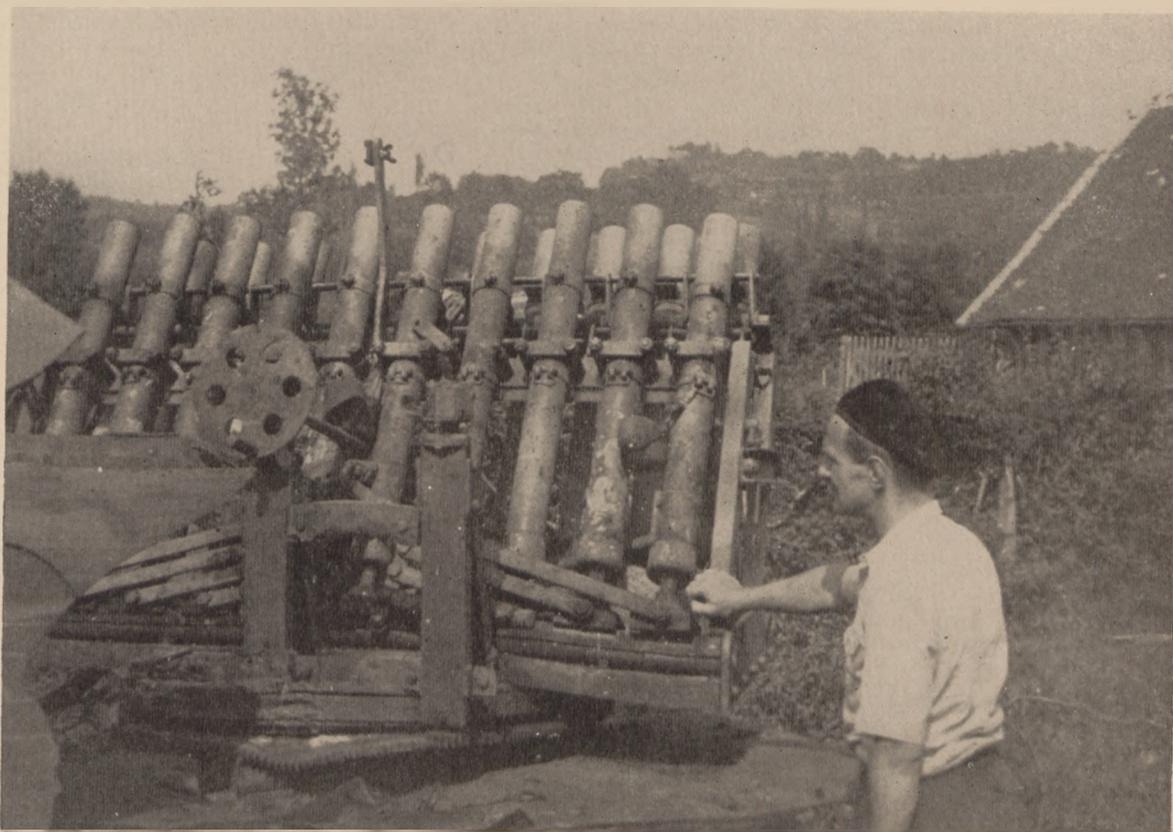
Having completed this research in 1881, Czerski made another scientific trip into the Baikal region following the course of several rivers. His companion, N. I. Witkowski, had previously worked on excavations of tombs dating from

(Please turn to page 15)

German Mortars Captured by the Poles



These pictures show one of the captured mortars. This 20-barrelled German mortar is the first ever seized by the Allies. It was taken by the Poles in 1944 in Normandy. When taken it was still aimed at Polish positions around Chambois on which it had inflicted many casualties with its murderous fire.



POLISH MINIATURE PAINTERS IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

(Continued from page 9)

of Francis Douce, Keeper of Manuscripts in the British Museum, and was bequeathed with his whole collection to the Bodleian Library in 1834: in their catalogue the Prayer-Book is erroneously described as having been executed in Italy.

The decorative painting in all four Prayer-Books shows common features of style. The miniatures represent scenes from the Life of Christ and the Virgin, as well as figures of the Saints, surrounded by decorative borders: sometimes the pages facing the miniatures are completely covered with ornaments. A sense of decoration is the distinguishing feature of all these miniatures: it is evident in the carefully constructed composition with a well-balanced sense of form and the axis of the picture nearly always accentuated. In spite of rich secondary accessories—it does not matter if they represent architecture or landscape—the principal aim of the artist is to develop the composition on one plane. Very accurate and careful elaboration of the details, sometimes even approaching minuteness of execution, and the fore-shortening of landscape or architecture are typical of the artist. The representation of the human figures is not based on a study of the model, but is drawn in outline and even exaggerated, while the female figures are full of charm and some of their faces even possess individual expression; the characterization of some of the male heads is also remarkable.

In addition to the Prayer-Books, many other precious illuminated manuscripts are preserved, signed by Mogila: being his own work and that of his workshop, they are similar to the Prayer-Books in form.

Some easel pictures from the same epoch are also attributed to Mogila, but precise evidence is lacking.

The works described above allow us to characterize the artistic production of Stanislas Mogila and his school. The greater number of his own miniatures are to be found in the

Royal Prayer-Books: in the others he handed over the work to his pupils and assistants. Above all, he was a decorator: the richness of ornamentation applied to the borders was used harmoniously in the decorative treatment of the composition. Even from the point of view of style, Mogila already belonged to the Renaissance. He was a typical eclectic; in figural composition he was influenced by graphic art, chiefly German. He himself apparently recommended his pupils to copy whole scenes. For instance, *The Flight into Egypt* in *Queen Bona Sforza's Book of Hours* was taken from the picture by Altdorfer. In his art there are also distinct signs of Flemish and Italian influences, which can be clearly seen in the ornamental parts of his work. All the naturalistically treated birds, flowers and fruit, the minutely observed features from the domain of fauna and flora, were derived from Flemish prototypes. On the other hand, from Italian art he found inspiration in the choice of grotesque decoration; the Italian sculptors working in Cracow of those days provided him with these motifs. In spite of many influences, his personality expressed itself at its best in the strictly decorative parts. Here he rejected the minute conventionalism which so often characterized his figure scenes, and he composed at leisure with the great fantasy of a painter, introducing native motifs, such as busts of knights in Polish armor, or figures in national costume. He was, perhaps, without the temperament and originality which are the mark of "The Master of the Behem Codex," yet he acquired from him technical ability and skill in the exact observation of nature. These two characteristics, together with his own decorative talent, enable him to reach a rather high standard.

In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, a special taste existed for rich books—in particular Books of Hours. Probably the last important representative of this art was Mogila, and his personality closes the history of miniature painting in this part of Europe.

P O L I S H M A Q U I S

(continued on page 7)

come to help them plan. Twenty of them were to leave in a group, all were young miners from the settlements, half of them of Polish descent. When their plans were all set, the day before their scheduled departure, a Gestapo unit came to Edek's house. Someone had informed on them and the Germans deported the ringleaders of the group.

Two weeks later, Edek ran away from home, now empty except for his aged parents and for almost a month wandered about in the mountains. The Underground then still kept to the deep woods and it was no easy matter to find it. When he finally chanced upon a group, the brigadier did not want to take him, saying that he already had too many children on his hands. Finally he agreed to take him on as courier.

"For the first month I carried messages to other units, but when my brigade went off to fight, they would leave me behind to guard our camp. Then they sent me out on reconnaissance missions. I got a bicycle and went off to ascertain German positions a few hours before a scheduled attack. A month before the liberation of Ardeche, I had worked up so that I had my own rifle."

Getting a rifle and with it the right to take part in fights meant that Edek had become a true Maquis. He gained the position as a reward for a reconnaissance patrol preceding the Maquis attack on a German garrison not far from St. Etienne. Sent down along the road Edek fell into the hands of some German guards at a bridge. He was questioned for three hours at their guardhouse, but did not break. After being freed, about sunset, he could not recross the bridge, so swam the river. Wet and cold, he stumbled through the dark forest to his unit and warned it in time of the trap.

At present Edek is in Marseille waiting for a ship to Italy. He already considers himself a Polish soldier. When I asked him whether he would be a Junak, he merely smiled. He is going to join the regular Polish army—the Polish Second Corps.

In districts completely cleared of the Germans, the Maquis were openly quartered in villages. Larger units even maintained their own hospitals. A Polish Maquis doctor, known as "Doctor Gorski," worked in such a hospital in Antraigues. He told me the experiences of his unit:

"Our brigade, numbering 400 men, daily attacked German transports on the main roads. We had ambulances which would bring our wounded back to my hospital in the village school. I had 15 beds and some rudimentary instruments and equipment. We sent the seriously wounded further back.

"Our brigade's rolling stock consisted of 12 passenger automobiles, two lorries, one ambulance and some ten-odd bicycles and motorcycles. The latter were used chiefly by our girl couriers. Besides all this we had a larger camp for prisoners of war."

Unlike Northern France, where most of the former underground troops have already joined the army, one still sees many Maquis in the South. Some units have occupied towns where they serve as the militia, others have remained in villages to fight bands of collaborationists which now hide in forests and mountains.

However, there are no more Polish Maquis in France. The minute that recruiting for the Polish Army was announced, they went en masse to the nearest recruiting station. Today many of them already fight with the Second Corps in Italy while many more await transports to the front.

THE PRICE OF POLAND'S CONTRIBUTION TO THE ALLIED WAR EFFORT

(Continued from page 3)

The actual deportation was carried out in the most brutal manner possible. The Poles were not given time to prepare, nor were they allowed to take anything with them save a few valueless personal articles.

Besides this, the population of the Government-General itself was constantly being shifted about. Almost one-third of the Polish population had to leave their homes at some time or another during this war. In their place the Germans imported some 1,000,000 German colonists.

The basis of German economic policy in Poland from the very moment of occupation was that both Polish state and private property as well as the entire Polish economy and means of production and manufacture were at the disposal of the *Herrenvolk*." The total economic loss suffered by Poland as a result of German occupation is inestimable, running into billions of dollars.

Thus has Poland suffered in contributing her full measure to the Allied war effort! It is imperative that the world realize this, so that the greatest sacrifice in her history will not have been made in vain by Poland.

EXPLORATION OF SIBERIA BY POLISH POLITICAL EXILES

(Continued from page 12)

the stone age not far from the confluence of the Kitoi and the Angara. 1882-1883 found Czerski on the lower Tunguska making meteorological observations and exploring the post-tertiary strata in the valley of the Lower Tunguska as well as its fauna and human remains.

In 1885 Czerski conducted geological research along the Siberian route leading to the Eastern slope of the Urals and along the roads leading to Padun on the Angara River and to the city of Minusinsk. His work, "Geographical Research on the Siberian Postal Route," summarized the results of his exploring and provided a momentous outline of Asia's geological structure.

However, despite the great scientific importance of his work, Czerski suffered from financial difficulties and intrigues. Overwork helped ruin his delicate health. Already in 1881 he had fallen so ill that he had had to give up exploring for a year and work as a sales clerk in the store of a compatriot. So, in 1886 Czerski went to St. Petersburg. For five years, up to 1891 he worked up in his laboratory the material gathered during his expeditions, and also analyzed the material gathered by his friend, Aleksander Czekanowski, during the latter's expedition to the Lower Tunguska and the Olenek.

In 1891 Czerski published a comprehensive monograph on all Siberian mammological fauna known to date. His conclusions on the geological history of Northern Siberia were so important that the Russian Academy of Sciences thought it necessary to send a second expedition to Kolima in Northern Siberia. Czerski was named its head. Unfortunately, his health gave out before the destination was reached and he died on the road from Nijnekolimsk to Sredna on June 26, 1892. So great were this Pole's contributions to the advancement of science in Russia that he received three scientific awards for his work and was elected to six scientific societies.

Waclaw Sieroszewski, one of free Poland's great writers, was born in 1860 near Warsaw. The insurrection of 1863 ruined his family and sent his father to prison. Young Sieroszewski, drawn to the people, left school at 15, became apprenticed to a locksmith and later worked on the railroad. In 1878 he was arrested for revolutionary propaganda. His sentence to eight years at hard labor was commuted to exile in subarctic Siberia. He was sent to the Yakutsk region and then to frigid Verkhoiansk, where he worked as a blacksmith and locksmith. As punishment for an unsuccessful flight attempt, he was sent to Aldan and later to Irkutsk.

In exile, Sieroszewski made friends with the Yakut natives, learned their language, set down their tales, and gathered geographical and ethnographic data about them. He wrote up his observations for various periodicals and journals. In 1896 he published his great work "The Yakuts," based on his long observations in their country and giving a full picture of Yakut origin, physical traits, family life, dress, arts and trades, distribution of wealth, working conditions, love and marriage customs, popular literary production, beliefs, climate, geography, etc. It is still a standard reference work today and won its author the gold medal of the Russian Geographical Society.

In 1894 Sieroszewski received permission to stay at St. Petersburg in connection with his scientific work and by 1898, twenty years after his arrest, recovered all his liberties. Since the beginning of the World War, he took part in the Polish national movement and from 1928 worked in the Oriental Institute at Warsaw. He was still living at the time of Germany's attack upon Poland in 1939.

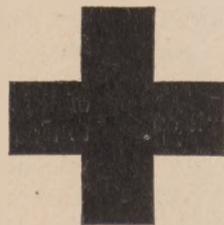
Edward Piekarski was born near Minsk in 1858. In 1877 he entered the Institute of Veterinary Science at Kharkov. He took an active part in the revolutionary movement and was condemned to exile at Archangelsk, but hid successfully for a while. In 1881 he was apprehended, sentenced to 15 years at hard labor and deprived of all his rights. In view of his youth and delicate health, the verdict was commuted to exile in the polar region of Siberia. Late in 1881 Piekarski was already in Siberia, and in November of that year in the Yakutsk district, some 150 miles north of the city of Yakutsk. Since the first day of his exile, he carried on research in ethnography and worked on a dictionary of the Yakut language.

In 1894-1896 Piekarski was an active member of the great ethnographic Siberian expedition, which owed its brilliant organization and splendid results to the political exiles. In 1903 he was invited to be the ethnographer in the Nelkan-Ayan expedition, making observations on the life of the Tunguses, and publishing them in essay form.

Two years later, Piekarski, through the intervention of the Academy of Sciences, was granted permission to go to St. Petersburg and supervise the publication of his Yakut-Russian dictionary. Its first volume appeared in 1917 and the fourth and last in 1935. In 1907 the Academy of Sciences conferred upon him the gold medal for his work. Another outstanding achievement by Piekarski was the three volume "Examples of Popular Yakut Literature." By the time of his death in 1934, Piekarski had written some 200 works on the economy and ethnography of the Yakut country.

GIVE TO THE RED CROSS!

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Give until it hurts so that the Red Cross may continue its activities!