AN INTRODUCTION TO OUR NEW COLLECTIONS

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Archives Unbound is a multi-disciplinary resource providing topically focused digital collections from archives and institutional repositories around the world. The collections featured in Archives Unbound are meant not only to help us understand history, but to help us trace how past actions reflect on and influence current events.

The 30 new releases in Archives Unbound take us on a journey through history from the 11th to 20th century. Selections from the King’s Manuscripts, a library assembled by King George III, is a major British heritage collection with documents dating back to the 11th century. The Inquisitions: Manuscripts of the Spanish, Portuguese, and French Inquisitions provide us with a record of the suppression of “heretics” by the Catholic church, with records as far back as the 13th century. Moving into the late 18th century, we find Eli Whitney’s papers, including building and patenting his cotton engine, development of which was thought to have been a contributing factor to the American Civil War. In the 19th and early 20th century, Walter Chauncey Camp, “the Father of American Football”, enlightens us with his eloquent correspondence about athletics and physical fitness.

The history of the Second World War is highlighted with collections from U.S. Naval histories and reports to the Soviet history of the Great Patriotic War to the papers of Fleet Admiral Ernest J. King to records of the WAVES (Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service), a Women’s Reserve branch of the U.S. Naval Reserve created in 1942. Additionally, we can learn about U.S. civilian mobilization during the Second World War and Korean War, discovering how the country managed resources, manpower, and the means of production.

20th century political and social history is well represented. Nine Latin American collections highlight post-WW II and early Cold War U.S. political relations with Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela. The diaries and papers of Henry Lewis Stimson serve as a testament to the long career of a distinguished American statesman. Stimson served under four U.S. Presidents, fought in World War I, served as Governor General of the Philippines, and was a political advisor of renown in American politics. The establishment of a Hebrew Republic in Palestine is covered in the Palestine Statehood Committee Records, 1939-1949. “Red Scare” America is well represented in the documents of the FBI’s Counterattack Project. Finally, from the KARTA Center, we witness the history of Poland in the years leading up to World War II through post-war Communist rule, culminating in the Solidarity movement and free elections in 1989.

These new releases were chosen for their historical significance, interesting topical coverage, and relationship to events in the news around the world. Let history be your guide as you explore the captivating compendium of knowledge that is Archives Unbound.

Phil Virta is an Acquisitions Editor at Gale.

Phil Virta has worked at Gale in a variety of capacities, most recently as a publisher of digital primary source archives in charge of the Archives of Sexuality & Gender program (and a few others). He enjoys long walks through dusty archival collections, visiting far-flung places, and frequent woolgathering. When he doesn’t have his head in the clouds, he can be found researching new archive ideas, hunting for colorful rocks, working on his stamp collection, watching squirrels, or planning his next tropical vacation.
After World War II, Emperor Haile Selassie exerted numerous efforts to promote the modernization of his nation. The country’s first important school of higher education, University College of Addis Ababa, was founded in 1950. The Constitution of 1931 was replaced with the 1955 constitution which expanded the powers of the Parliament. While improving diplomatic ties with the United States, Haile Selassie also sought to improve the nation’s relationship with other African nations. To do this, in 1963, he helped found the Organization of African Unity.

In 1961 the 30-year Eritrean Struggle for Independence began, following Haile Selassie’s dissolution of the federation with Eritrea and shutting down the Eritrean parliament. The Emperor declared Eritrea the fourteenth province of Ethiopia in 1962. Most Ethiopians thought in terms of personalities, not ideology, and out of long habit looked to Haile Selassie as the initiator of change, the source of status and privilege, and the arbiter of demands for resources and attention among competing groups.

By the early 1960s, the government’s failure to effect significant economic and political reforms created a climate of unrest. Combined with economic problems, corruption, intermittent famine, and the growing discontent of urban interest groups, the thought of revolution, assisted by the Communist Bloc, germinated.

This collection of U.S. State Department Central Classified Files relating to internal and foreign affairs, contain a wide range of materials including Countless translations of high-level foreign government documents, including speeches, memoranda, official reports, and transcripts of political meetings and assemblies.
During the Korean War, a Federal Defense History Program was established, generating a series of reports from the civilian control agencies. This collection consists of 178 titles from 21 agencies involved in administering the mobilization and managing the economy during this difficult time.

An undeclared war, an unpopular war is no less a burden than one in which the populace unites in common cause. Indeed, the problems of mobilization are magnified by the competition between military priorities and civilian needs. Given an economy at full capacity, as was the case during the Korean War, the management of resources, manpower, and the means of production becomes critical. It becomes even more complex when the nation at full capacity, fighting a distant war, must also build up its forces around the globe and fulfill its obligation to an open-ended arms race, aka the Cold War. These years demonstrated how considerations of national security were to become an integral part of almost every federal policy decision, and how, in most instances, policy was to be administered by civilian agencies with permanent status. These histories are of enormous importance to students of government administration, economics, political science, business, and commerce.

Military histories exist in great number, but a full-scale civilian mobilization and involvement is a relatively recent phenomenon which has never been accorded the importance it warrants, whether for an understanding of past history, or as a model for future resources management.
The historical perspective of the Second World War has been formed primarily by works on the military and diplomatic events of that particular period in history. Few studies have been made of the civilian agencies which were charged with the awesome tasks and responsibilities of managing a nation at total war. The Administrative Histories of World War II Civilian Agencies of the Federal Government were originally produced under the Second World War History Program of the Federal Government. The histories were initially the work of the War Records Section of the Division of Administrative Management of the Bureau of the Budget. In March 1942, the program evolved into the Committee on Records of War Administration.

Members of the Committee were well known historians, economists, and political scientists. Among them were Guy Stanton Ford, editor of the American Historical Review and former president of the University of Minnesota; Arthur Schlesinger, Sr., past president of the American Historical Association and professor of history at Harvard University; Solon J. Buck, Archivist of the United States; Archibald MacLeish, Librarian of Congress; and George A. Graham, professor of politics at Princeton University.

The issues addressed in these records recur frequently throughout modern history. Inflationary pressures, oil and fuel shortages, discussions of rationing, dislocations in manufacturing and in the labor force, and many other problems appear throughout the collection and offer opportunities for contrast with current events.

The histories produced by the Committee detail the measures taken by civilian agencies to meet “the most stupendous set of problems in the management of public activities that the country has ever faced.” Problems we must contend with in the contemporary world were multiplied a thousand-fold by the exigencies of war. The growth of war production and problems in price stabilization, transportation and shipping, manpower, rationing, federal housing, and the allocation of raw materials demanded prompt coordination with scores of other wartime activities. In addition, the histories offer valuable insight into the development of agencies devoted expressly to the regulation of the country at war, including alien property and war assets, censorship, civilian defense, community war services, defense-related education, scientific research for the war effort, and public health during wartime.

President Harry Truman stressed the necessity for a record such as this:

“...I would like to see soon after the war is over an objective account of how problems of administration were handled. Both failures and successes should be analyzed. The development of governmental administration can be greatly aided by such investigation.”
COUNTERATTACK PROJECT, 1947-1970

Source: Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI)
Period: 1947-1970
Content: ~4,000 pages
Product Number: 16754869
Release Quarter: September

This collection contains FBI documents pertaining to monitoring of the publication and publishers of Counterattack, which sought to provide the average American with “facts to combat communism.” Counterattack was a weekly subscription-based, anti-communist, mimeographed newsletter, which ran from 1947 to 1955 and was published by American Business Consultants, a “private, independent organization.” Founded by former FBI agents, Counterattack attempted to elucidate examples of communist activity within the United States, failures of the government to protect against communists, and to rally troops against communism.

In a February 2008 article titled “Appetite for Fear: David Everitt’s history of the pamphleteers who hunted ‘pinkos’”, published in the Columbia Journalism Review, writer David Hajdu, professor of arts and culture journalism at Columbia’s Graduate School of Journalism, assessed the mission of Counterattack as follows:

Counterattack had two missions: one, ostensibly journalistic, the other vigorously interventionist. First, it set out to expose everyone it could find who had any connection, however dubious or tenuous, to anything or anyone associated with Communism, Socialism, the Soviet Union, or progressive ideology. Then, more significantly, Counterattack sought to rally its subscribers to action against the individuals it targeted. In its assault on performers and production personnel in radio and television, Counterattack exhorted its readers to write protest letters to the corporate sponsors of programs featuring actors with purported links to the left. Even Time magazine reported on the resignation of “Mr. Counterattack”, spokesman for the publication, Ted C. Kirkpatrick. Time recognized the most significant action of Counterattack as the publication of Red Channels, a report on purported communist control in the media.

By arousing popular awareness, Counterattack attempted to influence politics by uniting anticommunists in letter-writing campaigns, counter-protests against communists, and supporting legislation, such as the Nixon-Mundt Bill. Throughout its storied career, Counterattack was itself constantly on the defense against accusations of libel after the publication of Red Channels. As former FBI agents, the staff of Counterattack had access to FBI files on potential subversive activity and the files of the House Un-American Activities Committee. With this material, they published the names of members of the media who appeared, and the number of times that they appeared, without accusations. Through such tactics, the publication gained attention and notoriety.

For more information about Counterattack, you can read the book The Broadcast 41 - Women and the Anti-Communist Blacklist by Carol A Stabile, published by MIT Press. You can read an excerpt from the book here: How the Communist Blacklist Shaped the Entertainment Industry As We Know It by Carol A Stabile, published October 9, 2018. (https://lithub.com/how-the-communist-blacklist-shaped-the-entertainment-industry-as-we-know-it/)

You can read original editions of Counterattack here: https://library.bloomu.edu/Archives/SC/RadicalNewsletters/Counterattack/counterattack.htm
Eli Whitney (1765-1825) was an American inventor who is most commonly known for having invented the cotton gin, or “cotton engine”, a machine used to separate cotton fibers from their seeds, facilitating greater productivity than could be accomplished by manual labor. Whitney’s cotton gin made cotton production much easier and more profitable for farmers, but the cotton itself still had to be picked by hand. The development of the cotton gin has been identified as a contributing factor to the outbreak of the American Civil War.

The Eli Whitney Papers consist of correspondence and business papers relating to Eli Whitney’s invention and patenting of the cotton gin and to his subsequent development of a system to produce firearms employing interchangeable parts. The papers include drawings for machinery, land records relating to the acquisition of property for Whitney’s factory site, patents and other documents relating to the protection of Whitney’s inventions, and account books and other financial and legal records relating to business and investments. The papers also document the continuing manufacture of guns at Whitney’s factory after his death in 1825, under the management of his estate and later of his son Eli Whitney. In addition, the papers include personal papers of Eli Whitney and other family members.

The papers also include photocopies of documents relating to Eli Whitney located in other repositories including the Connecticut Historical Society, the Harvard College Library, the Massachusetts Historical Society, the National Archives, the New Haven Colony Historical Society, and the New York Historical Society. Additional photocopies of Whitney material from the Baldwin Family Papers, the Blake Family Papers, the Hillhouse Family Papers, and the Josiah Whitney Papers in the Manuscripts and Archives Department are also included in the papers.
A tough, aggressive officer, Admiral Ernest J. King was one of the most prominent Allied military leaders of World War II. In 1941, he was appointed commander in chief of the Atlantic Fleet and as such oversaw the fulfillment of lend-lease programs to Great Britain and the Soviet Union. After the Japanese raid on Pearl Harbor, he was selected to fill the new billet of commander in chief, U.S. Fleet (COMINCH), assuming operational control of all American naval forces. In early 1942, Admiral Harold R. Stark resigned as chief of naval operations (CNO), and President Roosevelt signed an executive order naming King to serve as both COMINCH and CNO. King was also a member of the newly formed Joint Chiefs of Staff and the Combined Chiefs of Staff, through which he played a pivotal role in the shaping of Allied grand strategy from the Arcadia Conference to Potsdam.

Official Papers of Fleet Admiral Ernest J. King primarily contains records from the 1940s, of which the first series, correspondence and memorandums, makes up the bulk. The collection also contains:

- King’s personal copies of the minutes of the Combined Chiefs of Staff meetings, 1941-1945
- His speeches
- Agendas, minutes, and working papers for conferences between King and Admiral Chester Nimitz
- Studies of the office of the CNO and the Navy
- Postwar studies of logistics and supply systems
- Material on the postwar armed services unification controversy

For researchers interested in wartime grand strategy, interservice rivalries, wartime operations planning, the battle for the Atlantic, and the Pacific War, these papers are an essential primary source.
The Battle Analysis Series is a compilation of all information, drawn from both Allied and Japanese sources, available to the Naval War College at the time of publication (1953-1958) and is an “endeavor to maintain at all times the viewpoints of the commanders of the units involved on both sides.” Its major strength is in the painstaking detail with which battle actions are reconstructed. Included are a variety of battles, including those at the Coral Sea, Midway, the Savo Islands, and Surigao Strait. The Battle of Leyte Gulf is covered in great detail.

Aerial view of U.S. Navy fighter planes during the attack on the Japanese fleet off Midway and burning Japanese ship below. Battle of Midway, June 4th, 5th, and 6th, 1942

WORLD WAR II NAVAL HISTORIES AND HISTORICAL REPORTS: U.S. SUBMARINE WAR PATROL REPORTS AND RELATED DOCUMENTS, 1941-1945: REFERENCE DOCUMENTS ON SUBMARINE OPERATIONS AND SUBMARINES

Source: NARA
Period: 1941-1945
Content: ~9,000 pages
Product Number: 16754895
Release Quarter: December

This collection is made up of eight smaller groups of documents: 1) Submarine Operational History of World War II; 2) Japanese Naval and Merchant Ship Losses during WW II by All Causes; 3) The Imperial Japanese Navy in World War II: A Graphic Presentation of the Japanese Naval Organization and List of Combatant and Non-Combatant Vessels Lost or Damaged in the War; 4) Submarine Report: Depth Charge, Bomb Mine, Torpedo and Gunfire Damage, Including Losses in Action (Dec. 7, 1941-Aug. 15, 1945); 5) U.S. Submarine Losses in World War II; 6) Current Tactical Orders Submarines, April 1939; 7) Submarine Officers Conferences, 1940-1949; and 8) The Role of Communications Intelligence in Submarine Warfare in the Pacific, January 1943-October 1943.

WORLD WAR II NAVAL HISTORIES AND HISTORICAL: INTELLIGENCE DIVISION, OPNAV, COMBAT NARRATIVES

Source: NARA
Period: 1942-1943
Content: ~3,000 pages
Product Number: 16754896
Release Quarter: December

These twenty-six narratives were designed to provide commissioned naval officers with interim summaries of actions prior to the availability of official histories. As such, these narratives are more polished historical accounts than were recorded in the original battle experiences reports. Drawn from action reports, operation orders, war diaries, and personal interviews, the documents contain charts and photographs. Although most of the reports describe action in the Pacific theater, the North African landings, the Sicilian campaign, and the Salerno landings are also the subjects of separate narratives.
Archiwum wschodnie (Eastern Archive), acquired in 1990, is fundamental to the KARTA Center’s collections. This archive was created in November 1987 as part of a social and civic movement to reclaim the history of Poland’s Kresy (eastern borderlands) in the years leading up to World War II and beyond.

In August 1939, Nazi Germany’s foreign minister, Joachim von Ribbentrop, and the Soviet foreign minister, Viacheslav Molotov, signed the Pact of Non-Aggression, together with a secret protocol, which established the basic guidelines for a joint invasion and occupation of Poland and its partition between the occupying powers. The Soviet Army invaded Polish territory in September 1939, and the NKVD—Narodnyi kommissariat vnutrennikh del (Russian for “People’s Commissariat for Internal Affairs”—the official title of the Soviet secret police of that era)—promptly imposed largely fraudulent plebiscites on the subject populations in order to lend credibility to its annexation of the eastern borderlands as western Ukraine and western Belorussia. In the period from 1939 to 1941, Soviet authorities attempted to eliminate all autonomous civic and political organizations, imposed Soviet institutions in their place, and arrested and deported hundreds of thousands of former citizens of Poland into the interior of the Soviet Union to labor camps and other resettlement colonies. The overwhelming majority of the deportees were ethnic Poles, but the victims of Soviet repression also included Ukrainians, Belarussians, Russians, and Jews—anyone deemed by the secret police to represent security threats to the new Soviet occupation.

On June 22, 1941, the German Army launched Operation Barbarossa, expelling the Soviet Army and the fledgling civilian administration. For the next several years, Germany occupied the former eastern borderlands as parts of Generalgouvernement Poland [German for “General Government of Poland”—the portion of German occupied Poland not annexed by the Reich], which was extended to include the Distrikt Galizien [German for “Galician district”], as well as the two Reichskommissariat [German for “Reich Commissioners”] of Ukraina and Ostland. In January 1944, the Soviet Army began the re-occupation of Polish territories; by May 1945, it had expelled the Germans from Poland. The Soviet regime was reintroduced in the area that was once again proclaimed to be western Ukraine and western Belarus. As in the period from 1939 to 1940, the NKVD conducted massive waves of arrests of suspected collaborators and other potential enemies of Soviet power. During each occupation, whether German or Soviet, the local population organized resistance to the occupiers. The most important armed underground forces were Armia Krajowa (Polish Home Army) and Ukrains’ka powstans’ka armia (Ukrainian Insurgent Army). Among those deported to Siberia and Kazakstan were also soldiers and officers of the armies of General Anders and General Berling.

The postwar borders of Poland were the subject of important negotiations.
between the Allies (the United States, the United Kingdom, and the USSR), but as a result, the eastern frontiers were imposed by the Soviet Union; land that was formerly part of eastern Poland was permanently assigned to the Soviet republics of Ukraine and Belarus. The postwar settlement also entailed large-scale population exchanges in an effort to make the newly redrawn Polish state and Soviet republics more ethnically homogenous. Despite Stalin’s promise to grant amnesty to Polish internees as early as 1941, no release occurred until after the war against Germany was over. Most of the Polish deportees and camp inmates were not released until the Soviet Gulag—Glavnoe upravlenie ispravitel’no-trudov kh lagere (Russian for “Chief Administration for Corrective Labor Camps”)—was dismantled following the death of Stalin in 1953. As a rule, they were not permitted to go back to the former borderlands and had no alternative but to return to an altered country—a Poland whose borders were redrawn considerably to the west of the Second Polish Republic, as Poland was known between the two world wars. Due to Soviet and Polish censorship, any discussion or writing about the former borderlands was taboo, thereby cutting off millions of Polish citizens from their past as well as their place of origin.

Because of the official silence relating to this difficult time, the Eastern Archive launched five annual nationwide competitions between 1989 and 1993 in order to encourage eyewitnesses to record their memoirs and turn over to the archive any other private materials they were able to preserve during the intervening years. The response to the competitions was enthusiastic and the archive catalogued thousands of files—a testament to the success of this public initiative. Moreover, the archive engaged in an active exchange program with other archives—especially those from outside Poland—that held materials relating to these territories during the period from the 1939 Soviet occupation and beyond. The collections include written and audio recordings, photographs, drawings, maps, and personal and official documents. Most of the materials are memoirs composed during or after the Communist period, but the collections also include correspondence and dozens of diaries written during the Soviet and Nazi occupations, deportations, internments, and eventual repatriations.

The Eastern Archive will be of special value to historians of modern Poland, Ukraine, Belarus, and Russia; it contains personal materials from the 1930s to the 1950s from a wide range of memoirists and diarists. Organized by name, with date of origin provided, these materials are annotated to convey the major themes covered in the collections. The files provide poignant and often eloquent testimony to the everyday lives of people caught between two dictatorships and the possibilities of resistance and opposition.

The KARTA Center was founded in Warsaw in 1982 and serves as the archive of record for documenting the history of opposition and dissent in post-World War II Poland. As the home of the internationally distributed independent quarterly that bears its name, KARTA has made its primary focus the popularization of what had been until over a decade ago, Poland’s unrecorded history. Comprising primary sources collected by the KARTA Center archives, Dissent in Poland encompasses three different archival collections: Solidarity Movement Archive, the Eastern Archive, and the Opposition Archive.

Presently, the KARTA Center holds the largest archival collection of materials about the Solidarity movement in Poland today, tracing through primary sources the historic events between August 1980 and December 1981. These include the formation and activity of Independent Autonomous Trade Union (Solidarnosc) as well as materials on other independent community, social, and political groups.

This archive documents the post-World War II activity of the independence underground, the fates of Stalin’s political prisoners, major turning points in Polish history (such as the student and worker protests in Poznan in June 1956), Wladislaw Gomulka’s rise to power in October 1956, nationwide student demonstrations of March 1968, the food riots the spread across Poland in December 1970, the strike that initiated the Solidarity movement in Gdansk in August 1980, the martial law period that followed, the takeover of the Lenin shipyards in May 1988, and finally the collapse of Communism in the summer of 1989.

Teheran, Iran. Polish refugee colony operated by the Red Cross has a colorful setting in the outskirts of the city.
Archiwum opozycji (Opposition Archive) shares a similar history to that of the Eastern Archive. Its holdings were joined to those of KARTA in 1998. At that time, its original name, Archiwum peerelu (Archive of the Polish People’s Republic), was changed to “Opposition Archive.” Although the then-underground journal Karta began to collect materials about various stages of democratic Polish opposition to Communist rule in the 1980s, the collections are founded on the results of three nationwide competitions organized by KARTA between 1990 and 1995. The archive numbers 365 files, with nearly twenty-nine thousand pages, and is primarily composed of individual memoirs, diaries, and tape recordings; it also includes reports, publications, thematic collections, maps, and drawings. The materials focus primarily on the period from 1956 to 1989 and help illuminate several key moments in Polish opposition history: In June 1956, workers and students demonstrated in Poznan; new elections to PZPR—Polska zjednoczona partia robotnicza (Polish United Workers’ Party)—followed in October of that year. Wladyslaw Gomulka replaced the Stalin-era leader of Poland, Boleslaw Bierut. The Gomulka regime made many initial concessions to the church and the peasants, including a halt to the collectivization of agriculture, but within a decade, the party turned toward more repressive measures and was perceived as mismanaging the economy. In March 1968, students demonstrated in support of free speech and, when the party raised food prices in December 1970, workers took to the streets in the Baltic port cities of Gdansk, Gdynia, and Szczecin. Once again, mass protest led to a change in leadership. Edward Gierek replaced the discredited Gomulka, but the mid-1970s saw more strikes and protests against continued price hikes, as well as more arrests. In 1978, the bishop of Krakow, Karol Wojtyła, became Pope John Paul II and instilled a new spirit of national pride and anti-Communist resistance among Polish citizens. In August 1980, ongoing economic hardship led to a sit-down strike at the Lenin Shipyards in Gdansk. The strike movement spread to other Baltic ports and then to the rest of the country, culminating in the rise of NSZZ “Solidarnosc”—Niezaleñy samorządny zwiazek zawodowy “Solidarnosc” (Independent Self-Governing Trade Union “Solidarity”)—the first unofficial trade union movement in Communist Eastern Europe. The workers’ protest spread to the rest of society and became a mass social campaign. The government granted legal recognition to the trade unions, whose members continued to strike and demand greater freedoms. Gierek was replaced by a new Communist party chief, Stanislaw Kania, who, in turn, was shortly replaced by General Wojciech Jaruzelski. In December 1981, Jaruzelski imposed a martial law regime. Tens of thousands of oppositionists were arrested and jailed, while others fled the country for the West. Although martial law was lifted in mid-1983, Solidarity remained illegal. In 1989, Solidarity gained legal status, took part in relatively open elections, and won a majority in the Sejm (Poland’s lower house of parliament). The new parliamentary majority named its prime minister, Tadeusz Mazowiecki, and its president, Lech Walesa, from among the ranks of those who had opposed the previous regime.
The collection is divided into three major parts. The first part contains diaries of the martial law period (1981 to 1983). Most of these were written by Solidarity activists, but there are also accounts from other imprisoned activists and from participants in the largescale strike movement and other protest actions. This sub-division also contains diaries penned by representatives of the “other side,” namely, soldiers and police officers who took part in the events. The second part is titled “the period of the Polish People’s Republic,” and contains diaries and memoirs covering the period from 1944 (the Soviet liberation of Poland) to 1989 (the end of Communist rule in Poland). The third part, titled “Private Initiative” and covering the period from 1945 to 1989, gathers together documentary evidence of those engaged in the semi-legal and illegal private sectors of the political economy. Usually referred to in official sources as “speculators” or by other pejorative colloquial terms, these people significantly influenced the social life of the country through their struggle for economic independence.

The materials are particularly valuable in examining the political and social history of the Communist era in Poland before the imposition of martial law—everyday life as well as the rise of anti-Communist protest through both underground activity and open movements such as Solidarity. The Polish opposition that culminated in Solidarity was the strongest and most effective in Eastern Europe; its history is therefore crucial to understanding the eventual retreat from Communism and the emergence of an autonomous civil society in the region.

KARTA began in January 1982 as an illegal publication during Poland’s period of martial law. After 1989, it evolved into a non-governmental archival repository that set itself the goal of preserving memories of events and people that were not likely to be represented in state and regional archives. The KARTA Center is now a legally registered foundation based in Warsaw. It publishes a journal, also named Karta, which features both archival materials and scholarly essays on topics emerging from the center’s activities. KARTA has evolved in ways parallel to the Russian Memorial Society, starting from a commitment to documenting a past that was censored or banned by Communist authorities and including a public education program that uses the newly available historical sources to provide information—especially to young audiences—about past repressive regimes and practices, the ways those regimes were experienced by ordinary citizens, and the efforts of many of those citizens to resist and to organize opposition. In this way, both KARTA and the Russian Memorial Society view themselves as civic organizations that aim to develop a culture of respect for human and civil rights through education, research, and archival preservation.
**Solidarność—narodziny ruchu** (Solidarity: The Birth of the Movement) is the final collection included from KARTA’s mass of materials. In 2003, its holdings were entered into the world list of UNESCO’s Memory of the World program. The collection began in 1982, when materials were first being gathered—clandestinely and without ties to other underground organizations. A group of activists and historians created **Archiwum Solidarności** (Archive of Solidarity) following a government raid on the Mazowsze Regional Solidarity radio station that resulted in their internment in a camp for oppositionists. The original archive was supplemented by materials from the Opposition Archive and it focuses most closely on the sixteen-month period from the founding of Solidarity in September 1980 to the imposition of martial law in December 1981.

The collection’s materials trace Solidarity’s emergence from the strike movement of July-August 1980 and the formation of strike committees in the factories and shipyards of Lublin, Gdansk, Szczecin, Jastrzebie, and Warsaw. Through these documents, the reader/scholar can trace the stages in the history of Solidarity—from the individual strike committees to the inter-factory strike committee and finally, to the founding congress of Solidarity as a self-governing national trade union, independent of the Communist party. The trade union movement quickly became a medium of mass civic opposition to the Communist regime. The workers of the Baltic shipyards were joined by intellectuals from the Catholic clubs and KOR—**Komitet obrony robotników** (Committee to Defend Workers)—as well as students, who eventually conducted their own mass strikes in support of the Solidarity movement and founded NZS—**Niezależne zrzeszenie studentów** (Independent Students’ Association)—in October 1980. The Solidarity collection contains materials on all these allies, and on the activities of the Catholic Church in Poland and its interactions with the Polish Pope (John Paul II) in Rome. The collection includes minutes of meetings at the regional and national levels, organizational statutes and constitutions, proclamations and manifestos, brochures, pamphlets, posters, and correspondence. These materials vividly reflect the period: the constant struggle between centralization and local autonomy; the reformist proposals of the opposition; and the rise of Lech Walesa to the leadership of the national movement.

The collection also documents the role of the party-state and its institutions, especially the courts, the Ministry of the Interior, the local police, and the Polish United Workers’ Party—the ruling Communist party of Poland. The
documentation of the opposition movement in Poland allows scholars to better understand this most important political crisis in late socialist Eastern Europe. Martial law was imposed in December 1981, under General Wojciech Jaruzelski; Solidarity activists were arrested or otherwise punished, yet they continued to resist the military dictatorship until elections brought them into the government in 1989. The Polish opposition played a crucial role in the end of Soviet rule in Eastern Europe and eventually, the complete collapse of the Soviet Union. The documents from this remarkable Warsaw collection will be of interest to scholars of democratization and opposition movements, and to those studying the politics of late Leninist party-states. They also chart the rise of human rights and the ascendance of an autonomous civil society in a state which, since its inception after World War II, had tried various tactics to establish a one-party monopoly on politics and ideas.

**GREAT PATRIOTIC WAR OF THE SOVIET UNION, 1941-1945**

**Source:** USSR Ministry of Defense. Translated by the U.S. Army Center of Military History and the Foreign Technology Division, Air Force Systems Command

**Period:** 1941-1945

**Content:** ~7,000 pages

**Product Number:** 16754875

**Release Quarter:** June

Originally published as Istoriia Velikoi Otechestvennoi Voyny Sovetskogo Soiuza (История Великой Отечественной войны Советского Союза) 1941-1945, published in Moscow in 1960 in six volumes by the USSR Ministry of Defense. This work was translated by the U.S. Army Center of Military History and the Foreign Technology Division, Air Force Systems Command.

The complete official Soviet history of World War II, a monumental work of over 9,000 pages, this collection provides Western scholars with an opportunity to study what is considered one of the most significant historical documents produced in the Soviet Union. In addition to its importance in the war’s historiography, this work is a valuable exposition of the development of a widely influential military doctrine.
This is a major British Heritage collection. Following the donation of the Old Royal Library to the British Museum by King George II in 1757, George III built up his own collection of printed books and manuscripts. These were in turn transferred to the British Museum after his death by George IV in 1823 and are known as The "King’s Collection". Most of the manuscripts in this collection date from the 17th and 18th centuries, but it does include works from the 15th and 16th centuries as well as from the 11th to 14th centuries. Military and historical works are most numerous followed by works of geography and travel, literature, religion and devotion, and “state papers”.

This collection offers a selection of distinguished medieval and post-medieval manuscripts from the King’s Manuscripts. The collection is important for understanding the cultural and intellectual environment of British monarchs from at least Edward IV to George III. They include “treasures” – high-quality, often illuminated manuscript books dedicated and presented to monarchs, manuscripts of important classical texts, examples of intellectual and literary works of the period and the working library of ruling monarchs from Edward IV to George II.

Examples:

- The “military” works include a Narrative of the Second Siege of Gibraltar, 1727 (18th C), and Memoire sur la guerre de Boheme, written apparently by a French officer of the Allied Army (1741-1742).
- Literary works include plays by Horace Walpole and Samuel Johnson, The Massacre at Paris with the Death of the Duke of Guise, by Christopher Marlowe (18th C), Poems by Italian Writers, and verses in honour of Queen Caroline.
- Among the works of travel are a Description of the Town of Sigtuna, in Sweden (18th C), and various chronicles of Venetian history.
- The religious and devotional works include some fine illuminated manuscripts such as Istoria del sacro concilio di Trento scritta da M. Antonio Milledonne, Secretario Venetiano (17th C).
- Documents include a Return by the South Sea Company to an order of [James] Stanhope, Secretary of State, 21 [Feb. 1715] (c 1715), an Account of the Institution for Orphans and Foundlings established in Bengal (1786), three treatises in Spanish relating to Mexico (17th C), and A letter to Samuel Johnson, LL.D., on the subject of a future state by John Taylor, LL.D.
- 15th century manuscripts of works of Juvenal, Cicero, and Virgil, as well as an 11th century manuscript of Ovid’s Metamorphases.
Walter Chauncey Camp (1859-1925) was known as “The Father of American Football”. Replying to a question, “What is your hobby today”, in a questionnaire from The Select Features Company (presumably around 1890), Walter Camp answered, “Athletics and physical fitness,” and it is interesting that his correspondence dealt principally with these two general subjects. Camp was a prolific letter writer who corresponded with Yale football stars, football coaches throughout the United States, authors, publishers, and prominent political U.S. political figures.

Another question in the questionnaire referred to above was, “What was your ambition when you were a boy?” Camp replied, “To write.” It would appear that this ambition was realized during his lifetime.

Approximately one-half of Camp’s writings are concerned with football, its history, reviews of the seasons, All-America teams and rules. Camp’s writings on other sports include rugby, baseball, track, golf, rowing and tennis, and a few articles on women in sports and athletics in general.

In addition to extensive correspondence, the collection includes newspaper and magazine clippings which Walter Camp collected from the local press and from subscription clipping services across the country, photographs, and family papers.
WAVES, RECORDS FOR THE ASST. CHIEF, NAVAL PERSONNEL FOR WOMEN, 1942-1972

Source: NARA
Period: 1942-1972
Content: ~20,000 pages
Product Number: 16754892
Release Quarter: December

Published in cooperation with the Operational Archives Branch of the Naval Historical Center, these records, collected by the Assistant Chief of Naval Personnel for Women, Office of the Chief of Naval Personnel, offer women’s studies scholars and military historians an invaluable tool for researching the increasingly important role of women in the military.

The WAVES (Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service) branch was created in 1942 when Congress authorized the Women’s Reserve of the U.S. Naval Reserve to permit women volunteers to serve within the continental United States. Legislation ultimately provided for one WAVES captain and unlimited numbers at lower ranks. After the war the Navy requested legislation for the inclusion of women within its permanent structure. By October 1948, both officers and enlisted women were sworn into the regular Navy.

These records contain information on the WAVES from 1942 to 1948 and on their subsequent activities and reunions through 1972.

Series I is arranged according to subject and contains primarily wartime and postwar materials, such as:

- comparison studies of men and women
- reports on planning, administration, training, and discipline
- recruiting and public relations policies
- personnel recommendations
- policy handbooks
- songs, information on etiquette, and material on WAVE reunions

Series II contains publicity materials and news files, and mainly covers postwar activities. The files are especially rich in press clippings and photographs of WAVES.

It’s a woman’s war too! Join the WAVES--Your country needs you now--Apply to your nearest Navy recruiting station or office of naval officer procurement / John Falter, USNR.

1942
Spanning the presidencies of Juan Antonio Ríos (1942–1946), Gabriel González Videla (1946–1952), Carlos Ibáñez (1952–1958), and Jorge Alessandri (1958–1964), this collection provides a history of the political relationship between the United States and Chile from the post-World War II era into the early years of the Cold War. The span of years covered by this collection represent the middle of Chile’s history as a Presidential Republic (1925-1973). Following World War II, Chile’s economy began to transform from an agricultural base to a greater reliance on manufacturing. From 1938-1952, the Partido Radical (Radical Party) held the government in Chile. During the presidency of Gabriel Gonzalez Videla (1946–1952) the Partido Radical was right-leaning, and many of its members were anti-Communists. 1952 saw the Conservative and Liberal parties, the Socialist Party, and the Radical Party all vying for the presidency, but it was General Carlos Ibáñez running as an independent who took the reins of the country. He campaigned on a promise to clean up political corruption and end bad government. One notable reform Ibáñez enacted was the repeal of the Ley de Defensa de la Democracia (Law for the Defense of Democracy), which had banned the Communist Party. Also notable during this time period, women were granted the right to vote and stand for election.

Publications relating to political relations between the United States and other states generally include cables, memoranda, and correspondence addressing the political affairs and concerns affecting the particular state. Covering primarily the early Cold War documents, this collection gives researchers a unique insight into American foreign policy during one of its most stressful periods in international relations. After World War II, with only two superpowers vying for influence, access, and control, the United States looked to its state department to provide detailed analyses and insight into political affairs. As such these records are bound to be of great interest to diplomatic historians and historians studying these countries, seeking to understand American foreign affairs during this period.

The documents found in these files are predominantly instructions to – and despatches from – diplomatic and consular officials and are often accompanied by enclosures. Notes between the Department of State and foreign diplomats in the United States, memoranda prepared by State Department officials, and correspondence with officials of other government departments, as well as with private businesses and persons, are also included.
The history of Colombia following the Second World War was most notably marked by La Violencia (The Violence), a ten-year civil war spanning the years 1948 to 1958, between the Colombian Conservative Party and the Colombian Liberal Party. La Violencia conflict took place between the Military Forces of Colombia and the National Police of Colombia supported by Colombian Conservative Party paramilitary groups on one side, and paramilitary and guerrilla groups aligned with the Colombian Liberal Party and the Colombian Communist Party on the other side. The war was mostly fought in the Colombian countryside, with Conservative-supporting peasants seizing the agricultural lands of Liberal-supporting peasants, which provoked peasant-to-peasant violence throughout the country. Most estimates indicate 200,000 people lost their lives during La Violencia.

This period of Colombian history saw numerous presidencies and a military coup. Alfonso López Pumarejo served as President from 1942-1945 as a member of the Colombian Liberal Party. He was succeeded by Luis Mariano Ospina Pérez (1945-1950), a member of the Colombian Conservative Party. 1948 saw the founding of the Organization of American States, with Colombian Alberto Lleras Camargo serving as the first Secretary General until 1954. Laureano Eleuterio Gómez Castro, a Colombian politician and civil engineer, served as President of Colombia from 1950 to 1953, coming to power during La Violencia. During his presidency, activists and sympathizers of Liberal Party and Communist Party and the members of Protestant minority were persecuted. A military coup in 1953 toppled the right-wing government of Gómez and brought General Gustavo Rojas Pinilla (1953-1957) to power. In July 1957, former Conservative President Laureano Gómez (1950–1953) and former Liberal President Alberto Lleras (1945–1946, 1958–1962) issued the "Declaration of Sitges," in which they proposed a "National Front," whereby the Liberal and Conservative parties would govern jointly. The presidency would be determined by an alternating conservative and liberal president every 4 years for 16 years; the two parties would have parity in all other elective offices.

The National Front ended "La Violencia", and National Front administrations attempted to institute far-reaching social and economic reforms in cooperation with the Alliance for Progress. In particular, the Liberal president Alberto Lleras Camargo (1958–1962) created the Colombian Institute for Agrarian Reform (INCORA).

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The time period covered by this collection bore witness to dramatic changes in Costa Rican government and society, including the end of the First Republic. Teodoro Picado Michalski was the president of Costa Rica from 1944 to 1948. Picado’s administration enacted many laws to modernize the state. The most prominent was the electoral reform of 1945, which created a modern Electoral Code of Laws and a Supreme Tribunal of Elections. To this day, the Electoral Code provides a guarantee of the Nation’s continued democratic elections.

In the 1948 election for Picado’s successor as Costa Rica’s President, Picado supported his predecessor, Rafael Ángel Calderón Guardia, who hoped to win a second term. Former President Calderón lost the popular vote in a tight election to Otilio Ulate Blanco. This was the first time that elections were being held under the new Electoral Code of Laws and governed by the Tribunal of Elections, and certain anomalies were committed with regard to the vote counting deadlines and the loss of ballots. As a result, Calderón supporters in the legislature invalidated the election results in accordance with the Constitution. In March–April 1948, the protests over the election results grew into a revolution. José Figueres Ferrer, along with other landowners and student agitators, hoped to overthrow the Costa Rican government. Figueres, with the help of “La Legion del Caribe” of which Fidel Castro was a prominent member, led the revolution, defeating the Costa Rican Army, loyal to Calderón and President Picado. With more than 2,000 dead, the 44-day civil war resulting from this uprising was the bloodiest event in 20th-century Costa Rican history.

Although not deposed by force, don Teodoro relinquished the presidency to his vice-president, Santos León Herrera, who was left in charge of the country as Interim President as part of the deal to end the armed uprising led by Figueres over the disputed elections for his successor. Herrera’s time in office was short, with Figueres soon taking over as President of a provisional

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junta and holding power briefly from 8 May 1948 – 8 November 1949. The victorious junta drafted a constitution guaranteeing free elections with universal suffrage and the abolition of the military. Following these reforms, Figueres handed over power to Otilio Ulate Blanco, who served as President from 1949-1953. In 1953, Figueres returned to power as a national hero, winning the first election under the new constitution, serving in office until 1958.

A notable period of instability occurred in 1954-1955 during a border war with Nicaragua. A Nicaraguan armed incursion was backed by the CIA as a favor to Nicaraguan dictator Anastasio Somoza García. President Figueres, appealed to the Organization of American States, pointing out that Costa Rica had no defense against “modern weapons”. The council of the organization immediately authorized the United States to sell four P-51 Mustang fighters to Costa Rica for a dollar apiece. The U.S. State Department then exerted pressure and diplomatically forced a withdrawal of the Nicaraguan forces and a cessation of hostilities.

It should be noted that since the abolition of the armed forces in 1948, Costa Rica has been one of the few democracies to operate without a standing army.

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Much of the 20th century history of Ecuador involved internal struggles between liberals and conservatives, and a territorial dispute between Peru and Ecuador that evolved into armed conflict in 1941 and was settled with the Protocol of Peace, Friendship, and Boundaries between Peru and Ecuador, or Rio Protocol for short, signed in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, on January 29, 1942. 20th century Ecuadoran history was also shaped by one man in particular, José María Velasco Ibarra. His five presidential terms began with a mandate in 1934 and final presidency ending in 1972. He served in 1934–1935, 1944–1947, 1952–1956, 1960–1961, and 1968–1972. Only in 1952–1956 was he able to complete a full term as President. In his four other terms, he was removed by military force, and several times he was installed as president through a military coup.

The postwar era (1944–1948)

The Quiteño multitudes stood in the pouring rain on May 31, 1944, to hear Velasco promise a “national resurrection”, with social justice and due punishment for the “corrupt Liberal oligarchy” that had been responsible for “staining the national honor”, believed that they were witnessing the birth of a popular revolution. Arroyo partisans were promptly jailed or sent into exile, while Velasco verbally baited the business community and the rest of the political right. The leftist elements within Velasco’s Democratic Alliance, which dominated the constituent assembly that was convened to write a new constitution, were nonetheless destined to be disappointed.

In May 1945, after a year of growing hostility between the president and the assembly, which was vainly awaiting deeds to substantiate Velasco’s rhetorical advocacy of social justice, the mercurial chief executive condemned and then repudiated the newly completed constitution. After dismissing the assembly, Velasco held elections for a new assembly, which in 1946 drafted a far more conservative constitution that met with the president’s approval. For this brief period, Conservatives replaced the left as Velasco’s base of support.

Rather than attending to the nation’s economic problems, however, Velasco aggravated them by financing the dubious schemes of his associates. Inflation continued unabated, as did its negative impact on the national standard of living, and by 1947 foreign exchange reserves had fallen to dangerously low levels. In August, when Velasco was ousted by his minister of defense, nobody rose to defend the man who, only three years earlier, had been hailed as the nation’s savior. During the following year, three different men briefly held executive power before Galo Lincoln Plaza Lasso de la Vega, running under a coalition of independent Liberals and socialists, narrowly defeated his Conservative opponent in presidential elections. His inauguration in September 1948 initiated what was to become the longest period of constitutional rule since the 1912–24 heyday of the Liberal plutocracy.
Constitutional rule (1947–1960)

Galo Plaza differed from previous Ecuadorian presidents by bringing a developmentalist and technocratic emphasis to Ecuadorian government. No doubt Galo Plaza’s most important contribution to Ecuadorian political culture was his commitment to the principles and practices of democracy. As president he promoted the agricultural exports of Ecuador, creating economic stability. During his presidency, an earthquake near Ambato severely damaged the city and surrounding areas and killed approximately 8,000 people. Unable to succeed himself, he left his office in 1952 as the first president in 28 years to complete his term in office.

A proof of the politically stabilizing effect of the banana boom of the 1950s is that even Velasco, who in 1952 was elected president for the third time, managed to serve out a full four-year term. Velasco’s fourth term in the presidency initiated a renewal of crisis, instability, and military domination and ended conjecture that the political system had matured or developed in a democratic mold. Much of Velasco’s support during the 1950s came from the Conservatives, the conservative Social Christian Movement (Movimiento Social Cristiano, MSC), and the highly nationalistic, anticommunist, quasi-fascist Ecuadorian Nationalist Revolutionary Action (Acción Revolucionaria Nacionalista Ecuatoriana, ARNE).

On repeated occasions, members of ARNE acted as thugs and shock troops, attacking students, labor unions, and the press. In 1955 Velasco also chose to pick a fight with the United States. In the opening round of what would later become known as the “tuna war,” Ecuadorian officials seized two fishing boats carrying the United States flag, charging them with fishing inside the 200-nautical mile limit claimed by Ecuador as territorial seas under its sovereignty.

Camilo Ponce Enríquez served as President of Ecuador between 1956 and 1960, coming to power after a close election replete with allegations of fraud. Ponce’s term saw the end of the banana boom that had sustained more than a decade of constitutional rule. Falling export prices led to rising unemployment and a social malaise that briefly erupted into riots in 1959. By the following year, the effects of the discontent were ready to be exploited by the populist appeal of the irrepressible Velasco, who was elected with his widest margin of victory ever. Velasco’s fourth turn in the presidency initiated a renewal of crisis, instability, and military domination and ended conjecture that the political system had matured or developed a democratic mold.

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Much of the United States’ 19th and 20th century dealings with Panama revolved around its commercial and military interests in transit across the Isthmus. This began in 1846, when the US and New Granada (later Panama) signed the Mallarino–Bidlack Treaty (also known as the Treaty of New Granada), granting the US right of way across the Isthmus, and the authority to intervene militarily should there be any threats to New Granada’s sovereignty. This treaty opened the door for US political, commercial, and military influence in the Panamanian Isthmus. US interests in Panama continued in 1855 with the completion of the Panama Railway, and culminated in 1914 with the completion of the Panama Canal. The Hay–Bunau-Varilla Treaty (Tratado Hay-Bunau Varilla) was a treaty signed on November 18, 1903, by the United States and Panama, which established the Panama Canal Zone and the subsequent construction of the Panama Canal. It was named after its two primary negotiators, Philippe-Jean Bunau-Varilla, the French diplomatic representative of Panama, and United States Secretary of State John Hay. This treaty was a source of conflict between Panama and the United States since its creation. The Canal Zone became a racially and socially segregated area, set aside from the country of Panama. Riots in 1964 over Panamanian sovereignty of the Canal Zone led to the Torrijos–Carter Treaties (Tratados Torrijos-Carter) of 1977, which eventually allowed for the transfer of full control of the Panama Canal to Panama on December 31, 1999.

From 1903 until 1968, the Republic of Panama was dominated by a commercially oriented oligarchy mainly made up of post-colonial aristocratic families. During the 1950s, the Panamanian military began to challenge the oligarchy’s political hegemony. Coups, political maneuvering, and various intrigues plagued Panamanian politics and society throughout this period. Arnulfo Arias Madrid, President of Panama from 1949-1951, warned of the increasing influence of the military up to the point where his presidency ended in a coup. Throughout the decade of the 1950s, a succession of Presidents were installed and removed from office by the military. From 1952 until his death in 1955, Colonel José Antonio Remón Cantera held the presidency as Panama’s first military strongman. His influence in Panamanian politics dated back into the 1940s. In 1953, Remón’s administration negotiated amendments to the Panama Canal treaty with the U.S. administration of President Dwight D. Eisenhower. These negotiations led to the Remón-Eisenhower Treaty, ratified in 1955, that substantially raised the annual annuity paid to Panama (from $430,000 to $1.9 million) and resulted in the handover of approximately $20 million in property from the Panama Canal Company to Panama.

Following Remón’s death, two more Presidents came and went in quick succession in 1955 and 1956, until the election of Ernesto de la Guardia Navarro who served as President of Panama from October 1, 1956 to October
1945-1959 was a period of change and turbulence in the Republic of Paraguay (República del Paraguay). Following the death in a plane crash of President José Félix Estigarribia in 1940, General Higinio Nicolás Morínigo Martínez was chosen by the army and Liberal ministers as interim President for the two-month period leading to new Presidential elections. Not willing to give up power, Morínigo postponed elections, banned all political parties, and assumed dictatorial powers, a move that would see him in command and control from 1940-1948. He announced a policy of “discipline, hierarchy and order” (disciplina, jerarquía, y orden) and stated that persons who spread subversive ideas would be “subject to confinement”. Morínigo, many Paraguayan military officers, and government officials were sympathetic to
the Axis cause, much to the consternation of the United States. The US eventually forced Morínigo to sever diplomatic ties with the Axis countries, but he kept Paraguay neutral throughout the Second World War, while maintaining close ties with the German-influenced Argentine military.

Following the Second World War, Morínigo created a civilian coalition government and allowed some political freedoms, going so far as to legalize the Paraguayan Communist Party. Nevertheless, his continuing suppression of opposition groups led to a civil war in 1947 known as the Barefoot Revolution. Equipped with surplus weapons from the United States and vital support from Argentina under Juan Perón, Morínigo put down the revolution. In 1948, Morínigo organized an election and supported the only candidate allowed to run, Juan Natalicio González. González only served a brief term, 15 August 1948 to 30 January 1949, before being driven out of power by a coup d’état. There followed a chaotic period which saw two more presidential administrations in a short span of time – Brigadier General Raimundo Rolón Villasanti was briefly President of Paraguay from January 30, 1949, to February 27, 1949; Felipe Benigno Molas López served President of Paraguay from February 27, 1949 – September 10, 1949, when he resigned. The chaos ended with the election of Federico Chávez Careaga, a Paraguayan politician and soldier who served as President of Paraguay from September 10, 1949, to May 4, 1954. Upon his re-election in 1954, Chávez tried to strengthen his regime by arming the national police. A coup d’état led by General Alfredo Stroessner on May 4 ended his administration. From May 4, 1954, to August 15, 1954, the presidency was briefly held by Tomás Romero Pereira as a compromise between the military who led the coup and the Colorado Party who was in power. On July 11, 1954, an election was held with Stroessner as the sole candidate and Romero handed over the presidency.

General Alfredo Stroessner Matiauda would define Paraguayan politics and foreign relations for 35 years from 15 August 1954 to 3 February 1989. Upon assuming the presidency, Stroessner quickly suspended constitutional and civil rights, and began a period of harsh repression with the support of the army and the military police (which also served as a secret or political police) against anyone who opposed his authoritarian rule. Throughout his tenure in office, Stroessner ruled the country under martial law, suspending civil liberties, and placing the country under a state of siege. Stroessner’s Paraguay became a haven for Nazi war criminals, including Josef Mengele, and non-communist peaceful opposition was crushed. Given Stroessner’s affinity for Nazism and harboring of Nazi war criminals, foreign press often referred to his government as the “poor man’s Nazi regime”. Despite his draconian rule and widespread human rights violations, Stroessner was a devoted anti-communist, earning him the support of the United States during the Cold War.

As a sidenote, Stroessner’s own presidency would end in a coup d’état led by his most trusted confidant, Major General Andrés Rodríguez Pedotti, with the support of the army.

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This period of the history of the Peruvian Republic not only saw the end of the Second World War, but was also near the end of the era in Peru known as the Democratic Spring (Primavera Democrática), 1939-1948. This period saw Manuel Carlos Prado y Ugarteche serve two terms as President, 1939 – 1945, and 1956 – 1962. During the Second World War, Peru supported the United States in the war against the Axis powers and both countries shared close ties. Prado’s government was democratic and enjoyed popular support, including the support of the Peruvian Communist Party. On a darker note, Peru followed the example of the United States in its treatment of its Japanese immigrant population. During the war, Peru rounded up around 2,000 of its own Japanese immigrants and sent them to the United States for internment.

Following the close of the Second World War, José Luis Bustamante y Rivero took over as President of Peru from 1945 to 1948, enjoying the support of the Peruvian Aprista Party (Partido Aprista Peruano, PAP) – a member of the Socialist International – and the Peruvian Communist Party. Bustamente attempted to create a more democratic society with full freedom of the press and support for civil rights, as well as limiting the power of the military and oligarchy. Tensions eventually rose with the Apristas, and a brief Naval insurrection in 1948 was crushed, with Bustamente thereafter suspending all civil rights. Postwar economic problems and labor union strife led to a military coup on October 29, 1948, which led General Manuel A. Odría to become the new President.

Odría held power from 1948-1956. A populist, Odría was favored by the poor, but his government restricted civil rights and corruption was rampant. Surprisingly in 1956, Odría legalized opposition parties and called for elections, culminating in the return to power of Manuel Carlos Prado y Ugarteche. During his second term, Prado sought to enact agrarian reform, promote industry, improve education, and integrate Peru into John F. Kennedy’s Alliance for Progress, which was implemented as a means of developing Latin America.

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**RECORDS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE RELATING TO POLITICAL RELATIONS BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND URUGUAY, 1945-1959**

*Source: NARA*

*Period: 1945-1959*

*Content: ~1,000 pages*

*Product Number: 16754889*

*Release Quarter: September*

In February 1945 Uruguay signed the Declaration by United Nations and officially declared war on the Axis power, although it did not participate in any actual fighting. Prior to 1945, Uruguay came to the attention of the world as the final resting place of the German pocket battleship *Admiral Graf Spee*, scuttled in the port of Montevideo in December 1939 following the Battle of the River Plate.

During the Second World War and the Korean War, Paraguay saw economic prosperity supplying beef, wool, and leather to the Allies. Juan José de Amézaga Landaroso, President from 1943-1947, led his country through the closing years of the Second World War. A reformer, Amézaga passed laws concerning social welfare, education, improved working conditions, and healthcare. Amézaga was succeeded by Tomás Berreta Gandolfo, who died in office just five months into his tenure, and was succeeded by his Vice President, Luis Conrado Batlle y Berres, who would serve as President from 1947-1951, and again from 1955-1956. Batlle enacted numerous social reforms in the health and education sectors, including laws protecting and supporting women during and after pregnancy.

From 1952-1967, the presidency was effectively abolished and a nine-member National Council of Government (Consejo Nacional de Gobierno) was established in its place. The “presidency” rotated among the members of the majority party, with presidents serving annual terms. The idea behind this collegiate body (colegiado) was that it would lower the risk of a dictatorship emerging. Ultimately, the NGC proved ineffective, and it was abolished in a 1966 referendum.

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Arguably, Venezuela’s 20th century history has been most notably impacted by the discovery and exploitation of its petroleum reserves. Foreign investment in development of the oil fields led to great wealth for foreign investors, the Venezuelan government, and those individuals to whom the government granted concessions.

The span of years between 1945-1959 began with a coup d’état in 1945, when President Isaías Medina Angarita was overthrown by a combination of a military rebellion and a popular movement led by Democratic Action, a social democratic political party. In 1947, free elections were held and Rómulo Ángel del Monte Carmelo Gallegos Freire, a novelist and politician, was elected President. In office only for a brief span of months in 1948, Gallegos nevertheless was able to raise the State’s tax revenue for oil profits and implemented an open-door immigration policy, which led to an influx of Italian immigrants.

1948 saw another coup d’état when Carlos Delgado Chalbaud, Marcos Pérez Jiménez and Luis Felipe Llovera Páez overthrew the elected president, Rómulo Gallegos. General Marcos Evangelista Pérez Jiménez took over the country as dictator, ruling from 1950 to 1958. Rising oil prices led to infrastructure projects and industrial development, and Venezuela’s economy developed rapidly. Pérez tolerated no opposition, and his political police, the Dirección de Seguridad Nacional (National Security), suppressed criticism and imprisoned those who opposed his rule. Interestingly, Pérez himself was overthrown by a military coup on 23 January 1958.
Publications relating to political relations between the United States and other states generally include cables, memoranda, and correspondence addressing the political affairs and concerns affecting the particular state. Covering primarily the early Cold War documents, this collection gives researchers a unique insight into American foreign policy during one of its most stressful periods in international relations. After World War II, with only two superpowers vying for influence, access, and control, the United States looked to its state department to provide detailed analyses and insight into political affairs. As such these records are bound to be of great interest to diplomatic historians and historians studying these countries, seeking to understand American foreign affairs during this period.

The documents found in these files are predominantly instructions to – and despatches from – diplomatic and consular officials and are often accompanied by enclosures. Notes between the Department of State and foreign diplomats in the United States, memoranda prepared by State Department officials, and correspondence with officials of other government departments, as well as with private businesses and persons, are also included.

**LAW, POLITICS, AND RADICAL STUDIES**

**HENRY LEWIS STIMSON DIARIES, 1909-1945**

*Source:* Yale University Library  
*Period:* 1909-1945  
*Content:* ~9,000 pages  
*Product Number:* 16754870  
*Release Quarter:* June

The Henry Lewis Stimson diaries, spanning the years 1909-45, cover a long public career and offer scholars an invaluable historical source. Stimson began keeping the diaries in 1909 when he was forty-two years old. Characteristically, he made a conscious decision at that time to keep a full record of his public life, and the diary was maintained down to his last day in public office on September 21, 1945. Although the diaries are full of strongly expressed views on people, issues, and events, many statements are veiled or guarded, and revelations of the private man are few and inadvertent. As a political document, however, and as a political testament the diaries stand as a significant personal account of the career of an American statesman of the first rank.

The diaries are most detailed during those years that Stimson held public office, as secretary of war under President William Howard Taft (1911-1913), colonel of field artillery with the American Expeditionary Force in France (1917-1918), special envoy of President Calvin Coolidge to Nicaragua (1927), governor general of the Philippine Islands (1928-1929), secretary of state under President Herbert Hoover (1929-1933), and secretary of war under Presidents Franklin D. Roosevelt and Harry S. Truman (1940-1945). During the last two periods, Stimson made almost daily entries and frequently placed supporting documentation with the account. His method of work at that time was to bring home each night selected papers which were used for reference purposes while he dictated his entry for that day into a dictaphone machine. His dictation was usually transcribed the next morning by his secretary and ordinarily amounted to not less than two pages or more than five pages for each day. Although this
The October 20, 1950 death of Henry Lewis Stimson (1867-1950) marked the end of an extraordinarily long career of public service. A Republican, Stimson served as Secretary of War under William H. Taft (1911-1913), Secretary of State under Herbert Hoover (1929-1933), and Secretary of War under Franklin D. Roosevelt and Harry S. Truman (1940-1945). Stimson, an early proponent of military preparedness, fought in World War I, headed a special electoral mission to Nicaragua in 1927, served as Governor General of the Philippines from 1927-1929, and was an active public commentator and informal advisor on foreign affairs during the building international crisis of the 1930s and after World War II.

The papers consist of correspondence, letter books, speeches, articles, letters to the editor, statements prepared for presentation to Congress and substantial subject files with clippings, printed matter, reports, memoranda and photographs related to Henry Stimson’s various public offices. While the method produced a fuller account than is to be found in the diary for other years, his account of daily happenings often seems incomplete and haphazard. Many topics received careful attention, but others, equally significant, were mentioned only briefly or ignored. For the non-cabinet years, the coverage is even more general and casual. Stimson kept his diaries in his office during the Roosevelt years, referring to them occasionally. After his retirement in September 1945, he took them to his home, Highhold, in Huntington, Long Island. The handwritten marginal notes appearing throughout the diaries were for the most part written by Stimson himself, probably during the preparation of On Active Service in Peace and War. This account of Stimson’s public career, on which he collaborated with McGeorge Bundy, was published in 1947. In 1948, he named Yale University Library as the depository for his diaries as well as for his massive collection of papers. The diary volumes were brought to Yale in 1956. With the exception of a few handwritten volumes, the fifty-two volumes of diaries are in typescript, each containing an average of about 180 pages secured in a spring binder.

In 1971, Yale University Library Manuscripts and Archives, with the permission of the Stimson Literary Trust, undertook to index the diaries and to film them for publication. In preparing them for filming, each volume was separately paginated, the page number appearing in the upper right-hand corner. When filmed the fifty-two volumes filled nine reels, each reel containing approximately 1,200 frames. The frames are numbered consecutively to the end of each reel. The index prepared for each reel was filmed at the beginning of that reel. Each frame has been digitized and follows the original guide.

In order to obtain a more complete picture of Stimson’s activities and times, the reader should consult the vast body of his correspondence and other papers in the collection Henry Lewis Stimson Papers, 1846-1966.

HENRY LEWIS STIMSON PAPERS, 1867-1950

Source: Yale University Library
Period: 1846-1966
Content: ~169,000 pages
Product Number: 16754880
Release Quarter: June
official records of Stimson’s service (as Secretary of War under President Taft, Secretary of State under Herbert Hoover and as Secretary of War in the cabinets of Presidents Roosevelt and Truman) are all in the National Archives, the substantial correspondence, as well as other papers, in this collection provide important records of his activities as a private citizen and in office and on special missions. His work in Latin America in helping to settle a dispute between Chile and Peru in 1926, and as the United States representative seeking to bring an end to a civil war in Nicaragua in 1927 is shown in the papers with first-hand reports and background material.

His service as Secretary of State under Hoover (1929-1933) is particularly well documented with memoranda of conversations with foreign diplomatic representatives, and briefing books presenting background information on foreign affairs for the period. Of major importance are Stimson’s diaries which span the years 1904-1945, covering the entire period of his public career and including references to the early stages of the development of the atom bomb.

Extensive family papers include the correspondence (1846-1966) of Stimson’s parents, sister, and other relatives. In his father’s papers are a series of diaries (1864-1916). There is also a collection of letters by Stimson to his wife and to other family members.

The Henry Lewis Stimson Diaries, 1909-1945, provide additional historical context to the life of this fascinating individual.

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**MIDDLE EASTERN STUDIES**

**PALESTINE STATEHOOD COMMITTEE RECORDS, 1939-1949**

**Source:** Yale University Library  
**Period:** 1933-1972, majority of the material found within 1939-1949  
**Content:** ~19,000 pages  
**Product Number:** 16754879  
**Release Quarter:** June

The Palestine Statehood Committee Records, 1939-1949, “Concerning the campaigns for a Jewish Army; to save the Jewish people of Europe and the establishment of a Hebrew Republic in Palestine” consist of correspondence, memoranda, reports, publications, advertisements, and clippings related to five committees active in the United States from 1939 to 1949: the American Friends of a Jewish Palestine, the Committee for an Army of Stateless and Palestinian Jews, the Emergency Committee to Save the Jewish People of Europe, the American League for a Free Palestine, and the Hebrew Committee of National Liberation. Among these papers are selected materials spanning the years 1939-1942 on the activities of similar groups in Great Britain and France: the British League for a Free Palestine, and the Ligue francaise pour une Palestine libre.

The Committee’s goals included the creation of an independent Jewish army to fight the Axis powers, the rescue and repatriation of European Jews in Palestine, and the re-establishment of a Jewish nation in an independent Palestine. The groups were sympathetic to the Revisionist Zionist movement
and the Irgun Zvai Leumi and included the American Friends of a Jewish Palestine, the Committee for an Army of Stateless and Palestinian Jews, the Emergency Committee to Save the Jewish People of Europe, the American League for a Free Palestine, and the Hebrew Committee of National Liberation. Individuals involved in these committees include Peter H. Bergson, Eri Jabotinsky, Samuel Merlin and Arieh Ben Eliezer. Correspondents include religious leaders, politicians and others interested in the problem of the Jews and Palestine.

The papers have been organized into four series: I. Correspondence, II. Public Statements, Press Releases, Reports, and Clippings, III. Subject Files, IV. Files of The Answer, advertisements, and clippings. Each series contains papers in Hebrew as well as in English. From the contents of Series I and Series II can be derived a chronology of the activities of the committees and a background of events which influenced their actions. Series III provides additional information on individuals, organizations, and topics of importance from Series I and II. Series IV is a record of the publicity campaign directed by the committees in the United States.

**RELIGIOUS STUDIES**

**THE INQUISITIONS: MANUSCRIPTS OF THE SPANISH, PORTUGUESE, AND FRENCH INQUISITIONS IN THE BRITISH LIBRARY, LONDON**

**Source:** British Library  
**Period:** 13th – 18th Century  
**Content:** ~35,000 pages  
**Product Number:** 16754876  
**Release Quarter:** September

*The Inquisitions* presents a remarkable collection of original manuscripts of the Spanish and other Inquisitions from the 13th to the 18th centuries. Acquired from antiquarian collectors and diplomats over the centuries, the collection features unique originals and early transcripts of statutes, tracts, trial proceedings, correspondence, and original papers of the Council of the General Inquisition in Spain.

While scholarship has focused on the Inquisition’s persecution of Jews and Moors – witnessed here by such documents as Egerton 1511, on the 16th century Moorish rising in Valencia – the collection gives a much broader picture of the workings of the Inquisition, and many documents concern the Inquisition’s suppression of other “heretical” groups such as the Waldensians and Cathars, particularly in Catalonia. The notorious “Autos da Fé”, in which convicted prisoners were paraded and sentenced, are vividly recorded in such manuscripts as Egerton 568, 1887, and 2058, and Add. Mss 21447 and 33963.
From the “Diccionario de la Ley de la Inquisición” at Egerton 457-458, and the first technical manual for Inquisitors, drawn up by Bernardo Gui in Carcassonne in 1323-24 at Egerton 1897, to the volumes of letters of Philip II at Add. Ms 28357, the collection gives fascinating insight into the role played by the Inquisition in both theological debate and political strategy throughout much of Catholic Europe, particularly in the 16th century.

One key figure in the British Library collection is Fray Bartolomé Carranza de Miranda – subject in 1576 of what has been called “the most famous trial of the Spanish Inquisition.” Add. Ms 8690 contains an inventory of the trial up to 1567 and full documentation of the trial in Rome between 1567-76, while Egerton 599 contains further trial material and the sentence given in Rome whereby he was ordered to abjure 16 heretical propositions. Egerton 460 is a manuscript copy of Mendoza’s 1613 “Life of Carranza.” The significance of all these documents to the history of the 16th century church is only now beginning to emerge.

Taken together, the original documents and accounts — the letters, commentaries, and historiographies of the Inquisition preserved in the British Library and published together here for the first time — offer an invaluable primary source foundation for any serious study of the role of the Inquisitions in early modern Europe.

The manuscripts reproduced in *The Inquisitions: Manuscripts of the Spanish, Portuguese, and French Inquisitions* date from the 13th century, and are in some cases extremely fragile or darkened. While every attempt has been made to produce the clearest images possible, the nature of the original volumes has in some cases posed problems, and researchers should bear in mind that images occasionally reflect text which is faded, stained, shadowed by curvature due to tight binding, or suffering from bleed-through. The manuscripts in the collection are reproduced in their catalogue order, as found within the individual collections retained at the British Library, thus the Egerton, Sloane, and Stowe manuscripts precede those from the general sequence of Additional Manuscripts. The sequence of the edition therefore reflects the order of acquisition rather than chronological history.

Attention should be drawn to the nature of the printed material within the collection. This sometimes consists of documents printed or written with a variety of inks and on paper that has become severely discoloured or stained rendering the original difficult to read. Occasionally volumes have been tightly bound and this leads to text loss. Such inherent characteristics present difficulties of image and contrast which stringent tests and camera alterations cannot entirely overcome. Every effort has been made to minimise these difficulties though there are occasional pages which have proved impossible to reproduce satisfactorily. Conscious of this we have chosen to include these pages in order to make available the complete volume.
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