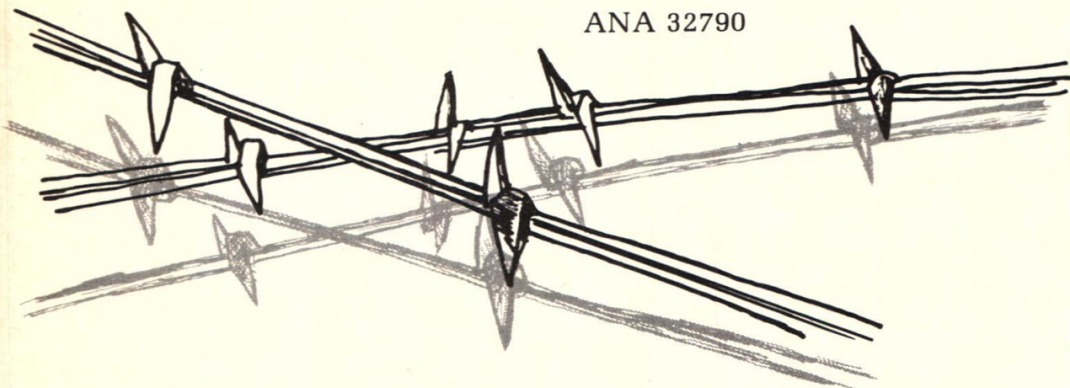
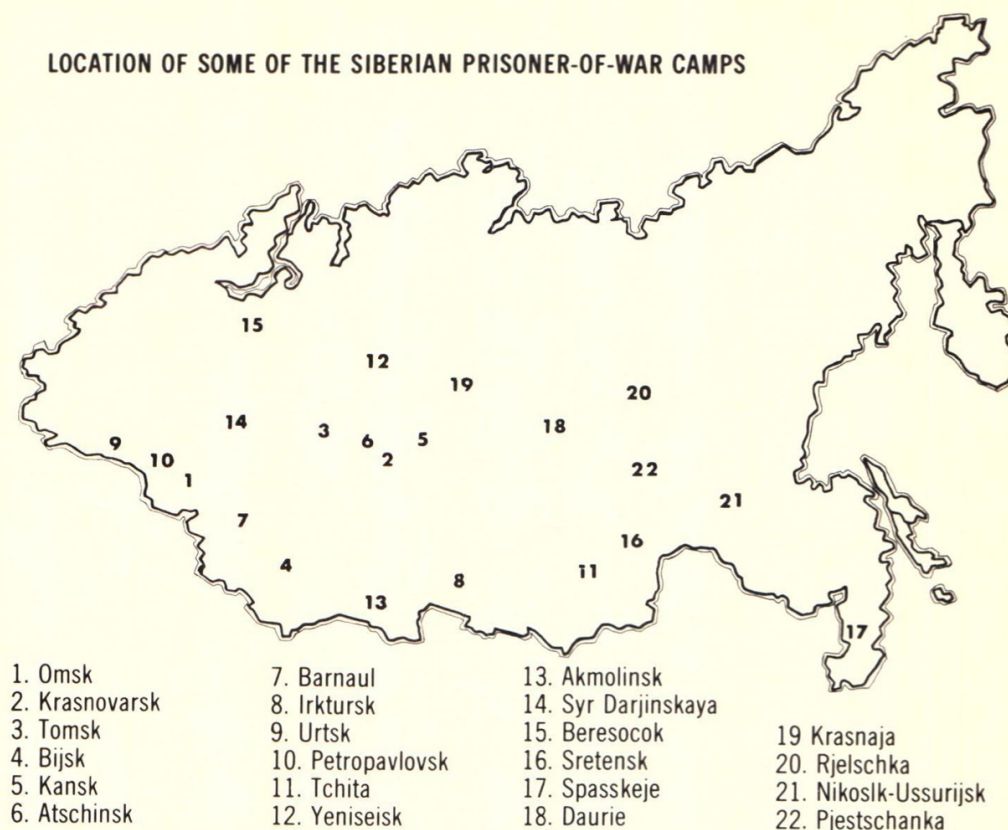


*My sincere hope is that this article will prove valuable not only to those few who may have these notes in their collections, but that it will also illustrate to all readers the extent that man will go to provide himself with money in order to obtain the necessities of life.*

Victor C. Seibert  
ANA 32790



# LOCATION OF SOME OF THE SIBERIAN PRISONER-OF-WAR CAMPS



(Although the actual years of the World War I were 1914-1918, an additional two years are included in this account to include some of the soldiers imprisoned in these camps as a result of military action during the Russian Civil War and Foreign Interventionist Period—1918-1921).

A few catalogues of the World War I Siberian Prisoner-of-War Camp paper money do exist, for example: Kardakoff, "Katalog der Geldscheine von Russland und der Baltischen Staaten," pages 260-274; Denis, "Catalogue des Monnaies emises sur le Territoire de la Russie," pages 107-108; Chuchin, "Catalogue of Bonds and Paper Money of Russia," pages 110-111. These are of great value but do not give the historical background, the causes for their issue, nor the problems encountered in their make-up and printing. It is the intent of this article to present all facets of these notes.

Since the Imperial Russian army was unusually successful in the first year of the World War I about two million prisoners were taken, mostly

Austrians and Hungarians. So a large number of these prisoner-of-war camps were necessary. According to the Young Men's Christian Association's publication, "Services With the Fighting Men," Russia established 771 such camps in Russia and 120 in Siberia. These prisoner-of-war camps were established in accordance with Second Hague Convention of 1907 which allowed "Prisoners of war may be interned in a town, fortress, camp, or other place and bound not to go beyond certain fixed limits; but they cannot be confined except as an indispensable measure of safety and only while the circumstances which necessitate the measure to exist." This article will now concern itself only with the



Siberian camps.

For the purpose of this article it would be tiring to name all of the 120 prisoner-of-war camps located in Siberia. Suffice it to say that these were some of the locations: Omsk, Kansk, Atschinsk, Barnaul, Beresocok, Bijsk, Dauria, Krasnaja, Rjelschka, Krasnovarsk, Nilolsk-Ussuryysk, Petropawlovsk, Pjestschanka, Tomsk, Tschita, Sretensk and Spasskaje. No evidence has been found by this author that these camps were ever located within the city; but rather that they were some distance from the city to make escape more difficult. About 46 per cent of the prisoners taken by the Russian Imperial Army were imprisoned in Siberian camps and 54 per cent in the camps in Russia itself.

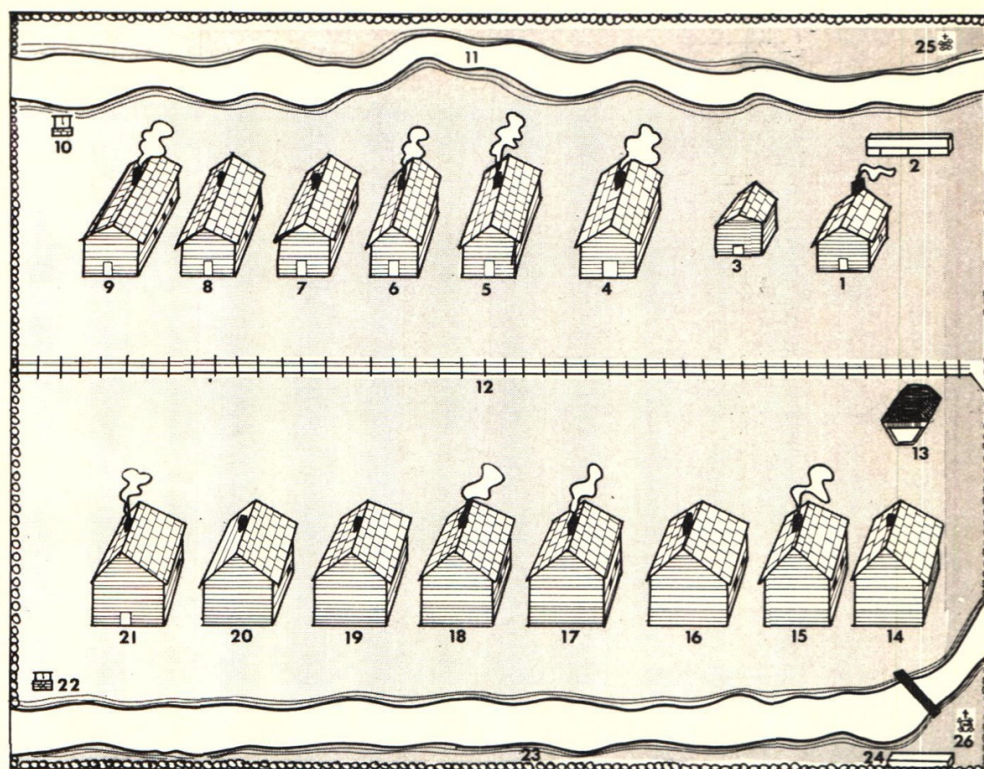
It can be expected that in the 120 camps there would be some variation as to arrangement and in structural features. So, the description given to them herein is one that is based on information given in such books as "Service with Fighting Men" and "Siberia and the Exile System." Since most of the Siberian camps were located in the Taiga region, the structures were made of the native lumber found in the camp's locale. The camp site was usually located on low, marshy ground near a stream which would provide drinking water procured from the upside of the camp and a waste disposal system at the downside of the camp. From a distance the camp looked like a cattle stable with its squared and unpainted logs. The camp itself was almost always in a square shape. On the east side was a stockade wall of square logs twenty-five feet high; with a gate constantly guarded within and without. Near the northeast corner was the "canteen" or supply depot also made of squared logs. In it were stored beds, bedding, food, and small articles for prisoner's personal use as: playing cards, tobacco, fire wood, and tea. West of it was the mess hall for the officers. This had board floors, long wooden tables with

benches attached, a stove in the middle of the hall and a kitchen and small pantry.

Next to the officers' mess hall were the officers' quarters which usually had a capacity of 1,000 men to the hall. The long barracks was half buried in the ground and half above the ground. This was done so to reduce the cost of construction and also for warmth from the fierce Siberian winters. The windows were at ground level. Next to it was the building in which were stored the officers' personal belongings that they did not wish to keep in the barracks because of lack of room or for protection from it being stolen or damaged. This was required by Article IV of Chapter II Prisoner of War of the Second Hague Convention of 1907. All of the spaces between the buildings were filled with a 25-foot high wall. The west boundary was this high wall. In the middle of the south side were the barracks for the non-commissioned soldiers. These were similar in shape to the officers' barracks but much more crudely and poorly constructed. According to records consulted and compared, it cost the Russian Imperial Government an average of 52,000 rubles to construct one of these camps. The only toilet facilities were out-of-door toilets or no toilets at all. These were located on the downside of the stream that ran through the camp.

In describing the average prisoner it must be remembered that many times there were as many as 30,000 men in a single camp. Very seldom, indeed, was a prisoner-of-war camp found where conditions were sanitary and livable. In the average camp each prisoner had a hard wooden planked bed that had neither mattress nor springs. He was issued a pillow and blanket and went to bed with his clothes on. If he desired an extra blanket to protect himself from the Siberian cold he had to buy it with his own money or tried to keep himself warm with his army coat. According to the existing Imperial Russian law of that date, each prisoner





#### LEGEND OF SIBERIAN PRISONER-OF-WAR CAMP SKETCH

1. Canteen for luxuries and necessities of life.
2. Latrine for officers.
3. Depository for valuables of prisoners on their persons when they arrived.
- 4-6 and 8-9. Barracks for officers.
7. Mess Hall for officers.
10. Water well for officers' water supply.
11. Branch of stream that passed through the camp.
12. Barbed wire fence that separated officers' section from non-commissioned men.
13. Dugout for steam bath.
- 14-20. Barracks for non-commissioned men.
21. Mess hall for non-commissioned men.
22. Water well for non-commissioned men's water supply.
23. Branch of stream that passed through the camp.
24. Latrine for non-commissioned men.
25. Cemetery for officers.
26. Cemetery for non-commissioned men.

of war was issued the following clothes: one linen shirt and one pair of linen trousers every six months; one cap, one pair of thick trousers and one grey overcoat every year; one outer coat of sheep-skin every two years; one pair of loose boots every 3½ months in winter and a pair of low

shoes every 22 days in summer. The following were the daily rations that the prisoner could buy: 3 pounds of black rye bread; about 4 ounces of meat including the bone; a small quantity of barley, which was generally put into the water in which the meat was boiled making it into a soup; and a



little brick tea. On special occasions they could buy a potato and a few leaves of cabbage. Both had to be paid for extra.

Breakfast consisted of the tea and some of the black rye bread. The midday meal was a cold meal of black rye bread and a portion of the meat. The evening meal was the remaining meat, the barley soup, brick tea and the black rye bread. The average cost of this food and his clothing amounted to about 50 rubles a year or about 14 kopeks a day. An explanation will be given later on how the prisoner earned the money to pay for these necessities and how he earned extra money to buy such luxuries as tobacco, playing cards, and extra tea.

The floors of the barracks were rough, uneven and bare and made of uncured native lumber. As time went

on these boards warped and dried out leaving large cracks between the boards. The dampness under the barracks caused some of the boards to rot and give away. Into these dark holes were thrown the garbage and refuse adding its stench to the already polluted air in the barracks.

As one stepped down the two or three steps to enter the semi-buried barracks he was met by the stench from inside even before he opened the heavy planked door. The odor was characteristic of all prison camps and was caused by lack of proper ventilation, filthy clothes, rotting refuse, infested wounds, smoke from the stove, unclean toilet habits of the wounded and tobacco smoke. The barracks were dimly lit as the only light was from the few heavily grated windows which frequently were almost blocked on



Hospital Facilities available to World War I wounded. This railroad car that has been converted to a hospital shows the general arrangement and meagre medical facilities available to the sick in the locale of the prisoner camps.



the outside by the Siberian drifted snow. The floor was damp except near the stove located in the center of the room. This stove was of the type so common in Russia of sixty years ago. It was built of stone about 10 feet in diameter and four feet high. The top was flattened so that a few could sleep on it on cold nights.

The inside walls were white-washed when the barracks were first built, but they soon became dark and grimy. Many blood-stained blotches appeared everywhere on the walls where the prisoners had swatted bed bugs and other vermin in an effort to protect themselves from these troublesome pests. On Saturdays each prisoner physically able had to take his bed apart and kill all vermin found thereon or in his clothes. Then he was given bed post canisters which he filled with petrol so that the vermin would be discouraged from crawling into the "clean" bed. The petrol and the cost of the wood to burn in the stove for warmth had to be paid for by the prisoners on a pro-rated basis.

Since most of the military action between Russia and its enemies — Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Germany—occurred in Western Russia, the prisoners of war had to be shipped thousands of miles to these prisoner camps. They were herded into cattle and third-class railroad cars and began their journey on the Trans-Siberian Railway. Into these cars were placed the healthy, sick and wounded, and the commander of each train was charged with the delivery at the camp in Siberia with the same number of soldiers with which he started at the front. Frequently some of the wounded died enroute but their bodies were not removed from the train because the commander was accountable for a particular number of soldiers.

These cars were crowded beyond capacity and this added to the discomfort of the prisoners. As the train rattled ever eastward day and night, the prisoners became more and more discouraged and realized that

their chances for escape were remote. As they peered through the cracks in the cars at the falling snow they knew that their life at the camp would tax their very strength. For the two meals served daily to the prisoners on the way to the camp, the train would stop in some village along the railway and the local natives would feed them as horse-mounted Cossacks guarded the prisoners. The natives served an excellent meal for 25 kopecks which the prisoner paid himself. The meal consisted of roasted goose with its trimmings, black rye bread and tea. After perhaps a week of travel day and night with the wounded and even dead, the train pulled onto a switch and every prisoner knew that he had arrived at the end of the line. Eagerly he peered out through the car door cracks and saw before him a small village and hoped that this was the camp. But, no. After dismounting and counting all soldiers—dead and alive—the living and able were lined up and the long march of many miles to the prisoner-of-war camp began. The wounded that were unable to march under their own power were brought on litters. Upon arrival each prisoner was checked in and he began his life as a prisoner-of-war.

### CAMP LIFE

If weather permitted, the prisoners could go into the court yard for walking and such pastime as they themselves could devise. If they could not be outside—and this was most of the time since the Siberian winters were long and severe with temperatures going to 60° F below zero—they played cards, gambled, sang, told stories and just loafed. This living in close quarter, in vermin-infested areas, with wounded buddies, hopelessness, poor food, insane prisoners, unsanitary conditions and inactivity caused many to become insane and they added to the trying conditions. Fights were frequent during the frigid weather as the prisoners fought to see who would be



the one to sleep near the stove. Newspapers, which arrived only about once each six weeks were read and reread until completely worn out. Each letter received was read aloud and then jealously and reverently kept by the recipient in his bed-sized kingdom. The sick were seldom treated as about the only medical facilities available were the infrequent visits by the understaffed medical personnel from the YMCA and the Red Cross. In such cases the insane were removed and sent to a mental institution at Omsk and the medical staff of 3 or 4 would move in a few days to another camp because they had such a large territory to service.

Physically able officers were permitted to go to the village once a month with a guard to take monthly baths in a steam house. In a few of the prison camps a steam house was a part of the prisoner camp. The "bath house" was a miserable structure of wood and stone with a stone stove. The officer would pay 50 kopeks for 3 ladles of water which he would pour onto the hot stone stove. This caused the water to

vaporize and caused the officer to perspire freely giving him a bath. This cleared his pores. Some officers could stand only 2 ladles of water as it caused the skin to turn scarlet, like a boiled lobster. The non-commissioned men got a bath only if it was warm enough for them to be able to go to the stream in the corner of the camp and pour a bucketful of river water over themselves. If the prisoner had any money he could go to the canteen "Lakka" and buy himself playing cards, sugar, tobacco, etc. However, this was seldom the case as each prisoner had to buy his food, share of fuel, extra clothing, petrol, and writing materials out of the 50 rubles given each person by the Imperial Government in accordance with International Law. Each person was permitted to write 4 cards and 1 letter per month. The cards were so small that only 3 or 4 sentences could be written on them. Frequently, his allowance arrived late and this made life even more trying.

Living under such intolerable conditions naturally resulted in an extremely high death rate as very contagious



Officers' Barrack. This photograph shows the living quarters of the officers imprisoned in the prisoner-of-war camp. As stated in the caption, there were 1,000 officers in this barrack. Each officer's "empire" consisted of his board bed and the small space on the rack above his head.



diseases broke out and swept unchecked through the crowded camps where medical facilities frequently were meagre or lacking entirely. The following statistics will reveal the tragic medical conditions of the prisoners.

**PERCENTAGE OF SICK RATE  
AMONG PRISONERS.**

<b>CAMP</b>	<b>SICKNESS RATE PER YEAR.</b>
Marinsk	11.9
Kamisklova	21.2
Turinsk	21.7
Nuniisinsk	26.3
Barnaul	37.1
Biisk	37.9
Kansk	43.1
Tukalinsk	47.0
Tara	48.1
Kuznetsh	52.0

Incidents of two major diseases are reflected in these statistics;

**TYPHUS**

<b>CAMP</b>	<b>PERCENTAGE OF PRISONERS AFFECTED</b>
Achinsk	10.8
Irkutsk	11.8
Irbit	12.0
Krasnovarsk	12.2
Marinsk	13.1
Ishim	16.6
Perm	17.5
Tuimen	23.2
Tiretski	32.9
Sheragulski	39.1
Beriesinki	43.0
Tomsk	62.6
Kalivan	77.7

**SCURVY**

Chita	10.7
Alexandrafsk	13.2
Verkhni Udinsk	13.7
Barnaul	14.5
Kara	15.0
Ekaterinburg	15.7
Krasnovarsk	16.5
Yakutsk	19.6
Khabarofka	22.8
Nerchinsk	23.6
Balagansk	28.4

In the prisoner-of-war camp located at Tuimen the following are the rates of deaths of those that were admitted to the hospital:

1918 — 34.95%	1921 — 44.10%
1919 — 36.92	1922 — 32.25
1920 — 41.42	

The death rate in some camps from typhus reached as high as 17,000 of the 25,000 that were imprisoned there over a span of six years. The disease spread so rapidly because of the close confinement of the prisoners, the lack of separation of the sick from the well, lack of medical help; and impure drinking water. The water supply was hauled from the stream in the camp barrels and was sold to the prisoners by dipperful. The camps were frequently located in that part of Siberia where permafrost existed. In such locations it was not possible to bury the dead until the spring thaw arrived.

In the meantime bodies were stored in dugouts or piled up like cordwood in one corner close to the prison awaiting the arrival of spring. They then were buried in the cemetery outside the camp. The YMCA's staff was able to reach only about 80,000 of the Siberian prisoners because they were so understaffed, the climate prevented travel for long periods of time, and the camps were so far apart.

Escape was almost unheard of, not only because of the presence of guards, but because of the remoteness of the locations of the camps. Even if a prisoner was able to elude the prison guards and escape from the encampment, he was thousands of miles from his homeland and every mile was through territory known for its severe weather and rugged terrain.

**MONEY NEEDED**

Mention has been made frequently of some item and its cost to the prisoner. A summary of the items that had to be paid for by the prisoner included: clothing, bedding, food, drinking water, bath water for officers, firewood, items of correspondence, and luxuries as cards, tobacco, sugar.



These were the sources from which the prisoner got money for these items:

1. Personal accounts at the time of his capture.
2. Government payment by the Imperial Government in accordance with the Articles of War.
3. Government payment for labor performed for the government as cutting timber or mining.
4. Work performed by trusties in the neighborhood of the camp.
5. Printed their own camp paper money.

Some of the prisoners upon arrival at the camp still had in their possession small amounts of money that they had when captured. But these were soon exhausted to get items that they first thought that they had to have.

In accordance with the Articles of War each prisoner was to be given 50 rubles per year for his sustenance and health. At the conclusion of peace terms the "home" country of the prisoner was expected to reimburse the Russian Imperial Government all of the money that it had expended on the care of the prisoner. However, even at a meager 14 kopeks per day for food, it can be seen that the 50 rubles per year would not even pay for his food alone. This left him nothing for water, fuel, and other necessities of life. This shortage resulted in missed meals, and other "cuts" in the necessities of life, so that the 50 rubles would last until the next payment was received. To supplement this shortage, gambling and even theft was common among the prisoners.

The Imperial Government had various jobs that prisoners of war could perform and so they were offered these jobs and were paid for their labor. This system was authorized by the Second Hague Convention of 1907, which states: "The state may utilize the labor of prisoners of war according to their rank and aptitude, officers excepted. The tasks shall not be excessive and shall have no connection with the operations of the war.

"Prisoners may be authorized to

work for the public service, for private persons or on their own account.

"Work done for the State is paid at the rates in force for work of a similar kind done by soldiers of the national army, or, if there are none in force, at a rate according to the work executed.

"When the work is for other branches of public service or for private persons, the conditions are settled in agreement with the military authorities.

"The wages of the prisoners shall go towards improving their position, and the balance shall be paid them on their release, after deducting the cost of their maintenance."

And so whenever the situation revealed itself some of the prisoners were removed from the prisoner-of-war camp and moved to the place of employment. Czechoslovakian prisoners-of-war found themselves in a variety of places and occupations. Since they were Slaveplules they were generally given larger liberation than were the German, Austrian, and Hungarian prisoners. Many of the Czechoslovakian prisoners were skilled workers and so they were in demand for munition factories, where they received a wage equal to 1/3 of that of Russian mechanics. The munition works at Taganrog employed 1700 Czechoslovakian prisoners. These were so trusted that they were allowed the liberty of the city. They laid aside 1/10 of their wages earned to promote the independence of their nation. Other prisoners did not fare so well as hundreds of Czechoslovakian, German, and Magyar prisoners perished miserably in building the Murmansk Railway. Others fell victims to heavy labor on the steppes of Turkestan as they were compelled to make huts from materials that they had to carry upon their backs many miles. Others died by the thousands because of sandstorms, malaria, typhus, exposure and homesickness as they built the railroad from Bukhara to the Afghan border. Other governmental



jobs included logging for more prison camps, rails for railroads, firewood for locomotives and general purpose lumber. Mining not only for coal for heat but for locomotives, and the mining of other minerals were performed by prisoners. Phosphates were also mined for the use of the munition factories.

At harvest time and other busy seasons on the farms, some prisoners were hired by these farmers and paid by them. This was always a joy to the lucky prisoner for it meant not only a little extra money but far more important to him was the fresh air and food that he would be able to enjoy while away from the prison camp. This category did not empty large quantities of prisoners but it did relieve some from the hopeless home.

Regardless of what category the prisoner was fortunate enough to earn extra money in, he was paid Imperial paper money. Unfortunately no provision was made in the Articles of War that the prisoner-of-war allowance would be changed in accordance with inflationary prices and the devaluation of the Imperial notes. So as the war progressed and the prices of the items purchased rose steadily in price and as the confidence dwindled in the Imperial Government's ability to rule, the paper money devaluated steadily until by 1917 and 1918 it was worth only a small fraction of its normal pre-war value. In fact in some localities the prisoner-of-war had difficulty in passing the Imperial notes. This added to the misery of the prisoner.

#### **PRINTING THEIR OWN**

The fate of the prisoner-of-war became most desperate and actually hopeless as the political upheavals occurred. In April 1917, the Imperial Government abdicated and ceased to exist. Now came the Provisionary Government under Kerensky and it said that it had no responsibility to continue the payment of the 50 rubles to each prisoner-of-war since it did

not capture them. Also, since the financial condition of the Russian state was precarious, it was not in a position to pay the 50 rubles to the prisoner. Then in November 1917, there was another upheaval when Lenin's Red Army was able to overthrow the Kerensky Provisionary Government. At first the Lenin Government planned to operate without the use of money and so the Siberian prisoners no longer received the 50 rubles. Then in 1918 events occurred that made the situation even more hopeless for the prisoners. The White Guards and Foreign Interventionists under Admiral Kolchak, Ataman Semenoff, and others captured a large part of the territory in which these camps were located. They also maintained that the prisoners were not theirs and therefore they were not responsible for them. Lenin's Bolshevik Government could not get into the territory to make the 50 ruble payment as the territory was in the hands of its enemies even when the Bolsheviks had established a monetary system. In the meantime the prisoners-of-war became desperate and drastic action had to be taken for him to survive. Necessity forced him to print his own paper money for his camp.

Not all of the Siberian prisoner-of-war camps printed their own paper money. After much research we find that the following camps did print their own paper money. (In some cases two spellings are listed for a camp): Atschinsk, Barnaul (Barnaoul), Beresowka (Berezovka), Bijsk (Biisk), Dauria, Kansk, Krasnaja Rjetschka (Krasnaia Retska), Krasnovarsk, Nikolsk-Ussurijsk (Nicol'sk-Oussourisky), Petropawlow'sk (Petropavlosk), Pjestschanka (Pestchanka), Skobelew (Skoblef), Spasskoje, Sretensk, Tchita (Tschita), Tomsk, Troizkossaw'sk, Zairkutnyj Gorodok.

Although we have proof of these 19 camps issuing paper money, one other type exists and it is known as Barare-



jnaja. This was not a camp but a Regimentary note that was acceptable in any place of business and any prisoner-of-war camp.

While these 19 camps each issued different types of notes, it appears that all used about the same methods to print them. In a few cases they were actually printed by a printing company in the vicinity of the camp. However most camps printed their own. So, the description will be given in general terms and if there were any unusual techniques used at any camp, that fact will be pointed out in describing that particular camp's notes.

The need for the camp printing its own paper money was the same at each camp — the failure of the prisoners of getting the Government issued payment as provided in the Articles of War and the inevitable result — starvation from lack of money.

First, the prisoner committee would have to secure the permission from the camp authorities to issue their own paper money. This could only be done if the local personnel near the camp would agree to accept the prisoner-of-war notes in exchange for food items, fuel, and personal items that the canteen would have to purchase locally to replenish the shelves. This usually would not be difficult to obtain as the citizenry was already besieged by a variety of notes issued by the Imperial Government, the Provisionary Government and a mass of scrips and tokens issued by industries, religious bodies, schools, clubs and cooperatives. They said, "Another one? Why not?"

After having secured the permission for such notes, the committee was faced with the most serious problems of all — where would they get the required supplies? Paper was frequently not available and there was no money to order such paper. So a call went out to all prisoners-of-war of that camp that they were to send to the committee any paper that was blank or even blank on one side. So, personal letters, blank wrapping paper, blank sides of

announcements from the building bulletin board fly leaves from books served as sources of paper. So, it is not unusual to find printing on the reverse of some of the prisoner-of-war notes. Such printing on the reverse often had no relation to the note itself.

The printing press problem was just as perplexing for there were no presses available at many of the camps or even in the neighboring villages. This was still the period of the history of Russia when the printed word was totally unfamiliar and unavailable to the peasants and especially so to the far away Siberian people. So a search was usually made for a hand printing press and if none of these was available, they would rely on a wine press. These presses when found were cleaned and set up with slight modification for the printing of the paper money.

Ink also was not available to these remote areas and so the prisoners had to manufacture their inks. Lampblack was usually one of the ingredients for their ink. The prisoners made this lampblack by the same method as was invented by Wei Tong about 500 A. D. This method consisted of placing a number of well-lighted wicks in vessels full of oil, while over it they placed a dome or funnel-like cover of iron. When it was well covered with lampblack, the sooty substance was brushed off and collected in a vessel or bottle. When oil was not available at the camp for the lamps, fire wood was used in its place, but this made an inferior grade of ink. At some of the camps the prisoners would add shoe blacking paste or stove polishing paste to the soot-petrol mixture. If these were not available or the deep black color was not desired for ink, a brownish ink was made by squeezing the juice from the green walnuts shells or husks. Other camps used bluish home made ink made from the juice of pokeberry or other shrubs or trees. The ink was then blended by adding the juice, dye or lampblack to the vehicle which were either boiled linseed oil, mineral oil, or a combination of both.



Glue, soap solution, and an iron salt made from oak galls completed the ink solution.

The next problem to be solved was the design to be used. Usually every camp had artists of some degree as a prisoner and they would ask for suggested designs. Usually the name of the designer is unknown to us today; but actually we do know that the designer of the notes at the prisoner-of-war camp at Kansk was a German prisoner named Conrad.

The image then had to be cut into a piece of wood or "plate." This was tedious work as proper tools were not available to the designer. So the notes reflect this inferior work by having indistinct and non-uniformity in design.

The actual printing was done by taking the block of wood with the desired image and text cut in relief and inking it. It was then held in one hand while the paper sheet was laid on it with the other and rubbing it with a brush. It was then removed and another sheet placed on the inked block. As some of the camps had presses such as hand or wine, the block of wood with the note relief was placed in the press. The paper was then inserted and pressure applied by the press. This method resulted in more distinct notes than by the hand method described above.

After the notes were printed, they were trimmed by hand cutting with scissors or a sharp knife. This hand trimming also resulted frequently in unevenly shaped notes. After trimming, the notes were hand-stacked, counted and given to the paymaster for distribution to the camp's prisoners.

Each camp's notes will be described in detail. When the war was over and the prisoners eligible to be released for return to their homes, they had to get their release from the camp commander; as for example at Kansk it was Colonel August V. Muller-Wandau (now living in Vienna, Austria-1973). It was the commander's duty to not only clear the prisoner for release, but to get from him any of the prisoner-of-war camp money that he may have and exchange it for the current Russian currency. The commander was then instructed to collect all of the prisoner-of-war money and destroy it by burning. However, the commanders either neglected to destroy all of it or perhaps the prisoners did not turn in all of the notes that they had and so a few have escaped destruction and have come to us as rare notes. The Russian central government frowned on the prisoner-of-war notes but could not object to their existence since they themselves were not in a position to fulfill the provisions of the Articles of War.

## DESCRIPTION OF PRISONER-OF-WAR PAPER MONEY IN MY COLLECTION 1973

### ATSCHINSK (ACHINSK)

Atschinsk was located about midway between Tomsk and Krasnovarsk on the Trans-Siberian Railway. This prison can best be described from this quote from the newspaper "Siberia" printed at Irkutsk: "The Atchinsk prison is a "cloaca," where human beings perish like flies. Typhus fever, diphtheria, and other epidemic diseases prevail there constantly, and infest all who have misfortune to get into that awful place . . ." Again, I. P. Bolokonski in his book "Prisons and Etapecs" says, "If you once glance into the Atchinsk prison you will never forget it. I have seen many prisons but not one worse than this. As you look at the prisoner you are simply astonished at the capacity of the human organism for endurance. When I said to the warden, "Why don't you try to clean your prison—at least a little?" He replied, "The only way to make this prison endurable is to burn it down and build another."



Authorities do not agree as to the denominations that were issued by this camp as shown by this listing:

Author	50 kopek	1 ruble	3 ruble	5 ruble
Chuchin	X			X
Denis		Unlisted		
Kardakoff	X	X	X	X



The 50 kopek note is the only one that is available in this collection. The note is 50 mm x 40 mm in size and .005 inches in thickness. The reverse is blank. The obverse has the image of a building which it is thought to have been a Russian mansion confiscated and used as the residence of the camp commander or warden. Mountains appear in the background. The word "Atchinsk" appears at the top. At the bottom in Russian are the words "Prison Money." To the right appear the same words in German and to the left it appears in Austrian. Across the face is the denomination and below it the serial number 2068 and the signature which is not legible. The note is listed at \$35.00 by Kardakoff in 1953 but in 1973 it was listed as rare. The notes were all issued in 1919.

#### KANSK

Kansk was located about 250 miles east of the Atchinsk prisoner-of-war camp. It was on the upper Yenisey River and on the Trans-Siberian Railroad. The prison itself dates back for many years as the czars had for years sent prisoners to this camp for any anti-government activity. As such it was built more substantially than most of the other prisons. Although the sanitary conditions were better here than in some prisons, it was a far cry from the prison camps of today. The authorities list the following denomination of paper money issued by the Kansk Prison Camp:

Author	10 kopek	15 kopek	50 kopek	1 ruble	2 ruble	3 ruble
Kardakoff	X	X	X	X	X	X
Chuchin	X	X	X	X		X
Denis	X	X	X	X		X

	4 ruble	5 ruble	10 ruble	25 ruble
Kardakoff	X	X	X	X
Chuchin	X	X	X	X
Denis	X	X	X	X

The notes were issued in 1918, 1919, and 1920. The only notes in this collection are the 10 and 15 kopek and 2 notes of 1 ruble denomination. The 10 kopek note is a good example of notes being printed on one-side-blank paper as it has irrelevant information printed on the reverse. The note is 28 mm x 26 mm in size and the





design is simple and legend consists only of 10 kopek. It was issued by the Self Administrative Officer of the Camp. The note thickness is .005 inches. The 15 kopek note is blank on the reverse side and is 28 mm x 26 mm in size and .005 inches thick. The design also is simple and the legend consists only of the denomination. It, too, was issued by the Self Administrative Officer of the Camp. The two 1 ruble notes are different in design. True at first glance they are alike but on closer examination it shows that the designer attempted duplication but there are variations. The first note bears series F serial 214, and the second series T serial 672. The signatures of the top signer are alike but the bottom signatures are different. The notes are 47 mm x 40 mm in size and .005 inches in thickness. The reverse of both notes is blank. There are no other legends besides the denominations. The second note has printed lines on the reverse showing that it too was printed on one-side-blank paper. The 10, 15, and 50 kopek notes are listed at \$30.00 each by Kardakoff in 1953 and the rating is now rare as is the 1 ruble note.

#### BATAREJNAJA (BATEREINAIA)

These notes were not issued by any prisoner-of-war camp but issued by the central government and issued to a regiment or battalion of the regular army. These notes were used by the soldiers to buy the necessities of life. They are included in this group of notes because they were accepted by the prisoner-of-war authorities if that regiment or battalion or soldier thereof fell into captivity. They were also accepted by stores, canteens, army posts and general countryside. The only note in this collection is the 50 kopek in three examples, the first and third note are similar except the serial numbers which are 1573 and 1125. The second note bears no serial number or signatures and appears to have been removed from the issuing office before it was fully processed. It is different from notes 1 and 3 in that the paper is heavy — .005 compared to thin paper .002 of notes 1 and 3. Also note two has the word "Batarejnaia" instead of "Batarenaia" as notes 1 and 3 have. All three notes are 57 mm x 37 mm in size. The legend is 50 kopek and the word in German "Wohlfahrts," which translates into "food welfare," and the word "Organistat" for "organization." The notes were listed in the following denominations by the different authorities:



Author	20 kopek	50 kopek	$\frac{1}{2}$ ruble	1 ruble	2 ruble	3 ruble	5 ruble	10 ruble
Kardakoff	X	X		X		X		
Chuchin		Unlisted						
Denis		X	X	X	X	X	X	X



The notes were issued in 1919 and 1920. The 20 kopek and 1 ruble notes were listed as uncommon 20 years ago but now all are listed as rare.

### PESTECHANKA (PJESTSCHANKA)

The exact location of this prisoner-of-war camp is not known at the time of this article but it was in Siberia and we have proof that it contained both officer and non-commissioned barracks. The 10 kopek note was issued by Barracks 9 and it bears serial number 1009. However in hand writing and same color of ink as was used for the signature appears the number 903. The use made of the second number is not known. It is 42 mm x 30 mm in size and it is .015 inches in thickness which is unusually thick for paper money. It is blank on the reverse and bears two hand-signed signatures. The 1 ruble note was also issued by Barracks 9. It is 65 mm x 40 mm in size and .018 inches thick - unusually thick. It bears serial number 293. However in the same color ink as was used for the signature, appears the serial number 939. The reason for the second number is unknown. The  $\frac{1}{2}$  ruble note is 75 mm x 40 mm in size and only .0045 inches thick which is usually thin. It bears two serial numbers "I" and "Y2". It was issued by barracks shown on the note. Apparently the note denomination was printed blank and then the denomination was entered in hand-writing as in this instance the " $\frac{1}{2}$ " was entered. It bears 3



signatures—Hudlin, D. Gragh and Jourjeis.



The notes were issued in 1916 in 8 denominations and in only 2 values in 1917. The following are the denominations listed by the different authorities:

Author	5 kopek	10 kopek	25 kopek	50 kopek	1/2 ruble	1 ruble	3 ruble	5 ruble
Kardakoff	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Chuchin			Unlisted					
Denis	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
			1 kopek 1917		3 kopek 1917			
Kardakoff			X		X			
Chuchin			Unlisted					
Kenis			Unlisted					

By 1953 all of these notes were listed as very rare for the 1916 notes and uncommon for the 1917 notes.

#### SOURCES OF INFORMATION

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