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WELCOME TO POLAND

**AMERICAN EMBASSY
WARSAW**



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Secretary to the DCM	Jaqueline V. Voorhees	2172

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	David C. Black	2040
	Michael D. Bomberger	2299
	Scott D. Edelman	2299
	Christopher J. Doherty	2299
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Labor Attache	Patrick Lacombe	2109/2040
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	Karen L. Nickel	2299
	Mary Bjork	2040
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	Alec L. Mally	2157
	Robert A. Kandra	2157
	Peter S. Hinz	2157
	Thomas J. Brennan	2157
Economic Analyst	Olga Karpiv	2157
Economic Secretaries	Dorothy M. Boyer	2089
	Sharon E. Blane	2157

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Deputy Consul General	Linda C. Turner	2328
Vice-Consul	Beverly Berg	2116
Vice-Consul	J. Baxter Hunt	2044
Vice-Consul	F. Mike Miles	2038
Vice-Consul	Aldo J. Sirotic	2312
Consul	Sandra Shipshock	2045
Consular Assistant	Deborah Canning	2074
Consular Secretary	Solveig C. Johnson	2105

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Administrative Section

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ARSO John A. Hurley 2333
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Seabee Todd A. Christian 2444
Security Secretary Kathleen M. Ebert 2333

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Support Communications Officer Charles H. Adams 2207
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Building Maintenance Technician Hans Bucklitzsch 2032

Supv. General Services Officer Phyllis M. Powers 2170
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Joseph A. Daniels 17-95-38
Elizabeth A. Molinar 2186
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Community Services Officers Janice Olstead 2120
Laurie Tasharski 2131

Mail Room Supervisor Cynthia Hurley 2375

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Marine Security Guards:

William H. Barkley 2011
Eugene Kapell 2011
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Agency for International Development (AID) 2291/2292

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USDA EXTENSION SERVICE 623-11-03

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Extension Advisor John Burton, Jr. 623-11-03
Extension Advisor Lee Meyer 623-11-03

Presidential Pre-Advance to Germany, Finland, and Poland



April 1992

Notes on Gifts and Customs

Gifts

As set forth in 22 CFR Part 3, the Foreign Gifts Act specifies that employees and members of their families may accept and retain a gift tendered as a souvenir or mark of courtesy from foreign governments or their representatives if it is of "minimal value," which is currently defined as a retail value in the United States, at the time of acceptance, of \$140 or less. However, an employee may accept a gift valued at over \$140 only if to refuse it "would likely cause offense or embarrassment or otherwise adversely affect the foreign relations of the United States," and even then such a gift is deemed to have been accepted on behalf of the United States, and, upon acceptance, becomes the property of the United States. Any such gift must, within 60 days after acceptance, either be deposited for disposal with the recipient's employing agency, or, subject to the approval of the employing agency, deposited with that agency for official use. For Department of State employees, the depository is the Office of Protocol.

The Attorney may bring a civil action in the U.S. District Court against any employee who knowingly has solicited or accepted a gift from a foreign government not consented to by the revised statute, or who has failed to report such a gift as the law requires. A penalty may be assessed in such a case in any amount not to exceed the retail value of the gift improperly solicited or received plus \$5,000.

Customs

Everyone will be expected to fill out a customs declaration form to be returned to the steward just prior to returning to a U.S. point of entry. You will need to note on the declaration when:

- The total fair retail value of articles acquired abroad exceeds \$400, or if acquired in American Samoa, Guam, or the U.S. Virgin Islands, \$800.
- More than 1 liter (33.8 fl. oz.) of alcoholic beverages, 200 cigarettes, or more than 100 cigars are included. Or if returning from American Samoa, Guam, or the U.S. Virgin Islands: more than 4 liters (135.2 fl. oz) of alcoholic beverages, 100 cigars, and 1,000 cigarettes.
- Some of the items are not intended for your personal or household use, such as commercial samples, items for sale or use in your business, or articles you are bringing home for another person.
- Articles acquired in the U.S. Virgin Islands, American Samoa, or Guam are being sent to the United States.
- A customs duty or internal revenue tax is collectible on any article in your possession.

Note: "Courtesy of the Port" does not mean you do not have to fill out a declaration or that you will not have to pay customs duty. Your declarations will be reviewed by customs officials at the U.S. point of entry and you will be billed for any dutiable items purchased.

Prohibited and Restricted Articles

Some items must meet certain requirements, require a license or permit, or may be prohibited entry. Among these are:

- Absinthe
- Biological material
- Books protected by American copyright if unauthorized foreign reprints
- Candy, liquor-filled
- Copies of gold coins if not properly marked
- Electronic products subject to radiation emission standards
- Firearms & ammunition
- Food, drugs, and certain other items not approved by FDA
- Fruits, plants, vegetables & their products
- Hazardous articles (e.g., fireworks, dangerous toys, toxic or poisonous substances)
- Lottery tickets
- Meats, poultry, & products (e.g., sausage, pate, canned items)
- Motor vehicles not conforming to safety and emission standards
- Narcotics & dangerous drugs including medicine containing same
- Objects of Central and South American pre-Columbian Indian cultures
- Obscene articles & publications
- Pets (e.g., dogs, birds, turtles, monkeys)
- Seditious or treasonable matter
- Trademarked items (e.g., certain cameras, watches, perfumes)
- Switchblade knives
- Wildlife (birds, fish, animals) & endangered and protect species (e.g., pheasants; furskin; feathers, eggs, or skins of wild birds; articles from reptile skins, ivory, and whalebone).

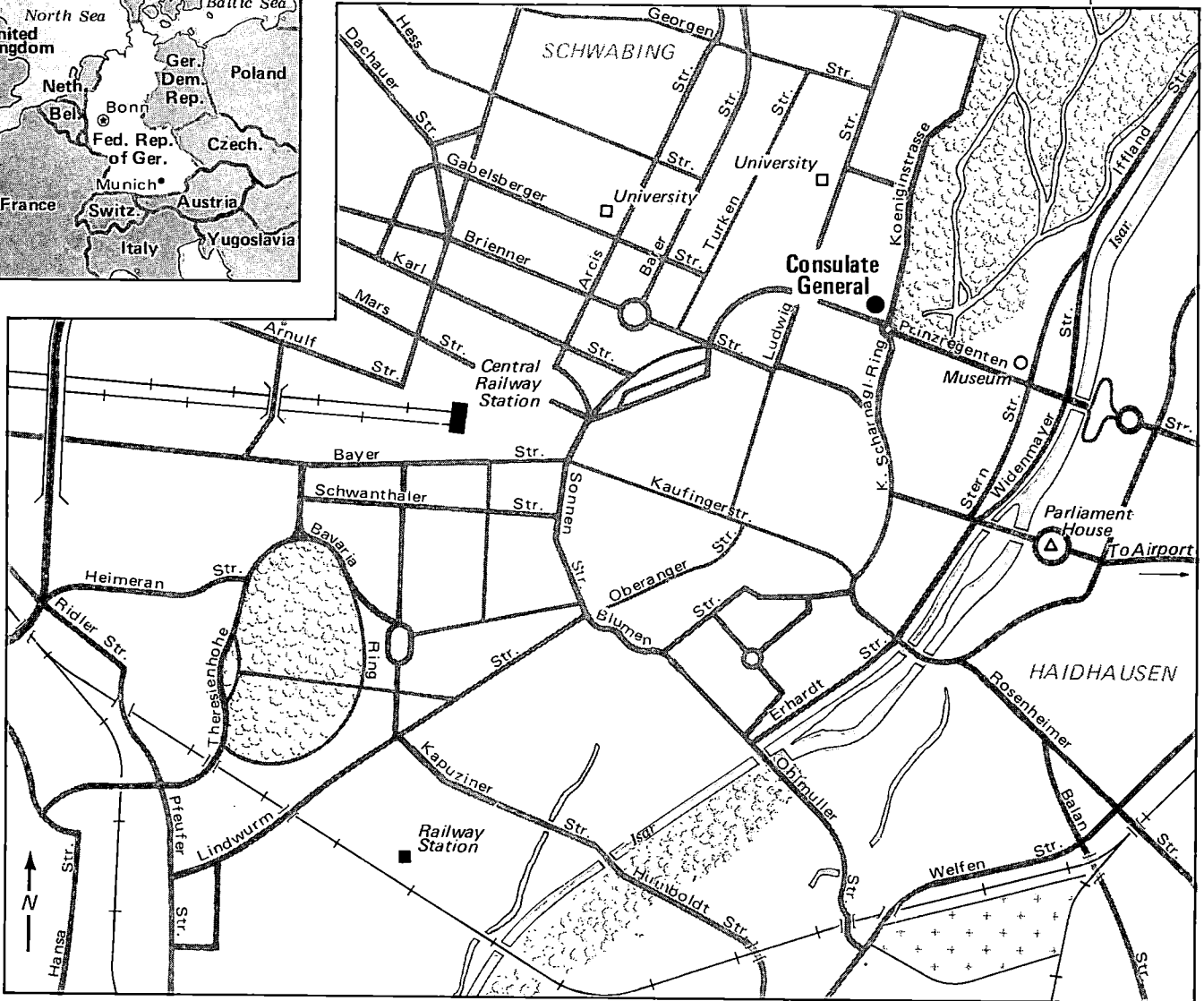
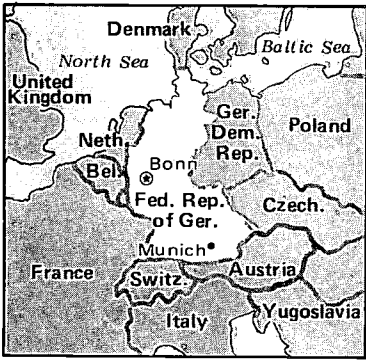
Time Conversion Table

Washington, D.C. (DST) 0	Germany Poland +6	Finland +7
0600	1200	1300
0700	1300	1400
0800	1400	1500
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1000	1600	1700
1100	1700	1800
1200	1800	1900
1300	1900	2000
1400	2000	2100
1500	2100	2200
1600	2200	2300
1700	2300	2400
1800	2400	0100
1900	0100	0200
2000	0200	0300
2100	0300	0400
2200	0400	0500
2300	0500	0600
2400	0600	0700
0100	0700	0800
0200	0800	0900
0300	0900	1000
0400	1000	1100
0500	1100	1200
0600	1200	1300

+1 day



Munich



4658 9-82 STATE(GE)

German Mark (M) Conversion Table at DM 1.61 = U.S. \$

(DM = 100 pfennings)

Markka to U.S. Dollars		U.S. Dollars to Markka		
M	U.S. \$	U.S. \$		M
0.25	0.16	0.10		0.16
0.75	0.47	0.25		0.40
1.00	0.62	0.50		0.81
1.61	1.00	1.00		1.61
<hr/>				
5.00	3.11	2.00		3.22
10.00	6.21	5.00		8.05
20.00	12.42	10.00		16.10
50.00	31.06	20.00		32.20
100.00	62.11	50.00		80.50
200.00	124.22	100.00		161.00
500.00	310.56	300.00		483.00
1,000.00	621.12	500.00		805.00

NOTE: All U.S. dollar values are rounded to nearest U.S. cent.
Value of the German Mark fluctuates daily according to
currency market conditions.

April 1992

background notes

Germany



United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

June 1991



Official Name: Federal Republic of Germany Profile

Geography

Area: 357,000 sq. km. (137,838 sq. mi.); about the size of Montana. **Cities:** *Capital*—Berlin (population about 3.4 million). *Seat of government*—Bonn (pop. 287,000). The permanent seat of government for a unified Germany will be addressed by the all-German Parliament elected on December 2, 1990. *Other cities*—Hamburg (1.6 million), Munich (1.2 million), Cologne (946,000), Frankfurt (635,000). (Dec. 1990 est.) **Terrain:** Low plain in the north; high plains, hills, and basins in the center and east; mountainous Alpine region in the south. **Climate:** Temperate; cooler and rainier than much of the US.

People

Nationality: *Noun and adjective*—German(s). **Population:** About 79 million (Dec. 1990 est.). **Ethnic groups:** Primarily German; Danish minority in the north, Serbian (Slavic) minority in the east. **Religions:** Almost evenly divided between Protestant and Roman Catholic. **Language:** German. **Education:** *Years compulsory*—10. *Attendance*—100%. *Literacy*—99%. **Health** (in the original 11 states): *Infant mortality rate* (1990)—6/1,000. *Life expectancy* (1990)—women 81 yrs., men 73 yrs. **Work force:** 39 million (1990 estimate). Includes the 11 million workers in the former GDR.

Government

Type: Federal republic. **Founded:** 1949 (Basic Law, i.e., constitution, promulgated on May 23, 1949). On October 3, 1990, the Federal Republic of Germany and the German Democratic Republic unified in accordance with Article 23 of the FRG Basic Law. **Branches:** *Executive*—president (titular chief of state), chancellor (executive head of government). *Legislative*—bicameral parliament. *Judicial*—independent, Federal Constitutional Court. **Subdivisions:** 16 *Laender* (states)—Baden-Wuerttemberg, Bayern (Bavaria), Berlin, Brandenburg*, Bremen, Hamburg, Hessen (Hesse), Mecklenburg-Vorpommern*, Niedersachsen (Lower Saxony), Nordrhein-Westfalen (North Rhine-Westphalia), Rheinland-Pfalz, Saarland, Sachsen (Saxony)*, Sachsen-Anhalt*, Schleswig-Holstein, Thuringen (Thuringia)*. (* = formerly part of the GDR) **Major political parties:** Christian Democratic Union (CDU); Christian Social Union (CSU); Social Democratic Party (SPD); Free Democratic Party (FDP); Greens/Alliance 90; Party of Democratic Socialism (PDS). **Suffrage:** Universal at 18. **Central government budget** (1990): \$245 billion. **Defense budget** (original 11 states,

1990): 2.2% of GNP. **Flag:** Three horizontal bands: black, red, and gold, from top to bottom.

Economy (for original 11 states)

GNP (1989): \$1.2 trillion. *Annual growth rate* (1989): 4%. *Per capita income:* \$19,000. *Inflation rate* (1988): 2.8%. **Natural resources:** Iron, hard coal, lignite, potash, natural gas. **Agriculture** (1.5% of GNP): *Products*—corn, wheat, potatoes, sugar beets, barley, hops, viticulture, forestry, fisheries. **Industry** (40% of GNP): *Types*—iron and steel, coal, chemicals, electrical products, ships, vehicles, construction. **Trade** (1989): *Exports*—\$367 billion: chemicals, motor vehicles, iron and steel products, manufactured goods, electrical products. *Major markets* (1988)—European Community 54%, other European countries 19%, US 8%, developing countries 7%, Soviet Union 2%. *Imports*—\$269 billion: food, petroleum products, manufactured goods, electrical products, automobiles, apparel. *Major suppliers* (1988)—European Community countries 52%, other European countries 16%, US 7%, developing countries 10%, Soviet Union 2%. **Exchange rate** (November 1990): 1.50 Deutsche marks=US \$1.

Membership in International Organizations

Council of Europe, North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), INTELSAT, European Community (EC), Western European Union (WEU), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), and the United Nations and UN-related agencies, including the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank), and International Monetary Fund (IMF).



PEOPLE

The population of the unified FRG is primarily German; however, there are a substantial number of foreign guest workers and their dependents. An ethnic Danish minority lives in the north, and a small Slavic minority known as the Sorbs lives in eastern Germany. Renowned for their economic productivity, Germans are well-educated. Since the end of World War II, the number of youths entering universities has nearly tripled, and the trade and technical schools in the original 11 states of the FRG are among the world's best.

German culture has produced some of the greatest artists and intellectuals of all time. Composers, artists, writers,

scholars, and scientists have always enjoyed prestige in Germany.

With per capita income levels approaching \$20,000 in the original 11 states, postwar Germany has become a broadly middle class society. A generous social welfare system provides for universal medical care, unemployment compensation, and other social needs. Modern Germans also are mobile; millions travel abroad each year.

With unification on October 3, 1990, the FRG has started the major task of bringing the standard of living of Germans in the former GDR up to the levels of western Germany. It appears that this will be a lengthy and difficult process, due to the relative inefficiency of the industrial enterprises in the

former GDR, the poor infrastructure in this area, the environmental damage in eastern Germany brought on by years of mismanagement under communist rule, and difficulty in resolving property ownership in the former GDR.

HISTORY

Germanic tribes, migrating south and west, entered the present territory of Germany nearly 4,000 years ago. They pushed back the Celts and were strongly established before encountering the Romans moving north under Varus, one of Augustus' generals. The Germans annihilated the Roman forces and killed Varus in the battle of the Teutoburg Forest in 9 AD, effectively stopping Roman expansion on the Danube-Rhine line.

Thus, much of Germany did not experience Latin culture directly and adopted Christianity later than did the Roman world. The baptism of Clovis in 496 AD opened the way for widespread conversion of the Germanic tribes and culminated three centuries later with the crowning of "Karl the Great" (Charlemagne) in 800 as Holy Roman Emperor. For the next 1,000 years, decentralizing forces dominated German politics, leaving power largely in the hands of local princes, often with devastating consequences. The Thirty Years' War (1618-48), a series of conflicts between Protestant and Catholic forces, decimated Germany's population. After the war, an uneasy balance remained between Protestant and Catholic states, which continued to war against each other periodically.

The rise of Prussian power in the 19th century, supported by growing German nationalism, eventually ended the inter-state fighting and resulted in the formation of the German Empire in 1871 under the chancellorship of Otto von Bismarck. Although authoritarian in many respects, the empire eventually permitted the development of political parties and Bismarck was credited with passing the most advanced social welfare legislation of the age. Dynamic expansion of military power, however, contributed to tension on the continent. The fragile European balance of power broke down in 1914, and World War I left millions dead and led to the collapse of the empire.

The Weimar Republic

The postwar Weimar Republic (1919-33) sought to draw on Germany's liberal traditions but was handicapped by terrible economic problems—the inflation of the early 1920s and the post-1929 world depression—as well as the political legacy of the Versailles Treaty, which imposed a heavy burden of reparations and loss of territory. The new experiment in republican, parliamentary democracy was unable to harness the resulting surge of political conflicts, and the republic suffered from a succession of weak governments formed by multi-party coalitions.

The National Socialist (Nazi) Party, led by a demagogic ex-corporal, Adolf Hitler, stressed nationalist themes, such as the alleged betrayal of Germany by German republican representatives at Versailles, promised to put the unemployed back to work, and blamed many of Germany's ills on alleged Jewish conspiracies. Its electorate expanded rapidly in the early 1930s, but the Nazi party never achieved a majority prior to coming to power. Only after months of deadlock was Hitler asked to form a government as Reich Chancellor in January 1933. After President Paul von Hindenburg died in 1934, Hitler assumed that office as well. Once in power, Hitler and his party first undermined then abolished democratic institutions and opposition parties and installed a program of racism that resulted in the deliberate, widespread extermination of Jews and other minority groups during World War II. In the 1930s, Hitler also began to restore Germany's economy and military strength. His ambitions led Germany into launching World War II and suffering destruction, defeat, and loss of territory.

After Germany's unconditional surrender on May 8, 1945, the United States, the United Kingdom, and the USSR occupied the country and assumed responsibility for its administration. The commanders-in-chief exercised supreme authority in their respective zones and, sitting as the Allied Control Council (ACC), acted in concert on questions affecting the whole country. France was later invited to join the ACC and was given a separate zone of occupation.

At Potsdam in August 1945, the United States, the United Kingdom, and the Soviet Union agreed to a broad program of decentralization, treating Germany as a single economic unit with some central administrative departments. These plans failed, primarily because of inter-Allied conflict. The turning point came in 1948 when the Soviets withdrew from the Four Power governing bodies and blockaded Berlin.

Political Developments In West Germany

The United States and the United Kingdom moved to establish a nucleus for a future German government by expanding the size and powers of the German Economic Council in their two zones. The program provided for a West German constituent assembly, an occupation statute governing relations between the Allies and the German authorities, and the economic merger of the French with the British and American zones.

On May 23, 1949, the Basic Law, or constitution, of the Federal Republic of Germany was promulgated. The first federal government was formed by Konrad Adenauer on Sept. 20, 1949. The next day, the occupation statute came into force, granting full powers of self-government with certain exceptions.

The FRG quickly progressed toward fuller sovereignty and association with European neighbors and the Atlantic community. The London and Paris agreements of 1954 restored full sovereignty to the FRG when they went into effect on May 5, 1955 and opened the way for German membership in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and the Western European Union (WEU).

The three Allies retained occupation powers in Berlin and certain responsibilities for Germany as a whole. Under the new arrangements, the Allies stationed troops within the FRG for NATO defense, pursuant to stationing and status-of-forces agreements. With the exception of 45,000 French troops, Allied forces were under NATO's joint defense command.

Political life in the FRG was remarkably stable and orderly. The Adenauer era (1949-63) was followed by

a brief period under Ludwig Erhard (1963-66) who, in turn, was replaced by Kurt Georg Kiesinger (1966-69). Kiesinger's 1966-69 "Grand Coalition" included the CDU/CSU and the Social Democratic Party (SPD). Governments between 1949 and 1966 were all formed by the united caucus of the Christian Democratic Union (CDU) and Christian Social Union (CSU), either alone or in coalition with the smaller Free Democratic Party (FDP).

In the 1969 election, the Social Democratic Party (SPD), headed by Willy Brandt, gained enough votes to form a coalition government with the FDP. Chancellor Brandt remained head of government until May 1974, when he resigned after a senior member of his staff was arrested and accused of being an officer in the East German intelligence service.

Finance Minister Helmut Schmidt formed a government and received the unanimous support of coalition members. Hans-Dietrich Genscher, a leading FDP official, became the vice chancellor and foreign minister. Schmidt, a strong supporter of the European Community (EC) and the Atlantic alliance, emphasized his commitment to "the political unification of Europe in partnership with the USA."

In October 1982, the SPD/FDP coalition fell apart and the FDP joined forces with the CDU/CSU to elect CDU Chairman Helmut Kohl as chancellor. Following national elections in March 1983, Kohl emerged in firm control of both the government and the CDU. The CDU/CSU fell just short of an absolute majority, due to the entry into the *Bundestag* of the Greens, who received 5.6% of the vote.

In January 1987, the Kohl/Genscher government was returned to office, but the FDP and the Greens gained at the expense of the larger parties. Kohl's CDU and its Bavarian sister party, the CSU, slipped from 49% of the vote in 1983 to 44%. The SPD fell to 37%. Long-time SPD Chairman Brandt subsequently resigned in April 1987 and was succeeded by Hans-Jochen Vogel. The FDP rose from 7% to 9%, their best showing since 1980. The Greens also significantly strengthened their place in the *Bundestag*, rising from 5.6% (1983) to 8.3% (1987).

Political Developments in East Germany

In the Soviet zone, the Social Democratic party was forced to merge with the Communist party in 1946 to form a new party, the Socialist Unity Party (SED). The October 1946 elections resulted in coalition governments in the five *Land* (state) parliaments with the SED as the undisputed leader.

A series of people's congresses were called in 1948 and early 1949 by the SED. Under Soviet direction, a constitution was drafted on May 30, 1949, and adopted on October 7, which was celebrated as the day when the German Democratic Republic was proclaimed. The People's Chamber (*Volkskammer*), the lower house of the GDR parliament, and an upper house, the States Chamber (*Laenderkammer*), were created. (The *Laenderkammer* was abolished in 1958.) On October 11, 1949, the two houses elected Wilhelm Pieck as president and an SED government was set up. The Soviet Union and its East European allies immediately recognized the GDR, although it remained largely unrecognized by non-communist countries until 1972-73.

The GDR established the structures of a single-party, centralized communist state. On July 23, 1952, the traditional *Laender* were abolished and, in their place, 14 *Bezirke* (districts) were established. All effective government control was in the hands of the SED and almost all important government positions were held by SED members.

The National Front was an umbrella organization nominally consisting of the SED, four other political parties controlled and directed by the SED, and the four principal mass organizations (youth, trade unions, women, and culture). However, control was clearly and solely in the hands of the SED. Balloting in GDR elections was not secret. As in other Soviet bloc countries, electoral participation was consistently high, with nearly unanimous candidate approval.

Inter-German Relations

The constant stream of East Germans fleeing to West Germany placed great

strains on FRG-GDR relations in the 1950s. On August 13, 1961, the GDR began building a wall through the center of Berlin, effectively dividing the city and slowing the flood of refugees to a trickle. The Berlin Wall became the symbol of the East's political debility and the division of Europe.

In 1969, FRG Chancellor Brandt announced that the FRG would remain firmly rooted in the Atlantic alliance but would intensify efforts to improve relations with Eastern Europe and the GDR.

The FRG commenced its *Ostpolitik* by negotiating non-aggression treaties with the Soviet Union, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, and Hungary. The FRG's relations with the GDR posed particularly difficult questions. Though anxious to relieve serious hardships for divided families and to reduce friction, the FRG under Brandt was intent on holding to its concept of "two German states in one German nation."

Relations improved, and, in September 1973, the FRG and the GDR were admitted to the UN. The two Germanys exchanged permanent representatives in 1974, and, in 1987, GDR head of state Erich Honecker paid an official visit to the FRG.

German Unification

During the summer of 1989, rapid change in the GDR ultimately led to German unification. Growing numbers of East Germans emigrated to the FRG via Hungary after the Hungarians decided not to use force to stop them. Thousands of East Germans also tried to reach the West by staging sit-ins at FRG diplomatic facilities in other East European capitals. The exodus generated demands within the GDR for political change, and mass demonstrations in several cities—particularly in Leipzig—continued to grow. On October 7, Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev visited Berlin to celebrate the 40th anniversary of the establishment of the GDR and urged the East German leadership to pursue reform.

On October 18, Erich Honecker resigned as head of the SED and head of state and was replaced by Egon Krenz. But the exodus continued

unabated, and pressure for political reform mounted. On November 4, a demonstration in East Berlin drew an estimated 500,000—1 million East Germans. Finally, on November 9, the Berlin Wall was opened, and East Germans were allowed to travel freely. Thousands poured through the Wall into the western sectors of Berlin, and on November 12, the GDR began dismantling it.

On November 28, FRG Chancellor Kohl outlined a 10-point plan for the peaceful unification of the two Germanys based on free elections in the GDR and a unification of their two economies. In December, the GDR *Volkskammer* eliminated the SED monopoly on power, and the entire Politburo and Central Committee—including Krenz—resigned. The SED changed its name to the Party of Democratic Socialism (PDS) and the formation and growth of numerous political groups and parties marked the end of the former communist system. Prime Minister Hans Modrow headed a caretaker government which shared power with the new democratically oriented parties. On December 7, 1989, agreement was reached to hold free elections in May 1990 and rewrite the GDR constitution. On January 28, all the parties agreed to advance the elections to March 18, primarily because of an erosion of state authority and because the East German exodus continued with over 117,000 leaving for the West in January and February 1990.

In early February 1990, the Modrow government's proposal for a unified, neutral German state was rejected by Chancellor Kohl, who affirmed that a unified Germany must be a member of NATO. Finally, on March 18, the first free elections were held in the GDR, and a government led by Lothar de Maiziere (CDU) was formed under a policy of expeditious unification with the FRG. The freely elected representatives of the *Volkskammer* held their first session on April 5, and the GDR peacefully evolved from a communist to a democratically elected government. Free and secret communal (local) elections were held in the GDR on May 6, and the CDU again won. On July 1, the two Germanys entered into an economic and monetary union.

Four Power Control Ends

During 1990, in parallel with internal German developments, the Four Powers—the United States, Britain, France, and the Soviet Union—negotiated to end Four Power reserved rights for Berlin and Germany as a whole. These “Two-plus-Four” negotiations were mandated at the Ottawa Open Skies conference on February 13, 1990. The six foreign ministers met four times in the ensuing months in Bonn (May 5), Berlin (June 22), Paris (July 17), and Moscow (September 12). The Polish Foreign Minister participated in that part of the Paris meeting that dealt with the Polish-German borders.

Of key importance was overcoming Soviet objections to a united Germany's membership in NATO. This was accomplished in July when the alliance—led by President Bush—issued the London Declaration on a transformed NATO. On July 16, President Gorbachev and Chancellor Kohl announced agreement in principle on a united Germany in NATO. This cleared the way for signing the “Treaty on the Final Settlement With Respect to Germany” in Moscow on September 12.

In addition to terminating Four Power rights, the treaty mandates the withdrawal of all Soviet forces from Germany by the end of 1994, makes clear that the current borders are final and definitive, and specifies the right of a united Germany to belong to NATO. It also provides for the continued presence of British, French, and American troops in Berlin during the interim period of the Soviet withdrawal. In the treaty, the Germans renounced nuclear, biological, and chemical weapons and stated their intention to reduce German armed forces to 370,000 within 3–4 years after the conventional armed forces in Europe (CFE) agreement (signed in Paris on November 19, 1990) enters into force.

Conclusion of the final settlement cleared the way for unification of the FRG and GDR. Formal political union occurred on October 3, 1990, with the accession (in accordance with Article 23 of the FRG's Basic Law) of the five *Laender*, which had been reestablished in the GDR. On December 2, 1990, all-

German elections were held for the first time since 1937. The CDU/CSU received 44% of the vote and the FDP received 11%, giving the governing coalition 55% of the vote and 398 of 662 seats in the *Bundestag*. The SPD opposition won 34% of the vote and 239 seats. Under the special provisions of the first all-German elections, parties in the former GDR who received 5% of the vote in that area were also able to receive representation. The Party of Democratic Socialism received 10% of the vote in the former GDR and 17 seats in the *Bundestag*, and an alliance of the Greens and several left-wing organizations (Alliance 90) won 6% of the vote in East Germany and 8 *Bundestag* seats. However, in West Germany, since the Greens won only 4.7% of the vote, they did not receive any *Bundestag* seats.

GOVERNMENT

The government is parliamentary and based on a democratic constitution that emphasizes the protection of individual liberty and divided power in a federal structure. The chancellor (prime minister) heads the executive branch of the federal government. The president's duties (chief of state) are largely ceremonial; power is exercised by the chancellor. Although elected by and responsible to the *Bundestag* (lower and principal chamber of the parliament), the chancellor cannot be removed from office during a 4-year term unless the *Bundestag* has agreed on a successor.

The *Bundestag*, also elected for a 4-year term, consists of 662 deputies. The first elections for an all-German *Bundestag* were held on December 2, 1990. The *Bundesrat* (upper chamber or Federal Council) consists of 68 members who are delegates of the 16 *Laender*. The legislature has powers of exclusive jurisdiction and concurrent jurisdiction (with the *Laender*) in fields specifically enumerated by the Basic Law. The *Bundestag* bears the major responsibility, and the role of the *Bundesrat* is limited except in matters concerning *Laender* interests, where it can exercise substantial veto power.

The FRG has an independent federal judiciary consisting of a constitutional court, a high court of

Principal Government Officials

President—
Richard von Weizsaecker
President of the Bundestag—
Rita Suessmuth (CDU)
Chancellor—Helmut Kohl (CDU)
Vice Chancellor—
Hans-Dietrich Genscher (FDP)
Minister of Defense—
Gerhard Stoltenberg (CDU)
Minister for Foreign Affairs—
Hans-Dietrich Genscher (FDP)
Ambassador to the US—
Dr. Juergen Ruhfus
Ambassador to the UN—
Detlew Graf zu Rantzau

The FRG maintains an embassy in the United States at 4645 Reservoir Road NW, Washington, DC 20007 (tel. 202-298-4000).

FRG consulates general are located in Atlanta, Boston, Chicago, Detroit, Houston, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Seattle, and New York. Consulates are located in Miami and New Orleans.

justice, and courts with jurisdiction in administrative, financial, labor, and social matters. The highest court is the Federal Constitutional Court which ensures a uniform interpretation of constitutional provisions and protects the fundamental rights of the individual citizen as defined in the Basic Law.

Political Parties

• **Christian Democratic Union/Christian Social Union (CDU/CSU)**
An important aspect of postwar German politics has been the emergence of a moderate Christian party, the Christian Democratic Union, operating with a related Bavarian party, the Christian Social Union. Although each party maintains its own structure, the two form a common caucus in the *Bundestag* and do not run opposing campaigns. The CDU/CSU is loosely organized, containing Catholics, Protestants, rural interests, and members of all economic classes. It is generally conservative on economic and social policy and more identified with the Roman Catholic and Protestant churches than are the other major parties, although its programs are

pragmatic rather than ideological. Helmut Kohl has served as chairman of the CDU since 1973; Theo Waigel succeeded the late Franz Josef Strauss as chairman of the CSU in 1988.

• **Social Democratic Party (SPD)**

The SPD is the other major party in the FRG and is one of the oldest organized political parties in the world. Historically, it advocated Marxist principles, but in the "Godesberg Program," adopted in 1959, the SPD abandoned the concept of a class party, while continuing to stress social welfare programs. Although the SPD originally opposed West Germany's 1955 entry into NATO, it now emphasizes German ties with the alliance. However, the SPD often has opposed specific NATO programs and has advanced its own proposals under the banner of "security partnership" with the East. The SPD has a powerful base in the bigger cities and industrialized *Laender*. Bjoern Engholm became the SPD chairman in May 1991.

• **The Free Democratic Party**

(FDP) The FDP has traditionally been composed mainly of middle- and upper-class Protestants who consider themselves "independents" and heirs to the European liberal tradition. Although the party is weak on the state level, it has participated in all but three postwar governments and has spent only 7 years out of government in the 40-year history of the Federal Republic. Otto Graf Lambsdorff was elected chairman of the FDP in 1988. A leading figure in the party is Hans-Dietrich Genscher, who has served since 1974 as the West German Vice Chancellor and Foreign Minister in coalition governments with both the SPD and the CDU/CSU.

• **The Party of Democratic Socialism (PDS)** Under chairman Gregor Gysi, the PDS is the successor party to the SED (communist party). Established in December 1989, it renounced most of the extreme aspects of SED policy, but has retained much of the ideology of the SED. In the December 1990 all-German elections, the PDS gained 10% of the vote in the territory of the former GDR and 17 seats in the *Bundestag*. However, having won only 0.3% of the vote in western Germany, it is questionable whether the PDS will win

representation in the next German election, when the 5% hurdle will apply throughout all of Germany.

• **Greens** In the 1970s, environmentalists organized politically as the Greens. Opposition to expanded use of nuclear power, to NATO strategy, and to aspects of highly industrialized society were the principle campaign issues. The Greens received 8% of the vote in the January 1987 West German national election. However, in the December 1990 all-German elections, the Greens in western Germany were not able to clear the 5% hurdle required to win seats in the *Bundestag*. It was only in the territory of the former GDR that the Greens, in an alliance with Alliance 90 (a loose grouping of left-wing political entities with diverse political views), were able to clear the 5% hurdle and win *Bundestag* seats.

ECONOMY

Germany ranks among the world's most important economic powers. From the 1948 currency reform until the early 1970s, it experienced almost continuous economic expansion, but real growth in gross national product (GNP) slowed and even declined from the mid-1970s through the recession of the early 1980s. Since then, however, the FRG has experienced 8 consecutive years of economic growth. The German economy grew 4% in 1989 and should equal that performance again in 1990.

Germans often describe their economic system as a "social market economy." Competition and free enterprise are fostered as a matter of government policy. However, the state also intervenes in the economy through the provision of subsidies to selected sectors and the ownership of some segments of the economy, including such public services as railroad, airline, and telephone systems. The German government also provides an extensive network of social services.

The FRG economy is heavily export oriented, with one-third of its national output shipped abroad annually. As a result, exports have traditionally been a key element in German macro-economic expansion. Over the past 2 years, however, domestic demand has been the main engine of economic growth. The FRG has long

been a strong advocate of closer European economic integration, and its economic and commercial policies are increasingly determined by agreements among EC members.

Outside the EC, the United States, Austria, and Switzerland are the FRG's major trading partners. The United States had sales of about \$20 billion (a 7.6% share of the FRG import market) in 1988. In that year, the FRG exported goods valued at about \$25 billion to the United States (an 8% share of the US import market), including motor vehicles, machinery, chemicals, and electrical equipment. US sales to the FRG are concentrated in chemicals, machinery, edible fats and oils, aircraft, electrical equipment, and motor vehicles.

The FRG has followed a liberal policy toward foreign investment. About 65% of US capital invested in the FRG is in manufacturing—the largest share in the automobile industry—and another 25% is in petroleum. Total US assets in the FRG amounted to \$20 billion at the end of 1988. German capital has come increasingly to the United States. At the end of 1988, net FRG direct investment amounted to \$27 billion.

Principal US Officials

Ambassador—Vernon A. Walters
Deputy Chief of Mission—
George F. Ward
Minister-Counselor for Political
Affairs—Douglas H. Jones
Minister-Counselor for Economic
Affairs—Donald B. Kursch
Minister-Counselor for Commercial
Affairs—John W. Bligh, Jr.
Minister-Counselor for Adminis-
trative Affairs—Harold W. Geisel
Minister-Counselor for Consular
Affairs—Norman A. Singer
Minister-Counselor for Public
Affairs—Cynthia J. Miller

The US embassy is located at Deichmanns Aue 29, 5300 Bonn 2 (tel. 0228-3391). A US embassy office is in Berlin, and consulates general are at Frankfurt, Hamburg, Munich, and Stuttgart. A consulate general is scheduled to open in 1991 in Leipzig.

With the unification of the two German states, the FRG faces the complex task of rapidly introducing a market economy in the East. Since overall productivity in the former GDR was less than half that in the FRG, closing the economic gap between East and West will be a major undertaking. The poor condition of basic infrastructure and widespread environmental damage in the East will further complicate the process of economic integration. Private investment in eastern Germany has been slower than expected, in large part since the issue of property ownership in the former GDR has proven difficult to resolve. But most observers nevertheless continue to believe that after an initial period of economic adjustment, eastern Germany will enter into an era of rapid and sustained economic growth.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

The unified Germany continues to emphasize close ties with the United States, membership in NATO, progress toward further West European integration, and improved relations with Eastern Europe. The FRG took part in all of the joint postwar efforts aimed at closer political, economic, and defense cooperation among the countries of Western Europe. The FRG is also a strong supporter of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE), which seeks to reduce tensions and improve relations among the European nations, the US, and Canada.

During the postwar era, the FRG sought to improve its relationship with the countries of Eastern Europe, initially establishing trade agreements and, subsequently, diplomatic relations. With unification, German relations with Eastern Europe have intensified. The FRG and Poland signed a treaty confirming the Oder-Neisse border on November 14, 1990, and are negotiating a broader agreement to cover bilateral relations. The FRG has also concluded four treaties with the Soviet Union covering the overall bilateral relationship, economic relations, the withdrawal of Soviet troops in the territory of the former GDR, and FRG support for these troops.

US-GERMAN RELATIONS

US-German relations have been a focal point of American involvement in Europe since the end of World War II. The FRG stands at the center of East-West relations, as well as of US relations with the West Europeans in NATO and the European Community.

But German-American ties extend back to the colonial era. More than 7 million Germans have immigrated over the last three centuries, and today nearly 25% of all US citizens can claim German ancestry. In recognition of this heritage and the importance of modern-day US-German ties, Congress has declared October 6 to be "German-American Day."

The US objective in Germany remains the preservation and consolidation of a close and vital relationship with the FRG not only as friends and trading partners but also as allies sharing common institutions. During the 45 years in which Germany was divided, the US role in Berlin and the large American military presence in West Germany served as symbols of US commitment to the preservation of peace and security in Europe. Since German unification, the US commitment to these goals has not changed. American policies continue to be shaped by the awareness that the security and prosperity of the United States and Germany depend—to a major degree—on each other.

As allies in NATO, the United States and Germany work side by side to maintain peace and freedom. This unity and resolve made possible the successful conclusion of the 1987 US-USSR Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty (INF), the Two-plus-Four process which led to the Final Settlement Treaty, and the November 1990 conventional armed forces in Europe (CFE) agreement.

As two of the world's leading trading nations, the United States and the FRG share a common, deep-seated commitment to an open and expanding world economy. After the United States, Germany is the world's second leading trading nation. It is the fourth largest trading partner of the United States.

Personal ties between the United States and the FRG extend beyond immigration to include lively foreign

exchange programs, booming tourism in both directions, and the presence in the FRG of large numbers of American military personnel and their dependents.

The United States and the FRG have built a solid foundation of bilateral cooperation in a relationship that has changed significantly over four decades. The historic unification of Germany and the role played by the United States in that process has served to strengthen ties between the two countries. The relationship now constitutes a mature partnership but remains subject to occasional misunderstandings and differences. These strains tend to reflect the importance, variety, and intensity of US-FRG ties and respective interests rather than fundamental differences.

German-American political, economic, and security relationships continue to be based on close consultation and coordination at the most senior levels. High-level visits take place frequently, and the United States and the FRG cooperate actively in international forums.

BERLIN

The Final Settlement Treaty ends Berlin's special status since 1945 as a separate area under Four Power control. By the terms of the treaty between the FRG and the GDR, Berlin becomes the capital of a unified Germany, but a decision on the seat of government has been left to the *Bundestag* elected in December 1990. Berlin is also one of the Federal Republic's 16 *Laender*. Its first united government since 1948 also was elected on December 2, 1990.

The opening of the Berlin Wall on November 9, 1989, was a watershed in the developments which culminated in German unity on October 3, 1990. The infamous 165-kilometer (103 mi.) wall surrounding the Western sectors of the city has been torn down, and the city is being physically reunited as streets, subways, and rail lines are rejoined.

Shortly after World War II, Berlin became the seat of the Allied Control Council, which was to govern Germany as a whole until the conclusion of a peace settlement. In 1948, however,

the Soviets refused to participate any longer in the quadripartite administration of Germany. At the same time, they also refused to continue to cooperate in the joint administration of Berlin, drove the government elected by the people of Berlin out of its seat in the Soviet sector, and installed a communist regime in its place.

Between then and unification, the Western Allies continued to exercise supreme authority (effectively only in their sectors) through the Allied *Kommandatura*. To the degree compatible with the city's special status, however, they turned over control and management of city affairs to the Berlin *Senat* (executive) and House of Representatives, governing bodies established by constitutional process and chosen on the basis of free elections. The Allies and the German authorities in the FRG and West Berlin never recognized the communist city regime in East Berlin or GDR authority there.

During the years of Berlin's isolation 176 kilometers (110 mi.) inside the former GDR, the Western allies encouraged a close relationship between the government of West Berlin and that of the FRG. Representatives of the city participated as non-voting members in the FRG parliament; appropriate West German agencies, such as the supreme administrative court, had their permanent seats in the city; and the governing mayor of Berlin took his or her turn as president of the *Bundesrat*. In addition, the Allies carefully consulted with the FRG and Berlin

Travel Notes

Climate and clothing: Germany is in the temperate zone but is cooler than much of the United States, especially in summer. Lightweight summer clothing is seldom needed.

Customs and immigrations: No visa is required of US citizens. Inoculations are not required.

Health: Community sanitation and cleanliness standards are high. Drinking water, dairy products, and other foods are under strict government control and generally meet or exceed US standards.

Telecommunications: Telephone and telegraph services, domestic and

international, are efficient, although it is still difficult to telephone from the territory of the former GDR. Bonn is 6 hours ahead of eastern standard time.

Transportation: Frankfurt's international airport is a center of European air traffic. Most airlines operate services to the FRG. Express trains are available. An extensive network of highways (Autobahnen) connects most major cities. Car rentals are expensive but widely available. Third-party liability insurance is mandatory. Mass transportation facilities (trains, street-cars, subways) are crowded but efficient. Taxis are available in all cities.

governments on foreign policy questions involving unification and the status of Berlin.

The Quadripartite Agreement on Berlin in 1971 also provided for practical improvements in the life of Berliners. It made possible unhindered civilian access to Berlin and greater freedom of movement between the eastern and western sectors for a period of 20 years, in addition to containing a Soviet acknowledgment of the ties that had grown between West Berlin and the FRG, including the latter's right to represent Berlin abroad.

Between 1948 and 1990, major events such as fairs and festivals were sponsored in West Berlin, and investment in commerce and industry was encouraged by special concessionary tax legislation. The results of such efforts, combined with effective city administration and the

Berliners' energy and spirit, have been encouraging. Berlin's morale has been sustained, and its industrial production has considerably surpassed the prewar level. Although the Allies' responsibility has ended, they have been asked to maintain a military presence in the city until the Soviets have withdrawn completely. ■

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Robert M. Kimmitt
U.S. Ambassador to Germany

Mr. Kimmitt has been Ambassador to Germany since September 1991. Prior to his appointment in Bonn, he served as Under Secretary of State for Political Affairs in the Department of State. For his service during the Gulf War, President Bush awarded Ambassador Kimmitt the Presidential Citizens Medal, the nation's second highest civilian award.

Prior to joining the State Department in 1989, Mr. Kimmitt was a partner in the Washington office of a Chicago law firm; General Counsel at the Treasury Department, under then-Treasury Secretary James Baker, and; as a member of the National Security Council, where he was appointed as Executive Secretary and General Counsel.

Ambassador Kimmitt graduated with distinction from the U.S. Military Academy at West Point in 1969, and received a law degree from Georgetown University in 1977. He served in the 173rd Airborne Brigade in Vietnam, earning three Bronze Stars, the Purple Heart, the Air Medal, and the Vietnamese Cross of Gallantry. He is currently a Colonel in the Army Reserve.

Key Officers in Bonn:

Deputy Chief of Mission: George F. Ward, Jr.
Political Officer: Douglas H. Jones
Economic Officer: Donald B. Kursch
Commercial Officer: John W. Bligh, Jr.
Consular Officer: Norman A. Singer
Administrative Officer: Harold W. Geisel
Regional Security Officer: Steven B. Bray
Labor Officer: Dan E. Turnquist
Public Affairs Officer: Cynthia A. Miller
Defense Attaché: Col. Bernard E. McDaniel, USA
Information Systems Manager: Carol Rodley
Communications Program Officer: John Hughs
Science Officer: Francis M. Kinnelly

Key Officers in Munich:

Consul General: Andrew G. Thoms, Jr.
Political Officer: James F. Jeffrey
Communications Officer: Edward E. Ruse III
Consular Officer: Kathleen M. Cayer
Administrative Officer: Donald E. Mason
Regional Security Officer: John Jarrell
Branch Public Affairs Officer: Kathryn L. Koob

Helmut KOHL

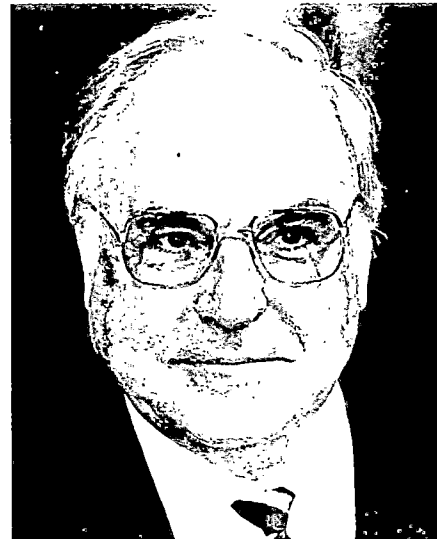
GERMANY

Chancellor (since 1982)

Addressed as: Mr. Chancellor

The first post – World War II Chancellor of a united Germany, Helmut Kohl led his coalition to its third straight electoral victory in December 1990. Kohl, who has been chairman of the Christian Democratic Union since 1973, heads a coalition made up of his CDU; its Bavarian sister party, the Christian Social Union (CSU); and the liberal Free Democratic Party. He has already declared that he intends to lead his party again in the 1994 national election.

Since unification, Kohl has faced the twin challenges of economically revitalizing the new eastern German states while dealing with the social scars left behind by four decades of Communism. His government has begun to see progress on its program to privatize state-owned businesses and is witnessing results from an infusion of massive aid from the western German states. The social reconstruction has been difficult; since unification two eastern German minister-presidents from Kohl's CDU have had to resign because of past links to the East German Government. As a step toward healing past wounds, Kohl's government is permitting people to review the secret police files compiled on them by the Communist regime.



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Kohl is also trying to define a new role for unified Germany in Europe and the world. He has said that he wants Germany to continue playing a key part in the process of European integration and that he is also committed to NATO and continued strong ties to the United States. Kohl has defended the vigorous way in which Germany championed EC recognition of Slovenia and Croatia, saying that the move heightened the chances for peace. He has told the press that he considers helping to rebuild the economies of eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union as among Germany's most important foreign policy priorities for the next decade.

Kohl was born on 3 April 1930. He studied history, law, and political science at the Universities of Frankfurt and Heidelberg and received a doctorate in history from Heidelberg in 1958. First elected to the Rhineland-Palatinate legislature in 1959, he subsequently served as deputy chairman (1961-63) and chairman (1963-69) of its CDU caucus. He was elected Minister-President in 1969 and served until 1976, when he moved to Bonn as CDU/CSU caucus chairman.

Kohl smokes a pipe and is a connoisseur of wine. He enjoys swimming, hiking, watching soccer, and listening to both classical and modern music. Kohl speaks English. He and his wife, Hannelore, have two sons. The older son has a degree from Harvard and works for Morgan Stanley in New York City. The younger son is a graduate of MIT.

30 January 1992

Hans-Dietrich GENSCHER
(Phonetic: GHENsher)

GERMANY

*Vice Chancellor; Minister of
Foreign Affairs (since 1974)*

Addressed as: Mr. Minister

The dean of Western foreign ministers, Hans-Dietrich Genscher is also Germany's longest serving member of the government, having first entered the Cabinet in 1969. He consistently ranks first in German popularity polls. The chairman of the Free Democratic Party (FDP) during 1974-85, Genscher remains very influential within the party, according to press reports. Despite having recently celebrated his 65th birthday, he has told the press, "I am not thinking of stepping down."



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Now that Germany is united, Genscher says his goal is to help create "a free, federalistic, and whole Europe as a central link for an overarching sphere of partnership stretching from Vancouver to Vladivostok." He has long supported European integration and supports a "peace order that overcomes nationalistic thinking in favor of a European federalism." The press reports that he works especially closely with French Foreign Minister Roland Dumas in striving to fulfill these goals.

Genscher was born on 21 March 1927 near Halle. After studying law at the Universities of Halle and Leipzig, he left East Germany in 1952 and completed his law studies at the University of Hamburg. He now visits Halle regularly, and the press reports that he is especially popular in his old hometown. A member of the FDP since 1952, Genscher began working for its Bundestag parliamentary caucus in 1956 and served as its business manager during 1959-65. He was also business manager for the national party organization during 1962-64 and deputy chairman during 1968-74. Genscher was first elected as a member of parliament in 1965. He was Minister of the Interior from 1969 until he assumed his present post in 1974. In September 1982 Genscher ended his party's 13-year coalition with the Social Democratic Party and relinquished his Cabinet posts. Less than two weeks later he brought the FDP into the present Christian Democratic Union/Christian Social Union - FDP coalition and reassumed his duties as Vice Chancellor and Foreign Minister.

Genscher speaks French and English. He is a soccer fan and an enthusiastic swimmer. He enjoys music (Dvorak and Tchaikovsky), modern paintings (Feininger), and mystery stories (especially those by Agatha Christie). Genscher collects pewter beakers and plates. He is married to the former Barbara Schmidt and has a daughter from a previous marriage.

20 April 1992

Richard VON WEIZSAECKER
(Phonetic: fohn VITESzecker)

GERMANY

President (since 1984)

Addressed as: Mr. President

A Christian Democratic Union member and the Federal Republic's sixth president, Richard von Weizsaecker holds a nonpartisan and largely ceremonial post. Immensely popular throughout Germany, he was elected to a second five-year term in May 1989. Von Weizsaecker frequently represents his country abroad, and the German press credits him with taking the lead in visiting eastern Germany and making its citizens feel a part of a unified nation. He has been a strong proponent of moving the seat of government to Berlin, and the German press cites his advocacy as a major reason for Berlin winning the Bundestag vote over Bonn in 1991.



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Von Weizsaecker has used the presidency to speak out on a number of important issues. The press reports that he was the first German official to condemn the violence against people seeking asylum in Germany. He has called on the public to show foreigners living in Germany the same respect and humanity that they would expect from their fellow citizens. His successful visits to foreign countries have also increased his—and Germany's—stature. In 1985 he was the first German president to visit Israel, and he has been especially active in furthering relations with Central and Eastern Europe.

Von Weizsaecker was born on 15 April 1920. He is a member of a prominent family that once was part of the Wuerttemberg landed aristocracy. The son of a diplomat, he spent much of his youth outside of Germany. During World War II he served in the infantry and was wounded several times. He then studied law and history at Oxford and in Grenoble and Goettingen, receiving a doctorate in law in 1954. From 1950 until 1967 he practiced law and held important posts in industry and banking. Elected to the Bundestag in 1969, von Weizsaecker represented Rhineland-Palatinate until 1979, when he moved his political base to West Berlin. During 1981-84 he served as Governing Mayor of Berlin; according to press reports, many Berliners regarded him as one of the city's best postwar leaders. Long active in the Protestant Church, he was a member of its executive board during 1969-85.

Von Weizsaecker has visited the United States several times and speaks fluent English. He enjoys swimming and hiking. His favorite authors are Shakespeare and Theodor Fontane. Married to the former Marianne von Kretschmann, von Weizsaecker has three sons and a daughter.

20 April 1992



The United States Government has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia into the Soviet Union.
Base 800463 (B00083) 12-87

HELSINKI



- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| 1. City Tourist Office | 11. Pohjoisranta (Ferry to Korkeasaari) | 22. City Theatre 7574 5-88 STATE (INR/GE) |
| 2. Railway Station | 12. Finnish National Theatre | 23. Linnanmaki Amusement Park,
Peacock Theatre |
| 3. Helsinki Congress Bureau | 13. Swedish Theatre | 24. Uspensky Cathedral |
| 4. Bus Station | 14. Finnish National Opera | 25. Temppeliaukio Church |
| 5. Air Terminal | 15. Art Museum of the Ateneum | 26. Olympic Stadium, Swinning Stadium |
| 6. Olympic Harbour | 16. Main Post Office | 27. Ice Rink |
| 7. Passenger Harbour K5 | 17. Parliament House | 28. Sibelius Monument |
| 8. Katajanokka Harbour | 18. National Museum | 29. Helsinki International Fair Center |
| 9. Senate Square, Cathedral | 19. City Museum | |
| 10. Market Square (Ferry to Suomenlinna) | 20. Finlandia Hall | |
| | 21. House of Culture | |

Finland Markka (FMK) Conversion Table at FMK 4.52 = U.S. \$

(Markka = 100 pennia)

Markka to U.S. Dollars		U.S. Dollars to Markka	
Markka	U.S. \$	U.S. \$	Markka
0.50	0.11	0.10	0.45
1.00	0.22	0.25	1.13
2.00	0.44	0.50	2.26
3.00	0.66	0.75	3.39
4.52	1.00	1.00	4.52
<hr/>			
10.00	2.21	3.00	13.56
30.00	6.64	5.00	22.60
50.00	11.06	10.00	45.20
100.00	22.12	20.00	90.40
300.00	66.37	50.00	226.00
500.00	110.62	100.00	452.00
1,000.00	221.24	300.00	1,356.00
2,000.00	442.48	500.00	2,260.00

NOTE: All U.S. dollar values are rounded to nearest U.S. cent.
Value of the Markka fluctuates daily according to currency market conditions.

April 1992

background notes

Finland



United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

August 1990



Official Name: Republic of Finland

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 337,113 sq. km. (130,160 sq. mi.); about the size of New England, New Jersey, and New York combined. **Cities:** *Capital*—Helsinki (pop. 484,399). *Other cities*—Tampere (167,335), Turku (163,655). **Terrain:** Low but hilly, more than 70% forested, with more than 60,000 lakes. **Climate:** Cool; mean annual temperature in Helsinki (1977-86) +5 °C (41 °F); July +17 °C (63 °F); January -6 °C (21 °F).

People

Nationality: *Noun*—Finn(s). *Adjective*—Finnish. **Population** (1989): 4,971,844. **Annual growth rate** (1989): 0.4%. **Ethnic groups:**

Finns, Swedes, Lapps, Gypsies, Tartars. **Religions** (1987): Lutheran 88.7%, Orthodox 1.1%. **Languages:** Finnish 93.6%, Swedish 6%. **Education:** *Years compulsory*—9. *Attendance*—almost 100%. *Literacy*—almost 100%. **Health** (1989): *Infant mortality rate*—6/1,000. *Life expectancy*—males 71 yrs., females 79 yrs. **Work force** (1989, 2,559,000): *Agriculture*—8.7%. *Industry, commerce, and finance*—53.3%. *Services* (public and personal)—24.7%. *Government*—5.4%. *Transport* (storage and communication)—7.1%.

Government

Type: Constitutional republic. **Constitution:** July 17, 1919. **Independence:** December 6, 1917.

Branches: *Executive*—president (chief of state), prime minister (head of government), Council of State (cabinet). *Legislative*—Unicameral parliament. *Judicial*—Supreme Court, regional appellate courts, local courts.

Subdivisions: 12 provinces, provincial self-rule for the Aland Islands.

Political parties: Four largest, in order: Social Democratic Party (SDP), National Coalition (Conservative) Party, Center Party, Leftist Alliance.

Central government budget (1989): \$28.91 billion.

Defense (1989): 1.4% of GDP.

Flag: Light blue cross on a white field.

Economy

GDP (1989): \$114.9 billion. **Annual growth rate:** 5% (GDP). **Per capita income** (1989 est.): \$23,153. **Inflation rate** (1989): 6.6%.

Natural resources: Forests, minerals (copper, zinc, iron), farmland.

Agriculture (3% of GDP): *Products*—meat

(pork and beef), grain (wheat, rye, barley, oats), dairy products, potatoes, rapeseed.

Industry (27% of GDP): *Types*—metal and steel, forest, foodstuffs, textile and clothing.

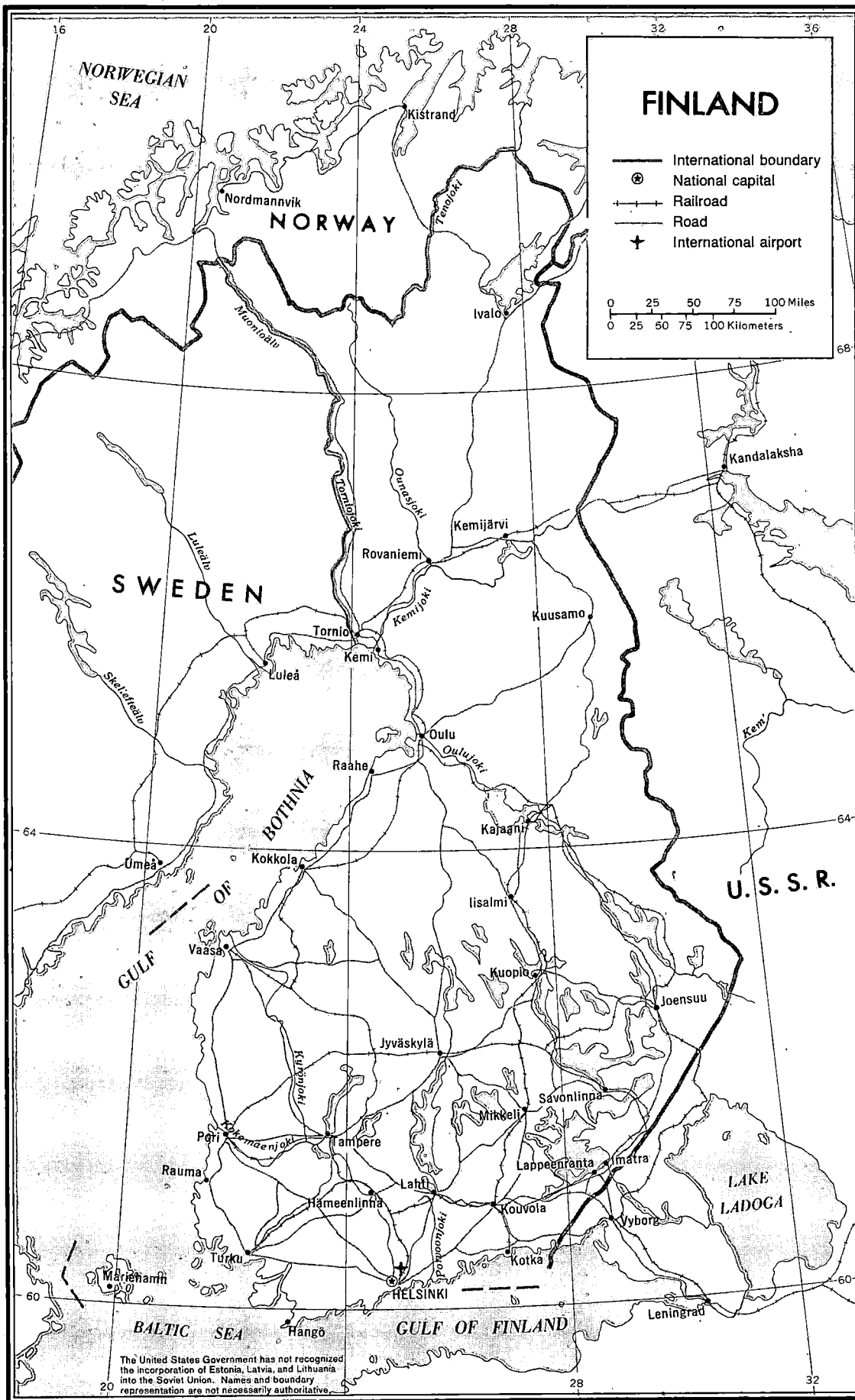
Trade (1989): *Exports*—\$23.2 billion: paper and paperboard, machinery and equipment, ships, lumber, woodpulp, chemicals. *Major markets*—USSR 14.5%, Sweden 14.4%, UK 12%, FRG 10%, US 6.4%. *Imports*—\$24.6 billion: fuels and lubricants, machinery and equipment, including motor vehicles, basic manufactures, chemicals; foodstuffs. *Major suppliers*—FRG 17.3%, Sweden 13.6%, USSR 11.4%, US 6.3%.

Official exchange rate (1989): 4.295 Finnmarks=US\$1.

Fiscal year: Calendar year.

Membership in International Organizations

UN and some of its specialized and related agencies, including the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), International Monetary Fund (IMF), General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), International Finance Corporation (IFC), International Development Association (IDA); Bank for International Settlements (BIS); Asian Development Bank; Inter-American Development Bank (IDB); Council of Europe; Nordic Council; European Free Trade Association (EFTA); European Community (EC)—free trade agreement; Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD); INTELSAT.



PEOPLE

The origins of the Finnish people are still a matter of conjecture, although most scholars agree that their original home was in what is now west-central Siberia. The Finns arrived in their present territory thousands of years ago, pushing the indigenous Lapps into the more remote northern regions.

The Finnish language is Finno-Ugric, of the Uralic language family (of which Hungarian and Estonian also are a part) and not Indo-European. Lappish, the language of the small Lapp minority, also is Finno-Ugric.

Swedish became the dominant language following Finland's incorporation into Sweden in the 12th century. Finnish recovered its predominance after a resurgence of Finnish nationalism in the 19th century. Today, although 94% of the people speak Finnish as a first language, both Finnish and Swedish are official languages.

The population is ethnically homogeneous with no sizable immigrant population. Few tensions exist between the Finnish-speaking majority and the Swedish-speaking minority.

Finns are highly literate, and poetry has played a key role in Finnish history. Publication in 1835 of the Finnish national epic, *The Kalevala*, a collection of traditional myths and legends, first stirred the nationalism that led to independence in 1917.

An important theme in Finnish literature is humanity's unity with nature, which identifies human fate with impersonal forces and which gives Finnish literature a somber, sometimes tragic, sometimes heroic, tone. Another theme is the importance of the common people—the Finnish folk. One of the country's major writers, Frans Emil Sillanpää, received the Nobel Prize for literature in 1939.

Finland is one of the most active publishing countries in the world. Although major literary works have been translated into English, Finnish music, because it does not require translation, is better known. This is especially true of the works of Jean Sibelius who, along with many other Finnish artists, was profoundly influenced by *The Kalevala*.

Finns also are outstanding in other artistic fields; their jewelry, textile, glass, and furniture designs have gained prominence throughout the world.

Finland enjoys complete religious freedom as well as free education through the university level. An extensive social welfare system, constituting about one-fifth of the national income, includes a variety of pension and assistance programs and a comprehensive health insurance program.

In the mid-1970s, the educational system was reformed with the goal of equalizing educational opportunities. Beginning at age 7, all Finnish children are required to attend a "basic school" of nine grade levels. After this, they may elect to continue along an academic (*lukio*) or vocational (*ammattikoulu*) line. However, most pursue vocational studies. About one child in four receives a higher education in this highly competitive system. The number of openings in higher educational institutions is less than the demand.

HISTORY

Finland's nearly 700-year association with the Kingdom of Sweden began in 1154 with the introduction of Christianity by Sweden's King Eric. During the ensuing centuries, Finland played an important role in the political life of the Swedish-Finnish realm, and Finnish soldiers often predominated in Swedish armies. Finns also formed a significant proportion of the first "Swedish" settlers in 17th-century America.

In 1809, Finland was conquered by the armies of Czar Alexander I and thereafter remained an autonomous grand duchy connected with the Russian Empire until the end of 1917. On December 6, 1917, shortly after the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia, Finland declared its independence. In 1918, Finland experienced a brief but bitter civil war that colored domestic politics for many years.

During World War II, Finland fought the Soviet Union twice—in the Winter War of 1939–40 and again in the Continuation War of 1941–44. This was followed by the Lapland War from 1944–45 when Finland fought against the Germans as they withdrew their forces from northern Finland.

The Treaty of Peace, signed at Paris on February 10, 1947, limited the size of Finland's defense forces and provided for the cession to the Soviet Union of the Petsamo area on the Arctic coast, the Karelian Isthmus in southeastern



Finnish folkdancing.

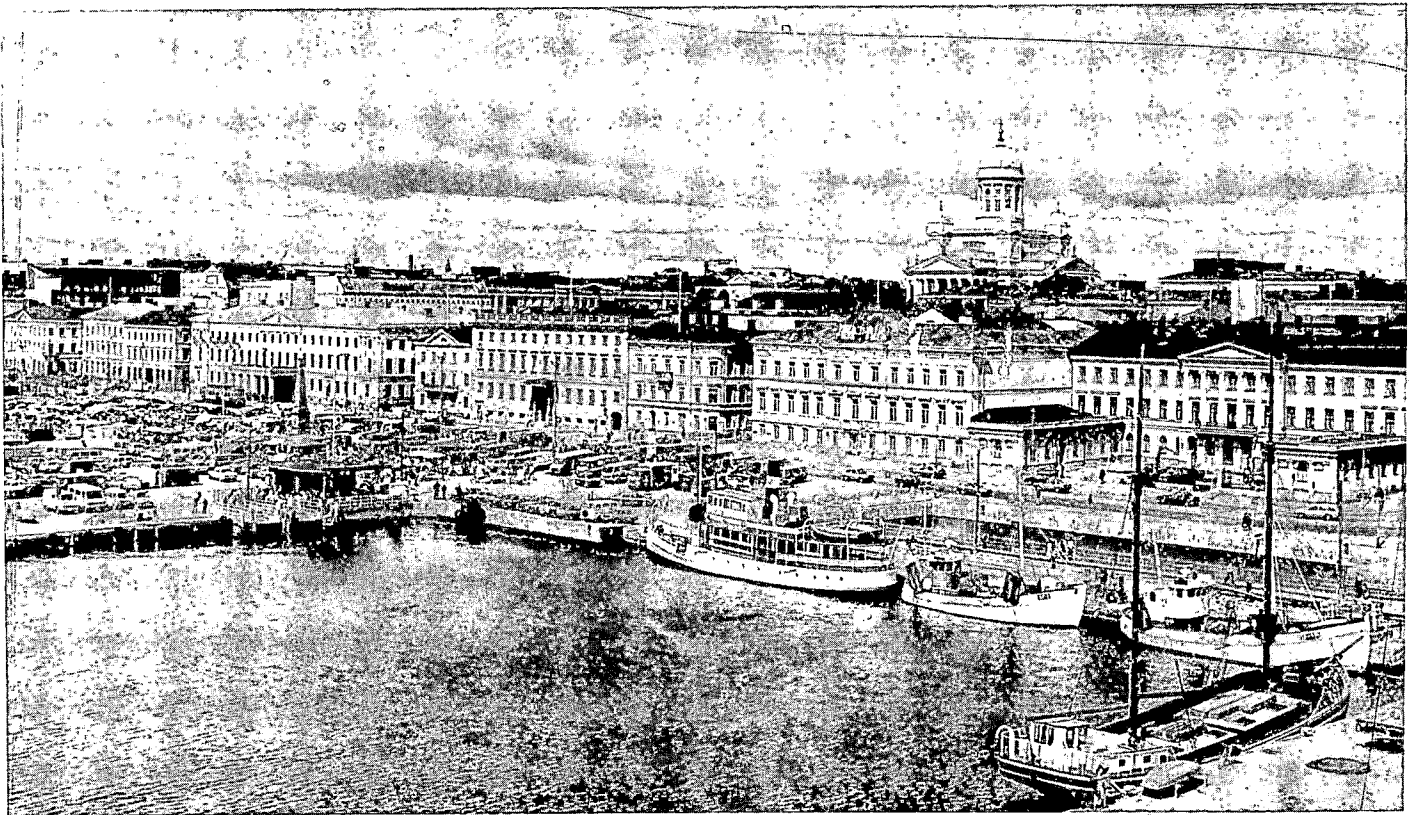
Finland, and other territory along the former eastern border. Another provision, terminated in 1956, leased the Porkkala area near Helsinki to the USSR for use as a naval base and gave free access to this area across Finnish territory. The peace treaty also called for Finland to pay to the Soviet Union reparations of 300 million gold dollars (amounting to an estimated \$570 million in 1952, the year the payments ended). The United States was not a signatory to the treaty because it had not been at war with Finland.

GOVERNMENT

Under the Finnish constitution, political power is divided between the *Eduskunta* (parliament) and the president of the republic, with the highest executive power vested in the president.

Elected for a 6-year term, the president:

- Handles foreign policy, except for certain international agreements and decisions of peace or war, which must be submitted to parliament;
- Is commander in chief of the armed forces and has wide decree and appointive powers;
- May initiate legislation, block legislation by pocket veto, and call extraordinary parliamentary sessions; and
- Appoints the cabinet.



A view of Helsinki's neoclassic center.

The Council of State is made up of the prime minister and ministers for the various departments of the central government as well as an ex-officio member, the Chancellor of Justice. Ministers are not obliged to be members of the *Eduskunta* and need not be formally identified with any political party.

Constitutionally, the 200-member, unicameral *Eduskunta* is the supreme authority in Finland. It may alter the constitution, bring about the resignation of the Council of State, and override presidential vetoes; its acts are not subject to judicial review. Legislation may be initiated by the president, the Council of State, or one of the *Eduskunta* members.

The *Eduskunta* is elected on the basis of proportional representation. All persons 18 or older, except military personnel on active duty and a few high judicial officials, are eligible for election. The regular parliamentary term is 4 years; however, the president may dissolve the *Eduskunta* and order new elections at any time.

The judicial system is divided between courts with regular civil and criminal jurisdiction and special courts with responsibility for litigation between the public and the administrative organs of the state. Finnish law is codified. Although there is no writ of habeas corpus or bail, the maximum period of pre-trial detention was recently reduced to 4 days. The Finnish court system consists of local courts, regional appellate courts, and a supreme court.

Finland's 12 provinces are divided into cities, townships, and communes administered by municipal and communal councils elected by proportional representation once every 4 years. The 11 mainland provinces are administered by provincial boards composed of civil servants and each headed by a presidentially appointed governor. The boards are responsible to the Ministry of the Interior and play a supervisory and coordinating role within the provinces.

The island province of Aaland is located near the 60th parallel between Sweden and Finland. It enjoys local autonomy by virtue of an international convention of 1921, implemented most

recently by the Act on Aaland Self-Government of 1951. The islands are further distinguished by the fact that they are entirely Swedish speaking. Government is vested in the provincial council, which consists of 30 delegates elected directly by Aaland's citizens.

Principal Government Officials

President—Mauno Koivisto
 Prime Minister—Harri Holkeri
 Foreign Minister—Pertti Paasio
 Ambassador to the United States—Jukka Valtasaari
 Ambassador to the United Nations—Klaus Tornudd

Finland maintains an embassy in the United States at 3216 New Mexico Avenue, NW, Washington, DC 20016 (tel. 202-363-2430).

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

Finland's proportional representation system encourages a multitude of political parties and has resulted in many coalition governments.

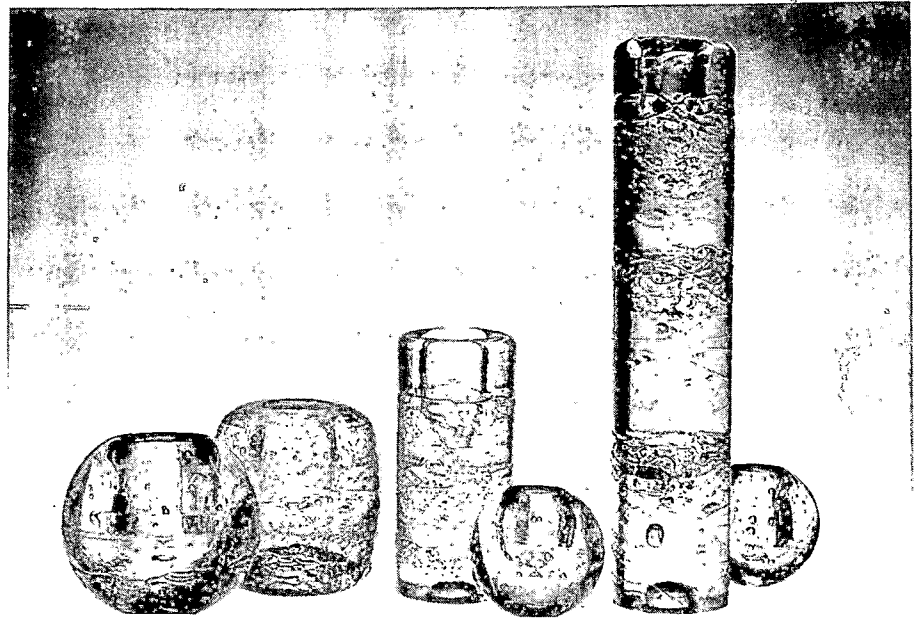
Political activity by communists was legalized in 1944. Although four major parties have dominated the postwar political arena, none has a majority position. The largest is the Social Democratic Party (SDP), which commands the support of nearly 25% of the electorate, mainly among the urban working class but also with some support among small farmers, white-collar workers, and professionals. The SDP's rival on the left is the Leftist Alliance, formed in May 1990, which replaces the People's Democratic League (SKDL), the parliamentary group in the *Eduskunta* that represented the Finnish Communist Party. The SKDL's parliamentary effectiveness and potential participation in government were impaired, however, by the deep split in the Communist Party between its "moderate" majority and "hardline" minority.

The two other major parties are the Center Party, traditionally representing rural interests, and the Conservative Party, which draws its major support from the business community and urban professionals.

In the February 1988 election, President Koivisto won a new 6-year term. Parliamentary elections in March 1987 led to the formation of a "red-blue" coalition government that includes both the SDP and the National Coalition (Conservative) Party.

ECONOMY

Finland has a dynamic industrial economy based on abundant forest resources, capital investments, and technology. In

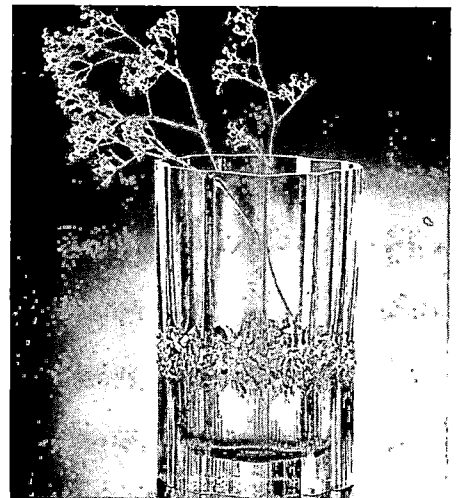


the 1980s, Finland's economic growth rate was one of the highest of industrialized countries. Exports contribute more than 20% of the gross domestic product (GDP); combined exports of goods and services amount to about 25% of GDP. Exports and imports of goods total about 40% of GDP. Timber and steel are the main industries, but other industries produce manufactured goods ranging from electronics to motor vehicles. Finnish-designed consumer products such as textiles, porcelain, and glassware are world famous.

Finland is self-sufficient in dairy products and meats, as well as in grains in good harvest years, but it imports large amounts of fruits and vegetables. Farms tend to be small, but sizable timber stands are harvested for supplementary income in winter.

Except for timber and several minerals, Finland depends on imported raw materials, energy, and some components for its manufactured products. Traditionally, Finland is a net importer of capital to finance industrial growth.

Finland imported 70% of its energy in 1989. Oil imports met 31% of Finnish requirements while nuclear power provided 15%, coal 11%, and natural gas 6%. Domestic energy sources include hydroelectric power, peat, and wood products.



Iittala Glassworks are famous worldwide. Classic designs capture the atmosphere of Finland's clear, cold waters.

DEFENSE

Finland's active duty defense forces are limited by the 1947 Treaty of Peace to 41,900 troops (army 34,400, navy 4,500, air force 3,000). The country has military conscription under which all young men serve from 8 to 11 months. A reserve force of about 700,000 ensures readiness as one means of deterring involvement in war. The basic tenet of Finnish security policy is that, while foreign policy is important, the nation's ability to defend itself is a prerequisite for a successful policy of neutrality.

Political Parties

In order of respective seating placement

Democratic Alternative	4
Leftist Alliance	16
Social Democrats	56
Rural Party	8
Free Democrats	1
Center Party	40
National Coalition Party	53
Swedish People's Party	13
Greens	4
Christian League	5

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Finland's basic foreign policy goal since 1944 has been to avoid great-power conflicts and to build mutual confidence with the Soviet Union. Although the country is culturally, socially, and politically Western, Finns realize they must live in peace with the USSR and take no action that might be interpreted as a security threat.

The principal architect of the post-1944 foreign policy was J.K. Paasikivi, who was president from 1946 to 1956. Urho Kekkonen, president from 1956 until 1981, further developed this policy, stressing that Finland should be an active rather than a passive neutral. This policy is now popularly known as the "Paasikivi-Kekkonen Line."

In April 1948, Finland signed an Agreement of Friendship, Cooperation, and Mutual Assistance with the Soviet Union, under which Finland is obligated (with the aid of the Soviet Union, if necessary) to resist armed attacks by Germany or its allies against Finland, or against the USSR through Finland. At the same time, the agreement recognizes Finland's desire to remain outside great-power conflicts. This agreement was renewed for 20 years in 1955, again in 1970, and most recently in 1983 to the year 2003.

Finland joined the United Nations and the Nordic Council in 1955, is a full member of the European Free Trade Association, and in 1973 signed a free trade agreement with the European Community. It also has entered into free

Further Information

Available from the Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402:

American University. *Area Handbook for Finland*. 1974.

US Department of Commerce. "Finland." *Foreign Economic Trends and Their Implications for the United States*. International Marketing Information Series. Published annually.

trade agreements with Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, and the German Democratic Republic; a 15-year economic cooperation agreement with the



Soviet Union, last extended in 1980; and a cooperation agreement with the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance.

Finland also emphasizes cooperation with the other Scandinavian countries and has been a member of the Nordic Council since 1955. Under the council's auspices, the Nordic countries have created a common labor market and have abolished immigration controls among themselves. The council also serves to coordinate social and cultural policies of the participating countries and has promoted increased cooperation in many fields.

In recent years, Finland has emphasized its participation in international organizations. In proportion to its population, Finland is well represented in the UN civil service. Finnish troops have participated in UN peacekeeping activities since 1956 and Finns now serve with UN forces in the Middle East and with the UN good offices mission in Afghanistan.

Finland has hosted major international meetings such as the first and final stages of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE). The summit-level CSCE meeting in July and August 1975 brought 35 heads of state from Europe and North America to Helsinki for a conference unique in diplomatic history. Finland also hosted a 10th anniversary CSCE commemorative meeting in the summer of 1985 and will host the next CSCE review meeting in 1992.

US-FINNISH RELATIONS

Relations between Finland and the United States are cordial. It has been longstanding US policy to support Finnish neutrality while maintaining and reinforcing Finland's historic, cultural,

Travel Notes

Climate and clothing: Helsinki's winter climate is similar to Boston's; summer temperatures rarely exceed +24 °C (75 °F). Northern and parts of interior southern Finland sometimes experience Arctic conditions in mid-winter. Buildings are well-heated. Bring warm outdoor clothing during late autumn, winter, and early spring. Sweaters and raincoats are recommended for other seasons.

Health: Public health standards are similar to those in the United States. Tapwater is potable. Medical facilities are good.

Telecommunications: Telephone and telegraph services are efficient and available to most parts of Finland and the world. Helsinki is seven time zones ahead of eastern standard time.

Transportation: Bus and taxi service is available in most cities as well as tram and subway service in Helsinki. At least one US carrier provides US-Finland flights 5 days a week. Finnair flies to New York daily and offers flights to Los Angeles several days a week. Flights to many European cities depart Helsinki daily. Finland's domestic air network is one of the best in Europe. The country also has efficient rail and long-distance bus service. Roads are well maintained; nearly all major highways and most important secondary roads are paved.

Tourist attractions: With many islands and lakes, evergreen forests, and granite outcroppings, Finland's countryside is striking. Many tourists enjoy cruises on stately historic steamers that travel on Finland's biggest lake, Saimaa. Lapland, with its flora and reindeer, also is popular.

and economic ties with the West. Economic and trade relations between Finland and the United States are active. President Reagan proclaimed 1988 the Year of US-Finnish Friendship.

The US educational exchange program in Finland, comparatively large for a West European country of Finland's size, is financed in part from a trust fund established in 1976 from Finland's final repayment of a US loan made in the aftermath of World War I.

Principal US Officials

Ambassador—John Giffen Weinmann
Deputy Chief of Mission—Max N. Robinson
Public Affairs Officer—William P. Kiehl
Chief, Political Section—William Kushlis
Chief, Administrative Section—William J. Burke, Jr.
Defense and Air Attache—William A.J. Mackie
Chief, Economic Section—Lawrence E. Butler
Commercial Attache—Richard Newquist
Consul—Robert O. Tatge

The US Embassy in Finland is at Itainen Puistotie 14 B, Helsinki 14 (tel. 171931). The public affairs section is located at Kaivokatu 10 A, Helsinki 10 (tel. 176599). ■

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Editor: Juanita Adams

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John H. Kelly
U.S. Ambassador to Finland

Mr. Kelly was sworn in as American Ambassador to Finland on December 9, 1991. Prior to this assignment, he served as Assistant Secretary of State for near Eastern and South Asian Affairs. Other recent assignments include Principal Deputy Director of the Policy Planning Staff, and as U.S. Ambassador to Lebanon.

A career Foreign Service Officer, Ambassador Kelly has served posts in Paris, France; Adana and Ankara, Turkey; and Bangkok and Songkhla, Thailand. In the Department, he served in the Office of the Counselor, the Politico-Military Bureau, and the Bureau of Intelligence and Research. He has also been Principal Deputy Assistant Secretary of State for European and Canadian Affairs, and Senior Deputy Assistant Secretary for Public Affairs. He also spent a year as a Diplomatic Associate at the Institute for the Study of Diplomacy, Georgetown University.

Ambassador has received the Secretary of Defense Meritorious Civilian Service medal and the State Department Meritorious Honor Award. He is a graduate of the Armed Forces Staff College.

He graduated from Emory University in 1961 with a degree in History. He speaks French and Thai. Ambassador Kelly is a member of the Council on Foreign Relations and the American Foreign Service Association.

Key Officers in Helsinki:

Deputy Chief of Mission: Max N. Robinson

Political Officer: William J. Kushlis

Economic Officer: Robert W. Boehme

Commercial Officer: Maria J. Andrews

Administrative Officer: William J. Burke, Jr.

Consular Officer: Robert O. Tatge

Regional Security Officer: James W. Holt

Agricultural Officer: Gordon S. Nicks (resident in Stockholm)

Public Affairs Officer: Jeremy F. Curtin

Defense Attaché: Col. William A. J. Mackie, USAF

Communications Program Officer: Dennis R. Thatcher

Labor Officer: Robert A. Benzinger

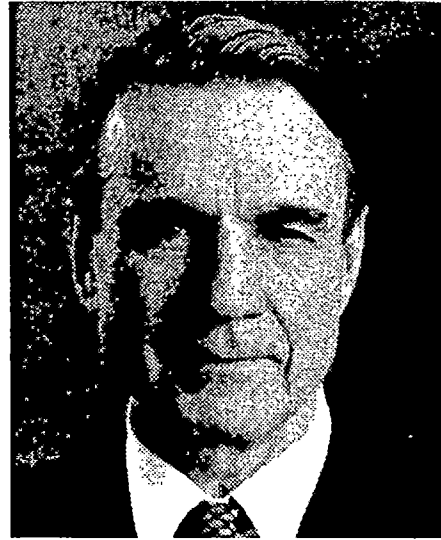
Mauno Henrik KOIVISTO
(Phonetic: KOYveestoh)

FINLAND

President (since 1982)

Addressed as: Mr. President

Mauno Koivisto is Finland's first president from the Social Democratic Party (SDP). He is currently serving his second six-year term. Under the Constitution, the president has the ultimate responsibility for foreign relations and national security. He is also empowered to name individuals to form the parliamentary government, to dissolve parliament, and to call for new elections. As President, Koivisto has visited several countries, including the United States in 1983, 1985, and May 1991 and the Soviet Union in 1984 and June 1991. On 20 January 1992 he witnessed the signing of a new treaty on political cooperation with Russia to replace the 1948 Treaty of Friendship, Cooperation, and Mutual Assistance with the Soviet Union.



©

Koivisto was born on 25 November 1923 in the western port city of Turku. After serving in World War II, he worked on the docks while attending night school. He was an elementary school teacher during 1951-53 and then spent four years as a vocational guidance counselor. He received a Ph.D. in sociology from the University of Turku in 1956. Koivisto began working for the Helsinki Workers Savings Bank in 1958 and served as its director during 1959-66. He was Minister of Finance from 1966 until 1968 and again in 1972. He was Governor of the Bank of Finland for many years and served twice as Prime Minister (1968-70, 1979-82). From 1979 until he became President, Koivisto was Prime Minister in a four-party coalition; he served concurrently as Acting President—as specified by the Constitution—since September 1981, when then President Urho Kekkonen stepped down because of illness. Koivisto resigned from the SDP after his election to the presidency.

Koivisto enjoys volleyball, whittling, skiing, and reading. He likes to vacation at a log cabin that he built outside Helsinki. Koivisto speaks English, Swedish, German, and Russian. Married to the former Tellervo Kankaanranta, he has a married daughter, Assi Komulainen.

29 January 1992

Esko AHO
(Phonetic: AHhoe)

FINLAND

Prime Minister (since April 1991)

Addressed as: Mr. Prime Minister

At 37, Center Party Chairman Esko Aho is Finland's youngest Prime Minister. He succeeded Paavo Vayrynen, the former chairman who is now Foreign Minister, as Center Party chairman in mid-1990. According to the Finnish constitution, the prime minister is responsible for domestic matters, while the president handles foreign policy. Aho, however, has been involved in pushing for a decision on EC expansion. He has also said that it is in Finland's interest to support the peaceful development of Russia. On 20 January 1992 Aho signed a new treaty with Russia, which replaced Finland's 1948 Treaty of Friendship and Mutual Cooperation with the Soviet Union.



©

The son of a farmer, Aho was born on 20 May 1954. He holds a master's degree in political science. He was leader of the Center Party's youth organization from 1974 to 1980. He served as Vayrynen's political secretary during 1979-80, when Vayrynen was Foreign Minister for the first time. Aho has been a member of Eduskunta (parliament) since 1983.

Aho speaks excellent English and has visited the United States several times. Married, he has two sons and a daughter.

29 January 1992

Paavo VAYRYNEN
(Phonetic: VOWreenen)

FINLAND

Minister of Foreign Affairs
(since April 1991)

Addressed as: Mr. Minister

Paavo Vayrynen has served twice before as Foreign Minister (1977-82 and 1983-87). He was chairman of the agrarian Center Party from 1980 until mid-1990, when he gave up the post to his handpicked successor, current Prime Minister Esko Aho. Vayrynen is widely regarded as the party's senior statesman. He helped negotiate a new treaty with Russia, which was signed on 20 January 1992. This agreement replaces the Treaty of Friendship and Mutual Cooperation that existed since 1948 with the Soviet Union.



©

The son of a farmer, Vayrynen was born on 2 September 1946. He holds a master's degree in political science from the University of Helsinki, and in 1968 he studied for four months at Wesleyan University in Middletown, Connecticut. He was active in the Center Party's Youth Organization during his student years. He was only 24 when he was elected to the Eduskunta (parliament) in 1970. Vayrynen served as the political secretary to the Prime Minister during 1970-71. He was deputy chairman of the Center Party from 1972 until 1980. In the mid-1970s he served as First Minister of Education and as Minister of Labor. After securing admission for the Finnish Center Party in the Liberal International, Vayrynen became vice chairman of that group in 1988. He holds the rank of senior lieutenant in the Finnish Defense Reserves.

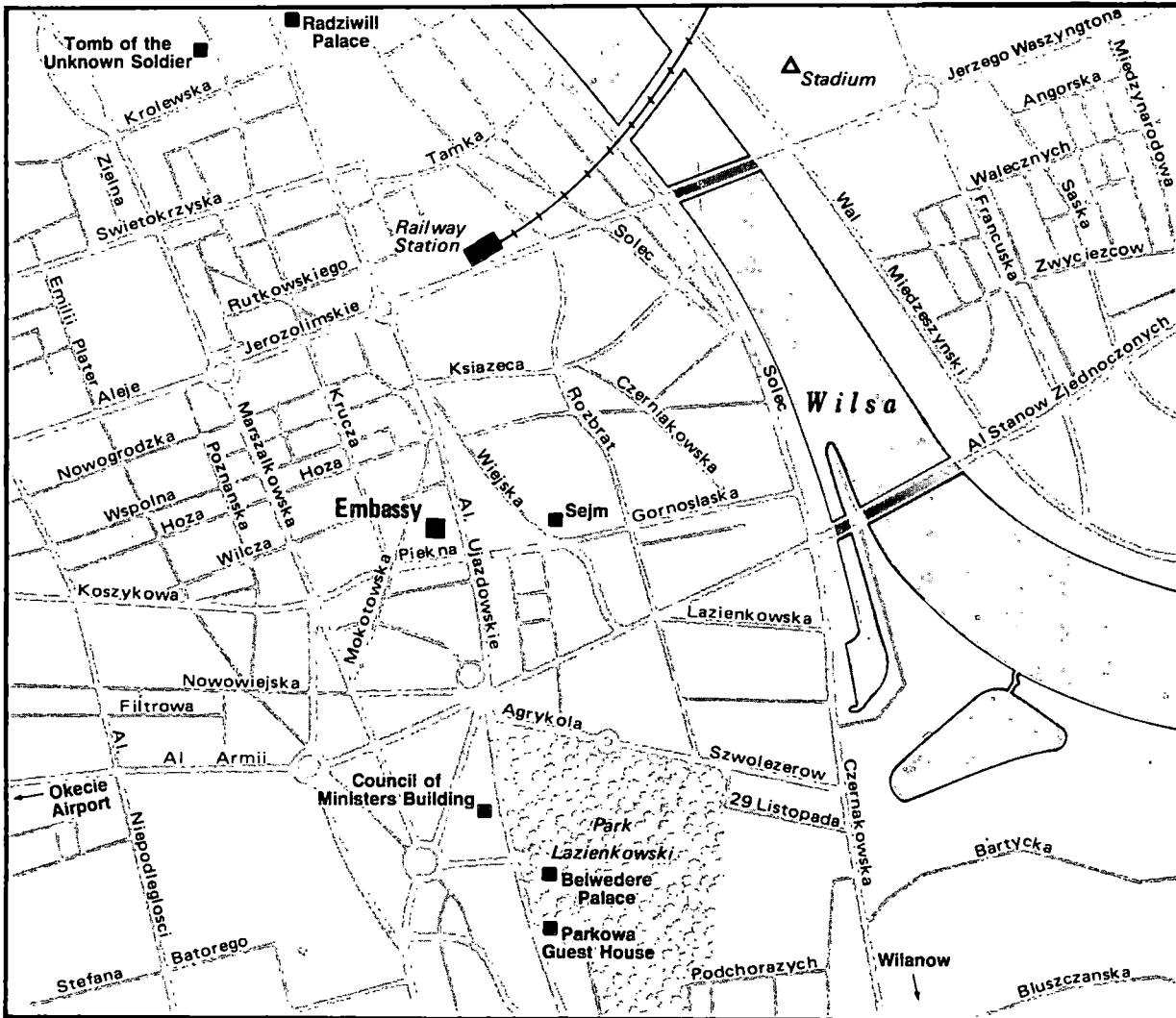
Vayrynen speaks English, Swedish, and German. He is the author of two books. He enjoys spending time on his farm. Married, he has two daughters and a son.

29 January 1992



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Warsaw



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[Free Market Rate]

Polish Zloty Conversion Table at Z 13,440 = U.S. \$

(Zloty = 100 groszy)

Zloty to U.S. Dollars		U.S. Dollars to Zloty	
Zloty	U.S. \$	U.S. \$	Zloty
1,000	0.07	0.10	1,344.00
3,000	0.22	0.25	3,360.00
5,000	0.37	0.50	6,720.00
7,000	0.52	0.75	10,080.00
13,440	1.00	1.00	13,440.00
<hr/>			
15,000	1.12	5.00	67,200.00
20,000	1.49	7.00	94,080.00
50,000	3.72	10.00	134,400.00
100,000	7.44	20.00	268,800.00
200,000	14.88	50.00	672,000.00
350,000	26.04	100.00	1,344,000.00
1,000,000	74.40	300.00	4,032,000.00
2,000,000	148.81	500.00	6,720,000.00

NOTE: All U.S. dollar values are rounded to nearest U.S. cent.
Value of the Zloty may vary due to currency market conditions.
The official rate is 11,487 Zloty to the U.S. dollar.

April 1992

background notes

Poland



United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

June 1991



Official Name:
Republic of Poland

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 312,680 sq. km. (120,725 sq. mi.); about the size of New Mexico. **Cities** (1988): *Capital*—Warsaw (pop. 1.7 million). *Other cities*—Lodz (851,500), Krakow (743,700), Wroclaw (637,400), Poznan (586,500), Gdansk (461,000). **Terrain:** Flat plain, except mountains along southern border. **Climate:** Temperate continental.

People

Nationality: *Noun*—Pole(s). *Adjective*—Polish. **Population** (1990): 38 million. **Annual growth rate:** Negligible. **Ethnic groups:** Polish 99%, Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Jewish. **Religions:** Roman Catholic 95%, Eastern Orthodox, Uniate, Protestant. **Language:** Polish. **Literacy:** 98%. **Health** (1989): *Infant mortality rate*—13/1,000. *Life expectancy*—males 68 yrs., females 77 yrs. **Work force:** 17 million (1988). **Agriculture**—28%. **Industry and construction**—37%. **Trade, community services, transport, communications**—18%. **Government and other**—17%.

Government

Type: Republic. **Constitution:** July 22, 1952 (as amended).

Branches: *Executive*—chief of state (president). *Legislative*—bicameral National Assembly (lower house—*Sejm*, upper house—Senate). *Judicial*—Supreme Court, provincial and local courts.

Administrative subdivisions: 49 provinces (*voivodships*).

Political parties: Almost all freely elected seats in the present parliament are held by members who were supported by Citizens Committees organized by Solidarity before the June 1989 elections. These *Sejm* deputies and senators formed the Citizens Parliamentary Club (OKP). As plans are made for parliamentary elections in which all seats will be freely contested, many new parties are emerging. **Suffrage:** Universal over age 18.

National holiday: May 3.

Flag: Two equal-sized horizontal bands of white (upper) and red (lower).

Economy

GNP: \$172 billion. **Per capita:** \$4,600 (purchasing power parity estimate, 1989). **Economic growth rate** (1989 est.): -1.6%. **Inflation rate:** 249% (retail prices of consumer goods and services, Dec. 1990 vs. Dec. 1989).

Natural resources: Coal, sulfur, copper, natural gas, silver, lead, salt.

Agriculture: *Products*—grains, sugar beets, potatoes, livestock, oilseed.

Industry: *Types*—machine-building, iron and steel, extractive industries, chemicals, shipbuilding, food processing, glass, beverages, textiles.

Trade (1989 est.): *Exports*—\$28 billion (f.o.b.): machinery and equipment, coal, minerals, metals. *Imports*—\$24 billion (f.o.b.): machinery and equipment, fuels, minerals, metals, agricultural and forestry products.

Exchange rate (Jan. 1991): 11,200 zlotys=US\$1.

Membership in International Organizations

UN and several specialized agencies, including International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank (IBRD); General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT); Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE).



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GEOGRAPHY

Poland is located in Eastern Europe in the same general latitude as southern Canada. Natural barriers form its boundaries on the north (the Baltic Sea) and the south (the Carpathian Mountains along the border with Czechoslovakia). In an east-west direction, the country is part of a continuous plain that starts in Central Europe and continues to the Ural Mountains.

The climate is temperate, with moderately severe winters and mild summers. Annual rainfall varies from 50 centimeters (20 in.) in most of the

country to 122 centimeters (48 in.) in the mountains.

Poland is the largest country in Eastern Europe. The pre-World War II, easternmost territories (181,300 sq. km./70,000 sq. mi.) were incorporated into the Soviet Union after the war. As a result of the 1945 Potsdam agreement, some 103,600 sq. km. (40,000 sq. mi.) of former German areas in the north and west were placed under Polish administration and have since been incorporated into the Polish state. Poland and West Germany signed a treaty in 1970 accepting existing frontiers. After German

unification, the Polish and German foreign ministers signed a border treaty in November 1990; it awaits ratification early in 1991.

PEOPLE

Poland has the second largest population in Eastern Europe (after the Soviet Union). Today it is ethnically almost homogeneous (98% Polish) in contrast with the pre-World War II period, when there were significant ethnic minorities—4.5 million Ukrainians, 3 million Jews, 1 million

Byelorussians, and 800,000 Germans. The majority of the Jews were killed during the German occupation in World War II, and many others emigrated in the succeeding years. Most Germans left Poland at the end of the war, while many Ukrainians and Byelorussians lived in territories incorporated into the USSR.

HISTORY

Poland's historic record begins with the reign of Mieszko I, who accepted Christianity for himself and his kingdom in AD 966. The Polish state reached its zenith under the Jagiellonian dynasty in the years following the union with Lithuania in 1386 and the subsequent defeat of the Teutonic Knights at Grunwald in 1410. The monarchy survived many upheavals but eventually went into a prolonged decline, ending with the final partition of Poland by Prussia, Russia, and Austria in 1795.

1918 Through World War II

Independence for Poland was one of the 14 points enunciated by President Woodrow Wilson during World War I. Many Polish-Americans enlisted in the military services to further this aim, and the United States worked at the postwar conference to ensure its implementation. However, the Poles were largely responsible for achieving their own independence in 1918. The United States established diplomatic relations with the newly formed Polish Republic in April 1919.

A turbulent period of parliamentary democracy lasted from 1919 to 1926, when Marshal Jozef Pilsudski installed an authoritarian regime. The invasion of Poland by Nazi Germany in 1939 marked the onset of World War II. The country remained under either German or Soviet occupation until the end of the war but had a government-in-exile, first in Paris and later in London. The government-in-exile and Soviet authorities negotiated the organization, evacuation, and deployment in the west of an army of 110,000 Polish prisoners-

of-war captured after the Soviet invasion of Poland on September 17, 1939. The number of armed Poles reached about 600,000 during World War II—400,000 in an army formed in the Soviet Union under Soviet command and 200,000 fighting on western fronts in units loyal to the Polish government-in-exile.

The Soviet Union broke relations with the exiled Polish government in April 1943 on the pretext that the Poles had insulted the USSR by requesting that the Red Cross investigate mass graves of murdered Polish army officers found by German military authorities at Katyn.

In July 1944, the Soviet Union installed a communist-controlled "Polish Committee of National Liberation" at Lublin, in the area of Poland that advancing Soviet armies had brought under their control. In January 1945, the USSR recognized this committee as the Polish government.

Meanwhile, the Polish underground staged an unsuccessful uprising against the Germans in Warsaw (August-October 1944). After suppressing the uprising, the Germans evacuated the surviving population and leveled the city as they retreated in January 1945.

Following the Yalta Conference of early 1945, a Polish Provisional Government of National Unity was formed in June 1945; the US recognized it the next month. Although the Yalta agreement called for free elections, those held in January 1947 were controlled by the Communist Party. The communists then established a regime entirely under their domination.

Communist Party Domination

In October 1956, after the 20th ("de-Stalinization") Soviet Party Congress at Moscow and riots by workers in Poznan, a shake-up in the communist regime returned Wladyslaw Gomulka to power as first secretary. Gomulka, a former head of the Polish Communist Party, had been ousted in 1948 and later imprisoned for "nationalist tendencies." While retaining most traditional communist economic and social aims, the Gomulka regime liberalized Polish internal life.

In 1968, a reverse trend set in when student demonstrations were suppressed and an "anti-Zionist" campaign initially directed against Gomulka supporters within the party eventually led to the emigration of much of Poland's remaining Jewish population.

In December 1970, workers' discontent erupted into riots on Poland's Baltic coast. Disturbances and strikes in the port cities of Gdansk, Gdynia, and Szczecin, triggered by a price increase for essential consumer goods, reflected deep dissatisfaction with living and working conditions in the country. Gomulka was replaced as first secretary by Edward Gierek.

Gierek improved economic conditions by increasing real wages, easing food distribution problems, providing more and better consumer goods, and modernizing Polish industry, for which much of the equipment and technology came from the West. Fueled by large infusions of Western credit, Poland's economic growth rate was one of the world's highest during the first half of the 1970s. But much of the borrowed capital was misspent, and the centrally planned economy was unable to use the new resources effectively. The growing debt burden became insupportable in the late 1970s, as recession in the West and inflation and market problems at home became more severe. Economic growth slowed and actually became negative by 1979.

In October 1978, the Bishop of Krakow, Cardinal Karol Wojtyla, became Pope John Paul II, head of the Roman Catholic Church. Polish Catholics rejoiced at the elevation of a Pole to the papacy and greeted his June 1979 visit to Poland with an outpouring of emotion.

The Gierek regime continued to try to stop the spiraling economic decline by borrowing from the West. In July 1980, with the Polish foreign debt at more than \$20 billion, the government made another attempt to increase meat prices. A chain reaction of strikes virtually paralyzed the Baltic coast by the end of August and, for the first time, closed most coal mines in Silesia. Poland was entering into an extended crisis which would change the course of its future development.

The Solidarity Movement

On August 31, 1980, workers at the Lenin Shipyard in Gdansk, led by an electrician named Lech Walesa, signed a 21-point agreement with the government which ended their strike. Similar agreements were signed at Szczecin and in Silesia. The key provision of all these agreements was the guarantee of the workers' right to form independent trade unions and the right to strike. After the Gdansk agreement was signed, a new national union movement—"Solidarity"—swept Poland.

The discontent underlying the strikes was intensified by revelations of widespread corruption and mismanagement within the Polish state and party leadership. At the sixth Central Committee Plenum of the Polish United Workers' (Communist) Party (PZPR) in September 1980, Gierek was replaced by Stanislaw Kania as first secretary. Other changes in the party and state bureaucracies continued during the following months, and some initial attempts were made at economic and political reforms in the midst of continuing worker unrest.

Alarmed by the rapid deterioration of the PZPR's authority following the Gdansk agreement, the Soviet Union proceeded with a massive buildup of its forces along Poland's border in December 1980. In February 1981, Defense Minister Gen. Wojciech Jaruzelski assumed the position of prime minister as well, and in October 1981, he also was named party first secretary. At the first Solidarity national congress in September-October 1981, Lech Walesa was elected national chairman of the union.

The collapse of talks among party, union, and church leaders on a front of national understanding in November 1981 was followed by a call from Solidarity for democratic elections and a referendum on the Communist Party's continued dominance of the state. On December 12-13, the regime declared martial law under which the army and special riot police were used to crush the union. Virtually all of the Solidarity leaders were arrested or detained, as were many affiliated intellectuals. In

October 1982, the *Sejm* (parliament) adopted a new law abolishing Solidarity and all other unions.

The United States and other Western countries responded to the declaration of martial law by imposing economic sanctions against the Polish regime and against the Soviet Union. Unrest in Poland continued for several years thereafter.

In a series of slow, uneven steps, the Polish regime ended many of the extraordinary repressive measures associated with martial law. In December 1982, martial law was suspended, and internees were released; a large number of political prisoners continued to be detained. Martial law formally ended in July 1983 and, while a general amnesty was enacted, several hundred political prisoners remained in jail.

The abduction and murder of pro-Solidarity priest Father Jerzy Popieluszko by the security police in October 1984 shocked and angered the Polish people. Four security officers were tried for the murder and in February 1985 were convicted and sentenced to long prison terms. Although their trial was marred by the government's efforts to use it as a vehicle for anti-clerical propaganda, it was an unprecedented event in Poland and in the communist world.

In July 1984, another general amnesty was declared, and 2 years later, the government had released nearly all political prisoners. The authorities continued, however, to punish dissidents and Solidarity activists by assessing severe fines and confiscating private property, such as automobiles. Solidarity was still proscribed, and its publications were banned. The independent publications that were tolerated were subject to censorship. The security police continued to harass those citizens whose attempts to exercise the rights of free speech and free assembly were seen as threatening to the communist regime.

The implausible claim made by the authorities that Solidarity had ceased to exist after the imposition of martial

law reinforced the government's lack of credibility. For the majority of Poles, the communist regime lacked legitimacy and was simply the creation of a powerful neighbor.

Roundtable Talks and Elections

The government's inability to forestall Poland's economic decline led to waves of strikes across the country in May-August 1988. In an attempt to take control of the situation, the government gave *de facto* recognition to Solidarity, and on August 31 Interior Minister Kiszczak began talks with Lech Walesa. These talks broke off in October, but in February 1989 a new series began—the "roundtable" talks. Agreement was reached in April providing for partially free elections to a bicameral National Assembly. By the terms of the agreement, the June election produced a *Sejm* (lower house) in which one-third of the seats went to communists and one-third went to the two parties which had hitherto been their coalition partners, the United Peasant Party and the Democratic Party. The remaining one-third of the seats in the *Sejm* and all those in the Senate (upper house) were freely contested; virtually all of these were won by candidates supported by Solidarity, working at the local level through newly established Citizens Committees.

The failure of the communists at the polls produced a political crisis. The roundtable agreement called for a communist president, but on July 19, the National Assembly, with the support of some Solidarity deputies, elected Gen. Jaruzelski to that office by a single vote. Two attempts by the communists to form governments failed, however. On August 19, President Jaruzelski asked journalist/Solidarity activist Tadeusz Mazowiecki to form a government; on September 12, the *Sejm* voted approval of Prime Minister Mazowiecki and his cabinet. While the communists retained responsibility for national defense, internal affairs, and some other ministries, for the first time in more than 40 years, Poland had a government led and dominated by non-communists.

In December 1989, the *Sejm* considered the government's reform program to rapidly transform the Polish economy from a centrally planned system to a free market, and it amended the constitution to eliminate references to the "leading role" of the Communist Party and renamed the country the "Republic of Poland."

The Polish United Workers' (Communist) Party dissolved itself in January 1990, creating in its place a new party, Social Democracy of the Republic of Poland. Most of the property of the former Communist Party was turned over to the state.

The May 1990 local elections were entirely free. Candidates supported by Solidarity's Citizens Committees won most of the races they contested, although voter turnout was little over 40%. The cabinet was reshuffled in July 1990; the national defense and interior affairs ministers, who were hold-overs from the previous communist government, were among those replaced.

In October 1990, the constitution was amended to curtail the term of President Jaruzelski. In December, Lech Walesa became the first popularly elected president of Poland. At year's end, talks were underway to form a government that would serve until the 1992 parliamentary elections.

GOVERNMENT

The present government structure reflects compromises made in the roundtable agreement between the former communists and the opposition.

The bicameral legislature, the National Assembly, is made up of the 460-member *Sejm* (lower house) and the 100-member Senate (upper house).

The constitution was amended in September 1990 to allow election of the president by general suffrage. The president nominates a prime minister who, together with his cabinet members, must be approved by the *Sejm*. A new constitution is being drafted and must be approved by the parliament elected in 1991.

Judicial proceedings are carried out through a Supreme Court and provincial and local courts.

Principal Government Officials

President—Lech Walesa
Prime Minister—Jan Krzysztof Bielecki
Minister of Finance—Leszek Balcerowicz
Minister of National Defense—Piotr Kolodziejczyk
Minister of Foreign Affairs—Krzysztof Skubiszewski
Ambassador to the US—Kazimierz Dziewanowski
Ambassador to the UN—Stanislaw Pawlak

Poland maintains an embassy in the United States at 2640 - 16th St. NW, Washington, DC 20009 (tel. 202-234-3800/3801/3802); the consular annex is at 2224 Wyoming Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20008 (tel. 202-234-3800). Poland has consulates in Chicago, New York City, and Los Angeles.

Travel Notes

Entry Requirements: Effective April 15, 1991, Poland discontinued visa requirements for visitors of 90 days or less.

Tourist Attractions: Poland's major tourist attractions include the winter resort area of Zakopane, near the Czechoslovak border; the Wawel Castle, medieval Cloth Hall, and St. Mary's Church in Krakow; the magnificently restored Teutonic fortress of Malbork; the coastal resort of Sopot; and the reconstructed portions of Gdansk and Szczecin (two Hanseatic cities) in the north. Favorite attractions in metropolitan Warsaw include Chopin's birthplace at Zelazowa Wola, Gen. Pulaski's birthplace and museum at Warka, the Wilanow and Lazienki palaces of the kings of Poland, and the painstakingly restored "Old Town."

National Tourist Office (ORBIS): 500 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10110 (tel. 212-391-0844).

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

The political scene in Poland reflects the growth of pluralism since the advent of the Mazowiecki government in September 1989. While most leading political figures are identified with the anti-communist opposition of the 1980s, the Solidarity forces have begun to split into groupings of the center-left and center-right. In addition, the Polish Peasants Party has shown political strength by identifying itself with the interests of the country's large rural population. Many other parties have also formed; the 1991 parliamentary elections will show which of them will play a role in the future political life of Poland.

Freedoms of the press, association, and assembly were restored by the Mazowiecki government, and the censor's office was abolished. Constitutional changes are planned to give formal recognition to the human rights which are now respected in practice by the Polish state.

ECONOMY

Poland is undergoing a profound transformation as the government rapidly introduces a free-market system to replace the centrally planned economy. During 1990, the economic reform program stopped hyperinflation, stabilized the currency, brought an end to chronic shortages of consumer goods, and produced a sizable trade surplus. At the same time, however, the economy suffered a recession, with sharp declines in industrial production and real incomes and steadily increasing unemployment. The United States and other Western countries have been supporting the growth of a free enterprise economy by providing direct economic aid, restructuring the debt and rescheduling payments, and encouraging private investment in Poland.

Agriculture

Nearly 30% of Poland's work force is engaged in agriculture. Unlike the industrial sector, Poland's agricultural sector remained largely in private hands during the decades of communist rule. Private farms occupy three fourths of the land and account for about four fifths of agricultural employment and production. These 2.8 million private farms, however, are small—average 5.5 hectares each—and often fragmented. In contrast, the roughly 5,000 state farms average nearly 900 hectares each.

Production of wheat, feed-grains, vegetable oils, and protein meals is insufficient to meet domestic demand. However, Poland is the leading producer in Eastern Europe of potatoes, rapeseed, sugar beets, grains, hogs, and cattle. Attempts to increase domestic feed grain production are hampered by the short growing season, poor soil, and the small size of farms.

While the government's economic reform has generally resulted in sharp price increases to the consumer, the costs to farmers for their inputs have risen faster than the prices they can demand for their products. State monopolies still control agricultural procurement, processing, and distribution. The price for bread is subject to government controls. On the other hand, fertilizer and pesticide prices have risen rapidly, and energy costs have increased several fold.

Implementation of the government's privatization program in the agriculture sector—specifically the breakup of the state monopolies in procurement and distribution—will help bring the costs of inputs and production into balance, but the small size and often fragmented nature of land holdings and the large portion of the population engaged in farming will limit profitability.

Industry

Before World War II, Poland's industrial base was concentrated in the coal, textile, chemical, machinery, iron, and steel sectors. Today it extends to fertilizers, petrochemicals, machine tools, electrical machinery, electronics,

and shipbuilding. Accordingly, exports have become more diversified, including those to hard-currency markets; meat, coal, and copper remain important export commodities.

Poland's industrial base suffered greatly during World War II, and much of the investments in the 1950s were directed toward reconstruction. The need to rebuild existing capacities and the orthodox communist economic system imposed on Poland in the late 1940s resulted in the intense centralization of industries. Large and unwieldy economic structures operated under detailed central command. In part because of this systemic rigidity, with the emphasis on central planning, the economy performed poorly even in comparison with other economies in Eastern Europe.

In 1989, the Mazowiecki government began a comprehensive reform program to replace the centralized command economy with a free-market system.

Economic Reform Program

The *Sejm* passed enabling legislation in December 1989 on the government's economic reform program. The reform program resulted in a drop in the inflation rate from 78.6% in January 1990 to 4.9% in November, and it stabilized the currency. At the same time, however, industrial production fell by 25%, average real incomes dropped by more than 20% and average real wages by almost 30%. By the end of 1990, unemployment grew from a few thousand to more than a million (6.1%, according to the Polish Central Planning Office).

A vital element of the economic reform is the privatization of state-owned enterprises. Enabling legislation was passed by the *Sejm* in July 1990. A Ministry of Ownership Transformation has been created to oversee the conversion of state enterprises into private firms and prepare guidelines for the creation of a stock market. The challenge facing the Polish government is how to privatize thousands of state enterprises, while preventing profiteering and cushioning the work force against unemployment as many large, unprofitable state firms face bankruptcy.

Foreign Trade

Before 1990, Poland's trade was divided about equally between hard currency markets and CEMA countries, where goods and services were traded at artificial CEMA prices, and the transferable ruble was the unit of account. Trade with CEMA countries declined during 1990, and as of January 1991, trade with all these countries switched to world market prices and hard currency settlements. Poland had a current account surplus of more than \$1.8 billion for the first three quarters of 1990, but its trade balance suffered during the final quarter due to rising oil prices and other factors. Oil deliveries from Iraq (made to offset Iraq's \$500 million debt to Poland) stopped in August 1990 in keeping with UN sanctions, while at the same time Soviet deliveries fell below projected levels. With the unification of Germany in 1990, traditional trade ties with East Germany, one of Poland's major trading partners, were disrupted.

Poland's external debt exceeds \$43 billion, and its debt service ratio (the ratio of hard debt service obligations to hard currency earnings) is one of the world's highest, even after successive reschedulings by Poland's commercial and official creditors. Scheduled debt-service payments in 1989 amounted to \$5.2 billion (equivalent to about 60% of the value of total exports in hard currency), but only about \$1.5 billion was actually paid. Most of Poland's debt (about \$28 billion) is owed to Paris Club governments, which in 1990 extended to Poland a rescheduling agreement; the fifth rescheduling since 1981, the 1990 agreement included a temporary moratorium on debt-service payments. The 1991 agreements with the Paris Club reduces Poland's official debt by a minimum of 50%.

Consumer Supplies

As a result of the economic reform program, prices for consumer goods have risen in response to market forces. Demand has been dampened by falling real wages, whose growth is tied to increases in productivity. The serious consumer shortages that were once endemic to the Polish economy have now largely disappeared.

DEFENSE

Poland's armed forces number 305,000. Career soldiers make up about one-third of the army. Men are required to serve a 12-month period of basic military service.

Poland is reducing armaments to levels agreed upon in the Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe (CFE), signed in Paris in November 1990. As of the end of 1990, Poland had 2,850 tanks, 654 fighter planes, 2,377 armored personnel carriers, 40 combat helicopters, and 2,300 heavy artillery pieces and missile launchers. Further reductions are planned in order to conform with CFE obligations.

Warsaw Pact members met in early 1991 and disbanded the organization on March 31. Polish officials have begun to restructure the military to increase civilian control and de-politicize its ranks.

At the end of 1990, less than 50,000 Soviet troops were in Poland under Polish-Soviet agreements, primarily to provide logistical support to Soviet troops stationed on the territory of the former German Democratic Republic. Negotiations are underway on their withdrawal and on terms for the transit through Poland of Soviet forces being withdrawn from Germany.

US Secretary of Defense Richard Cheney visited Poland in December 1990 at the invitation of Minister of National Defense Kolodziejczyk. Their talks included the role of visits and training programs in expanding the US-Polish relationship.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Poland is developing a new, independent foreign policy, while strengthening friendly ties to the United States and other Western countries. Although still a member of CEMA—an organization whose future is in question—Poland has a permanent observer at NATO headquarters and is pursuing associate status in the European Community.

Poland took part in the Two-Plus-Four meetings on the borders of the unified Germany. A Polish-German border treaty was signed in November 1990.

US-POLISH RELATIONS

After Gomulka came to power in 1956, Poland appeared ready to follow policies of increased internal liberalization and greater autonomy in foreign affairs. Consequently, relations with the United States began to improve. However, during the 1960s, erosion of internal liberalization and reversion to a policy of full and unquestioning support for Soviet foreign policy objectives caused those relations to stagnate. In 1968-69, an anti-Semitic campaign in Poland contributed to a further deterioration.

The atmosphere for US-Polish relations improved significantly after Gierek succeeded Gomulka as first secretary of the Communist Party, and the new Polish leadership expressed its interest in improving relations with the United States. President Nixon visited Warsaw May-June 1972, when a consular convention was signed. Visits to the United States later that year by the Polish foreign minister and the Minister of Foreign Trade led to the Polish government's decision to settle the question of defaulted pre-World War II bonds with American bondholders.

Edward Gierek visited the United States in October 1974. This visit, the first by a Polish leader, underlined the considerable progress that had been made in US-Polish relations. During this period, several important agreements were concluded to promote cooperation in science and technology, health research, commerce, and other areas. The continued improvement in bilateral relations was reflected by visits to Poland by President Ford (1975) and President Carter (1977).

The birth of Solidarity in 1980 raised the hope that progress would be made in Poland's external relations as well as in its domestic development. US policy throughout the Solidarity period had two goals: to encourage greater respect for human rights and

individual freedom, while at the same time carefully avoiding interference in Poland's internal affairs. Toward this end, for example, the US government provided a total of \$765 million in agricultural assistance during 1981.

In response to the 1981 imposition of martial law, President Reagan introduced a number of sanctions against the Polish regime, including suspending trade credits and food aid, refusing to negotiate the rescheduling of Poland's debt, and restricting the export of advanced technology to Poland. In October 1982, the US suspended most-favored-nation (MFN) status for Poland in response to the Polish government's decision to ban Solidarity.

The United States responded to the gradual human rights improvements in 1983-84 by easing the sanctions and opening a dialogue with Poland. After the amnesty for political prisoners was declared in September 1986, the United States began a re-engagement with Poland which led to the lifting of sanctions in February 1987, as President Reagan restored Poland's MFN tariff status. In June 1987, the United States renewed participation in the Poznan International Fair. In 1988 the US and Poland agreed to upgrade their diplomatic relations and ambassadors were exchanged.

President Bush, who had visited Poland as vice president in 1987, paid a state visit to Poland in July 1989, shortly after the parliamentary elections in which Solidarity candidates scored an overwhelming victory. With the formation in September 1989 of a government dominated by Solidarity, relations between the US and Poland entered a new phase.

Following Solidarity leader Lech Walesa's visit to the United States in November 1989, the Congress passed the Support for East European Democracy (SEED) Act, which authorized a \$928 million assistance program for Poland and Hungary. Key provisions of the act were a \$200 million contribution to the \$1 billion international fund to stabilize Poland's currency and a \$240 million grant to

create an enterprise fund. These and other SEED programs were designed to support the Polish government's economic reform program and the country's rapid transition to a free-market economy.

During Prime Minister Mazowiecki's visit to Washington in March 1990, the US and Poland agreed to conclude a Business and Economic Agreement to promote closer economic and trade ties. As of June 1991, the agreement was before the *Sejm* awaiting ratification.

President Walesa made a state visit to Washington in March 1991 and signed with President Bush a joint declaration on relations between the two countries.

Poland is rapidly reorienting its political and economic relations in order

to pursue an independent foreign policy and to develop an internationally competitive free-market economy. As it does so, the close cooperation existing in US-Polish relations in can be expected to continue and to intensify.

Principal US Officials

Ambassador—Thomas W. Simons, Jr.
Deputy Chief of Mission—Michael Hornblow
Political Counselor—Daniel Fried
Economic Counselor—Paul Wackerbarth
Press and Cultural Affairs Counselor—Stephen Dubrow
Consul General—Anthony Perkins
Principal Officer, Poznan—J. Christian Kennedy
Principal Officer, Krakow—Michael Barry

The US Embassy in Poland is located at Aleje Ujazdowskie 29/31, Warsaw (tel. 628-3041-9). The consulate at Poznan is at Ulica Chopina 4 (tel. 595-86, 595-87); at Krakow, Ulica Stolarska 9 (tel. 577-93, 597-64). ■

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Thomas W. Simons, Jr.
U.S. Ambassador to Poland

Thomas W. Simons, Jr. was appointed as U.S. Ambassador to Poland in August 1990.

Mr. Simons' career as a Foreign Service Officer includes the following assignments: U.S. Delegation to Kennedy Round trade negotiations in Geneva, Switzerland, 1965-67; consular and political officer in Warsaw, Poland, 1968-71; PM political military affairs officer, 1972; SP staff member, 1974; Moscow political officer, 1975; Chief of the External Reporting Unit, U.S. Embassy in Moscow, 1975-77; Deputy Chief of Mission, Bucharest, Romania, 1977-79; political counselor in London, 1979-81; Director of the Office of Soviet Union Affairs in the Department, 1981-85.

Mr. Simons received a Meritorious Honor Award in 1971.

He attended the University of Paris in 1957; he received a B.A. degree from Yale University in 1958, a M.A. degree from Harvard University in 1959, and a Ph.D. in 1963.

Mr. Simons was born on September 4, 1938, in Crosby, Minnesota.

U.S. Embassy Officials in Poland

Deputy Chief of Mission

Darryl Johnson

Political Officer

Daniel Fried

Economic Officer

Paul Wackerbarth

Press and Cultural Affairs Officer

Stephen Dubrow

Consul General

Anthony Perkins

Principal Officer (Poznan)

J. Christian Kennedy

Principal Officer (Krakow)

Michael Barry

Jan OLSZEWSKI
(Phonetic: ohlZHEVskiee)

POLAND

Premier (since December 1991)

Addressed as: Mr. Premier

Jan Olszewski has called his cabinet a "government of hope." Although he has never held public office and has limited experience with economic issues, he has pledged to steer Poland out of its "economic, social, and civilizational recession." Olszewski was President Lech Walesa's original choice for Premier when Walesa was elected in December 1990; before forming a government, however, Olszewski resigned because of political differences with Walesa.



Olszewski was born in 1929 in Warsaw. A noted opposition lawyer during the Communist era, he was suspended from practicing law and brought to trial for defending leading dissidents during the 1960s; he was allowed to resume practice in 1970. During 1976-77, Olszewski helped found the Workers Defense Committee (KOR)—a precursor to the Solidarity trade union—and later coauthored the founding statutes of Solidarity in August 1980.

During the mid-1980s, Olszewski represented the family of pro-Solidarity priest Jerzy Popieluszko, who had been murdered by the secret police. He participated in the 1989 Roundtable Talks between Solidarity and the Communist government. Olszewski helped form the Center Accord party (Centrum) in 1990 and is a member of its political council. He served on Walesa's advisory council before the October 1991 parliamentary elections.

8 January 1992

Krzysztof SKUBISZEWSKI
(Phonetic: skoobeeZHEHVskie)

POLAND

Minister of Foreign Affairs
(since 1989)

Addressed as: Mr. Minister

Krzysztof Skubiszewski is working to make post – Communist Poland a leading force in Central Europe by developing a network of bilateral, regional, and international relations. He supported UN actions throughout the Persian Gulf crisis.

Skubiszewski was born on 10 August 1926 into a wealthy and educated Poznan family. He is a graduate of Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznan, where he has been a full professor of law. Skubiszewski attended Harvard in the late 1950s on a Ford Foundation grant and was awarded an LL.M. degree. A highly respected professor of international law, he lectured at the University of Geneva in 1961 and at the University of London in 1963. In 1964 he reportedly did research at Columbia.



During 1981-84 Skubiszewski was a member of Cardinal Josef Glemp's Social Council on Polish – West German forum. In 1987 he became a member of the bipartisan consultative council appointed by then President Wojciech Jaruzelski to advise the President on how to solve the country's economic and social problems. When Skubiszewski was appointed Foreign Minister, he became involved in including Poland in the German reunification process. He worked with the German Government on a draft treaty in 1990 to recognize the Oder-Niesse border between Poland and Germany.

Skubiszewski has written on international organizations, Polish-German border issues, and military law. He has no political affiliation. He speaks English and French.

12 March 1991

Jan PARYS
(Phonetic: PAHreesh)

POLAND

Minister of Defense
(since December 1991)

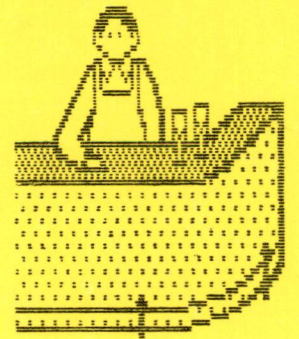
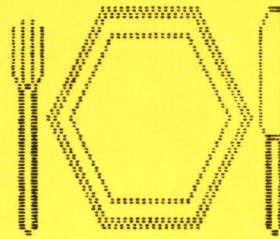
Addressed as: Mr. Minister

Jan Parys, who has held his position only since 24 December 1991, is already a controversial figure: on New Year's Eve he forced then Defense Minister VAdm. Piotr Kolodziejczyk to retire from the military, a move that—according to the presidential spokesman—irritated President Lech Walesa. According to press reports, Walesa called several ministers—including Parys—on the carpet and later announced he would still consider Kolodziejczyk for the position of inspector general of the armed forces.

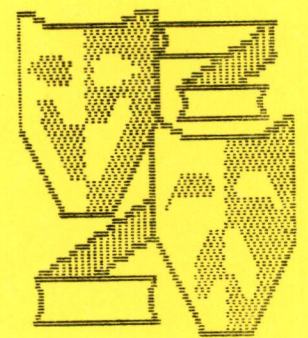
Parys was a virtual unknown before his appointment; however, press reports say that he has been a behind-the-scenes player in defense issues since 1990, when he worked in the Central Planning Office on government policy toward defense industries. As a staff member of the National Security Council, he worked on various committees responsible for defense reform. Parys has publicly criticized deep cuts in the defense budget and has said that he hopes to procure high-technology weapons systems from the West to offset inevitable personnel reductions. He is a member of Zdzislaw Najder's Atlantic Club, which advocates Polish membership in NATO. Parys has proclaimed his view that, as Poland faces an increasing number of independent armies on its eastern border, cooperation with NATO must be the basis for national security.

Parys was born on 23 December 1950. He earned a doctorate in sociology from the University of Warsaw in the late 1980s and later worked at the International Affairs Institute in Bern, Switzerland. He became a member of the Polish Academy of Sciences in 1989. Parys has written two books on Catholicism and many articles on the economics of national security. He speaks English.

15 January 1992



Information for visitors



Palace of the Council of Ministers
(Warsaw)

The Presidium of the Council of Ministers is located in the former Radziwill Palace, a building rich in Polish history and tradition. It was built in 1642 for the Hetman Koniecpolski, commander of the Polish armies, by Italian architect C. Tencalla.

The original building was damaged and rebuilt several times before being completed in its present neo-classicist form in 1818 when it was purchased by the Government of the Polish Congress Kingdom for the use of its Governor.

The Palace is named after one of its previous owners, Prince Karol Radziwill, who acquired it from the Lubomirski Family. Radziwill donated the building to the court in 1773, and it was here that Polish theater and ballet reached new innovative heights in the years before partition.

Following the partition of Poland between Prussia, Russia, and Austria in 1795, the Palace once again became a popular theater and was badly neglected until the total reconstruction in 1818 when two wings were added.

Throughout the 19th and early 20th centuries the building served as an administrative office of the occupying Czarist authorities. The Presidium of the Council of Ministers has occupied the Palace since shortly after World War II. In 1955, the Warsaw Pact was signed there.

A monument to the Polish patriot and Marshal of France, Prince Józef Poniatowski stands in front of the Palace. The present monument, presented to the Polish nation by the people of the city of Copenhagen replaces the original blown up by the Germans in 1944.

HELPFUL HINTS FOR VISITORS TO WARSAW

PLEASE READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED IN THE WELCOME PACKET. IT CONTAINS:

1. List of Restaurants
2. Map
3. Shopping and Sightseeing in Warsaw

IF YOU ARE STAYING AT THE VICTORIA HOTEL AND WANT TO WALK TO OLD TOWN - AN EASY TEN MINUTE STROLL:

Leave the lobby of the hotel, turn to right and walk one block plus to the main street, KRAKOWSKIE PRZEDMIEŚCIE. Turn left. Continue on Krakowskie Przedmieście about four blocks until you see an open square on your right. In the center is a statue on a tall column and the red-colored Royal Castle. The Historic Old Town Square is two blocks away down Piwna or Swietojanska.

HERE ARE SOME POPULAR AND CONVENIENT RESTAURANTS. THE RECEPTION DESK AT THE HOTEL SHOULD BE ABLE TO MAKE NECESSARY RESERVATIONS. (REQUIRED BY MOST RESTAURANTS)

1. Staropolska Krakowskie Przedmieście 8
(on your way to Old Town on the right hand side)
26-90-70
2. Bazyliszek Old Town Square 7/9
31-18-41
3. Kamienne Schodki Old Town Square 26 (Roast duck ONLY)
31-08-22
4. Krokodyl Old Town Square
31-44-27
5. Swietoszek Club Jezuicka (off Old Town Square)
31-56-34
6. Wilanow (You will need a taxi or car for this one, but it is worth it!)
Wiertnicza 27, near Wilanow Palace
42-18-52
7. Kuznia Krolewska (Also need a car or taxi)
42-31-71

SHOPS OF INTEREST

CRYSTAL AND GLASS

1. Pulawska, pavilion no. 6 opposite Dolna interesection and St. Michael's
2. Piekna, first floor
3. Old Town Square, at Swietojanska corner
4. Freta and Nowomiejska off of Old Town Square

SILVER

1. ORNO, Marszalkowska 83
2. ORNO, Nowy Swiat 52
3. Cepelia stores

GIFTS

Cepelia Shops:

Pulawska 54/56

Plac Konstytucji 5 and 2 (both two floors)

Marszalkowska 99/101 (across from the Forum Hotel)

Old Town Square 8/10 (two floors)

Nowy Swiat 29, 34, 35, 64

LINENS

1. Cepelia stores (see GIFTS)
2. Polski Len, Marszalkowska 140
3. Ziemia Bialostocka, Al. Ujazdowskie 22
4. Len Sklep, Szpitalna 81

LEATHER

1. Hoza 33
2. Galanteria Skórzana,
Al. Jerozolimskie 29, Pulawska 53
3. Koszykowa 58
4. Andrzej Kloda, Krakowskie Przedmieście 18

Warsaw Ghetto Monument

In 1940, the Nazis established a Ghetto in Warsaw into which they herded most of the Jews from Warsaw and Warsaw Province. Conditions became steadily more crowded and unsanitary and the Jews in the Ghetto were increasingly brutalized by the Nazis. In the summer of 1942 the Nazis began a systematic liquidation of the Ghetto, which was accompanied by a sharp increase in violence toward the Jews with mass executions and the transportation of hundreds of thousands to death camps. On April 19, 1942, an armed insurrection broke out, prepared by the Jewish Resistance Organization and led by 23 year old Mordechai Anielewicz. Despite their overwhelming superiority in arms manpower, the Nazis were unable to crush the uprising and undertook the systematic destruction of the area by blowing up Ghetto buildings and shelling Jewish resistance posts, which finally led to the collapse of the insurrection in May, 1943. The entire district was then bulldozed into a sea of rubble - not a single building survived.

The Monument to the heroes of the Warsaw Ghetto was unveiled on April 19, 1948, the fifth anniversary of the outbreak of the armed uprising in the Warsaw Ghetto. Located on Zamenhof Street, just beyond its intersection with Anielewicz Street, named after the leader of the uprising, it was funded by contributions from the world Jewish community and bears the inscription: "The Jewish Nation - to its fighters and martyrs".

Tomb of the Unknown Soldier (Warsaw)

The Tomb of the Unknown Soldier stands beneath the shattered remnant of the Saski Palace – a lonely fragment of colonnade dominating Victory Square in Warsaw.

Victory Square is rich in historic associations. The original Saski Palace was built by the Polish King Stanisław Augustus II in the eighteenth century. Beneath its windows Polish battalions and the citizenry of Warsaw fought a futile battle against overwhelming numbers of invading Czarist troops before being defeated in 1794.

Here in the Square before the Tomb, the story of modern Poland has unfolded in miniature. Napoleon's troops paraded there. It became the scene of Czarist military reviews during the occupation of Warsaw by the Russians. Following the abortive Polish insurrection of 1830 the Czarist authorities planned to construct an immense fortress on the site to overawe their intransigent Polish subjects. The plan was later changed and an orthodox cathedral erected to symbolize the Russification of Poland. This was demolished by the new Polish Republic in 1924.

The site of the Tomb itself, Saski Palace, was headquarters for the Polish general staff between the two World Wars and was gutted during the Siege of Warsaw in 1939. The shell was blown up by the departing Germans in 1945.

The Tomb and its occupant, a student who fell defending the former Polish city of Lwów in the 1920 Russo-Polish War also reflect the shifting currents of Polish history. The Tomb also contains symbolic samples of earth from the forests and cities of Poland as well as from the battlefields of the Second World War on which Polish soldiers distinguished themselves.

GOING-OUT KIND OF PLACES

DISCOS

1. The Interpark Disco (the Park)
Hours: Open until 10 p.m. Reopens at 11 p.m. until 3 a.m. on weekends. 2 a.m. weekdays
Located in a park off Al. Niepodległości
Big with college crowd, but others weel videos (probably the nicest disco in town)
2. Remont
Hours: Same format as #1 above
Located on Armii Ludowej
Similar to the Park described above
3. Rusałka
Hours: Open until 6 in the morning on weekends
Located on Wybrzeże Helskie, on the other side of the Wisła River (right on it). Across from the ZOO in Praga
Bit of a rougher joint-may want a dollar to allow people in

NIGHT CLUBS

4. Kongresowa
Hours: Show starts at 10 p.m.; should be seated by nine; Open until 3 a.m.
Located in the Palace of Culture across from train station
Restaurant and dancing as well as „camp” floorshow
Great atmosphere
Good time in a large group
Reservations required
5. Czarny Kot (Black Cat)
Hours: 10 p.m. until 2 or 3 a.m.
Located in the Victoria Hotel
Must „dress”
Live music, dancing and floorshow
6. Akwarium (Jazz Club)
Hours: Show begins at 8 p.m. and 10:30 p.m.
Located on Emilii Plater 49, behind the Palace of Culture (on the side the street of the train station)
Restaurant downstairs, as well as in club itself (meat and potatoes)
Reservations
7. Kamieniołomy (Europejski Hotel)
Hours: Show begins at midnight
Located in Europejski Hotel on Krakowskie Przedmieście 13 (enter around corner)
Must „dress”
restaurant, sometimes live music, dancing and floorshow

8. Krokodyl Restaurant
Hours: 1 p.m. to 1 a.m.
Located in Old Town Square; tel. 31-44-27
Florshow: sometimes
Live Band: 8:30 p.m.
Food: Quite All right
Atmosphere: Like a wine cellar, beatnik

CAFES

9. Petit Trianon
Hours: 1 p.m. to Midnight; Telephone: 31-73-13
Located on Piwna in Old Town (off open square across from Royal Castle)
Good French food
Tiny Place (tables the size of postage stamps)
Reservations
10. Świętoszek (The Klub)
Hours: 1 p.m. until? Telephone: 31-56-34
Located in Old Town - Jezuicka 6/8 (at back of Royal Castle, last street keep an eye out for sign above door)
Delicious Food (smoked salmon, and caviar blini recommended)
Americanized, but not quite, atmosphere
Nice place
Reservations advisable at night

Boat Trip on the Wisła River

It is possible every day during summer and early fall on the following hours to take a boat trip on the Wisła River: 9:30, 11:00, 12:30, 14:30, 16:00, 17:30.

The ticket costs 210 zloties. The boat will depart if there are a minimum of 20 passengers. They have difficulty getting the required number of passengers during the week. However Saturday and Sundays are normally well attended. Call 28-05-26 for reservations.

Wilanow Palace (The President's Residence in Warsaw)

Wilanow Palace, begun in 1677 by King Jan Sobieski III, is one of Poland's most impressive historical buildings. Its owners over the centuries included many of the great families of the Polish aristocracy - Sieniawski, Lubomirski, Czartoryski, Potocki - and its history often reflected the country's fluctuating fortunes.

The Palace was completed in its present form in 1799 by Princess Isabel Lubomirska, one of the most brilliant women in 18th century Europe. In 1805 her son, Stanislaus Potocki, opened the Palace and its library to the public, one of the first such institutions in Poland. In 1891 the Palace was taken over by the Branicki Family.

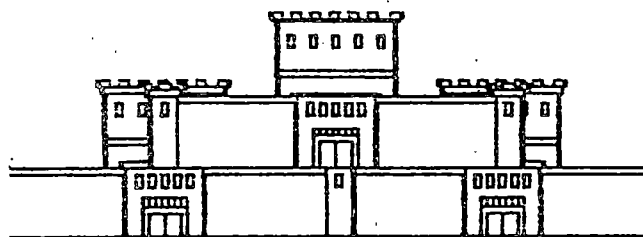
During the Second World War, Wilanow was looted of most of its collection, and the gardens were totally destroyed. In 1945 the Palace and its grounds became part of the Warsaw National Museum. It has since been restored in its original style and contains special apartments for use by the most important guests of the Polish state.

The Palace Museum has been designed, on the basis of original Palace inventories, to reflect the authentic flavor of the building's 18th and 19th century history. Many items pillaged from its collection have been recovered and the Museum has obtained a large selection of art works of the period from other sources.

The Palace is French Baroque and contains a main building flanked by wings to form an open rectangle. It is at the center of a complex of buildings which include the 17th century old tavern, as well as the church, smithy, and classical guard house, all added in the 18th century.

The Museum houses three Polish portrait galleries which contain paintings of the royal family from the 16th through the 18th century as well as a representative selection of Polish 19th century art. A collection of royal portraits previously displayed in the destroyed royal castle are included in the collection.

The building is a masterpiece of its time set amid superb gardens which display it to maximum advantage.



Old Town (Warsaw)

The Old Town (Stare Miasto) area of Warsaw has been the site of a fortified settlement since pre-Roman times. Its elevated position overlooking the Vistula enabled whoever held it to dominate river traffic on that vital waterway.

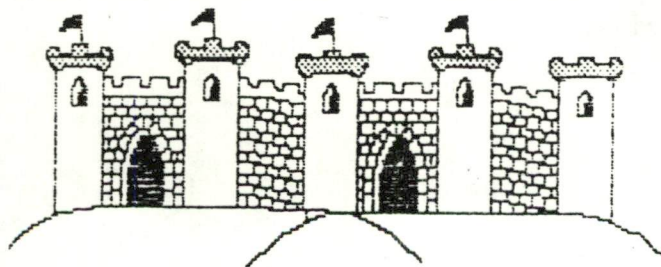
In the thirteenth century, Warsaw was a modest settlement of wooden buildings enclosed by an earthen wall and protected by a fortress. The present plan of the Old Town, centered upon an open square, evolved in the fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Merchants of the city built combination shops, factories, and homes with the working quarters in the cellar and ground floor and living space in the upper stories. A city wall of brick replaced the clay fortifications and the Royal Castle was erected on the site of the former fortress.

Development of the Old Town in its present form was essentially completed by the end of the sixteenth century when the city became Poland's capital. What had been a provincial market town rapidly developed into an intellectual and social center rivaling the former capital, Kraków. An influx of new residents flocking to the court created a building boom and an elegant new town soon spread beyond the city walls as villas, cafes, theaters, and churches were erected.

By the end of the eighteenth century, the Old Town had degenerated into a somewhat dilapidated adjunct to the burgeoning new areas. However, at the beginning of the twentieth century, a concerted effort was made to save it from ruin. By the 1930's, the area had once again become the center of intellectual life in Poland - the home of artists, writers and actors.

Old Town was left in ruins by bitter street fighting during the Warsaw Uprising of 1944. The area was rebuilt in the years following World War II in its original style, using architectural designs from the city archives, photographs, and paintings.

At the entrance to Old Town stands the statue of King Zygmunt III on a high column, and to the right is the site of the Royal Castle which is in the process of being restored.



THINGS TO DO AND SEE

Warsaw has much to offer by way of things to do and see. The only trick to it is finding out what's good before you get there, or what's coming to town before it has left. Following is a general introduction to the various activities we most commonly engage in. The emphasis is on what you might expect when you try some of them out and, equally important, what might be expected of you. For specific ideas on things that would suit your interests take a look at the **WARSAW DIRECTORY**, ask ACA what's playing at the local theaters, check the **NOW's** weekly announcements of goings-on around town, or pick up a **Stolica** at a Ruch stand. The **Stolica** is published every week and provides the most current information on movies, museums, operas and ballets. To help get you started, we have included two maps at the end of this section indicating a few shops and city sights. Above all, ask around!

SHOPPING

Shopping in Poland can be a challenging experience. prerequisites for success include patience, perseverance and a keen sense for the vagaries of the system. Don't be inhibited. An average of two hours in every Pole's day is consumed with the task of locating needed goods and taking the time to get them. For the average US diplomat - not subject to rations and shortages and with access to duty-free shops, commissaries and mail-order catalogs - shopping locally is a veritable luxury. The point being, not only are there many a „good buy” to be found for the looking, there is also a lot to learn about Poland in the process.

Due to an erratic system of supply and distribution, what an outlet is supposed to sell, or what you could swear it stocked a couple weeks ago, may bear little resemblance to what it is selling today. A good adage to go by is, if you like what you see buy it!

Self-service shopping is rare in the American sense outside of a few large department stores. In most cases, a salesclerk will assist you. When she retrieves an item off the shelf for you, you're free to examine it without obligation. She'll wait while you try it over, however. This is not to pressure you to buy so much as to make a decision, so she can move on to the next customer. If you want the item, she'll write up a receipt which you take to the cashier (Kasa) and pay. Once you show the salesclerk your paid receipt, she'll wrap up your item and give it to you.

The Royal Castle (Warsaw)

In a self-service store, on the other hand, no one may enter the merchandise area without first picking up a store basket. This method is used to control the number of people in the store at any one time. Thus, even if you have no intention of buying anything and just want to look around, you must still drape a store basket over your arm. If there are two of you together, both need a basket. On busy days you can expect to wait in line to get a basket.

Several Polish phrases you may encounter regularly are: "Nie ma," which means they don't have what you want; "Remont," which means the shop is under reconstruction; "Spis kontrolny towarów," which means shop, or part of the shop, is closed for inventory; and "Urlop," which means the shop is closed because the shopkeepers have all gone on vacation. The latter is an epidemic phenomenon in July and August. Other reasons posted on store fronts for shop closing include: "Dezynsekcja" (fumigation), "Przyjęcie towaru" (deliveries), "Awaria" (maintenance repairs), "Brak personelu" (personnel shortage), or "Choroba personelu" (all personnel out sick).

About Lines: Lines in Poland are a fact of life. The most common lines you'll find yourself in will be to pick up a basket, to get to the salesclerk, to pay for your merchandise and to pick up your purchase. Lines are rarely disorderly, although customers behind you may get irritated if you take too long to examine something or if you don't have your money ready when you go to the cashier. And while it is perfectly acceptable for someone to hold a place in line for you, to cut in front of someone is clearly out of the question, with some exceptions. Certain people are permitted by regulation to be served ahead of others. These include pregnant women, women with small children in tow, and the disabled. There is often a separate line for these shoppers, known collectively as "inwalidzi". If not, they simply move to the front of the line and are served as they appear. If you fall into one of these categories, you will be encouraged by onlookers to take advantage of the system.

Shopping Tips:

*Bring your own bag or box to carry your purchases as they are rarely provided.

*A few foods (e.g., pickles, sauerkraut and ice cream) do not come with their own containers, which you must supply. Fresh foods are usually wrapped in paper. Frozen foods that exist are packaged, but quality is dubious.

*Bread is neither packaged nor wrapped for you. You can check a loaf for freshness, but must use the small pieces of paper set out for this purpose. Once touched, the bread is considered your purchase. (It doesn't seem to matter that there is no way of telling which side of the

The ruins of the Royal Castle occupy a commanding height overlooking the Vistula River. Archeological research has revealed that a fortress of some kind has been on this site since prehistoric times.

The Castle, totally destroyed by the German Occupation Forces during World War II, was begun by Prince Konrad II in the 13th century. It was completed in its present form by King Zygmunt III, an occasional alchemist who, legend has it, burned down his magnificent Wawel Castle in Krakow during an experiment. This fire, which lasted five days, plus strategic and political considerations, led Zygmunt to move his capital to Warsaw. Poland was at this time the largest nation in Europe and a major political power.

It was in the Great Hall of his new castle in 1611 King Zygmunt received the homage of the Russian Czar Vasili. The Castle was severely damaged and pillaged of its treasures during the Polish-Swedish Wars, and it was only restored to its former glory during the reign of King Stanisław Augustus in the late 18th century.

Following the third partition of Poland in 1795, the Castle served as headquarters for successive waves of rulers - Russian, French, Ducy of Warsaw, Congress Kingdom. Under the Russian Occupation of the 19th and 20th centuries the Castle fell into disrepair and was stripped of its marble facade.

It was restored in the years after 1918, when Poland recovered her independence, and once again became the ceremonial center of Polish life. In the period between the wars it was the scene of diplomatic meetings, military reviews and state dinners. This period ended abruptly with the outbreak of World War II. The building was severely damaged in the 1939 Siege of Warsaw, looted by the Nazis in 1941, and totally destroyed by the retreating German Army in 1944.

Plans for the Castle's reconstruction were approved by the Polish Government in 1971, and work has now begun to restore to the Polish people a building which in many ways symbolizes their proud history and ancient traditions. Work on the restoration is well advanced and certain wings and segments of it are completed and can be visited.

WARSAW

Warsaw, the capital city of Poland since 1596, has regained its prewar population of 1,3 million. Like Paris, Warsaw is not only the administrative but also the cultural capital of the country. Over half of all Polish writers, artists, and scientists and about a fourth of all Polish university students are concentrated there. There are numerous scientific institutions, libraries, and museums, including the National Museum, directed by Stanisław Lorentz, the leading spirit behind the current campaign to reconstruct the Warsaw Royal Castle.

The Royal Castle was leveled during a systematic Nazi destruction of what was left of the city after the 1944 Warsaw Uprising against the German occupants. About 90% of the city was in ruins at the end of World War II and the city's population was down to 200,000. Earlier, the city's entire prewar Jewish population of 300,000 was wiped out by the Germans in a campaign which culminated in the April/May 1943 Warsaw Ghetto Uprising. The Warsaw Historic Museum on the Old Town Market Square has some extraordinary photographs of Warsaw at the end of World War II.

The Old Town has been reconstructed with particularly loving care and is a must for any visitor to Warsaw, but it should be remembered that most of the splendid old churches and palaces are in fact faithful postwar reconstructions. Although some of Warsaw's finest buildings dated back to the 17th and 18th centuries, the reconstruction included much less distinguished 19th century building and some rare examples of Gothic architecture including the Cathedral of St. John and the walls of the Old Town. While the center of the city has been reconstructed largely as it had been the rest of it follows a postwar plan which takes into account the fact that Warsaw is also one of the country's largest industrial centers.



paper last touched the bread and which side touched human hands. But you can be sure it is inappropriate to nadle the bread directly).

*Juice and soda water are sold in deposit bottles. The deposit is included in the price. Theoretically you get your deposit back when you return the bottles to any store where the same product is sold. However, some stores ask that you buy the same of new bottles, less the deposit, rather than pay you the deposit. Supersam will take any returnable bottles, regardless.

Popular Shops: Following are a few of the Polish outlets more commonly used by the foreign community. Generally speaking, shops are open Monday through Friday and a half day on "shopping Saturdays". Shopping Saturdays are the first and last Saturdays of the month.

Pewex. This is a Polish foreign trade organization which has outlets in all major cities and hotels throughout Poland. Pewex stores offer a variety of imported and domestic goods otherwise rationed or unavailable. They are open to Poles and foreigners alike and accept only hard currency or special coupons called "bony". Prices are reasonable. When you go, take some small change along so you can pay in exact amounts; otherwise, you may get bony or an assortment of other foreign coins for change. Each Pewex tends to specialize in certain types of stock; although these, too, can change. Overall, merchandise ranges from food, clothing, cosmetics and toys to carpets, sporting goods, household appliances and accessories.

Baltona. This is a duty-free, hard currency store. It offers the same imported goods as Pewex stores, but at duty-free rates and on a more limited scale. Unlike Pewex, Baltona also sells fresh produce throughout the year.

Other shops reserved for diplomats include the **Diplomatic Meat Store**, discussed in Section I, and the **Diplomatic Grocery Store**. The latter is much like any Polish grocery store, called "Spożywczy", although the quality may be higher. Both stores deal in zloties.

Polna Market. This is a private open-air market open Monday through Friday 0700-1500 on Saturdays. Among other things, you can find there fruits and vegetables, eggs, cheeses, poultry, herbs and spices, homemade pickles, sauerkraut and horseradish, baskets and fresh cut flowers. Prices vary considerably according to the season.

Cepelia. This is the State-run outlet for Polish folk arts and crafts, woven and embroidered fabrics, wood carvings and furniture, carpets, tapestries, linens, ceramics, jewelry and other souvenirs. You pay in zloties.

Desa. This is the State-run outlet for Polish fine arts where you can find old and contemporary paintings, prints and jewelry, and antique reproductions. Items produced before 1945 cannot be exported so check before you buy. If there is any question of the item's origins, the Desa should be able to provide an export certificate. Sales may be in zloties or hard currency.

Ruch. These are the numerous kiosks you see all over town, which claim to be "the world's smallest department stores. They sell newspapers, magazines, maps, stamps, postcards, bus and tram tickets and various other odd trinkets and things.

Bookstores. "Księgarnie" offer books, records, maps and travel brochures at very reasonable prices. Some of the larger bookstores have English, French, German and Russian texts and translations.

Flea Markets. There are several flea markets in Warsaw and each is worth a visit, if only for the experience. You can find anything from ball bearings to a sable coat. Just beware of possible pickpockets.

Flower Shops. "Kwiaciarnia" are all over the city and constitute one of the pleasures, if not traditions, of life in Poland.

The Polish opposition took an a dramatically new – and legal – role in the Parliament, challenging the traditional political authorities. For 40 years, post-war Poland was dominated and controlled by the Polish United Workers' (Communist) Party (PZPR) whose Politburo, headed by the party First Secretary, is its decision-making authority. The PZPR was also supported by its „coalition” partners, the United Peasants' Party (ZSL) and the Democratic Party (SD). In the new pluralist environment, however, the relationships among these parties and with the opposition changed rapidly. In August, 1989, Solidarity's leader, Lech Wałesa, forged a new coalition of Solidarity's parliamentary forces together with the ZSL and SD. A Solidarity activist was elected Prime Minister and he put together a coalition government that included ministers from all parties, including four from the PZPR, which was now in the minority. The new non-communist government was approved by the Sejm on September 12, 1989.

In accordance with the round-table agreements, and in a move to assure necessary stability through a period of dramatic change, the PZPR First Secretary, General Wojciech Jaruzelski, was elected as President of the Republic, a new office created by the round-table. Mięczyński replaced Jaruzelski as first Secretary of the PZPR.

The institutional transformation of Poland's political life is proceeding too rapidly for a freeze-frame picture, such as this description, to remain accurate for long. The political culture is itself undergoing extraordinarily rapid change and one can see the potential for both great achievement or chaotic failure. If this ongoing experiment works, it will provide a model for a „peaceful” transformation from a post-Stalinist authoritarian socialist system to a more democratic, open, tolerant and prosperous society.

POLISH OBSERVANCES

Rather than reiterate what already exists in a basic introduction to Polish culture, we direct you to **Living In Poland: A Guide to Customs and Values**. It was written by Sarah Kaiser Hyams in 1983 following a tour in Warsaw and is available in the CSO office.

was officially reinstated following WWII, however, and is now considered symbolic of communist Poland.

National Colors & Flag: Poland's national colors are red and white, derived from the colors of the original eagle emblem. The same colors are depicted in the Polish flag consisting of a red horizontal plain below a white one.

National Anthem: Symbolic of the Poles' indefatigable struggles for independence throughout history, her national anthem opens with the line: "Poland has not yet perished as long as we are alive". (Jeszcze Polska nie zginęła, póki my żyjemy). The anthem emerged in 1797, during the Period of Partitions, among the Polish legions fighting with the French under General Henryk Dąbrowski. It was formally adopted in 1918 with the coming of independence.

THE GOVERNMENT

The 1989 „round-table: negotiations between the Solidarity opposition and the Communist authorities paved the way for the most far-reaching transformation of political life in Poland since the People's Republic was created after World War II. The Solidarity labor union was re-legalized after an eight-year ban which began with the introduction of martial law on December 13, 1981; Rural Solidarity was also legalized; opposition newspapers began publishing openly and legally; and new, independent associations were permitted to form and function in nearly all areas of social and political life. The round-table agreements also led to a profound transformation of political institutions, particularly of the Sejm, or Parliament, and the chief of state. The round-table defined the terms for new parliamentary elections in June 1989. Solidarity, representing a diverse political opposition, was permitted to run candidates for 161 seats in the Sejm - 35 percent - and for all 100 seats in the newly-created Senate. The Solidarity candidates won in all but one of these contests. The opposition in the Parliament then created the „Citizens Parliamentary Club” which has become a critically important group in the new legislative process. At this writing the new Parliament has just begun to function and its future is not clear yet. The Parliament first convened on July 4, 1989, and held its first working session on July 10, 1989, to hear and address by President George Bush, an event that underscored U.S. support for Poland's bold political experiment.

DINING OUT

Restaurants in Warsaw come in a variety of shapes and sizes, and with an equal diversity of food, atmosphere and decor. They are often affected by food shortages, however. You may find the menu to be lengthy and complicated, only to discover that one or two items are actually available. If there isn't a price listed next to the item, you can be sure they don't have it. Ask the waiter for his recommendation before you decide. The bill will include a ten percent service charge, to which you may add a personal tip of your wish. Private restaurants tend to have a larger selection of choices and better food, although you'll pay for it in the bill.

Every restaurant has its cloakroom. During the winter this is not an optional service; you are obliged to leave your coat or jacket there whether you want to or not. The fee is five zloties, some leave more. The attendants are usually people on disability pensions, and the fees go to supplement their income.

Other types of places to eat include cafes, cafeterias, milk bars and pizza parlors. These are inexpensive, less formal, and offer a limited menu of snacks and beverages. Food stands selling ice cream, waffles, doughnuts, "hot dogs" (rolls stuffed with meat, cheese or mushrooms), fried fish and French fries, are also very popular during the summer.

ENTERTAINMENT

Movies: Poles like to go to the movies and have a great interest in foreign films. Most foreign films have subtitles so there is no problem hearing the original. Tickets are sold the day of the show; try to pick them up in the morning if the film is popular. Ticket prices range from 200 to 400 zloties. Seats are always reserved. There is usually no coat check to worry about. If you arrive late, you may have to wait for the intermission between the news and the main feature to take your seat. Leaving during the film may also be hampered by locked exit doors. Smoking in the theater is prohibited.

The **Stolica** publishes movie listings weekly. A local newspaper, such as **Zycie Warszawy** and **Tribuna Ludu**, will give you the show times. The film's origin is indicated in brackets (pol. = Polish, weg. = Hungarian, radz. = Russian, fr. = French, etc.). "B.o." is equivalent to the "G" for General Audiences in the US. "L. 15" or "L. 18" indicates that only people over 15 or 18 are allowed in. "g" stands for "godzina" or show time. On weekends there are special children's matinees, called "Poranki".

Theaters & Concert Halls: Theater, ballet, opera and musical productions are of international caliber here, if not in fact imported from abroad. Tickets are persuasively inexpensive and are easily ordered through ACA. Performances begin around 1900 and coats must be checked at the cloakroom.

Nightclubs featuring music and live entertainment (a half hour floorshow) are standard fare in most of the large hotels. Performances begin around midnight and there is usually a cover charge. Reservations are recommended.

SIGHTSEEING

Museums & Galleries: In every city of Poland you can find at least an art gallery, an archaeology museum, several history museums and a technology museum. Warsaw is certainly no exception. Admission fees are nominal. One day of the week is often designated for free entry. The larger museums are more likely to sell the English-language guidebooks. Many of the palaces and castles require that you join a guided tour. English-language tours should be arranged in advance. Most palaces and historic buildings also provide felt slippers, which visitors are expected to wear over their shoes in order to protect the floors. On occasion, you may find an area of the museum closed off, probably to conserve heat or because there are not enough guards. In such instances, there is no harm in trying to get an escort to take you through.

Churches: Churches are very much in active use all over Poland. Most Poles attend church regularly, but also visit them as sightseers. Thus, you won't be out of place in the latter role as long as you remain sensitive to any services that may be in progress.

Synagogs: Only a few synagogs now exist and fewer still are in use. (Warsaw has only one). They are generally closed to the public, however. Try to explain your interest to someone with authority on the premises or in the Jewish community.

Cemeteries: Poles are regular visitors to the cemetery. As long as it is open, you won't have any problem taking a stroll through one. A concerted effort is made to maintain grave sites and to keep them decorated with fresh flowers. An experience worth undertaking while you are here is to visit the Warsaw Municipal Cemetery (Cmentarz Powązkowski) on All Saint Day, November 1st, or August 1st, the anniversary of the beginning of the Warsaw Uprising. By dusk, the entire cemetery with the light of memorial candles burning at every grave site.

FACTS & FIGURES

Geography: Poland is part of a continuous plain merging with the USSR to the east and East Germany to the west. To the north is the Baltic Sea and to the south rise the Carpathian and Sudeten Mountains. Her current geographic area encompasses about 120,000 square miles. This makes her variously the largest country in Eastern Europe, the seventh largest country in all of Europe, the 68th largest country in the world, and about the size of New Mexico.

Population: Poland's population now ranges around 37 million. It is ethnically homogeneous, with only 1.5 percent being of Ukranian, Byelorussian, German or Jewish extraction. By contrast, the 150,000 square miles of pre-WWII Poland had a population of 35 million of which 14 percent were Ukranian, ten percent Jewish, three percent Byelorussian and two percent German. Polish Jewry suffered near total annihilation during the war. The other minorities were lost to emigration and the creation of the post-war boundaries resulting in major shifts of population.

Some ten million Poles live outside of Poland. 6.5 million of these are in the US, and about two thirds of these call Chicago their home.

Climate: While Poland lies at the same general latitude as Canada, its climatic conditions are much less stable. It sits between two major weather systems; the warmer oceanic system of Western Europe and the cooler continental system of the Soviet Union. Weather conditions can thus change radically within a day or an hour, and seasonal conditions vary considerably from year to year.

Origins: The name "Polska", or Poland, comes from the six Slovanic tribes that originally inhabited the present-day Poznań area in the mid-10th century. They called themselves the "Polonians", or plains people of "Wielkopolska", or the Great Plain. The country's official name has been the Polish People's Republic since 1952.

Coat of Arms: Poland's national coat of arms is a white eagle on a red background which dates back to the Middle Ages. Through history it has undergone several modifications; most notably, with the removal and restoration of the eagle's crown. During the Period of Partitions (1772-1918), when the emblem was officially banned, it appeared for the first time with a crownless eagle on the banners of insurrectionists and emigres. With the coming of independence in 1918, the Poles adopted a white eagle with a golden crown. The crownless eagle