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used and lived in unbearable poverty, but others sold any surplus they had at a high price and a few became small millionaires, until a currency reform two years after the end of the war wiped out their wealth.[210] Despite harsh conditions, the war led to a spike in Soviet nationalism and unity. Soviet propaganda toned down extreme Communist rhetoric and the press as the people rallied by a belief of protecting their Motherland against the German invaders. Ethnic minorities thought to be collaborators were forced into exile. Religion, which was previously shunned, became a part of Communist Party propaganda campaign in the Soviet society in order to mobilize the religious elements. The social composition of Soviet society changed drastically during the war. There was a burst of marriages in June and July 1941 between people about to be separated by the war and in the next few years the marriage rate dropped off steeply, with the birth rate following shortly thereafter to only about half of what it would have been in peacetime. For this reason mothers with several children during the war received substantial honours and money benefits if they had a sufficient number of children—mothers could earn around 1,300 roubles for having their fourth child and earn up to 5,000 roubles for having their 10th.[211] German soldiers used to brand the bodies of captured partisan women – and other women as well – with the words "Whore for Hitler's troops" and rape them. Following their capture some German soldiers vividly bragged about committing rape and rape-homicide. Susan Brownmiller argues that rape played a pivotal role in Nazi aim to conquer and destroy people they considered inferior, such as Jews, Russians, and Poles. An extensive list of rapes committed by German soldiers was compiled in the so called "Molotov Note" in 1942. Brownmiller points out that Nazis used rape as a weapon of terror.[212] Examples of mass rapes in Soviet Union committed by German soldiers include Smolensk: German command opened a brothel for officers in which hundreds of women and girls were driven by force, often by arms and hair. Lviv: 32 women working in a garment factory were raped and murdered by German soldiers, in a public park. A priest trying to stop the atrocity was murdered. Lviv: Germans soldiers raped Jewish girls, who were murdered after getting pregnant. Survival in Leningrad Main article: Siege of Leningrad Soviet soldiers on the front in Leningrad The city of Leningrad endured more suffering and hardships than any other city in the Soviet Union during the war, as it was under siege for 872 days, from September 8, 1941, to January 27, 1944.[213] Hunger, malnutrition, disease, starvation, and even cannibalism became common during the siege of Leningrad; civilians lost weight, grew weaker, and became more vulnerable to diseases.[214] Citizens of Leningrad managed to survive through a number of methods with varying degrees of success. Since only 400,000 people were evacuated before the siege began, this left 2.5 million in Leningrad, including 400,000 children. More managed to escape the city; this was most successful when Lake Ladoga froze over and people could walk over the ice road—or "Road of Life"—to safety.[215] A victim of starvation in besieged Leningrad in 1941 Most survival strategies during the siege, though, involved staying within the city and facing the problems through resourcefulness or luck. One way to do this was by securing factory employment because many factories became autonomous and possessed more of the tools of survival during the winter, such as food and heat. Workers got larger rations than regular civilians and factories were likely to have electricity if they produced crucial goods. Factories also served as mutual-support centers and had clinics and other services like cleaning crews and teams of women who would sew and repair clothes. Factory employees were still driven to desperation on occasion and people resorted to eating glue or horses in factories where food was scarce, but factory employment was the most consistently successful method of survival, and at some food production plants not a single person died.[216] Survival opportunities open to the larger Soviet community included bartering and farming on private land. Black markets thrived as private barter and trade became more common, especially between soldiers and civilians. Soldiers, who had more food to spare, were eager to trade with Soviet citizens that had extra warm clothes to trade. Planting vegetable gardens in the spring became popular, primarily because citizens got to keep everything grown on their own plots. The campaign also had a potent psychological effect and boosted morale, a survival component almost as crucial as bread.[217] Some of the most desperate Soviet citizens turned to crime as a way to support themselves in trying times. Most common was the theft of food and of ration cards, which could prove fatal for a malnourished person if their card was stolen more than a day or two before a new card was issued. For these reasons, the stealing of food was severely punished and a person could be shot for as little as stealing a loaf of bread. More serious crimes, such as murder and cannibalism, also occurred, and special police squads were set up to combat these crimes, though by the end of the siege, roughly 1,500 had been arrested for cannibalism.[218] Aftermath and damages Main article: World War II casualties of the Soviet Union Soviet soldiers killed during the Toropets–Kholm Offensive, January 1942 Even though it won the conflict, the war had a profound and devastating long-term effect in the Soviet Union. The financial burden was catastrophic: by one estimate, the Soviet Union spent \$192 billion. The US sent around \$11 billion in Lend-Lease supplies to the Soviet Union during the war.[219] American experts estimate that the Soviet Union lost almost all the wealth it gained from the industrialization efforts during the 1930s. Its economy also shrank by 20% between 1941 and 1945 and did not recover its pre-war levels all until the 1960s. British historian Clive Ponting estimates that the war damages amounted to 25 years of the Soviet Gross National Product.[220] Forty percent of the Soviet housing was damaged or destroyed.[221] Out of 2.5 million housing dwellings in the German occupied territories, over a million were destroyed. This rendered some 25 million Soviet citizens homeless.[222] The German occupation encompassed around 85 million Soviet citizens, or almost 45% of the entire Soviet population. At least 12 million Soviets fled towards the east, away from the invading German army. The Soviet sources claim that the Axis powers destroyed 17,101 towns and 70,000 villages, as well as 65,000 km of railroad tracks.[223] The post-Soviet government of Russia puts the Soviet war 'losses' at 26.6 million, on the basis of the 1993 study by the Russian Academy of Sciences, including people dying as a result of battle and war related exposure. This includes 8,668,400 military deaths as calculated by the Russian Ministry of Defense.[224][225] The figures published by the Russian Ministry of Defense have been accepted by the majority of historians and academics, some historians and academics give different estimates. Bruce Robellet Kuniholm, professor of public policy and history, estimates that the Soviet side suffered 11,000,000 military deaths and additional 7,000,000 civilian deaths, thus amounting to a total of 18 million fatalities.[226][227] American military historian Earl F. Ziemke gives a figure of 12 million dead Soviet soldiers and further seven million dead civilians—a total rate of 19 million dead. He also notes that from autumn 1941 until autumn 1943 the front was never less than 2,400 miles long.[228] German professor Beate Frieseler estimates that 2.6 million people, or 7.46 percent of the Soviet Army, were left disabled after the war.[229] Public opinion survey A poll conducted by YouGov in 2015 found that only 11% of Americans, 15% of French, 15% of Britons, and 27% of Germans believed that the Soviet Union contributed most to the defeat of Nazi Germany in World War II. In contrast, the survey conducted in May 1945 found that 57% of the French public believed the Soviet Union contributed most.[230] Citations ^ McNab, Chris (2017). German Soldier vs Soviet Soldier: Stalingrad 1942–43. Osprey PUBLISHING. p. 66. 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I, 1936–41, Oxford University Press, 1949, p. 166, 211. ^ For example, in his article From Munich to Moscow, Edward Hallett Carr explains the reasons behind signing a non-aggression pact between USSR and Germany as follows: Since 1934 the U.S.S.R. had firmly believed that Hitler would start a war somewhere in Europe: the bugbear of Soviet policy was that it might be a war between Hitler and the U.S.S.R. with the western powers neutral or tacitly favourable to Hitler. In order to conjure this bugbear, one of three alternatives had to be envisaged: (i) a war against Germany in which the western powers would be allied with the U.S.S.R. (this was the first choice and the principal aim of Soviet policy from 1934–38); (2) a war between Germany and the western powers in which the U.S.S.R. would be neutral (this was clearly hinted at in the Pravda article of 21 September 1938, and Molotov's speech of 6 November 1938, and became an alternative policy to (i) after March 1939, though the choice was not finally made till August 1939); and (3) a war between Germany and the western powers with Germany allied to the U.S.S.R. (this never became a specific aim of Soviet policy, though the discovery that a price could be obtained from Hitler for Soviet neutrality made the U.S.S.R. a de facto, though not belligerent, partner of Germany from August 1939 till, at any rate, the summer of 1940), see E. H. Carr, From Munich to Moscow, Soviet Studies, Vol. 1, No. 1, (June 1949), pp. 3–17. Taylor & Francis, Ltd. ^ This view is disputed by Werner Maser and Dmitri Volkogonov ^ Iuly Kytilynsky, Russia-Germany: memoirs of the future, Moscow, 2008 ISBN 5-89935-087-3 p.95. ^ Watson 2000, pp. 695–722. ^ a b Shirer, William L., The Rise and Fall of the Third Reich: A History of Nazi Germany, Simon and Schuster, 1990 ISBN 0-671-72868-7, pages 541 ^ Roberts 2006, p. 69 ^ Roberts 2006, p. 63 ^ a b c Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 41. ^ a b c Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 7. ^ a b c Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 11. ^ Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 12. ^ a b c Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 13. ^ a b c Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 16. ^ Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 pages 16–17. ^ a b c Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 Polish edition: Osprey 2007 page 18. ^ a b Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 23. ^ Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 24. ^ Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 25. ^ Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 31. ^ a b c Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 32. ^ a b c Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 41. ^ a b c Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 42. ^ a b c d e f g Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 43. ^ a b c d e Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 44. ^ a b Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 47. ^ a b c d e f Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 45. ^ Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 46. ^ Grossman, Vasily Semyonovich (2005). 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They found themselves virtually forced to become the concubines of senior officers. ^ Beavor, Antony & Vinogradova, Luba A Writer at War Vasily Grossman With the Red Army 1941–1945, New York: Alfred Knopf, 2005 page 121. ^ a b c d Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 48. ^ a b c Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 49. ^ Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 49–50. ^ a b c Rottman, Gordon Soviet Rifleman 1941–45, London: Osprey 2007 page 50. ^ Shirer, William The Rise and Fall of the Third Reich New York: Viking page 953 ^ Compare: North, Jonathan (12 June 2006). "Soviet Prisoners of War: Forgotten Nazi Victims of World War II". History.net. Retrieved 1 February 2015. As a reflection of the racial nature of the war, Jewish prisoners were often held for execution by mobile SS squads or by Wehrmacht commanders. ^ Longerich, Peter (2010). 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