Module 20

World War II

Essential Question
Why did the Allies win World War II?

About the Painting: This painting, *Dawn Patrol Launching* by Paul Sample, depicts an aircraft carrier. Carriers were used extensively in the Pacific Theater of World War II.

In this module you will learn about the events that led to the outbreak of World War II. You will also discover how political decisions, military campaigns, and home front sacrifices led to an Allied victory.

What You Will Learn . . .

Lesson 1: War Breaks Out . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 824
The Big Idea The rise of rulers with total power in Europe and Asia led to World War II.

Lesson 2: The Holocaust . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 837
The Big Idea During the Holocaust, the Nazis systematically executed 6 million Jews and 5 million other “non-Aryans.”

Lesson 3: America Moves Toward War . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 846
The Big Idea The United States hesitated to become involved in another global conflict. However, it did provide economic and military aid to help the Allies achieve victory.

Lesson 4: The War Effort on the Home Front . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 857
The Big Idea Following the attack on Pearl Harbor, the United States mobilized for war.

Lesson 5: The War for Europe and North Africa . . . . . . . . . . . . 876
The Big Idea Allied forces, led by the United States and Great Britain, battled Axis powers for control of Europe and North Africa.

Lesson 6: The War in the Pacific . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 886
The Big Idea After early defeats in the Pacific, the United States gained the upper hand and began to fight its way, island by island, to Japan.

Lesson 7: The End of World War II . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 895
The Big Idea While the Allies completed the defeat of the Axis Powers on the battlefield, Allied leaders were making plans for the postwar world.
Timeline of Events 1930–1946

### United States Events

- **1930**
  - Franklin Delano Roosevelt is elected president.

- **1931**
  - Japan conquers Manchuria in northern China.

- **1933**
  - Prohibition ends.
  - Adolf Hitler is appointed German chancellor.

- **1937**
  - Amelia Earhart disappears attempting solo around-the-world flight.

- **1941**
  - A. Philip Randolph demands that war industries hire African Americans.
  - The United States enters World War II after Japan bombs Pearl Harbor.
  - Roosevelt creates the War Production Board to coordinate mobilization.
  - Japanese Americans are sent to relocation centers.

### World Events

- **1931**
  - Germany invades Poland. Britain and France declare war.

- **1938**
  - Kristallnacht—Nazis riot, destroying Jewish neighborhoods.

- **1939**
  - Germany invades Poland.

- **1940**
  - Britain and France declare war.

- **1941**
  - Germany invades Poland.
  - Britain and France declare war.
  - The United States enters World War II after Japan bombs Pearl Harbor.
  - Thousands of Filipino and American soldiers die during the Bataan Death March.
  - In the Pacific, the Battle of Midway turns the tide in favor of the Allies.
  - Rommel’s forces surrender in North Africa.

- **1942**
  - The GI Bill of Rights is passed.
  - Roosevelt creates the War Production Board to coordinate mobilization.
  - Japanese Americans are sent to relocation centers.

- **1944**
  - On June 6 the Allies launch a massive invasion of Europe.
  - Japan surrenders after atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

- **1945**
  - The United Nations is established.
War Breaks Out

One American’s Story

Martha Gellhorn arrived in Madrid in 1937 to cover the brutal civil war that had broken out in Spain the year before. Hired as a special correspondent for *Collier’s Weekly*, she had come with very little money and no special protection. On assignment there, she met the writer Ernest Hemingway, whom she later married. To Gellhorn, a young American writer, the Spanish Civil War was a deadly struggle between tyranny and democracy. For the people of Madrid, it was also a daily struggle for survival.

“You would be walking down a street, hearing only the city noises of streetcars and automobiles and people calling to one another, and suddenly, crushing it all out, would be the huge stony deep booming of a falling shell, at the corner. There was no place to run, because how did you know that the next shell would not be behind you, or ahead, or to the left or right?”

—Martha Gellhorn, from *The Face of War*

Less than two decades after the end of World War I—“the war to end all wars”—fighting erupted again in Europe and in Asia. As Americans read about distant battles, they hoped the conflicts would remain on the other side of the world.
Failures of the Treaty of Versailles

The Treaty of Versailles, which ended World War I, left many European nations dissatisfied. The treaty’s war-guilt clause placed the blame for the war solely on Germany. The treaty also demanded that the Germans pay reparations, or payments for damages and expenses caused by the war. The amount demanded far exceeded what the German government could actually afford to pay.

Instead of securing a “just and secure peace,” the Treaty of Versailles caused anger and resentment. Germans saw nothing fair in a treaty that blamed them for starting the war. Nor did they find security in a settlement that stripped them of their overseas colonies and border territories. The terms of the treaty did serious damage to the German economy. It forced Germany to give up control of some of its major industrial regions, which made the reparations payments even more challenging. These factors helped bring about a period of severe inflation, or rising prices. Prices increased at such an incredible rate that by 1923, German currency had simply ceased to have any meaningful value. These problems overwhelmed the Weimar Republic, the democratic government set up in Germany after World War I.

Italy was also unhappy with the treaty. The Italians had been on the winning side in the war. They had hoped to be rewarded with territory as part of the treaty. Instead, they were largely ignored during the peace talks. Similarly dissatisfied, the Soviets resented the carving up of parts of Russia.

The peace settlement had not fulfilled President Wilson’s hope of a world “safe for democracy.” New democratic governments that emerged in Europe after the war floundered. Without a democratic tradition, people turned to authoritarian leaders to solve their economic and social problems. The new democracies collapsed, and dictators were able to seize power. Some had great ambitions.
The Spread of Totalitarianism

The seeds of new conflicts had been sown in World War I. For many nations, peace had brought not prosperity but revolution fueled by economic depression and struggle. The postwar years also brought the rise of powerful dictators driven by the belief in nationalism—loyalty to one’s country above all else—and dreams of territorial expansion.

JOSEPH STALIN TRANSFORMS THE SOVIET UNION In Russia, hopes for democracy gave way to civil war, resulting in the establishment of a communist state, officially called the Soviet Union, in 1922. After V. I. Lenin died in 1924, Joseph Stalin, whose last name means “man of steel,” took control of the country. Stalin focused on creating a model communist state. In doing so, he made both agricultural and industrial growth the prime economic goals of the Soviet Union. Stalin abolished all privately owned farms and replaced them with collectives—large government-owned farms, each worked by hundreds of families.

Stalin moved to transform the Soviet Union from a backward rural nation into a great industrial power. In 1928 the Soviet dictator outlined the first of several “five-year plans” for industrialization. All economic activity was placed under state management. By 1937 the Soviet Union had become the world’s second-largest industrial power, surpassed in overall production only by the United States. The human costs of this transformation were enormous.

In his drive to purge, or eliminate, anyone who threatened his power, Stalin did not spare even his most faithful supporters. While the final toll will never be known, historians estimate that Stalin was responsible for the deaths of 8 million to 13 million people. Millions more died in famines caused by the restructuring of Soviet society.

By 1939 Stalin had firmly established a totalitarian government that tried to exert complete control over its citizens. In a totalitarian state, individuals have no rights, and the government suppresses all opposition.

THE RISE OF FASCISM IN ITALY While Stalin was consolidating his power in the Soviet Union, Benito Mussolini was establishing a totalitarian regime in Italy, where unemployment and inflation produced bitter strikes. Some of those strikes were led by Communists. Alarmed by these threats, the middle and upper classes demanded stronger leadership. Mussolini took advantage of this situation. A powerful speaker, Mussolini knew how to appeal to Italy’s wounded national pride. He played on the fears of economic collapse and communism. “Italy wants peace, work, and calm. I will give these things with love if possible, with force if necessary,” he said. In this way, he won the support of many discontented Italians.

By 1921 Mussolini had established the Fascist Party. Fascism (fāsh’ĭz’əm) stressed nationalism and placed the interests of the state above those of individuals. To strengthen the nation, Fascists argued, power must rest with a single strong leader and a small group of devoted party members. (The Latin fasces—a bundle of rods tied around an ax handle—had been a symbol of unity and authority in ancient Rome.)
In October 1922 Mussolini marched on Rome with thousands of his followers, whose black uniforms gave them the name “Black Shirts.” When important government officials, the army, and the police sided with the Fascists, the Italian king appointed Mussolini head of the government.

Calling himself Il Duce, or “the leader,” Mussolini gradually extended Fascist control to every aspect of Italian life. Tourists marveled that Il Duce had even “made the trains run on time.” Mussolini achieved this efficiency, however, by crushing all opposition and by making Italy a totalitarian state.

**THE NAZIS TAKE OVER GERMANY** In Germany, Adolf Hitler had followed a path to power similar to Mussolini’s. At the end of World War I, Hitler had been a jobless soldier drifting around Germany. In 1919 he joined a struggling group called the National Socialist German Workers’ Party, better known as the Nazi Party. Despite its name, this party had no ties to socialism.

Hitler proved to be such a powerful public speaker and organizer that he quickly became the party’s leader. Calling himself Der Führer—“the Leader”—he promised to bring Germany out of chaos.
According to Hitler there were three German empires: the Holy Roman Empire, the German Empire of 1871–1918, and the Third Reich. In his book Mein Kampf [My Struggle], Hitler set forth the basic beliefs of Nazism that became the plan of action for the Nazi Party. **Nazism** (nät’siz’əm), the German brand of fascism, was based on extreme nationalism. Hitler, who had been born in Austria, dreamed of uniting all German-speaking people in a great German empire.

Hitler also wanted to enforce racial “purification” at home. In his view, Germans—especially blue-eyed, blond-haired “Aryans”—formed a “master race” that was destined to rule the world. “Inferior races,” such as Jews, Slavs, and all nonwhites, were deemed fit only to serve the Aryans.

A third element of Nazism was national expansion. Hitler believed that for Germany to thrive, it needed more *lebensraum*, or living space. One of the Nazis’ aims, as Hitler wrote in Mein Kampf, was “to secure for the German people the land and soil to which they are entitled on this earth,” even if this could be accomplished only by “the might of a victorious sword.”

The Great Depression helped the Nazis come to power. Because of war debts and dependence on American loans and investments, Germany’s economy was hit hard. By 1932 some 6 million Germans were unemployed. Many men who were out of work joined Hitler’s private army, the “storm troopers” (or “Brown Shirts”). The German people were desperate and turned to Hitler as their last hope.

By mid-1932, the Nazis had become the strongest political party in Germany. In January 1933 Hitler was appointed chancellor (prime minister). Once in power, Hitler quickly dismantled Germany’s democratic Weimar Republic. In its place he established the Third Reich, or Third German Empire. According to Hitler, the Third Reich would be a “Thousand-Year Reich”—it would last for a thousand years.

**The Faces of Totalitarianism**

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<tr>
<th>Fascist Italy</th>
<th>Nazi Germany</th>
<th>Communist Soviet Union</th>
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<tr>
<td>Benito Mussolini</td>
<td>Adolf Hitler</td>
<td>Joseph Stalin</td>
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| • Extreme nationalism  
• Militaristic expansionism  
• Charismatic leader  
• Private property with strong government controls  
• Anticommunist | • Extreme nationalism and racism  
• Militaristic expansionism  
• Forceful leader  
• Private property with strong government controls  
• Anticommunist | • Planned to create a sound communist state and wait for world revolution  
• Forceful leader  
• Eventual rule by working class  
• State ownership of property |
MILITARISTS GAIN CONTROL IN JAPAN  Halfway around the world, Japan was another country torn by political and economic conflict. Among the problems facing Japan was the limited size of its territory. The islands of Japan were growing crowded. At the time, Japan's government was under civilian control. Many Japanese, however, were unhappy with their leaders. Dissatisfaction was especially high among members of the military who held strong nationalist beliefs.

In the early 1930s a group of military leaders used violence to take control of the imperial government of Japan. Like Hitler and Mussolini, these leaders believed in the need for a strong army to accomplish their country's goals, a philosophy known as militarism. Also like Hitler, they felt the need for more living space for a growing population. Many Japanese wanted to expand their territory and gain greater access to wealth and resources. This desire grew even stronger as a result of the worldwide economic depression of the 1930s.

CIVIL WAR BREAKS OUT IN SPAIN  In 1936 a group of Spanish army officers led by General Francisco Franco rebelled against the Spanish republic. Revolts broke out all over Spain, and the Spanish Civil War began. The war aroused passions not only in Spain but also throughout the world. About 3,000 Americans formed the Abraham Lincoln Battalion and traveled to Spain to fight against Franco. “We knew, we just knew,” recalled Martha Gellhorn, “that Spain was the place to stop fascism.”

Such limited aid was not sufficient to stop the spread of fascism, however. The Western democracies remained neutral. Although the Soviet Union sent equipment and advisers, Hitler and Mussolini backed Franco's forces with troops, weapons, tanks, and fighter planes. The war forged a close relationship between the German and Italian dictators, who signed a formal alliance known as the Rome-Berlin Axis. After a loss of almost 500,000 lives, Franco's victory in 1939 established him as Spain's fascist dictator. Once again a totalitarian government ruled in Europe.

Dictators Expand Their Territory

Having established their totalitarian regimes, many dictators sought to increase their territories, often through military action. Unfortunately the League of Nations, which had been established after World War I to prevent such aggressive acts, did little to thwart their efforts.

JAPAN'S AMBITIONS IN THE PACIFIC  In 1931 the militarists in control of Japan's government began working in earnest to achieve their goals of growing Japan's territory and access to resources. Ignoring the protests of more moderate Japanese officials, they launched a surprise attack and seized control of the Chinese province of Manchuria. Within several months, Japanese troops controlled the entire province, a large region about twice the size of Texas that was rich in natural resources.

This action was a significant test of the power of the League of Nations. The League sent representatives to Manchuria to investigate the situation.
Their report condemned Japan, who in turn simply quit the League. Meanwhile, the success of the Manchurian invasion put the militarists firmly in control of Japan’s government.

As Germany began to expand its territory in Europe, it opened new opportunities for Japanese expansionists. Already in control of Manchuria, in July 1937 Hideki Tojo (hē’d-kē tō’jō’), chief of staff of Japan’s Kwantung Army, launched an invasion farther into China. As French, Dutch, and British colonies lay unprotected in Asia, Japanese leaders leaped at the opportunity to unite East Asia under Japanese control by seizing the colonial lands.

**AGGRESSION IN EUROPE AND AFRICA** The failure of the League of Nations to take action against Japan did not escape the notice of Europe’s dictators. In 1933 Hitler pulled Germany out of the League of Nations. In 1935 he began a military buildup in violation of the Treaty of Versailles. A year later he sent troops into the Rhineland, a German region bordering France and Belgium that was demilitarized as a result of the Treaty of Versailles. The League did nothing to stop Hitler.

**Explore ONLINE!**

**Japan Invades Manchuria, 1931**

Japan took control of the southern half of Sakhalin Island in 1905.

**Italy Invades Ethiopia, 1935–1936**

In 1910, Korea was annexed by Japan.

**Interpret Maps**

1. **Location** What countries were aggressors during this period?
2. **Movement** Notice the size and location of Italy and of Japan with respect to the country each invaded. What similarities do you see?
Meanwhile, Mussolini began building his new Roman Empire. His first target was Ethiopia, one of Africa’s few remaining independent countries. By the fall of 1935, tens of thousands of Italian soldiers stood ready to advance on Ethiopia. The League of Nations reacted with brave talk of “collective resistance to all acts of unprovoked aggression.”

When the invasion began, however, the League’s response was an ineffective economic boycott—little more than a slap on Italy’s wrist. By May 1936 Ethiopia had fallen. In desperation, Haile Selassie, the ousted Ethiopian emperor, appealed to the League for assistance. Nothing was done. “It is us today,” he told them. “It will be you tomorrow.”

**AUSTRIA AND CZECHOSLOVAKIA FALL** On November 5, 1937, Hitler met secretly with his top military advisers. He boldly declared that to grow and prosper Germany needed the land of its neighbors. His plan was to absorb Austria and Czechoslovakia into the Third Reich. When one of his advisors protested that annexing those countries could provoke war, Hitler replied, “‘The German Question’ can be solved only by means of force, and this is never without risk.”

Austria was Hitler’s first target. The Paris Peace Conference following World War I had created the relatively small nation of Austria out of what was left of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The majority of Austria’s 6 million people were Germans who favored unification with Germany. On March 12, 1938, German troops marched into Austria unopposed. A day later Germany announced that its *Anschluss*, or “union,” with Austria was complete. The United States and the rest of the world did nothing.

Hitler then turned to Czechoslovakia. About 3 million German-speaking people lived in the western border regions of Czechoslovakia which were called the Sudetenland. The mountainous region formed Czechoslovakia’s main defense against German attack. Hitler wanted to annex Czechoslovakia to provide more living space for Germany as well as to control its important natural resources.

Hitler charged that the Czechs were abusing the Sudeten Germans, and he began massing troops on the Czech border. The U.S. correspondent William Shirer, then stationed in Berlin, wrote in his diary: “The Nazi press [is] full of hysterical headlines. All lies. Some examples: ‘Women and Children Mowed Down by Czech Armored Cars,’ or ‘Bloody Regime—New Czech Murders of Germans.’”

Early in the crisis, both France and Great Britain promised to protect Czechoslovakia. Then, just when war seemed inevitable, Hitler invited French premier Édouard Daladier and British prime minister Neville Chamberlain to meet with him in Munich. When they arrived, the führer declared that the annexation of the Sudetenland would be his “last territorial demand.” In their eagerness to avoid war, Daladier and Chamberlain chose to believe him. On September 30, 1938, they signed the Munich Agreement, which turned the Sudetenland over to Germany without a single shot being fired. Chamberlain returned home and proclaimed: “My friends, there has come back from Germany peace with honor. I believe it is peace in our time.”

Chamberlain’s satisfaction was not shared by Winston Churchill, Chamberlain’s political rival in Great Britain. In Churchill’s view, by signing the
Munich Agreement, Daladier and Chamberlain had adopted a shameful policy of appeasement—or giving up principles to pacify an aggressor. As Churchill bluntly put it, “Britain and France had to choose between war and dishonor. They chose dishonor. They will have war.” Nonetheless, the House of Commons approved Chamberlain’s policy toward Germany and Churchill responded with a warning.

“[W]e have passed an awful milestone in our history... And do not suppose that this is the end... This is only the First sip, the First foretaste of a bitter cup which will be proffered to us year by year unless, by a supreme recovery of moral health and martial vigor, we arise again and take our stand for freedom as in the olden time.”

—Winston Churchill, from a speech to the House of Commons, quoted in The Gathering Storm

**The German Offensive**

As Churchill had warned, Hitler was not finished expanding the Third Reich. As dawn broke on March 15, 1939, German troops poured into what remained of Czechoslovakia. At nightfall Hitler gloated, “Czechoslovakia has ceased to exist.” After that, the German dictator turned his land-hungry gaze toward Germany’s eastern neighbor, Poland.

**THE SOVIET UNION DECLARES NEUTRALITY** Like Czechoslovakia, Poland had a sizable German-speaking population. In the spring of 1939, Hitler began his familiar routine, charging that Germans in Poland were mistreated by the Poles and needed his protection. Some people thought that this time Hitler must have been bluffing. After all, an attack on Poland might bring
Germany into conflict with the Soviet Union, Poland’s eastern neighbor. At the same time, such an attack would most likely provoke a declaration of war from France and Britain—both of whom had promised military aid to Poland. The result would be a two-front war. Fighting on two fronts had exhausted Germany in World War I. Surely, many thought, Hitler would not be foolish enough to repeat that mistake.

As tensions rose over Poland, Stalin surprised everyone when he signed a **nonaggression pact** with Hitler. Once bitter enemies, on August 23, 1939, fascist Germany and Communist Russia now committed never to attack each other. Germany and the Soviet Union also signed a second, secret pact, agreeing to divide Poland between them. With the danger of a two-front war eliminated, the fate of Poland was sealed.

**BLITZKRIEG IN POLAND** As day broke on September 1, 1939, the German **Luftwaffe**, or German air force, roared over Poland, raining bombs on military bases, airfields, railroads, and cities. At the same time, German tanks raced across the Polish countryside, spreading terror and confusion. This invasion was the initial test of Germany’s newest military strategy, the **blitzkrieg**, or lightning war. Blitzkrieg made use of advances in military technology—such as fast tanks that had been adapted to move quickly over rough terrain and more powerful aircraft that could travel over longer distances—to take the enemy by surprise and then quickly crush all opposition with overwhelming force. On September 3, two days following the terror in Poland, Britain and France declared war on Germany.

The blitzkrieg tactics worked perfectly. Major fighting was over in three weeks, long before France, Britain, and their allies could mount a defense. In the last week of fighting, the Soviet Union attacked Poland from the east, grabbing some of its territory. The portion Germany annexed in western Poland contained almost two-thirds of Poland’s population. By the end of the month, Poland had ceased to exist—and World War II had begun.
THE PHONY WAR  For several months after the fall of Poland, French and British troops on the Maginot Line, a system of fortifications built along France’s eastern border, sat staring into Germany, waiting for something to happen. On the Siegfried Line a few miles away German troops stared back. The blitzkrieg had given way to what the Germans called the *sitzkrieg* ("sitting war"), and what some newspapers referred to as the phony war.

After occupying eastern Poland, Stalin began annexing the Baltic states of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. Late in 1939 Stalin sent his Soviet army into Finland. After three months of fighting, the outnumbered Finns surrendered.

Suddenly, on April 9, 1940, Hitler launched a surprise invasion of Denmark and Norway in order “to protect [those countries’] freedom and independence.” But in truth, Hitler planned to build bases along the coasts to strike at Great Britain. Next, Hitler turned against the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg, which were overrun by the end of May. The phony war had ended.

THE FALL OF FRANCE  France’s Maginot Line proved to be ineffective; the German army threatened to bypass the line during its invasion of Belgium. Hitler’s generals sent their tanks through the Ardennes, a region of wooded ravines in northeast France, thereby avoiding British and French troops who thought the Ardennes were impassable. The Germans continued to march toward Paris.
The German offensive trapped almost 400,000 British and French soldiers as they fled to the beaches of Dunkirk on the French side of the English Channel. In less than a week, a makeshift fleet of fishing trawlers, tugboats, river barges, and pleasure craft—more than 800 vessels in all—ferried about 330,000 British, French, and Belgian troops to safety across the Channel.

A few days later Italy entered the war on the side of Germany and invaded France from the south as the Germans closed in on Paris from the north. On June 22, 1940, at Compiègne, as William Shirer and the rest of the world watched, Hitler handed French officers his terms of surrender. Germans would occupy the northern part of France, and a Nazi-controlled puppet government, headed by Marshal Philippe Pétain, would be set up at Vichy in southern France.

After France fell, a French general named Charles de Gaulle fled to England, where he set up a government-in-exile. De Gaulle proclaimed defiantly, “France has lost a battle, but France has not lost the war.”

**THE BATTLE OF BRITAIN** In the summer of 1940, the Germans began to assemble an invasion fleet along the French coast. Because its naval power could not compete with that of Britain, Germany also launched an air war at the same time. The Luftwaffe began making bombing runs over Britain. Its goal was to gain total control of the skies by destroying Britain’s Royal Air Force (RAF). Hitler had 2,600 planes at his disposal. On a single day—August 15—approximately 2,000 German planes ranged over Britain. Bombers pounded London every night for two solid months.

The Battle of Britain raged on through the summer and fall. Night after night, German planes pounded British targets. At first the Luftwaffe concentrated on airfields and aircraft. Next it targeted cities.

The RAF fought back brilliantly. With the help of a new technological device called radar, British pilots accurately plotted the flight paths of German planes, even in darkness. On September 15, 1940 the RAF shot down...
Winston Churchill (1874–1965)

Winston Churchill may have been Great Britain’s greatest weapon in the fight against the Nazis during World War II. He had been active in British politics since 1900, but it was the growing danger posed by Germany in the 1930s that brought out his finest qualities as a leader and a speaker. He became prime minister of Great Britain in May 1940. In that role, he used his gift as a speaker to rouse and unite the British people, urging them to remain strong in their opposition to Nazi Germany. His refusal to consider surrender helped maintain Britain as a base from which the Allies could eventually attack Hitler’s armies.

Reading Check
Summarize How did German blitzkrieg tactics rely on new military technology?

Over 185 German planes; at the same time, they lost only 26 aircraft. Six weeks later Hitler called off the invasion of Britain indefinitely. “Never in the field of human conflict,” said Churchill in praise of the RAF pilots, “was so much owed by so many to so few.”

Still, German bombers continued to pound Britain’s cities trying to disrupt production and break civilian morale. Even late in the war, when the Luftwaffe had been weakened and no longer had enough planes to send to Britain, the bombing continued. German scientists developed two types of rockets, the V-1 and the V-2, that could rain devastation on British cities from launch sites on the European mainland. At the same time, British pilots also bombed German cities. Civilians in both countries unrelentingly carried on.

Lesson 1 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Use a chart to record details about the goals and actions of each leader.

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<th>Leader</th>
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What were the consequences of the rise of fascism and other totalitarian governments during this period?

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Analyze Effects** How did the Treaty of Versailles sow the seeds of instability in Europe?

**Think About:**
- effects on Germany and the Soviet Union
- effects of the treaty on national pride
- the economic legacy of the war

4. **Form Generalizations** Why do you think Hitler found widespread support among the German people? Support your answer with details from the text.

5. **Evaluate** If you had been a member of the British House of Commons in 1938, would you have voted for or against the Munich Agreement? Support your decision.

6. **Draw Conclusions** Review Germany’s aggressive actions between 1938 and 1945. At what point do you think Hitler concluded that he could take any territory without being stopped? Why?

7. **Analyze Issues** How did the development of new conventional weapons factor into Germany’s blitzkrieg strategy and attacks on Britain? How did geographic factors affect the development of those weapons?
The Big Idea
During the Holocaust, the Nazis systematically executed 6 million Jews and 5 million other “non-Aryans.”

Why It Matters Now
After the atrocities of the Holocaust, agencies formed to publicize human rights. These agencies continue to fight for social justice in today’s world.

Key Terms and People
Holocaust
Kristallnacht
genocide
ghetto
concentration camp

One American’s Story
Gerda Weissmann was a carefree girl of 15 when, in September 1939, invading German troops shattered her world. Because the Weissmanns were Jews, they were forced to give up their home to a German family. In 1942 Gerda, her parents, and most of Poland’s 3,000,000 Jews were sent to labor camps. Gerda recalls when members of Hitler’s elite Schutzstaffel, or “security squadron” (SS), came to round up the Jews.

“We had to form a line and an SS man stood there with a little stick. I was holding hands with my mother and . . . he looked at me and said, ‘How old?’ And I said, ‘eighteen,’ and he sort of pushed me to one side and my mother to the other side. . . . And shortly thereafter, some trucks arrived . . . and we were loaded onto the trucks. I heard my mother’s voice from very far off ask, ‘Where to?’ and I shouted back, ‘I don’t know.’”

—Gerda Weissmann Klein, quoted in the film One Survivor Remembers

American lieutenant Kurt Klein liberated her from the Nazis in 1945. It was just one day before her 21st birthday. She weighed 68 pounds, and her hair had turned white. Of all her family and friends, she alone had survived the Nazis’ campaign to exterminate Europe’s Jews. Klein would later become Gerda’s husband.
The Persecution Begins

On April 7, 1933, shortly after Hitler took power in Germany, he ordered all “non-Aryans” to be removed from government jobs. This order was one of the first moves in a campaign for racial purity. That campaign eventually led to the Holocaust, the systematic murder of 6 million Jews across Europe. The Nazis also murdered 5 million other people.

Jews Targeted Although Jews were not the only victims of the Holocaust, they were the main Nazi targets. Anti-Semitism, or hatred of the Jews, had a long history in parts of Europe. For decades many Germans had been looking for a scapegoat. They blamed the Jews as the cause of their failures.

Adolf Hitler rose to power in part by promising to return Germany to its former glory. Hitler found that a majority of Germans were willing to support his belief that Jews were responsible for Germany’s economic problems and defeat in World War I. He also told the Germans that they came from a superior race, the Aryans, an idea that was found in German music and folktales. Hitler effectively used this notion to build support for his plans.

As the Nazis tightened their hold on Germany, their persecution of the Jews increased. In 1935 the Nuremberg Laws stripped Jews of their German citizenship, jobs, and property. Jews had to wear a bright yellow Star of David attached to their clothing to make it easier for the Nazis to identify them. Worse things were yet to come.

Kristallnacht November 9–10, 1938 became known as Kristallnacht (kris’təl’nächt’), or “Night of Broken Glass.” Nazi storm troopers attacked Jewish homes, businesses, and synagogues across Germany, Austria, and the recently occupied Sudetenland in Czechoslovakia. The Nazis claimed the attacks were a spontaneous reaction to the assassination of a Nazi official by a Jewish teenager. In fact, Nazi officials encouraged the violence.

Vocabulary
scapegoat someone who is made to bear the blame of others
During the rampage, thousands of Jewish businesses and places of worship were damaged or destroyed. An American who witnessed the violence wrote, “Jewish shop windows by the hundreds were systematically and wantonly smashed. . . . The main streets of the city were a positive litter of shattered plate glass.” Around 100 Jews were killed, and hundreds more were injured. Some 30,000 Jews were arrested. Afterward, the Nazis blamed the Jews for the destruction and held them financially responsible. Jews were fined a total of 1 billion marks.

**A FLOOD OF JEWISH REFUGEES**  Kristallnacht marked an increase in the Nazis’ Jewish persecution and sent a clear message to those Jews still in Germany. Over 100,000 managed to leave in the months following the attacks. However, many had trouble finding countries that would accept them. Nazi laws had left many German Jews without money or property, and most countries were unwilling to take in poor immigrants. France already had 40,000 Jewish refugees and did not want more. The British worried about fueling anti-Semitism. They refused to admit more than 80,000 Jewish refugees. The British also controlled the Palestine Mandate, part of which later became Israel. They did allow 30,000 refugees to settle there. Late in 1938 Germany’s foreign minister, Joachim von Ribbentrop, observed, “We all want to get rid of our Jews. The difficulty is that no country wishes to receive them.”

Although the average Jew had little chance of reaching the United States, “persons of exceptional merit” were allowed in. Physicist Albert Einstein, author Thomas Mann, architect Walter Gropius, and theologian Paul Tillich were among 100,000 refugees the United States accepted.

Many Americans wanted the door closed. Americans were concerned that letting in more refugees during the Great Depression would deny jobs to U.S. citizens. They also thought it would threaten economic recovery. Among Americans, there was widespread anti-Semitism and fear that “enemy agents” would enter the country. President Roosevelt said that he sympathized with the Jews. But he also said that he would not “do anything which would conceivably hurt the future of present American citizens.”

**THE PLIGHT OF THE ST. LOUIS**  Official indifference to the situation of Germany’s Jews was clear in the case of the ship *St. Louis*. This German ocean liner passed Miami, Florida, in 1939. Although 740 of the liner’s 943 passengers had U.S. immigration papers, the Coast Guard followed the ship to prevent anyone from getting off in America. The ship was forced to return to Europe. “The cruise of the *St. Louis,*” wrote the *New York Times*, “cries to high heaven of man’s inhumanity to man.” Passenger Liane Reif-Lehrer recalls her childhood experiences.

“My mother and brother and I were among the passengers who survived. . . . We were sent back to Europe and given haven in France, only to find the Nazis on our doorstep again a few months later.”

—Liane Reif-Lehrer, quoted in *A History of US*

More than half of the passengers were later killed in the Holocaust.
Hitler’s “Final Solution”

By 1939 only about a quarter million Jews remained in Germany. But other nations that Hitler occupied had millions more. Obsessed with a desire to rid Europe of its Jews, Hitler imposed what he called the “Final Solution”—a policy of genocide, the deliberate and systematic killing of an entire population.

THE CONDEMNED  Hitler’s Final Solution rested on the belief that Aryans were a superior people and that the strength and purity of this “master race” must be preserved. To accomplish this, the Nazis condemned the Jews to slavery and death. They did the same to other groups that they viewed as inferior or unworthy or as “enemies of the state.”

After taking power in 1933, the Nazis had concentrated on silencing their political opponents: communists, socialists, liberals, and anyone else who spoke out against the government. Once the Nazis had eliminated these enemies, they turned against other groups in Germany. In addition to Jews, these groups included the following:

- Gypsies—whom the Nazis believed to be an “inferior race”
- Freemasons—whom the Nazis charged as supporters of the “Jewish conspiracy” to rule the world
- Jehovah’s Witnesses—who refused to join the army or salute Hitler

The Nazis also targeted other Germans whom they found unfit to be part of the “master race.” Such victims included homosexuals, the mentally deficient, the mentally ill, the physically disabled, and the incurably ill.

Hitler began implementing his Final Solution in Poland with special Nazi death squads. Hitler’s elite Nazi “security squadrons” (or SS), rounded up Jewish men, women, children, and babies, and shot them on the spot.

FORCED RELOCATION  Jews also were ordered into dismal, overcrowded ghettos, segregated Jewish areas in certain Polish cities. The Nazis sealed off the ghettos with barbed wire and stone walls. Those Jews who tried to leave were shot.

On May 9, 1945, inmates at the Ebensee concentration camp in Austria were liberated by U.S. soldiers.
Life inside the ghetto was miserable. Food was scarce. Diseases spread quickly in the cramped conditions, and many Jews fell ill. The bodies of victims of the death squads piled up in the streets faster than they could be removed. Factories were built alongside ghettos where people were forced to work for German industry. In spite of the impossible living conditions, the Jews hung on. While some formed resistance movements inside the ghettos, others resisted by other means. They published and distributed underground newspapers. Secret schools were set up to educate Jewish children. Even theater and music groups continued to operate.

**CONCENTRATION CAMPS** Finally, Jews in communities not reached by the killing squads were dragged from their homes and herded onto trains or trucks for shipment to concentration camps, or labor camps. Families were often separated, sometimes—like the Weissmanns—forever.

Nazi concentration camps were originally set up to imprison political opponents and protesters. The camps were later turned over to the SS, who expanded the concentration camps and used them to warehouse other “undesirables.” Life in the camps was a cycle of hunger, humiliation, and work that almost always ended in death.

The prisoners were crammed into crude wooden barracks that held up to a thousand people each. They shared their crowded quarters, as well as their meager meals, with hordes of rats and fleas. One survivor remembered such intense hunger “that if a bit of soup spilled over, prisoners would converge on the spot, dig their spoons into the mud and stuff the mess into their mouths.” Inmates in the camps worked from dawn to dusk, seven days a week, until they collapsed. Those too weak to work were killed.
The Final Stage

The Final Solution reached its final stage in early 1942. Hitler called his top officials to a meeting held in Wannsee, a suburb near Berlin. There they agreed to a new phase of the mass murder of Jews. Nazis already were using mass slaughter and starvation. Now they would add murder by poison gas.

**MASS EXTERMINATIONS** Overwork, starvation, beatings, and bullets did not kill fast enough to satisfy the Nazis. The Germans built six death camps in Poland. The first, Chelmno, began operating in 1941—before the meeting at Wannsee. Each camp had several huge gas chambers. As many as 12,000 people a day could be killed in them.

Auschwitz was the largest of the death camps. When prisoners arrived there, they had to walk past several SS doctors. The doctors separated those strong enough to work from those who would die that day. Both groups had

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### Estimated Jewish Losses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-Holocaust Population</th>
<th>Number Killed</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Low Estimate</td>
<td>High Estimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>191,000</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>65,500</td>
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<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>29,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bohemia/Moravia</td>
<td>92,000</td>
<td>77,000</td>
<td>78,300</td>
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<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>4,600</td>
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<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>260,000</td>
<td>75,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>566,000</td>
<td>135,000</td>
<td>142,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>73,000</td>
<td>59,000</td>
<td>67,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>725,000</td>
<td>502,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>48,000</td>
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<td>Latvia</td>
<td>95,000</td>
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<td>Lithuania</td>
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<td>143,000</td>
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<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>3,500</td>
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<td>2,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>112,000</td>
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<td>105,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>1,700</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>3,250,000</td>
<td>2,700,000</td>
<td>3,000,000</td>
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<td>Romania</td>
<td>441,000</td>
<td>121,000</td>
<td>287,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>89,000</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>71,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>2,825,000</td>
<td>700,000</td>
<td>1,100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yugoslavia</td>
<td>68,000</td>
<td>56,000</td>
<td>65,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| TOTALS | 9,067,800 | 4,869,860 | 5,894,716 |

*Source: Columbia Guide to the Holocaust*

**Interpret Charts**

Approximately what percentage of the total Jewish population in Europe was killed during the Holocaust?
to leave all their belongings behind, supposedly to be returned to them later. Those assigned to die were taken to a room outside the gas chamber. They were told to undress for a shower and were even given pieces of soap. Finally, they were led into the chamber and poisoned with cyanide gas that came out of vents in the walls. Sometimes an orchestra of camp inmates played cheerful music during the killings. Those inmates had been temporarily spared from death because of their musical abilities.

At first the bodies were buried in huge pits. At Belzec, Rudolf Reder was part of a 500-man death brigade that worked all day, he said, “either at grave digging or emptying the gas chambers.” But the decaying corpses gave off an odor that could be smelled for miles around. Worse yet, mass graves left evidence of the mass murder.

At some camps, Nazis tried to cover up the evidence of their slaughter. They installed huge crematoriums, or ovens, in which to burn the dead. At other camps, the bodies were simply thrown into a pit and set on fire.

Gassing was not the only method of extermination used in the camps. Prisoners were also shot, hanged, or injected with poison. Others died from horrible medical experiments done by camp doctors. Some of these victims were injected with deadly germs. The SS doctors wanted to study the effect of disease on different groups of people. Many more inmates were used to test methods of sterilization.

Some Nazi doctors were interested in this as a possible way to improve the “master race.”

THE GLOBAL RESPONSE In the United States, news of the Nazi violence against European Jews was not always noticeably reported. Anti-Jewish violence increased from 1939 to 1941. After that, some newspapers carried stories about German shooting operations in Poland and the Soviet Union. However, the victims’ ethnic background was not always identified. Also, the fate of Europe’s Jews was just one of many issues of concern to the United States. The war was the main focus of many countries’ attention.

By 1942 the world began to become aware of the horrifying details of Hitler’s Final Solution. That year, one escapee from a concentration camp, Jacob Grojanowski, published a report of his experiences in the camp. From Poland, the report made its way to London and then to other parts of Europe. Also in 1942, Gerhart Riegner, the head of a major Jewish organization in Switzerland, sent a report to the U.S. State Department about the atrocities occurring in Europe. Those who read these reports or heard them described on the radio were horrified by their contents. Leaders of the Allied nations publicly condemned the Nazis for their disgraceful actions.
The response to the Holocaust varied by nation and by individual. Some risked their own lives to save Jews from the Nazis. In 1942 King Christian X rejected the Nazis’ demand to enforce the Nuremberg Laws against the Jews in German-occupied Denmark. Almost all of Denmark’s Jews were rescued by being taken to Sweden in boats. Aristides de Sousa Mendes, a Portuguese diplomat stationed in France, defied his government’s orders to deny entry to Jewish refugees. Instead he issued some 10,000 visas to Jews seeking to enter Portugal. The Swedish diplomat Raoul Wallenberg issued “protective passports” that allowed thousands of Hungarian Jews to escape the Nazi death camps. Even citizens of Germany lent a hand. And Sempo Sugihara, Japanese consul in Lithuania, helped over 6,000 Jews to escape the Nazis’ clutches, an act that cost him his career.

The United States did not immediately take steps to protect Europe’s Jewish population. Many observers have criticized that inaction. In part, the U.S. government was unsure how to arrange rescue operations in Europe. It was also unsure of what the outcome of those operations would be. It was not until January 1944 that President Roosevelt announced the creation of the War Refugee Board. The task of this organization was to rescue thousands of Jews in Hungary, Romania, and other parts of Europe. Those Jews might otherwise have fallen into the hands of the Nazis. In the spring of 1944, some Jewish organizations received detailed reports about the mass murders by gassing happening at Auschwitz. Those organizations proposed bombing the camp. The U.S. War Department refused, uncertain of the results. They

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**American Literature**

**The Holocaust**

Elie Wiesel and his family were deported from Romania to Auschwitz in 1944. Only he and two older sisters survived the camps. His parents and younger sister perished. In 1960 his memoir was published in English as Night. Critics consider it to be one of the most significant literary works about the Holocaust.

**Night**

“Never shall I forget that night, the first night in camp, that turned my life into one long night seven times sealed. Never shall I forget that smoke. Never shall I forget the small faces of the children whose bodies I saw transformed into smoke under a silent sky. Never shall I forget those flames that consumed my faith forever. Never shall I forget the nocturnal silence that deprived me for all eternity of the desire to live. Never shall I forget those moments that murdered my God and my soul and turned my dreams to ashes. Never shall I forget those things, even were I condemned to live as long as God Himself. Never.”

—Elie Wiesel, from Night.

**Analyze American Literature**

How does the personal testimony of survivors such as Wiesel help people understand the Holocaust?
explained that they were not able to carry out a bombing raid with enough accuracy. They also argued that the best way to help the Jews was to end the war as quickly as possible. The War Department believed its focus should be exclusively on military targets.

THE SURVIVORS An estimated six million Jews died in the death camps and in the Nazi massacres. But some miraculously escaped the worst of the Holocaust. Many had help from ordinary people who were appalled by the Nazis’ treatment of Jews. Some Jews even managed to survive the horrors of the concentration camps.

In Gerda Weissmann Klein’s view, survival depended as much on one’s spirit as on getting enough to eat. “I do believe that if you were blessed with imagination, you could work through it,” she wrote. “If, unfortunately, you were a person that faced reality, I think you didn’t have much of a chance.” Those who did come out of the camps alive were forever changed by what they had witnessed.

For survivor Elie Wiesel, who entered Auschwitz at the age of 15, the sun had set forever. Although he survived his ordeal, Wiesel’s experiences in Auschwitz irrevocably altered his worldview. After his liberation in 1945, Wiesel moved to France where he studied and became a journalist. He first recorded memoirs of his time in Auschwitz in Yiddish in 1956. The work, which was published as Night in 1960, has become known as one of the great pieces of Holocaust literature. Wiesel became a noted lecturer about the Holocaust. His work condemning violence, hatred, and oppression brought him worldwide fame, and in 1986 he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson 2 Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Organize Information</strong> List at least four events that led to the Holocaust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cause</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Holocaust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write a paragraph explaining how significant you think the different events were in contributing to the Holocaust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Key Terms and People</strong> For each key term in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Evaluate</strong> Do you think that the United States was justified in not doing more to aid Holocaust victims, either by allowing more Jewish refugees to immigrate or by attempting rescue missions in Europe? Why or why not?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Think About:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the views of isolationists in the United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• some Americans’ prejudices and fears</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the unknowns of a military response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4. Develop Historical Perspective</strong> Why do you think the Nazi system of systematic genocide was so brutally effective? Support your answer with details from the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5. Analyze Motives</strong> How might concentration camp doctors and guards have justified to themselves the death and suffering they caused other human beings?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6. Analyze Events</strong> How did word of the Holocaust spread beyond Germany, and how did people in other countries react to the news?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Big Idea
The United States hesitated to become involved in another global conflict. However, it did provide economic and military aid to help the Allies achieve victory.

Why It Matters Now
U.S. military capability became a key factor in World War II, and it has been a consideration in world affairs ever since.

Key Terms and People
Neutrality Acts
Axis powers
Selective Training and Service Act
Lend-Lease Act
Atlantic Charter
Allies

One American’s Story
Two days after Hitler invaded Poland, President Roosevelt spoke to Americans about the outbreak of war in Europe. Roosevelt talked clearly about how the United States should be consistent in seeking peace for all people. He also announced a new proclamation declaring American neutrality.

“This nation will remain a neutral nation, but I cannot ask that every American remain neutral in thought as well. . . . Even a neutral cannot be asked to close his mind or his conscience. . . . I have said not once, but many times, that I have seen war and I hate war. . . . As long as it is my power to prevent, there will be no blackout of peace in the U.S.”

—Franklin D. Roosevelt, from a radio speech, September 3, 1939

Roosevelt knew that Americans still wanted to stay out of war. However, he also believed that there could be no peace in a world controlled by dictators. “When peace has been broken anywhere,” he said, “the peace of all countries everywhere is in danger.”
Isolationism Amidst Conflict

Most Americans were alarmed by the international conflicts of the mid-1930s. But they believed that the United States should not get involved. Since World War I, the United States had kept a policy of isolationism. The nation’s leaders avoided any action that would involve the United States in global affairs.

**THE ROOTS OF ISOLATIONISM** Because of the horrors of World War I, many Americans were determined never to be involved in an international war again. In 1919 Congress refused to allow the United States to join the League of Nations. They feared that the league would control American foreign policy. They also feared that it would tie the country too closely to Europe.

After World War I, the United States made sure that it would not be pulled into war again. At the Washington Naval Conference of 1921, the United States and its allies signed a disarmament treaty. They also promised not to build any warships during the next decade. In 1928 the United States signed the Kellogg-Briand Pact. The treaty was signed by 62 countries. It stated that war would not be used “as an instrument of national policy.” Yet it did not include a way to deal with countries that broke their pledge. Therefore, the Pact was only a small step toward peace.

**AMERICANS CLING TO ISOLATIONISM** In the early 1930s numerous books argued that greedy bankers and arms dealers had dragged the United States into World War I. Public outrage led a congressional committee to investigate these charges. North Dakota senator Gerald Nye chaired the committee. The Nye committee found that banks and manufacturers had made large profits during the war. Anger grew over these “merchants of death.” Americans became even more determined to avoid war. Antiwar feeling was very strong. The Girl Scouts of America even changed the color of its uniforms to green. The original khaki was similar to the color used by the military.

News of Japan’s invasion of Manchuria reached the United States in 1932. The U.S. government avoided getting involved. Secretary of State Henry Stimson’s response was supported by President Hoover. Stimson notified the governments of both Japan and China that the United States would not recognize the conflict. The U.S. government would continue to consider Manchuria a part of China. The Hoover-Stimson note also insisted that Americans kept all their trade rights in China.

Americans’ growing isolationism eventually affected President Roosevelt’s foreign policy. When he first took office in 1933, Roosevelt reached out to other nations in several ways. He officially recognized the Soviet Union in 1933 and agreed to exchange ambassadors with Moscow. His Good Neighbor Policy continued the nonintervention policy in Latin America begun by Presidents Coolidge and Hoover. Roosevelt also withdrew armed forces stationed there. In 1934 Roosevelt pushed Congress to pass the Reciprocal Trade Agreement Act. It lowered trade barriers by giving the president the power to make trade agreements with other nations. It was aimed at reducing tariffs by as much as 50 percent.
Congress, however, disagreed with Roosevelt’s efforts to involve the country in foreign affairs. In 1934 it passed the Johnson Debt Default Act, which prohibited any foreign aid loans to countries that had not paid back their World War I debts. Congress also passed a series of Neutrality Acts to keep the country out of future wars. The first two acts, passed in 1935 and 1937, outlawed arms sales or loans to nations at war. The third act was passed in 1939 in response to the fighting in Spain. This act prohibited arms sales and loans to nations engaged in civil wars.

**NEUTRALITY BREAKS DOWN** Even though Congress passed laws to keep the country neutral, Roosevelt found it impossible to remain neutral. When Japan launched a new attack on China in July 1937, Roosevelt found a way around the Neutrality Acts. Because Japan had not formally declared war against China, the president claimed there was no need to enforce the Neutrality Acts. The United States continued sending arms and supplies to China. A few months later Roosevelt spoke out strongly against isolationism in a speech delivered in Chicago. He called on peace-loving nations to “quarantine,” or isolate, aggressor nations in order to stop the spread of war.

“The peace, the freedom, and the security of 90 percent of the population of the world is being jeopardized by the remaining 10 percent who are threatening a breakdown of all international order and law. Surely the 90 percent who want to live in peace under law and in accordance with moral standards that have received almost universal acceptance through the centuries, can and must find some way . . . to preserve peace.”

—Franklin D. Roosevelt, from the “Quarantine Speech,” October 5, 1937

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**Document-Based Investigation Historical Source**

**“The Only Way We Can Save Her”**

During the late 1930s Americans watched events in Europe with growing alarm. Dictators were destroying democratic systems of government throughout Europe. They were dragging the continent into war. These political events divided American public opinion. Some Americans felt that the United States should help European democracies. However, isolationists—people who believed that the United States should not interfere in other nations’ affairs—opposed getting involved in European disagreements.

**Analyze Historical Sources**

1. What does the kneeling figure fear will happen to America if Uncle Sam gets involved?
2. What U.S. policy does the cartoon support?
At last Roosevelt seemed ready to take a stand against aggression—until isolationist newspapers exploded in protest. They accused the president of leading the nation into war. Roosevelt backed off as a result of this criticism, but his speech did begin to shift the debate. For the moment the conflicts remained “over there.”

Moving Away from Neutrality

As German tanks rolled across Poland, Roosevelt revised the Neutrality Act of 1935. At the same time, he began to prepare the nation for the struggle he feared lay just ahead.

CAUTIOUS STEPS  In September 1939 Roosevelt persuaded Congress to pass a “cash-and-carry” provision. It allowed warring nations to buy U.S. arms as long as they paid cash and transported them in their own ships. Roosevelt argued that providing the arms would help France and Britain defeat Hitler and keep the United States out of the war. Isolationists attacked Roosevelt for his actions. However, after six weeks of heated debate, Congress passed the Neutrality Act of 1939, and a cash-and-carry policy went into effect.

THE AXIS THREAT  The United States’s cash-and-carry policy seemed like too little, too late. By summer 1940 France had fallen and Britain was under siege. Roosevelt worked to provide the British with “all aid short of war.” By June he had sent Britain 500,000 rifles and 80,000 machine guns. In early September the United States traded 50 old destroyers for leases on British military bases in the Caribbean and Newfoundland. British prime minister Winston Churchill would later recall this move with affection as “a decidedly unneutral act.”

On September 27 Americans were startled by the news that Germany, Italy, and Japan had signed a mutual defense treaty, the Tripartite Pact. The three nations became known as the Axis powers.

The Tripartite Pact was intended to keep the United States out of the war. Under the treaty each Axis nation agreed to defend the others in case of attack. This meant that if the United States declared war on any one of the Axis powers, it would have to fight a two-ocean war, in both the Atlantic and the Pacific.

BUILDING U.S. DEFENSES  Meanwhile, Roosevelt asked Congress to increase spending for national defense. Despite years of U.S. isolationism, Nazi victories in 1940 changed U.S. thinking. Congress boosted defense spending. Congress also passed the nation’s first peacetime military draft—the Selective Training and Service Act. Under this law 16 million men between the ages of 21 and 35 were registered. Of these, one million would be drafted for one year. They were allowed to serve only in the Western Hemisphere. Roosevelt drew the first draft numbers. He told a national radio audience, “This is a most solemn ceremony.”
ROOSEVELT RUNS FOR A THIRD TERM  That same year, Roosevelt broke the tradition of a two-term presidency begun by George Washington. He decided to run for reelection. Roosevelt’s Republican opponent was a public utilities executive named Wendell Willkie. He supported Roosevelt’s policy of aiding Britain, which disappointed isolationists. At the same time, both Willkie and Roosevelt promised to keep the nation out of war. Because there was so little difference between the candidates, the majority of voters chose the one they knew better. Roosevelt was reelected with nearly 55 percent of the votes cast.

Not long after the election, President Roosevelt continued his drive to provide aid to the Allies in their fight against the Axis powers. He told his radio audience during a fireside chat that it would be impossible to negotiate a peace with Hitler. “No man can tame a tiger into a kitten by stroking it.” He warned that if Britain fell, the Axis powers would be left unchallenged to conquer the world. At that point, he said, “all of us in all the Americas would be living at the point of a gun.” To prevent such a situation, the United States had to help defeat the Axis threat. It had to become what Roosevelt called “the great arsenal of democracy.”

THE LEND-LEASE PLAN  By late 1940 Britain had no more cash to spend on arms. In addition, as a result of the Johnson Debt Default Act, Roosevelt was unable to lend money to Britain directly. Instead, he tried to help by suggesting a new plan that he called a lend-lease policy. Under this plan the president would lend or lease arms and other supplies to “any country whose defense was vital to the United States.”

Roosevelt compared his plan to lending a garden hose to a neighbor whose house was on fire. He maintained that this was the only sensible thing to do to prevent the fire from spreading to your own property. Isolationists opposed the plan, but most Americans favored it. Congress passed the Lend-Lease Act in March 1941.

Britain was not the only nation to receive lend-lease aid. In June 1941 Hitler broke the agreement he had made in 1939 with Stalin not to go to war and invaded the Soviet Union. Acting on the principle that “the enemy of my enemy is my friend,” Roosevelt worked to improve the diplomatic relationship between the United States and the Soviet Union. He began sending lend-lease supplies to the Soviets. Some Americans opposed providing aid to Stalin. However, Roosevelt agreed with Winston Churchill, who had said “if Hitler invaded Hell,” the British would work with the devil himself. The cooperation among these three nations laid the groundwork for what Churchill would come to call the Grand Alliance.

As a result of policies such as the Lend-Lease Act, American industries began shifting to wartime production before the United States officially entered the war. Defense spending skyrocketed in 1940. Idle factories came back to life. They changed from making consumer goods to producing war supplies. A merry-go-round company began producing gun mounts, and a stove factory made lifeboats. A famous New York toy maker made compasses. A pinball-machine company made armor-piercing shells. This increase in production did what all of the programs of the
increase in production did what all of the programs of the New Deal could not do: it ended the Great Depression. With factories hiring again, the nation’s unemployment level began shrinking rapidly. It fell by 400,000 in August 1940 and by another 500,000 in September. By the end of 1941, America was going back to work.

**Critical Thinking**

1. **Connect to History**  Compare and contrast different perspectives about how the United States should have responded to the aggressive actions taken by other nations leading up to World War II. What arguments did supporters and opponents of isolationism present to make their cases? Write a paragraph presenting your findings.

2. **Connect to Today**  After World War I, many Americans became isolationists. Do you recommend that the United States practice isolationism today? Why or why not?
FDR Plans for War

Although Roosevelt was popular, his foreign policy was under constant attack. Still, he recognized that American forces were seriously underarmed. Roosevelt took a number of actions to ensure that the U.S. military would be prepared for the war he was certain would come.

**GERMAN WOLF PACKS** Lend-lease aid was helping, but supply lines across the Atlantic Ocean had to be kept open to deliver goods to Britain and the Soviet Union. Hitler tried to prevent delivery of lend-lease shipments by sending out hundreds of German submarines, or U-boats, to attack supply ships.

From the spring through the fall of 1941, attacks by individual U-boats were replaced by the wolf pack attack. At night groups of up to 40 submarines patrolled areas in the North Atlantic where convoys could be expected. Wolf packs were successful in sinking as much as 350,000 tons of shipments in a single month. In June 1941 President Roosevelt granted the navy permission for U.S. warships to attack German U-boats in self-defense.

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**German Wolf Packs**

On October 17, 1940, near Rockall, west of Ireland, British Convoy SC-7 (shown below) was attacked by a German wolf pack. The convoy was outlined clearly against a moonlit sky, which made the merchant ships an easy target.

A tanker burns and sinks in the Atlantic Ocean after being torpedoed by a German U-boat.

At the start of the war, the British had too few warships to escort the convoys.

German aircraft could patrol 1,000 miles out to sea to scout for convoys.

The Germans used radios to summon U-boats into a fighting wolf pack.

U-boats used hydrophonic equipment to pick up the sound of convoy propellers up to 100 miles away.

Convoys pinned their hopes on finding U-boats using ASDIC—sonar apparatus that could detect submerged submarines.
THE ATLANTIC ChARTER  In August 1941 Roosevelt and Churchill met secretly at a summit aboard the battleship USS Augusta. Although Churchill hoped for a military commitment, he settled for a joint declaration of war goals called the Atlantic Charter. Both countries pledged collective security, disarmament, self-determination, economic cooperation, and freedom of the seas. Roosevelt told Churchill that he couldn’t ask Congress for a declaration of war against Germany. But he said that he “would wage war” and do “everything” to “force an incident.”

The Atlantic Charter became the basis of a new document called “A Declaration of the United Nations.” Roosevelt suggested the term United Nations to express the common purpose of the Allies, those nations that fought the Axis powers. The declaration was signed on January 1, 1942, by 26 nations: Australia, Belgium, Canada, China, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Great Britain, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, India, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Panama, Poland, South Africa, the Soviet Union, the United States, and Yugoslavia. By the end of the war, another 21 countries had added their signatures.

SHOOT ON SIGHT  After a German submarine fired on the U.S. destroyer Greer in the Atlantic on September 4, 1941, Roosevelt ordered navy commanders to respond. “When you see a rattlesnake poised to strike,” the president explained, “you crush him.” Roosevelt ordered the navy to shoot the German submarines on sight.

Two weeks later the Pink Star, an American merchant ship, was sunk off Greenland. In mid-October a U-boat sank the U.S. destroyer Kearny, and 11 lives were lost.

Days later German U-boats torpedoed the U.S. destroyer Reuben James, killing more than 100 sailors. “America has been attacked,” Roosevelt announced grimly. “The shooting has started. And history has recorded who fired the first shot.” As the death toll mounted, the Senate repealed a ban against arming merchant ships. A formal declaration of a full-scale war seemed inevitable.

Japan Attacks the United States

The United States was now involved in an undeclared naval war with Hitler. However, the attack that finally brought the United States into the war came from Japan. By the late fall of 1941, American leaders had become convinced that war between the United States and Japan was likely. The only remaining question was how and where the fighting would start.

ECONOMIC MOTIVATIONS  By early 1941 the Japanese had already pushed eastward into Manchuria and other parts of China. They also set their sights on the European colonial possessions to the south. By 1941 the European powers were too busy fighting Hitler to block Japanese expansion. Only the United States and its Pacific islands remained in Japan’s way.
The Japanese began a southward push in July 1941. They took over French military bases in Indochina (now Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos). The United States protested this aggression by halting trade with Japan. One item that Japan could not live without was oil for its war machine. Japanese military leaders warned that a lack of oil could defeat Japan without its enemies ever striking a blow. The leaders declared that Japan must either persuade the United States to end its oil embargo or capture the oil fields in the Dutch East Indies. Any attack on the East Indies, though, would mean war.

**PEACE TALKS ARE QUESTIONED** Shortly after becoming the prime minister of Japan, Hideki Tojo met with emperor Hirohito. Tojo promised the emperor that the Japanese government would try to keep peace with the Americans. But on November 5, 1941, Tojo ordered the Japanese navy to prepare an attack on the United States.

The U.S. military had broken Japan’s secret communication codes. It learned that Japan was preparing an attack. But it didn’t know where the attack would happen. Late in November Roosevelt sent a “war warning” to military commanders in Hawaii, Guam, and the Philippines. If war could not be avoided, the warning said, “the United States desires that Japan commit the first overt act.” And the nation waited.

After the embargo began, representatives of the two nations met to try to settle their growing differences. U.S. Secretary of State Cordell Hull held several meetings with the Japanese ambassador. The United States wanted Japan to pull out of China, but the Japanese refused. The peace talks went on until December 6, 1941, when Roosevelt received a decoded message. It instructed Japan’s peace envoy to refuse all American peace proposals. “This means war,” Roosevelt declared.

**THE ATTACK ON PEARL HARBOR** Early the next morning, a Japanese dive-bomber flew low over Pearl Harbor—the largest U.S. naval base in the Pacific. The bomber was followed by more than 180 Japanese warplanes from six aircraft carriers. Japanese bombs began falling on the base. A radio operator sent this message: “Air raid on Pearl Harbor. This is not a drill.”

For an hour and a half, the Japanese planes attacked. The U.S. antiaircraft guns had little effect, and the planes hit target after target. By the time the last plane flew away around 9:30 a.m., there was widespread devastation. The Japanese goal had been to weaken U.S. naval power in the Pacific. They thought that this would keep the Americans from preventing Japanese expansion, and they were successful.

In less than two hours, the Japanese had killed 2,403 Americans and wounded 1,178 more. The surprise attack had sunk or damaged 21 ships, including 8 battleships—nearly the whole U.S. Pacific fleet. More than 300 aircraft were severely damaged or

At Pearl Harbor, American sailors are rescued by motorboat after the bombing of their battleships—the USS West Virginia and the USS Tennessee.
Japanese Aggression, 1931–1941

Interpret Maps
1. Region Which countries had Japan invaded by 1941?
2. Movement On the lower inset map notice the placement of the U.S. ships in Pearl Harbor. What might the navy have done differently to minimize damage from a surprise attack?
Lesson 3 Assessment

1. **Organize Information**
   Use a graphic organizer to trace the events that led the United States from isolationism and neutrality toward full involvement in World War II.

   Which of the events that you listed was most influential in bringing the United States into the war? Why?

2. **Key Terms and People**
   For each key term in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Evaluate**
   Do you think that the United States should have waited to be attacked before declaring war?

   **Think About:**
   - the ongoing negotiations between the United States and Japan
   - the influence of isolationists
   - the events at Pearl Harbor

4. **Analyze Issues**
   What steps did world powers take after World War I to avoid future wars? Why?

5. **Form Generalizations**
   Would powerful nations or weak nations be more likely to follow an isolationist policy? Explain.

6. **Draw Conclusions**
   Would you consider Roosevelt a strong president or a weak one? How did his leadership abilities compare to those of other presidents you have studied?

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**Reading Check**

**Draw Conclusions**

Why was Japan’s attack on Pearl Harbor so devastating?

**Vocabulary**

infamy evil fame or reputation

**Module 20**

856
The War Effort on the Home Front

The Big Idea
Following the attack on Pearl Harbor, the United States mobilized for war.

Why It Matters Now
Changes on the home front reshaped American society as well as the economy.

Key Terms and People
George Marshall
Women’s Auxiliary Army Corps (WAAC)
Office of Price Administration (OPA)
War Production Board (WPB)
rationing
Manhattan Project
A. Philip Randolph
James Farmer
Congress of Racial Equality (CORE)
internment
Japanese American Citizens League (JACL)

One American’s Story
As soldiers left home to fight in Europe and the Pacific, many American families were separated. This letter from Marine 1st Lt. Leonard Isacks expresses the emotions that many soldiers felt when thinking of their loved ones back home.

“My dear little boys:

I am writing to you today, just a week before Christmas eve, in the hope that you will get this little note at Christmas time. All of this coming week will be holidays, and I can just imagine the fun you will be having.

I won’t be able to give you a Christmas present personally this year, but I do want you to know that I think of you all the time. . . . I know that you would like to give me a Xmas present too, so I will tell you what you can do, and this will be your Xmas present to me. Everyday ask Mummie if there are any errands that you can do for her, and when there are errands to run, say, ‘sure Mummie’ and give her a big smile; . . .”

—Leonard Isacks, from “Letter from Marine 1st Lt. Leonard Isacks”

As the United States began to mobilize for war, the Isacks family, like most Americans, had few illusions about what lay ahead. It would be a time filled with hard work, hope, sacrifice, and sorrow.
Americans Join the Military

The Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor expecting that after Americans experienced Japan’s power, they would shrink from further conflict. The day after the raid, the Japan Times boasted that the United States was reduced to a third-rate power and was “trembling in her shoes.” But if Americans were trembling, it was with rage, not fear. American patriotism drove citizens to incredible acts of bravery and sacrifice, on the battlefields of Europe and the Pacific as well as at home. Uniting under the battle cry “Remember Pearl Harbor!” they set out to prove Japan wrong.

SELECTIVE SERVICE AND THE GI After Pearl Harbor, patriotic young Americans jammed recruiting offices. “I wanted to be a hero, let’s face it,” admitted Roger Tuttrup. “I was havin’ trouble in school... The war’d been goin’ on for two years. I didn’t wanna miss it... I was an American. I was seventeen.”

Even the 5 million who volunteered for military service, however, were not enough to face the challenge of an all-out war on two fronts—Europe and the Pacific. The Selective Service System expanded the draft and eventually provided another 10 million soldiers to meet the armed forces’ needs.

All of the Americans entering the armed forces needed training and housing. This required building hundreds of new military bases and training centers. In general, the military wanted to build new bases in rural areas where there was plenty of open land. A warm climate was also important. The military buildup changed many parts of the country. California became home to more military bases than any other state. In Florida, Camp Blanding had 55,000 soldiers and became the state’s fourth-largest city almost overnight.

Volunteers and draftees reported to these and other military bases around the country. There they received eight weeks of basic training. In this short period, seasoned sergeants did their best to turn raw recruits into disciplined, battle-ready GIs. Army Chief of Staff General George Marshall was the leader of the armed forces mobilization effort. He ensured that American soldiers were well equipped and properly trained. Marshall also played an important role in developing the nation’s military strategy.

According to Sergeant Debs Myers, however, there was much more to basic training than teaching a recruit how to stand at attention, march in step, handle a rifle, and follow orders.

“The civilian went before the Army doctors, took off his clothes, feeling silly; jigged, stooped, squatted, wet into a bottle; became a soldier. He learned how to sleep in the mud, tie a knot, kill a man. He learned the ache of loneliness, the ache of exhaustion, the kinship of misery. He learned that men make the same queasy noises in the morning, feel the same longings at night; that every man is alike and that each man is different.”

—Sergeant Debs Myers, quoted in The GI War: 1941–1945
EXPANDING THE MILITARY  The military’s workforce needs were so great that Marshall pushed for the formation of a **Women’s Auxiliary Army Corps (WAAC)**. “There are innumerable duties now being performed by soldiers that can be done better by women,” Marshall said in support of a bill to establish the Women’s Auxiliary Army Corps. Under this bill, women volunteers would serve in noncombat positions.

Some members of Congress called the bill “the silliest piece of legislation” they had ever seen. Despite their opposition, the bill establishing the WAAC became law on May 15, 1942. The law gave the WAACs an official status and salary but few of the benefits that male soldiers received. Even so, thousands of patriotic women enlisted. They wanted to help the army win the war. In July 1943 the U.S. Army dropped the “auxiliary” status and gave members of the Women’s Army Corps (WAC) full U.S. Army benefits. WACs worked as nurses, ambulance drivers, radio operators, electricians, and pilots. They performed nearly every duty not involving direct combat.

More than 1,000 women who had been trained as pilots before the war also signed up for duty. They formed the Women Airforce Service Pilots (WASP). WASPs flew noncombat missions. They transported supplies, moved aircraft between bases, and tested new planes. This freed male pilots for combat missions. Among the first women to sign up to be a WASP was Cornelia Fort. She was a civilian pilot who had witnessed the bombing of Pearl Harbor from the air.

RECRUITING AND DISCRIMINATION  For many minority groups—especially African Americans, Native Americans, Mexican Americans, and Asian Americans—the war created new difficulties. They were restricted to racially segregated neighborhoods and reservations. They were denied basic citizenship rights. Some members of these groups questioned whether this was their war to fight. “Why die for democracy for some foreign country when we don’t even have it here?” asked an editorial in an African American newspaper.

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**NOW & THEN**

**Women in the Military**

A few weeks after the bill to establish the Women’s Auxiliary Army Corps (WAAC) had become law, Oveta Culp Hobby (shown, far right), a Texas newspaper executive and the first director of the WAAC, put out a call for recruits. More than 13,000 women applied on the first day. In all, some 350,000 women served in this and other auxiliary branches during the war.

After the war, many expected the U.S. military to dismiss most of the women who had served. Instead, in 1948 President Truman signed the Women’s Armed Services Integration Act. This law allowed women to serve as full members of the U.S. armed forces. Still, American women continued to serve in separate units. Not until 1978 were male and female forces integrated. In 2013 U.S. military leaders signed a directive to allow the more than 200,000 women who were serving in the active-duty military to fill front-line combat positions.
When one African American received his draft notice, he responded unhappily, “Just carve on my tombstone, ‘Here lies a black man killed fighting a yellow man for the protection of a white man.’”

Some African Americans, however, saw the war effort as an opportunity to fight this discrimination. Across the country, African American newspapers supported the Double V Campaign. Government posters with the slogan “V For Victory” inspired the campaign. It encouraged African Americans to join together to support the war effort. Double V Clubs collected money and supplies. They sponsored patriotic events and met with local leaders to promote fairer hiring practices. Their hope was that African Americans could win two victories. One would be a victory over the country’s enemies, and one would be over poor treatment at home. The nationalism that inspired these contributions also made many African Americans believe that their situation could improve.

**DRAMATIC CONTRIBUTIONS** Despite discrimination in the military, more than 300,000 Mexican Americans joined the armed forces. Mexican Americans in Los Angeles made up only a tenth of the city’s population. However, they suffered a fifth of the city’s wartime casualties.

About 1 million African Americans also served in the military. African American soldiers lived and worked in segregated units. They were limited mostly to noncombat roles. After much protest, African Americans did finally see combat beginning in April 1943.

Asian Americans also took part in the struggle. More than 13,000 Chinese Americans, or about one of every five adult males, joined the armed forces. In addition, 33,000 Japanese Americans put on uniforms. Of these, several thousand volunteered to serve as spies and interpreters in the Pacific war. “During battles,” wrote an admiring officer, “they crawled up close enough to be able to hear [Japanese] officers’ commands and to make verbal translations to our soldiers.”

Some 25,000 Native Americans also enlisted in the armed services, including 800 women. The willingness of Native Americans to serve led *The Saturday Evening Post* to comment, “We would not need the Selective Service if all volunteered like Indians.”
The Federal Government Manages the War Effort

The United States was much better prepared to enter World War II than it had been for World War I. Before the attack on Pearl Harbor, Roosevelt had recognized the importance of managing the war effort. He created a series of agencies to aid in this task. The Office of War Mobilization was created in 1943 to oversee the agencies and coordinate all wartime efforts.

WINNING AMERICAN SUPPORT  American leaders understood that public support for the war effort was vital to its success. In June 1942 the government created the Office of War Information (OWI). This agency was responsible for spreading propaganda to influence the thoughts, feelings, and actions of the public in favor of the war effort.

The OWI produced dozens of posters and films during the war. Many of these encouraged a positive vision of the United States and stressed positive actions. For example, some encouraged men to join the armed forces and women to take jobs in war industries. Others encouraged those on the home front to save essential resources, such as gasoline and aluminum. The OWI also issued warnings to the public about the dangers they faced. Drawings of Nazi or Japanese soldiers threatening small children were meant to inspire fear in Americans—and the desire to take action against the Axis nations. Another technique was to show the harmful outcomes of improper actions, such as sharing sensitive military information.

Movies remained enormously popular during the war years. In the early 1940s some 85 million Americans went to the movies each week. As a result, the nation’s film industry became a major producer of wartime propaganda. Movie studios churned out patriotic films that featured soldiers and workers on the home front. The OWI helped by reviewing movie scripts for the proper messages. Moviemakers also created informational films, such as Frank Capra’s Why We Fight series. As the war dragged on, moviegoers grew tired of propaganda and war themes. Hollywood responded with musicals, romances, and other escapist fare. These were designed to take viewers away from the grim realities of war, if only for an hour or two.

ECONOMIC CONTROLS  Due to their experiences in World War I, government officials knew that wartime inflation could threaten the American economy. Inflation is a general rise in the level of prices. When it occurs, each dollar that a person earns will buy fewer goods and services than it did before. As war production increased, fewer consumer products would be available. With demand increasing and supplies dropping, prices seemed likely to climb.
Roosevelt responded to this threat by creating the **Office of Price Administration (OPA)**. The OPA fought inflation by freezing prices on most goods. Congress also raised income tax rates and extended the tax to millions of people who had never paid it before. As a result, workers had less to spend. This reduced consumer demand on scarce goods. In addition, the government encouraged Americans to buy war bonds with their extra cash. As a result of these measures, inflation remained below 30 percent for the entire period of World War II. This was about half the inflation level during World War I.

These measures also helped fund the war effort. According to some estimates, preparations for World War II cost the U.S. government more than $300 billion. After restructuring the tax system, Congress created the withholding system of payroll deductions to collect income taxes. Employers withheld a percentage of their workers’ pay from each paycheck. Then they sent the money directly to the U.S. treasury, supplying a steady flow of funds. The money that ordinary citizens invested in war bonds also helped pay for the war. It paid for shipping, aircraft, and other weaponry produced in American factories. By war’s end, 85 million Americans had purchased war bonds, raising nearly $185 billion.

Besides controlling inflation and paying for the war effort, the government had to make sure that the armed forces and war industries received the resources they needed. The **War Production Board (WPB)** assumed that responsibility. The WPB decided which companies would change from peacetime to wartime production. It allocated raw materials to key industries. The WPB also organized drives to collect scrap iron, tin cans, paper, rags, and cooking fat to recycle into war goods. Across America, children searched attics, cellars, garages, vacant lots, and back alleys, looking for useful junk. During one five-month-long paper drive in Chicago, schoolchildren collected 36 million pounds of old paper. Their effort was equal to about 65 pounds per child.

**CONSERVING FOOD AND OTHER GOODS** Meeting the food needs of the military took top priority in the United States. One way to grow more food for Americans on the home front was to plant victory gardens. Americans prepared with a few simple tools, some seed and fertilizer, and a patriotic spirit. They farmed small plots of land to overcome food shortages. In small towns and large cities, any spare piece of land was likely to be used to grow food. Many victory gardens were small and humble, but the combined efforts of millions of Americans produced big results. In 1943 the nation’s 20 million victory gardens yielded an astounding 8 million tons of produce.

However, victory gardens alone could not fulfill all of the nation’s food needs. Some foods could not be grown in home gardens. There were shortages of other products as well. As a result, the OPA set up a system for rationing, or establishing fixed allotments of goods deemed essential for the military. Under this system, households received ration books with coupons to be used...
for buying such scarce goods. These included meat, shoes, sugar, coffee, and gasoline. Most Americans willingly accepted rationing as a personal contribution to the war effort. Inevitably, some cheated by hoarding scarce goods or purchasing them through the “black market.” There, rationed items could be bought illegally without coupons at inflated prices. However, the penalties for breaking the rules could be severe.

Some materials were so vital to the war effort that even rationing was not enough to preserve the country’s supply. To help fulfill the military’s needs—and to keep civilians from suffering too much—scientists developed synthetic versions of some of these products. For example, rubber was necessary for making tires and other automotive parts. Nearly all of the world’s rubber supply came from parts of Asia that had been conquered by Japan. American companies began to produce synthetic rubber for many of these uses. The synthetic fabric nylon was produced to replace silk in parachutes, protective gear, and other military applications.

**MOBILIZATION OF SCIENTISTS**  In 1941 Roosevelt created the Office of Scientific Research and Development (OSRD) to bring scientists into the war effort. The OSRD stimulated improvements in semiconductor technology, which is vital for modern communications equipment. In turn, these advances led to the development of radar and sonar. These new technologies were used to locate submarines under water. Scientists with the OSRD also worked to improve weapons technology. For example, they developed new bombs and guided missiles. They also improved aircraft technology. The first combat jet aircraft were launched during World War II, although they were not actually used in fighting during the war.

The OSRD also supported research into lifesaving medications and techniques. For example, it pushed the development of “miracle drugs,” such as penicillin. These drugs saved countless lives on and off the battlefield. It also funded research into new ways to isolate blood plasma—the liquid portion of blood—and transport both plasma and whole blood to where they were needed on the battlefield. The OSRD encouraged the use of pesticides like DDT to fight insects. As a result, U.S. soldiers were probably the first in history to be relatively free from body lice.

The most significant achievement of the OSRD, however, was the secret development of a new weapon, the atomic bomb. Interest in such a weapon began in 1939, after German scientists succeeded in splitting uranium atoms. That process released an enormous amount of energy. This news prompted physicist and German refugee Albert Einstein to write a letter to President Roosevelt. Einstein warned that the Germans could use their discovery to build a weapon of enormous destructive power.

Roosevelt responded by creating an Advisory Committee on Uranium to study the new discovery. In 1941 the committee reported that it would take from three to five years to build an atomic bomb. The OSRD hoped to shorten that time. It set up an intensive program in 1942 to develop a bomb as quickly as possible. Much of the early research was performed at Columbia University in Manhattan. As a result, the Manhattan Project became the code name for research work that was done across the country.
### The Government Takes Control of the Economy, 1942–1945

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agencies and Laws</th>
<th>Actions and Results</th>
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| Office of War Information (OWI) | • Spread propaganda to increase support for the war effort  
• Produced posters and films alerting Americans to the need for rationing and to potential dangers |
| Office of Price Administration (OPA) | • Fought inflation by freezing wages, prices, and rents  
• Rationed foods such as meat, butter, cheese, vegetables, sugar, and coffee |
| Department of the Treasury | • Issued war bonds to raise money for the war effort and to fight inflation |
| Revenue Act of 1942 | • Raised the top personal-income tax rate to 88 percent  
• Added lower- and middle-income Americans to the income-tax rolls |
| War Production Board (WPB) | • Rationed fuel and materials vital to the war effort, such as gasoline, heating oil, metals, rubber, and plastics |
| Office of Scientific Research and Development (OSRD) | • Developed and improved military technology  
• Researched new medications and medical techniques  
• Established Manhattan Project to develop the atomic bomb |
| National War Labor Board (NWLB) | • Limited wage increases  
• Allowed negotiated benefits such as paid vacation, pensions, and medical insurance  
• Kept unions stable by forbidding workers to change unions |
| Smith-Connally Anti-Strike Act (1943) | • Limited the right to strike in industries crucial to the war effort  
• Gave the president power to take over striking plants |
| Fair Employment Practices Committee | • Prohibited job discrimination based on race or religion |

**Interpret Tables**

1. Why did President Roosevelt create the OSRD, and what did it do?
2. What was the purpose of the Fair Employment Practices Committee?

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**TRANSPORTING GOODS** All of the products made in American factories and saved by citizens had to be shipped to the soldiers overseas. Soldiers on both fronts needed weapons, food, medicines, and other supplies to be successful. Much of the responsibility for transporting goods to the war fronts fell to the U.S. merchant marine, a fleet of civilian merchant ships. More than 200,000 Americans served in the merchant marine during the war.

With battles raging on two fronts, transporting goods presented a huge challenge. Any goods transported to either Europe or the Pacific front had
to cross an ocean patrolled by enemy ships, submarines, and planes. For safety, most merchant ships traveled in convoys. These groups were often escorted by warships. Even with such precautions, however, merchant shipping was dangerous. Dozens of ships were sunk, and tens of thousands of sailors were killed.

The nature of some products made them more challenging to ship. Many medicines and foods were perishable. They could not be shipped or stored without refrigeration, which often was not available. Fragile containers, such as glass jars, were difficult to transport without damage. However, American ingenuity provided solutions. Researchers developed methods to freeze-dry vital medical supplies, including penicillin and blood plasma. Dried supplies did not need refrigeration. They could also be transported in more durable containers, such as cans. Freeze-drying was also used later in the war to preserve food to ship to soldiers on both fronts.

**A Production Miracle**

One of the most important and most challenging aspects of mobilization was the rapid industrial change from peacetime to wartime production. Following the outbreak of war, the federal government spent tens of billions of dollars on weapons and supplies. Roosevelt set the ambitious goal of building 60,000 new planes in 1942 and 125,000 more the next year. He asked for 120,000 tanks in the same period. To meet these goals, Roosevelt relied on government agencies to regulate industry. They determined what factories produced, what prices they charged, and how raw materials would be allocated. He also relied on the efforts of millions of Americans who went to work in the nation’s factories, many for the first time.

**The Production Miracle**

**Aircraft and Ship Production, 1940-45**

- **Aircraft**
- **Ships**

**U.S. Budget Expenditure, 1941-45**

- **Defense**
- **Non-defense**

_Source: The Times Atlas of the Second World War_
THE INDUSTRIAL RESPONSE  Early in February 1942, American newspapers reported the end of automobile production for private use. The last car to roll off an automaker’s assembly line was a gray sedan with “victory trim,”—that is, without chrome-plated parts. Within weeks of the shutdown in production, the nation's automobile plants had been retooled. They began to produce tanks, planes, boats, and command cars. They were not alone. Across the nation, factories were quickly converted to war production. A maker of mechanical pencils produced bomb parts. A bedspread manufacturer made mosquito netting. A soft-drink company converted from filling bottles with liquid to filling shells with explosives.

Meanwhile, shipyards and defense plants expanded with dizzying speed. By the end of 1942, industrialist Henry J. Kaiser had built seven massive new shipyards that turned out Liberty ships (cargo carriers), tankers, troop transports, and “baby” aircraft carriers at an astonishing rate. Late that year Kaiser invited reporters to Way One in his Richmond, California, shipyard. They watched as his workers assembled Hull 440, a Liberty ship, in a record-breaking four days. Before the end of the fourth day, 25,000 amazed spectators watched as Hull 440 slid into the water. How could such a ship be built so fast? Kaiser used prefabricated, or factory-made, parts that could be assembled quickly at his shipyards. Equally important were his workers, who worked at record speeds.

LABOR’S CONTRIBUTION  When the war began, defense contractors warned the Selective Service System that the nation did not have enough workers to meet both its military and its industrial needs. They were wrong. A wave of patriotism swept through the country, binding Americans together against a common enemy. Some Americans expressed their patriotic feelings by enlisting in the armed forces. Others rushed to take jobs in factories to support the war effort. By 1944, despite the draft, nearly 18 million workers were laboring in war industries, three times as many as in 1941.
Swept up in the national wave of patriotism, laborers threw themselves fully into the war effort. Individuals willingly worked long hours with few breaks. Labor unions pledged not to strike or take any other action that would slow down production. As the war dragged on and prices climbed, however, some workers grew frustrated. They called on union leaders to fight for higher wages. To head off a potential production slowdown, Roosevelt established the National War Labor Board (NWLB) in 1942. The board served as a mediator between labor and management to prevent strikes. It prevented protests about wages by setting limits on wage increases, which took the decision out of management’s hands. To prevent union instability, which could affect production, it banned workers from quitting or changing unions while employed.

NEW WORKERS Among those who committed to working in war industries were more than 6 million women who wanted to support their country. At first, war industries feared that most women lacked the necessary strength for factory work and were reluctant to hire them. But women proved that they could operate welding torches or riveting guns as well as men. After that, employers could not hire enough of them, especially since women earned only about 60 percent as much as men doing the same jobs. The character “Rosie the Riveter” was inspired by a popular song of the era. Her image was that of a strong woman hard at work in an arms factory. That image became an enduring symbol of these women and their contributions to the war.

Defense plants also hired more than 2 million minority workers during the war years. These included African Americans, Mexican Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, and others. Like women, minorities faced strong prejudice at first. Before the war, 75 percent of defense contractors simply refused to hire African Americans. Another 15 percent employed them only in menial jobs. Nationalism and a desire to contribute led African American workers to take these menial jobs. However, many were not happy about the situation. “Negroes will be considered only as janitors,” declared the general manager of North American Aviation. “It is the company policy not to employ them as mechanics and aircraft workers.”

Many of the new workers in America’s factories had previously worked on farms, as had many soldiers. The departure of so many workers from American farms led to a severe shortage of agricultural laborers. Faced with the possibility of low harvests, the U.S. government responded. In 1942 it launched a program in which Mexican braceros, or hired hands, were invited...
Reading Check
Form Generalizations
How did women and minorities contribute to the wartime work force?

Opportunity, Discrimination, and Adjustment
The war opened up many opportunities for women and minorities. At the same time, though, old prejudices and policies persisted, both in the military and at home. In addition, Americans of all ethnicities and backgrounds had to adjust to the absence of loved ones fighting abroad.

CONFRONTING LABOR ISSUES To protest discrimination both in the military and in industry, A. Philip Randolph organized a march on Washington. Randolph was president and founder of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters and the nation's most respected African American labor leader. He called on African Americans everywhere to come to the capital on July 1, 1941. They were to march under the banner “We Loyal Colored Americans Demand the Right to Work and Fight for Our Country.”

President Roosevelt feared that the march might provoke white resentment or violence. He called Randolph to the White House and asked him to back
A. Philip Randolph in 1942

down. “I’m sorry Mr. President,” the labor leader said, “the march cannot be called off.” Roosevelt then asked, “How many people do you plan to bring?” Randolph replied, “One hundred thousand, Mr. President.” Roosevelt was stunned. Even half that number of African American protesters would be far more than Washington—still a very segregated city—could feed, house, and transport.

In the end it was Roosevelt, not Randolph, who backed down. In return for Randolph’s promise to cancel the march, the president issued an executive order creating the Fair Employment Practices Committee. It called on employers and labor unions “to provide for the full and equitable participation of all workers in defense industries, without discrimination because of race, creed, color, or national origin.”

**CIVIL RIGHTS PROTESTS**

African Americans made some progress on the home front. During the war, thousands of African Americans left the South. The majority moved to the Midwest where they could find better jobs. Between 1940 and 1944 the percentage of African Americans working in skilled or semiskilled jobs rose from 16 to 30 percent.

Wherever African Americans moved, however, discrimination presented tough hurdles. In 1942 civil rights leader James Farmer founded an interracial organization called the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE). Its purpose was to confront urban segregation in the North. That same year, CORE staged its first sit-in at a segregated Chicago restaurant.

As African American migrants moved into already overcrowded cities, tensions rose. In 1943 a tidal wave of racial violence swept across the country. The worst conflict erupted in Detroit on a hot Sunday afternoon in June. It began as a disagreement between blacks and whites at a beach on the Detroit River. It grew into a riot when white sailors stationed nearby joined in. The fighting continued for three days. False rumors circulated that whites had murdered a black woman and her child and that black rioters had killed 17 whites. By the time President Roosevelt sent federal troops to restore order, 9 whites and 25 blacks lay dead or dying.

The violence of 1943 showed both black and white Americans just how serious racial tensions had become in the United States. By 1945 more than 400 committees had been established by American communities to improve race relations. Progress was slow, but African Americans were determined not to give up the gains they had made.

**TENSION IN LOS ANGELES**

Mexican Americans also experienced prejudice during the war years. In the violent summer of 1943, Los Angeles exploded in anti-Mexican “zoot-suit” riots. The zoot suit was a style of dress adopted by Mexican American youths to symbolize their rebellion against tradition. It consisted of a long jacket and pleated pants. Broad-brimmed hats were often worn with the suits.
The riots began when 11 sailors in Los Angeles reported that they had been attacked by zoot-suit-wearing Mexican Americans. This charge triggered violence involving thousands of servicemen and civilians. Mobs poured into Mexican neighborhoods and grabbed any zoot-suiters they could find. The attackers ripped off their victims’ clothes and beat them senseless. The riots lasted almost a week and resulted in the beatings of hundreds of Mexican American youth and other minorities.

In spite of such unhappy experiences with racism, many Mexican Americans expressed hope that their sacrifices during wartime would lead to a better future.

“This war . . . is doing what we in our Mexican-American movement had planned to do in one generation. . . . It has shown those ‘across the tracks’ that we all share the same problems. It has shown them what the Mexican American will do, what responsibility he will take and what leadership qualities he will demonstrate. After this struggle, the status of the Mexican Americans will be different.”

—Manuel de la Raza, quoted in *A Different Mirror: A History of Multicultural America*

**HARDSHIPS FOR NATIVE AMERICANS** Native Americans, too, faced discrimination during the war. Native Americans on the whole were among the most enthusiastic volunteers for military service. Although they risked their lives to defend American values, many states still prohibited them from voting. Even in states that did not bar Native Americans from voting outright, local policies prevented many from casting ballots.
During the war, the federal government reclaimed some reservation land for its own use. Some of this land was used to build or enlarge military bases or to create weapons-testing areas. Parts of two reservations in Arizona were designated as relocation camps, despite the objections of the residents. Huge tracts of Native American land were mined for valuable resources, including oil, gas, lead, and helium. During the war, these lands yielded more than $39 million worth of vital minerals. However, the Native American tribes on the lands received only $6 million in compensation.

**SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS** Americans willingly put up with many hardships and managed without comforts during the war. For many, the hardest part was dealing with the absence of loved ones. Across the country, families with loved ones in the armed forces showed their sacrifice by displaying a flag with a blue star. If the service member was killed, the blue star was replaced with a gold one. Over the course of the war, more than 400,000 American service members were killed, leaving many grieving families behind.

Families adjusted to the changes brought on by war as best they could. With millions of fathers in the armed forces, mothers struggled to raise their children alone. Many young children got used to being left with neighbors or relatives or in child-care centers as more and more mothers went to work. Teenagers left at home without parents sometimes drifted into juvenile delinquency. And when fathers finally did come home, there was often a painful period of readjustment as family members got to know one another again.

The war helped create new families, too. Longtime sweethearts—as well as couples who barely knew each other—rushed to marry before the soldier or sailor was shipped overseas. In booming towns like Seattle, the number of marriage licenses issued went up by as much as 300 percent early in the war. A New Yorker observed in 1943, “On Fridays and Saturdays, the City Hall area is blurred with running soldiers, sailors, and girls hunting the license bureau, floral shops, ministers, blood-testing laboratories, and the Legal Aid Society.”

**Internment of Japanese Americans**

While some minorities struggled with tension and discrimination, the war produced tragic result for others. After Pearl Harbor, government officials began to fear that people of German, Italian, and Japanese descent might resort to sabotage or other disloyal behavior in order to help the enemy. Italians and Germans who had immigrated to the United States but not yet completed the citizenship process were considered “enemy aliens.” Many were forced to register with the government and carry identification cards. In addition, the government designated certain areas restricted from enemy aliens. Such restrictions on people’s civil liberties placed a huge burden on those living or working in these areas. Thousands of Germans and Italians were placed in prison camps. But the worst treatment was reserved for the Japanese Americans.
When the war began, 120,000 Japanese Americans lived in the United States, mostly on the West Coast. The sense of fear and uncertainty following Pearl Harbor caused a wave of prejudice against them. The surprise in Hawaii had stunned the nation. After the bombing, panic-stricken citizens feared that the Japanese would soon attack the United States. Frightened people believed false rumors that Japanese Americans were committing sabotage by mining coastal harbors and poisoning vegetables.

Early in 1942 the War Department called for the mass evacuation of all Japanese Americans from Hawaii. General Delos Emmons, the military governor of Hawaii, resisted the order because 37 percent of the people in Hawaii were Japanese Americans. To remove them would have destroyed the islands’ economy and hindered U.S. military operations there. However, he was eventually forced to order the internment, or confinement, of 1,444 Japanese Americans, 1 percent of Hawaii’s Japanese American population.

On February 19, 1942, President Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066 requiring the removal of people of Japanese ancestry from California and parts of Washington, Oregon, and Arizona. Based on strong recommendations from the military, he justified this step as necessary for national security. In the following weeks, the army rounded up some 110,000 Japanese Americans. They were sent to ten hastily constructed remote “relocation centers,” euphemisms for prison camps.

About two-thirds were Nisei, or Japanese people born in this country of parents who emigrated from Japan. Thousands of Nisei had already joined the armed forces. To Monica Itoi Sone, a Nisei teenager from Seattle, the evacuation to the Minidoka camp in Idaho seemed unbelievable.

Interpret Maps
1. Location In which states were the Japanese internment camps located in 1942?
2. Place Why do you think the majority of these camps were located in the West?
Lesson 4 Assessment

1. **Organize Information**  Use a web diagram to record the ways that the war affected the lives of Americans on the home front.

   ![Web Diagram](image)

2. **Key Terms and People**  For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Analyze Issues**  How did government agencies manage wartime mobilization?

   **Think About:**
   - the Office of War Information and the use of propaganda
   - the Office of Price Administration and inflation
   - the War Production Board and industrial mobilization

4. **Summarize**  How did the scientific and technological advances made by American researchers during World War II meet wartime needs?

5. **Analyze Events**  How did the U.S. government finance the country’s involvement in World War II?

6. **Analyze Causes**  Why did many women and minority Americans contribute to the war effort despite facing discrimination?

7. **Evaluate**  Do you think the government’s actions toward German, Italian, and Japanese Americans were justified on the basis of “military necessity” or a denial of civil rights? Explain your answer.

"We couldn’t believe that the government meant that the Japanese-Americans must go... We were quite sure that our rights as American citizens would not be violated, and we would not be marched out of our homes on the same basis as enemy aliens."

—Monica Ito Sone, from *Nisei Daughter*

No specific charges were ever filed against Japanese Americans, and no evidence of subversion was ever found. Faced with expulsion, terrified families were forced to sell their homes, businesses, and all their belongings for less than their true value.

Japanese Americans fought for justice, both in the courts and in Congress. The initial results were discouraging. In 1944 the Supreme Court decided, in *Korematsu v. United States*, that the government’s policy of evacuating Japanese Americans to camps was justified under the Constitution on the basis of “military necessity.” After the war, however, the **Japanese American Citizens League (JACL)** pushed the government to compensate those sent to the camps for their lost property. In 1965 Congress authorized the spending of $38 million for that purpose. This amount represented less than a tenth of Japanese Americans’ actual losses.

The JACL did not give up its quest for justice. In 1978 it called for the payment of reparations, or restitution, to each individual that suffered internment. A decade later Congress passed, and President Ronald Reagan signed, a bill that promised $20,000 to every Japanese American sent to a relocation camp. When the checks were sent in 1990, a letter from President George Bush accompanied them, in which he stated, “We can never fully right the wrongs of the past. But we can take a clear stand for justice and recognize that serious injustices were done to Japanese Americans during World War II.”
Korematsu v. United States (1944)

ORIGINS OF THE CASE
Following the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, U.S. military officials argued that Japanese Americans posed a threat to the nation’s security. Based on recommendations from the military, President Franklin Roosevelt issued Executive Order 9066, which gave military officials the power to limit the civil rights of Japanese Americans. Military authorities began by setting a curfew for Japanese Americans. Later, they forced Japanese Americans from their homes and moved them into detention camps. Fred Korematsu was convicted of defying the military order to leave his home. At the urging of the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), Korematsu appealed that conviction.

THE RULING
The Court upheld Korematsu’s conviction and argued that military necessity made internment constitutional.

LEGAL REASONING
Executive Order 9066 was clearly aimed at one group of people—Japanese Americans. Korematsu argued that this order was unconstitutional because it was based on race. Writing for the Court majority, Justice Hugo Black agreed “that all legal restrictions which curtail the civil rights of a single racial group are immediately suspect.” However, in this case, he said, the restrictions were based on “a military imperative” and not “group punishment based on antagonism to those of Japanese origin.” As such, Justice Black stated that the restrictions were constitutional.

“Compulsory exclusion of large groups, . . . except under circumstances of direct emergency and peril, is inconsistent with our basic governmental institutions. But when under conditions of modern warfare our shores are threatened by hostile forces, the power to protect must be commensurate with the threatened danger.”

Justice Frank Murphy, however, dissented—he opposed the majority. He believed that military necessity was merely an excuse that could not conceal the racism at the heart of the restrictions.

“This exclusion . . . ought not to be approved. Such exclusion goes over ‘the very brink of constitutional power’ and falls into the ugly abyss of racism.”

Two other justices also dissented, but Korematsu’s conviction stood.

LEGAL SOURCES

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LEGAL SOURCES

LEGISLATION
U.S. Constitution, Fifth Amendment (1791)
“No person shall . . . be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law.”

Executive Order 9066 (1942)
“I hereby authorize and direct the Secretary of War . . . to prescribe military areas in such places and of such extent as he . . . may determine, from which any or all persons may be excluded.”

RELATED CASES
Hirabayashi v. United States (June 1943)
The Court upheld the conviction of a Japanese American man for breaking curfew. The Court argued that the curfew was within congressional and presidential authority.

Ex Parte Endo (December 1944)
The Court ruled that a Japanese American girl, whose loyalty had been clearly established, could not be held in an internment camp.
Internees did what they could to adjust to confinement in the camps. They established schools for their children, produced newspapers, planted gardens, and formed a variety of community groups. Inset: President Clinton presents Fred Korematsu with a Presidential Medal of Freedom during a ceremony at the White House on January 15, 1998.

**WHY IT MATTERED**

About 110,000 Japanese Americans were forced into internment camps, as shown above, during World War II. Many had to sell their businesses and homes at great loss. Thousands were forced to give up their possessions. In the internment camps, Japanese Americans lived in a prison-like setting under constant guard.

The Court ruled that these government actions did not violate people's rights because the restrictions were based on military necessity rather than on race. But the government treated German Americans and Italian Americans much differently. In those instances, the government identified potentially disloyal people but did not harass the people it believed to be loyal. By contrast, the government refused to make distinctions between loyal and potentially disloyal Japanese Americans.

**HISTORICAL IMPACT**

In the end, the internment of Japanese Americans became a national embarrassment. In 1976 President Gerald R. Ford repealed Executive Order 9066.

Similarly, the Court’s decision in *Korematsu* became an embarrassing example of court-sanctioned racism often compared to the decisions on *Dred Scott* (1857) and *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896). In the early 1980s a scholar conducting research obtained copies of government documents related to the *Hirabayashi* and *Korematsu* cases. The documents showed that the army had lied to the Court in the 1940s. Japanese Americans had not posed any security threat. Korematsu’s conviction was overturned in 1984. Hirabayashi’s conviction was overturned in 1986. In 1988 Congress passed a law ordering reparations payments to surviving Japanese Americans who had been detained in the camps.

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**Critical Thinking**

1. **Connect to History** Do Internet research to locate the three dissenting opinions in *Korematsu* written by Justices Frank Murphy, Robert Jackson, and Owen Roberts. Read one of these opinions, and then write a summary that states its main idea. What constitutional principle, if any, does the opinion use?

2. **Connect to Today** The internment of Japanese Americans during World War II disrupted lives and ripped apart families. What do you think can be done today to address this terrible mistake? How can the government make amends?
The War for Europe and North Africa

One American’s Story

It was 1951, and John Patrick McGrath was just finishing his second year in drama school. For an acting class, his final exam was to be a performance of a death scene. McGrath knew his lines perfectly. But as he began the final farewell, he broke out in a sweat and bolted off the stage. Suddenly he had a flashback to a frozen meadow in Belgium during the Battle of the Bulge in 1945. Three German tanks were spraying his platoon with machine-gun fire.

“Only a few feet away, one of the men in my platoon falls. . . . He calls out to me. ‘Don’t leave me. Don’t. . . .’ The tanks advance, one straight for me. I grab my buddy by the wrist and pull him across the snow. . . . The tank nearest to us is on a track to run us down. . . . When the German tank is but 15 yards away, I grab my buddy by the wrist and feign a lurch to my right. The tank follows the move. Then I lurch back to my left. The German tank clamors by, only inches away. . . . In their wake the meadow is strewn with casualties. I turn to tend my fallen comrade. He is dead.”

—John Patrick McGrath, from A Cue for Passion

Like countless other soldiers, McGrath would never forget both the heroism and the horrors he witnessed while fighting to free Europe.
The United States and Britain Join Forces

“Now that we are, as you say, ‘in the same boat,’” British prime minister Winston Churchill wired President Roosevelt two days after the Pearl Harbor attack, “would it not be wise for us to have another conference. . . . and the sooner the better.” As commander in chief of the U.S. military, it would fall to Roosevelt to direct the country’s overall war strategy. He responded to Churchill’s wire with an invitation to come to Washington at once. So began a remarkable alliance between the two nations.

WAR PLANS Prime Minister Churchill arrived at the White House on December 22, 1941, and spent the next three weeks working out war plans with President Roosevelt and his advisers. The strategy they developed was called Germany First. Believing that Germany and Italy posed a greater threat than Japan, Churchill convinced Roosevelt to strike first against Hitler. Once the Allies had gained an upper hand in Europe, they could pour more resources into the Pacific War.

By the end of their meeting, Roosevelt and Churchill had formed, in Churchill’s words, “a very strong affection, which grew with our years of comradeship.” When Churchill reached London, he found a message from the president waiting for him. “It is fun,” Roosevelt wrote in the message, “to be in the same decade with you.”

THE BATTLE OF THE ATLANTIC After the attack on Pearl Harbor, Hitler ordered submarine raids against ships along America’s east coast. The German aim in the Battle of the Atlantic was to prevent food and war materials from reaching Great Britain and the Soviet Union. Britain depended on supplies from the sea. The 3,000-mile-long shipping lanes from North America were her lifeline. Hitler knew that if he cut that lifeline, Britain would be starved into submission.

The Allies responded by organizing their cargo ships into convoys. Convoys were groups of ships traveling together for mutual protection, as they had done in the First World War. However, for a long time, it looked as though Hitler might succeed in his mission. Early in the war, the Allies did not have enough vessels to form effective convoys. As a result, American ships proved to be easy targets for the Germans. In the first four months of 1942, the Germans sank 87 ships off the Atlantic shore. Seven months into the year, German wolf packs had destroyed a total of 681 Allied ships in the Atlantic. Something had to be done or the war at sea would be lost.

Gradually, the Allied situation began to improve. As U.S. industry shifted to wartime production, the United States launched a crash shipbuilding program. By early 1943, 140 Liberty ships were produced each month. Launchings of Allied ships began to outnumber sinkings. At the same time, U.S. aircraft production ramped up, with four times as many airplanes built in 1943 as were constructed in 1941.
As a result, convoys began to be escorted across the Atlantic accompanied by more destroyers equipped with sonar for detecting submarines underwater and by airplanes that used radar to spot U-boats on the ocean’s surface. With this improved tracking and support, the Allies were able to find and destroy German U-boats faster than the Germans could build them. In late spring of 1943, Admiral Karl Doenitz, the commander of the German U-boat offensive, reported that his losses had “reached an unbearable height.”

By mid-1943 the tide of the Battle of the Atlantic had turned. A happy Churchill reported to the House of Commons that June “was the best month [at sea] from every point of view we have ever known in the whole 46 months of the war.”

**The Eastern Front and the Mediterranean**

By the winter of 1943, the Allies began to see victories on land as well as sea. The first great turning point came in the Battle of Stalingrad.

**THE BATTLE OF STALINGRAD** The Germans had been fighting in the Soviet Union since June 1941. In November 1941 the bitter cold had stopped them in their tracks outside the Soviet cities of Moscow and Leningrad. When spring came, the German tanks were ready to roll.

In the summer of 1942, the Germans took the offensive in the southern Soviet Union. Hitler hoped to capture Soviet oil fields in the Caucasus Mountains. He also wanted to wipe out Stalingrad, a major industrial center on the Volga River.
The German army confidently approached Stalingrad in August 1942. “To reach the Volga and take Stalingrad is not so difficult for us,” one German soldier wrote home. “Victory is not far away.” The Luftwaffe—the German air force—prepared the way with nightly bombing raids over the city. Nearly every wooden building in Stalingrad was set on fire. The situation looked desperate. Soviet officers in Stalingrad recommended blowing up the city’s factories and abandoning the city. A furious Stalin ordered them to defend his namesake city no matter what the cost.

For weeks the Germans pressed in on Stalingrad, conquering it house by house in brutal hand-to-hand combat. By the end of September, they controlled nine-tenths of the city—or what was left of it. Then another winter set in. The Soviets saw the cold as an opportunity to roll fresh tanks across the frozen landscape and begin a massive counterattack. The Soviet army closed around Stalingrad. This action trapped the Germans in and around the city and cut off their supplies. The Germans’ situation was hopeless, but Hitler’s orders came: “Stay and fight! I won’t go back from the Volga.”

The fighting continued as winter turned Stalingrad into a frozen wasteland. “We just lay in our holes and froze, knowing that 24 hours later and 48 hours later we should be shivering precisely as we were now,” wrote a German soldier, Benno Zieser. “But there was now no hope whatsoever of relief, and that was the worst thing of all.” The German commander surrendered on January 31, 1943. Two days later his starving troops also surrendered.

In defending Stalingrad, the Soviets lost a total of 1,100,000 soldiers—more than all American deaths during the entire war. Despite the staggering death toll, the Soviet victory marked a turning point in the war. From that point on, the Soviet army began to move westward toward Germany.

**Document-Based Investigation Historical Source**

**Stalingrad Prisoners of War**

Dazed, starved, and freezing, these German soldiers were taken prisoner after months of struggle. But they were the lucky ones. More than 230,000 of their comrades died in the Battle of Stalingrad.

**Analyze Historical Sources**

What does the photograph tell you about the conditions faced by the German soldiers at the Battle of Stalingrad? What details in the photograph support your conclusions?
THE NORTH AFRICAN FRONT While the Battle of Stalingrad raged, Stalin pressured Britain and America to open a “second front” in Western Europe. He argued that an invasion across the English Channel would force Hitler to divert troops from the Soviet front. Churchill and Roosevelt didn’t think the Allies had enough troops to attempt an invasion on European soil. Instead, they launched Operation Torch, an invasion of Axis-controlled North Africa, commanded by American general Dwight D. Eisenhower.

The British and the Italians had begun a battle for North Africa in June 1940, shortly after the fall of France. Control of the territory was vital to the Allies because it would protect Mediterranean shipping lanes that provided the British with Middle Eastern oil via the Suez Canal. Without oil, Great Britain would not be able to defend itself, much less defeat the Axis.

In the early fighting, Italian forces tried to drive the British from their stronghold in Egypt and failed. The Italians were beaten badly and driven back. In early 1941 Hitler was forced to send troops, led by General Erwin Rommel, to support the Italians. The German forces fought a back-and-forth battle against the British for control of North Africa throughout 1941 and 1942. Rommel led brilliantly, earning the nickname Desert Fox. But the British ultimately gained the upper hand. They struck a major blow when they defeated the Germans at the Battle of El Alamein.

Interpret Maps
1. Place Which countries were neutral in 1942?
2. Movement What was the name of the invasion that the Allies launched in North Africa?
Operation Torch called for an Allied invasion of Morocco and Algeria. France had controlled these areas before the war. In November 1942 some 107,000 Allied troops, most of them Americans, landed in Casablanca, Oran, and Algiers in North Africa. From there they sped eastward, chasing Rommel’s Afrika Korps. After months of heavy fighting, the last of the Afrika Korps surrendered in May 1943. British general Harold Alexander sent a message to Churchill: “All enemy resistance has ceased. We are masters of the North African shores.”

Some 20,000 Americans were killed or wounded during the six months of fighting. However, as a result of the campaign in North Africa, American troops gained some much-needed combat experience. Their efforts toward the victory in North Africa proved that they could make a significant contribution to the war effort.

**THE ITALIAN CAMPAIGN** Even before the battle in North Africa was won, Roosevelt, Churchill, and their commanders met in Casablanca. At this meeting, the two leaders agreed to accept only the unconditional surrender of the Axis powers. That is, enemy nations would have to accept whatever terms of peace the Allies dictated. The two leaders also discussed where to attack next. The Americans argued for organizing a massive invasion fleet in Britain and launching it across the English Channel. Then Allied troops would move through France and into the heart of Germany. Churchill, however, thought it would be safer to first attack Italy.

The Italian campaign got off to a good start with the capture of Sicily in the summer of 1943. Stunned by their army’s collapse in Sicily, the Italian government forced dictator Benito Mussolini to resign. On July 25, 1943, King Victor Emmanuel III summoned *Il Duce* (Italian for “the leader”) to his palace. The king stripped Mussolini of power and had him arrested. “At this moment,” the king told Mussolini, “you are the most hated man in Italy.” Italians began celebrating the end of the war.

Their cheers were premature. Hitler was determined to stop the Allies in Italy rather than fight on German soil. One of the hardest battles the Allies encountered in Europe was fought less than 40 miles from Rome. This battle, “Bloody Anzio,” lasted four months, until the end of May 1944. It left about 25,000 Allied and 30,000 Axis casualties. During the year after Anzio, German armies continued to put up strong resistance. The effort to free Italy did not succeed until 1945, when Germany itself was close to collapse.

**HEROES IN COMBAT** Among the brave men who fought in Italy were several units composed entirely of minority groups. The soldiers in these units sometimes had to deal with discrimination and poor treatment. Even so, their feelings of nationalism led them to risk their lives for their country.

The most celebrated of these minority units were the pilots of the all-black 99th Pursuit Squadron—the first squadron of Tuskegee Airmen. In Sicily the squadron registered its first victory against an enemy aircraft. Then it went on to more impressive strategic strikes against the German forces throughout Italy. The Tuskegee Airmen won two Distinguished Unit Citations (the military’s highest commendation) for their outstanding aerial combat against the German Luftwaffe.
Another African American unit to distinguish itself was the famous 92nd Infantry Division, nicknamed the Buffaloes. In just six months of fighting in Europe, the Buffaloes won 7 Legion of Merit awards, 65 Silver Stars, and 162 Bronze Stars for courage under fire.

Like African Americans, most Mexican Americans served in segregated units. Seventeen Mexican American soldiers were awarded the Congressional Medal of Honor. An all-Chicano unit—Company E of the 141st Regiment, 36th Division—became one of the most decorated of the war.

Japanese Americans also served in Italy and North Africa. At the urging of General Delos Emmons, the army created the 100th Battalion. It consisted of 1,300 Hawaiian Nisei. (The word *Nisei* refers to American citizens whose parents had emigrated from Japan.) The 100th saw brutal combat and became known as the Purple Heart Battalion. Later the 100th was merged into the all-Nisei 442nd Regimental Combat Team. It became the most decorated unit in U.S. history.

**The Allies Gain Ground in Europe**

Even as the Allies were battling for Italy in 1943, they had begun work on a dramatic plan to free Western Europe from the Nazis. In late 1943 Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin met in Tehran, Iran, to discuss the Allied strategy. The Tehran Conference had two major outcomes. The Soviet Union agreed to launch a major offensive against Germany from the east. At the same time,
the other Allies planned to invade the Normandy region of France. This would force Germany to fight on two fronts. The Soviets had been asking Allied leaders to open a second front to help relieve the pressure on the Soviet army. The Allies eventually agreed to the Soviet request. Their delay, however, caused lingering resentment between Soviet and Western leaders.

**D-DAY** General Dwight D. Eisenhower was chosen to command the Allied invasion of Normandy, code-named Operation Overlord. He selected General Omar Bradley to lead the American forces participating in the mission. From this point on, Bradley commanded all U.S. ground troops invading Europe from the west.

Under Eisenhower’s direction in England, the Allies gathered a massive force. It consisted of nearly 3 million British, American, and Canadian troops and mountains of military equipment and supplies. To keep their plans secret, the Allies set up a huge phantom army with its own headquarters and equipment. In radio messages they knew the Germans could read, Allied commanders sent orders to this make-believe army to attack the French port of Calais—150 miles away—where the English Channel is narrowest. As a result, Hitler ordered his generals to keep a large army at Calais.

The Allied invasion was originally set for June 5, but bad weather forced a delay. Based on a forecast for clearing skies, Eisenhower gave the go-ahead for **D-Day**—June 6, 1944, the first day of the invasion. Shortly after midnight, two American divisions—the 82nd and 101st Airborne divisions—and one British division parachuted down behind German lines. They were followed in the early morning hours by thousands upon thousands of seaborne soldiers. This was the largest land-sea-air operation in army history.

Background
American paratroopers on D-Day carried a simple signaling device to help them find one another in the dark. Each had a metal toy cricket to click. No German radio operators could intercept these messages.

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**Dwight D. “Ike” Eisenhower** (1890–1969)

When Army Chief of Staff General George Marshall chose modest Lieutenant General Dwight David Eisenhower to become the Supreme Commander of U.S. forces in Europe, he knew what he was doing. Eisenhower, or “Ike” as he was known, was a superb planner and possessed a keen mind for military tactics.

More important, Eisenhower had an uncommon ability to work with all kinds of people, even competitive and temperamental allies. After V-E Day a grateful Marshall wrote to Ike, saying, “You have been selfless in your actions, always sound and tolerant in your judgments and altogether admirable in the courage and wisdom of your military decisions.

You have made history, great history for the good of mankind.” In 1953 Dwight D. Eisenhower became the 34th president of the United States.
Despite the massive air and sea bombardment by the Allies, German retaliation was brutal, particularly at Omaha Beach. “People were yelling, screaming, dying, running on the beach, equipment was flying everywhere, men were bleeding to death, crawling, lying everywhere, firing coming from all directions,” soldier Felix Branham wrote of the scene there. “We dropped down behind anything that was the size of a golf ball.”

THE ALLIES ADVANCE  Despite heavy casualties, the Allies held the beachheads. The invasion of Normandy was a success. After seven days of fighting, the Allies held an 80-mile strip of France. Within a month they had landed a million troops, 567,000 tons of supplies, and 170,000 vehicles in France. On July 25, General Bradley unleashed massive air and land bombardment against the enemy at St. Lô. This attack opened a gap in the German line of

Explore ONLINE!

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defense through which General George Patton and his Third Army could advance. On August 23 Patton and the Third Army reached the Seine River south of Paris. Two days later French resistance forces and American troops liberated the French capital from four years of German occupation. Parisians were delirious with joy. Patton announced this joyous event to his commander in a message that read, “Dear Ike: Today I spat in the Seine.”

By September 1944 the Allies had freed France, Belgium, and Luxembourg. This good news—and the American people’s desire not to “change horses in midstream”—helped Franklin Roosevelt. He was elected to an unprecedented fourth term in November, along with his running mate, Senator Harry S. Truman.

THE BATTLE OF THE BULGE In October 1944 Americans captured their first German town, Aachen. Hitler responded with a desperate last-gasp offensive. He ordered his troops to break through the Allied lines and to recapture the Belgian port of Antwerp. The Führer hoped that this bold move would cut the enemy’s supply lines and discourage the Allies.

On December 16, under cover of dense fog, eight German tank divisions broke through weak American defenses along an 80-mile front. Hitler hoped that a victory would split American and British forces. German tanks drove 60 miles into Allied territory. Their advance created a bulge in the lines that gave this desperate last-ditch offensive its name, the Battle of the Bulge. As the Germans moved westward, they captured 120 American GIs near Malmedy. Elite German troops—the SS troopers—herded the prisoners into a large field and mowed them down with machine guns and pistols.

The battle raged for a month. When it was over, the Germans had been pushed back and little seemed to have changed. But in fact, events had taken a decisive turn. The Germans had lost 120,000 troops, 600 tanks and assault guns, and 1,600 planes in the Battle of the Bulge. These were soldiers and weapons that they could not replace. From that point on, the Nazis could do little but retreat.

Vocabulary
elite a small and privileged group

Reading Check
Analyze Effects
How did the Battle of the Bulge signal the beginning of the end of World War II in Europe?

1. Organize Information Create a timeline of the major events influencing the fighting in Europe and North Africa.

   event one
   event two
   event three
   event four

   Write a paragraph indicating how any two of these events are related.

2. Key Terms and People For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. Evaluate Evaluate the military contributions of leaders during World War II.

   Think About:
   • Dwight Eisenhower
   • Omar Bradley
   • George Patton

4. Draw Conclusions Why did Stalin want the other Allied nations to open a second front? Why did Roosevelt and Churchill resist?

5. Analyze Events Why was the invasion of Normandy significant?

6. Summarize What were the results of the Casablanca and Tehran conferences?
The Pacific War was a savage conflict fought with raw courage. Few who took part in that fearsome struggle would return home unchanged.

"My mouth was dry, my legs quaking, and my eyes out of focus. Then my vision cleared. I . . . kicked the door with my right foot, and leapt inside. . . . I . . . saw him as a blur to my right. . . . My first shot missed him, embedding itself in the straw wall, but the second caught him dead-on. . . . A wave of blood gushed from the wound. . . . He dipped a hand in it and listlessly smeared his cheek red. . . . Almost immediately a fly landed on his left eyeball. . . . A feeling of disgust and self-hatred clotted darkly in my throat, gagging me."

—William Manchester, from Goodbye Darkness: A Memoir of the Pacific War

The Pacific War was a savage conflict fought with raw courage. Few who took part in that fearsome struggle would return home unchanged.
A Slow Start for the Allies

While the Allies agreed that the defeat of the Nazis was their first priority, the United States did not wait until V-E Day to move against Japan. Fortunately, the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941 had missed the Pacific Fleet’s submarines. Even more importantly, the attack had missed the fleet’s aircraft carriers, which were out at sea at the time.

Japanese Advances Still, the attack on Pearl Harbor had dealt a tremendous blow to the U.S. Pacific Fleet, one that would take months to overcome. Pearl Harbor also provided a major boost to Japanese pride and encouraged them to continue their assault on territory in Asia. The combination of these factors led to a quick string of Japanese victories unimpeded by U.S. forces.

In the first six months after Pearl Harbor, the Japanese conquered an empire that dwarfed Hitler’s Third Reich. On the Asian mainland, Japanese troops overran Hong Kong, French Indochina, Malaya, Burma, Thailand, and much of China. The British had believed that the mighty fortress of Singapore, part of Malaya, would never fall to invaders. The Japanese captured it in just two weeks.

They also swept south and east across the Pacific, conquering the Dutch East Indies, Guam, Wake Island, the Solomon Islands, and countless other outposts in the ocean, including two islands in the Aleutian chain, which were part of Alaska. Their conquests gave them control of rich oil reserves, which were vital to their military plans, and also functioned as strategic bases for future operations.

The Allies were stunned by the rapid success of the Japanese military in the months following Pearl Harbor. They had underestimated the skill of Japanese soldiers, not realizing that they were so well trained. The Japanese military also had excellent equipment. For instance, Japanese fighter aircraft were as good as—or better than—anything the Allies could produce. Japanese ships and torpedoes were also of high quality. These factors gave the Japanese an important advantage early in the war.

The Philippines Japan’s attacks on Hong Kong, Singapore, the Dutch East Indies, and Burma were part of a larger offensive strategy with one other major target: the American-controlled islands of the Philippines. At the time of the Japanese invasion in December 1941, General Douglas MacArthur was in command of Allied forces on the islands. He led a small force of Americans plus a number of poorly trained and equipped Filipino soldiers, totaling roughly 80,000 troops. They were no match for the 200,000 Japanese invaders who came ashore in December 1941.

As the Japanese gained ground, MacArthur planned a retreat to the Bataan Peninsula. There he hoped to hold off the Japanese for as long as possible. Simply getting his troops into this defensive position took determined fighting and brilliant leadership. Once there, the soldiers found that food, medicine, and other supplies were terribly limited. MacArthur urged Allied officials to send ships to help relieve his starving, battle-worn troops. War planners, however, decided that such a move was too risky.
Analyze Causes
What factors contributed to Japan’s series of rapid military victories following Pearl Harbor?

MacArthur and his forces fought on bravely. They held out against the invading Japanese troops for four months on the Bataan Peninsula. Hunger, disease, and bombardments killed 14,000 Allied troops and left 48,000 wounded. When American and Filipino forces found themselves with their backs to the wall on Bataan, President Roosevelt ordered MacArthur to leave. On March 11, 1942, MacArthur left the Philippines with his wife, his son, and his staff. As he left, he pledged to the many thousands of men who did not make it out, “I shall return.” Less than a month later, about 10,000 American and 60,000 Filipino troops remaining on Bataan surrendered.

Although the fighting was over, the suffering of the soldiers had just begun. For five days and nights, the Japanese forced the captured soldiers through what came to be called the Bataan Death March. The prisoners had little food or water, and those who dropped out of line were beaten or shot. Thousands perished. Those who completed this terrible journey did not fare much better. In the Japanese prison camp, lack of food and medicine claimed hundreds more lives.

Fortunes Shift in the Pacific
The loss of the Philippines was a low point for the United States in the Pacific war. In the spring of 1942, however, the Allies began to turn the tide against the Japanese. In fact, just days after the surrender on Bataan, Americans finally got some good news.

DOOLITTLE’S RAID On April 18, 1942, Army Lieutenant Colonel James Doolittle led 16 bombers in a daring raid on Tokyo and several other Japanese cities. The next day, Americans awoke to headlines that read “Tokyo Bombed! Doolittle Do’od It.” Doolittle’s raid, as the event came to be known, did not do

Douglas MacArthur (1880–1964)
Douglas MacArthur was too arrogant and prickly to be considered a “regular guy” by his troops. But he was arguably the most brilliant Allied strategist of World War II. For every American soldier killed in his campaigns, the Japanese lost ten.

He was considered a real hero of the war, both by the military and by the prisoners on the Philippines, whom he freed. “MacArthur took more territory with less loss of life,” observed journalist John Gunther, “than any military commander since Darius the Great [king of Persia, 522–486 BC].”

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major damage to the Japanese targets, but it still had some significant effects. Pulling off a Pearl Harbor-style air raid over Japan lifted America’s sunken spirits. At the same time, it dampened spirits in Japan.

**BATTLE OF THE CORAL SEA** Close on the heels of Doolittle’s raid came another morale booster for the Allies. Since the beginning of the war, Allied forces in the Pacific, mainly Americans and Australians, had seen little success in slowing Japanese conquests. In May 1942, however, the Allies finally turned a corner. They succeeded in stopping the Japanese drive toward Australia in the five-day Battle of the Coral Sea. During this battle, the fighting was done by airplanes that took off from enormous aircraft carriers. Not a single shot was fired by surface ships. It was not a decisive win for the Allies. Both sides suffered losses and both, in fact, claimed victory. But it was a strategic triumph. For the first time since Pearl Harbor, a Japanese invasion had been stopped and turned back.

**THE BATTLE OF MIDWAY** Japanese leaders had been troubled by Doolittle’s raid. They were determined to stop any future attacks on the Japanese mainland. To do so, they planned to lure the Americans into a large sea battle with the goal of destroying what remained of U.S. naval forces. The first step in their plan would be to attack Midway Island, a strategic island that lies northwest of Hawaii. The Japanese had a large advantage in the number of ships and carriers they could bring to the battle. However, the Americans had an advantage that Japan did not know about. Naval intelligence officers had broken the Japanese code and knew that Midway was to be their next target. They also knew the date of the planned attack and the direction from which the Japanese ships would approach. Here again the Allies succeeded in stopping the Japanese.

Admiral Chester Nimitz, the commander of American naval forces in the Pacific, moved to defend the island, carefully placing his forces based on his knowledge of the Japanese military’s plans. On June 3, 1942, his scout planes found the Japanese fleet. The Americans sent torpedo planes and dive bombers to attack. The Japanese were caught with their planes still on the decks of their carriers. The results were devastating. By the end of the **Battle of Midway**, it was clear the Allies had won a tremendous victory. The Japanese had lost 4 aircraft carriers, a cruiser, and 250 planes. In the words of a Japanese official, at Midway the Americans had “avenged Pearl Harbor.”

**The Allies Go on the Offensive**

The Battle of Midway was a turning point in the Pacific War. With the Japanese navy crippled, the Allies decided to take the fight to Japan.

**GUADALCANAL** The first step in the new Allied strategy was to win control of territory in the Solomon Islands. The Japanese had taken these islands in 1942, and an Allied presence there would help protect nearby Australia. A key goal in the Solomons was the capture of an island called Guadalcanal. The Japanese had nearly completed an airfield there, making it a tempting
War in The Pacific and in Europe, 1941–1946

**PACIFIC**

- **1941**
  - Dec Japan attacks Pearl Harbor. U.S. declares war on Japan.
  - Apr U.S. surrenders Bataan in the Philippines.
  - May Allies turn back Japanese fleet in Battle of the Coral Sea.
  - Jun Allies defeat Japan in Battle of Midway.
  - Aug U.S. Marines land on Guadalcanal.

- **1942**
  - Dec Germany and Italy declare war on the United States.
  - Aug Hitler orders attack on Stalingrad.
  - Nov Allies land in North Africa.

- **1943**
  - Feb German troops surrender at Stalingrad.
  - May Axis forces surrender in North Africa.
  - Jul Allies invade Sicily.
  - Sep Italy secretly surrenders to Allies.

- **1944**
  - Oct Allies win Battle of Leyte Gulf.
  - Mar Allies capture Iwo Jima.
  - Jun Allies capture Okinawa.
  - Aug U.S. drops atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.
  - Sep Japan surrenders.

- **1945**
  - May “Bloody Anzio” ends.
  - Jun Allies invade Europe on D-Day.
  - Jul Soviets first liberate death camps.
  - Dec Germans attack Allies in Battle of the Bulge.

- **1946**
  - Apr Italians execute Mussolini.
  - Hitler commits suicide.
  - May V-E Day ends war in Europe.
target. The rest of the island, however, offered little. It was covered by swamps and dense jungles, and daytime temperatures regularly reached into the 90s. It was a miserable place to fight.

The Allied offensive against Guadalcanal began in August 1942 when 19,000 troops stormed the island. The battle took place on land, at sea, and in the air. Each side won small victories until the Japanese finally abandoned Guadalcanal six months later. At the time, they called it the Island of Death. To war correspondent Ralph Martin and the troops who fought there, it was simply “hell.”

“Hell was red furry spiders as big as your fist, giant lizards as long as your leg, leeches falling from trees to suck blood, armies of white ants with a bite of fire, scurrying scorpions inflaming any flesh they touched, enormous rats and bats everywhere, and rivers with waiting crocodiles. Hell was the sour, foul smell of the squishy jungle, humidity that rotted a body within hours, . . . stinking wet heat of dripping rain forests that sapped the strength of any man.”

—Ralph G. Martin, from The GI War

THE ALLIES PRESS ON Guadalcanal marked Japan’s first defeat on land, but not its last. However, the Japanese still controlled a number of heavily fortified islands throughout the Pacific. Attacking those islands would have been a costly and time-consuming endeavor. Instead, the Allies chose to bypass them in favor of strategically important but less-well-defended islands. Soon the Allies began “island hopping.” This method used a powerful combination of land, sea, and air forces to capture and secure islands while avoiding the heaviest concentrations of enemy forces. These captured islands would then become bases from which future military actions could be launched. Island by island they won territory back from the Japanese. With each island, Allied forces moved closer to Japan.

American diversity and ingenuity aided their progress. Hundreds of Native Americans of the Navajo nation worked as code talkers, translating messages into a coded version of their own language. The Navajo language was spoken only in the American Southwest and traditionally had no alphabet or other written symbols. This unwritten language was so complex that the Japanese never deciphered it, allowing quick and secure transmission of vital military information. Although the Navajo had no words for combat terms, they developed terms such as *chicken hawk* for dive-bomber and *war chief* for commanding general. Throughout the Pacific campaign—from Midway to Iwo Jima—the code talkers were considered indispensable to the war effort. They finally received national recognition in 1969.
The Allies also began to take advantage of the United States’ vast resources. The fighting in the Pacific was extremely costly, and both sides lost dozens of ships and thousands of aircraft. These were losses the Japanese were unable to replace. Busy American factories, though, produced planes and ships at a tremendous rate. At the same time, gains in Europe allowed the Allies to send more troops and resources to the Pacific.

**THE BATTLE OF LEYTE GULF** The Americans continued to leapfrog across the Pacific toward Japan, and in October 1944 some 178,000 Allied troops and 738 ships converged on Leyte Island in the Philippines. General MacArthur, who had left the Philippines two years earlier, waded ashore and announced, “People of the Philippines: I have returned.”
The Japanese threw their entire fleet into the Battle of Leyte Gulf. They also tested a new tactic, the kamikaze (kā’mī-kā’zē), or suicide-plane, attack in which Japanese pilots crashed their bomb-laden planes into Allied ships. (Kamikaze means “divine wind” and refers to a legendary typhoon that saved Japan in 1281 by destroying a Mongol invasion.) In the Philippines, 424 kamikaze pilots embarked on suicide missions, sinking 16 ships and damaging another 80.

Americans watched these terrifying attacks with “a strange mixture of respect and pity” according to Vice Admiral Charles Brown. “You have to admire the devotion to country demonstrated by those pilots,” recalled Seaman George Marse. “Yet, when they were shot down, rescued and brought aboard our ship, we were surprised to find the pilots looked like ordinary, scared young men, not the wide-eyed fanatical ‘devils’ we imagined them to be.”

Despite the damage done by the kamikazes, the Battle of Leyte Gulf was a disaster for Japan. In three days of battle, it lost 3 battleships, 4 aircraft carriers, 13 cruisers, and almost 500 planes. From then on the Imperial Navy played only a minor role in the defense of Japan.

IWO JIMA After retaking much of the Philippines and liberating the American prisoners of war there, the Allies turned to Iwo Jima, an island that writer William Manchester later described as “an ugly, smelly glob of cold
lava squatting in a surly ocean.” Iwo Jima (which means “sulfur island” in Japanese) was critical to the United States as a base from which heavily loaded bombers might reach Japan. It was also perhaps the most heavily defended spot on earth, with 20,700 Japanese troops entrenched in tunnels and caves. More than 6,000 marines died taking this desolate island, the greatest number in any battle in the Pacific to that point. Only 200 Japanese survived. Just one obstacle now stood between the Allies and a final assault on Japan—the island of Okinawa.

**THE BATTLE FOR OKINAWA** In April 1945 U.S. Marines invaded Okinawa. The Japanese unleashed more than 1,900 kamikaze attacks on the Allies during the Okinawa campaign. They sank 30 ships, damaged over 300 more, and killed almost 5,000 seamen.

Once ashore, the Allies faced even fiercer opposition than on Iwo Jima. By the time the fighting ended on June 21, 1945, more than 7,600 Americans had died. But the Japanese paid an even ghastlier price—110,000 lives—in defending Okinawa. This total included two generals who chose ritual suicide over the shame of surrender. A witness to this ceremony described their end: “A simultaneous shout and a flash of the sword . . . and both generals had nobly accomplished their last duty to their Emperor.”

The Battle of Okinawa was a chilling foretaste of what the Allies imagined the invasion of Japan’s home islands would be. Churchill predicted the cost would be a million American lives and half that number of British lives.

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**Lesson 6 Assessment**

1. **Organize Information** Use a chart to describe the significance of key Allied military actions in the Pacific during World War II.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Military Action</th>
<th>Significance</th>
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<td>5.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Which military action was a turning point for the Allies?

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Evaluate** Evaluate the military contributions of leaders during World War II.

   **Think About:**
   - Douglas MacArthur
   - Chester Nimitz

4. **Predict** What was the Bataan Death March? How do you think it affected the Allied war effort?

5. **Develop Historical Perspective** Analyze the significance of the Battle of Midway as a turning point in the war in the Pacific.

6. **Draw Conclusions** How were the Allies able to gain ground against the Japanese in the Pacific?
The Big Idea
While the Allies completed the defeat of the Axis Powers on the battlefield, Allied leaders were making plans for the postwar world.

Why It Matters Now
Wartime decisions affected global affairs for the next several decades.

Key Terms and People
V-E Day
Harry S. Truman
J. Robert Oppenheimer
Hiroshima
Nagasaki
United Nations (UN)
Nuremberg trials
GI Bill of Rights

One American’s Story

Brigadier General Thomas F. Farrell served as second-in-command of the Manhattan Project. Early on the morning of July 16, 1945, Farrell and other key figures gathered at White Sands in the remote New Mexico desert to witness the first official test of the atomic bomb. Code-named “Trinity,” the test would determine whether the bomb would work as a weapon. Farrell and the rest watched from several miles away as the bomb successfully exploded at 5:29 a.m.

“The effects could well be called unprecedented, magnificent, beautiful, stupendous and terrifying. No man-made phenomenon of such tremendous power had ever occurred before. . . . The whole country was lighted by a searing light with the intensity many times that of the midday sun. It was golden, purple, violet, gray and blue. . . . Thirty seconds after the explosion came first, the air blast pressing hard against the people and things, to be followed almost immediately by the strong, sustained, awesome roar which warned of doomsday and made us feel that we puny things were blasphemous to dare tamper with the forces heretofore reserved to The Almighty.”

—Thomas F. Farrell, from a memorandum for the Secretary of War, July 18, 1945

The test was a success. Scientists and military personnel cheered and danced in celebration. Finally, Farrell reflected, they had found a weapon that could end the war.
The Allies Liberate Europe

Even as Manhattan Project scientists were feverishly working to create a weapon to end it, war raged on. In both Europe and the Pacific, the tide had turned in the Allies’ favor, but neither Germany nor Japan was beaten. Still, as the months passed, the Allies moved closer and closer to victory.

LIBERATION OF THE DEATH CAMPS In Europe, the Battle of the Bulge left Germany severely weakened. Allied troops pressed eastward into the German heartland, and the Soviet army pushed westward across Poland toward Berlin. Soviet troops were the first to come upon one of the Nazi death camps, in July 1944. As the Soviets drew near a camp called Majdanek in Poland, SS guards worked feverishly to bury and burn all evidence of their hideous crimes. But they ran out of time. When the Soviets entered Majdanek, they found a thousand starving prisoners barely alive, the world’s largest crematorium, and a storehouse containing 800,000 shoes. “This is not a concentration camp,” reported a stunned Soviet war correspondent, “it is a gigantic murder plant.” The Americans who later liberated Nazi death camps in Germany were equally horrified.

“We started smelling a terrible odor and suddenly we were at the concentration camp at Landsberg. Forced the gate and faced hundreds of starving prisoners. . . . We saw emaciated men whose thighs were smaller than wrists, many had bones sticking out thru their skin. . . . Also we saw hundreds of burned and naked bodies. . . . That evening I wrote my wife that ‘For the first time I truly realized the evil of Hitler and why this war had to be waged.’”

—Robert T. Johnson, quoted in Voices: Letters from World War II

MARCHING DEEPER INTO GERMANY As the Soviet army approached Germany from the east, Allied forces in the west were preparing to cross the Rhine River. The Rhine was the last physical obstacle between Germany and France, and Hitler was determined to stop the Allied advance there. He ordered his soldiers to destroy all bridges across the river and to hold defensive positions on its banks.

Despite the efforts of German troops, American forces were able to capture a railroad bridge over the Rhine at Remagen in March 1945. Allied forces poured across the Rhine into the heart of Germany. The forces that had sought to stop the Allies’ passage suddenly found themselves surrounded. More than a quarter of a million German soldiers were captured, and tens of thousands more were killed.

With the Rhine crossed, there was little to stop the Allied advance through Germany. Allied planes roamed the skies freely, raining bombs down on German targets. Allied troops pushed toward Berlin from both sides, ready to end the war once and for all. Meanwhile, the leaders of the Allies were meeting half a continent away to debate Germany’s postwar fate.
THE YALTA CONFERENCE  In January 1945 Franklin D. Roosevelt took the presidential oath of office for the fourth time. He had run in 1944 believing that he needed to see the nation through to victory. A majority of American voters had agreed. Shortly after his inauguration in February 1945, an ailing Roosevelt met with Churchill and Stalin at the Black Sea resort city of Yalta in the Soviet Union. Stalin graciously welcomed the president and the prime minister. The Big Three, as they were called, toasted the defeat of Germany that now seemed certain.

For eight grueling days, the three leaders discussed the fate of Germany and the postwar world. Stalin's country was devastated by German forces, and he favored a harsh approach. He wanted to keep Germany divided into occupation zones—areas controlled by Allied military forces—so that Germany would never again threaten the Soviet Union.

When Churchill strongly disagreed, Roosevelt acted as a mediator in an effort to maintain the Grand Alliance. He was prepared to make concessions to Stalin for two reasons. First, he hoped that the Soviet Union would stand by its commitments to join the war against Japan that was still waging in the Pacific. Stalin had thus far refused to send troops to the region. This had caused tension among the Allies. Second, Roosevelt wanted Stalin's support for a new world peacekeeping organization to be named the United Nations.

The historic meeting at Yalta produced a series of compromises. To pacify Stalin, Roosevelt convinced Churchill to agree to a temporary division of Germany into four zones. There would be one zone each for the Americans, the British, the Soviets, and the French. Churchill and Roosevelt assumed that, in time, all the zones would be brought together in a reunited Germany. For his part, Stalin promised “free and unfettered elections” in Poland and other Soviet-occupied Eastern European countries.

Stalin also agreed to join in the war against Japan. That struggle was expected to continue for another year or more. All three leaders hoped that Soviet participation would hasten the war's end. In addition, Stalin agreed to participate in an international conference to take place in April in San Francisco. There, Roosevelt’s dream of a United Nations (UN) would become a reality. Although Roosevelt had secured Stalin’s agreement, the Yalta Conference had been tense. Friction between the Soviet Union and the other Allies was growing.

UNCONDITIONAL SURRENDER  By April 25, 1945, the Soviet army had stormed Berlin. As Soviet shells burst overhead, the city panicked. “Hordes of soldiers stationed in Berlin deserted and were shot on the spot or hanged from the nearest tree,” wrote Claus Fuhrmann, a Berlin clerk. “On their chests they had placards reading, 'We betrayed the Führer.'”
In his underground headquarters in Berlin, Hitler prepared for the end. On April 29 he married Eva Braun, his longtime companion. The same day, he wrote out his last address to the German people. In it he blamed the Jews for starting the war and his generals for losing it. “I die with a happy heart aware of the immeasurable deeds of our soldiers at the front. I myself and my wife choose to die in order to escape the disgrace of . . . capitulation,” he said. The next day Hitler shot himself while his new wife swallowed poison. In accordance with Hitler’s orders, the two bodies were carried outside, soaked with gasoline, and burned.

A week later General Eisenhower accepted the unconditional surrender of the Third Reich. On May 8, 1945, the Allies proclaimed V-E Day—Victory in Europe Day. The war in Europe was finally over. Many celebrated throughout the United States and Europe. Many others, however, still had work to do to end the war in the Pacific.

TRUMAN BECOMES PRESIDENT President Roosevelt did not live to see V-E Day. On April 12, 1945, while posing for a portrait in Warm Springs, Georgia, the president had a stroke and died. Vice-President Harry S. Truman became the nation’s 33rd president that same night.

Truman, previously a U.S. senator from Missouri, had been picked as Roosevelt’s running mate in 1944. He had served as vice-president for just a few months before Roosevelt’s death. During his term as vice-president, Truman had not been included in top policy decisions. He had not even known that the United States was developing an atomic bomb. Many Americans doubted Truman’s ability to serve as president. But Truman was honest and had a willingness to make tough decisions. These were qualities that he would need desperately during his presidency.
The Atomic Bomb Ends the War in the Pacific

The taking of Iwo Jima and Okinawa opened the way for an invasion of Japan. However, Allied leaders knew that such an invasion would become a desperate struggle. Japan still had a huge army that would defend every inch of homeland. President Truman saw only one way to avoid an invasion of Japan. He decided to use a powerful new weapon that had been developed by scientists working on the Manhattan Project—the atomic bomb.

**THE MANHATTAN PROJECT** General Leslie Groves led the project, with research directed by American scientist J. Robert Oppenheimer. The development of the atomic bomb was the most ambitious scientific enterprise in history. It was also a very costly enterprise, requiring more than $2 billion in government investment. There was also significant opportunity cost involved with the project. Resources and personnel who could have been used in other war industries were instead employed in a highly theoretical undertaking. Over the life of the project, more than 600,000 Americans at sites across the country were involved in it.

Among the major sites were Oak Ridge, Tennessee, where the project was headquartered, and Los Alamos, New Mexico, where the actual bomb was built. Despite the number of people involved, though, the Manhattan Project was the best kept secret of the war. Few of the workers engaged in the project knew its ultimate purpose. The government and the military took every precaution to keep news of the bomb’s development from reaching enemy ears.

The first test of the new bomb took place on the morning of July 16, 1945, in an empty expanse of desert near Alamogordo, New Mexico. A blinding flash, which was visible 180 miles away, was followed by a deafening roar as a tremendous shock wave rolled across the trembling desert. Otto Frisch, a scientist on the project, described the huge mushroom cloud that rose over the desert as “a red-hot elephant standing balanced on its trunk.” The bomb worked!

**WEIGHING THE OPTIONS** President Truman now faced a difficult decision. Should the Allies use the bomb to bring an end to the war? Many advisors to President Truman, including Secretary of War Henry Stimson, believed the bomb should be used to end the war and save American lives. Some scientists working on the bomb agreed—even more so as the casualty figures from Iwo Jima and Okinawa sank in. “Are we to go on shedding American blood when we have available a means to a steady victory?” they petitioned. “No! If we can save even a handful of American lives, then let us use this weapon—now!”

Diplomatic and political considerations also factored into the decision. Tension and distrust were already developing between the Western Allies and the Soviets. At the Yalta Conference, Roosevelt had received Stalin’s promise that the Soviet Union would enter the war in the Pacific. After the successful test of the atomic bomb, Secretary of State James F. Byrnes and other top advisors agreed that Soviet entry into the Pacific war should be reconsidered. As a result of the bomb, it was seen as no longer necessary. If it could be prevented, it would reduce Soviet influence in East Asia after the war. Additionally, some
American officials believed that a successful use of the atomic bomb would give the United States a powerful advantage over the Soviets in shaping the postwar world. Finally, some feared that if the bomb were not dropped, the project would be seen as a gigantic waste of money and wartime resources.

However, many of the scientists who had worked on the bomb had doubts about using it. So did some military leaders and civilian policymakers. Dr. Leo Szilard, a Hungarian-born physicist who had helped President Roosevelt launch the project and who had a major role in developing the bomb, was a key figure opposing its use. A petition drawn up by Szilard and signed by 70 other scientists argued that it would be immoral to drop an atomic bomb on Japan without fair warning. Many supported staging a demonstration of the bomb for Japanese leaders. They suggested exploding one on a deserted island near Japan to convince the Japanese to surrender. Others, such as Supreme Allied Commander General Dwight D. Eisenhower, argued that Japan had already been defeated and was on the verge of surrender. He maintained that “dropping the bomb was completely unnecessary” to save American lives.

Truman did not hesitate. In a journal entry, he acknowledged that the bomb “seems to be the most terrible thing ever discovered, but it can be made the most useful.” Truman was committed to fulfilling Roosevelt’s legacy. Throughout the war, Roosevelt’s fundamental strategy had been to commit the vast industrial and technological resources of the United States to achieve total victory with the lowest cost in American lives. In Truman’s estimation, the bomb was the way to achieve this goal. He believed it would bring about an end to the war in the Pacific without sacrificing lives in an Allied invasion.

On July 25, 1945, Truman ordered the military to make final plans for dropping two atomic bombs on Japanese targets. Meanwhile, he and other Allied leaders meeting at Potsdam, Germany, discussed plans for ending the war in the Pacific. A day after Truman’s order to the military, the United States and the other Allies warned Japan that it faced “prompt and utter destruction” unless it surrendered at once. Japan refused. Truman later wrote, “The final decision of where and when to use the atomic bomb was up to me. Let there be no mistake about it. I regarded the bomb as a military weapon and never had any doubt that it should be used.”

**HIROSHIMA AND NAGASAKI** On August 6 a B-29 bomber named Enola Gay released an atomic bomb, code-named Little Boy, over Hiroshima, an important Japanese military center. Forty-three seconds later, almost every building in the city collapsed into dust from the force of the blast. Hiroshima
had ceased to exist. Still, Japan’s leaders hesitated to surrender. Three days later a second bomb, code-named Fat Man, was dropped on Nagasaki, leveling half the city. By the end of the year, an estimated 200,000 people had died due to injuries and radiation poisoning caused by the atomic blasts. Shinji Mikamo was a teenager living less than a mile from the epicenter when the first bomb hit Hiroshima. He later told his daughter Akiko about the blast.

“In that instant, I felt a searing pain that spread through my entire body. It was as if a bucket of boiling water had been dumped over my whole body and scoured my skin.

At the same time, I was thrown into a pit of absolute darkness. What had happened? I couldn’t see anything. I was in total shock. I could feel nothing at all.”

—Shinji Mikamo, as recounted by Akiko Mikamo in Rising from the Ashes

Emperor Hirohito was horrified by the destruction wrought by the bomb. “I cannot bear to see my innocent people suffer any longer,” he told Japan’s leaders tearfully. Then he ordered them to draw up papers “to end the war.” On September 2, formal surrender ceremonies took place on the U.S. battleship Missouri in Tokyo Bay. “Today the guns are silent,” General MacArthur said in a speech marking this historic moment. “The skies no longer rain death—the seas bear only commerce—men everywhere walk upright in the sunlight. The entire world is quietly at peace.”

Hiroshima was in ruins following the atomic bomb blast on August 6, 1945.
The Challenges of Victory

With Japan’s surrender, the Allies turned to the challenge of rebuilding war-torn nations in a changed world. The creation and use of the atomic bomb had brought the world into the nuclear age. No one had ever used such a destructive weapon before, and it was destined to change the nature of warfare. American leaders hoped it would give them leverage over the Soviet Union in the postwar world. However, they could not foresee that it would eventually prompt a massive arms race. The Soviet Union and other nations sought to build their own atomic weapons in an effort to feel secure and restore the balance of power. At the time, all they could see were the challenges of restoring order after a destructive war. Even before the last guns fell silent, Allied leaders were thinking about principles that would govern the postwar world.

THE UNITED NATIONS

In the fall of 1943, Secretary of State Cordell Hull began working with other Allied leaders on a declaration of the intent to form an international organization based on the equality of nations. Details of the organization were discussed at several wartime conferences. At the Yalta Conference, Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin declared their intention to establish “a general international organization to maintain peace and security.”

In the midst of war, hopes for world peace were high. The most visible symbol of these hopes was the United Nations (UN). On April 25, 1945, the representatives of 50 nations met in San Francisco to establish this new peacekeeping body. President Truman appointed Mary McLeod Bethune to serve as the U.S. representative at the founding conference. She was the only woman of color in attendance. After two months of debate, on June 26, 1945, the delegates signed the charter establishing the UN. The UN officially came into being on October 24, 1945. On that day, China, France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, the United States, and a number of other nations ratified the charter.

One of the UN’s first actions was to commission a document declaring the fundamental equal rights of all human beings. This act was a sign of the international community’s commitment to preventing the atrocities of World War II and the Holocaust from ever happening again. The Commission on Human Rights was made up of 18 men and women from a variety of political and cultural backgrounds. Eleanor Roosevelt chaired the committee responsible for drafting the declaration. The committee worked for two years, and in December 1948 the UN General Assembly adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Although the UN had been founded as a union of many nations, it soon came to be dominated by two. The United States and the Soviet Union were the most powerful countries in the world following World War II, and they became the major players in UN affairs. In the years following the war, tensions arose between the two countries. Their conflicts crept into international debates. The UN was intended to promote peace, but it soon became a place in which the two superpowers competed. Both the United States and the Soviet Union used the UN as a forum to spread their influence over others.
THE POTS DAM CONFERENCE  The tension between the United States and the Soviet Union had arisen even before World War II ended. In July 1945, just a month after the UN charter was signed, Allied leaders came together for the final wartime conference at Potsdam near Berlin. The countries that participated were the same ones that had been represented at Yalta in February. Stalin still represented the Soviet Union. Clement Attlee replaced Churchill as Britain’s representative mid-conference, because Churchill’s party lost a general election. And Harry Truman took Roosevelt’s place.

At Yalta, Stalin had promised Roosevelt that he would allow free elections—that is, a vote by secret ballot in a multiparty system—in Poland and other parts of Eastern Europe that the Soviets occupied at the end of the war. By the time of the Potsdam Conference, however, it was clear that Stalin would not keep this promise. The Soviets prevented free elections in Poland and banned democratic parties. Stalin’s refusal to allow free elections in Poland convinced Truman that U.S. and Soviet aims were deeply at odds. Truman’s goal in demanding free elections was to spread democracy to nations that had been under Nazi rule. These disagreements would influence postwar relations.

Despite the conflict over Poland, most of the discussion at Potsdam dealt with the question of how to deal with Germany after the war. At the Yalta Conference, the Soviets had wanted to take reparations from Germany to help repay Soviet wartime losses. Now, at Potsdam, Truman objected to that. He feared that crippling reparations against Germany would eventually backfire, as they had after World War I. Those reparations nearly destroyed the German economy and paved the way for the growth of the Nazi Party.

After hard bargaining, the leaders at Potsdam reached a compromise. They confirmed the plan made at Yalta to divide Germany into four occupation zones. The zones would be administered by the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union. It was agreed that each occupying country could independently take reparations from its own occupation zone. In addition, the German navy and merchant fleet were to be divided among the United States, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union.
THE NUREMBERG WAR TRIALS  Besides geographic division, Germany had another price to pay for its part in the war. The discovery of Hitler’s death camps led the Allies to put 24 surviving Nazi leaders on trial. They were charged with crimes against humanity, crimes against the peace, and war crimes. The trials were held in the southern German town of Nuremberg, between November 20, 1945 and October 1, 1946.

At the Nuremberg trials, the defendants included Hitler’s most trusted party officials, government ministers, military leaders, and powerful industrialists. Each defendant at the Nuremberg trials was accused of one or more of the following crimes:

• **Crimes Against the Peace**—Germany had planned and waged an aggressive war against other countries.

• **War Crimes**—The Germans had performed acts against the customs of warfare, such as the killing of hostages and prisoners. Such acts violated the Geneva Conventions. Those were a series of international agreements signed after World War I that protected the rights of prisoners. In addition, the Germans had stolen private property and destroyed towns and cities.

• **Crimes Against Humanity**—In the Holocaust, the Germans had attempted the murder, extermination, deportation, or enslavement of civilians.

In his opening argument, the chief prosecutor for the United States, Supreme Court Justice Robert Jackson, explained the significance of the event.

> “The wrongs which we seek to condemn and punish have been so calculated, so malignant and so devastating, that civilization cannot tolerate their being ignored because it cannot survive their being repeated. . . . It is hard now to perceive in these miserable men . . . the power by which as Nazi leaders they once dominated much of the world and terrified most of it. Merely as individuals, their fate is of little consequence to the world. What makes this inquest significant is that these prisoners represent sinister influences that will lurk in the world long after their bodies have returned to dust. They are living symbols of racial hatreds, of terrorism and violence, and of the arrogance and cruelty of power. . . . Civilization can afford no compromise with the social forces which would gain renewed strength if we deal ambiguously or indecisively with the men in whom those forces now precariously survive.”

—Robert Jackson, from the opening address to the Nuremberg War Crimes Trial
In the end, 12 of the 24 defendants were sentenced to death. Most of those remaining were sent to prison. In later trials of lesser leaders, nearly 200 more Nazis were found guilty of war crimes. Still, many people have argued that the trials did not go far enough in seeking out and punishing war criminals. Many Nazis who took part in the Holocaust did indeed go free.

Yet no matter how imperfect the trials might have been, they did establish an important principle. This was the idea that individuals are responsible for their own actions, even in times of war. Nazi executioners could not escape punishment by claiming that they were merely “following orders.” The principle of individual responsibility was now part of international law.

THE OCCUPATION OF JAPAN  Following its surrender, Japan was occupied by U.S. forces under the command of General Douglas MacArthur. In the early years of the occupation, more than 1,100 Japanese, from former prime minister Hideki Tojo to lowly prison guards, were arrested and put on trial. Seven, including Tojo, were sentenced to death. In the Philippines, in China, and in other Asian battlegrounds, additional Japanese officials were tried for atrocities against civilians or prisoners of war.

During the seven-year American occupation, MacArthur reshaped Japan’s economy by introducing free-market practices that led to a remarkable economic recovery. MacArthur also worked to transform Japan’s government. He called for a new constitution that would provide for woman suffrage and guarantee basic freedoms. Americans followed these changes with interest. The New York Times reported that “General MacArthur . . . has swept away an autocratic regime by a warrior god and installed in its place a democratic government presided over by a very human emperor and based on the will of the people as expressed in free elections.” The Japanese apparently agreed. To this day, their constitution is known as the MacArthur Constitution.

Changes on the Home Front
Despite the devastation it caused in Europe and Japan, World War II was a time of opportunity for millions of Americans. Jobs abounded, and despite rationing and shortages, people had money to spend. At the end of World War II, the nation emerged as the world’s dominant economic and military power.

The war years were good ones for working people. As defense industries boomed, unemployment fell to a low of 1.2 percent in 1944. Even with price and wage controls, average weekly pay (adjusted for inflation) rose 10 percent during the war. And although workers still protested long hours, overtime, and night shifts, they were able to save money for the future. Some workers invested up to half their paychecks in war bonds.

Farmers also prospered during the war. During the Depression years, farmers had battled dust storms and floods. But the early 1940s featured good weather for growing crops. Farmers benefited from improvements in farm machinery and fertilizers. They reaped the profits from rising crop prices. As a result, crop production increased by 50 percent, and farm income tripled. Before the war ended, many farmers could pay off their mortgages.
Women also enjoyed employment gains during the war, although many lost their jobs when the war ended. Over 6 million women had entered the work force for the first time, boosting the percentage of women in the total work force to 35 percent. A third of those jobs were in defense plants, which offered women more challenging work and better pay than jobs traditionally associated with women, such as waitressing, clerking, and domestic service. With men away at war, many women also took advantage of openings in journalism and other professions. “The war really created opportunities for women,” said Winona Espinosa, a wife and mother who became a riveter and bus driver during the war. “It was the first time we got a chance to show that we could do a lot of things that only men had done before.” In the years that followed the war, many women fought to regain the rights they had enjoyed during the war. They wanted the same opportunities available to men, such as access to better jobs and education.

In addition to revamping the economy, the war triggered one of the greatest mass migrations in American history. Americans whose families had lived for decades in one place suddenly uprooted themselves to seek work elsewhere. Men and women left farms and small towns to take jobs in shipyards, steel mills, and aircraft plants across the country. More than a million
newcomers poured into California alone between 1941 and 1944. Across the country, towns with defense industries saw their populations double and even triple, sometimes almost overnight. Among the most eager migrants during the war were African Americans. Looking for new jobs and an escape from discrimination, hundreds of thousands of African Americans left the South for cities in the North and West.

The war also created new opportunities for the country’s millions of new veterans. In 1944, to help ease the transition of returning servicemen to civilian life, Congress passed the Servicemen’s Readjustment Act, better known as the GI Bill of Rights. This legislation provided education and training for veterans, paid for by the federal government. Just over half the returning soldiers, or about 7.8 million veterans, attended colleges and technical schools under the GI Bill. Among those who attended college under the GI Bill were many African Americans and members of other minority groups. For many, it was their first opportunity to receive higher education. The act also provided federal loan guarantees to veterans buying homes or farms or starting new businesses.

1. Organize Information Trace on a timeline the events leading up to the end of the war in Europe and in the Pacific and the beginning of planning for the postwar world.

2. Key Terms and People For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. Form Generalizations What were the key diplomatic outcomes of World War II?

   Think About:
   • the decisions made at Yalta and Potsdam
   • the goals of the United Nations
   • the results of the Nuremberg trial
   • plans for after the war

4. Draw Conclusions What were the economic, diplomatic, and military consequences of developing the atomic bomb?

5. Analyze Primary Sources Review the quotation from Robert T. Johnson about liberating the death camps. Why was the liberation of concentration camps an important event in World War II?

6. Analyze Causes What led to the growth of the defense and agricultural industries during World War II?

7. Predict How do you think increased tension among Allied leaders would affect the postwar world?
Module 20 Assessment

Key Terms and People
For each term or person below, write a sentence explaining its significance during World War II.
1. fascism
2. Adolf Hitler
3. Winston Churchill
4. appeasement
5. Holocaust
6. rationing
7. Dwight D. Eisenhower
8. D-Day
9. Hiroshima
10. GI Bill of Rights

Main Ideas
Use your notes and the information in the module to answer the following questions.

War Breaks Out
1. What factors led to the rise of totalitarian governments, such as fascism and communism, in Europe?
2. Why did Japan invade Manchuria?
3. Why was the blitzkrieg effective?
4. How did the civil and political values of Nazi Germany and Imperial Japan differ from those of the United States?
5. How effective was the League of Nations in dealing with aggression among nations in the 1930s?

The Holocaust
6. How did the United States respond to Jewish refugees after Kristallnacht?
7. What groups did Nazis deem unfit to belong to the Aryan “master race”?
8. How did some Europeans show their resistance to Nazi persecution of the Jews?
9. How did the Holocaust affect Jews and other targeted groups living in territory controlled by the Nazis?

America Moves Toward War
10. How did isolationist policy shape U.S. foreign policy in the 1920s and 1930s? What were the consequences of U.S. isolationism?
11. Why did Roosevelt take one “unneutral” step after another to assist Britain and the Soviet Union in 1941?
12. How did the isolationist views of many Americans challenge Roosevelt’s political leadership?
13. What factors led Japan to attack the United States at Pearl Harbor?
14. Why did the United States enter World War II?

The War Effort on the Home Front
15. What was the Double V Campaign?
16. What role did the media play in helping the country mobilize?
17. Why did the outbreak of World War II create a need for new military bases across the country?
18. What were the causes and consequences of racial tension in the 1940s?
19. How did the war affect families?

The War for Europe and North Africa
20. What role did Franklin Roosevelt play as commander in chief of the U.S. military?
21. How did the Allies win control of the Atlantic Ocean between 1941 and 1943?
22. What two key decisions determined the final outcome at Stalingrad?
23. What was the outcome of the North African and Italian campaigns?

The War in the Pacific
24. Briefly describe the strategy of island hopping during the war in the Pacific.
25. Why was the Battle of Leyte Gulf so crucial to the Allies?
26. What was significant about the Battle of Iwo Jima?

The End of World War II
27. Why did President Truman decide to use atomic weapons?
28. How are the Nuremberg trials an example of the humanitarian effects of World War II?
29. How did World War II expand access to education?
30. What issues did Allied leaders address at the Potsdam Conference, and what decisions did they make?

Critical Thinking

1. **Categorize** In a chart like the one shown below, explain the opportunities and obstacles that women and ethnic and racial minorities faced during World War II.

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<thead>
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<th>Women</th>
<th>Minorities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Obstacles</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

2. **Draw Conclusions** How did the rise of dictatorships in Italy, Germany, and Japan and the aggression of those nations toward other countries lead to World War II?

3. **Interpret Maps** Look at the map “German Advances, 1938–1941” in Lesson 1. How might Poland’s location have influenced the secret pact that Germany and the Soviet Union signed on August 23, 1939?

4. **Compare** How were the geography and events in the European and Pacific theaters of World War II similar? How were they different?

5. **Summarize** Explain the bravery and contributions of women and ethnic minorities in the armed forces during World War II, including the Tuskegee Airmen, the 442nd Regimental Combat Team, and the Navajo code talkers.

6. **Evaluate** Do you think the United States was justified in using atomic bombs against the Japanese? Write a paragraph explaining your response.

7. **Analyze Effects** Apply opportunity cost and trade-offs to evaluate the shift in economic resources from the production of domestic to military goods during World War II, and analyze the impact of the post-war shift back to domestic production.

8. **Make Inferences** How do you think World War II helped some Americans attain their vision of the American Dream?

9. **Analyze Effects** How did policies such as the Lend-Lease Act and other wartime changes affect the American economy?

10. **Evaluate** Evaluate the domestic and international leadership of Presidents Franklin D. Roosevelt and Harry S. Truman during World War II. Consider the U.S. domestic industry’s rapid mobilization for the war effort and the nation’s relationship with its allies.

Engage with History

Imagine that you are a journalist in 1955, working for a major magazine that is preparing an issue focusing on the ten-year anniversary of the end of World War II. Write an article in which you look back at the changes in American life brought about by involvement in the war. Discuss political and economic changes that resulted from the war as well as social changes that stemmed from issues on the home front.

Focus on Writing

Write an expository essay in which you explain the Holocaust as an instance of genocide. Include varying perspectives, such as those of victims, perpetrators, and observers.

Multimedia Activity

Conduct library or Internet research to learn more about some of the actions the U.S. government took between World Wars I and II to preserve its isolationist policy. Then investigate the events that drew the country into World War II. Consider the perspectives of people on both sides of the debate. Use your findings to draw a political cartoon that supports or opposes the U.S. policy of neutrality at the beginning of World War II. Write a caption to accompany your cartoon.
A global conflict, World War II shaped the history of both the United States and the world. Americans contributed to the war effort in numerous ways. Many enlisted in the military and served in Africa, Europe, and the Pacific. Others contributed by working in factories to produce the massive amounts of ships, planes, guns, and other supplies necessary to win the war. In the process, these Americans left behind firsthand accounts of their experiences during the war, both at home and abroad. Explore some of the personal stories and recollections of World War II online. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more through your online textbook.
“I am allowed to write of my own personal combat experiences and I can say that I have been fortunate so far. War is like something you cannot imagine. I had no idea what it was about and still don’t.”

— Erwin Blonder, U.S. soldier