**Why It Matters**

The United States entered World War II unwillingly and largely unprepared. The American people, however, quickly banded together to transform the American economy into the most productive and efficient war-making machine in the world. American forces turned the tide in Europe and the Pacific, and they played a crucial role in the defeat of Germany, Italy, and Japan.

**The Impact Today**

Many changes that began in World War II are still shaping our lives today.
- The United Nations was founded.
- Nuclear weapons were invented.
- The United States became the most powerful nation in the world.

1944
- Supreme Court rules in *Korematsu v. the United States* that Japanese American relocation is constitutional
- Eisenhower leads D-Day invasion
- Battle of Leyte Gulf

1945
- United States drops atomic bomb on Japan
- World War II ends
- Franklin Roosevelt dies in office; Harry S Truman becomes president
- World War II ends

Allied soldiers landing at Omaha Beach in Normandy on D-Day—June 6, 1944
Shortly after 1:30 P.M. on December 7, 1941, Secretary of the Navy Frank Knox phoned President Roosevelt at the White House. “Mr. President,” Knox said, “it looks like the Japanese have attacked Pearl Harbor.” A few minutes later, Admiral Harold Stark, chief of naval operations, phoned and confirmed the attack.

As Eleanor Roosevelt passed by the president’s study, she knew immediately something very bad had happened:

“All the secretaries were there, two telephones were in use, the senior military aides were on their way with messages.” Eleanor also noticed that President Roosevelt remained calm: “His reaction to any event was always to be calm. If it was something that was bad, he just became almost like an iceberg, and there was never the slightest emotion that was allowed to show.”

Turning to his wife, President Roosevelt expressed anger at the Japanese: “I never wanted to have to fight this war on two fronts. We haven’t got the Navy to fight in both the Atlantic and Pacific. . . . We will have to build up the Navy and the Air Force and that will mean we will have to take a good many defeats before we can have a victory.”

—adapted from No Ordinary Time

Converting the Economy

Although the difficulties of fighting a global war troubled the president, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill was not worried. Churchill knew that victory in modern war depended on a nation’s industrial power. He compared the American economy
to a gigantic boiler: “Once the fire is lighted under it there is no limit to the power it can generate.”

Churchill was right. The industrial output of the United States during the war astounded the rest of the world. American workers were twice as productive as German workers and five times more productive than Japanese workers. American war production turned the tide in favor of the Allies. In less than four years, the United States achieved what no other nation had ever done—it fought and won a two-front war against two powerful military empires, forcing each to surrender unconditionally.

The United States was able to expand its war production so rapidly after the attack on Pearl Harbor in part because the government had begun to mobilize the economy before the country entered the war. When the German blitzkrieg swept into France in May 1940, President Roosevelt declared a national emergency and announced a plan to build 50,000 warplanes a year. Shocked by the success of the German attack, many Americans were willing to build up the country’s defenses.

Roosevelt and his advisers believed that the best way to rapidly mobilize the economy was to give industry an incentive to move quickly. As Henry Stimson, the new secretary of war, wrote in his diary: “If you are going to try and go to war, or to prepare for war, in a capitalist country, you have got to let business make money out of the process or business won’t work.”

Normally when the government needed military equipment, it would ask companies to bid for the contract, but that system was too slow in wartime. Instead of asking for bids, the government signed cost-plus contracts. The government agreed to pay a company whatever it cost to make a product plus a guaranteed percentage of the costs as profit. Under the cost-plus system, the more a company produced and the faster it did the work, the more money it would make. The system was not cheap, but it did get war materials produced quickly and in quantity.

Although cost-plus convinced many companies to convert to war production, others could not afford to reequip their factories to make military goods. To convince more companies to convert, Congress gave new authority to the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC). The RFC, a government agency set up during the Depression, was now permitted to make loans to companies to help them cover the cost of converting to war production.

**American Industry Gets the Job Done**

By the fall of 1941, much had already been done to prepare the economy for war, but it was still only partially mobilized. Although many companies were producing military equipment, most still preferred to make consumer goods. The Depression was ending and sales were rising. The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, however, changed everything. By the summer of 1942, almost all major industries and some 200,000 companies had converted to war production. Together they made the nation’s wartime “miracle” possible.

**ECONOMICS**

**Tanks Replace Cars** The automobile industry was uniquely suited to the mass production of military equipment. Automobile factories began to produce trucks, jeeps, and tanks. This was critical in modern warfare because the country that could move troops and supplies most quickly usually

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**Reading Check** Analyzing What government policies helped American industry to produce large quantities of war materials?
Switching to Wartime Production

Automobile Production, 1941—1945

Automobiles Produced (in millions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1941</th>
<th>1942</th>
<th>1943</th>
<th>1944</th>
<th>1945</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3,779,628</td>
<td>222,862</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>70,001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


won the battle. As General George C. Marshall, chief of staff for the United States Army, observed:

“...The greatest advantage the United States enjoyed on the ground in the fighting was . . . the jeep and the two-and-a-half ton truck. These are the instruments that moved and supplied United States troops in battle, while the German army . . . depended on animal transport. . . . The United States, profiting from the mass production achievements of its automotive industry . . . had mobility that completely outclassed the enemy.”

—quoted in Miracle of World War II

Automobile factories did not just produce vehicles. They also built artillery, rifles, mines, helmets, pontoon bridges, cooking pots, and dozens of other pieces of military equipment. Henry Ford launched one of the most ambitious projects when he created an assembly line for the enormous B-24 bomber known as “the Liberator” at Willow Run Airport near Detroit. By the end of the war, the factory had built over 8,600 aircraft. Overall, the automobile industry produced nearly one-third of the military equipment manufactured during the war.

Building the Liberty Ships

Henry Kaiser’s shipyards more than matched Ford’s achievement in aircraft production. Kaiser’s shipyards built many ships, but they were best known for their production of Liberty ships. The Liberty ship was the basic cargo ship used during the war. Most Liberty ships were welded instead of riveted. Welded ships were cheap, easy to build, and very hard to sink compared to riveted ships.

When a riveted ship was hit, the rivets often came loose, causing the ship to fall apart and sink. A welded ship’s hull was fused into one solid piece of steel. A torpedo might blow a hole in it, but the hull would not come apart. A damaged Liberty ship could often get back to port, make repairs, and return to service.

The War Production Board

As American companies converted to war production, many business leaders became frustrated with the mobilization process. Government agencies argued constantly about supplies and contracts and whose orders had the highest priority.

After Pearl Harbor, President Roosevelt tried to improve the system by creating the War Production Board (WPB). He gave the WPB the authority to set
priorities and production goals and to control the distribution of raw materials and supplies. Almost immediately, the WPB clashed with the military. Military agencies continued to sign contracts without consulting with the WPB. Finally, in 1943, Roosevelt established the Office of War Mobilization (OWM) to settle arguments between the different agencies.

**Reading Check** Explaining What military need led to the production of Liberty ships?

## Building an Army

Converting factories to war production was only part of the mobilization process. If the United States was actually going to fight and win the war, the country also needed to build up its armed forces.

**Creating an Army** Within days of Germany’s attack on Poland, President Roosevelt expanded the army to 227,000 soldiers. After France surrendered to Germany in June 1940, two members of Congress introduced the Selective Service and Training Act, a plan for the first peacetime draft in American history. Before the spring of 1940, college students, labor unions, isolationists, and most members of Congress had opposed a peacetime draft. Opinions changed after Germany defeated France. In September Congress approved the draft by a wide margin.

**You’re in the Army Now** At first the flood of draftees overwhelmed the army’s training facilities. Many recruits had to live in tents and use temporary facilities. The army also endured equipment shortages. Troops carried sticks representing guns, threw stones simulating grenades, and practiced maneuvers with trucks carrying signs that read “TANK.”

New draftees were initially sent to a reception center, where they were given physical exams and injections against smallpox and typhoid. The draftees were then issued uniforms, boots, and whatever equipment was available. The clothing bore the label “G.I.,” meaning “Government Issue,” which is why American soldiers were called “GIs.”

After taking aptitude tests, recruits were sent to basic training for eight weeks. They learned how to handle weapons, load backpacks, read maps, pitch tents, and dig trenches. Trainees drilled and exercised constantly and learned how to work as a team.

After the war, many veterans complained that basic training had been useless. Soldiers were rushed through too quickly, and the physical training left them too tired to learn the skills they needed. A sergeant in Italy told a reporter for *Yank* magazine that during a recent battle, a new soldier had held up his rifle and yelled, “How do I load this thing?”

Despite its problems, basic training helped to break down barriers between soldiers. Recruits came from all over the country, and training together made them into a unit. Training created a “special sense of kinship,” one soldier noted. “The reason you storm the beaches is not patriotism or bravery. It’s that sense of not wanting to fail your buddies.”

**A Segregated Army** Although basic training promoted unity, most recruits did not encounter Americans from every part of society. At the start of the war, the U.S. military was completely segregated. White recruits did not train alongside African Americans. African Americans had separate barracks, latrines, mess halls, and recreational facilities.
Once trained, African Americans were organized into their own military units, but white officers were generally in command of them. Most military leaders also wanted to keep African American soldiers out of combat and assigned them to construction and supply units.

**Pushing for “Double V”** Some African Americans did not want to support the war. As one student at a black college noted: “The Army Jim Crows us... Employers and labor unions shut us out. Lynchings continue. We are disenfranchised... and spat upon. What more could Hitler do to us than that?” By *disenfranchised*, the student meant that African Americans were often denied their right to vote. Despite the bitterness, most African Americans agreed with African American writer Saunders Redding that they should support their country:

“There are many things about this war I do not like... yet I believe in the war. ... We know that whatever the mad logic of [Hitler’s] New Order there is no hope for us under it. The ethnic theories of the Hitler ‘master folk’ admit of no chance of freedom. ... This is a war to keep [people] free. The struggle to broaden and lengthen the road of freedom—our own private and important war to enlarge freedom here in America—will come later. ... I believe in this war because I believe in America. I believe in what America professes to stand for. ...”

—quoted in *America at War*

Many African American leaders combined patriotism with protest. In 1941 the National Urban League set two goals for its members: “(1) To promote effective participation of [African Americans] in all phases of the war effort. ... (2) To formulate plans for building the kind of United States in which we wish to live after the war is over....”

The *Pittsburgh Courier*, a leading African American newspaper, embraced these ideas and launched what it called the “Double V” campaign. African Americans, the paper argued, should join the war effort in order to achieve a double victory—a victory over Hitler’s racism abroad and a victory over racism at home. If the United States wanted to portray itself as a defender of democracy, Americans might be willing to end discrimination in their own country.

President Roosevelt knew that African American voters had played an important role in his election victories. Under pressure from African American leaders, he ordered the army air force, navy, and marines to begin recruiting African Americans, and he directed the army to put African Americans into combat. He also appointed Colonel *Benjamin O. Davis*, the highest-ranking African American officer in the U.S. Army, to the rank of brigadier general.

**African Americans in Combat** In response to the president’s order, the army air force created the 99th Pursuit Squadron, an African American unit that trained in Tuskegee, Alabama. These African American fighter pilots became known as the *Tuskegee Airmen*. After General Davis urged the military to put African Americans into combat, the 99th Pursuit Squadron was sent to the Mediterranean in April 1943. The squadron played an important role during the Battle of Anzio in Italy.

African Americans also performed well in the army. The all-African American 761st Tank Battalion was commended for its service during the Battle of the Bulge. Fighting in northwest Europe, African Americans in the 614th Tank Destroyer Battalion won 8 Silver Stars for distinguished service, 28 Bronze Stars, and 79 Purple Hearts.

Although the military did not end all segregation during the war, it did integrate military bases in 1943 and steadily expanded the role of African Americans within the armed forces. These successes paved the way for President Truman’s decision to fully integrate the military in 1948.

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**Picturing History**

*Tuskegee Airmen* The Tuskegee Airmen distinguished themselves in combat, yet they were not allowed to serve in integrated units. *In what theater of the war did the Tuskegee Airmen serve?*
Women Join the Armed Forces  As in World War I, women joined the armed forces. The army enlisted women for the first time, although they were barred from combat. Instead, as the army’s recruiting slogan suggested, women were needed to “release a man for combat.” Many jobs in the army were administrative and clerical. By assigning women to these jobs, more men would be available for combat.

Congress first allowed women in the military in May 1942, when it established the Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC) and appointed Oveta Culp Hobby, an official with the War Department, to serve as its first director. Although pleased about the establishment of the WAAC, many women were unhappy that it was an auxiliary corps and not part of the regular army. A little over a year later, the army replaced the WAAC with the Women’s Army Corps (WAC). Director Hobby was assigned the rank of colonel. “You have a debt and a date,” Hobby explained to those training to be the nation’s first women officers. “A debt to democracy, a date with destiny.” The Coast Guard, the navy, and the marines quickly followed the army and set up their own women’s units. In addition to serving in these new organizations, another 68,000 women served as nurses in the army and navy.

Americans Go to War  The Americans who went to war in 1941 were not well trained. Most of the troops had no previous military experience. Most of the officers had never led men in combat. The armed forces mirrored many of the tensions and prejudices of American society. Despite these challenges, the United States armed forces performed well in battle.

Of all the major powers involved in the war, the United States suffered the fewest casualties in combat. American troops never adopted the spit-and-polish style of the Europeans. When they arrived at the front, Americans’ uniforms were usually a mess, and they rarely marched in step. When one Czechoslovakian was asked what he thought of the sloppy, unprofessional American soldiers, he commented, “They walk like free men.”

Reading Check  Summarizing How did the status of women and African Americans in the armed forces change during the war?
On June 4, 1942, Lieutenant Commander James Thach climbed into his F4F Wildcat fighter plane. Thach knew that the Japanese Zero fighter planes were better than his Wildcat. To improve his chances against them, he had developed a new tactic he called the “Thach weave.” At the Battle of Midway, he had his first chance to try it:  

“So we boarded our planes. All of us were highly excited and admittedly nervous. . . . A very short time after, Zero fighters came down on us—I figured there were twenty. . . . The air was just like a beehive, and I wasn’t sure that anything would work. And then my weave began to work! I got a good shot at two Zeros and burned them . . . then Ram, my wingman, radioed: ‘There’s a Zero on my tail.’ . . . I was really angry then. I was mad because my poor little wingman had never been in combat before [and] this Zero was about to chew him to pieces. I probably should have ducked under the Zero, but I lost my temper and decided to keep my fire going into him so he’d pull out. He did, and I just missed him by a few feet. I saw flames coming out of his airplane. This was like playing chicken on the highway with two automobiles headed for each other, except we were shooting at each other as well.”

—quoted in *The Pacific War Remembered*

**Holding the Line Against Japan**

While officers like James Thach developed new tactics to fight the Japanese, the commander of the United States Navy in the Pacific, Admiral Chester Nimitz, began planning operations against the Japanese navy. Although the Japanese had badly damaged the American fleet at Pearl Harbor, they had missed the American aircraft carriers,
which were at sea on a mission. The United States had several carriers in the Pacific, and Nimitz was determined to use them. In the days just after Pearl Harbor, however, he could do little to stop Japan’s advance into Southeast Asia.

The Fall of the Philippines  A few hours after they bombed Pearl Harbor, the Japanese attacked American airfields in the Philippines. Two days later, Japanese troops landed in the islands. The American and Filipino forces defending the Philippines were badly outnumbered. Their commander, General Douglas MacArthur, decided to retreat to the Bataan Peninsula. Using the peninsula’s rugged terrain, MacArthur’s troops held out for more than three months. Gradually, the lack of supplies along with diseases such as malaria, scurvy, and dysentery took their toll. Realizing MacArthur’s capture would demoralize the American people, President Roosevelt ordered the general to evacuate to Australia. In Australia MacArthur made a promise: “I came through, and I shall return.”

On April 9, 1942, the weary defenders of Bataan finally surrendered. Nearly 78,000 prisoners of war were forced to march—sick, exhausted, and starving—65 miles (105 km) to a Japanese prison camp. Thousands died on this march, which came to be known as the Bataan Death March. Here one captured American, Leon Beck, recalls the nightmare:

“...They’d halt us in front of these big artesian wells . . . so we could see the water and they wouldn’t let us have any. Anyone who would make a break for water would be shot or bayoneted. Then they were left there. Finally, it got so bad further along the road that you never got away from the stench of death. There were bodies laying all along the road in various degrees of decomposition—swollen, burst open, maggots crawling by the thousands....”

—quoted in *Death March: The Survivors of Bataan*

Although the troops in the Bataan Peninsula surrendered, a small force held out on the island of Corregidor in Manila Bay. Finally, in May 1942, Corregidor surrendered. The Philippines had fallen.

The Doolittle Raid  Even before the fall of the Philippines, President Roosevelt was searching for a way to raise the morale of the American people. He wanted to bomb Tokyo, but American planes could reach Tokyo only if an aircraft carrier brought them close enough. Unfortunately, Japanese ships in the North Pacific prevented carriers from getting close enough to Japan to launch their short-range bombers.

In early 1942, a military planner suggested replacing the carrier’s usual short-range bombers with long-range B-25 bombers that could attack from farther away. Although B-25s could take off from a carrier, they could not land on its short deck. After attacking Japan, they would have to land in China.

President Roosevelt put Lieutenant Colonel James Doolittle in command of the mission. At the end of March, a crane loaded sixteen B-25s onto the aircraft carrier Hornet. The next day the Hornet headed west across the Pacific. On April 18, American bombs fell on Japan for the first time.

**Striking Back: The Doolittle Raid, April 18, 1942**

The plan for the Doolittle raid was to launch B-25 bombers from aircraft carriers between 450 and 650 miles from Japan. The planes would bomb selected targets, and fly another 1,200 miles to airfields in China.

All went well until the Japanese discovered the carriers more than 150 miles from the proposed launch site. Instead of canceling the mission, the bombers took off early. The planes reached Japan and dropped their bombs, but they did not have enough fuel to reach the friendly airfields in China. The crews were forced to bail out or crash-land, and only 71 of the 80 crew members survived. Nevertheless, the raid provided an instant boost to sagging American morale.
A Change in Japanese Strategy  While Americans were overjoyed that the air force had finally struck back, Japanese leaders were aghast. Doolittle’s bombs could have killed the emperor. The Doolittle raid convinced Japanese leaders to change their strategy.

Before the raid, the Japanese Navy had been arguing about what to do next. The officers in charge of the navy’s planning wanted to cut American supply lines to Australia by capturing the south coast of New Guinea. The commander of the fleet, Admiral Yamamoto, wanted to attack Midway Island—the last American base in the North Pacific west of Hawaii. Yamamoto believed that attacking Midway would lure the American fleet into battle and enable his fleet to destroy it.

After Doolittle’s raid, the planners dropped their opposition to Yamamoto’s plan. The American fleet had to be destroyed in order to protect Tokyo from bombing. The attack on New Guinea would still go ahead, but only three aircraft carriers were assigned to the mission. All of the other carriers were ordered to prepare for an assault on Midway.

The Battle of the Coral Sea  The Japanese believed that they could proceed with two different attacks. They thought the United States was unaware of Japan’s activity and would not be able to respond in time. Japan did not know that an American team of code breakers, based in Hawaii, had already broken the Japanese Navy’s secret code for conducting operations.

In March 1942, decoded Japanese messages alerted the United States to the Japanese attack on New Guinea. In response, Admiral Nimitz sent two carriers, the Yorktown and the Lexington, to intercept the Japanese in the Coral Sea. There, in early May, carriers from both sides launched all-out airstrikes against each other. Although the Japanese sank the Lexington and badly damaged the Yorktown, the American attacks forced the Japanese to call off their landing on the south coast of New Guinea. The American supply lines to Australia stayed open.
The Battle of Midway

Back at Pearl Harbor, the code-breaking team that had alerted Nimitz to the attack on New Guinea now learned of the plan to attack Midway. With so many ships at sea, Admiral Yamamoto transmitted the plans for the Midway attack by radio, using the same code the Americans had already cracked.

Admiral Nimitz had been waiting for the opportunity to ambush the Japanese fleet. He immediately ordered carriers to take up positions near Midway. Unaware they were heading into an ambush, the Japanese launched their aircraft against Midway on June 4, 1942. The island was ready. The Japanese planes ran into a blizzard of antiaircraft fire, and 38 of them were shot down.

As the Japanese prepared a second wave to attack Midway, aircraft from the American carriers Hornet, Yorktown, and Enterprise launched a counterattack. The American planes caught the Japanese carriers with fuel, bombs, and aircraft exposed on their flight decks. Within minutes three Japanese carriers were reduced to burning wrecks. A fourth was sunk a few hours later. By nightfall it was apparent that the Americans had dealt the Japanese navy a deadly blow. Admiral Yamamoto ordered his remaining ships to retreat.

The Battle of Midway was a turning point in the war. The Japanese Navy lost four of its largest carriers—the heart of its fleet. Just six months after Pearl Harbor, the United States had stopped the Japanese advance in the Pacific. As Admiral Ernest King, the commander in chief of the U.S. Navy, later observed, Midway “put an end to the long period of Japanese offensive action.” The victory was not without cost, however. The battle killed 362 Americans and 3,057 Japanese. Afterward, one naval officer wrote to his wife: “Let no one tell you or let you believe that this war is anything other than a grim, terrible business.”

**Reading Check**

Why was the Battle of Midway considered a turning point?

Turning Back the German Army

In 1942 Allied forces began to win victories in Europe as well. Almost from the moment the United States entered the war, Joseph Stalin, the leader of the Soviet Union, urged President Roosevelt to open a second front in Europe. Stalin appreciated the Lend-Lease supplies that the United States had sent, but the Soviet people were still doing most of the fighting. If British and American troops opened a second front by attacking Germany from the west, it would take pressure off the Soviet Union.

Roosevelt wanted to get American troops into battle in Europe, but Prime Minister Churchill urged caution. He did not believe the United States and Great Britain were ready to launch a full-scale invasion of Europe. Instead Churchill wanted to attack the periphery, or edges, of the German empire. Roosevelt agreed, and in July 1942 he ordered the invasion of Morocco and Algeria—two French territories indirectly under German control.

The Struggle for North Africa

Roosevelt decided to invade Morocco and Algeria for two reasons. First, the invasion would give the army some experience without requiring a lot of troops. More importantly, once American troops were in North Africa, they would be able to help British troops fighting the Germans in Egypt.
Egypt was very important to Britain because of the Suez Canal. Most of Britain’s empire, including India, Hong Kong, Singapore, Malaya, and Australia, used the canal to send supplies to Britain. The German forces in the area, known as the “Afrika Korps,” were commanded by General Erwin Rommel—a brilliant leader whose success earned him the nickname “Desert Fox.”

The British forced Rommel to retreat at the battle of El Alamein, but his forces remained a serious threat. On November 8, 1942, the American invasion of North Africa began under the command of General Dwight D. Eisenhower. The American forces in Morocco, led by General George Patton, quickly captured the city of Casablanca, while those in Algeria seized the cities of Oran and Algiers. The Americans then headed east into Tunisia, while British forces headed west into Libya. The plan was to trap Rommel between the two Allied forces.

When the American troops advanced into the mountains of western Tunisia, they had to fight the German army for the first time. They did not do well. At the Battle of Kasserine Pass, the Americans were outmaneuvered and outfought. They suffered roughly 7,000 casualties and lost nearly 200 tanks. Eisenhower fired the general who led the attack and put Patton in command. Together, the American and British forces finally pushed the Germans back. On May 13, 1943, the last German forces in North Africa surrendered.

The Battle of the Atlantic As American and British troops fought the German army in North Africa, the war against German submarines in the Atlantic Ocean continued to intensify. After Germany declared war on the United States, German submarines entered American coastal waters. They found American cargo ships to be easy targets, especially at night when the glow from the cities in the night sky silhouetted the vessels. To protect the ships, cities on the East Coast dimmed their lights every evening. People also put up special “blackout curtains” and drove with their headlights off.

By August 1942, German submarines had sunk about 360 American ships along the American coast. So many oil tankers were sunk that gasoline and fuel oil had to be rationed. To keep oil flowing, the government built the first long-distance oil pipeline, stretching some 1,250 miles (2,010 km) from the Texas oil fields to Pennsylvania.

The loss of so many ships convinced the U.S. Navy to set up a convoy system. Under this system, cargo ships traveled in groups and were escorted by navy warships. The convoy system improved the
situation dramatically. It made it much harder for a submarine to torpedo a cargo ship and escape without being attacked.

The spring of 1942 marked the high point of the German submarine campaign. In May and June alone, over 1.2 million tons of shipping were sunk. Yet in those same two months, American and British shipyards built over 1.1 million tons of new shipping. From July 1942 onward, American shipyards produced more ships than German submarines managed to sink. At the same time, American airplanes and warships began to use new technology, including radar, sonar, and depth charges, to locate and attack submarines. As the new technology began to take its toll on German submarines, the Battle of the Atlantic slowly turned in favor of the Allies.

**TURNING POINT**

**Stalingrad** In the spring of 1942, before the Battle of the Atlantic turned against Germany, Adolf Hitler was very confident he would win the war. Rommel’s troops were pushing the British back in Egypt. German submarines were sinking American ships rapidly, and the German army was ready to launch a new offensive to knock the Soviets out of the war.

Hitler was convinced that the only way to defeat the Soviet Union was to destroy its economy. In May 1942, he ordered his army to capture strategic oil fields, industries, and farmlands in southern Russia and Ukraine. The key to the attack was the city of Stalingrad. The city controlled the Volga River and was a major railroad junction. If the German army captured Stalingrad, the Soviets would be cut off from the resources they needed to stay in the war.

When German troops entered Stalingrad in mid-September, Stalin ordered his troops to hold the city at all cost. Retreat was forbidden. The Germans were forced to fight from house to house, losing thousands of soldiers in the process.

On November 23, Soviet reinforcements arrived and surrounded Stalingrad, trapping almost 250,000 German troops. When the battle ended, 91,000 Germans had surrendered, although only 5,000 of them survived the Soviet prison camps and returned home after the war. The Battle of Stalingrad was a major turning point in the war. Just as the Battle of Midway put the Japanese on the defensive for the rest of the war, the Battle of Stalingrad put the Germans on the defensive as well.

**Reading Check** Evaluating What did the Allies do to win the Battle of the Atlantic?
Why Learn This Skill?
In your study of American history, you will often encounter thematic maps. Knowing how to read a thematic map will help you get more out of it.

Learning the Skill
Military maps use colors, symbols, and arrows to show major battles, troop movements, and defensive positions during a particular battle or over a period of time. When reading a military map, follow these steps:

• **Read the map title.** This will indicate the location and time period covered on the map.

• **Read the map key.** This tells what the symbols on the map represent. For example, battle sites may be indicated by crossed swords or burst shells.

• **Study the map itself.** This will reveal the actual event or sequence of events that took place. Notice the geography of the area, and try to determine how it could affect military strategy.

• **Use the map to draw conclusions.**

Practicing the Skill
The map on this page shows troop movements in the Philippines from December 1941 to May 1942. Analyze the information on the map, then answer the following questions.

1. What part of the world does the map show?
2. When did MacArthur leave for Australia? What information on the map shows you this?
3. Where did the Japanese imprison the survivors of the Bataan Death March?
4. What geographic features did the Japanese encounter on the Bataan Peninsula?

Skills Assessment
Complete the Practicing Skills questions on page 651 and the Chapter 20 Skill Reinforcement Activity to assess your mastery of this skill.

Applying the Skill
**Reading a Thematic Map** Study the map of the Battle of Midway on pages 620–621. Use the information on the map to answer the following questions.

1. When was the battle fought?
2. What American aircraft carriers took part in the battle?
3. What was the fate of the *Hiryu*?
Laura Briggs was a young woman living on a farm in Idaho when World War II began. As with many other Americans, the war completely changed her outlook on life:

“When I was growing up, it was very much depression times. . . . As farm prices [during the war] began to get better and better, farm times became good times. . . . We and most other farmers went from a tarpaper shack to a new frame house with indoor plumbing. Now we had an electric stove instead of a wood-burning one, and running water at the sink. . . . The war made many changes in our town. I think the most important is that aspirations changed. People suddenly had the idea, ‘Hey I can reach that. I can have that. I can do that. I could even send my kid to college if I wanted to.’"

—quoted in *Wartime America: The World War II Home Front*

**Women and Minorities Gain Ground**

As American troops fought their first battles against the Germans and Japanese, the war began to dramatically change American society at home. In contrast to the devastation the war brought to large parts of Europe and Asia, World War II had a positive effect on American society. The war finally put an end to the Great Depression. Mobilizing the economy created almost 19 million new jobs and nearly doubled the average family’s income.

When the war began, American defense factories wanted to hire white men. With so many men in the military, there simply were not enough white men to fill all of the jobs. Under pressure to produce, employers began to recruit women and minorities.
Women in the Defense Plants During the Depression, many people believed married women should not work outside the home, especially if it meant taking jobs away from men trying to support their families. Most women who did work were young, single, and employed in traditional female jobs. The wartime labor shortage, however, forced factories to recruit married women to do industrial jobs that traditionally had been reserved for men.

Although the government hired nearly 4 million women for mostly clerical jobs, it was the women in the factories who captured the public’s imagination. The great symbol of the campaign to hire women was “Rosie the Riveter,” a character from a popular song by the Four Vagabonds. The lyrics told of Rosie, who worked in a factory while her boyfriend served in the marines. Images of Rosie appeared on posters, in newspapers, and in magazines. Eventually 2.5 million women went to work in shipyards, aircraft factories, and other manufacturing plants. For many older middle-class women like Inez Sauer, working in a factory changed their perspective:

“...I learned that just because you’re a woman and have never worked is no reason you can’t learn. The job really broadened me... I had always been in a shell; I’d always been protected. But at Boeing I found a freedom and an independence I had never known. After the war I could never go back to playing bridge again, being a clubwoman... when I knew there were things you could use your mind for. The war changed my life completely.”

— quoted in Eyewitness to World War II

Although most women left the factories after the war, their success permanently changed American attitudes about women in the workplace.

African Americans Demand War Work Although factories were hiring women, they resisted hiring African Americans. Frustrated by the situation, A. Philip Randolph, the head of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters—a major union for African American railroad workers—decided to take action. He informed President Roosevelt that he was organizing “from ten to fifty thousand [African Americans] to march on Washington in the interest of securing jobs... in national defense and... integration into the military and naval forces.”

In response, Roosevelt issued Executive Order 8802, on June 25, 1941. The order declared, “there shall be no discrimination in the employment of workers in defense industries or government because of race, creed, color or national origin.” To enforce the order, the president created the Fair Employment Practices Commission—the first civil rights agency established by the federal government since the Reconstruction era.

Mexicans Become Farmworkers The wartime economy needed workers in many different areas. To help farmers in the Southwest overcome the labor shortage, the government introduced the Bracero Program in 1942. Bracero is Spanish for worker. The federal government arranged for Mexican farmworkers to help in the harvest. Over 200,000 Mexicans came to the United States to help harvest
fruit and vegetables in the Southwest. Many also helped to build and maintain railroads. The Bracero Program continued until 1964. Migrant farmworkers became an important part of the Southwest’s agricultural system.

Reading Check Describing How did mobilizing the economy help end the Depression?

A Nation on the Move

The wartime economy created millions of new jobs, but the Americans who wanted these jobs did not always live nearby. To get to the jobs, 15 million Americans moved during the war. Although the assembly plants of the Midwest and the shipyards of the Northeast attracted many workers, most Americans headed west and south in search of jobs.

Taken together, the growth of southern California and the expansion of cities in the Deep South created a new industrial region—the Sunbelt. For the first time since the Industrial Revolution began in the United States, the South and West led the way in manufacturing and urbanization.

The Housing Crisis Perhaps the most difficult task facing cities with war industries was deciding where to put the thousands of new workers. Many people had to live in tents and tiny trailers. To help solve the housing crisis, the federal government allocated over $1.2 billion to build public housing, schools, and community centers during the war.

Although prefabricated government housing had tiny rooms, thin walls, poor heating, and almost no privacy, it was better than no housing at all. Nearly two million people lived in government-built housing during the war.

Racism Explodes Into Violence African Americans began to leave the South in great numbers during World War I, but this “Great Migration,” as historians refer to it, slowed during the Depression. When jobs in war factories opened up for African Americans during World War II, the Great Migration resumed. When African Americans arrived in the crowded cities of the North and West, however, they were often met with suspicion and intolerance. Sometimes these attitudes led to violence.

The worst racial violence of the war erupted in Detroit on Sunday, June 20, 1943. The weather that day was sweltering. To cool off, nearly 100,000 people crowded into Belle Isle, a park on the Detroit River. Fights erupted between gangs of white and African American teenage girls. These fights triggered others, and a full-scale riot erupted across the city. By the time the violence ended, 25 African Americans and 9 whites had been killed. Despite the appalling violence in Detroit, African American leaders remained committed to their Double V campaign.

The Zoot Suit Riots Wartime prejudice erupted elsewhere as well. In southern California, racial tensions became entangled with juvenile delinquency. Across the nation, crimes committed by young people rose dramatically. In Los Angeles, racism against Mexican Americans and the fear of juvenile crime became linked because of the “zoot suit.”
A zoot suit had very baggy, pleated pants and an overstuffed, knee-length jacket with wide lapels. Accessories included a wide-brimmed hat and a long key chain. Zoot-suit wearers usually wore their hair long, gathered into a ducktail. The zoot suit angered many Americans. In order to save fabric for the war, most men wore a “victory suit”—a suit with no vest, no cuffs, a short jacket, and narrow lapels. By comparison, the zoot suit seemed unpatriotic.

In California, Mexican American teenagers adopted the zoot suit. In June 1943, after hearing rumors that zoot suiters had attacked several sailors, 2,500 soldiers and sailors stormed into Mexican American neighborhoods in Los Angeles. They attacked Mexican American teenagers, cut their hair, and tore off their zoot suits. The police did not intervene, and the violence continued for several days. The city of Los Angeles responded by banning the zoot suit.

Racial hostility against Mexican Americans did not deter them from joining the war effort. Approximately 500,000 Hispanic Americans served in the armed forces during the war. Most—about 400,000—were Mexican American. Another 65,000 were from Puerto Rico. They fought in Europe, North Africa, and the Pacific, and by the end of the war, 17 Mexican Americans had received the Medal of Honor.

Japanese American Relocation When Japan attacked Pearl Harbor, many West Coast Americans turned their anger against Japanese Americans. Mobs attacked Japanese American businesses and homes. Banks would not cash their checks, and grocers refused to sell them food.

Newspapers printed rumors about Japanese spies in the Japanese American community. Members of Congress, mayors, and many business and labor leaders demanded that all people of Japanese ancestry be removed from the West Coast. They did not believe that Japanese Americans would remain loyal to the United States in the face of war with Japan.

On February 19, 1942, President Roosevelt gave in to pressure and signed an order allowing the War Department to declare any part of the United States to be a military zone and to remove anybody they wanted from that zone. Secretary of War Henry Stimson declared most of the West Coast a military zone and ordered all people of Japanese ancestry to evacuate to 10 internment camps.

**MOMENT in HISTORY**

As wartime hysteria mounted, the U.S. government rounded up 120,000 people of Japanese ancestry—77,000 of whom were American citizens—and forced them into internment camps in early 1942. Given just days to sell their homes, businesses, and personal property, whole families were marched under military guard to rail depots, then sent to remote, inhospitable sites where they lived in cramped barracks surrounded by barbed wire and watchtowers. By 1945, with the tide of war turned, most had been released, but they did not get an official apology or financial compensation until 1988.
Not all Japanese Americans accepted the relocation without protest. Fred Korematsu argued that his rights had been violated and took his case to the Supreme Court. In December 1944, in *Korematsu v. the United States*, the Supreme Court ruled that the relocation was constitutional because it was based not on race, but on “military urgency.” Shortly afterward, the Court did rule in *Ex Parte Endo* that loyal American citizens could not be held against their will. In early 1945, therefore, the government began to release the Japanese Americans from the camps. (See page 963 for more information on *Korematsu v. the United States*.)

Despite the fears and rumors, no Japanese American was ever tried for espionage or sabotage. Japanese Americans served as translators for the army during the war in the Pacific. The all-Japanese 100th Battalion, later integrated into the 442nd Regimental Combat Team, was the most highly decorated unit in World War II.

After the war, the Japanese American Citizens League (JACL) tried to help Japanese Americans who had lost property during the relocation. In 1988 President Reagan apologized to Japanese Americans on behalf of the U.S. government and signed legislation granting $20,000 to each surviving Japanese American who had been interned.

**Reading Check** Comparing Why did racism lead to violence in Detroit and Los Angeles in 1943?

**Daily Life in Wartime America**

Housing problems and racial tensions were serious difficulties during the war, but mobilization strained society in many other ways as well. Prices rose, materials were in short supply, and the question of how to pay for it all loomed ominously over the entire war effort.

**ECONOMICS**

**Wage and Price Controls** As the economy mobilized, the president worried about inflation. Both wages and prices began to rise quickly during the war because of the high demand for workers and raw materials. To stabilize both wages and prices, Roosevelt created the Office of Price Administration (OPA) and the Office of Economic Stabilization (OES). The OES regulated wages and the price of farm products. The OPA regulated all other prices. Despite some problems with labor unions, the OPA and OES were able to keep inflation under control.

While the OPA and OES worked to control inflation, the War Labor Board (WLB) tried to prevent strikes that might endanger the war effort. In support, most American unions issued a “no strike pledge,” and instead of striking, asked the WLB to serve as a mediator in wage disputes. By the end of the war, the WLB had helped to settle over 17,000 disputes involving more than 12 million workers.

**Blue Points, Red Points** The demand for raw materials and supplies created shortages. The OPA began rationing, or limiting the availability of, many products to make sure enough were available for military use. Meat and sugar were rationed to provide enough for the army. To save gasoline and rubber, gasoline was rationed, driving was restricted, and the speed limit was set at 35 miles per hour.

Every month each household would pick up a book of ration coupons. Blue coupons, called blue points, controlled processed foods. Red coupons, or red points, controlled meats, fats, and oils. Other coupons controlled items such as coffee and sugar. When people bought food, they also had to give enough coupon points to cover their purchases.
Victory Gardens and Scrap Drives Americans also planted gardens to produce more food for the war effort. Any area of land might become a garden—backyards, schoolyards, city parks, and empty lots. The government encouraged **victory gardens** by praising them in film reels, pamphlets, and official statements.

Certain raw materials were so vital to the war effort that the government organized scrap drives. Americans collected spare rubber, tin, aluminum, and steel. They donated pots, tires, tin cans, car bumpers, broken radiators, and rusting bicycles. Oils and fats were so important to the production of explosives that the WPB set up fat-collecting stations. Americans would exchange bacon grease and meat drippings for extra ration coupons. The scrap drives were very successful and one more reason for the success of American industry during the war.

Paying for the War The United States had to pay for all of the equipment and supplies it needed. The federal government spent more than $300 billion during World War II—more money than it had spent from Washington’s administration to the end of Franklin Roosevelt’s second term.

To raise money, the government raised taxes. Because most Americans opposed large tax increases, Congress refused to raise taxes as high as Roosevelt requested. As a result, the extra taxes collected covered only 45 percent of the cost of the war.

To raise the rest of the money, the government issued war bonds. When Americans bought bonds, they were loaning money to the government. In exchange for the money, the government promised that the bonds could be cashed in at some future date for the purchase price plus interest. The most common bonds were **E bonds**, which sold for $18.75 and could be redeemed for $25.00 after 10 years. Individual Americans bought nearly $50 billion worth of war bonds. Banks, insurance companies, and other financial institutions bought the rest—over $100 billion worth of bonds.

“V” for Victory Despite the hardships, the overwhelming majority of Americans believed the war had to be fought. Although the war brought many changes to the United States, most Americans remained united behind one goal—winning the war.

Reading Check Evaluating How did rationing affect daily life in the United States? How did it affect the economy?
On the morning of June 6, 1944, Lieutenant John Bentz Carroll of the 16th Infantry Regiment scrambled down a net ladder from his troop ship to a small landing craft tossing in the waves 30 feet (9 m) below. The invasion of France had begun. Carroll’s platoon would be among the first Americans to land in Normandy. Their objective was a beach, code-named “Omaha”:

“Two hundred yards out, we took a direct hit. . . . [A machine gun] was shooting a rat-tat-tat on the front of the boat. Somehow or other, the ramp door opened up . . . and the men in front were being struck by machine gun fire. Everyone started to jump off into the water. They were being hit as they jumped, the machine gun fire was so heavy. . . . The tide was moving us so rapidly. . . . We would grab out on some of those underwater obstructions and mines built on telephone poles and girders, and hang on. We’d take cover, then make a dash through the surf to the next one, fifty feet beyond. The men would line up behind those poles. They’d say, ‘You go—you go—you go,’ and then it got so bad everyone just had to go anyway, because the waves were hitting with such intensity on these things.”

—quoted in D-Day: Piercing the Atlantic Wall

Striking Back at the Third Reich

As Lieutenant Carroll’s experience shows, storming a beach under enemy control can be a terrifying ordeal. There is no cover on a beach, no place to hide, and no way to turn back. Launching an invasion from the sea is very risky. Unfortunately, the Allies had no choice. If they were going to win the war, they had to land their troops in Europe and on islands in the Pacific.
The first large Allied invasion of the war—the attack on North Africa in November 1942—had shown that the Allies could mount a large-scale invasion from the sea. The success of the landings convinced Roosevelt that it was again time to meet with Churchill to plan the next stage of the war. In January 1943, the president headed to Casablanca, Morocco, to meet the prime minister.

At the Casablanca Conference, Roosevelt and Churchill agreed to step up the bombing of Germany. The goal of this new campaign was “the progressive destruction of the German military, industrial, and economic system, and the undermining of the morale of the German people.” The Allies also agreed to attack the Axis on the island of Sicily. Churchill called Italy the “soft underbelly” of Europe and was convinced that the Italians would quit the war if the Allies invaded their homeland.

Strategic Bombing The Allies had been bombing Germany even before the Casablanca Conference. Britain’s Royal Air Force had dropped an average of 2,300 tons (2,093 t) of explosives on Germany every month for over three years. The United States Eighth Army Air Force had joined the campaign in the summer of 1942, and they had dropped an additional 1,500 tons (1,365 t) of bombs by the end of the year.

These numbers were tiny, however, compared to the massive new campaign. Between January 1943 and May 1945, the Royal Air Force and the United States Eighth Army Air Force dropped approximately 53,000 tons (48,230 t) of explosives on Germany every month.

Softening the Gustav Line Infantrymen fire an 81-millimeter mortar to soften the German Gustav Line near the Rapido River. Why do you think the Allies decided to attack first in Italy rather than in France?

The bombing campaign did not destroy Germany’s economy or undermine German morale, but it did cause a severe oil shortage and wrecked the railroad system. It also destroyed so many aircraft factories that Germany’s air force could not replace its combat losses. By the time the Allies landed in France, they had total control of the air, ensuring that their troops would not be bombed.

Striking at the Soft Underbelly As the bombing campaign against Germany intensified, the plan for the invasion of Sicily moved ahead as well. General Dwight D. Eisenhower was placed in overall command of the invasion. General Patton and the British General Bernard Montgomery were put in charge of the actual forces on the ground. The invasion began before dawn on July 10, 1943. Despite bad weather, the Allied troops made it ashore with few casualties. A new vehicle, the DUKW—an amphibious truck—proved very effective in bringing supplies and artillery to the soldiers on the beach.

Eight days after the troops came ashore, American tanks led by General Patton smashed through enemy lines and captured the western half of the island. After capturing western Sicily, Patton’s troops headed east, staging a series of daring end-runs around the German positions, while the British, under Montgomery, attacked from the south. By August 18, the Germans had evacuated the island.

The attack on Sicily created a crisis within the Italian government. The king of Italy, Victor Emmanuel, and a group of Italian generals decided that it was time to get rid of Mussolini. On July 25, 1943, the king invited the dictator to his palace. “My dear Duce,” the king began, “it’s no longer any good. Italy has gone to bits. The soldiers don’t want to fight anymore. At this moment, you are the most hated man in Italy.” The king then placed Mussolini under arrest, and the new Italian government began secretly negotiating with the Allies for Italy’s surrender.

On September 8, 1943, the Italian government publicly announced Italy’s surrender. The following day, American troops landed at Salerno. Although stunned by the surrender, Hitler was not about to lose Italy to the Allies. German troops went into action at once. They seized control of northern Italy, including Rome, attacked the Americans at Salerno, and put Mussolini back in power.

To stop the Allied advance, the German army took up positions near the heavily
The fortified town of Cassino. The terrain near Cassino was steep, barren, and rocky. Instead of attacking such difficult terrain, the Allies chose to land at Anzio, behind German lines. They hoped the maneuver would force the Germans to retreat. Instead of retreating, however, the Germans surrounded the Allied troops near Anzio.

It took the Allies five months to break through the German lines at Cassino and Anzio. Finally, in late May 1944, the Germans were forced to retreat. Less than two weeks later, the Allies captured Rome. Fighting in Italy continued, however, until May 2, 1945. The Italian campaign was one of the bloodiest in the war. It cost the Allies more than 300,000 casualties.

**Roosevelt Meets Stalin at Tehran** Roosevelt wanted to meet with Stalin before the Allies launched the invasion of France. In late 1943 Stalin agreed, and he proposed that Roosevelt and Churchill meet him in Tehran, Iran.

The leaders reached several agreements. Stalin promised to launch a full-scale offensive against the Germans when the Allies invaded France in 1944. Roosevelt and Stalin then agreed to break up Germany after the war so that it would never again threaten world peace. Stalin also promised that once Germany was beaten, the Soviet Union would help the United States defeat Japan. He also accepted Roosevelt’s proposal to create an international organization to help keep the peace after the war.

**Landing in France** After the conference in Tehran, Roosevelt headed to Cairo, Egypt, where he and Churchill continued planning the invasion of France. One major decision still had to be made. The president had to choose the commander for Operation Overlord—the code name for the planned invasion. Roosevelt wanted to appoint General George C. Marshall, Chief of Staff for the United States Army, but he depended on Marshall for military advice and did not want to send him to Europe. Instead, the president selected General Eisenhower to command the invasion.

**Planning Operation Overlord** Knowing that the Allies would eventually invade France, Hitler had fortified the coast. Although these defenses were formidable, the Allies did have one advantage—the element of surprise. The Germans did not know when or where the Allies would land. They believed that the Allies would land in Pas-de-Calais—the area of France closest to Britain. To convince the Germans they were right, the Allies placed inflated rubber tanks, empty tents, and dummy landing craft along the coast across from Calais. To German spy planes, the decoys looked real, and they succeeded in fooling the Germans. The real target was not Pas-de-Calais, but Normandy.

By the spring of 1944, everything was ready. Over 1.5 million American soldiers, 12,000 airplanes, and more than 5 million tons (4.6 million t) of equipment had been sent to England. Only one
thing was left to do—pick the date and give the command to go. The invasion had to begin at night to hide the ships crossing the English Channel. The ships had to arrive at low tide so that they could see the beach obstacles. The low tide had to come at dawn so that gunners bombarding the coast could see their targets. Before the main landing on the beaches, paratroopers would be dropped behind enemy lines. They required a moonlit night in order to see where to land. Perhaps most important of all, the weather had to be good. A storm would ground the airplanes, and high waves would swamp the landing craft.

Given all these conditions, there were only a few days each month when the invasion could begin. The first opportunity would last from June 5 to 7, 1944. Eisenhower’s planning staff referred to the day any operation began by the letter D. The date for the invasion, therefore, came to be known as D-Day. Heavy cloud cover, strong winds, and high waves made it impossible to land on June 5. A day later the weather briefly improved. The Channel was still rough, but the landing ships and aircraft could operate. It was a difficult decision. Eisenhower’s advisers were split on what to do. After looking at weather forecasts one last time, shortly after midnight on June 6, 1944, Eisenhower gave the final order: “OK, we’ll go.”

**The Longest Day** Nearly 7,000 ships carrying more than 100,000 soldiers set sail for the coast of Normandy on June 6, 1944. At the same time, 23,000 paratroopers were dropped inland, east and west of the beaches. Allied fighter-bombers raced up and down the coast, hitting bridges, bunkers, and radar sites. As dawn broke, the warships in the Allied fleet let loose with a tremendous barrage of fire. Thousands of shells rained down on the beaches, code-named “Utah,” “Omaha,” “Gold,” “Sword,” and “Juno.”

The American landing at Utah Beach went very well. The German defenses were weak, and in less than three hours American troops had captured the beach and moved inland, suffering less than 200 casualties in the process. On the eastern flank, the British and Canadian landings also went well. By the end of the day, British and Canadian forces were several miles inland.

Omaha Beach, however, was a different story. Under intense German fire, the American assault almost disintegrated. As General **Omar Bradley**, the commander of the American forces landing at Omaha

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**What If...**

**Operation Overlord Had Failed?**

In what some historians believe was the most important weather prediction in military history, Group Captain James Stagg, chief meteorologist for the Royal Air Force, predicted gradual clearing for Normandy, France, on June 6, 1944. The prediction was critical for General Dwight D. Eisenhower, Supreme Commander of the Allied Expeditionary Forces. He had already delayed Operation Overlord once. The invasion forces of Operation Overlord were assembled and ready to go at a moment’s notice. Everything depended upon a break in the bad weather so that the assault would take the Germans by surprise. Eisenhower trusted the weather prediction and believed in the battle plan. The day before the invasion, however, he wrote the following note on a small piece of paper—a message he would deliver in the event the invasion failed. He mistakenly jotted “July 5” on the bottom and stuck the note in his wallet.

“**Our landings in the Cherbourg-Havre area have failed to gain a satisfactory foothold and I have withdrawn the troops. My decision to attack at this time and place was based upon the best information available. The troops, the air and the Navy did all that Bravery and devotion to duty could do. If any blame or fault attaches to the attempt it is mine alone.**”
and Utah, grimly watched the carnage, he began making plans to evacuate Omaha. Slowly, however, the American troops began to knock out the German defenses. More landing craft arrived, ramming their way through the obstacles to get to the beach. Nearly 2,500 Americans were either killed or wounded on Omaha, but by early afternoon Bradley received this message: “Troops formerly pinned down on beaches . . . are advancing up heights behind beaches.” By the end of the day, nearly 35,000 American troops had landed at Omaha, and another 23,000 had landed at Utah. Over 75,000 British and Canadian troops were on shore as well. The invasion had succeeded.

**Reading Check**  
**Summarizing** What conditions had to be met before Eisenhower could order D-Day to begin?

### Driving the Japanese Back

While the buildup for the invasion of France was taking place in Britain, American military leaders were also developing a strategy to defeat Japan. The American plan called for a two-pronged attack. The Pacific Fleet, commanded by Admiral Nimitz, would advance through the central Pacific by hopping from one island to the next, closer and closer to Japan. Meanwhile, General MacArthur’s troops would advance through the Solomon Islands, capture the north coast of New Guinea, and then launch an invasion to retake the Philippines.

### GEOGRAPHY

**Island-Hopping in the Pacific** By the fall of 1943, the navy was ready to launch its island-hopping campaign, but the geography of the central Pacific posed a problem. Many of the islands were coral reef atolls. The water over the coral reef was not always deep enough to allow landing craft to get to the shore. If the landing craft ran aground on the reef, the troops would have to wade to the beach. As some 5,000 United States Marines learned at Tarawa Atoll, wading ashore could cause very high casualties.

Tarawa, part of the Gilbert Islands, was the Navy’s first objective in the Pacific. When the landing craft hit the reef, at least 20 ships ran aground. The marines had to plunge into shoulder-high water and wade several hundred yards to the beach. Raked by Japanese fire, only one marine in three made it ashore. Once the marines reached the beach the battle was still far from over. As reporter Robert Sherrod wrote, the marines faced savage hand-to-hand fighting:

> "A Marine jumped over the seawall and began throwing blocks of fused TNT into a coconut-log pillbox . . . Two more Marines scaled the seawall, one of them carrying a twin-cylindered tank strapped to their shoulders, the other holding the nozzle of the flame thrower. As another charge of TNT boomed inside the pillbox, causing smoke and dust to billow out, a khaki-clad figure ran out the side entrance. The flame thrower, waiting for him, caught him in its withering stream of intense fire. As soon as it touched him, the [Japanese soldier] flared up like a piece of celluloid. He was dead instantly . . . charred almost to nothingness."

—from *Tarawa: The Story of a Battle*

Over 1,000 marines died on Tarawa. Photos of bodies lying crumpled next to burning landing craft shocked Americans back home. Many people began to wonder how many lives it would cost to defeat Japan.

Although many troops died wading ashore, one vehicle had been able to cross the reef and deliver its troops onto the beaches. The vehicle was the LVT—a boat with tank tracks. Nicknamed the “Alligator,” the
Amphibious tractor, or *amphtrac*, had been invented in the late 1930s to rescue people in Florida swamps. It had never been used in combat, and not until 1941 did the navy decide to buy 200 of them. Had more been available at Tarawa, the number of American casualties probably would have been much lower.

The assault on the next major objective—Kwajalein Atoll in the Marshall Islands—went much more smoothly. This time all of the troops went ashore in amphtracs. Although the Japanese resisted fiercely, the marines captured Kwajalein and nearby Eniwetok with far fewer casualties.

After the Marshall Islands, the navy targeted the Mariana Islands. American military planners wanted to use the Marianas as a base for a new heavy bomber, the B-29 Superfortress. The B-29 could fly farther than any other plane in the world. From airfields in the Marianas, B-29s could bomb Japan. Admiral Nimitz decided to invade three of the Mariana Islands: Saipan, Tinian, and Guam. Despite strong Japanese resistance, American troops captured all three by August 1944. A few months later, B-29 bombers began bombing Japan.

**MacArthur Returns to the Philippines** As the forces under Admiral Nimitz hopped across the central Pacific, General MacArthur’s troops began their own campaign in the southwest Pacific. The campaign began with the invasion of **Guadalcanal** in August 1942. It continued until early 1944, when MacArthur’s troops finally captured enough islands to surround Rabaul, the main Japanese base in the region. In response the Japanese withdrew their ships and aircraft from the base, although they left 100,000 troops behind to hold the island.

Worried that the navy’s advance across the central Pacific was leaving him behind, MacArthur ordered his forces to leap nearly 600 miles (966 km) past Rabaul to capture the Japanese base at Hollandia on
the north coast of New Guinea. Shortly after securing New Guinea, MacArthur’s troops seized the island of Morotai—the last stop before the Philippines.

To take back the Philippines, the United States assembled an enormous invasion force. In October 1944, more than 700 ships carrying over 160,000 troops sailed for Leyte Gulf in the Philippines. On October 20, the troops began to land on Leyte, an island on the eastern side of the Philippines. A few hours after the invasion began, MacArthur headed to the beach. Upon reaching the shore, he strode to a radio and spoke into the microphone: “People of the Philippines, I have returned. By the grace of Almighty God, our forces stand again on Philippine soil.”

To stop the American invasion, the Japanese sent four aircraft carriers toward the Philippines from the north and secretly dispatched another fleet to the west. Believing the Japanese carriers were leading the main attack, most of the American carriers protecting the invasion left Leyte Gulf and headed north to stop them. Seizing their chance, the Japanese warships to the west raced through the Philippine Islands into Leyte Gulf and ambushed the remaining American ships.

The Battle of Leyte Gulf was the largest naval battle in history. It was also the first time that the Japanese used kamikaze attacks. Kamikaze means “divine wind” in Japanese. It refers to the great storm that destroyed the Mongol fleet during its invasion of Japan in the thirteenth century. Kamikaze pilots would deliberately crash their planes into American ships, killing themselves but also inflicting severe damage. Luckily for the Americans, just as their situation was becoming desperate, the Japanese commander, believing more American ships were on the way, ordered a retreat.

Although the Japanese fleet had retreated, the campaign to recapture the Philippines from the Japanese was long and grueling. Over 80,000 Japanese were killed; less than 1,000 surrendered. MacArthur’s troops did not capture Manila until March 1945. The battle left the city in ruins and over 100,000 Filipino civilians dead. The remaining Japanese retreated into the rugged terrain north of Manila, and they were still fighting when word came in August 1945 that Japan had surrendered.
SLOW GOING

Allied planners had hoped that American forces landing at Omaha early on June 6, 1944, would advance 5 to 10 miles after 24 hours of fighting. Stiff German resistance, however, stopped the invaders cold on the beach. Progress inland was excruciatingly slow and painful. The Americans reached their first-day objective (dotted blue line on map) only after more than two days of bloody fighting. Despite terrible losses, American forces successfully carried out one of the most crucial missions of the war.
The selection of a site for the largest amphibious landing in history was one of the biggest decisions of World War II. Allied planners needed a sheltered location with flat, firm beaches and within range of friendly fighter planes based in England.

There had to be enough roads and paths to move jeeps and trucks off the beaches and to accommodate the hundreds of thousands of American, Canadian, and British troops set to stream ashore following the invasion. An airfield and a seaport that the Allies could use were also needed. Most important was a reasonable expectation of achieving the element of surprise.

Five beaches on the northern coast of Normandy, France, met all the criteria and were chosen as invasion sites. On D-Day the attack on four beaches—Utah in the west and Gold, Juno, and Sword in the east (inset, opposite page)—went according to plan. But at Omaha Beach (map), between Utah and Gold, the bravery and determination of the U.S. 1st Infantry Division was tested in one of the fiercest battles of the war.

Surrounded at both ends by cliffs that rose wall-like from the sea, Omaha was only four miles long. It was the only sand beach in the area, however, and thus the only place for a landing. Unless the Allies were to leave a 20-mile gap between Utah and Gold, they would have to come ashore at Omaha Beach.

To repel the Allies at the water’s edge, the Germans built a fortress atop the cliffs at Pointe du Hoc overlooking Omaha from the west. They dug trenches and guns into the 150-foot bluffs lining the beach and along five ravines leading off it (see map).

Wading into the surf, the Americans advanced toward Omaha Beach. Many men were cut down as the doors of their landing craft opened. The survivors had to cross more than 300 yards across a tidal flat strewn with man-made obstacles. Winds and a current pushed landing craft into clumps as the men moved ashore. As a result, soldiers ran onto the beach in groups and became easy targets. Of the more than 9,000 Allied casualties on D-Day, Omaha accounted for about one-third.

Although many died, the Americans took control of the beach and fought their way inland. As General Omar Bradley later wrote, “Every man who set foot on Omaha Beach that day was a hero.”

Bandaged and shell-shocked, infantrymen from the American 1st Division wait to be evacuated after landing on Omaha Beach.

D-Day Forces

- U.S. Company — 200 men
- U.S. Battalion — 900 men
- U.S. Rangers
- German infantry — forces associated with German battalion

- German resistance point
- German coastal defense
- U.S. stronghold
- Landing craft
- Landing craft — sunk
- Battleship
- Cruiser
- Transport
- Hedgerows
- Town

LEARNING FROM GEOGRAPHY

1. Why did the Allies choose Normandy as the site of the invasion?

2. Why was the landing at Omaha Beach so much more difficult than U.S. leaders expected?
In 1945 Captain Luther Fletcher entered the German concentration camp at Buchenwald with a group of Germans who were being forced to see what their country had done. In his diary Fletcher described what they witnessed:

“They saw blackened skeletons and skulls in the ovens of the crematorium. In the yard outside, they saw a heap of white human ashes and bones. . . . [The] dead were stripped of their clothing and lay naked, many stacked like cordwood waiting to be burned at the crematory. At one time 5,000 had been stacked on the vacant lot next to the crematory. . . . At headquarters of the SS troops who ran the place were lamp shades made from human skin. . . . Often, the guide said, the SS wished to make an example of someone in killing him. . . . They used what I call hay hooks, catching him under the chin and the other in the back of the neck. He hung in this manner until he died.”

—quoted in World War II: From the Battle Front to the Home Front

The Third Reich Collapses

Well before the war ended, President Roosevelt and other Allied leaders were aware that the Nazis were committing atrocities. In 1943 the Allies officially declared that they would punish the Nazis for their crimes after the war. Meanwhile, Roosevelt was convinced that the best way to put an end to the concentration camps was to destroy the Nazi regime. To do that, he believed the Allies had to dedicate their resources to breaking out of Normandy, liberating France, and conquering Germany.
Although D-Day had been a success, it was only the beginning. Surrounding many fields in Normandy were hedgerows—dirt walls, several feet thick, covered in shrubbery. The hedgerows had been built to fence in cattle and crops, but they also enabled the Germans to fiercely defend their positions. The battle of the hedgerows ended on July 25, 1944, when 2,500 American bombers blew a hole in the German lines, enabling American tanks to race through the gap.

As the Allies broke out of Normandy, the French Resistance—French civilians who had secretly organized to resist the German occupation of their country—staged a rebellion in Paris. When the Allied forces liberated Paris on August 25, they found the streets filled with French citizens celebrating their victory. Three weeks later, American troops were within 20 miles (32 km) of the German border.

**The Battle of the Bulge** As the Allies closed in on Germany, Hitler decided to stage one last desperate offensive. His goal was to cut off Allied supplies coming through the port of Antwerp, Belgium. The attack began just before dawn on December 16, 1944. Six inches (15 cm) of snow covered the ground, and the weather was bitterly cold. Moving rapidly, the Germans caught the American defenders by surprise. As the German troops raced west, their lines bulged outward, and the attack became known as the *Battle of the Bulge.*

Part of the German plan called for the capture of the town of Bastogne, where several important roads converged. If the Allies held Bastogne, it would greatly delay the German advance. American reinforcements raced to the town, arriving just ahead of the Germans. The Germans then surrounded the town and demanded that the Americans surrender. The American commander sent back a one-word reply: “Nuts!”

Shortly after the Germans surrounded the Americans, Eisenhower ordered General Patton to rescue them. Three days later, faster than anyone expected in the midst of a snowstorm, Patton’s troops slammed into the German lines. As the weather cleared, Allied aircraft began hitting German fuel depots. On Christmas Eve, out of fuel and weakened by heavy losses, the German troops driving toward Antwerp were forced to halt. Two days later, Patton’s troops broke through to Bastogne.

Although fighting continued for three weeks, the United States had won the Battle of the Bulge. On January 8, the Germans began to withdraw. They had suffered more than 100,000 casualties and lost many tanks and aircraft. They now had very little left to prevent the Allies from entering Germany.

**V-E Day: The War Ends in Europe** While American and British forces fought to liberate France, the Soviet Union began a massive attack on German troops in Russia. By the time the Battle of the Bulge ended, the Soviets had driven Hitler’s forces out of Russia and back across Poland. By February 1945, Soviet troops had reached the Oder River. They were only 35 miles (56 km) from Berlin.

As the Soviets crossed Germany’s eastern border, American forces attacked Germany’s western border. By the first week of March, 1945, American troops had fought their way to the Rhine River, Germany’s last major line of defense in the west. Then on March 7, American soldiers captured the heights above the town of Remagen. Gazing down at the town, platoon leader Emmet J. Burrows was amazed at what he saw. The Ludendorf Bridge across the Rhine was still intact. The Germans had not blown it up. The American troops raced across the bridge, driving...
back the German defenders. By the end of the day, American tanks were across the Rhine. Hearing the news, General Bradley yelled, “Hot dog... this will bust them wide open.”

As German defenses crumbled, American troops raced east, closing to within 70 miles (113 km) of Berlin. On April 10, Soviet troops finally smashed through the German defenses on the Oder River. Five days later, they reached the outskirts of Berlin. Deep in his Berlin bunker, Adolf Hitler knew the end was near. On April 30, 1945, he put a pistol in his mouth and pulled the trigger. His secretary, Martin Bormann, carried Hitler’s body outside, doused it in gasoline, and set it on fire. Before killing himself, Hitler chose Grand Admiral Karl Doenitz to be his successor. Doenitz tried to surrender to the Americans and British while continuing to fight the Soviets, but Eisenhower insisted on unconditional surrender. On May 7, 1945, Germany surrendered unconditionally. The next day—May 8, 1945—was proclaimed V-E Day, for “Victory in Europe.”

Explaining Why was the Battle of the Bulge such a disastrous defeat for Germany?

**Japan Is Defeated**

Unfortunately, President Roosevelt did not live to see the defeat of Germany. On April 12, 1945, while vacationing in Warm Springs, Georgia, he suffered a stroke and died. His vice president, Harry S Truman, became president during this difficult time.
The next day, Truman told reporters: “Boys, if you ever pray, pray for me now. . . . When they told me yesterday what had happened, I felt like the moon, the stars, and all the planets had fallen on me.” Despite feeling overwhelmed, Truman began at once to make decisions about the war. Although Germany surrendered a few weeks later, the war with Japan continued to intensify, and Truman was forced to make some of the most difficult decisions of the war during his first six months in office.

**Uncommon Valor on Iwo Jima** On November 24, 1944, bombs fell on Tokyo for the first time since the 1942 Doolittle raid. Above the city flew 80 B-29 Superfortress bombers that had traveled over 1,500 miles (2,414 km) from new American bases in the Mariana Islands.

At first the B-29s did little damage because they kept missing their targets. Japan was simply too far away: By the time the B-29s reached Japan, they did not have enough fuel left to fix their navigational errors or to adjust for high winds. The solution was to capture an island closer to Japan, where the B-29s could refuel. After studying the problem, American military planners decided to invade **Iwo Jima**.

Iwo Jima was perfectly located, roughly halfway between the Marianas and Japan, but its geography...
was formidable. At its southern tip was Mount Suribachi, a dormant volcano. The terrain was rugged, with rocky cliffs, jagged ravines, and dozens of caves. Volcanic ash covered the ground. Even worse, the Japanese had built a vast network of caves and concrete bunkers connected by miles of tunnels.

On February 19, 1945, 60,000 U.S. Marines landed on Iwo Jima. As the troops leapt from the amphtracs, they sank up to their ankles in the soft ash. Meanwhile, Japanese artillery began to pound the invaders. Robert Sherrod, who had been on Tarawa, was shocked: “[The marines] died with the greatest possible violence. Nowhere in the Pacific have I seen such badly mangled bodies. Many were cut squarely in half. Legs and arms lay 50 feet (15 m) away from any body.”

Inch by inch, the marines crawled inland, using flamethrowers and explosives to attack the Japanese bunkers. More than 6,800 marines were killed before the island was captured. Admiral Nimitz later wrote that on Iwo Jima, “uncommon valor was a common virtue.”

**Firebombing Devastates Japan** While American engineers prepared airfields on Iwo Jima, General Curtis LeMay, commander of the B-29s based in the Marianas, decided to change strategy. To help the B-29s hit their targets, he ordered them to drop bombs filled with napalm—a kind of a jellied gasoline. The bombs were designed not only to explode but also to start fires. Even if the B-29s missed their targets, the fires they started would spread to the intended targets.

The use of firebombs was very controversial because the fires would also kill civilians; however, LeMay could think of no other way to destroy Japan’s war production quickly. Loaded with firebombs, B-29s attacked Tokyo on March 9, 1945. As strong winds fanned the flames, the firestorm grew so intense that it sucked the oxygen out of the air, asphyxiating thousands. As one survivor later recalled:

> “The fires were incredible . . . with flames leaping hundreds of feet into the air. . . . Many people were gasping for breath. With every passing moment the air became more foul . . . the noise was a continuing crashing roar. . . . Fire-winds filled with burning particles rushed up and down the streets. I watched people . . . running for their lives . . . The flames raced after them like living things, striking them down. . . . Wherever I turned my eyes, I saw people . . . seeking air to breathe.”

—quoted in New History of World War II

**“uncommon valor was a common virtue”**

—Admiral Chester W. Nimitz

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**Planting the Flag** Photographer Joe Rosenthal won the Pulitzer Prize for this photo of five marines and a navy medical corpsman raising the flag on Iwo Jima. **How do you think photographs such as this one affected American morale? Why?**
The Tokyo firebombing killed over 80,000 people and destroyed more than 250,000 buildings. By the end of June 1945, Japan’s six most important industrial cities had been firebombed, destroying almost half of their total urban area. By the end of the war, the B-29s had firebombed 67 Japanese cities.

The Invasion of Okinawa Despite the massive damage the firebombing caused, there were few signs in the spring of 1945 that Japan was ready to quit. Many American officials believed the Japanese would not surrender until Japan had been invaded. To prepare for the invasion, the United States needed a base near Japan to stockpile supplies and build up troops. Iwo Jima was small and still too far away. After much discussion, military planners chose Okinawa—only 350 miles (563 km) from Japan.

American troops landed on Okinawa on April 1, 1945. Instead of defending the beaches, the Japanese troops took up positions in the island’s rugged mountains. To dig the Japanese out of their caves and bunkers, the Americans had to fight their way up steep slopes against constant machine gun and artillery fire. More than 12,000 American soldiers, sailors, and marines died during the fighting, but by June 22, 1945, Okinawa had finally been captured.

The Terms for Surrender Shortly after the United States captured Okinawa, the Japanese emperor urged his government to find a way to end the war. The biggest problem was the American demand for unconditional surrender. Many Japanese leaders were willing to surrender but on one condition—the emperor had to stay in power.

American officials knew that the fate of the emperor was the most important issue for the Japanese. Most Americans, however, blamed the emperor for the war and wanted him removed from power. President Truman was reluctant to go against public opinion. Furthermore, he knew the United States was almost ready to test a new weapon that might force Japan to surrender without any conditions. The new weapon was the atomic bomb.

The Manhattan Project In 1939 Leo Szilard, one of the world’s top physicists, learned that German scientists had split the uranium atom. Szilard had been the first scientist to suggest that splitting the atom might release enormous energy. Worried that the Nazis were working on an atomic bomb, Szilard convinced the world’s best-known physicist, Albert Einstein, to sign a letter Szilard had drafted and send it to President Roosevelt. In the letter Einstein warned that by using uranium, “extremely powerful bombs of a new type may . . . be constructed.”

Roosevelt responded by setting up a scientific committee to study the issue. The committee remained skeptical until 1941, when they met with British scientists who were already working on an atomic bomb. The British research so impressed the Americans that they convinced Roosevelt to begin a program to build an atomic bomb.

The American program to build an atomic bomb was code-named the Manhattan Project and was headed by General Leslie R. Groves. The project’s first breakthrough came in 1942, when Szilard and Enrico Fermi, another physicist, built the world’s first nuclear reactor at the University of Chicago. Groves organized a team of engineers and scientists to build an atomic bomb at a secret laboratory in Los Alamos, New Mexico. J. Robert Oppenheimer led the team. On July 16, 1945, they detonated the world’s first atomic bomb near Alamogordo, New Mexico.

The Decision to Drop the Bomb Even before the bomb was tested, American officials began to debate how to use it. Admiral William Leahy, chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, opposed using the bomb because
it killed civilians indiscriminately. He believed that an economic blockade and conventional bombing would convince Japan to surrender. Secretary of War Henry Stimson wanted to warn the Japanese about the bomb while at the same time telling them that they could keep the emperor if they surrendered. Secretary of State James Byrnes, however, wanted to drop the bomb without any warning to shock Japan into surrendering.

President Truman later wrote that he “regarded the bomb as a military weapon and never had any doubts that it should be used.” His advisers had warned him to expect massive casualties if the United States invaded Japan. Truman believed it was his duty as president to use every weapon available to save American lives.

The Allies threatened Japan with “prompt and utter destruction” if the nation did not surrender unconditionally, but the Japanese did not reply. Truman then ordered the military to drop the bomb. On August 6, 1945, a B-29 bomber named the Enola Gay dropped an atomic bomb, code-named “Little Boy,” on Hiroshima, an important industrial city. The bomb was dropped at 8:15 A.M. Forty-three seconds later, it exploded. Heat, radiation, and an enormous shock wave slammed into Hiroshima.

The bomb destroyed 76,000 buildings—about 63 percent of the city. Somewhere between 80,000 and 120,000 people died instantly, and thousands more died later from burns and radiation sickness. Everywhere, as witness Nozaki Kiyoshi recalled, were “horrific scenes”:

—quoted in Senso: The Japanese Remember the Pacific War

**Different Viewpoints**

**Dropping the Atomic Bomb: Was It the Right Decision?**

More than half a century later, people continue to debate what some historians have called the most important event of the twentieth century—President Truman’s order to drop the atomic bomb on Japan. Did his momentous decision shorten the war and save lives on both sides, or was it prompted by Truman’s fear that the Soviet Union, poised to invade, would gain control of Japan after the war?

A historian opposes Truman’s decision:

Historian Gar Alperovitz maintains that Truman possessed alternatives to the atomic bomb but chose to use the weapon in order to force Japan’s surrender before the Soviet Union could mount an invasion and subsequently occupy Japanese territory.

“Quite simply, it is not true that the atomic bomb was used because it was the only way to save the ‘hundreds of thousands’ or ‘millions’ of lives as was subsequently claimed. The readily available options were to modify the surrender terms and/or await the shock of the Russian attack.

Perhaps it is here, most poignantly, that we confront our own reluctance to ask the difficult questions—for even if one were to accept the most inflated estimates of lives saved by the atomic bomb, the fact remains that it was an act of violent destruction aimed at large concentrations of noncombatants.”

—quoted in The Decision to Use the Atomic Bomb, and the Architecture of an American Myth

**Hiroshima in the aftermath of the atomic bomb**
The bombing stunned Japan. Three days later, on August 9, the Soviet Union declared war on Japan. Later that day, the United States dropped another atomic bomb, code-named “Fat Man,” on the city of Nagasaki, killing between 35,000 and 74,000 people.

Faced with such massive destruction and the shock of the Soviets joining the war, the Japanese emperor ordered his government to surrender. On August 15, 1945—V-J Day—Japan surrendered. On the other side of the world, Americans celebrated. For American soldiers the news was especially good. As one veteran recalled: “We would not be obliged to run up the beaches near Tokyo assault firing while being mortared and shelled. . . . We were going to live. We were going to grow up to adulthood after all.” The long war was finally over. The United States and its allies, after a tremendous effort, had freed Europe from Nazi tyranny and put an end to Japanese aggression in Asia.

Reading Check Analyzing What issues did Truman consider before using the atomic bomb?

A historian defends Truman’s decision:

Historian Herbert Feis argues that Truman’s desire to avoid an invasion of Japan, thus saving thousands of lives on both sides, motivated his decision to drop the bomb. “Our right, legal and historical, to use the bomb may thus well be defended; but those who made the decision to use it were not much concerned over these considerations, taking them for granted. Their thoughts about its employment were governed by one reason which was deemed imperative: that by using the bomb, the agony of war might be ended more quickly.

The primary and sustaining aim from the start of the great exertion to make the bomb was military, and the impelling reason for the decision to use it was military—to end the war victoriously as soon as possible.”

—quoted in Japan Subdued: The Atomic Bomb and the End of the War in the Pacific

Building a New World

Well before the war ended, President Roosevelt had begun to think about what the world would be like after the war. The president had wanted to ensure that war would never again engulf the world.

Creating the United Nations President Roosevelt believed that a new international political organization could prevent another world war. In 1944, at the Dumbarton Oaks Estate in Washington, D.C., delegates from 39 countries met to discuss the new organization, which was to be called the United Nations (UN).

The delegates at the conference agreed that the UN would have a General Assembly, where every member nation in the world would have one vote. The UN would also have a Security Council with 11 members. Five countries would be permanent members of the Security Council: Britain, France, China, the Soviet Union, and the United States—the five big powers that had led the fight against the Axis. These five permanent members would each have veto power.

On April 25, 1945, representatives from 50 countries came to San Francisco to officially organize the United Nations and design its charter, or constitution. The General Assembly was given the power to vote on resolutions, to choose the non-permanent members of the Security Council, and to vote on the UN budget. The Security Council was responsible for international peace and security. It could investigate any international problem and propose settlements to countries that had disputes with each other. It could also take action to preserve the peace, including asking its members to use military force to uphold a UN resolution.
Putting the Enemy on Trial  Although the Allies had declared their intention to punish German and Japanese leaders for their war crimes, they did not work out the details until the summer of 1945. In early August, the United States, Britain, France, and the Soviet Union created the International Military Tribunal (IMT). At the Nuremberg trials in Nuremberg, Germany, the IMT tried German leaders suspected of committing war crimes.

Twenty-two leaders of Nazi Germany were prosecuted at Nuremberg. Three were acquitted and another seven were given prison sentences. The remaining 12 were sentenced to death by hanging. Trials of lower-ranking government officials and military officers continued until April 1949. Those trials led to the execution of 24 more German leaders. Another 107 were given prison sentences.

Similar trials were held in Tokyo for the leaders of wartime Japan. The IMT for the Far East charged 25 Japanese leaders with a variety of war crimes. Significantly, the Allies did not indict the Japanese emperor. They feared that any attempt to put him on trial would lead to an uprising by the Japanese people. Eighteen Japanese defendants were sentenced to prison. The rest were sentenced to death by hanging.

The war crimes trials punished many of the people responsible for World War II and the Holocaust, but they were also part of the American plan for building a better world. As Robert Jackson, chief counsel for the United States at Nuremberg, observed in his opening statement to the court: “The wrongs 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.”
We drove past a barbed-wire fence, through a gate, and into an open space where trunks and sacks and packages had been dumped from the baggage trucks that drove out ahead of us. I could see a few tents set up, the first rows of black barracks, and beyond them . . . rows of barracks that seemed to spread for miles across the plain. People were sitting on cartons or milling around . . . waiting to see which friends or relatives might be on this bus . . .

We had pulled up just in time for dinner. The mess halls weren’t completed yet. . . . They issued us army mess kits, the round metal kind that fold over, and plopped in scoops of canned Vienna sausage, canned string beans, steamed rice that had been cooked too long, and on top of the rice a serving of canned apricots. The caucasian servers were thinking that the fruit poured over rice would make a dessert. Among the Japanese, of course, rice is never eaten with sweet foods, only with salty or savory foods . . .

After dinner we were taken to Block 16, a cluster of fifteen barracks. . . . The shacks were built of one thickness of pine planking covered with tarpaper. . . . We were assigned two of these for the twelve people in our family group; and our official family “number” was enlarged by three digits—16 plus the number of this barracks. We were issued steel army cots, two brown army blankets, each, and some mattress covers, which my brothers stuffed with straw.
Reviewing Key Facts

15. What was the “Double V” campaign?

16. How did the war change patterns of population movement and settlement in the United States?

17. How did the war effort change employment opportunities for women and African Americans?

18. Why was the Doolittle raid so important to Americans?

19. How did the American government ensure that there were enough necessities to supply the war effort?

20. Why did the United States adopt a policy of island-hopping in the Pacific?

21. Explain the significance of the following dates in American history: 1941–1945.

22. Why were the victories on Iwo Jima and Okinawa so vital to the Allies?

23. What did the Allies do to punish Axis leaders after the war?

Critical Thinking
24. Interpreting Primary Sources Many historians believe that the civil rights movement of the 1950s and 1960s had its roots in the Double V campaign and the March on Washington. Alexander Allen, a member of the Urban League during the war, believed that World War II was a turning point for African Americans. Read the excerpt and answer the questions that follow.

Up to that point the doors to industrial and economic opportunity were largely closed. Under the pressure of war, the pressures of government policy, the pressures of world opinion, the pressures of blacks themselves and their allies, all this began to change. . . . The war forced the federal government to take a stronger position with reference to discrimination, and things began to change as a result. There was a tremendous attitudinal change that grew out of the war. There had been a new experience for blacks, and many weren’t willing to go back to the way it was before.

—quoted in *Wartime America*

a. How did the war change the status of African Americans in American society?

b. Why do you think the war forced the government to take a stronger position on discrimination in the workplace?

25. Analyzing Themes: Global Connections How did World War II underscore the importance of an international organization such as the United Nations?
26. **Analyzing Effects** Do you think the opportunities that opened up for women during World War II would have developed if the United States had stayed out of the war? Explain your answer.

27. **Synthesizing** Why do you think the United States was able to successfully fight a war on multiple fronts?

28. **Categorizing** Use a concept web similar to the one below to list the major campaigns in the Pacific and in Europe.

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  Pacific
  /     \
 /       \
Europe
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29. **Practicing Skills**

   **Reading a Thematic Map** Study the map of migration patterns on page 627. Then use the steps you learned about reading thematic maps on page 624 to answer the following questions.

   a. **Interpreting Maps** Which regions had a net loss of residents to other regions during this period?

   b. **Synthesizing Information** How were the locations of the four fastest growing cities similar?

30. **Chapter Activities**

   a. **Research Project** Use library or Internet resources to find information on the United Nations today. Use what you find to design an illustrated brochure highlighting the organization’s work.

   b. **Analyzing Geographic Patterns and Distributions** Look at the chart on Military and Civilian Deaths in World War II found on page 643. Create a thematic map indicating each country and the deaths that occurred there. Then write a quiz based on the chart about the distribution of casualties around the world and the patterns this suggests.

31. **Writing Activity**

   a. **Persuasive Writing** Assume the role of an immigrant who fled Fascist Europe in 1933 and who has become a U.S. citizen. You have just read about the proposed United Nations, and you want to write your senator to urge that the United States join the organization or boycott it. Choose which position you support, and write a letter trying to convince the senator to support your position.

   **Test-Taking Tip:** Use the process of elimination to rule out answers you know are wrong. For example, it is unlikely that a non-aggression pact between Russia and Germany would cause Britain and France to declare war.

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**Geography and History**

33. The map above shows troop movements at the Battle of the Bulge. Study the map and answer the following questions.

   a. **Interpreting Maps** At what location did the Germans surround American forces on December 25?

   b. **Applying Geography Skills** What geographic features did the Germans encounter as they attacked? What information on the map shows you this?