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WITHDRAWAL SHEET
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DOCUMENT NO. AND TYPE	SUBJECT/TITLE	DATE	RESTRICTION
1. memo	Peggy Noonan to Ben Elliott re Pointe du Hoc changes (1 pp.)	5/30/84	~~P5~~ OO 12/20/00

RESTRICTION CODES

Presidential Records Act - [44 U.S.C. 2204(a)]
- P-1 National security classified information [(a)(1) of the PRA].
- P-2 Relating to appointment to Federal office [(a)(2) of the PRA].
- P-3 Release would violate a Federal statute [(a)(3) of the PRA].
- P-4 Release would disclose trade secrets or confidential commercial or financial information [(a)(4) of the PRA].
- P-5 Release would disclose confidential advice between the President and his advisors, or between such advisors [(a)(5) of the PRA].
- P-6 Release would constitute a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy [(a)(6) of the PRA].
- C. Closed in accordance with restrictions contained in donor's deed of gift.

Freedom of Information Act - [5 U.S.C. 552(b)]
- F-1 National security classified information [(b)(1) of the FOIA].
- F-2 Release could disclose internal personnel rules and practices of an agency [(b)(2) of the FOIA].
- F-3 Release would violate a Federal statue [(b)(3) of the FOIA].
- F-4 Release would disclose trade secrets or confidential commercial or financial information [(b)(4) of the FOIA].
- F-6 Release would constitute a clearly unwarranted invasion of personal privacy [(b)(6) of the FOIA].
- F-7 Release would disclose information compiled for law enforcement purposes [(b)(7) of the FOIA].
- F-8 Release would disclose information concerning the regulation of financial institutions [(b)(8) of the FOIA].
- F-9 Release would disclose geological or geophysical information concerning wells [(b)(9) of the FOIA].

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WORLD WAR II

As World War II opens with the Nazi attack on Poland in September 1939, German troops advance along a deeply rutted, sandy road toward Warsaw.

Bibliothek für Zeitgeschichte, Stuttgart

WORLD WAR II, the name commonly given to the global conflict of 1939–1945. It was the greatest and most destructive war in history. Whereas military operations in World War I were conducted primarily on the European continent, World War II included gigantic struggles not only in Europe but in Asia, Africa, and the far-flung islands of the Pacific as well. More than 17 million members of the armed forces of the various belligerents perished during the conflict. Its conduct strained the economic capabilities of the major nations and left many countries on the edge of collapse.

The events leading to World War II, its military operations, diplomacy, statistical data, and results, are discussed under the following headings:

1. The War in Brief
2. Between World Wars
3. Early Campaigns
4. Fall of the Low Countries and France
5. Recovery of France and Advance into Germany
6. German Invasion of the USSR
7. Balkan Campaigns
8. Mediterranean Operations
9. War in the Southern and Southwestern Pacific
10. War in the Central and Northern Pacific
11. War in Eastern Asia
12. Developments in Naval Warfare
13. Developments in Air Warfare
14. Diplomatic History
15. Postwar World
16. Chronology
17. Costs, Casualties, and Other Data
18. Bibliography

1. The War in Brief

Events Leading to War.—At the end of World War I the victorious nations formed the League of Nations for the purpose of airing international disputes, and of mobilizing its members for a collective effort to keep the peace in the event of aggression by any nation against another or of a breach of the peace treaties. The United States, imbued with isolationism, did not become a member. The League failed in its first test. In 1931 the Japanese, using as an excuse the explosion of a small bomb under a section of track of the South Manchuria Railroad (over which they had virtual control), initiated military operations designed to conquer all of Manchuria. After receiving the report of its commission of inquiry, the League adopted a resolution in 1933 calling on the Japanese to withdraw. Thereupon, Japan resigned from the League. Meanwhile, Manchuria had been overrun and transformed into a Japanese puppet state under the name of Manchukuo. Beset by friction and dissension among its members, the League took no further action.

In 1933 also, Adolf Hitler came to power as dictator of Germany and began to rearm the country in contravention of the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles. He denounced the provisions of that treaty that limited German armament and in 1935 reinstituted compulsory military service. That year the Italian dictator Benito Mussolini began his long-contemplated invasion of Ethiopia, which he desired as an economic colony. The League voted minor sanctions against Italy, but these had slight practical effect. British and French efforts to effect a compromise settlement failed, and Ethiopia was completely occupied by the Italians in 1936.

Alarmed by German rearmament, France sought an alliance with the USSR. Under the pretext that this endangered Germany, Hitler remilitarized the Rhineland in 1936. It was a dangerous venture, for Britain and France could have overwhelmed Germany, but, resolved to keep the peace, they took no action. Emboldened by this success, Hitler intensified his campaign for *Lebensraum* (space for living) for the German people. He forcibly annexed Austria in March 1938, and then, charging abuse of German minorities, threatened Czechoslovakia. In September, as Hitler increased his demands on the Czechs and war seemed imminent, the British and French arranged a conference with Hitler and Mussolini. At the Munich Conference they agreed to German occupation of the Sudetenland, Hitler's asserted last claim, in the hope of maintaining peace. This hope was short lived, for in March 1939, Hitler took over the rest of Czechoslovakia and seized the former German port of Memel (Klaipėda) from Lithuania. There followed demands on Poland with regard to Danzig (Gdánsk) and the Polish Corridor. The Poles remained adamant, and it became clear to Hitler that he could attain his objectives only by force. After surprising the world with the announcement of a nonaggression pact with his sworn foe, the Soviet Union, he sent his armies across the Polish border on Sept. 1, 1939. Britain and France, pledged to support

ENCYCLOPEDIA AMERICANA 1977 ed.
Vol. 29

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***Above:* Installations at Wheeler Field burn, viewed from a Japanese plane attacking Pearl Harbor on Dec. 7, 1941.**

Poland in the event of aggression, declared war on Germany two days later.

As the Germans ravaged Poland, the Russians moved into the eastern part of the country and began the process that was to lead to the absorption in 1940 of Latvia, Estonia, and Lithuania. They also made demands on Finland. The recalcitrant Finns were subdued in the Winter War of 1939–1940, but only after dealing the Russians several humiliating military reverses.

Meanwhile, Japan had undertaken military operations for the subjugation of China proper, and was making preparations for the expansion of its empire into Southeast Asia and the rich island groups of the Southwest Pacific. Mussolini watched the progress of his fellow dictator, Hitler, while preparing to join in the war at a propitious moment.

Military Course of the War.—The bitter struggles and the enormous casualties suffered by Great Britain and France in World War I had engendered in their military leaders a defensive attitude with a reliance on such permanent fortifications as the Maginot Line and on blockade as means of subduing a resurgent Germany. Placing their faith in the impotent League of Nations, both countries neglected the development of armaments and allowed those they possessed and their armed forces to deteriorate. The Germans, on the other hand, smarting under their failure in World War I to capitalize on initial breakthroughs of the Allied lines because of lack of sustained power, developed fast, hard-hitting tank-airplane forces and the strategy of the blitzkrieg (lightning war). Since they had been disarmed by the Allies, they were unencumbered by obsolescent armaments and could equip their forces with the most modern weapons. As a result, initial German operations met with surprisingly rapid success.

In less than a month, Poland had been conquered. There followed an inactive period (dubbed the Phony War) that lasted until April 1940. Then, despite Allied intervention, the Germans quickly seized Denmark and Norway. In May the blitzkrieg struck the western front in all its fury. Within six weeks the British had been driven from the Continent, and the French had been forced to surrender. The speed of the ad-

Pix Inc.

***Above:* Defeated German soldiers are captured by Soviet forces in November 1942 at the Battle of Stalingrad.**

***Below:* American soldiers go ashore in Normandy as Allies begin reconquest of France in June 1944.**

Agence France Presse from Pictorial

vance also surprised Hitler, who was not ready to follow his success with an invasion of the British Isles. The Luftwaffe, called upon to soften the islands and gain air superiority while preparations were made for invasion, received a stunning defeat at the hands of the small but highly competent and brave Royal Air Force. Frustrated in the west, Hitler turned against the USSR in June 1941. In a series of brilliant military maneuvers in which several million Russians were captured, he reached the gates of Moscow in December, only to be stopped by bad weather and Russian reinforcements rushed to defend the city.

Meanwhile, Mussolini sought to realize his dream of an Italian Mediterranean empire. In the late summer and fall of 1940 he launched an offensive from Libya against the British in Egypt and an invasion of Greece from Albania (which he had occupied in 1939). Both enterprises eventually proved disastrous for the Italians, and German forces were sent to their rescue. Greece fell to the Germans, but they met stiff British opposition in Africa. In December 1941, Japan thought the time ripe to extend her empire into a Greater East Asia Coprosperity Sphere (see Map 35), which it did very rapidly against meager opposition. It was the Japanese plan to fortify this area so strongly as to withstand American counterattacks and eventually gain a negotiated peace based on the status quo. The attacks on Pearl Harbor and the Philippines brought the United States into the war and greatly altered the balance of power in favor of the Allies.

The year 1942 saw the turn of the tide for the Allies. In June, Japanese naval airpower was decimated by the United States Navy in the Battle of Midway. Having been repulsed at Moscow, Hitler turned to the Caucasus, but the Germans were severely defeated and turned back at Stalingrad (now Volgograd) by the Russians in the closing months of the year. At the same time the British dealt the Germans and Italians a defeat at El Alamein that sent them reeling in retreat westward along the African Mediterranean coast. In Tunisia they encountered newly landed British and American forces and were expelled from Africa in May 1943.

The Allies now had the initiative and, with the vast production facilities of the United States in full operation, took the offensive on all fronts. Resistance was bitter, and progress slow though inexorable. From bases in Africa the Allies invaded and captured Sicily in July–August 1943. In September, Italy was forced out of the war. British[1], American, and French forces began a methodical and relentless advance up the Italian Peninsula against the Germans, who had been rushed in to defend it. After Stalingrad the Russians, in a series of alternating offensives, gradually forced the Germans back with heavy losses, until by late April 1945 they were approaching Berlin.

Following a massive buildup of troops, air and naval power, and equipment in the British Isles, American, British, and French troops landed on the Normandy coast of France in June 1944 and pressed the Germans back to the West Wall. There, in December, the Germans launched a final counterattack, which failed. Aided by troops landed in southern France from Italy, the Allies forced the Germans back across the Rhine River and deep into Germany. Assailed on all sides, and their major cities devastated by aerial bombardment, the Germans surrendered on May 7, 1945.

Because of a lack of resources, Allied strategy had envisioned the prior defeat of Germany while remaining on the defensive against the Japanese. Only after victory in Europe would the full Allied power be applied to Japan. American industrial production increased so rapidly, however, that limited offensives could be initiated against the Japanese as early as August 1942. Thereafter, a persistent two-pronged offensive across the Central Pacific and along the Solomon Islands-New Guinea axis steadily pushed the Japanese back. By the fall of 1944, American forces were landing in the Philippines, and they regained the islands the next spring. Then the island of Okinawa, at the threshold of Japan proper, was captured, and preparations were begun for the invasion of the home islands. Meanwhile, the Japanese position in Asia progressively deteriorated. By the summer of 1945, with its navy and air force virtually destroyed, its cities at the mercy of American aircraft, and cut off from sources of supply of much-needed raw materials, the Japanese foresaw doom. The dropping of two atomic bombs on Japanese cities and the Soviet invasion of Manchuria hastened their decision to capitulate, which they did on August 14.

Diplomatic History of the War and Postwar Period.—The League of Nations having failed through inertia and internal discord to prevent war, the major powers aligned themselves in rival groups. In September 1940, Germany, Italy, and Japan signed the Tripartite Pact in Berlin, formalizing the Axis coalition. Hitler's invasion forced the Russians into the Franco-British camp. As the war progressed, the United States departed from its policy of strict neutrality and rendered greater and greater aid short of war to the beleaguered Allies. Blocked in negotiations with the United States from furthering its aims of expansion, Japan attacked the American base at Pearl Harbor in December 1941 and forced the United States into the war.

Meanwhile, in August 1941, Franklin D. Roosevelt and Winston Churchill met on shipboard off Newfoundland and subsequently issued the Atlantic Charter, in which they subscribed to certain general principles for achieving peace. The charter forbade territorial changes contrary to the wishes of the inhabitants; recognized the right of people to choose their own forms of government; promised greater freedom of trade and of the seas; and supported international cooperation to improve conditions of labor and social security. Armaments were to be reduced, and a permanent system of general security was to be created. The aggressor nations were to be disarmed. On Jan. 1, 1942, the United States, Great Britain, France, the USSR, China, and 21 other countries signed in Washington the Declaration by United Nations, pledging mutual assistance and promising not to enter into separate armistice or peace negotiations with the Axis powers. The member nations also subscribed to the Atlantic Charter's purposes and principles.

At the Casablanca Conference in January 1943, Roosevelt and Churchill—most probably to allay Joseph Stalin's suspicions of the loyalty of his allies—proclaimed a policy of unconditional surrender for Germany, Italy, and Japan as the only means of maintaining the peace. This policy may have prolonged the war, but it solidified the

[1] The term "British," as applied to military forces, includes where appropriate other Commonwealth forces—Canadian, Australian, New Zealand, South African, and Indian—which performed outstandingly during the war.

Allied nations and may have forestalled Soviet efforts toward a separate peace with Germany in 1943.

At the Teheran Conference in late 1943, Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin agreed on broad principles of operation for an international organization to mediate differences between nations and maintain peace. At Dumbarton Oaks in Washington in the fall of 1944 details were worked out, and it was decided to call the new organization the United Nations. The San Francisco Conference convened on April 25, 1945, to organize the United Nations; its charter was adopted unanimously on June 26.

War's end found the United States and the USSR the two greatest powers in the world. By the time of the signing of the Axis satellite treaties early in 1947, the two countries were drawing apart. Friction over the treaties with Austria, Germany, and Japan and Soviet aggressive designs in eastern Europe brought increasing tension, and by the end of 1948 their relationship could be considered one of cold war. In 1950 armed conflict arose in Korea between Soviet-backed Communist forces and United Nations forces led by the United States. The cold war between the East and West continued thereafter, with the Communists striving for world domination through subversion and infiltration, and the West seeking to frustrate their designs.

VINCENT J. ESPOSITO,
Colonel, United States Army; Head, Department of Military Art, United States Military Academy.

2. Between World Wars

After World War I representatives of the victorious powers met in Paris to devise a peace settlement that would protect future generations from another such conflict. All agreed that a new framework or system was needed in international relations. Each power, however, had different views as to what that framework should be. From their compromises emerged treaties of peace, the chief of which was that with defeated Germany signed at Versailles on June 28, 1919. Based on the assumption that Germany and her allies had been the disturbers of the status quo, these treaties attempted to place curbs on their future actions. Articles 160, 180, 181, and 198 of the Treaty of Versailles, for example, forbade Germany to have an army of more than 100,000 men, a fleet of more than 36 combatant vessels, or any submarines or military or naval aircraft, or to maintain fortifications or military installations within 50 kilometers of the east bank of the Rhine. In addition, the defeated states were to be required to pay large sums as reparations for damages that the victors had suffered during the war.

But these punitive clauses were not supposed to form the keystone of the new system. That was to be the League of Nations, the organization whose Covenant was incorporated in the Treaty of Versailles and in the treaties of St.-Germain-en-Laye with Austria, of Neuilly with Bulgaria, of Trianon with Hungary, and of Sèvres with Turkey (superseded by the Treaty of Lausanne). With the victorious nations as the original members of the League and with provision for the admission of other states, including eventually even the Germans and those who had been on their side, its Assembly was expected to provide a forum for the airing of all international issues. In the event of any aggression by one state against another or any breach of one of the peace treaties, its Council was to mobilize all members, large and small, for a collective effort to keep the peace.

Neither the punitive clauses of the treaties nor the Covenant worked out quite as their authors had hoped. Although the Germans complied with most of the restrictions imposed on them, they recovered rapidly in relative strength. At Rapallo on April 16, 1922, they signed with the other outcast of Europe, the Bolshevik USSR, a treaty providing for mutual renunciation of claims and future economic cooperation. The victors meanwhile fell out. The British and French disagreed about Middle Eastern issues and about the amount of reparations that should be exacted from Germany. So sharp did their exchanges become that by 1923 it was commonly assumed that if there were another war it might well be one between Britain and France. As for the United States, its Senate declined to ratify the Treaty of Versailles; it took no part in the League and withdrew into self-imposed isolation, denying that it bore any responsibility for the maintenance of peace in Europe.

By the latter part of the 1920's, the guarantees of peace were somewhat different from those that had been envisioned in 1919. The articles of the Treaty of Versailles designed to keep Germany in check were supplemented by defensive alliances between France and certain of Germany's eastern neighbors: Poland (Feb. 19, 1921) and the nations of the Little Entente, Czechoslovakia (Jan. 25, 1924), Rumania (June 10, 1926), and Yugoslavia (Nov. 11, 1927). At a conference held in Locarno on Oct. 5–16, 1925, the German government entered into treaties (signed in London on December 1) with France, Britain, Belgium, and Italy, guaranteeing the existing Franco-Belgian-German frontiers. On Sept. 8, 1926, Germany was admitted to the League. The peace thus rested on three sets of undertakings: the pledges of mutual support between France and her allies, the guarantees exchanged at Locarno, and the promises of collective action made by those nations that subscribed to the Covenant. Events of 1931 and later years were to prove all these safeguards frail.

See also LOCARNO, PACT OF; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF; WORLD WAR I—*16. The Postwar World.*

BREAKDOWN OF THE VERSAILLES SYSTEM

Manchurian Incident.—On Sept. 18, 1931, a small bomb exploded underneath a section of track on the South Manchuria Railroad. The Japanese Army, which under long-standing agreements policed the railroad, used this incident as a pretext for launching operations aimed at conquering all of Manchuria for Japan. The Chinese government, which had nominal sovereignty over the area, protested to the League of Nations. Some supporters of the principle of collective security saw an opportunity for the League to prove that it was capable of stopping an aggressor. The majority of member governments, however, did not, feeling that the fate of Manchuria was not of vital concern to them, or that the Japanese had some justice on their side, or that action by the League might harm moderates in Tokyo who were trying to hold the army in check. In the upshot the Council passed two resolutions, one on September 30 and the other on October 23,

NATIONALISM; NAVAL CONFERENCES; TWENTIETH CENTURY.

ERNEST R. MAY,
Associate Professor of History, Harvard University.

3. Early Campaigns

POLAND

Approach to Conflict.—On March 25, 1939, 10 days after he had completely dismembered Czechoslovakia, Adolf Hitler told the chief of the High Command of the Armed Forces (*Oberkommando der Wehrmacht* or OKW), Col. Gen. (later Field Marshal) Wilhelm Keitel, and the commander in chief of the army, Col. Gen. (later Field Marshal) Walther von Brauchitsch, that the time had come to consider solving the Polish problem by military means. A week later, on April 3, Part 2 of the annual directive for the German armed forces, drafted by Hitler himself, set forth a strategic outline for an attack on Poland to be prepared by Sept. 1, 1939. On April 28, in his first open move, Hitler abrogated the Polish-German nonaggression treaty of 1934 and declared that the issue of Danzig (Gdańsk) must be settled. Hitler's turning against Poland surprised no one. On March 31, the British government, attempting to forestall the German dictator, had given a unilateral guarantee of Poland's territorial integrity. (France had a military alliance with Poland dating back to 1921.)

Without hesitating, Hitler pressed forward. At a staff conference held on May 23, he stated that a repetition of the Czech affair was not to be expected. Further successes and the expansion of German *Lebensraum* (space for living) could not be achieved without bloodshed. There would be war. Observers had noted after the Munich Conference (q.v.) of 1938 that the negotiated settlement had angered Hitler. He had wanted a chance to test the new Wehrmacht in action, and he was now determined to have it against Poland. This was the new element in the crisis which Hitler carefully nurtured through the spring and summer of 1939. He did not wish another Munich, but he did wish to cajole, frighten, or simply confuse the British and French sufficiently to keep them from intervening in the neat, small war that he intended to have with his neighbor on the east.

Poland, not a great power, with a population of 35,000,000 was also not a minor nation. In maintaining its national existence against foreign threats, it labored under several handicaps: approximately 10,000,000 of its people were non-Polish, its industrial base was weak, and it included in its boundaries on the north (Polish Corridor, q.v.) and on the east territory to which Germany and the Soviet Union could lay strong claims on ethnic and historical grounds. Polish policy as conducted by President Ignacy Mościcki and Foreign Minister Józef Beck was to stand firm against all of Hitler's demands. The Polish government drew encouragement from the French alliance, the British guarantee, and, apparently, from an underestimate of German strength and an overestimate of its own capabilities.

In the game Hitler started, the Soviet Union could, if it wished, play the last trump. Fear of a two-front war haunted the German military, and even Hitler would not at this time have risked fighting both the Western powers and the Soviet Union. In mid-April 1939, the USSR began negotiations with both sides. The British and French courted the Russians, but Joseph Stalin was not eager for trouble with Germany. The Russians made the overtures to Germany, first suggesting that the ideological conflict between nazism and communism need not be a bar to a general agreement, and then hinting that the Soviet Union would consider another partition of Poland. Hitler was cool toward these proposals until he realized that the Russians were not merely trying to make use of Germany to raise the price they could extract from the British and the French. His bargaining position was strong: the Soviet Union might have to fight for the Western powers, but all it needed to do for Hitler was to remain neutral and gather in the spoils. How well the Russians appraised the situation was demonstrated on May 3, when Maksim M. Litvinov, a Jew and a long-time advocate of international measures to restrain aggression, was suddenly dismissed as commissar of foreign affairs and replaced by Vyacheslav M. Molotov.

In July 1939, under the guise of conducting summer maneuvers, strong German forces moved into assembly areas on the Polish border. Others were sent to East Prussia on the pretext that they were to take part in celebrating the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Battle of Tannenberg (now Stębark). In the first three weeks of August, German-inspired civil disorders broke out in Danzig and the Polish Corridor, and the remaining units scheduled to participate in the attack moved up to the border. On August 22, Hitler assembled the generals who would command the larger units and told them that the time was ripe to resolve the differences with Poland by war and to test the new German military machine. He predicted that Great Britain and France would not intervene. He intended to begin the attack on August 26.

In Moscow on the night of August 23, Foreign Minister Joachim von Ribbentrop agreed to the final wording of the German-Soviet Nonaggression Treaty, later known as the Nazi-Soviet Pact. A secret protocol placed Finland, Estonia, and Latvia in the Soviet sphere of interest and Lithuania in the German. The border of the Soviet and German spheres in Poland was established on the Narew (Narev), Vistula (Visla), and San rivers. Because time was pressing for Germany, the treaty was to go into effect as soon as it had been signed.

In a last attempt to intimidate Hitler, Great Britain announced on August 25 that she had entered into a full-fledged alliance with Poland. On the same day, Hitler's ally Benito Mussolini informed him that Italy would not be able to take part militarily in any forthcoming war. These two reverses were not significant enough to deter Hitler, but they did cause him to hesitate. He canceled the August 26 starting date for the attack. For the next six days all of his moves were directed toward two objectives: the division of Poland and the West by various schemes and proposals for negotiations which he knew the Poles would not accept; and the undermining of French and British confidence by means of the recent agreement with the Soviet Union.

On August 31, Hitler signed Directive No. [illegible] for the Conduct of the War. During the night SS units staged "incidents" along the border, of which the most notorious was an alleged raid on the radio station at Gleiwitz (now Gliwice) in Silesia. Before sunrise on the next morning, Sept. 1, 1939, the war began as the German armies marched into Poland. Two days later, when Great Britain and France declared war, Hitler said to

Motorized German soldiers tak
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captured on Sept. 3, 1939, in th
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Wide Worl

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Army Group South under Col
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Motorized German soldiers take diverging paths near Bydgoszcz, captured on Sept. 3, 1939, in the Nazi invasion of Poland.

Wide World

Ribbentrop, ". . . it does not mean they will fight."

See also section 2. *Between World Wars.*

German War Plan.—The fundamental concept of the German plan was to fight a short war that would be over before the British or French armies could get into action—over, in fact, before the Western powers could even make up their minds to fight. The plan was given its final form in an operation order issued by the Army High Command (*Oberkommando des Heeres* or OKH) on June 15. The order provided for two groups of armies, Army Group North commanded by Col. Gen. (later Field Marshal) Fedor von Bock and Army Group South under Col. Gen. (later Field Marshal) Gerd von Rundstedt.

Army Group North was to strike eastward from Pomerania (Pomorze) into the Polish Corridor with one of its two armies, the Fourth Army. The other, the Third Army, would strike westward from East Prussia into the corridor and southward toward Warsaw (Warszawa). When the armies had made contact in the corridor, they would both turn their full strength toward the capital. Army Group South, with the Eighth, Tenth, and Fourteenth armies, was to advance to the northeast from Silesia and Slovakia. The Tenth Army, the strongest of the three, would strike directly toward Warsaw, while the Eighth and Fourteenth armies covered its left and right flanks, respectively. The junction of the Tenth Army with elements of Army Group North at Warsaw would complete the encirclement of any forces in western Poland that had not been destroyed before then. This presumably would end the war. Bock proposed extending the arms of the encirclement east of Warsaw to prevent Polish troops' escaping into the Pripet (Pripyat) Marshes, but nothing was done about this suggestion until after the campaign had begun.

The strength of Army Group North was 630,000 men; that of Army Group South, 886,000. Army Group North was supported by the First Air Force, which controlled 500 bombers, 180 dive bombers (Stukas), and 120 fighters. The Fourth Air Force supported Army Group South with 310 bombers, 160 dive bombers, and 120 fighters. The Air Force High Command (*Oberkommando der Luftwaffe* or OKL) held in reserve 250 Ju-52 transports for paratroop operations. The navy intended to use the World War I battleship *Schleswig-Holstein,* 3 cruisers, and flotillas of destroyers to bombard shore installations at Gdynia and Hel (Hela).

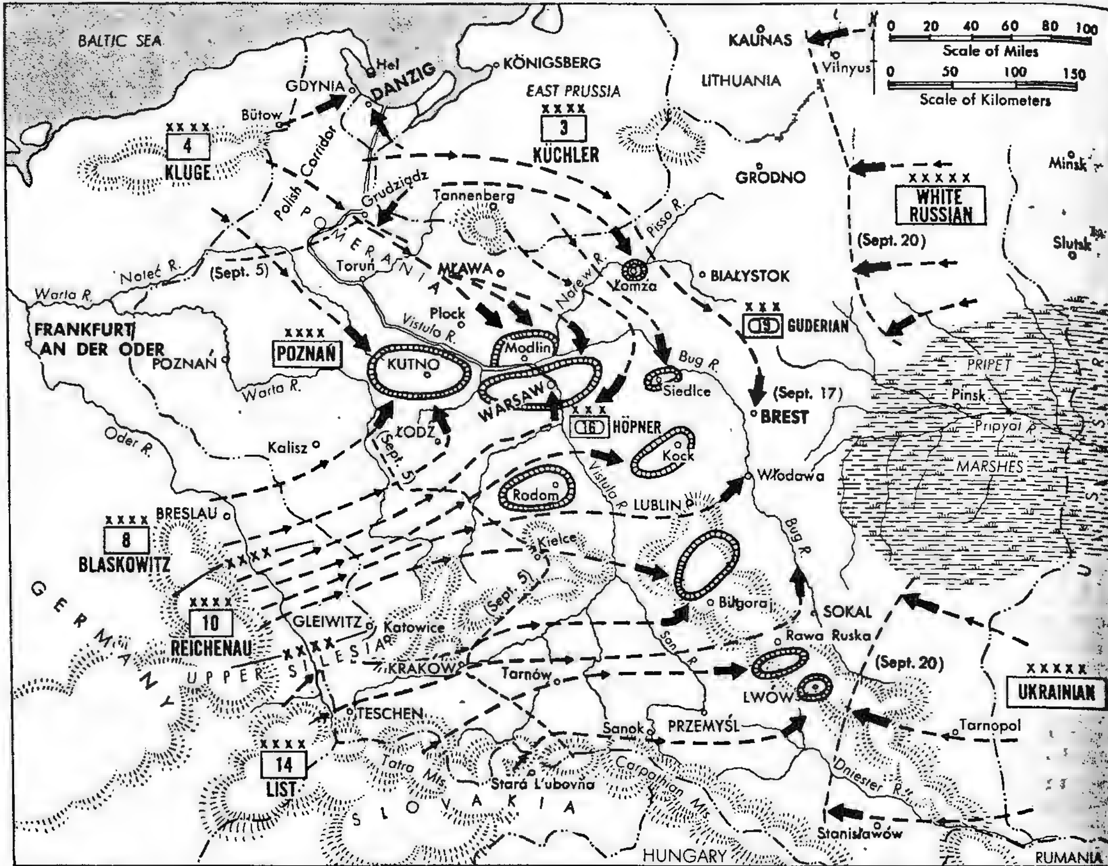
Polish Defense Plan.—The one chance that Poland might have had to counter the German invasion successfully was to fight a delaying action back to the Narew-Vistula-San line and to hold there until the Western powers could bring their forces to bear. This strategy would, however, have sacrificed the country's industrial base and so carried with it the seeds of eventual defeat. The Polish General Staff chose instead to defend all of its frontiers with seven armies and several smaller groupings in territorial deployment. It thereby eliminated at the outset the possibility of concentrating its strength at the most gravely threatened points. The planners apparently believed that the war, following older patterns, would begin with border skirmishes that would only gradually evolve into full-scale battles.

The Polish commander in chief was Marshal Edward Śmigły-Rydz, inspector general of the armed forces. The army's full potential strength was about 1,800,000 men. Mobilization began in July, and apparently more than 1,000,000 men were called up, about 800,000 of them west of the German-Soviet demarcation line. Most of the weapons in the army's stocks dated from World War I, and its armor, except for a few light tanks, consisted of some companies of armored scout cars. The air units had 935 aircraft, less than half of which were modern. The navy consisted of 4 destroyers, 5 submarines, and some smaller craft.

Campaign.—On the morning of September 1, the Luftwaffe struck at the Polish airfields, destroying nearly all of the planes before they could get off the ground. It then set about systematically disrupting the railroads and lines of communications. Before the day ended, the Polish leadership was helpless. Mobilization could not be completed, and large-scale troop movements were impossible.

The first phase of the campaign, the breakthrough on the borders, ended on September 5. By September 7, the point of the Tenth Army was 36 miles southwest of Warsaw. The Eighth Army on the left had kept pace, executing its mission of protecting the flank, while the Fourteenth Army on the right had captured the Upper Silesian industrial area. By September 5, the two armies in Bock's Army Group North had cut across the corridor and had begun turning to the southeast, and two days later elements of the Third Army reached the Narew 25 miles north of Warsaw. The Poles fought gallantly, but cavalry was no match for tanks. On September 6, the Polish government left Warsaw for Lublin; later it moved close to the Rumanian border, which it crossed on September 16.

The second phase of the campaign completed the destruction of the Polish armed forces. According to the German plan, this was to have been



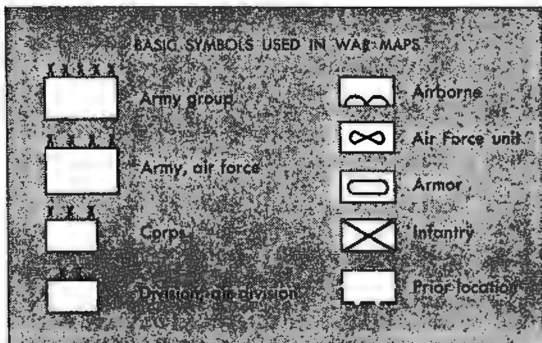
Map 2. CONQUEST OF POLAND (Sept. 1—Oct. 6, 1939). Adolf Hitler's occupation of Czechoslovakia exposed Poland's vital industrial complexes west of the Vistula and San rivers to German attack from three directions—north, west, and south. The extended Polish defenses along the border were easily pierced by the new German blitzkrieg. Though the Poles fought valiantly, they were forced to capitulate between the German pressure from the west and the Soviet advance from the east. The Ribbentrop-Molotov Line demarcating the German and Soviet areas of influence, mentioned in section 14. *Diplomatic History*, ran along the eastern border of Lithuania, thence along the Pissa, Narew, Vistula, and San rivers; the Curzon Line extended from the southern tip of Lithuania southward to the Bug River near Brest, thence southward along the Bug, turning west at Sokal, and then south-southwestward to the Czechoslovakian border.

accomplished in a single giant encirclement west of the Vistula. After intelligence reports indicated that the government and large numbers of Polish troops had fled across the river, the plan was changed in accordance with Bock's earlier proposals. The OKH, on September 11, ordered a second deeper envelopment, reaching eastward to the line of the Bug (Western Bug) River.

In the meantime, the closing of the inner ring at Warsaw had created the first and only genuine crisis of the war. The Polish Poznań Army, bypassed in the first week, at the beginning of the second week felt the German pincers closing behind it. Turning around, it attempted to break through to Warsaw. For several days after September 9, staffs of the German Eighth and Tenth armies were put to a severe test as they swung some of their divisions around to meet the attack coming from the west. The Poles did not break through, however, and the ring gradually closed. On September 19, the Poznań Army, numbering 100,000 men, surrendered, ending the last resistance by a major Polish force.

The most spectacular feature of the outer envelopment was the advance of Gen. (later Col. Gen.) Heinz Guderian's panzer corps from East Prussia across the Narew to Brest (Brest-Litovsk) which it took on September 17. Elements of the corps then continued past the city to make radio contact with the Tenth Army spearhead at Włodowa, 30 miles to the south.

The war ended for all practical purposes on September 19. The fortress at Lwów (now Lvov) surrendered two days later. Warsaw itself held out until September 27. Modlin capitulated on September 28, and the last organized resistance ended on October 6, when 17,000 Polish troops surrendered at Kock. In the whole campaign the Germans took 694,000 prisoners, and an estimated 100,000 men escaped across the borders



Lithuania, Hungary, and Rumania. The Germans lost 13,981 killed and 30,322 wounded; Polish losses will probably never be known.

Soviet Intervention.—Hastening to end the war before the Western powers could act, the Germans on September 3 requested the Soviet Union to move against Poland, but the Russians were not ready. The German speed had taken them by surprise. After the German ambassador in Moscow submitted a second request on September 10, the Soviet government apparently became concerned lest the war end before it could enter it and the Germans refuse to honor the secret protocol and evacuate the territory east of the demarcation line.

On September 17, two Soviet army groups, the White Russian Front in the north and the Ukrainian Front in the south, each with two armies, marched into Poland. They met little Polish resistance and concentrated their efforts on shepherding the Germans out of the Soviet zone. A last-minute German attempt to secure control of the oilfield south of Lwów in the Soviet zone had aroused suspicion. Approximately 217,000 Polish troops fell prisoner to the Russians. Many of them survived to fight Germany again either in the west or in Soviet service, but some thousands, mostly officers, found their graves in Katyn Forest.

Partition.—In formulating the secret protocol to the nonaggression treaty, both Germany and the Soviet Union had assumed that a truncated independent Polish state would be allowed to survive. On September 25, however, having made a hint to this effect six days earlier, Stalin proposed that the conquerors divide Poland between them. In Moscow, on September 28, Ribbentrop signed a Soviet-German treaty of friendship. A secret protocol revised the demarcation line. Germany received the Province of Lublin and the Province of Warszawa eastward to the Bug River, and as compensation the USSR included Lithuania in its sphere of influence. The Soviet Union also agreed to deliver to Germany 300,000 tons of crude oil annually, the estimated output of the Polish fields. The revision placed the Soviet border approximately on the Curzon Line (q.v.) and gave Germany nearly all of the ethnically Polish territory. On the same day, Ribbentrop and Molotov issued a statement claiming that the settlement had created a basis for a lasting peace in eastern Europe and calling for an end to the war between Germany and the Western powers.

See also POLAND—9. *History* (World War II: 1939–1945).

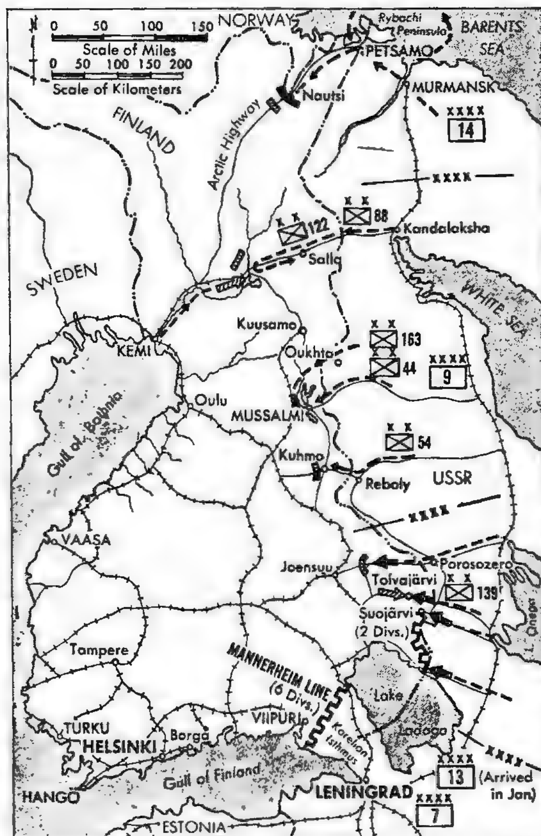
FINLAND: THE WINTER WAR

Beginning in the last two weeks of September 1939, the Soviet Union forced the three Baltic states, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania (qq.v.), to enter negotiations leading toward mutual assistance treaties granting rights to station Soviet troops and build Soviet bases on their territories. On October 5, the day Latvia signed its treaty, the Soviet government extended its diplomatic offensive to the north with a demand that Finland send plenipotentiaries to Moscow to negotiate political questions raised by the outbreak of the war. When the negotiations began on October 12, the Russians demanded a mutual assistance pact, a 30-year lease on a base at Hangö (Hanko), several islands in the Gulf of Finland, the western half of the Rybachi Peninsula, and a broad strip of Finnish territory on the Karelian Isthmus. The talks continued into November without producing agreement on the two main questions: Hangö and the Karelian Isthmus.

On November 26, the Russians staged an "incident," an alleged Finnish artillery attack, at Mainila on the Karelian Isthmus. Two days later, they abrogated their nonaggression treaty with Finland, and on November 30 opened the war with heavy air raids on Helsinki and strong attacks by ground forces at several points from the border north of Leningrad to the Arctic Ocean. On December 1, in (as it developed) an extremely premature move, the Soviet government announced that it had created a People's Democratic Republic of Finland under an old-line Bolshevik, Otto W. Kuusinen.

The lengthy preliminaries had given the Finnish Army ample time to complete the mobilization that it had begun on October 14. During the summer volunteers had started building field fortifications on the Karelian Isthmus, but nothing resembling the mythical "Mannerheim Line," which the Russians later invented to excuse their reverses. Finland mobilized 9 divisions and some single companies and battalions, or a total of 175,000 men. Plans had called for 15 divisions,

Map 3. SOVIET-FINNISH WAR (Nov. 30, 1939—March 12, 1940). The refusal of the Finns to accede to the territorial demands of the USSR brought on a Soviet offensive along the entire border. Though hopelessly outnumbered, the skillful Finns administered to the attackers several embarrassing reverses and frustrated them for several months. After a pause to reorganize and bring up additional forces, the Russians launched an attack by two huge armies up the Karelian Isthmus and against the Finnish Mannerheim Line. Overwhelmed by sheer power, the Finns were forced to capitulate.



but lack of weapons and equipment made this goal unattainable. In the course of the war, Finnish strength rose to about 200,000 men, and foreign volunteers, including a 300-man Finnish-American Legion, added another 11,000. The Lotta Svärd, an auxiliary force of 100,000 women, performed invaluable service in relieving men for frontline duty.

The Soviet High Command deployed four armies under the command of Gen. (later Marshal) Semyon K. Timoshenko on the Finnish frontier: the Seventh Army on the Karelian Isthmus, the Eighth Army north of Lake Ladoga, the Ninth Army in the Reboly (Repola)-Ukhta (Uhtua)-Kandalaksha (Kannanlahti) sector, and the Fourteenth Army on the Arctic coast. The total Soviet troop strength was about 1,000,000 men in 30 divisions. Approximately 1,000 tanks and 800 aircraft lent weight to the offensive.

The Finnish commander in chief, Field Marshal (later Marshal of Finland) Baron Carl G. E. Mannerheim, assembled 6 of his divisions on the Karelian Isthmus, stationed 2 divisions on a short line north of Lake Ladoga, and held 1 division in reserve. Nearly 600 miles of frontier northward to the Arctic coast could be screened only by scattered companies and battalions. Mannerheim had no choice but to mass his forces on the isthmus, the most direct route into the heartland of Finland, the narrow coastal strip between Helsinki and Viipuri (now Vyborg).

Most alarming for the Finnish High Command were the strength and speed with which the Soviet forces moved against the long frontier north of Lake Ladoga. In what at the time seemed a near miracle, two Finnish regiments under Col. (later Gen.) Paavo Talvela beginning on December 12 attacked and destroyed the Soviet 139th Division at Tolvajärvi (now Tolvayarvi), and then defeated the 75th Division. In a nearly month-long battle that began on December 11, a second small force under Col. (later Gen.) Hjalmar F. Siilasvuo encircled the Soviet 163d Division at Suomussalmi and destroyed the 44th Division, which had come to break the encirclement. These victories put an end to Russian attempts to sweep around Lake Ladoga from the north and to cut across the waist of Finland to the Gulf of Bothnia, and they also raised Finnish morale.

During the early fighting the Finns developed their celebrated *motti* (literally, a bundle of sticks) tactics. The *mottis* were small, tight encirclements suited to the heavily forested Finnish terrain. In one of the later battles the personnel of a single Soviet division was trapped in 10 separate *mottis*.

The Finnish divisions on the Karelian Isthmus fought a delaying action in early December, withstood a full-scale assault on their main defense line at mid-month, and on December 23 counterattacked. The counterattack failed to gain much ground, but it took the Soviet command by surprise, and during the entire next month the fighting on the isthmus subsided into positional warfare.

In January 1940, Marshal Kliment Y. Voroshilov assumed over-all command, and Timoshenko took command on the isthmus, where the Thirteenth Army had been moved in on the right of the Seventh Army. The Soviet setbacks had resulted from a combination of supply problems, a winter of record cold, rigid and unimaginative leadership, and a lack of coordination between the various services. Mannerheim described the Soviet attacks in December as similar to a performance by a badly directed orchestra. In January the Soviet High Command pulled out units and retrained them immediately behind the front.

On February 1, the Russians opened their final offensive on the Karelian Isthmus. By that time Soviet propaganda had inflated the Mannerheim Line into something like a super-Maginot Line. The offensive made steady if not rapid progress. On March 4, Soviet units on the west side of the isthmus began attacking across Viipuri (Vyborg) Bay, where the ice had frozen thickly enough to carry tanks. A few miles farther, and the Russians would have reached the open country north of the isthmus. On March 6, the Finnish government sent a deputation to Moscow, and on March 12 the Treaty of Moscow was signed, ending the war. The Finnish Army was still holding well, but since it had suffered casualties of 24,923 killed and missing and 43,557 wounded, lacked manpower to continue much longer. The Russians probably lost about 200,000 men killed in battle or by the cold.

The terms of the treaty were onerous. Finland was forced to cede the Karelian Isthmus, including Viipuri and a strip of territory northeast of Lake Ladoga, the islands in the Gulf of Finland, the western half of the Rybachi Peninsula, and territory around Salla (now Kuolayarvi) and Kuusamo. The Soviet Union also acquired a 30-year lease on Hangö for use as a naval base. Finland lost its most defensible territory and had to absorb 400,000 refugees into an already badly shaken economy.

See also FINLAND—*History* (Russo-Finnish War).

NORWAY AND DENMARK

German Planning.—When the campaign in Poland ended, the Germans, contrary to widely held opinion at the time, did not have a clear idea of what to do next. In a conference held on Sept. 23, 1939, Hitler raised the question of measures to be adopted "in case" the war against Great Britain and France had to be fought to a finish. The possibility of unrestricted submarine warfare to be proclaimed as a "siege of Britain," was considered.

If Hitler had decided on the siege of Britain it would have had to be executed by the German Navy and Air Force. On October 3, the commander in chief of the navy, Grand Admiral Erich Raeder, told his staff that he believed the navy could operate more effectively against the British Isles if it were to acquire one or two bases in Norway, possibly at Trondheim and Narvik. His thinking reflected the opinion, common in German naval circles after World War I, that the German Navy would have made a better showing in that conflict if, instead of being bottled up in the North Sea, it had had Norwegian bases to use as sally ports on the Atlantic. When it investigated the question of Norwegian bases on Raeder's orders the Naval Staff learned that the chief of the Army General Staff, Col. Gen. Franz Halder, was pessimistic. He did not think that the army could either take or defend bases in Norway. The Naval Staff itself concluded that it was to Germany's advantage to keep Norway neutral, especially since the navy lacked sufficient ships to use the proposed bases for full-scale sea warfare. By taking the bases, it decided, Germany might lose more than she gained. While Norway remained neutral, its territorial waters afforded safe routes

German soldiers pass through a burning village during their invasion of Norway in April 1940.

Wide World

for German blockade-runners and for ships bringing Swedish iron óre down from Narvik. The German war industry was completely dependent on Swedish ore, which in winter, when the Baltic sea froze, could be shipped only via Narvik.

During October and November, Hitler devoted all of his attention to plans for invading France and Belgium. Raeder tried to interest him in the Norwegian bases but failed until December, when he persuaded Hitler to grant an interview to Vidkun Quisling, who led a Norwegian copy of the Nazi Party. Quisling claimed to know that the Norwegian government had secretly agreed not to oppose a British invasion. After talking to Quisling, Hitler, on December 14, ordered the OKW Operations Staff to investigate the possibility of occupying Norway.

That Hitler began to think about Norway was not entirely Quisling's work. Soviet aggression against Finland had aroused strong sympathy for the Finns and had unleashed a wave of anti-German sentiment in Scandinavia. While Germany took a neutral stand that favored the Soviet Union, the Allies had begun talking about sending troops to help the Finns. If troops were sent, the shortest route would be through Narvik and across northern Sweden, directly past the Kiruna-Gallivare ore fields so important to Germany.

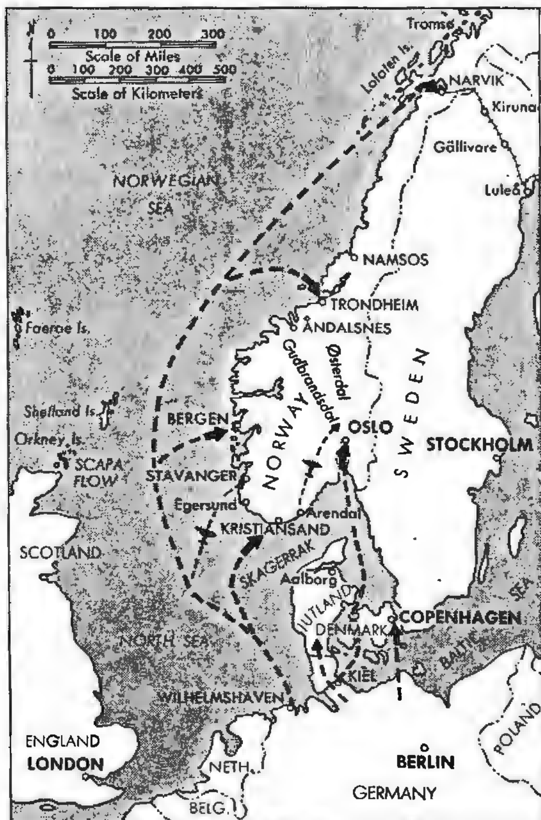
In January 1940, the Foreign Political Office of the Nazi Party undertook to maintain contact with Quisling and provide financial support for his party. Ignoring Quisling, OKW continued its planning on a small scale and in secret. Hitler did not show any real enthusiasm for the Norwegian venture until after February 16. On that day the British destroyer *Cossack* entered Norwegian territorial waters and took 300 captured British seamen from the German tanker *Altmark*. The *Altmark* had been the supply ship for the ill-fated commerce raider *Admiral Graf Spee*. Hitler became convinced that the British no longer intended to respect Norway's neutrality. On February 21, he called in Gen. (later Col. Gen.) Nikolaus von Falkenhorst, commanding general of the 21st Corps, and gave him the mission of planning and (if it were to be executed) commanding an operation against Norway.

Signs that the British and French intended to use the Russo-Finnish War as an excuse to intervene in Scandinavia added urgency to German planning in late February and early March. On March 7, Hitler assigned 8 infantry divisions and a motorized brigade to Falkenhorst. Toward the middle of the month radio intercepts indicated that troop transports were loading in British ports. Another intercept, on March 15, revealed that the Soviet-Finnish armistice had spoiled the Allied plans. The armistice also deprived Hitler of his excuse for moving against Norway, and some of the officers in the planning group began to doubt whether it was worthwhile to go ahead. On March 26, however, Raeder told Hitler that, although Allied landings need not be expected in Norway in the near future, Germany would have to face the question sooner or later. He advised that Germany act as soon as possible, because the nights in northern latitudes would be too short to afford good cover for naval forces after April 15. Hitler agreed. On April 2, after reviewing the plans and learning from the air force and navy that the weather would be satisfactory, he named April 9 as the day for the landings.

Allied Intentions.—A British-French staff paper of April 1939 on strategic policy recognized that in the first phase of a war with Germany economic warfare would be the only effective Allied offensive weapon. In the light of this fact and of World War I experience in blockading Germany, Norway inevitably assumed a special importance for the Western powers as soon as war broke out. Before mid-September, the British government had made its first attempt to secure from Norway a "sympathetic" interpretation of its rights as a neutral.

The Soviet attack on Finland at the end of November aroused the hope that Norway and Sweden, motivated by sympathy for Finland and by their duty as members of the League of Nations, might permit Allied troops sent to aid the Finns to cross their territory. Such an undertaking could be made to include the occupation of Narvik and of the Swedish ore fields almost automatically. After Field Marshal Mannerheim appealed for aid on Jan. 29, 1940, the Allied Supreme War Council decided to send an expedition timed for mid-March. The plan, while ostensibly intended to bring Allied troops to the Finnish front, placed its emphasis on Norway and Sweden. The main force was to land at Narvik and advance along the ore railroad to its eastern terminus at Luleå, Sweden. Only after two brigades were firmly established along that line would a third brigade be sent into Finland. The preparations moved slowly, and the two governments never quite faced the question what they would do if Norway and Sweden refused transit rights or decided to fight. After Finland accepted the Treaty of Moscow on March 12, the whole project collapsed.

On March 21, Paul Reynaud became the head



Map 4. CONQUEST OF DENMARK AND NORWAY (April 9—June 9, 1940). To circumvent a suspected Allied occupation of Norway and to obtain naval and air bases on the open seas, Adolf Hitler decided to occupy Norway. German forces, landed by air and by sea, quickly gained virtual control of the country. Denmark, in the path of the invasion, succumbed without opposition. Anglo-French relief forces, landed in central Norway in mid-April, were soon forced to withdraw by constant German air and ground attacks. Those forces landed at Narvik were evacuated early in June as the Allied front in western Europe collapsed. The German Navy suffered serious losses, but later German submarines and aircraft based in Norway were to exact a frightful toll from Allied convoys attempting to bring much-needed supplies to the Russians at Murmansk.

of a French government committed to a more aggressive policy, and a week later the Supreme War Council again raised the Scandinavian question. A new plan called for two related operations: the laying of minefields in Norwegian waters; and landings at Narvik, Trondheim, Bergen, and Stavanger, to be justified by the expected violent German reaction to the minelaying. After some delays the mines were laid on the morning of April 8, but by then the German Fleet was already advancing up the Norwegian coast.

German Landings.—The initial German invasion force for Norway totaled 10,500 men. Provisions were made to introduce an additional 16,700 men through Oslo in the first week and 40,000 more thereafter. The plan called for a peaceful occupation of the country, allegedly to protect Norwegian neutrality. Falkenhorst's staff concluded that landings at Narvik, Trondheim, Bergen, Stavanger, Kristiansand, Egersund, Arendal, and Oslo would place the major centers of population in German hands and effectively crush Norwegian attempts to mobilize. The earlier planners had considered that it would be sufficient to extract several bases from Denmark by diplomatic pressure, but Falkenhorst decided that it would be safer to take military possession of the country as a land bridge to Norway. To this task he assigned, under Gen. Leonhard Kaupisch, the headquarters of the 31st Corps, 2 infantry divisions, and a motorized brigade.

The first plans had called for an attempt to sneak troops into the Norwegian ports aboard merchant ships. Falkenhorst's staff considered this project too dangerous and decided instead to transport all of the landing teams (except the one for Stavanger, which was to go by air) in warships. Merchant ships were restricted to carrying supplies and troops for landings on the Danish islands, where they would not have to venture outside the German-controlled Baltic Sea. The decision to use warships made the landings the most hazardous phase of the operation: if the vastly superior British Fleet had put in an appearance it might have destroyed virtually the whole German Navy.

The first two groups of warships sailed on April 7, escorted by the battle cruisers *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau;* 10 destroyers were bound for Narvik, and the cruiser *Hipper* and 4 destroyers for Trondheim. Nine other warship groups sailed at intervals that depended on their speeds and on the distances they had to travel. They consisted of the heavy cruiser *Blücher* and the pocket battleship *Lützow* bound for Oslo, several older cruisers, training ships, torpedo boats, and a variety of smaller craft carrying landing parties to Denmark. A British aircraft sighted the first two warship groups six hours after they sailed, but Admiral of the Fleet Sir Charles Forbes, commander in chief of the Home Fleet, concluded that the battleships, cruisers, and destroyers were setting out on a raiding mission into the Atlantic and sent his own ships steaming northward behind them, leaving the North Sea open for the remaining German warship groups.

The landings were executed on time on April 9 everywhere except at Oslo. There the old guns (Krupp model 1905) of the Oscarsborg fort 18 miles south of the city sank the *Blücher* and held the rest of the ships off until the following day. The delay gave the Norwegian king, Haakon VII, and the government time to escape from the capital and made conclusive the failure of the plan to occupy the country without a fight.

In the case of Denmark everything went exactly according to plan. On April 9, one division and the motorized brigade advanced northward across the border into Jutland (Jylland), and the other division staged landings on the islands. Early the same morning, the German minister, Dr. Cecil von Renthe-Fink, presented himself at the Foreign Ministry in Copenhagen (København) with a demand for surrender and assurances that the country would be permitted to retain much of its internal sovereignty. After he added that planes were on their way to bomb the city, the Danish government capitulated at 7:20 A.M.

In executing the Norwegian landings the German surface fleet achieved its greatest success of the war. It also suffered near-crippling losses. The cruisers *Königsberg* and *Karlsruhe* were sunk before they could leave Norwegian waters, and in two battles (April 10 and 13) British ships sank the 10 destroyers which had taken troops to Narvik.

Norwegian Campaign.—On the morning of April 9, Norwegian Foreign Minister Halvdan Koht told Dr. Curt Bräuer, the German minister in Oslo: "We will not submit. The battle is already in progress." But how to fight was another matter. The Norwegian Army's total strength was [illegible]5,320 men, and half of them were stationed in the Arctic as an aftermath of the Russo-Finnish War. On April 9, the Germans captured a good share of the army's equipment and all the key communications centers. Two days later, from his headquarters at Rena north of Oslo, the Norwegian Army's commander in chief, Gen. Otto Ruge, had effective control of only one division. With that he planned to delay the German advance north from Oslo and hold open a field of operations in the interior for an anticipated Allied expeditionary force.

The first problem for the Germans was to establish land contact between Oslo and the landing parties in the other coastal cities. By April 16, Falkenhorst had units advancing northward toward Trondheim through the two great valleys, the Gudbrandsdal and the Østerdal. Between April 18 and 23, two British brigades, totaling about 6,000 men, landed at Åndalsnes south of Trondheim. Another 6,000 British and French troops went ashore at Namsos to the north of the city. At Tretten on April 23, the Germans defeated one British brigade which had advanced southward into the Gudbrandsdal from Åndalsnes, and thereafter the British withdrew to Åndalsnes, where their last troops were evacuated on May 2. The German units coming from Oslo had made contact with their Trondheim detachment the day before. In the meantime, the British and French had decided also to evacuate Namsos, which they did on May 3. The last Norwegian resistance in the area south of Trondheim ended on the same day, when the 2d Division surrendered on the Dovrefjell.

At Narvik events at first took a different course. The city could not be reached by land except through Sweden, and it was not within easy range for the Luftwaffe. The German commander in Narvik, Gen. (later Col. Gen.) Eduard Dietl, had 2,000 mountain troops and 2,600 sailors, survivors from the sunken destroyers. Beginning on April 14, British and French troops joined the Norwegian 6th Division in a seven weeks' siege that eventually drove the Germans out of Narvik and back to the Swedish border. By the last week in May, Dietl's force faced 24,500 Allied troops, but by then the British and French armies in France were collapsing, and the Allied command had decided to withdraw from Norway. After destroying the port installations at Narvik, the Allied troops began boarding ship on June 4, and the rear guard sailed on June 8.

On June 9, the Norwegian Army command agreed to an armistice, which ended the campaign at midnight that day. Although Norway was not again a scene of active operations, except for Commando-style raids and resistance activity, it remained in the forefront of the war until May 1945. Hitler regarded it as the northern bastion of his Fortress Europe and maintained a 300,000-man army there throughout the war.

See also separate biographies of the leading political and military figures; DENMARK—*History* (World War II); GERMANY—*4. History Since 1850* (Hitler's Third Reich: 1933–1945); NORWAY—*History* (Development Since the Dissolution of the Union); UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS—*17. Foreign Policy* (Aggressive Isolationism: 1939–1941).

EARL F. ZIEMKE,
Historian, Office of the Chief of Military History, Department of the Army.

4. Fall of the Low Countries and France

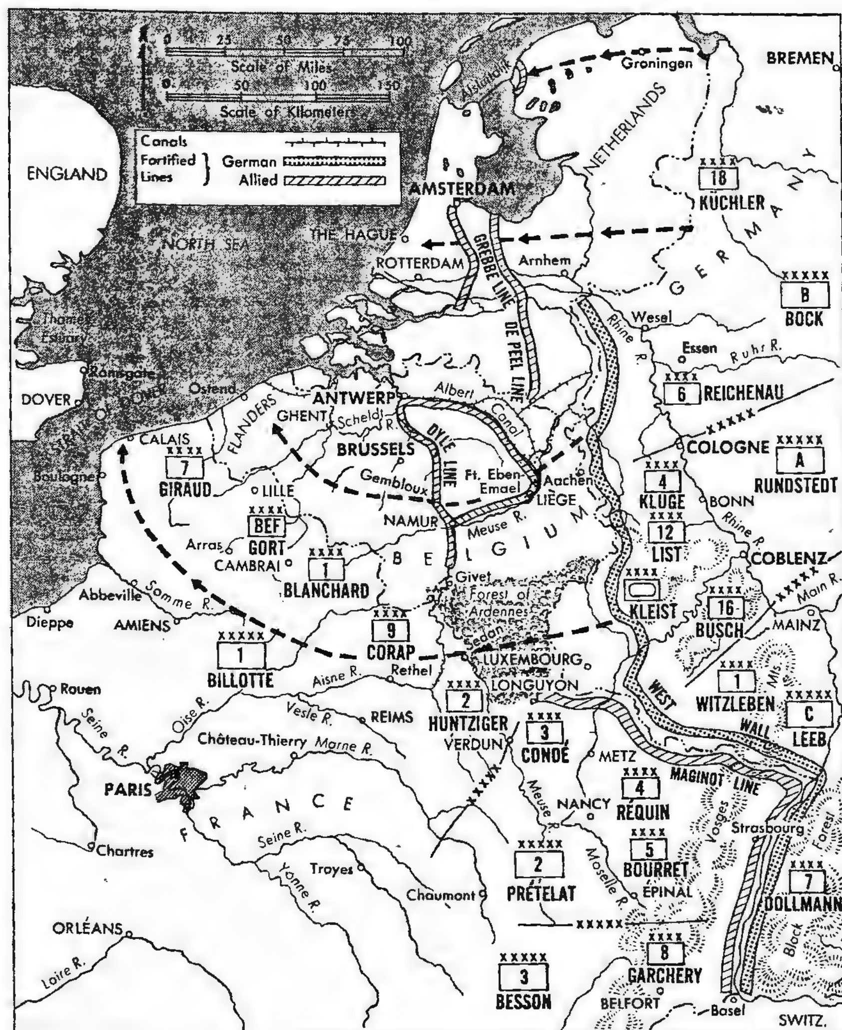
In October 1939, accepting the fact that the conquest of Poland, however impressive, would not prompt Great Britain and France to withdraw from the war, Adolf Hitler directed the High Command of the Armed Forces (*Oberkommando der Wehrmacht* or OKW) to prepare for an offensive in the west. Although the leading German commanders believed the better course to be to await an Allied offensive, he insisted on striking within six weeks in order to forestall further Allied preparations. The first version of the plan for the attack, called *Fall Gelb* (Plan Yellow), was modeled on the old Schlieffen Plan, which had received a modified test in 1914. It was based on a main effort through Belgium north of Liège. A total of 37 divisions was to make this effort, while a subsidiary force of 27 divisions moved through the Ardennes region of Belgium and Luxembourg.

This was exactly what the Allied commanders expected. An attack against northeastern France was improbable because of the existence of the Maginot Line, the formidable belt of fortifications built in the 1930's from Switzerland to Longuyon, near the junction of the borders of Belgium, Luxembourg, and France. Because of the barrier of the hilly, forested Ardennes, Allied commanders considered a major attack there also improbable. Thus only the Liège area, leading to the flatlands of Flanders and thence to France's northern frontier, was supposedly open to the Germans.

Though built originally merely to protect Alsace and Lorraine until France could mobilize against a surprise attack, the Maginot Line had engendered a false sense of security in the war-weary country. French commanders were nevertheless conscious of the great gap reaching from the end of the line to the English Channel. They accepted the fact of the gap on the theory that France could not afford to fight along this line. In the first place, battle in the industrial Lille-Cambrai region would destroy or deny two thirds of the nation's coal resources. Secondly, accepting battle there would mean acquiesence in the surrender of Belgium. This France, victor over Germany in World War I and still a major power with reputedly the world's strongest army, could not accept.

It was apparent to French and British leaders that once the Germans attacked, the Allies had to move into Belgium. To provide time for this movement the Allied leaders depended on a delaying action by the Belgian Army, reinforced by the barrier of the Ardennes and the Meuse River, the large forts at Liège, the deep cut of the Albert Canal north of that city, and Fort Eben-Emael near the Dutch-Belgian border. (This fort was said to be the strongest single fortress in the world.) The major problem was the lack of consultation and coordination with the Belgians and the Dutch. Although the Low Countries realized that Nazi Germany would include them in any pattern of conquest against the West, they continued to hope that a policy of abject neutrality would forestall the inevitable.

The Allies planned nevertheless to advance



Map 5. GERMAN PLAN FOR THE INVASION OF FRANCE AND THE LOW COUNTRIES (May 10, 1940). The Allies expected the coming German offensive to follow the same sweeping path through the Low Countries that the German invaders of 1914 had taken. Accordingly, it was their plan to move into Belgium at the opening of hostilities to reinforce the Belgians at the Dyle Line, and there to stop the German invasion. This time, however, the Germans planned to make their main effort through the difficult but lightly guarded Ardennes area, driving quickly to the English Channel ports and thus to split the Allied armies and isolate them in the north.

into Belgium to the line of the Scheldt (Escaut, Schelde) River (Plan E). As the months passed without a German attack and the British Expeditionary Force (BEF) was increased to 10 divisions, this plan was replaced by a more ambitious decision to move to the Dyle River, a few miles east of Brussels (Bruxelles). Under Plan D, as the new concept was called, the Belgian Army was to fall back on the Dyle and the lower reaches of the Albert Canal to protect Antwerp (Antwerpen), the British were to defend the upper Dyle, and the French were to hold the Gembloux gap between the Dyle and the Meuse at Namur (Namen) and the Meuse itself where the river crosses the Ardennes. In the continued belief that the main German effort would be made in the Liège area, the supreme French commander, Gen. Maurice Gustave Gamelin, assigned to the Gembloux gap his strongest force, the mechanized First Army under Gen. Georges M. J. Blanchard. The second strongest force, the Seventh Army under Gen. Henri Giraud, ostensibly a reserve, was to move swiftly into the southern Netherlands to assist the Dutch. In keeping with the theory that the Ardennes itself was a considerable barrier, a weaker force, the Ninth Army under Gen. André Georges Corap, was to defend the Meuse from Namur to Sedan; and another weak force, the Second Army under Gen. Charles Huntziger, was to serve both as a bridge between Sedan and the garrison of the Maginot Line and as a hinge for the wide-swinging movement of the Allied armies into Belgium.

As the Germans prepared for attack in November 1939, an invasion scare gripped the Allies, but bad weather forced postponement of the attack. After repeated postponements because of weather conditions, the attack was finally scheduled for Jan. 17, 1940. A week before the target date, however, a German plane strayed off its course and was forced down in Belgium. On the two officers aboard the Belgians found orders for the air phase of the invasion. This prompted an alarm of even greater proportions than before, and some French forces began moving toward their assigned sectors along the Belgian border. German observers could not help but note the nature of the French deployment, particularly the weakness of the armies at the hinge near Sedan. Of even greater consequence was the fact that the information gained from the fliers confirmed General Gamelin's view that the invasion was to come through the Liège area and not through the Ardennes.

In the meantime, Hitler and several of his subordinates had begun to question the

concept of Plan Yellow. Indeed, even before the November target date, Hitler himself had forced a change in plan that shifted the main effort from north of Liège to both sides of the city. Col. Gen. (later Field Marshal) Gerd von Rundstedt, commander of Army Group A, which was to drive through the Ardennes, insisted that the main effort be made through that sector with armored divisions to the fore. In an audience with the German leader, Rundstedt's chief of staff, Lt. Gen. (later Field Marshal) Erich von Manstein, apparently provided the final arguments needed to change Hitler's mind. After weather again forced the cancellation of the target date, Hitler postponed the offensive until spring and ordered a basic alteration in the plan. Army Group B in the north, commanded by Col. Gen. Fedor von Bock, was reduced to 28 divisions, only 3 of which were armored. Rundstedt and Army Group A in the Ardennes had 44, including 7 armored divisions. With the main thrust moving via Sedan, Rundstedt was to drive to the channel, trapping French, British, and Belgian armies in Belgium.

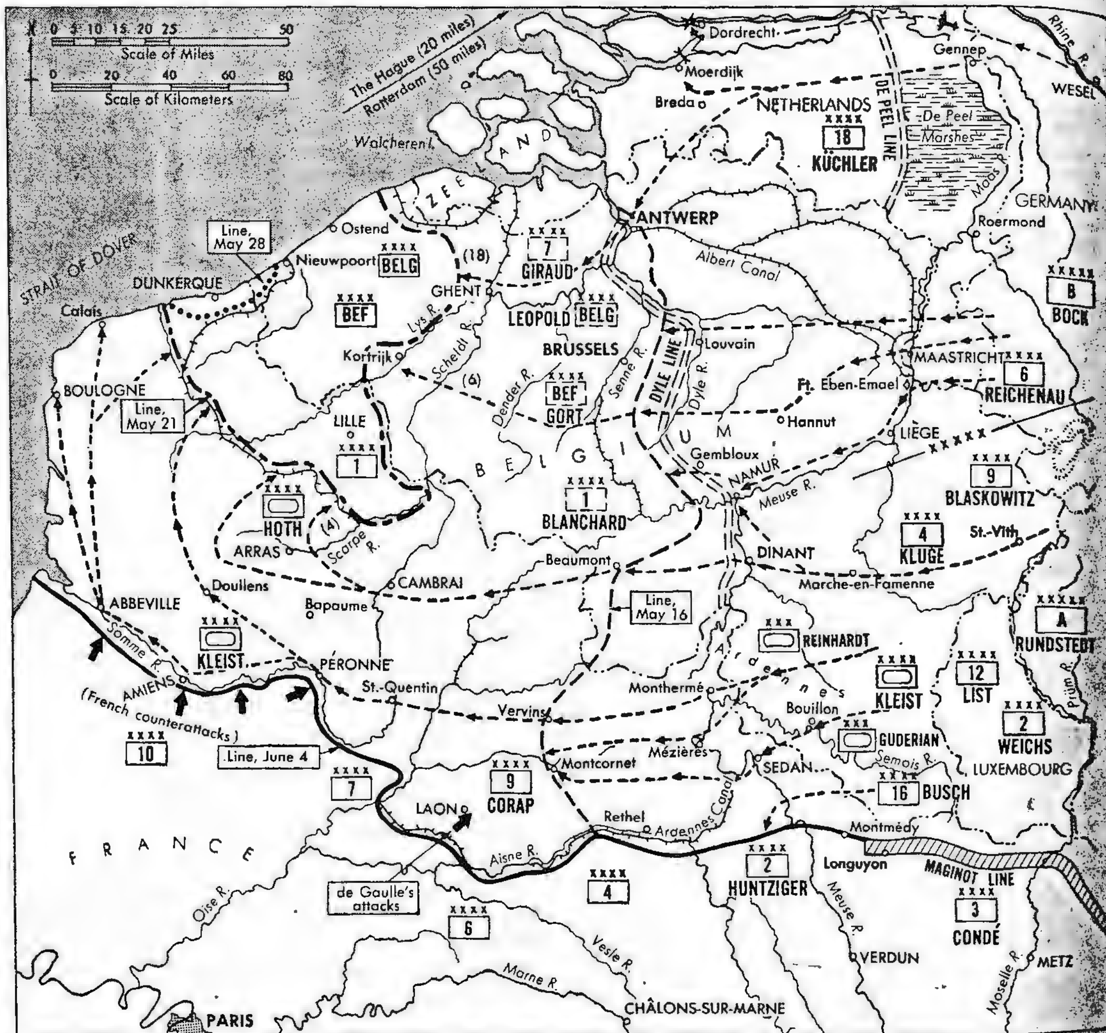
Meanwhile, the Allies failed to profit materially from the eight months' respite that they had gained between the declaration of war and the onset of major hostilities in the west. They still felt no real sense of crisis, for they continued to consider the speed of the Polish campaign attributable less to German strength and to a new mode of warfare than to Polish weakness. Although some effort was made to extend the Maginot Line fortifications to the coast, it produced little more than a shallow antitank ditch and a few widely spaced blockhouses. Modern equipment for the French armies and the BEF remained a promise rather than a reality. Allied timetables for troop movements still resembled those of World War I. Corap's Ninth Army, for example, planned on five days for the move to the Meuse covering the Ardennes while only cavalry units sought to delay the Germans east of the river. The Allies, and particularly the French, still looked on tanks as servants of the infantry, parceling them out to infantry divisions rather than massing them in hard-hitting armored formations in close liaison with tactical aircraft.

The Allies actually were superior numerically to the Germans. The French, Dutch, Belgians, and British together had approximately 4,000,000 men available, in contrast to about 2,000,000 Germans who might be used against them. As of May 1940, 136 German divisions were in the west, as opposed to 94 French divisions in northeastern and northern France, plus 10 British, 22 Belgian, and 9 Dutch divisions. In tanks, too, the opposing forces were relatively equal. The Germans had 2,439 tanks in the west; the Allies, 3,609. Nor were German tanks vastly superior except in speed. Created as infantry support weapons, French tanks were heavily armed and armored but lacked appreciable speed and cruising range. In aircraft the Germans enjoyed some advantage in over-all numbers, with about 3,200 planes to 1,200 French and 600 British planes, but in fighter aircraft alone the two forces were approximately equal. Only in antiaircraft and antitank weapons were the French markedly inferior. The difference in opposing forces thus was less a question of numbers and quality than of a variance in approach to modern warfare. The Germans had developed new methods based on quick breakthroughs by armor supported by mobile artillery and aircraft, followed by rapid exploitation of the resulting gaps. In addition, a kind of war-weary lethargy still gripped both France and Britain, as is evidenced by their relatively slow industrial mobilization. Not until Hitler invaded Denmark and Norway in April 1940 was the full portent of the Nazi threat accepted in the two nations. By that time it was too late.

Defeat of the Netherlands.—It took the Germans only five days to defeat the Dutch Army, a force of about 400,000 men under Lt. Gen. Henri Gerard Winkelman. Before daylight on May 10, parachutists landed near Rotterdam and The Hague. They captured bridges vital to Dutch defensive plans and airfields where reinforcements could be landed from transport planes soon after daylight. There and elsewhere a sizable body of fifth columnists (German nationals or Dutch Nazi sympathizers) aided the invaders. By this daring, revolutionary strike from the air, the Germans in the first blow had pierced the perimeter of the final Dutch defense line, the so-called Fortress of Holland protecting Rotterdam and The Hague. The German Eighteenth Army, led by Gen. (later Field Marshal) Georg von Küchler of Bock's Army Group B, launched the ground attack at dawn, the main column striking through the southern Netherlands to envelop the Dutch south flank. This column captured a railroad bridge across the Maas (Meuse) River intact, forcing the Dutch to relinquish their first line of defense along the river that night.

Beset by German planes, advance guards of the French Seventh Army reached Breda on the second day, May 11, there to try to hold with the Dutch forces that had fallen back from the Maas. Two days later, however, on May 13, the French were forced to retreat toward Antwerp. Meanwhile a German armored division made contact with the airborne troops near Rotterdam. While Queen Wilhelmina and the Dutch government left for England, the remainder of the Dutch Army withdrew into the Fortress of Holland. On the morning of May 14, the Germans warned that if resistance continued, Rotterdam and Utrecht would be destroyed from the air. Two hours before the ultimatum was to expire, the Luftwaffe leveled the business section of Rotterdam, inflicting 30,000 civilian casualties. With the tiny Dutch Air Force wiped out, the nation's final defensive line already breached, and no hope of Allied aid from any source, General Winkelman surrendered late on May 14.

Onslaught in Belgium.—Elsewhere in Bock's Army Group B, the Sixth Army under Gen. (later Field Marshal) Walter von Reichenau attacked just before dawn on May 10 to jump the Meuse and the Albert Canal north of Liège and swing southwestward into the Gembloux gap. Taking out the guns of Fort Eben-Emael was essential to the army's progress. In a minutely planned operation, German parachutists and glider troops landed within the fortress and quickly seized key points. The garrison was forced to surrender around noon on the second day, May 11. The line of the Meuse and the Albert thus compromised, the Belgians began to fall back to the Dyle that night under cover of advance contingents of British and French troops. Meanwhile, strong German units advanced on Liège. They occupied the city on May 12, but although they seized a number of the big forts, others held out, the last falling on May 29, though without



Map 6. GERMAN INVASION OF FRANCE AND THE LOW COUNTRIES (May 10—June 4, 1940). The German offensive was conducted as planned and proved surprisingly effective. Though hindered somewhat by the difficult terrain in the Ardennes, German armored forces finally broke through and raced for the Channel coast. With their forces in movement into Belgium and without knowledge of the speed and power of the new blitzkrieg, the Allies could not muster major resistance to the armored thrusts. Such minor counterattacks as could be organized and launched were futile. In less than two weeks, Adolf Hitler's armored forces had reached the coast. There they halted, allowing most of the British and many French troops to be evacuated to England from their entrapment at Dunkerque. By early June, the Germans were prepared for a thrust southward from the Somme-Aisne river line to complete the subjugation of France.

influencing the general course of the campaign.

By May 15, the Sixth Army had been built up against the Dyle Line, while the main column of the Eighteenth Army in the Netherlands swung southwestward against the Belgian left flank near Antwerp. Although the French First Army fought valiantly in the Gembloux gap, by the morning of May 16 French armor had incurred disturbing losses. So strong was the Sixth Army's onslaught against the Dyle Line that the Allies had considerable justification for continuing to believe that the main German effort was in the north. But it would now be only a question of time before Rundstedt's Army Group A, its panzer columns shielded at first by the forests and valleys of the Ardennes, made its full weight felt in the south.

Army Group A controlled six armies, three in line and three in reserve. The northernmost army, the Fourth under Gen. (later Field Marshal) Hans Günther von Kluge, pointed an armored corps at Dinant. In the center an armored force called Panzer Group Kleist after its commander, Gen. (later Field Marshal) Ewald von Kleist, was the equivalent of an army with two armored corps and a follow-up corps of 5 motorized divisions. The corps in the north under Gen. Hans Reinhardt had 2 armored divisions aimed at the Meuse around Monthermé; the other, with 3 armored divisions under Gen. (later Col. Gen.) Heinz Guderian, was aimed at Sedan. South of Panzer Group Kleist the Sixteenth Army under Gen. (later Field Marshal) Ernst Busch was to cover Kleist's south flank east of the Meuse. Once Kleist achieved his penetrations, three other armies were to move forward to protect the south flank of the drive to the sea.

On the French side the error of the high command

mand in placing two mediocre armies in the Ardennes sector against what was to be the main German effort was compounded by the dispositions ordered by the army commanders. General Huntziger (Second Army) put his strongest divisions in the Maginot Line; his weakest (newly mobilized reservists), along his left boundary near Sedan. General Corap (Ninth Army) put his two weakest divisions along his right boundary near that city. Thus the main German thrust of Kleist's armor was destined to strike not only the two weakest French armies but their weakest portions as well.

As Rundstedt and his subordinate commanders learned on May 10, there was some reason for the French theory that the Ardennes is a difficult barrier for major attacks. It took all of the first day for the armor to cross the undefended northern portion of Luxembourg. Yet on the second day the columns picked up momentum, and the cavalry of the Belgian *Chasseurs Ardennais* and of Corap's Ninth Army could do little to stay the German tanks. French aircraft were absent, preoccupied with the presumed main effort in the Gembloux gap. By nightfall of May 11, Guderian's columns had reached Bouillon, on the serpentine Semois River only a few miles from Sedan. Although a blown bridge forestalled further advance for the night, the armored corps forced a crossing early the next day, and by nightfall it overlooked the great loop in the Meuse at Sedan that had played a vital role in the defeat there in 1870 of the army of Napoleon III. Meanwhile, Reinhardt's armor reached the Meuse near Monthermé and Mézières, north of Sedan. Although both Reinhardt and Guderian prepared to cross the Meuse on May 13, the honor of the first bridgehead fell to the 7th Panzer Division of the Fourth Army, under the command of Gen. (later Field Marshal) Erwin Rommel. A column of the division reached the Meuse at Dinant on the evening of May 12, narrowly missed taking a railroad bridge intact, and then sent a patrol across during the night over an old dam or weir. Under concealment of a fog soon after daylight on May 13, reinforcements crossed in rubber assault boats. Night fell with Rommel holding a bridgehead a mile deep.

Neither Guderian nor Reinhardt had yet built up sizable forces for an assault crossing of the Meuse near Sedan, but an attack was ordered for the afternoon of May 13 in the hope of catching the French before they were prepared for it. To compensate for the absence of heavy artillery, hundreds of fighters and Stuka dive bombers began to bomb and strafe French positions four hours before the assault began. Confronted with this terrifying new departure in warfare, some of the defending French reservists panicked. Nevertheless, the French made their enemy pay dearly in the actual assault. Artillery and machine guns cut down half of the German troops, but the other half got across the river. Three out of four attempted crossings succeeded, and by midnight a pontoon bridge spanned the Meuse. The next day, May 14, General Huntziger hastily counterattacked Guderian's south flank with a cavalry division, though without appreciable success. Guderian's 2d Panzer Division plunged on to the west, seizing two bridges intact across the Ardennes Canal. The spectacular drive from the Meuse to the Channel coast had begun.

In the meantime, Reinhardt's armored corps had greater difficulty. French artillery and small-arms fire beat back two crossing attempts at Mézières and Monthermé. Not until almost nightfall, after tanks had arrived to deliver point-blank fire across the river, was a crossing achieved, and then only at heavy cost. All through the next day, May 14, the status of the bridgehead remained in doubt as the French mustered local reserves against it, but by the morning of May 15 Reinhardt's engineers had put in a pontoon bridge, and reinforcements poured across it. The French fallacy in failing to establish defenses in depth then became painfully apparent: by evening advance contingents of Reinhardt's armor were 35 miles beyond the Meuse, close to Guderian's flank. Army Group A had made a gap 50 miles wide in Second and Ninth Army positions. The breakthrough was complete.

Drive to the Channel.—The breakthrough in the south seriously jeopardized the main Allied forces in Belgium. The French Seventh Army on the extreme left had already lost some of its advance contingents in the Netherlands, and others retreated to the island of Walcheren between Antwerp and the sea (there to hold until May 17), while late on May 14 what remained of the army began to move southward under orders from General Gamelin to try to reinforce Corap's Ninth Army. The next day, Gamelin replaced Corap with the Seventh Army commander, Giraud. Meanwhile, the Belgians and the British were not particularly hard pressed in their positions behind the Dyle, and the French First Army at a continuing heavy cost in casualties maintained its positions in the Gembloux gap. In view of the breakthrough to the south, however, none of this mattered much. In midmorning of May 16, Gen. Gaston Henri Billotte, the army group commander in Belgium, ordered a withdrawal to the Scheldt River, the line originally contemplated in Plan E.

In the meantime, the French High Command had tried to muster reserves to eliminate the armored penetration near Sedan. There was a frenzy of improvisation—a division ordered here, another there, 7 divisions pulled out of the Maginot Line, the Second Army ordered to attack northward, the First Army ordered to attack southward—but none of it bore directly on the realities of the situation. In almost every case the scheduled times of counterattack showed that the French generals still failed to appreciate the speed of the new type of warfare. The only two counterattacks of any consequence were launched northeast of Laon by a newly created armored division, the 4th, under a general of brigade, Charles de Gaulle, who in the 1930's had raised one of the few voices urging French adaptation to the methods of armored warfare. Although de Gaulle gained initial successes on May 17 and May 19, he could not hold the positions he won without help.

Moving with impressive speed, Kleist's armor on May 18 took St.-Quentin, halfway to the Channel from Sedan, and by the end of the day had reached Péronne. The next day the tanks reached Amiens and Doullens, 40 miles from the coast. On May 20, Abbeville fell, and for all practical purposes German armor faced the Channel. The British line of communications, which had been based on Cherbourg and the Brittany ports in deference to German strength in the air, was severed. In 11 days the Germans had driven from the eastern frontier of Luxem-

bourg to the coast, a distance of more than 240 miles.

Allied attempts to stem the onrush north of the German penetration were almost as futile as the French efforts from the south. Although the BEF withdrew in good order to the Scheldt, arriving at the river during the night of May 18, the situation on both flanks had begun to disintegrate. Küchler's Eighteenth Army hammered the Belgians in front of Antwerp relentlessly and took the city on May 18. By May 21, the Belgians were back on the Lys River protecting Ghent (Gent). Although the French First Army held a salient extending southeast of Lille, the fact that the Ninth Army had collapsed (the new commander, Giraud, was captured on May 18) left the French right flank and thus the British rear unprotected. The next day the BEF commander, the 6th Viscount Gort, created two makeshift commands, each somewhat larger than a brigade, as a first step in forming a so-called canal line from the Channel near Dunkerque to the vicinity of Arras.

Short of an attempt to withdraw across the Channel, the only hope for the Allies appeared to lie in cutting the German penetration and thereby establishing a firm line from the Somme to the Scheldt. This General Gamelin ordered late on May 19, only a short while before the French government relieved him of command. The new supreme commander, Gen. Maxime Weygand, canceled the order pending consultation with the commanders in the pocket. Flying to Calais on May 21, Weygand talked with King Leopold III of the Belgians and with General Billotte, the army group commander, but he failed to see Lord Gort, who was delayed en route to the meeting. After ordering a combined British-French attack toward Bapaume and Cambrai with 8 divisions, to be met by a French attack northward across the Somme, Weygand departed. While returning from the conference, Billotte was killed in an automobile accident. Although Weygand ordered General Blanchard to fill the post of group commander, Billotte's death combined with Gamelin's relief and Weygand's delay to deprive the forces in the pocket of strong central command for three critical days when a coordinated counterattack to the south might have succeeded.

Under orders from his government, Lord Gort had already attempted one counterattack on May 21. With the promise of considerable help from the French First Army, he intended to drive southward from Arras, but as the French assistance materialized, it amounted to only 60 tanks, and unremitting German pressure forced the diversion of a substantial part of the British troops. The counterattack failed even to reach the first day's objectives a few miles below Arras, and as night fell, Gort pulled the troops back to Arras and the canal line. The next day, May 22, as the First Army mustered 2 divisions to counterattack, Gort was too hard pressed on his two fronts, the positions on the Scheldt and the canal line, to give any help. Although the French divisions almost reached the outskirts of Cambrai, German dive bombers forced their withdrawal. The French in the south then mounted an attack on May 23, but it failed even to cross the Somme. For all practical purposes, this ended the efforts to link the troops in the pocket, which still totaled 40 divisions, with the main French armies in the south.

Retreat to Dunkerque.—With the collapse of these measures, the forces in the pocket appeared doomed. Boulogne was about to fall, and Calais was under siege, leaving Dunkerque (q.v.) as the only port. German armor had already forced one crossing of the canal line, and a rapid thrust to cut the Allied troops from the sea seemed likely. Then, abruptly, the German armor came to a halt. In later years some German commanders tried to place full responsibility for the decision to halt the armor on Hitler, but contemporary records appear to indicate that even if the decision was Hitler's, the impetus for it came from Rundstedt. By May 23, Rundstedt's tanks had incurred 50 percent losses, and the terrain beyond the canal line, crisscrossed by waterways and flooded lowlands, was unattractive for armor. Furthermore, heavy tank losses at this stage would seriously endanger the pending attack southward across the Somme into the heart of France. In the early evening of May 23, Rundstedt ordered his armor to halt, ostensibly to reorganize before moving against the canal line. The next morning, however, after a conference with Rundstedt, Hitler sanctioned stopping the armor altogether and leaving the mopping up to the infantry divisions.

At almost the same moment a new threat developed from another direction against the forces in the pocket. On either side of Kortrijk (Courtrai) on the Lys River, Bock's Army Group B opened a major attack against the Belgians. Despite help rushed by the British and the French, the Belgian Army began to give way

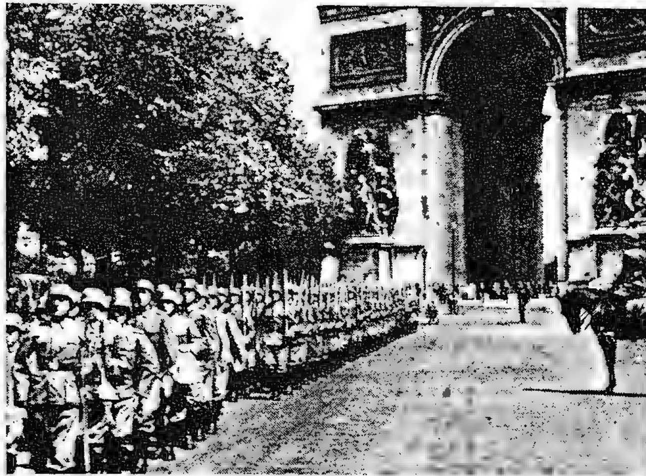
In June 1940, British troops wait in a queue on the dunes of Dunkerque to board small boats and be ferried to large vessels offshore.

The Times

on May 26. Concluding that his forces were too depleted and embattled to break away for withdrawal to the Yser River, King Leopold on the next day sent an emissary to the Germans to ask the terms of an armistice. Though the terms were unconditional surrender, he deemed that he had no choice but to accept, and the army surrendered on May 28. Anticipating the Belgian collapse, the British government, in the early evening of May 26, had authorized Lord Gort to withdraw the BEF to England. The French Command authorized one of three French corps to participate in the withdrawal, but the other two corps of 6 divisions, closely engaged near Lille, fought on until they were surrounded, eventually surrendering on June 1.

The withdrawal to a shallow perimeter based on canal and river lines around Dunkerque began the night of May 27 and continued through the next day. The embarkation maneuver, called Operation Dynamo, began officially on May 27. A disappointing 7,669 men were embarked that day, but the tempo of the operation picked up thereafter. A total of 848 British, Dutch, Belgian, and French ships of all sizes from destroyers and Channel ferries to fishing smacks and private yachts plied the rough waters of the Channel under the cannon and bombs of the Luftwaffe and the guns of coastal batteries for eight days and nights. They removed from the harbor of Dunkerque and nearby beaches 338,226 men, two thirds of them British.

Fall of France.—While these dramatic events occurred in the north, the French south of the German penetration were attempting to build a new line generally along the Somme and Aisne rivers. Known as the Weygand Line, the new positions emphasized defense in depth in the hope of sealing off German penetrations and permitting prompt local counterattacks. With his forces reduced by half, General Weygand concentrated his greatest strength in the coastal sector, where he expected the Germans to strike for the ports to deny aid from Britain, and on the plain of Champagne east of Reims, which



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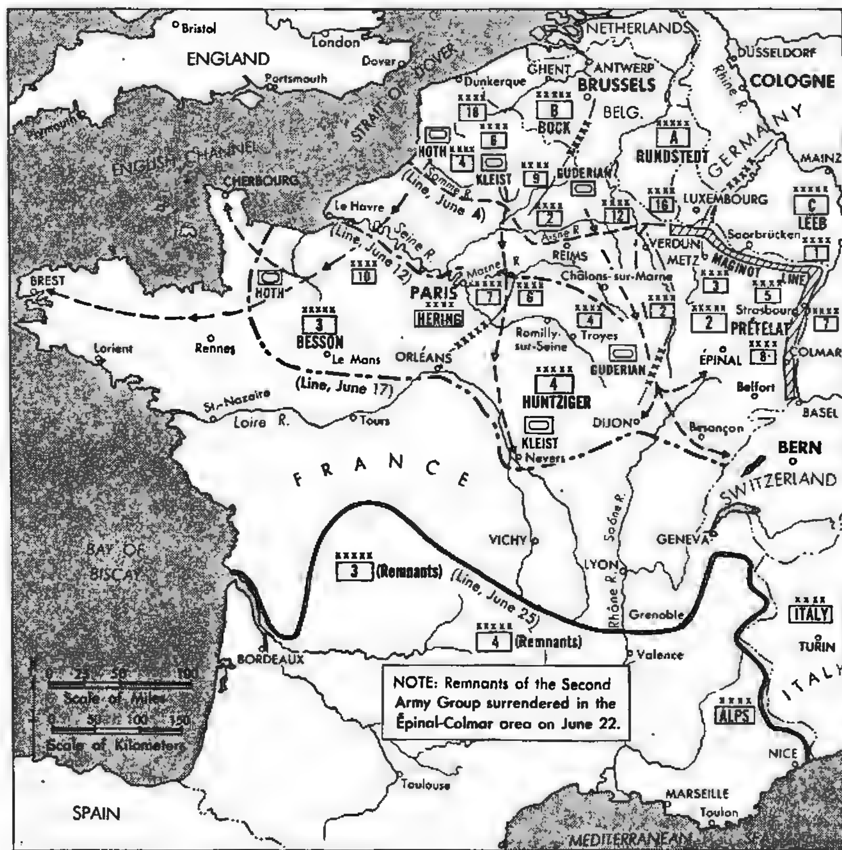
Paris fell to the Germans on June 14, 1940. Here, in front of the Arch of Triumph, a company of occupation troops marches on guard duty.



Map 7. FALL OF FRANCE (June 5–25, 1940). Gen. Maxime Weygand strove desperately to organize a defense behind the Somme and the Aisne, but he had insufficient forces to stem the overwhelming power of the German offensive. The crisis came on June 12, when Gen. Heinz Guderian's armor broke through the line at Châlons-sur-Marne and raced toward the Swiss border, which it reached on June 17, trapping the 500,000 Frenchmen in the Maginot Line. Thereafter, organized resistance collapsed. Paris fell on June 14; by June 25, the German advance had reached the line shown. Benito Mussolini had joined Adolf Hitler in the war on June 10, and pressed the French in the south. Fighting stopped on June 25, after the French had signed armistices with the Germans and the Italians.

offered ideal ground for tanks. He had correctly divined the German intentions, but the entire Somme portion of the new line was weak from the outset because of German bridgeheads established during the dash to the sea. On June 5 and June 6, Bock's Army Group B launched what was considered the secondary effort northwest of Paris. Although the French fought with bitter determination, fresh German units soon made the difference. By nightfall on June 8, Bock had achieved a decisive breakthrough. As the French northwest of Paris fell back, they compromised the left flank of the armies on the Aisne. Here, where Rundstedt's Army Group A launched the German main effort on June 9, gains for the first three days were meager, and even small gains came under immediate French counterattack. Then, on June 11, the French were forced to fall back behind the Marne in deference to their open flank. The next day, as four armored divisions under Guderian broke through, the fate of France was sealed.

Meanwhile, Benito Mussolini's Fascist Italy declared war on France and Great Britain on June 10. As the French government declared Paris an open city and withdrew, first to Tours and then to Bordeaux, the Germans entered the capital on June 14. On the same day, Army Group C, commanded by Gen. (later Field Marshal) Wilhelm von Leeb, began to attack the Maginot Line and achieved two quick penetrations against a garrison minus its mobile reserves. On June 17, Guderian's tanks reached the Swiss border, cutting off the 500,000 French still in the big forts.

As Premier Paul Reynaud considered the possibility of withdrawing the government to North Africa to continue the war, Prime Minister Winston Churchill encouraged him on June 16 with an offer of "indissoluble union" with Britain, but a majority of the cabinet voted to request armistice terms. On June 17, the aging World War I hero, Marshal Philippe Pétain, heading a new government, asked for an armistice. In the early minutes of June 25, the six-week ordeal ended. France lay prostrate, beaten in a 42-day campaign that stunned the world.

German casualties in the campaign were comparatively light, approximating 156,000, including 27,000 killed and 18,000 missing. The British incurred 68,000 casualties, plus the loss of almost all their weapons and equipment. The French have estimated that they lost 123,600 men killed, missing, and captured and 200,000 wounded. The Germans claimed 1,500,000 prisoners, a not unlikely figure in view of wholesale French surrenders between Pétain's request for an armistice and the final cease-fire.

Battle of Britain.—Britain stood alone, protected only by the Royal Navy, the moat of the Channel, an army almost devoid of guns, 59 Royal Air Force (RAF) fighter squadrons, and grim determination. While the German armies were defeating France, Hitler directed preliminary planning for the invasion of Britain (Operation Sea Lion). It soon became apparent that the defeat of the RAF was a vital preliminary to any invasion attempt. Although the Luftwaffe initiated strikes against coastal shipping early in July, it was the end of the month before the necessary bases could be built up in France and the Low Countries for the air offensive to begin in earnest. In an air battle that lasted until the end of October, the German object throughout

Imperial War Museum, London

During the heavy German air raids of November 194… Londoners take shelter in the Underground. Here a group spends the night in the Elephant and Castle station.

was to destroy RAF fighter strength, thus providing a free field for German bombers. To achieve this goal the Luftwaffe concentrated primarily against ports and shipping until August 12, and from August 13 to September 6 against airfields and aircraft factories.

As had been proved in the skies above Dunkerque, the British Spitfire fighters were superior to the German mainstay, the Messerschmitt 109 in maneuverability and armament and at least its equal in speed. Moreover, the Germans had to contend with the valor of British pilots and the efficiency of British radar and ground defenses. In the first phase of the battle, German fighters flew from 5,000 to 10,000 feet above their bombers; this enabled part of the RAF fighters to make a holding attack against the German fighters while the others struck at the bombers. In the second phase the Luftwaffe switched tactics to provide fighter cover at lower levels, but the British countered by intercepting the attackers farther out. In both phases the RAF inflicted disproportionately heavy losses on the Luftwaffe. On August 16, for example, the Germans lost 144 of 1,000 planes, while the British lost only 18. Unrealistic claims by Luftwaffe pilots soon confused the Luftwaffe command: on August 16, the pilots erroneously claimed 65 British planes. When this led to the inevitable assumption that the RAF's first line of defense had been broken, the Germans switched on September 7 to inland targets, including cities in the hope of bringing to battle RAF reserves. Thus began the large-scale raids on cities like London and Coventry, which inflicted heavy damage and high civilian casualties but did little to change the ratio of British and German losses in planes.

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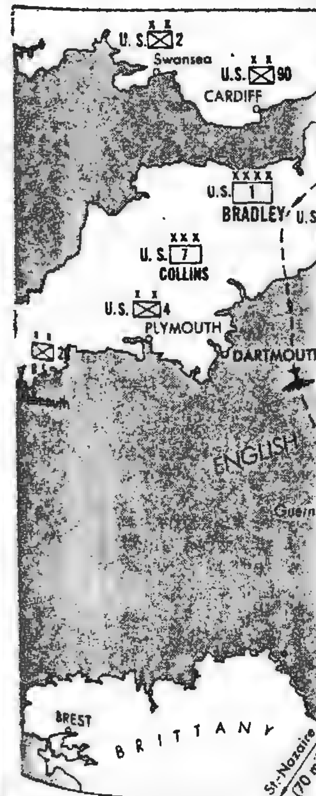


By September 12, continued heavy air attacks and a concentration of barges in Belgian and French ports convinced many persons in Britain that invasion was iminent. Actually, no invasion was ever ordered or attempted. On September 17, Hitler tacitly admitted defeat in the Battle of Britain by postponing the invasion indefinitely. During the last week of September continued high German losses brought an end to large-scale daylight raids. As the Luftwaffe turned to night attacks, mainly against London, the battle took on the aspects of a siege. Although air attacks would continue through much of the war, the Battle of Britain per se was over by mid-October as Hitler turned his attention toward the Balkans and the Soviet Union.

In the Battle of Britain the RAF lost a total of 790 fighters; the Luftwaffe, 1,389 planes of all types. As an indication of the thin margin on which the RAF operated, there were only 570 Hurricanes and Spitfires on hand at the height of the battle. "Never in the field of human conflict," said Churchill, "was so much owed by so many to so few." Britain had stood alone, and Britain had won.

See also section *13. Developments in Air Warfare;* separate biographies of the leading military and political figures; BELGIUM—*5. History* (Belgium in World War II); FORTIFICATIONS—*Permanent Fortifications* (Modern Fortifications): World War II; FRANCE—*31. History: The Third Republic, 1870–1940* (Crisis and Collapse); LUXEMBOURG—*History;* NETHERLANDS—*History* (Development Since World War I).

CHARLES B. MACDONALD,
Chief, World War II Branch, Office of the Chief of Military History, Department of the Army.

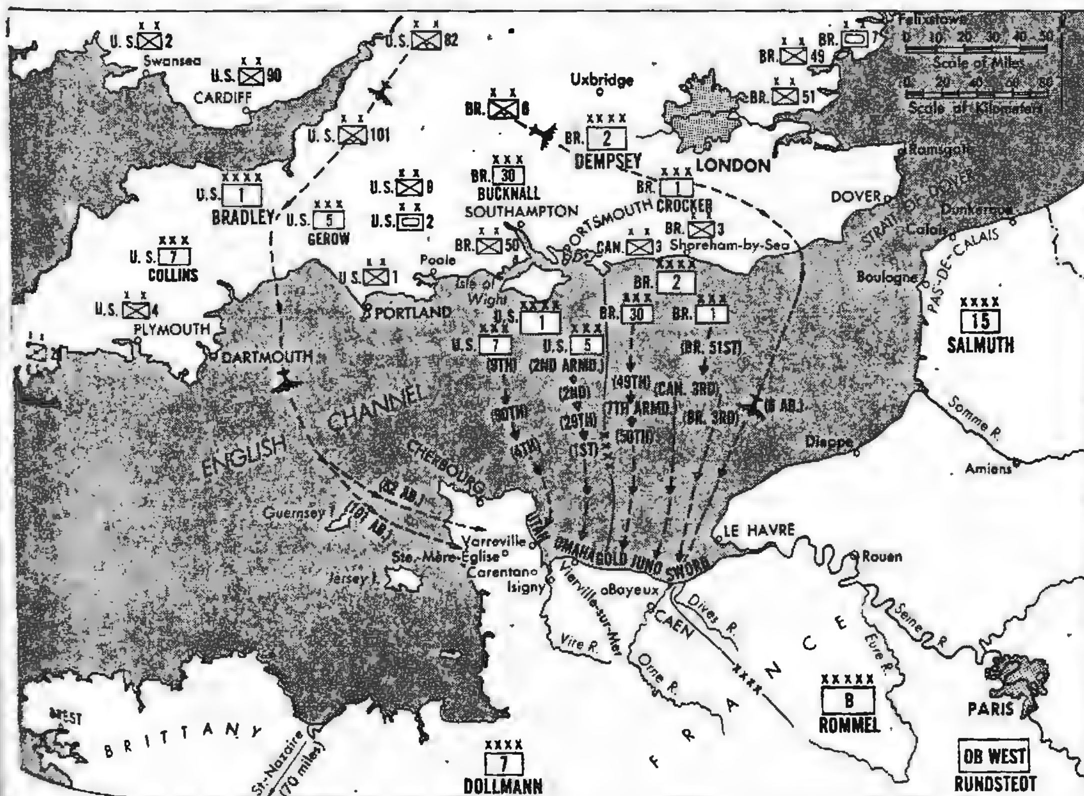
5. Recovery of France and Advance into Germany

PLANS FOR THE ALLIED INVASION OF FRANCE

Even though military resources in Britain were meager after the withdrawal from France in 1940, British forces soon began to plan a return to the Continent. In September 1941, the British Chiefs of Staff charged Adm. Lord Louis Mountbatten (later 1st Earl Mountbatten of Burma), who headed the Combined Operations Headquarters, with investigating the technical problems of amphibious operations. Not long afterward the British joint planners drew up the first formal plan for a cross-Channel attack. This plan, which was called Roundup, assumed a marked deterioration of German strength. Projecting the use of relatively small British forces, it was designed to disrupt German withdrawal to the homeland in the final phase of the war.

Though American military officers were in England as observers as early as October 1940, the World War II alliance between the English-speaking nations began to take definite shape only in January 1941. This was the month when American and British military officers met in Washington for conversations that became known as ABC-1. The agreements reached—that the two nations were to maintain joint planning staffs in

Map 8. THE ALLIES RETURN TO FRANCE (June 6, 1944). The map shows the concentration areas of the invasion forces in England, their organization for the invasion, the beaches at which the five assault forces were to land, and the airborne operations to be conducted in support of the amphibious assaults.



Washington and London and that, if forced into war with both Japan and Germany, the United States would join Britain in defeating Germany first—started the chain of events that led to the eventual cross-Channel invasion and victory in Europe. It was two months later, in March, when Congress passed the Lend-Lease Act, which authorized the United States to provide war materials for nations under Axis attack. By June, with the American observers in London having become the Special Observer Group and the British having sent representatives to Washington, the two countries were in close liaison. Though the United States still was not at war, American troops replaced British troops in Iceland in July 1941, and later in the summer began to construct naval and air bases in the United Kingdom, ostensibly for British use.

Developing Alliance.—Immediately after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor and the German declaration of war against the United States, as American and British military leaders met in Washington in a series of conferences known as Arcadia (December 1941–January 1942), they reaffirmed the ABC-1 decision to remain on the strategic defensive in the Pacific while defeating Germany first. They decided to wear down German resistance in 1942 by air bombardment, by assisting the USSR, and by trying to gain the entire North African coast, before initiating in 1943 a large-scale land offensive against Germany across either the Mediterranean Sea or the English channel. They also created the Combined Chiefs of Staff (CCS), consisting of the United States Joint Chiefs of Staff and the British Chiefs of Staff, as the body to assist and advise President Franklin D. Roosevelt and Prime Minister Winston Churchill on the direction and conduct of the war. The most prominent members of the CCS were Gen. (later General of the Army) George C. Marshall, United States Army chief of staff, and Gen. (later Field Marshal) Sir Alan F. Brooke (later 1st Viscount Alanbrooke), chief of the Imperial General Staff. Because the CCS met only periodically, the American and British members did the detailed work of planning separately. Those most concerned with planning a European invasion were the Operations Division (OPD) of the United States War Department and the British Combined Commanders (the senior ground, naval, and air officers, together with Lord Mountbatten).

Differences between the Allies in general strategic outlook soon became apparent. The British, acutely conscious of the difficulty of a Channel crossing, aware of the need for special boats and equipment, and impressed by the strength of the German Army, favored a peripheral strategy, including ground operations in the Mediterranean or in Scandinavia and such indirect methods of attack as blockade, air bombardment, and the encouragement of subversive activities in German-occupied countries. Only when the Germans had been weakened to the point where an invasion would be sure of success was a cross-Channel attack to be launched. The Americans, more conscious of the needs of the Pacific war, and therefore impatient for victory in Europe, rejected the peripheral areas for major operations, for they believed that only by a showdown in northwestern Europe could the Germans be beaten.

As the first American ground troops (34th Division) arrived in Northern Ireland in January 1942, the Special Observer Group was redesignated the United States Army Forces in the British Isles. Not long afterward, United States air force contingents began to arrive in England for eventual participation in the bombardment of German-held Europe, and in July American air crews in borrowed Royal Air Force (RAF) planes flew their first mission, a daylight attack against German airfields in the Netherlands. Then, in August, the Eighth Air Force, commanded by Maj. Gen. (later Gen.) Carl Spaatz, carried out the first bombing of Europe by American pilots flying American planes.

Because the Americans still were building up their strength and because British resources were hardly sufficient to carry out a cross-Channel attack alone, the British chiefs concluded that no cross-Channel operation was feasible in 1942 unless Germany showed unmistakable signs of collapse. Even 1943 remained doubtful. In March 1942, the OPD nevertheless began work on an outline plan for a full-scale invasion of Europe in 1943. The following month, General Marshall and Harry Hopkins, confidential adviser to President Roosevelt, went to London to try to gain British acceptance of the idea. The British agreed not only with the concept but also with a War Department proposal, code named Bolero, for a great buildup of American forces in Britain with approximately 1 million men to be equipped and trained to carry out air operations in 1942 and a major invasion of the Continent in 1943. To implement the decision, Maj. Gen. (later Lt. Gen.) John C. H. Lee arrived in the United Kingdom in May to activate the Services of Supply. On June 24, Maj. Gen. (later General of the Army) Dwight D. Eisenhower arrived to take command of the European Theater of Operations, United States Army (ETOUSA).

Approval of the 1943 invasion—landings on a wide front between Boulogne and Le Havre, or Roundup, as it was called—did not solve the problem of what to do in 1942. That summer, President Roosevelt became increasingly convinced of the need for active operations in the European area before the end of the year. The commencement of a new German offensive in the USSR in June and British reverses in North Africa had their effects on his thinking. Fortunately, two decisive naval victories over the Japanese in May and June (Coral Sea and Midway) relieved the immediate threat to Australia and made it possible for the United States to divert greater resources to Europe. Despite the recommendations of General Marshall and Adm. (later Admiral of the Fleet) Ernest J. King, United States chief of naval operations (both of whom considered a North African venture a dispersal of strength), Roosevelt accepted a British proposal to invade North Africa that year (Operation Torch). The CCS appointed Eisenhower to assume immediate control of the planning. The decision to invade North Africa placed the Bolero-Roundup concept in jeopardy. Though planning for an eventual cross-Channel operation continued, Torch absorbed almost the entire effort and attention of the Allies in the European area. The invasion on Nov. 8, 1942, and the subsequent campaign through the winter and spring drained men, matériel, and supplies from the American buildup in the British Isles.

Meanwhile, the British had executed two daring raids against the German-held French coast. In March 1942, specially trained troops

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called Commandos launched a hit-and-run foray against St.-Nazaire and destroyed submarine pens and other naval facilities. In August, a joint British and Canadian command, with 5,000 Canadians, 1,000 British, and 50 United States Rangers, raided Dieppe in a miniature invasion to test amphibious tactics and techniques. Involving the full use of combined arms and the mass landings of infantry and armor to seize a beachhead, the Dieppe operation was designed not to hold a beachhead but rather to test the ability of the newly developed LCT (landing craft, tank) to land tanks across beaches, to see whether it was possible to capture a port in a frontal assault, to scrutinize the organization of air forces for overhead cover and support, and to test the naval management of a considerable invasion fleet. Of the 6,100 troops embarked for Dieppe, about 2,500 returned, including about 1,000 who never landed. The others were killed or captured.

Plans Developed.—When the CCS met at Casablanca in January 1943, it was a time of optimism. The Germans had been decisively defeated in North Africa, though the campaign would continue until May. The Russians had taken the offensive after stopping the Germans at Stalingrad (now Volgograd), and Japanese expansion in the Pacific had definitely been checked. As a consequence, the greatest obstacle blocking offensive operations against the European continent that year was the relative paucity of Allied resources, particularly the shortage of shipping due to the effectiveness of German submarine warfare.

To make the Mediterranean safe for shipping, the Allies at Casablanca decided to invade Sicily after completing the conquest of the North African shore. By seizing Sicily, they hoped also to remove Italy from the war. To increase pressure on Germany, they agreed to initiate intensified air attacks from the United Kingdom, called the combined bomber offensive (Operation Pointblank). But for a major invasion across the Channel in 1943 the Allied leaders judged their resources insufficient. Though they set up a combined command and planning organization, it was designed to plan for small-scale raids and a return to the Continent in 1943 only if the Germans collapsed. A full-scale invasion was reserved for 1944.

Studying the Dieppe experience, the CCS planners concluded that the strength of the enemy defenses along the Channel coast required an immense concentration of power in the initial assault. Instead of dispersed landings, instead of many separate assaults by regimental and Commando units, it was better to make a single main landing. The beachhead initially secured should then be expanded and developed into a lodgment for the entire invasion force scheduled to follow. The area of initial assault and subsequent lodgment had various requirements. It had to be within range of fighter planes based in the United Kingdom; it had to provide airfields and sites suitable for constructing airfields soon after the invasion; it had to have at least one major port; and the landing beaches had to be sheltered from winds, suitable for prolonged maintenance operations, provided with adequate exits, and backed by good road nets. Furthermore, naval shelling, air bombardment, or airborne landings would have to be capable of reducing or crippling the beach defenses. The area most appropriate for initial landings, the planners decided, was the Channel coast of France between Caen and Cherbourg.

When the CCS approved this analysis on March 1, 1943, they transmitted it as the basic paper for cross-Channel planning to Lt. Gen. (later Sir) Frederick E. Morgan, a British officer appointed that month as chief of staff to the supreme Allied commander (COSSAC). In a subsequent directive issued on April 23, the CCS instructed Morgan to set up an Allied headquarters for the supreme commander, who had yet to be named, and to plan to invade northwestern Europe as early as possible in 1944. Meanwhile, in February 1943, General Eisenhower, the supreme Allied commander in the Mediterranean, had relinquished command of ETOUSA, with its headquarters in England, to Lt. Gen. Frank M. Andrews. In May, when Andrews died in an air accident, Lt. Gen. (later Gen.) Jacob L. Devers took his place.

In May 1943, at the Trident Conference in Washington, the CCS enlarged the Allied bomber offensive from the United Kingdom, decided to exploit the projected Sicily operation to ensure the elimination of Italy from the war, and set a target date for a cross-Channel operation on May 1, 1944. In the future, men, matériel, and supplies were not to be diverted from the Bolero buildup for Mediterranean operations; on the contrary, 7 Allied divisions were to return from the Mediterranean area to the United Kingdom. The Allies visualized 29 divisions available for the invasion of France by the spring of 1944.

The reason for this optimistic estimate was the success of Allied warships and planes in destroying a growing number of German submarines during the spring of 1943. The decrease in shipping losses, combined with an increase in shipyard production and the freezing of resources in the Mediterranean, made possible a tremendous buildup of American forces in the United Kingdom. It was predicted that 1,300,000 United States troops (400,000 air force and 900,000 ground combat and service troops, including more than 18 combat divisions) would be in the United Kingdom by May 1944.

During the summer of 1943, COSSAC formulated three plans: Cockade, essentially a deception operation designed to pin German forces down in the west by encouraging their expectations of an Allied invasion that year; Rankin, a blueprint for occupying the Continent in case of a sudden German collapse; and Overlord, an invasion in the Caen-Cotentin area with an initial assault of from 3 to 5 divisions. In reality a concept to be used as the basis for later detailed planning, Overlord accepted the risk of prolonged beach maintenance by depending on the development of two prefabricated ports (code named Mulberries) to be towed across the Channel during the invasion. Under Overlord the initial mission of the invasion forces was to gain a lodgment area between the Seine and Loire rivers in France. As increasing numbers of combat units entered the lodgment area, ports, airfields, and supply installations would be developed and organized to support a subsequent drive toward Germany.

The planners assumed that it would take three months to secure lodgment. They then expected a pause for logistical reasons before an advance could be made beyond the Seine. Because they anticipated that the Germans would destroy the

facilities of Cherbourg and Brest, they thought of developing a major port of entry for United States forces on the south shore of Brittany at Quiberon Bay (Operation Chastity).

The Allied conquest of Sicily (July–August 1943), the fall of Benito Mussolini (July 25), negotiations for the surrender of Italy (eventually announced on September 8), and preparations for an Allied invasion of the Italian mainland (to be initiated on September 3), together with the Soviet seizure of initiative on the eastern front, provided a bright background for the CCS meeting at Quebec in August 1943. Though the CCS accepted COSSAC's Overlord concept, the debates between the Allies demonstrated divergent points of view. The British espoused a strategy essentially opportunistic, a view that reemphasized peripheral operations aimed at reducing German power by indirect attack (increased air and sea operations, plus intensified ground operations in the Mediterranean) in order to make the cross-Channel attack a success without question. They favored leaving the timing of Overlord somewhat indefinite. The Americans, wanting a power thrust to be made as quickly as possible, urged a definite commitment for Overlord, preferably May 1. The result was a compromise. Though May 1 remained the target date, it was not an altogether firm commitment. Yet the Allies agreed to give Overlord strict priority over operations in the Mediterranean. Accepting COSSAC's wish for a diversionary invasion of southern France, the CCS instructed General Eisenhower to draw plans for an operation to be executed from Mediterranean resources, timed to coincide with Overlord, and designed to gain lodgment in the Toulon-Marseille area, with a subsequent exploitation to the north and a juncture with the Overlord forces.

Selection of Commanders.—Selecting a supreme commander for the cross-Channel invasion was no easy matter. When an invasion in 1943 had seemed possible and the bulk of the resources would have been British, Churchill had informed General Brooke that he was to command the invasion forces. Later, when the preponderance of American resources dictated the choice of an American commander, Roosevelt and the British as well inclined toward General Marshall. But because Roosevelt wished Marshall to remain in control of the over-all American effort (Marshall was invaluable in balancing the sometimes conflicting demands of the Pacific and European theaters), the president, in December 1943, appointed General Eisenhower supreme commander of the Allied Expeditionary Force. Eisenhower's chief of staff, Lt. Gen. (later Gen.) Walter Bedell Smith, transformed the COSSAC staff into the Supreme Headquarters, Allied Expeditionary Force (SHAEF), with General Morgan remaining as deputy chief of staff. Eisenhower assumed his new position on Jan. 16, 1944, and General Devers was transferred to North Africa as commander of United States forces in the Mediterranean.

Gen. (later Field Marshal) Sir Bernard Law Montgomery (later 1st Viscount Montgomery of Alamein), who had led the Eighth Army in North Africa, Sicily, and Italy, was at the same time named to command the Twenty-first Army Group, the supreme British headquarters for the invasion. Eisenhower directed Montgomery to act as ground force commander during the initial phase of the invasion but reserved for himself the eventual control of the Allied land forces. The major ground commanders were Lt. Gen. (later Gen.) Sir Miles C. Dempsey, who commanded the British Second Army; Lt. Gen. (later Gen.) Henry D. G. Crerar, in command of the Canadian First Army; and Lt. Gen. (later General of the Army) Omar N. Bradley, who took command of the United States First Army and of the United States First Army Group (later renamed the Twelfth Army Group). Lt. Gen. (later Gen.) George S. Patton, Jr., placed in command of the United States Third Army, was to head the immediate American follow-up force.

Eisenhower's deputy commander, Air Chief Marshal Sir Arthur W. Tedder (later 1st Baron Tedder), acted as coordinator of the air forces: the tactical air forces organized under Air Chief Marshal Sir Trafford L. Leigh-Mallory, who commanded the Allied Expeditionary Air Force (AEAF); and the strategic air forces, composed of the RAF Bomber Command, under Air Chief Marshal Sir Arthur T. Harris, and the United States Strategic Air Forces under General Spaatz. Adm. Sir Bertram H. Ramsay took command of the naval forces for the invasion, with Rear Adm. (later Admiral of the Fleet) Sir Philip Vian commanding the Eastern Naval Task Force, scheduled to transport British troops, and Rear Adm. (later Adm.) Alan G. Kirk the Western Naval Task Force, which was to carry the American assault forces.

Final Plans.—After studying the Overlord concept, Generals Eisenhower and Montgomery concluded that the initial assault needed to be strengthened and yet made on a broadened front. This required additional landing craft, troops, and vehicles, and this in turn led to debate over whether the diversionary invasion on the Mediterranean coast of France, an operation code named Anvil, was really necessary. When the Anzio beachhead in Italy exerted its requirements for shipping, Eisenhower in March 1944 suggested canceling Anvil as an attack simultaneous with Overlord. In accepting the recommendation, the CCS assured SHAEF of the additional landing craft and other matériel needed for a stronger cross-Channel attack, but the complex requirements of assembling the means for the invasion of Europe had made it necessary to change the landing date from May to June. Meanwhile, on February 1, Montgomery, Ramsay, and Leigh-Mallory had drawn the initial joint plan (Neptune) for the invasion. A refinement of the Overlord concept, Neptune was at the same time a directive instructing the subordinate headquarters to plan the assault in greater detail.

As finally completed in the spring of 1944, the invasion plan called for assaults by the United States First and British Second armies. The First Army was to invade the Normandy shore in the Carentan-Isigny area with two corps. Northwest of Carentan the 82d and 101st Airborne divisions were to drop near Ste.-Mère-Église in order to assist the 4th Infantry Division of the 7th Corps to land on Utah Beach near Varreville. East of Isigny, in the 5th Corps zone, the 1st Infantry Division with part of the 29th Division was to land over Omaha Beach near Vierville-sur-Mer. Operating in the Bayeux-Caen area, the British were to send the 50th Division under the 30th Corps across Gold Beach near Arromanches-les-Bains, the Canadian 3d Division under the 1st Corps across Juno Beach near Courseulles, and the 3d Division, also under

the 1st Corps, across Sword Beach near Lion-sur-Mer. The 6th Airborne Division was to drop northeast of Caen near the mouth of the Orne River to protect the British flank.

The troops making the amphibious landings were to be carried by naval transports to positions 11 miles offshore in the American zone and [illegible] miles offshore in the British zone. The troops then were to board LCVP's (landing craft, vehicle and personnel) and LCA's (landing craft, assault), each craft carrying about 30 men. The small craft were to go in abreast in waves and touch down at regular intervals along the length of the assault beaches. Following them were to be larger craft carrying heavy weapons, guns, tanks, and engineer equipment. Finally, LST's (landing ships, tank) were to nose onto the beaches and disgorge additional men, equipment, and supplies. Naval fire-support plans emphasized neutralizing enemy positions rather than destroying them. The air forces planned to maintain an umbrella of fighter planes to protect the ground and naval units from German air attacks and also to provide air bombardment to help the ground forces overcome obstacles impeding their progress ashore.

Long before the day of invasion, called D-day, the air forces had begun to play a significant preparatory role. Since 1942, British and American airmen had bombed military targets in German-occupied Europe, but no clear directive or over-all plan had existed before the combined bomber offensive directed by the CCS at Casablanca in January 1943. The targets of this offensive were the German industrial and economic systems and the morale of the German people. The Americans favored daylight precision bombing to destroy critical sectors of German industry. Believing daylight bombing too costly, the British favored night bombardment aimed at destroying entire industrial and military areas. Each operated according to its own doctrine, both concentrating on submarine construction yards, airplane factories, transportation systems, oil plants, and other war industries. In October 1943, attempts were first made to coordinate the bombings from North African and Italian bases with the combined bomber offensive from the United Kingdom.

In April 1944, Eisenhower took control of the strategic air forces and used them in support of Overlord. Though the over-all mission of destroying the German military and economic system remained, the particular mission was to deplete the German Air Force and destroy the facilities serving it, to destroy the German oil industry, and to disrupt rail communications, especially those that might serve the Germans in moving reinforcements to the Overlord lodgment area. Heavy air attacks in May 1944 shifted to bridges over the Seine, Oise, and Meuse rivers, and by June Allied air attacks had weakened the railroad transportation system in France to the point of collapse.

French Resistance.—Contributing toward the disruption of the railroads and highways in France were the efforts of the French resistance, a movement that had sprung up spontaneously after the surrender of France in 1940. As early as that year a headquarters established by Gen. Charles de Gaulle in London formed a special staff which was charged with organizing, directing, and supplying resistance units. For more than two years this agency worked to amalgamate the autonomous resistance groups. The culmination of its efforts was the formation of a National Resistance Council, which met for the first time in Paris on May 27, 1943, under the presidency of Jean Moulin. Representing not only the main resistance groups but also the principal political parties, the council recognized de Gaulle and his London headquarters as trustees of the French nation, responsible for founding eventually a French government based on democratic principles. De Gaulle's personal representative, Moulin, became the political leader of the resistance, and the National Resistance Council created an underground army organized on a regional basis. In the following month the Gestapo smashed the organization by making wholesale arrests. Moulin died under torture, and the leadership was decimated. The result was the decentralization of the resistance and its concentration on sabotage and paramilitary action.

Beginning in November 1940, the Special Operations Executive (SOE), a British organization, encouraged, directed, and supplied the French resistance. Operating under the minister of economic warfare, the SOE eventually had the aim of developing the resistance into a strategic weapon that could be directed by Allied headquarters against military objectives in accordance with a master plan. The SOE therefore set up and maintained communications between London

Établissement Cinématographique des Armées

Top: A group of French civilian guerrilla fighters, taken prisoner by the Germans, is lined up to be shot. Bottom: In August 1944, as Paris is liberated, German troops surrender to a detachment of Free French forces.

and resistance centers in France, parachuted agents into the country beginning in the spring of 1941, and dropped such supplies as explosives, small arms, flashlights, and radios. In 1942 the SOE parachuted 17 radio operators and 36 other agents into France.

At the beginning of 1943, when the Germans put into effect a forced labor draft in France, thousands of young Frenchmen, particularly in central and southern France, rebelled. To escape the draft, they formed *maquis* bands to conduct guerrilla warfare against the Germans and the collaborationist French Militia. The SOE assisted by increasing the amounts of supplies dropped into France. The American Office of Strategic Services (OSS) began to take part in the underground movement at this time by sending its own agents into France in cooperation with the SOE. The London headquarters of the OSS was fused with the British agency in January 1944, when American planes also began to fly supply missions to the resistance.

In the fall of 1943, COSSAC took responsibility for directing those aspects of the partisan and underground movements on the Continent insofar as they related to invasion plans. SOE and OSS operations came under the control of COSSAC and eventually under General Eisenhower's headquarters, SHAEF. Because it was hard to assess resistance strength, because German arrests could suddenly emasculate the movement, and because control of resistance activities was difficult and uncertain, the Allied planners decided to regard resistance help as a bonus rather than trying to use it to gain strategic objectives. Consequently, the underground army in France, numbering about 200,000 men, confined itself to gathering and transmitting intelligence information and performing sabotage in war industries, against railroads and canals, and against telephone and telegraph facilities. Accelerating its sabotage in 1944 against German troops and supply trains, the resistance cut tracks, destroyed bridges, and damaged locomotives in a campaign closely attuned to the Allied air offensive.

In late May and early June, in order to regularize the resistance activities, General de Gaulle, with the blessing of the Allied leaders, established a headquarters and staff in London for the French Forces of the Interior (FFI), with Gen. Joseph P. Koenig in command. The FFI then became a component of the Allied armies under Eisenhower, the supreme Allied commander. To link the resistance groups in France more closely to the Allied command, so-called Jedburgh teams (consisting of a French and an American or a British officer, plus a radio operator) were parachuted into France in uniform shortly before D-day. About 87 teams were operational in France at one time or another. Though it is difficult to evaluate the effectiveness of the resistance, there is no doubt that it was a moral as well as a material force that contributed to the eventual defeat of the Germans.

German Forces.—On the German side, Adolf Hitler exercised direct control over military operations. He was the supreme commander in chief of the armed forces (Wehrmacht). His staff was the High Command of the Armed Forces (*Oberkommando der Wehrmacht* or OKW), headed by Field Marshal Wilhelm Keitel. Under OKW, in theory, were the Air Force High Command (*Oberkommando der Luftwaffe* or OKL), headed by Reich Marshal Hermann Goering (Göring), the Navy High Command (*Oberkommando der Kriegsmarine* or OKM), under Grand Admiral Karl Doenitz (Dönitz); and the Army High Command (*Oberkommando des Heeres* or OKH), headed by Hitler. In actuality, OKH directed the Russian campaign, while OKW was responsible for western Europe.

Navy Group West and the Third Air Fleet controlled naval and air forces in western Europe. The ground force field command was the *Oberbefehlshaber West* (OB West), which acted somewhat like a theater headquarters under Field Marshal Gerd von Rundstedt, the commander in chief in the west, who operated under Hitler's close supervision. The operations staff of OKW, the *Wehrmachtführungsstab* (WFSt), under Col. Gen. Alfred Jodl, was the direct agent between OB West and Hitler. Rundstedt controlled two army groups: Army Group G under Col. Gen. Johannes Blaskowitz, responsible for the Mediterranean (Nineteenth Army) and Atlantic (First Army) coasts of France; and Army Group B under Field Marshal Erwin Rommel, charged with defending the Channel coast with the Seventh and Fifteenth armies.

The chain of command that operated at the time of the invasion was Hitler, who made his wishes known through the WFSt of OKW (Jodl), to OB West (Rundstedt), to Army Group B (Rommel), and then to the Seventh Army, which was responsible for defending the lodgment area designated by the Overlord plan as the objective of the invasion force.

The steady drain of the eastern front left the Germans in France with two kinds of units, old divisions that had lost many good men and much equipment, and new divisions that were either of excellent combat value or were only partially equipped and trained. In June 1944, Rundstedt had 58 combat divisions, of which 33 were static or reserve divisions classified for limited defensive employment, 24 were well trained and equipped, and 1 was still being equipped. All the infantry divisions were committed on or directly behind the coast under one of the four armies or the armed forces commander in the Netherlands. The Seventh Army controlled Brittany and most of Normandy; the Fifteenth Army, the Pas-de-Calais.

The command in western Europe had its peculiarities. Rundstedt, for example, had no command over the Third Air Fleet, which was directly subordinate to OKL. The aircraft in France were too few in number for decisive effect; of the 400 fighter planes based in France, only half were operational because of shortages of spare parts, fuel, and trained pilots. Nor did Rundstedt control Navy Group West, under OKM, even though the destroyers, torpedo boats, and smaller naval vessels were based in ports within his jurisdiction. The air force had administrative control over parachute troops and antiaircraft artillery units; the navy controlled most of the coastal artillery. In addition, two military governors, one in France and the other in northern France and Belgium, were under OKH, though their security troops could be appropriated by Rundstedt to repel an invasion. Rommel, the Army Group B commander, was under Rundstedt, but Rommel's dominant personality and his prerogative of direct communication with Hitler, a prerogative enjoyed by all field marshals, gave him an influence greater

than that due his formal command authority. Rundstedt favored maintaining a mobile reserve to be rushed to the invasion area when the main landings were recognized. Rommel, believing that Allied air superiority would prevent the movement of a mobile reserve to the landing beaches to repel the invaders, depended exclusively on fortifications near the water's edge. Thus Rommel directed much of his efforts to building coastal defenses. He favored a large number of simple, field-type defenses over a few complicated and massive fortifications. He emphasized the use of mines, underwater obstacles, stakes, Belgian gates, tetrahedra, and hedgehogs in the hope of entangling the Allied troops as they landed and making them vulnerable to those who waited at the shore to repel them. Rommel's construction and minelaying required considerable labor. Because Organization Todt, the construction agency of the German Army, was employed chiefly in major port fortress areas and on railroad maintenance, the troops themselves worked on the Atlantic Wall in 1944, in many cases to the detriment of their training programs.

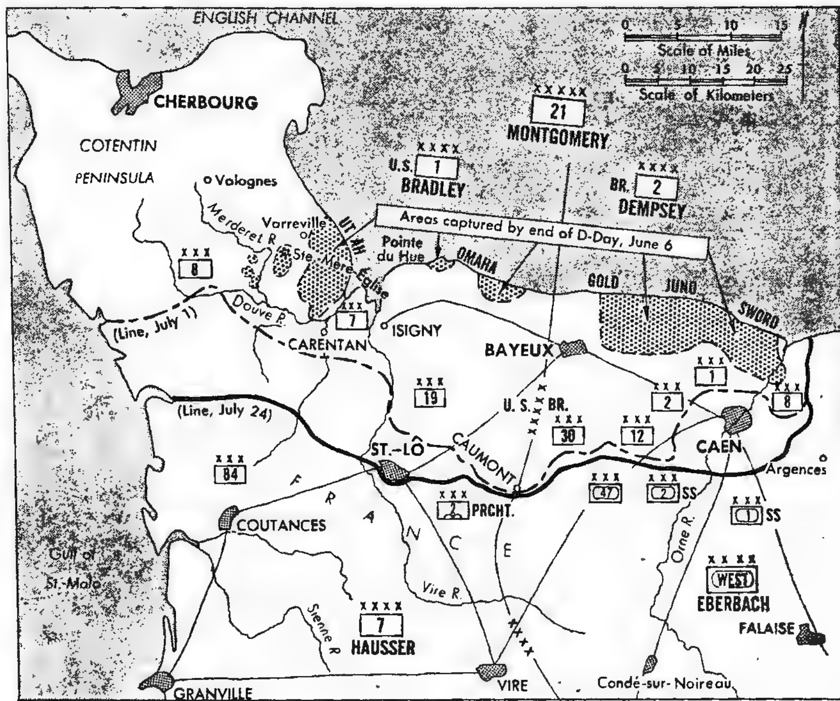
By the time of the invasion a new weapon was ready to be put into operation. This was the air missile called the V-1, for *Vergeltungswaffe* (vengeance weapon). From the Pas-de-Calais area the Germans would begin on June 13 to launch these flying bombs against England and its civilian population as a reprisal for Allied air attacks on German cities. In September, the V-2, a deadlier supersonic rocket, would be introduced.

Deception Plan.—One of the vital elements of the invasion was the erroneous German expectation of landings in the Pas-de-Calais. Believing that a number of Allied divisions in the United Kingdom belonged to "Army Group Patton," the Germans concentrated a strong Fifteenth Army in the Pas-de-Calais, the coastline nearest to England and the area in western Europe closest to the classic invasion routes into Germany. The Allies nourished this belief by a gigantic deception plan designed to convince the Germans that Overlord was only part of a larger invasion effort. Naval demonstrations off the Channel coast, false messages, dummy installations, and other signs of impending coastal assault kept the Germans in a continual state of alert and alarm and immobilized the considerable force of the Fifteenth Army.

The Allied hoax continued well beyond the Overlord invasion. Early in July, the designation of the United States First Army Group was changed to the Twelfth in order to retain in England a fictitious headquarters that the Germans might think capable of launching another invasion. Lt. Gen. Lesley J. McNair, commander of the Army Ground Forces, who was visiting the European theater, was placed in command of the fictitious army group. Later, when McNair was killed while observing the battle in Normandy, Lt. Gen. John L. De Witt was rushed to England in order to give continuing verisimilitude to the Allied deception measures. When the Third Army was committed on the Continent, Patton's name was at first kept secret for the same reason. Eminently successful, the deception maneuvers fooled the Germans for nearly five months. During the invasion and the subsequent battle for Normandy, when the Germans could well have used reinforcements from the Pas-de-Calais area, the Fifteenth Army remained untouched and immobile, awaiting an invasion that never came.

INVASION AND CAMPAIGN FOR NORMANDY

Invasion.—On May 8, General Eisenhower designated D-day as June 5, but because of bad weather he decided on June 4 to postpone the invasion to June 6. Though the weather remained poor, further delay would have necessitated waiting until June 19, when tidal conditions and



Map 9. ESTABLISHMENT OF THE NORMANDY BEACHHEAD (June 6–July 24, 1944). German opposition to the landings was strong at all beaches except Utah Beach, and it was particularly fierce at Omaha. Nevertheless, by nightfall of the first day the Allies held footholds on the shore as shown. During the succeeding days no serious counterattacks developed, for the Germans had been deceived into believing that the main landings were still to come farther north, in the Pas-de-Calais area, and were husbanding their forces to counter them. By July 1, the Allies had landed almost 1,000,000 men and had cleared most of the Cotentin Peninsula. By July 24, the line had been advanced as shown, and the American forces stood poised to strike southward at St.-Lô.

Early in the morning of D–day, June 6, 1944, men of the United States 1st Division, pinned down by German fire off Omaha Beach in Normandy, take shelter behind under-water obstacles of the coast defenses.

Robert Capa-Magnum

the light of the moon would again have been propitious. In one of the most momentous decisions of the war he decided to proceed despite the unfavorable weather conditions. Meanwhile, the invasion troops had moved to concentration areas in the United Kingdom. There they received special equipment and waterproofed their vehicles. Then they marched to marshaling areas close to the embarkation points, where the troops received additional supplies, maps, and final briefings. About 60,000 men and 6,500 vehicles were scheduled to go ashore on D-day at Omaha Beach and equal numbers at Utah. On D plus 1 and 2, an additional total of 43,500 troops and 6,000 vehicles were scheduled to go ashore at both beaches. Roughly equal numbers were to land on the British beaches. Altogether in the United Kingdom, General Eisenhower had a force of 2,876,000 men, including 45 divisions.

Some 5,000 ships and craft made up the invasion fleet. During the night of June 5, despite a gusty wind blowing at a rate of 15 to 20 knots and churning up waves in mid-Channel as high as five and six feet, the invasion fleet took assigned places in the transport areas off the coast of France in the Seine Estuary. Minesweepers cleared and marked 10 lanes through minefields in the Channel. In the early minutes of June 6, RAF bombers ranged the entire invasion coast, striking at coastal batteries and other targets. In the second hour, paratroopers of the 82d and 101st Airborne divisions landed in the eastern part of the Cotentin Peninsula astride the Merderet River to facilitate the seaborne landings of the 7th Corps. The 101st Division secured its objectives with surprisingly light losses, but the 82d had to fight severely, taking heavy casualties, to secure Ste.-Mère-Église. At the same time the British 6th Airborne Division was securing the other Allied flank between the Orne and Dives rivers. As dawn approached, while fighter squadrons flying at from 3,000 to 5,000 feet maintained an aerial umbrella, the landing craft came toward shore through a heavy sea.

Because lack of planes in France denied adequate aerial reconnaissance, the Germans had no advance knowledge of the invasion. They also relied on the bad weather, considering it too inclement for the Allies to try an invasion at that time. Their first reaction occurred early in the morning of June 6, when several German torpedo boats left Le Havre to engage the invasion fleet. They were driven off by Allied naval fire and air attack. The German coastal batteries began to fire sporadically at the invasion fleet at 5:35 A.M. At 5:50 A.M., the Allied naval bombardment began. This fire not only detonated large mine fields, on which the Germans had counted heavily to block the invaders, but also knocked out many defensive installations.

At 6:30 A.M., H-hour for the United States beaches, American troops touched down on Omaha and Utah beaches. At Utah the 4th Division under the 7th Corps had little difficulty getting ashore against intermittent artillery shelling. The beach area was cleared in three hours, and the follow-up troops and supplies began to com[e] ashore with little trouble. About 23,000 me[n] landed that day. At Omaha, where the 1st Divi[-] sion of the 5th Corps assaulted with two regi[-] ments abreast, high seas, early morning mi[st,] smoke, dust, and a lateral current scattered me[n] and units badly. German fire was exceptionall[y] strong, and many wounded Americans we[re] drowned in the rising tide. In a daring operatio[n] two Ranger battalions took out large coastal gu[ns] at Pointe du Hoe after scaling cliffs with ro[pe] ladders, but after the first three hours of the in[-] vasion it appeared for a while that the Omah[a] invaders had been stopped on the beach. Th[e] presence of an elite German infantry divisio[n] that for three months had escaped Allied intel[li-] gence accounted in large measure for th[e] difficulties of the 5th Corps. Only through im[-] provisation and courageous personal leadersh[ip] were the troops at last able to get off the beac[h] and onto the cliffs beyond. Even then th[e] infantry had very few heavy weapons and [no] supporting artillery. The beach was conges[ted] with disabled and burning vehicles, and th[e] beachhead was a strip of land less than 2 mil[es] deep. Nevertheless, as night fell, 34,000 m[en] were ashore.

Troops of the British Second Army me[an-] while began to land at 7:20 A.M. On Gold Bea[ch] the advance elements of the 50th Division we[re] pinned down at first by German fire, but gradu[-] ally they worked their way around the resistan[ce] and pushed rapidly inland. By the end of th[e] day they had advanced about 5 miles. Th[e] Canadian 3d Division on Juno Beach met e[ven] stiffer resistance, but once clear of the beac[h] the Canadians moved rapidly and by the end [of] the day had reached the Caen-Bayeux highwa[y.] The British 3d Division on the left also m[et] intense opposition on Sword Beach, but by th[e] end of the day linked up with the 6th Airbo[rne] Division.

Despite the immense problems at Om[aha] Beach, the Allies by the end of D-day had est[ab-] lished apparently solid footholds on the Co[nti-] nent. Casualties everywhere, including blo[ody] Omaha, were lighter than expected. They we[re] lightest of all at Utah Beach (less than 2[00]... though the airborne divisions behind the b[each] lost 2,499 men, including 338 known dead [and] 1,257 missing. At Omaha the Americans [lost] approximately 2,000 men. British and Cana[dian] casualties were about 4,000.

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Though German opposition had been firm on all beaches except Utah and particularly disturbing at Omaha, D-day passed with a surprising lack of counterattacks. Only near Caen, where a panzer division in late afternoon struck the British 3d Division, was there more than passive resistance, and the 3d Division stopped this thrust with little loss of ground. The most significant German development was the ordering of a panzer corps to the Caen area, a harbinger of the fact that the Germans saw the British landings and their threat to open ground leading toward Paris as the Allied main effort.

By the end of D-day, the Americans had landed the equivalent of 8 regiments amphibiously. By the end of the following day, 5 divisions (including the 2 airborne divisions) were ashore and operational, though all were deficient in transportation facilities, tank support, artillery, and supplies. An ammunition shortage was serious, particularly on Omaha. The Americans had planned to have about 107,000 troops ashore by the end of the second day, but the total was approximately 20,000 short. Only about half the planned 14,000 vehicles had been disembarked, and only a fourth of the anticipated 14,500 tons of supplies were on the beaches.

Meanwhile, Eisenhower ordered Bradley's First Army to give priority to the task of linking the two American beachheads and of making contact with the British. In compliance with this order the 1st Division pushed eastward to gain contact with the British on June 8, the 29th Division took Isigny on June 9, and the 101st Airborne Division captured Carentan on June 12. With Carentan in hand and the beachheads joined, the 7th Corps turned its attention to Cherbourg. Halting further expansion inland of Maj. Gen. (later Gen.) Leonard T. Gerow's 5th Corps, which had taken Caumont and was near the road center and departmental capital of St.-Lô, Bradley on June 13 placed the bulk of the incoming resources at the disposal of Maj. Gen. (later Gen.) J. Lawton Collins' 7th Corps. During the night of June 17, the 7th Corps cut the Cotentin Peninsula and sealed off Cherbourg from German reinforcement. Two days later, Collins began to push northward toward the port city with 3 divisions. Organized resistance in Cherbourg ceased on June 27. Meanwhile, headquarters of the 19th Corps, commanded by Maj. Gen. Charles H. Corlett, had entered the line near St.-Lô on June 14. Maj. Gen. (later Lt. Gen.) Troy H. Middleton's 8th Corps also arrived and took control of the forces at the base of the Cotentin Peninsula on June 15. The British had meanwhile captured Bayeux and expanded and enlarged their beachhead, but Caen, a D-day objective, remained out of reach.

In these early days the Allies used two methods to get supplies ashore: direct discharge onto the beach from landing craft and unloading the cargo carried by larger vessels moored offshore into ferry craft and DUKW's (amphibious trucks) for transport either to the beach or to the artificial ports (Mulberries). Not until the destroyed facilities at Cherbourg were repaired in mid-July was this port to begin to take some of the logistical strain from the beaches. A great storm that raged between June 19 and June 22 wrecked scores of craft and smashed the artificial harbors. High winds demolished the American Mulberry beyond repair, but the British artificial quay was later restored to full use. Nearly 100 LCVP's and LCM's, plus many LCT's and larger craft, were lost and 19 of 20 rhino ferries were destroyed. Despite this calamity, which stopped unloading operations for several days, the Allies developed an ability to bring ashore over the open beaches surprisingly large amounts of tonnage.

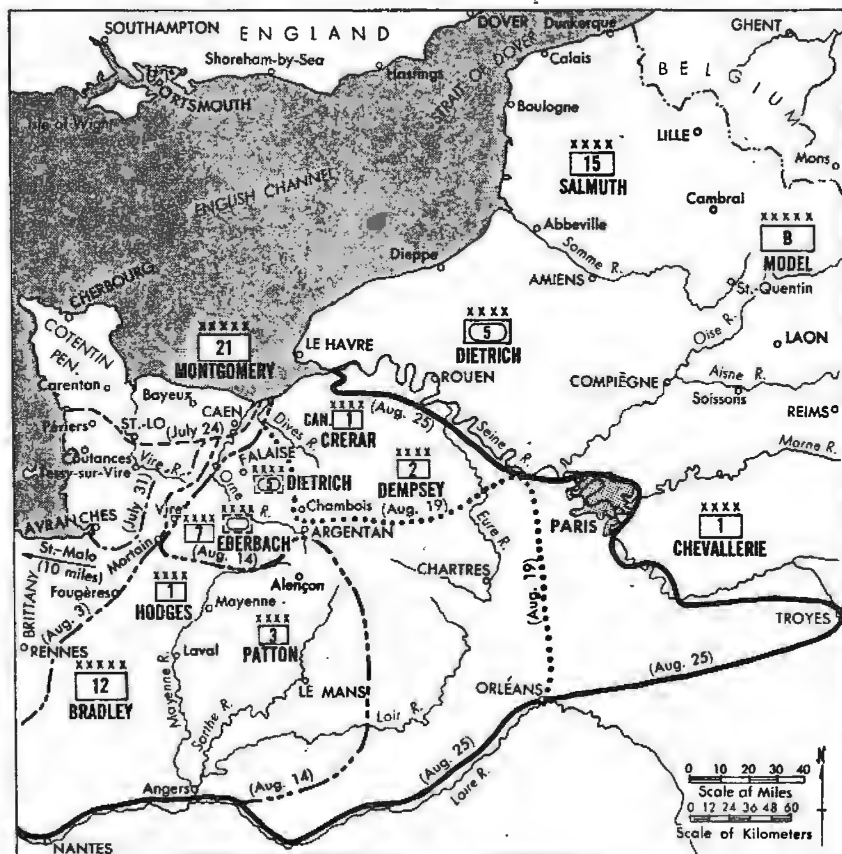
By July 1, three weeks after the initial landings, the first phase of the invasion came to an end. Almost 1,000,000 men, more than 500,000 tons of supplies, and 177,000 vehicles had been landed in the American and British zones. A total of 27 Allied divisions had arrived on the Continent, and more were about to come. The German's golden opportunity to smash the invasion by decisive counterattack before the Allies were firmly established had passed. German failure to react in strength was attributable to the condition of the French railroads and to unrelenting air attacks that enabled German divisions to reach the battle zone only with utmost difficulty and after serious delays. Units arrived piecemeal, often lacking essential weapons and short of fuel and ammunition. Continuing pressure of Allied attacks then forced German commanders to commit the new divisions as they arrived so that a major counterattacking force could never be assembled. The two leading German commanders on the scene, Rundstedt and Rommel, both were convinced that they now had no chance to drive the Allies into the sea. Persuaded that Germany had lost the war,

Rundstedt asked to be relieved from command. Granting the request, Hitler replaced him as commander in chief in the west with Field Marshal Hans Günther von Kluge. Rommel, though discouraged, remained. The strategy enunciated by Hitler for the western front was essentially negative: hold fast until miracle weapons might turn the course of the war.

Battle of the Hedgerows.—Despite Allied success in getting ashore in Normandy, the lodgment secured by the beginning of July was much smaller than had been anticipated. Because the British seemed stalled before Caen, Bradley's First Army initiated on July 3 the offensive that became known as the battle of the hedgerows. The hedgerows are walls, half earth and half hedge, that enclose the tiny fields in the Cotentin, the region south of Cherbourg. As each of four American corps launched an attack in turn, the Americans struck across a waterlogged and hedgerow-laced area that was perfectly suited to defense. Confined in a relatively small sector and confronted with difficult terrain and inadequate roads, the Americans fought an enemy favored by endless lines of natural fortifications (the hedgerows) and aided by daily rains which negated Allied tactical air support and reduced observation. Though inferior in numbers and deficient in supplies and equipment, the Germans inflicted 40,000 casualties on the First Army, which gained only a few miles of ground. The climax of the battle occurred on July 18, when the 19th Corps at last captured St.-Lô.

The British meanwhile had thwarted dangerous armored counterattacks at the end of June, and then secured half of Caen by launching a massive attack on July 8 supported by heavy bombers. This was an unusual use of aircraft normally employed against strategic targets far in the enemy rear. In this attack, 460 planes dropped 2,300 tons of high-explosive bombs in 40 minutes. Following the aerial attack, British and Canadian ground troops, though hampered by bomb craters and debris-clogged roads, reached the Orne River, which flows through Caen. Ten days later, on July 18, General Montgomery launched a similar attack, code named Goodwood. After 2,100 planes dropped more than 8,000 tons of high explosive, British and Canadian ground troops advanced from Caen toward Falaise. Despite high optimism for a decisive penetration of the enemy defense line, the attack carried for only 6 miles before bogging down.

Rommel had on July 17 been eliminated from the battle when an Allied plane strafed his staff car and forced it into a ditch. Suffering a brain concussion, he was taken to a hospital. Kluge assumed his place, commanding both the theater headquarters and Army Group B. Three days later, on July 20, a conspiracy among German officers almost succeeded in assassinating the führer and gaining control of the government with the aim of ending the war. From this point on, Hitler became ever more suspicious of his subordinates. He eventually forced Rommel, who was implicated in the plot, to commit suicide. He took stronger control of battlefield operations. Though the plot had no visible effect on the campaign, the miracle of Hitler's survival impressed the German people and gave Hitler's unilateral direction of the war even greater strength.



Map 10. BREAKOUT FROM THE BEACHHEAD AND LIBERATION OF PARIS (July 25–Aug. 25, 1944). Preceded by an intensive bombardment, Lt. Gen. Omar N. Bradley's attack south from St.-Lô on July 25 was highly successful and broke through the German lines. During the next week the American advance extended into Brittany and began to swing eastward to envelop the German flank. On August 7, the Germans counterattacked strongly at Mortain, but without success. Instead, their Seventh and Fifth Armored armies were almost encircled in the Falaise area by converging British and American advances. The Allied drive to the east against crumbling resistance made rapid progress. By August 25, it had reached the Seine River at several points; and on that day Paris was liberated.

Wide World

Armored units of the Canadian First Army advance toward Falaise in August 1944 to form the northern arm of an Allied trap for the German Seventh Army.

Breakthrough.—To penetrate the German defenses and make a limited exploitation to the town of Coutances, General Bradley on July 13 drew an outline plan called Cobra. This plan projected a heavy attack on a narrow front just west of St.-Lô, the ground effort to be propelled forward by a mighty air attack. Bradley concentrated 6 divisions under Collins' 7th Corps and called for support by heavy bombers. Some planes in Operation Cobra were already under way when overcast skies forced a day's postponement. Failing to receive word of the delay, approximately 350 bombers already over the target dropped around 700 tons of bombs, some of which struck American troops. On July 25, the operation officially got under way as 2,500 planes dropped approximately 4,000 tons of bombs on a rectangular "carpet" 7 miles long and 2 miles wide along the Périers-St.-Lô highway. Though some bombs again fell short and caused casualties among the American ground troops, 3 infantry divisions followed the bombardment closely and attempted to open a hole for exploiting forces. The Germans, though badly hurt, appeared to be holding, but commitment of 2 additional American divisions on the second day and a third on the next opened a tremendous breach. General Bradley had achieved his breakthrough. Modifying his plans, he broadened the scope of the operation, and all four corps of his First Army drove ahead. By the end of the month the 7th and 8th Corps in less than a week had advanced about 30 miles. Far beyond Coutances, Americans took Avranches and gained the base of the Cotentin. This made possible not only a swing to the west into Brittany but a swing to the east, around the German left flank, toward the Seine River and Paris.

The outstanding achievement of the last week in July was the result of many factors. The Americans had outmaneuvered the Germans. Hard fighting by the 19th Corps at Tessy-sur-Vire had blocked Kluge from sending two panzer divisions into the Cobra area to disrupt the breakthrough operation. Aggressive armored action, supported by tactical aircraft giving excellent close support, trapped considerable German forces near Coutances. Bradley's forces had, in effect, crushed the German left flank and thereby invalidated Hitler's tactic of standing fast until new developments in weapons might alter the situation. On August 1, Bradley turned over the command of the First Army to Lt. Gen. (later Gen.) Courtney H. Hodges. On the same day, General Patton's Third Army became operational. Both armies went under the command of Bradley, who became the commander of the Twelfth Army Group.

Breakout into Brittany.—Middleton's 8th Corps, now under the Third Army, turned west from Avranches and entered Brittany. One armored division drove to Rennes and then to Lorient, another armored division drove to Brest, and an infantry division moved to St.-Malo. The entrance of American troops into Brittany chased the Germans into these port cities, as well as St.-Nazaire and Nantes, which Hitler had designated as fortresses to be held to the last man. While small American forces contained the Germans in the port cities, siege operations got under way at St.-Malo, which was finally captured on August 17. The 8th Corps then moved to Brest and initiated siege operations on August 25. A fierce battle at that city finally ended on September 18. Meanwhile, headquarters of the United States Ninth Army, under Lt. Gen. William H. Simpson, had been committed in Brittany in order to provide control over operations that were increasingly farther behind the main front.

Though operations in Brittany had been undertaken with the object of gaining the port cities as points of entry for additional troops and supplies coming directly from the United States, the strong German defenses at St.-Malo and Brest

Troops of the United States 8th Corps enter La Haye-du-Puits in western Normandy. The town, first entered on July 5, was finally secured two days later.

Etablissement Cinématographique des Armées

and the accompanying destruction of the port facilities prompted a change in Allied plans. Not only did the Allies decide not to rehabilitate the destroyed port cities; they also decided not to commence constructing the port complex at Quiberon Bay, the project code named Chastity, for by this time Brittany was far removed from the main stage of operations. Early in August, the main Allied armies had swept eastward from Avranches.

Breakout to the East.—When the Third Army became operational on August 1, General Patton took control not only of the 8th Corps operations in Brittany but also of Maj. Gen. (later Gen.) Wade H. Haislip's 15th Corps, which turned southeastward toward Mayenne. Taking Mayenne on August 4, capturing Laval on August 5, and seizing Le Mans on August 8, the 15th Corps formed an enveloping pincer that extended more than 75 miles around the German left flank. Meanwhile, the First Army also swung southeastward toward the road centers of Vire and Mortain, thereby starting a swinging movement designed to carry the Allies to the Seine River and the periphery of the lodgment area envisioned by the Overlord planners. But the Germans turned and sprang. Hoping to regain Avranches and thereby to close the hole that Bradley had punched in their defenses, the Germans launched a counterattack at Mortain on August 7. They were motivated by the desire to reestablish the conditions of static warfare that had served them well during June and most of July. They struck the 30th Infantry Division of Collins' 7th Corps with full force. Quickly reinforced by Bradley, the 7th Corps fought a magnificent defensive battle to halt the German threat.

By attacking westward through Mortain toward Avranches, the Germans had placed their heads into a potential noose. Bradley saw the possibility of encircling the Germans and proposed this maneuver to Montgomery, who agreed. Bradley therefore directed Patton to turn the 15th Corps northward from Le Mans toward the successive objectives of Alençon and Argentan with the purpose of cutting behind the Germans at Mortain. If Montgomery's forces drove southward from the Caen area and reached Falaise, the Allies would form a pocket and threaten the enemy's Fifth Panzer and Seventh armies with encirclement and annihilation. General Crerar's Canadian First Army, which had become operational on the Continent on July 23, attacked southward toward Falaise on August 8, but gained little ground. In contrast, Haislip's 15th Corps took Alençon and was within sight of Argentan by August 13. Because the American troops had reached the boundary line separating American and British zones of operations, Bradley ordered Patton to halt further advance by Haislip's corps. This decision was dictated in part by the fact that Crerar was about to launch a heavy attack on the following day. On August 14, after 800 planes had dropped 3,700 tons of bombs to clear a path for the ground troops, the Canadians launched their attack. Two days later they reached Falaise. Allied forces were then only 15 miles apart, but the Germans were escaping eastward out of the pocket through this 15-mile sector, called the Argentan-Falaise gap.

Bradley had meanwhile approved Patton's plan to send part of the 15th Corps to the Seine. This movement got under way on August 14. Five days later the 79th Division was crossing the Seine River and establishing a bridgehead on the east bank. Other troops of the 15th Corps, soon joined by the First Army's 19th Corps under Corlett, were driving down the west bank of the Seine and pushing the Germans toward the mouth of the river, where escape crossings were harder to find. While this second encirclement at the Seine was in progress, the Allied troops holding the shoulders of the first encirclement at Argentan and Falaise were at last making contact at Chambois and Trun. They thus closed the pocket on August 20, trapping more than 50,000 German troops, destroying an additional 10,000, and sending the Fifth Panzer and Seventh armies reeling eastward across the Seine in defeat. Field Marshal Walter Model meanwhile had become commander in chief in the west, replacing Kluge, who committed suicide.

By this time two more American corps had come on the scene. Maj. Gen. (later Gen.) Walton H. Walker's 20th Corps, after taking Angers, turned to take Chartres. Maj. Gen. Gilbert R. Cook's 12th Corps drove toward Orléans. By August 20, when the First and Third armies pulled up to the Seine, Eisenhower had already decided to ignore the original limits of the lodgment area and cross the river in strength in pursuit of the disorganized enemy force. Meanwhile, as British and Canadian armies moved to the Seine, American and French troops liberated Paris.

Liberation of Paris.—The climactic incident in the Normandy campaign was the liberation of Paris, which occurred almost by accident. In order to avoid a battle that would damage the French capital and inflict casualties on its inhabitants, General Eisenhower intended originally to bypass Paris. Hitler for his part wished to retain the city for the prestige involved, and he designated it a "fortress" to be fought over until it was, as he put it, "a field of ruins." The French wanted Paris liberated not only because its capture would signify a crowning achievement for the resistance, but also because it would establish General de Gaulle in the seat of government. Thus a three-cornered struggle developed, with the Germans preparing to fight on the western outskirts and, if necessary, inside the city, with the French putting pressure on Eisenhower to send troops to liberate the capital, and with the Allies preparing to go around the city in the more important pursuit to the German border and in the hope that the capital would fall into Allied hands once it was isolated. A spontaneous uprising within the city on August 19 changed all plans.

Lacking the means to put down the uprising in the face of Allied advances near the city and unwilling to destroy the capital, the German commander concluded a truce with the resistance leaders. Erroneous reports that the Germans were about to destroy the city before withdrawing, as well as news of grave food shortages in Paris, prompted Eisenhower to change his mind. When he directed Bradley to take the city, Bradley sent a Franco-American force under Gerow's 5th Corps to perform the act. Gen. Jacques Philippe Leclerc's 2d Armored Division was given the honor of the first entry into the city. But the German defenses on the outskirts of Paris proved stronger than had been anticipated. Though a small French unit penetrated into

center of the city around midnight of August 24, the actual liberation had to await the next day, when both French and American troops entered Paris. The German defense quickly collapsed, and the German commander surrendered.

INVASION IN THE SOUTH AND DRIVE TO THE EAST

Invasion of Southern France.—Even as Allied troops swept victoriously across Normandy, another Allied force staged a second amphibious invasion on August 15, this time on the south coast of France between Cannes and Toulon. This was the long-postponed Operation Anvil (also known as Operation Dragoon). Though Eisenhower in the spring of 1944 had recommended that this invasion not be launched at the same time as the landings in Normandy, he wished only to gain additional landing craft for the major invasion, and neither the Allied commander nor other American officials endorsed abandoning the operation altogether. Against British resistance, notably from Churchill, who continued to favor expanded operations in other parts of the Mediterranean, Eisenhower had continued to believe an invasion of southern France essential to the success of Overlord.

Allied entry into Rome two days before the Normandy invasion at last made it clear beyond doubt that some resources could be spared from the Mediterranean to assist Overlord. After considering various operations, including an invasion of the southwest coast of France, Allied planners finally decided to strike the south coast on August 15, though all British objections did not end until shortly before the target date. The invasion was designed to prevent German forces in the south from moving against Overlord and to provide the Allies with a supplementary line of supply through the Mediterranean ports, particularly Marseille.

Behind a heavy air and naval bombardment three United States divisions (the 3d, 36th, and 45th) under the 6th Corps, commanded by Maj. Gen. (later Lt. Gen.) Lucian K. Truscott, and an attached French armored force began landing early on the morning of August 15 on either side of St.-Tropez. Meanwhile, a task force composed of American and British paratroopers landed behind the invasion beaches to cut roads and isolate the German defenders. The over-all commander was Maj. Gen. (later Lt. Gen.) Alexander M. Patch, commander of the United States Seventh Army. The German force responsible for defending southern France, Army Group G under General Blaskowitz, had only 11 divisions for the task. Though the German High Command had been considering the withdrawal of Army Group G to the north, no action had been taken when the invasion came. Their forces spread thin, the Germans could muster only spotty resistance on the beaches. Two days later, OKW ordered Blaskowitz to leave forces to hold the major ports and pull back toward the Vosges Mountains in northeastern France.

The success of the Allied invasion was spectacular. On the first day alone, 86,000 men, 12,000 vehicles, and 46,000 tons of supplies were put ashore. In only a few days the United States divisions were fanning out from the beaches and heading north up the Route Napoléon toward Grenoble. Under Gen. Jean de Lattre de Tassigny, a follow-up French force (later designated the French First Army) swung westward against Toulon and Marseille, where stubborn resistance ended on August 28. On the same day troops of the 6th Corps seized Montélimar, 75 miles up the valley of the Rhone River, but were too late to trap German columns withdrawing from southwestern France. In two weeks the Allies nevertheless had opened two major ports and had taken 57,000 prisoners at a cost of only 4,000 French and 2,700 American casualties. American and French columns soon were matching the sweeping advances in northern France. French resistance forces swarming from the mountains aided the drive materially. As Lyon fell on September 3, the Allied forces turned northeastward toward the Belfort gap. On September 11, patrols from the southern force met patrols of Eisenhower's northern force near Dijon. Four days later, the troops in the south, organized now as the Sixth Army Group under the command of General Devers and composed of the United States Seventh and French First armies, came under General Eisenhower's command.

The invasion of southern France and the subsequent drive north succeeded beyond all expectations. The Germans lost 80,000 men in prisoners alone, while Allied casualties totaled 7,200, about equally divided between Americans and French. On the other hand, the Germans by their timely withdrawal managed to extricate more than half of Army Group G from entrapment. Having reached the foothills of the Vosges, the Germans turned to fight back. Though the Allies continued their attacks, a shortened German defensive line and overstrained Allied supply resources brought the sweeping gains to an end.

Pursuit Toward the German Frontier.—In the meantime, the main Allied armies in the north, having captured Paris and jumped the Seine on August 25, continued to pursue the Germans across northern France and Belgium toward the German border. In preinvasion planning, General Eisenhower had decided to advance against Germany on a broad front. He planned to make his main effort in the north through Belgium, passing Montgomery's Twenty-first Army Group to the north of the barrier of the forested Ardennes region of Belgium and Luxembourg along the most direct route to the Ruhr industrial area, the vast collection of coal mines and factories which was the main source of German industrial strength. Bradley's Twelfth Army Group was to advance south of the Ardennes through a lesser industrial area, the Saar. Yet as the extent of the German defeat became apparent, Eisenhower yielded to persistent demands from Montgomery to strengthen the forces in the north. Leaving Patton's Third Army to advance alone south of the Ardennes, he ordered Bradley to send Hodges' First Army north of the barrier alongside the British flank. This, Eisenhower reasoned, would speed Montgomery's capture of ports along the Channel, including the great port of Antwerp (Antwerpen). Another big port was essential to continued advance into Germany, for Brest, Cherbourg, and even Le Havre soon would be far behind the front. As General Crerar's Canadian First Army invested the minor Channel ports, Montgomery's troops dashed into Brussels (Bruxelles) on September 3 and the next day seized Antwerp. In the process, British and Canadians overran the V-1 launching sites which had been bombarding Britain since June. Though Antwerp fell with wharves and docks intact, the big port could not be used until the Germans were cleared from the banks of the Scheldt (Escaut, Schelde) Estuary, leading

Learning the next day of Hitler's decision to stay in Berlin, Goering assumed that it was time he took control of the government. When he radioed for instructions, saying that if he received no answer during the day of April 23, he would take charge, Hitler considered the act treasonable. He promptly had Goering arrested. By the end of April, all concerned had to admit that every effort to relieve Berlin had failed, and that the city was facing its final fight. Hitler himself, having composed a will designating Doenitz his successor as head of the German state and supreme commander of the armed forces, committed suicide.

German Surrender.—The possibility of large-scale but piecemeal surrender had been growing since mid-April, but because the Russians were suspicious lest the Germans make peace with the Allies while continuing to fight the Soviet armies, the Allies rejected most overtures. As early as April 23, Heinrich Himmler, head of the *Waffen-SS*, an elite ancillary force of the German Army, offered to arrange a surrender on the entire western front, but the heads of Allied governments replied that unconditional surrender on all fronts, made in agreement with the Allies and the Soviet Union, was the only acceptable course.

Aware of the agreement between the Western Allies and the Soviets, Admiral Doenitz nevertheless hoped to save as many German troops as possible from falling into the hands of the Soviet Army. When the Allies on April 29 accepted the surrender of German forces in Italy to become effective on May 2, he began to explore the possibility of other piecemeal surrenders. This led on May 4 to the surrender of all forces in the north, including Denmark and the Netherlands, to Montgomery and the Twenty-first Army Group, though the terms stipulated that the capitulation would be superseded by any general instrument of surrender later to be signed. The next day, a similar surrender occurred in the south, where Army Group G capitulated to the Sixth Army Group.

A German representative authorized to open negotiations for all remaining forces in the west arrived at General Eisenhower's headquarters in Reims on May 5. Recognizing that the German scheme was to gain time in which to bring troops facing the Russians into the western zone, Eisenhower informed Moscow that he had no intention of accepting surrender unless it included simultaneous surrender to the Soviets. The Russians in turn authorized Maj. Gen. Ivan Susloparov, already at Eisenhower's headquarters, to act for them. The negotiations began in the late afternoon of May 5. When General Eisenhower made it known that unconditional simultaneous surrender on all fronts was the requirement, the head of the German delegation wired Doenitz for approval. The admiral and those around him were shocked. Doenitz hastily sent General Jodl, head of the OKW operations staff and a strong opponent of surrender in the east, to continue the negotiations at Reims.

When Jodl arrived, he found Eisenhower unyielding. Unless the Germans agreed quickly to surrender, Eisenhower said, he would break off all negotiations and seal the western front to prevent the further westward movement of German troops and civilians. Even Jodl, steadfast opponent of over-all surrender though he was, was impressed. He telegraphed Doenitz for permission to sign. The Germans signed at 2:41 A.M. on May 7. The next day, May 8, the Allied chiefs of staff designated as V-E (Victory in Europe) Day. A second surrender ceremony, with ranking Russians in attendance, took place in Berlin on May 9.

Accomplishments and Cost.—As hostilities came to an end, the German war machine and the German nation were crushed to a degree never before experienced in modern times. With the prior surrender of Army Groups B, G, and H and with the steamroller advance of the Soviet armies, no organized military units remained at the time of the over-all surrender except in Norway and in Czechoslovakia and the Balkans. These were incapable of more than a week or two of resistance even had they chosen to prolong the fight. Though some jet fighter aircraft remained, the Luftwaffe was too demoralized even to make a final suicidal effort. What was left of the German Navy lay helpless in the captured northern ports. Hitler's Germany was prostrate, beaten by powerful Soviet armies and by an Allied force that at war's end totaled

Allied and German represen- tives prepare to sign the render document at Reims May 7, 1945. On the far side the table, from left to right Lt. Gen. Sir Frederick E. Mor Maj. Gen. François Laurent Se Adm. Sir Harold Burrough, Gen. Walter Bedell Smith, Gen. Ivan Susloparov, Gen. Spaatz, and Air Marshal James M. Robb; at the fore the table are Col. Ivan Z vich (foreground) and Maj. Harold R. Bull. Seated on opposite side is the Ger delegation: from left to Adm. Hans van Friedeburg Gen. Alfred Jodl, and Ma helm Oxenius.

Map 15. ALLIED OCCUPATION ZONES. At the Yalta Conference in February 1945, the three principal Allied leaders—Franklin D. Roosevelt, Winston Churchill, and Joseph Stalin—finished the assignment of occupation zones in Germany and Austria to the several powers. The map shows the areas assigned. The capitals of Berlin and Vienna were to be jointly occupied by the Americans, British, French, and Russians and governed under four-power commissions. In order to permit access to the isolated American zone, the port and enclave of Bremen were assigned to the United States, with rights of access to the United States zone through the British zone. Each nation had right of access to jointly held Berlin and Vienna. At the Potsdam Conference in July–August 1945, the new Western leaders, Harry S. Truman and Clement R. Attlee, agreed reluctantly to Polish "administration" of the territory in the Soviet zone of Germany as far west as the Oder-Neisse line, as shown. In addition, East Prussia was divided between Poland and the USSR.

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4,581,000 men in a balanced air-ground military machine. Under Eisenhower's command on V-E Day were nine armies, 23 corps, and 93 divisions and air strength totaling 17,192 planes. Since D-day in Normandy the Germans in the west alone had lost 263,000 dead, 49,000 permanently disabled, and 8,109,000 captured. Allied casualties were 186,900 dead, 545,700 wounded, and 109,600 missing (some later declared dead and others later repatriated as prisoners of war).

Any analysis of the victory must begin with the stubborn refusal of Britain and the Soviet Union to yield early in the war when the odds against them appeared overwhelming, and it must include the vast contribution by the United States both in manpower and as the arsenal of democracy. United States troops comprised more than two thirds of Eisenhower's command at the end of the war. During the last two years alone, American factories produced for the British 185,000 vehicles, 12,000 tanks, and enough planes to equip four tactical air forces; for the Russians, 247,000 vehicles, 4,000 tanks, and enough planes to equip two tactical air forces; and for the French, all weapons and equipment for 13 divisions and their logistical and air support. Thus, unlike the situation in World War I when the American contribution was relatively small and merely provided the tilt in the balance of power, the reconquest of western Europe in World War II saw a predominant American contribution.

Though airpower failed to prove the decisive instrument that its more outspoken prewar advocates had predicted, it was a major factor in the Allied victory. The naval role was vital as well, for without control of the sea lanes, Allied power could not have been concentrated in England, and without the landing craft, amphibious doctrine, and fire support provided by Allied navies, the assaults against the beaches of Normandy and southern France could not have been staged. But it was not until Allied ground troops fought their way to a juncture with the Russians that Germany's will was broken.

Throughout the war, Hitler and much of the German nation put their faith in miracle weapons that never came. Postwar revelations have shown that the Germans had not advanced as far toward an atomic bomb as Allied intelligence had feared. The only spectacular accomplishments in miracle weapons were the V-1 (flying bomb) and the V-2 (supersonic rocket). Between June 1944 and March 1945, when the last of the launching sites were overrun, the Germans fired 18,300 V-1's and 3,000 V-2's, about equally divided between England and targets on the Continent, notably Antwerp. They inflicted 33,400 casualties in England and about 13,000 on the Continent, but never seriously affected the military campaign other than to divert antiaircraft troops and radar equipment to the defense of London and Antwerp.

In quality of weapons and equipment the greatest Allied advantage over the Germans was in heavy bombers and long-range fighters, an achievement never seriously challenged by the Luftwaffe despite the German development of the first supersonic rocket and the first jet-propelled aircraft. In all cases these came too late to affect the outcome of the war. In artillery, mortars, and machine guns both sides were relatively equal, though a technique of massed artillery fire used by the British and Americans was a noteworthy achievement. The Americans enjoyed some firepower advantage with a semi-automatic rifle, but a German machine pistol widely used in rifle battalions drew the respect of all Allied troops. German tanks throughout the war were superior to the Allied mainstay,

the United States Sherman, both in armor and armament, and the German 88-mm. gun, effective against tanks, aircraft, and personnel, was the World War II equivalent of the French 75. American motor vehicles, particularly the highly serviceable two-and-one-half-ton truck, made the Allies markedly superior in the field of motor transport and were in a large measure responsible for fantastic Allied achievements in the field of logistics. The combined staff system of the United States and Britain provided a unity of command and purpose never approached on the Axis side.

See also sections *12. Developments in Naval Warfare*, *13. Developments in Air Warfare*, and *17. Costs, Casualties, and Other Data;* separate biographies of the leading military and political figures; BELGIUM—5. *History* (Belgium in World War II); FRANCE—32. *History: World War II and the Postwar Period, from 1940* (France Defeated and Resurgent); GERMANY—4. *History Since 1850* (Hitler's Third Reich, 1933–1945); LUXEMBOURG—*History;* NETHERLANDS—*History* (Development Since World War I).

CHARLES B. MACDONALD,
Chief World War II Branch, Office of the Chief of Military History, Department of the Army.
MARTIN BLUMENSON,
Senior Historian, Office of the Chief of Military History, Department of the Army.

6. German Invasion of the USSR

The summer of 1940, after France had surrendered, found Adolf Hitler in a quandary. He had won three whirlwind campaigns, but the next in logical order, the reckoning with Great Britain, was one for which he had little stomach. By his own admission he was a lion on land but a coward on water, and he began planning for an invasion of the British Isles with scant enthusiasm. At the same time he toyed with other projects: the capture of Gibraltar or the Suez Canal, a landing at Haifa, a North African campaign. None of these was significant enough to resolve any of his major problems: how to dispose of Britain; how to secure the *Lebensraum* (space for living) for which the war was ostensibly being fought; how to end the war on German terms before the United States could arm and intervene; how to deal with the Soviet Union, a "friend" he neither liked nor trusted. Most pressing at the moment was the question of Britain. Poland, Norway, Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, and part of France were occupied, but the British showed no inclination to quit. The more he thought it over, the more Hitler became convinced that the British hoped eventually to find an ally in the USSR. If that were true, then the way to bring the British to heel quickly was to remove their last hope.

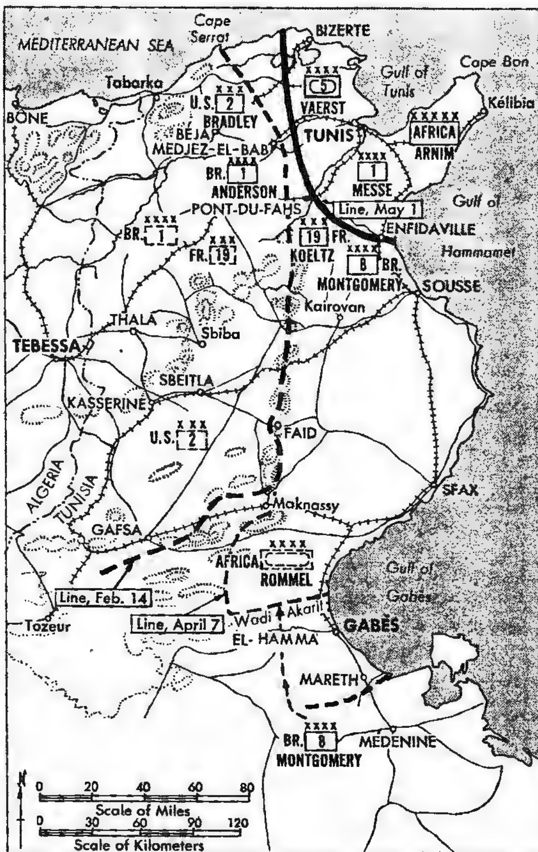
GERMAN PLANS AND ATTACK: 1941

Exactly when Hitler decided that he would have to fight the Soviet Union is a moot question. The idea of an inevitable clash between nazism and Soviet communism was one of the least ambiguous tenets of his political philosophy. If, during the period of the Nazi-Soviet Pact, he did not talk about it, he also did not renounce it. On the other hand, it cannot be assumed that, in turning against the Soviet Union when he did, Hitler was merely executing part of a preconceived program. As in nearly all of his decisions, there was a progression involving the original idea, a specific strategic concept, events and circumstances that seemed to him to confirm the validity of the first two steps, and, finally, the period in which he developed an unshakable determination to see the enterprise through.

The idea of inevitable conflict with the Soviet Union Hitler had expressed in *Mein Kampf*. In July 1940, the apparent stalemate in the war with Britain brought the Soviet Union to the forefront of his strategic thinking as an inviting target in itself, as the last obstacle to German hegemony on the Continent, and as the lever with which to bring Britain to terms. At the same time, by acting as an equal—even an independent—partner, the Soviet government appeared to confirm the line of thought which he had begun to follow. In June 1940, during the week before the Franco-German armistice, Soviet troops occupied Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia. The secret protocol to the 1939 pact placed the three Baltic states in the Soviet sphere of influence, but the Russians' timing was a disquieting sign that they intended to take their share of every German victory. At the end of June, the Russians forced Rumania to cede Bessarabia and northern Bucovina to them, a step that brought them closer to the Rumanian oilfields, on which the Wehrmacht was heavily dependent. Then, in July, the Soviet government renewed its pressure on Finland. By treaty Finland was in the Soviet sphere of influence, but in occupying Norway Germany had secured an access route to the Finnish nickel-mining region near Petsamo (now Pechenga) on the Arctic coast, and in July 1940 the German firm I. G. Farbenindustrie signed a contract for the entire output of the Finnish mines.

As early as June of that year, the German Army General Staff was speaking of the USSR as the possible next scene of operations. On July 21, toward the end of a conference regarding the projected invasion of the British Isles, Hitler instructed the commander in chief of the army, Field Marshal Walther von Brauchitsch, to begin planning a campaign against the Soviet Union. Ten days later, on July 31, in another conference concerned mostly with the war against Britain, Hitler declared that a reckoning with the Soviet Union was necessary. He said that he had wanted to proceed with it that fall, but because of the severe Russian winters had decided to wait until May 1941. The operation would have to be swift and final, and he was allowing five months for its completion. Any longer period would involve the army in winter warfare and might give the British and Americans time to intervene. In these two almost casual statements Hitler, if he had not made an irrevocable decision (and perhaps he had not), at least set a course from which he never later saw any reason to deviate.

On August 1, Col. Gen. Franz Halder, chief of the Army General Staff, described to Gen. Erich Marcks a campaign against the Soviet Union employing two army groups, one striking toward Moscow (Moskva) and the other toward Kiev. He assigned to Marcks the task of developing the details. By August 5, Marcks had completed a plan that called for a main effort directed toward Moscow, a secondary effort in the south in the direction of Kiev, and a subsidiary thrust toward Leningrad. There was still much planning to be done, but the Marcks program did establish the



Map 33. EXPULSION OF THE AXIS POWERS FROM AFRICA (Feb. 14–May 13, 1943). On Feb. 14, 1943, the Axis forces attacked the United States 2d Corps front in Tunisia, driving almost to the key towns of Tebessa and Thala. There the resistance of the Allies stiffened, and their subsequent counterattacks forced the Italo-German troops back to about their original positions. The British Eighth Army pushed Rommel northward and joined the Allied line on April 7. By May 1, the Axis forces had been penned into the northeastern tip of Tunisia. Under constant pressure, 240,000 troops (about half of them Germans) surrendered on May 13. Field Marshal Erwin Rommel himself escaped. All of Africa was now clear of Axis forces, and Sicily and the Italian mainland lay vulnerable to Allied attack.

CAMPAIGNS IN ITALY

Conquest of Sicily: June–August 1943.—Some weeks before the end of hostilities in North Africa detailed planning had begun for the capture of Sicily, to be followed by the invasion of the Italian mainland. On June 11, 1943, the island of Pantelleria, with its Italian garrison of 15,000 men, surrendered to the Allies, and the smaller islands of Lampedusa and Linosa surrendered on June 12 and 13, respectively.

The Allied forces in the Mediterranean were ready for the invasion of Sicily by early July. Under the supreme command of General Eisenhower, the land forces consisted of the Fifteenth Army Group under the direction of General Alexander, comprising the United States Seventh Army, commanded by Lt. Gen. (later Gen.) George S. Patton, Jr., and the British Eighth Army under General Montgomery. Axis forces in Sicily numbered about 75,000 Germans and 275,000 Italians. The German forces included the 15th Panzer Division with about 60 tanks and the Hermann Goering Division with about 100 tanks. The Italians had four divisions and 100 light tanks.

The Allied troops taking part in the assault came from widespread areas: the American 1st and 3d divisions and the British 51st (Highland) Division from North African ports; the American 45th Division, from the United States; the Canadian 1st Division, from the United Kingdom; and the British 5th and 50th divisions and the 231st Infantry Brigade, from the Middle East. The Allied invasion fleet, comprising 3,000 ships and craft carrying about 140,000 men and covered by powerful naval and air forces, was approaching Sicily on the afternoon of July 9, when a severe storm blew up that threatened the landings with disaster. On the next morning, however, the assault took place as planned, the British Eighth Army landing in the southeastern corner of the island, and the United States Seventh Army on the south coast. The assault by sea was preceded by American airborne landings near Gela and by British landings near Syracuse (Siracusa). The first Allied airborne operations on a big scale, they were only partially successful because of the stormy weather. Many men and gliders landed at some distance from their targets, some of them falling in the sea. But the assault as a whole was successful, and Syracuse was captured that day.

By July 22, British Commonwealth forces had advanced northward to the foothills of Mount Etna, while American troops had overrun the western part of the island, capturing Agrigento and Palermo. Only the northeast held out. By August 15, Randazzo and Taormina had been captured, and by August 17 all Axis resistance in Sicily had ceased. Allied casualties included 6,896 Americans and 12,843 British. Axis killed, wounded, and prisoners numbered about 164,000, of whom approximately 32,000 were Germans. The Allies captured or destroyed about 1,500 aircraft, 78 armored fighting vehicles, 287 guns, and 3,500 motor vehicles.

While the fighting in Sicily was in progress, important political developments had been taking place. On July 25, Mussolini was forced to resign, and Marshal Pietro Badoglio became premier of Italy, while King Victor Emmanuel III assumed command of the Italian armed forces. These events were followed by secret feelers, put out by the Allies through neutral diplomatic circles, to induce Italy to cease hostilities and if possible declare war on Germany. On September 3, a military armistice between the Allies and the Italian government was signed secretly at Syracuse. It was announced publicly by General Eisenhower on September 8.

Invasion of the Italian Mainland: September–October 1943.—Immediately after the fighting in Sicily ended, planning began for the invasion of the Italian mainland. The general plan called for the British Eighth Army under General Montgomery to cross the Strait of Messina from Sicily onto the toe of Italy and advance northward as quickly as possible. About a week later the American Fifth Army under Lt. Gen. (later Gen.) Mark W. Clark was to land in strength on the west coast at Salerno, 30 miles southeast of Naples (Napoli) and 180 miles north of Montgomery's landing place, with the objects of joining its forces with the Eighth Army, cutting off substantial German forces in southern Italy, and capturing the port of Naples at an early date.

…ans cheer victorious Ameri-…troops as they ride through …streets of Monreale on their …to Palermo, which surren-…ed on July 22, 1943.

Robert Capa-Magnum

Events moved quickly. On September 3, the Eighth Army, with massive sea and air support, crossed the Strait of Messina at Reggio di Calabria and advanced rapidly northward against light opposition. Eisenhower's announcement five days later of the capitulation of Italy regularized the withdrawal of the country from the war (which for all practical purposes had already taken place), but it did not as yet bring Italy into the conflict as a cobelligerent against Germany. The port and naval base of Taranto was occupied by British airborne forces on September 9. Two days later, the main part of the Italian Navy steamed into Valletta under escort, and Admiral Cunningham was able to signal the British Admiralty: "Be pleased to inform Their Lordships that the Italian battle fleet now lies at anchor under the guns of the fortress of Malta." During their voyage to Malta the Italian warships were heavily attacked by German aircraft. The flagship *Roma* was hit, caught fire, and blew up. Most of her crew, including the commander in chief, were lost.

The Fifth Army began landing at Salerno on September 9. For some days the Allied intelligence staff had known that Germans had replaced Italian troops in the Salerno area. There was some opposition on the beaches, but on the whole the landings went smoothly and without very heavy fighting. Although the Germans made furious counterattacks on the beachhead on September 13, the crisis was over by September 16, and on that day troops of the Fifth and Eighth armies linked forces. Troops of the Fifth Army occupied Naples on October 1, by which time the British 1st Airborne Division, which had landed at Taranto on September 9, had captured the important airfield at Foggia.

By October 12, the Allies had established a reasonably solid front across the Italian Peninsula, from Foggia on the Adriatic coast to just north of Naples on the west coast—a distance of about 120 miles. The Eighth Army was on the right, and the Fifth Army on the left. Success had been swift: within six weeks the Allies had captured and occupied a substantial part of Italy. There were, however, many hard battles still to be fought. Meanwhile, on September 19, the Italian island of Sardinia had fallen to the Allies, and on October 4 the French island of Corsica was taken.

Strategic Considerations.—The over-all policy, agreed to by the Allies for conducting the war, was that the main effort should be directed first to the defeat of Germany, after which all available forces would be concentrated against Japan. There was, however, some difference of opinion between the American and British governments and their military advisers as to the best strategy for northwestern and southern Europe. The British at first favored exploiting the Mediterranean theater on the grounds that the Allies were already established there, that no further assault landings would be necessary, and that an attack on Germany through Italy and the Balkans would prevent the spread of communism in central Europe. The Americans held that a cross-Channel attack based on the United Kingdom was the easiest way of getting quickly to the heart of Germany and greatly simplified the logistic problem. They pointed out that while British Commonwealth forces received many of their reinforcements and much of their equipment and supplies through the Red Sea and the Suez Canal, the route from North America to the Mediterranean was longer, more dangerous, and logistically less convenient than that to the United Kingdom and the mainland of northwestern Europe. The American staff also drew attention to the formidable mountain ranges, very suitable

Driving north of Naples, British troops with the United States Fifth Army enter Capua, on the south bank of the Volturno River, on Oct. 7, 1943.

Imperial War Museum, London

for defense, which would have to be negotiated in an advance on Germany from southern Europe.

By the late summer of 1943 the American view had prevailed. Planning for Operation Overlord was in progress, and in consequence the Mediterranean theater tended to decrease in importance, although it was still to play a major part in Allied strategy. As soon as the Sicilian campaign was over, the Allies began to transfer 7 divisions (4 Americans and 3 British) from the Mediterranean to Britain in preparation for Overlord, which it was expected would take place in the late spring of 1944.

Following the conquest of Sicily and the surrender of Italy in September 1943, another important strategic matter arose. This was the question of occupying some of the islands of the Dodecanese, off the coast of Turkey, which were mostly garrisoned by Italians. General Eisenhower was opposed to diverting troops from Italy for this purpose, but the Middle East command under General Wilson sent detachments, carried and escorted by British warships, to Leros and some smaller islands. While the Italian garrisons were friendly, they were not prepared to fight Germans in defense of the islands. Against heavy German threats the British garrisons were withdrawn by mid-November, and the Germans reoccupied the islands. British naval losses in these abortive operations comprised 6 destroyers and 2 submarines sunk by mines or German aircraft, and 4 cruisers and 4 destroyers damaged.

Operations on the Italian Mainland: October 1943–August 1944.—On Oct. 13, 1943, Italy declared war on Germany, and thereafter Italian partisan forces played an increasing role in the

Map 34. CONQUEST OF SICILY AND THE ITALIAN MAINLAND (July 9, 1943–May 2, 1945). After the capture of Tunisia, the Allies invaded Sicily as a steppingstone to Italy proper. Airborne landings were made late on July 9, and seaborne landings were made on July 10 as shown. By August 17, the island had been overrun, and a major portion of its garrison had been captured. Italy signed an armistice with the Allies in early September. At the same time, the American Fifth and British Eighth armies invaded the Italian mainland and advanced to a line above Naples. The two armies were to spend the rest of the war in the most depressing type of warfare—the attack of successive defensive positions across rivers and mountains. In the spring of 1945, the Allies finally broke through into the northern Italian plain. Thereafter the disintegration of the German forces was rapid; on April 29, they surrendered (effective May 2). The operations in Italy were costly to both sides, but they kept one third of Adolf Hitler's forces in western Europe pinned down and away from the decisive fronts.

war against their former Axis partner. By early November, the Allied land forces in Italy consisted of the American 3d, 34th, and 45th Infantry, 82d Airborne, and 1st Armored divisions and the British 46th, 56th Infantry, and 7th Armored divisions, of the Fifth Army; and the 5th, 78th, 1st Canadian, 8th Indian, 2d New Zealand, and 1st Airborne divisions, of the Eighth Army. About this time plans were made to transfer the French Corps under Gen. (later Marshal) Alphonse Pierre Juin from North Africa to Italy. Later the troops in Italy were to be joined by the Polish Corps under Gen. Władysław Anders and by other American, British, and Canadian formations.

The winter of 1943–1944 was a period of hard fighting which brought the Allies up to the German Gustav Line. The Fifth Army crossed the Volturno River on October 13. On November 8, General Alexander issued a directive for offensives by the Fifth and Eighth armies. The Eighth Army began its offensive on the Sangro River on November 20, and the Fifth Army attacked in the Liri Valley on December 1. In both cases the advance was limited, as neither army was strong enough to exploit its success.

In January 1944, there were important changes in command. General Eisenhower left the Mediterranean theater to direct Overlord and become supreme commander of the Allied Expeditionary Force in northwestern Europe. He was succeeded as supreme commander in the central Mediterranean by General Wilson. General Alexander remained as commander in chief in Italy. General Montgomery, who returned to the United Kingdom to command the Twenty-first Army Group, was succeeded by Lt. Gen. Sir Oliver Leese in command of the Eighth Army.

As early as October 1943, plans for an amphibious Allied landing near Anzio had been considered. As finally approved, the landing was to be made by the United States 6th Corps under Maj. Gen. John P. Lucas, comprising 1 United States infantry division, a United States armored element, a battalion of Rangers, a parachute regimental combat team, and 1 British infantry division, a British armored element, and 2 Commando units. The object of the landing was to cut the communications of the German 14th Corps, assist the main Allied armies to advance to the north, and capture Rome (Roma). The landing took place on Jan. 22, 1944. The leading troops advanced about 10 miles but were then halted by stubborn resistance. The German commander, Field Marshal Albert Kesselring, concentrated 10 German divisions against the 4 which, with further reinforcements, the Allies had established on the beachhead. While the Anzio beachhead held firm, little progress was made by the Allies on any front, and it was nearly five months before Rome was captured.

At the end of March 1944, the Allied position facing the Gustav Line extended for 100 miles westward across Italy, from the Sangro River to Cassino and thence to the Tyrrhenian Sea near the mouth of the Garigliano (lower Liri) River. The Anzio beachhead was firmly held. The key position in the Gustav Line was Monte Cassino with its famous Benedictine abbey on the summit. This position was attacked first by the United States 2d Corps (the 34th and 36th divisions) in January; then by the New Zealand 2d Corps (the New Zealand 2d, Indian 4th, and British 78th divisions and a combat group of the United States 1st Armored Division) in February; and for a third time, again by the New Zealand 2d and Indian 4th divisions, in March. All three attacks failed despite the fact that the last two were preceded by massive bombardments by heavy bomber aircraft as well as by artillery. The Allies spent the month of April and first half of May regrouping and planning for a further assault on the Gustav Line at Cassino, preparatory to an advance on Rome. By this time the strategy in the Mediterranean had definitely become subordinate to northwestern Europe, where the cross-Channel assault was planned for early June. General Alexander defined the task of the forces in Italy as follows: "To force the enemy to commit a maximum number of divisions in Italy at the time the Cross-Channel invasion is launched."

The fourth and last assault on the Cassino position was carried out by the Polish Corps, with the British 2d Corps on its left ready to advance up Highway 6 in the Liri Valley and open the road to Rome. Farther to the left the Fifth Army (which included the French Corps) was to advance on Rome, using Highway 7 as its main axis. The offensive was supported by 1,000 guns with the Eighth Army and 600 with the Fifth Army and by more than 3,000 aircraft. The battle began on May 11, but it was not until the morning of May 18 that the Poles were able to occupy the abbey of Monte Cassino. The whole Allied battlefront westward from Cassino then surged forward, and events moved rapidly. On May 23, the Allied forces in the Anzio beachhead took the offensive and joined the troops of the Fifth Army advancing from the south. By this time the Germans had decided to give up the Gustav Line, and their next position, the Hitler Line, was already pierced. On June 4, American troops of the Fifth Army entered Rome, which the Germans had declared to be an open city. The bridges were left intact, and the city was saved many of the ravages of 20th century warfare. Two days later, on June 6, the forces in Italy learned of the successful Allied landings on the Normandy coast.

After the capture of Rome the Allies pressed northward on what was in reality two fronts divided by the Apennines and with only slight ground contact over the mountain barrier. One portion of the Eighth Army was to the east of the Apennines; the Fifth Army and the rest of the Eighth Army, to the west. The full exploitation of success was prevented by the withdrawal of more troops from Italy to help the Allies in northwestern Europe by means of landings in southern France. Pescara on the Adriatic was captured on June 11, Arezzo on July 16, Ancona on July 18, Leghorn (Livorno) on July 19, and Florence (Firenze) on August 11. The Allies now faced the German Gothic Line, which ran from the Adriatic to the north of Ancona, north of Arezzo and Florence, to the west coast north of Leghorn, or about 150 miles.

Allied Landings in Southern France: August–September 1944.—At the Teheran Conference (Nov. 28–Dec. 1, 1943) it had been agreed that the landings in northwestern Europe would be followed by further landings in the south of France. After the fall of Rome preparations began to implement this decision at the expense of General Alexander's forces in Italy. It was now proposed to withdraw 7 good divisions from the Fifth Army: 3 American (the 3d, 36th, and 45th) and 4 French. Known at first as Anvil, the operation was later code named Dragoon. Planning and

but also recognized that as a sovereign nation she possessed "the inherent right of individual or collective self-defense" and might therefore enter into collective security agreements with other governments. There were no clauses limiting the Japanese armed forces.

While fixing no sums for reparations payments, the treaty stipulated that any of the former Allies might seize and retain certain assets of Japanese nationals, that similar assets held in neutral countries should be turned over to the International Committee of the Red Cross to be used for former prisoners of war and their families, and that the Japanese government would negotiate with each of her former enemies about making compensation for wartime damage by lending the services of Japanese technicians and workmen.

Austrian State Treaty.—In March–April 1955, the Soviet Union unexpectedly indicated that it was prepared to negotiate a treaty for Austria. A conference promptly convened in Vienna; a treaty was signed on May 15; and it came into force on July 27, 1955. Although its preamble treated Austria as a liberated nation rather than as a former enemy, many of the specific provisions were similar to or identical with those in the satellite treaties of 1947. The Austrian government was obliged to prevent the revival of Nazi or fascist organizations and not to enact any discriminatory legislation. The use of Croat and Slovene in schools and official documents was guaranteed for regions where members of these nationalities formed substantial minorities. Although numbers were not fixed for the Austrian armed forces, atomic weapons, guided missiles, and the like were forbidden, and specified limits were placed on the amounts of war material that Austria could possess. While reparations as such were not to be exacted, the treaty gave the USSR a 30-year concession on approximately 60 percent of the country's oil-bearing land and control over most of its refineries. In return for the surrender of certain former German assets, the Soviet Union was also to receive $150,000,000 in currency. Special clauses forbade any political or economic union of Austria and Germany or even agitation in such a cause; stipulated that the nation should have a democratic government, the secret ballot, and free, equal, and universal suffrage; and directed that a ban be maintained against the return of the house of Habsburg.

After the Austrian State Treaty, progress toward a peace settlement halted again. The Soviet Union and the United States disagreed completely about Germany, and the provisional regimes in the eastern and western zones of that country hardened into permanent governments. While World War II appeared to have brought a final end to the conflict that had begun in 1914, the era after it had some of the characteristics of another long armistice—an armed truce between West and East.

See also historical sections of articles on the various countries; separate articles on the territories that changed hands; DISARMAMENT—*The United Nations;* FAR EASTERN AFFAIRS—*World War II and Thereafter;* KOREAN WAR; PACTS AND CONFERENCES: WORLD WAR II—*Council of Foreign Ministers;* TWENTIETH CENTURY—*Warfare;* UNITED NATIONS, THE (U.N.).

ERNEST R. MAY,
Associate Professor of History, Harvard University.

16. Chronology

A chronological outline of the major events preceding World War II, the chief military and political occurrences in the various areas during the war, and peace treaties and other postwar developments are presented under the following headings: (1) prelude to war, (2) European and Mediterranean operations, (3) Pacific and eastern Asian operations, and (4) political and diplomatic developments of the war and postwar periods.

PRELUDE TO WAR

1931

Sept. 18—Japanese begin conquest of Manchuria.

1932

March 1—Manchuria becomes Japanese puppet state of Manchukuo.

1933

Jan. 30—Adolf Hitler becomes chancellor of Germany.
March 27—Japan leaves League of Nations.
Oct. 14—Germany leaves League of Nations.

1934

Jan. 26—Germany and Poland sign 10-year nonaggression pact.
June 30—Hitler carries out blood purge of Nazi Party.
July 25—Unsuccessful pro-Nazi revolt takes place in Austria; Chancellor Engelbert Dollfuss is assassinated.

1935

March 16—Hitler reintroduces compulsory military service.
May 2—France and the USSR sign five-year mutual assistance treaty.
June 18—Anglo-German naval agreement is signed.
Oct. 3—Benito Mussolini invades Ethiopia.

1936

Jan. 15—Japan withdraws from London Naval Conference.
March 7—Hitler remilitarizes Rhineland.
May 5—Italians capture Addis Ababa, ending major operations in Ethiopia.
July 17–18—Spanish Civil War begins.
Oct. 25—Germany and Italy form Rome-Berlin Axis.
Nov. 25—Germany and Japan sign Anti-Comintern Pact.

1937

July 7—Marco Polo Bridge incident near Peiping sets off Sino-Japanese War.
Dec. 12—Japanese planes sink United States gunboat *Panay* in Yangtze River.
Dec. 13—Japanese sack Nanking.

1938

March 13—Hitler annexes Austria.
Sept. 29–30—Munich Conference approves German acquisition of the Sudetenland.

1939

March 15—Hitler occupies rest of Czechoslovakia.
March 28—Insurgent forces complete conquest of Spain.
April 7—Mussolini invades Albania.
Aug. 23—Germany and the USSR sign nonaggression pact.

EUROPEAN AND MEDITERRANEAN OPERATIONS

1939

Sept. 1—Germany invades Poland.
Sept. 17—Soviet forces invade Poland.
Sept. 27—Warsaw capitulates.
Oct. 6—Last organized Polish resistance is broken at Kock.
Nov. 30—Soviet forces invade Finland.

1940

March 12—Finland capitulates, signing Treaty of Moscow.
April 9—Germans begin invasion of Norway and seize Denmark.
April 14—Anglo-French forces reach Norway.
May 2—Anglo-French forces are driven from central Norway.
May 10—Germans invade the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg.
May 14—Dutch Army surrenders.
May 20—Germans break through to English Channel at Abbeville.
May 28—Belgium surrenders unconditionally.
June 4—British complete evacuation of Dunkerque.
June 8—Allies leave Narvik.
June 9—Norwegian Army agrees to armistice.
June 14—Germans enter Paris.

and Tunisia.

June 20–Royal Air Force makes first shuttle-bombing raid between England and North Africa.

June 22–United States Eighth Air Force makes its first large-scale daylight raid on Ruhr area.

July 5–Germans launch offensive against Kursk salient.

July 9–Allied forces invade Sicily; German Kursk offensive is checked.

July 12–Russians open major offensive against Orel salient.

July 22–United States Seventh Army takes Palermo, Sicily; Soviet offensive spreads across entire front.

July 24–United States Eighth Air Force makes its first raid on Norway.

Aug. 1–Mass, low-level American air raid is made on Ploeşti, Rumania.

Aug. 5–Russians capture Orel and Belgorod.

Aug. 17–American and British forces converge at Messina, Sicily; United States Eighth Air Force raids Schweinfurt and Regensburg; Royal Air Force attacks German V-weapons experimental center at Peenemünde.

Aug. 23–Germans evacuate Kharkov; Russians attack heavily on Mius River front.

Sept. 3–British Eighth Army forces, crossing from Sicily, land on Italian coast; Italian government signs secret armistice (effective Sept. 8).

Sept. 8–Italian armistice is announced; Italian Fleet and aircraft surrender to Allies.

Sept. 9–British amphibious assault seizes Taranto; Allied forces land at Salerno.

Sept. 11–German counterattacks begin in Salerno area.

Sept. 13–German counterattacks seriously threaten Salerno beachhead.

Sept. 14–German Salerno attacks are contained.

Sept. 17–Germans begin fighting withdrawal from Salerno front; Russians take Bryansk.

Sept. 18–19–Allies occupy Sardinia, following German evacuation.

Sept. 24–Germans evacuate Smolensk and Roslavl.

Oct. 1–Allied forces enter Naples.

Oct. 4–Germans seize Kos, site of only Allied air base in Aegean Sea; Allied forces gain control of Corsica.

Oct. 6–United States Fifth Army reaches Volturno River in Italy.

Oct. 12–13–United States Fifth Army carries out assault crossing of Volturno River.

Oct. 14–United States Eighth Air Force raids Schweinfurt ball-bearing plants.

Nov. 1–Soviet offensive against the Crimea makes progress.

Nov. 5–United States Fifth Army begins assault against Winter Line in Italy.

Nov. 6–Germans evacuate Kiev.

Nov. 12–Russians capture Zhitomir.

Nov. 14–Germans launch counterattack in Zhitomir area (recapture city Nov. 19).

Nov. 15–Attack on Winter Line is halted for regrouping.

Nov. 20–British Eighth Army attacks on Sangro River front in Italy.

Nov. 26–Germans evacuate Gomel.

Dec. 1–United States Fifth Army attacks Winter Line in Liri Valley.

Dec. 2–Luftwaffe makes effective raid on Bari, Italy.

Dec. 14–Russians begin winter offensive.

Dec. 16–Germans evacuate San Pietro Infine, key point in Winter Line.

Dec. 24–United States Eighth Air Force makes major effort against German secret weapon sites.

1944

Jan. 5–Final phase of Winter Line offensive begins in Italy.

Jan. 15–Operations against Winter Line are successfully concluded; Russians launch major surprise offensive on Leningrad front.

Jan. 16–Eisenhower assumes post as supreme commander of Allied Expeditionary Force.

Jan. 22–Allies begin landing at Anzio, Italy; Germans halt Russians around Vitebsk, though Russians continue gains elsewhere.

Jan. 23–Americans are repulsed in attempt to force Rapido River in Italy.

Feb. 3–German counteroffensive against Anzio beachhead begins during night; Allies on main Italian battlefront stall in front of Cassino.

Feb. 6–Soviet offensive in the Ukraine makes great progress near Nikopol.

Feb. 18–Anzio beachhead is under extreme pressure.

Feb. 19–Allied counterattack checks German Anzio offensive.

March 4–German forces around Anzio beachhead go over to the defensive; first American air raid is made on Berlin.

March 13–Soviet troops force Dnieper River and take Kherson.

March 15–Allies make third assault on Cassino; Russians break through German defenses along Bug River.

March 30–Royal Air Force bombing raid on Nürnberg suffers extremely heavy losses.

April 10–Russians recover Odessa.

April 15–Soviet offensive into Poland captures Tarnopol.

May 9–Russians recapture Sevastopol; United States Eighth Air Force begins attacks on German airfields in northern France.

May 11–Allies launch major offensive against Gustav Line in drive for Rome.

May 12–United States Eighth Air Force attacks oil plants in central Germany.

May 13–French Expeditionary Corps penetrates Gustav Line.

May 18–Allies capture Cassino.

May 21–Allied fighter aircraft begin operations against enemy railroads in France and Germany.

May 23–Allied forces in Anzio beachhead begin break-out offensive.

May 30–Loading of Allied assault forces for Operation Overlord is begun.

June 2–United States Fifteenth Air Force begins shuttle bombing between Italian and Soviet bases.

June 3–Combat loading of troops for Operation Overlord is completed.

June 4–Allied forces enter Rome; D-day for Operation Overlord is postponed from June 5 to June 6.

June 6–Operation Overlord begins; Allies land on coast of Normandy.

June 8–American and British beachheads establish contact.

June 9–Russians launch offensive against Finns on Karelian Isthmus.

June 12–Allies capture Carentan in Normandy.

June 17–French force lands on Elba.

June 27–Americans capture Cherbourg.

July 3–United States First Army attacks southward from beachhead (battle of the hedgerows).

July 8–British enter Caen.

July 13–Russians capture Vilnyus.

July 18–United States First Army captures St.-Lô; Soviet offensive is checked at Augustów, but still advances elsewhere.

July 19–United States Fifth Army captures Leghorn.

July 21–Soviet offensive crosses Bug River.

July 25–United States First Army launches major break-out offensive (Operation Cobra).

Aug. 1–United States Twelfth Army Group becomes operational in France; Polish underground forces revolt as Soviet advance nears Warsaw.

Aug. 4–Allied forces in Italy halt along Arno River to regroup for offensive against Gothic Line.

Aug. 7–United States Third Army reaches Brest; Germans launch major counterattack near Mortain; Soviet offensive is generally checked.

Aug. 10–Having halted German Mortain counteroffensive, United States First Army resumes advance.

Aug. 13–Allied forces begin closing Falaise-Argentan pocket.

Aug. 15–United States Seventh Army lands in southern France (Operation Dragoon).

Aug. 16–United States Third Army captures Orléans.

Aug. 19–French underground forces begin Paris uprising.

Aug. 20–Falaise-Argentan pocket is completely closed; United States Third Army crosses Seine near Mantes-Gassicourt; Russians open offensive against Rumania.

Aug. 23–Rumania surrenders unconditionally.

Aug. 25–Allied forces enter Paris; attack on Gothic Line begins in Italy.

Aug. 28–French complete capture of Toulon-Marseille area.

Sept. 1–Gasoline shortage halts United States Third Army; Germans begin withdrawal from Greek mainland and adjacent islands.

Sept. 4–British enter Antwerp; truce is established between the USSR and Finland.

Sept. 6–United States Third Army attacks Moselle River line.

Sept. 7–United States Third Army begins attacks on Metz.

Sept. 9–The USSR grants Bulgaria an armistice.

Sept. 10–Decision is reached to postpone opening Antwerp's port until effort (Operation Market-Garden) has been made to secure a Rhine crossing; United States Third Army begins large-scale Moselle crossing; United States First Army captures city of Luxembourg.

Sept. 11–Patrols from Overlord and Dragoon forces establish contact near Dijon.

Sept. 12–German garrison of Le Havre surrenders; United States First Army reaches West Wall.

Sept. 13–Shuttle bombing between Western and Soviet bases is discontinued.

Sept. 14–United States First Army reaches suburbs of Aachen; United States Third Army surrounds Nancy; Russians capture Warsaw suburb of Praga, and begin offensive in Estonia and Latvia; United States Fifth Army is repulsed in attacks on Gothic Line in Italy.

June 22—German-French armistice is signed (fighting ends June 25 after signature of Italo-French armistice June 24).
July 3—British attack French Fleet at Oran and Mers-el-Kebir.
July 10—Battle of Britain begins.
Aug. 5—Italians invade British Somaliland (conquest is completed Aug. 19).
Sept. 13—Italians invade Egypt.
Sept. 23—British and Free French attempt unsuccessfully to take Dakar (attack ends Sept. 25).
Oct. 28—Mussolini invades Greece.
Oct. 31—Germans begin breaking off Battle of Britain.
Dec. 9—Gen. Sir Archibald Wavell launches British counteroffensive in Egypt.

1941

Feb. 7—Trapped Italian army surrenders to British at Bedafomm, Libya.
Feb. 12—Gen Erwin Rommel arrives in Tripoli to take over North African campaign for Axis.
March 1—Italians finally check Greek counteroffensive.
March 5—British forces reach Greek mainland.
March 16—British land at Berbera, British Somaliland.
March 24—Axis forces launch offensive in North Africa (Tobruk is invested by April 11).
April 6—Axis forces invade Yugoslavia and Greece; British occupy Addis Ababa.
April 17—Yugoslav Army capitulates; British begin evacuating Greek mainland.
April 30—Organized resistance ends on Greek mainland.
May 2—British attack insurgents in Iraq (campaign ends May 31 with occupation of Baghdad).
May 20—Germans begin airborne attack on Crete.
May 31—Germans complete conquest of Crete.
June 8—British attack Vichy French forces in Syria, defeating them in six days.
June 22—Hitler invades the USSR.
Aug. 21—Hitler turns German main effort southward toward Kiev.
Sept. 8—Leningrad's land connections with rest of the USSR are severed.
Sept. 19—Kiev is captured.
Nov. 18—British begin second invasion of Libya.
Nov. 20—Germans capture Rostov.
Nov. 27—Conquest of Italian East Africa is completed with surrender of Gondar.
Nov. 28—Germans are forced to evacuate Rostov.
Dec. 5—German offensive stalls 25 miles from Moscow.
Dec. 6—Russians launch counteroffensive.
Dec. 7—Rommel begins withdrawal to El Agheila.
Dec. 10—British advance in Libya relieves Tobruk.
Dec. 24—British enter Benghazi.

1942

Jan. 2—British capture bypassed fortress of Bardia, Libya.
Jan. 11—Rommel withdraws westward toward El Agheila.
Jan. 17—British reduce bypassed German garrison of Halfaya.
Jan. 20—Russians recapture Mozhaisk, 65 miles west-southwest of Moscow.
Jan. 21—Rommel launches major counteroffensive.
Jan. 26—First United States troops arrive in Northern Ireland.
Jan. 28—British Eighth Army withdraws to El Gazala-Bir Hacheim Line.
Feb. 1—Soviet counteroffensive begins to bog down in German hedgehog defense system.
Feb. 12—German warships *Scharnhorst*, *Gneisenau*, and *Prinz Eugen* escape from Brest and run up English Channel to German ports.
March 27—British carry out successful raid against St.-Nazaire, France.
May 8—Germans begin minor operations to prepare for summer offensive in the USSR.
May 12—Russians launch large-scale spoiling offensive against Kharkov.
May 17—Germans counterattack in Kharkov sector.
May 27—Rommel launches major offensive against El Gazala-Bir Hacheim line.
May 28—Germans complete defeat of Soviet Kharkov offensive.
May 30—Royal Air Force begins major air offensive against Germany with heavy raid on Cologne.
June 10—Rommel forces evacuation of Bir Hacheim.
June 14—British withdraw toward Egypt.
June 20—Rommel breaks into Tobruk, completing its capture June 21.
June 24—Rommel reaches Sidi Barrani, Egypt.
June 28—Germans launch main summer offensive in the USSR.
June 30—British are forced back on prepared positions at El Alamein.
July 1—Germans complete capture of Sevastopol.
July 2—British Eighth Army begins limited counterattacks against Axis forces in Egypt.
July 4—American crews participate in Royal Air Force raid on airfields in the Netherlands, in the first United States air operation in Europe.
July 6—Germans capture Voronezh, near Don River.
July 9—German offensive in the USSR divides, one army group advancing through Rostov into the Caucasus oilfields and the other toward Stalingrad.
July 23—Germans capture Rostov.
Aug. 9—Germans penetrate northern foothills of the Caucasus.
Aug. 19—British and Canadians, accompanied by small detachment of United States Rangers, make amphibious raid on Dieppe, France.
Aug. 31—Axis forces attack El Alamein position (Battle of Alam el Halfa).
Sept. 7—Lt. Gen. Bernard Law Montgomery halts British counterattack at Alam el Halfa; begins elaborate preparations for major counteroffensive.
Sept. 16—Germans penetrate Stalingrad suburbs.
Oct. 23—British Eighth Army opens El Alamein offensive.
Nov. 1—Heavy fighting continues in Stalingrad and the Caucasus; Russians are gradually wearing down German offensive.
Nov. 5—Axis troops withdraw from El Alamein area.
Nov. 8—British and Americans land in Morocco and Algeria.
Nov. 9—German troops begin occupying Tunisia.
Nov. 10—Adm. Jean François Darlan orders French forces in North Africa to cease resistance to Allied invasion.
Nov. 11—Eighth Army's pursuit crosses Egyptian frontier into Libya, taking Bardia; Axis troops move into unoccupied France.
Nov. 19—Russians begin offensive in Stalingrad area.
Nov. 22—Converging Soviet attacks cut off German Sixth Army around Stalingrad.
Nov. 27—French warships in Toulon harbor are scuttled to prevent seizure by Germans.
Nov. 30—Determined German resistance halts Allied invasion of Tunisia.
Dec. 12—Germans counterattack to relieve Sixth Army at Stalingrad.
Dec. 16—Soviet offensive against Italian Eighth Army on middle Don River forces abandonment of effort to relieve Stalingrad.
Dec. 24—Lt. Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower, commanding Allied forces in North Africa, decides to postpone Tunisian offensive until end of rainy season.

1943

Jan. 2—German troops in Caucasus area begin withdrawing northward through Rostov.
Jan. 10—Russians begin attack against Stalingrad pocket.
Jan. 12—Russians attempt to raise siege of Leningrad.
Jan. 16—Berlin is raided by Royal Air Force for the first time since Nov. 7, 1941.
Jan. 18—Germans open limited offensive in Tunisia; Russians reopen land communications with Leningrad.
Jan. 23—British Eighth Army occupies Tripoli; Germans break off Tunisian offensive.
Jan. 27—United States Eighth Air Force bombs Wilhelmshaven in its first attack on Germany.
Feb. 2—Last elements of German Sixth Army surrender at Stalingrad; Russian spearheads push energetically toward Rostov, Kharkov, and Kursk.
Feb. 4—British Eighth Army crosses into Tunisia from Libya.
Feb. 8—Russians capture Kursk.
Feb. 14—Germans launch spoiling offensive against United States 2d Corps in Tunisia; Russians capture Rostov.
Feb. 16—Russians capture Kharkov.
Feb. 20—Rommel breaks through Kasserine Pass in Tunisia.
Feb. 21—Germans launch counteroffensive toward Kharkov.
Feb. 22—Rommel begins to withdraw through Kasserine Pass.
March 6—Rommel is repulsed in attack on British Eighth Army near Médenine.
March 12—Russians capture Vyazma.
March 14—Germans complete recapture of Kharkov.
March 17—United States 2d Corps begins offensive in Tunisia.
March 20—British Eighth Army attacks Mareth Line.
March 27—Enveloping attack by British Eighth Army forces Germans to evacuate Mareth Line and retire northward.
April 23—British-United States staff is established in England under Lt. Gen. Sir Frederick E. Morgan to plan invasion of northwestern Europe.
May 4—Final Allied offensive opens in Tunisia.
May 13—Last Axis forces surrender in Tunisia.
May 16-17—Royal Air Force raid breaches Möhne and Eder dams, flooding portions of the Ruhr.
May 18—Air offensive begins against Pantelleria Island to clear way for invasion of Sicily.
June 11—Pantelleria surrenders unconditionally.
June 14—With occupation of Lampione in Pelagie Islands, Allies gain control of all islands between Sicily

ent ends civil war in Greece.
n last German position in Buda.

nd Breslau.
Ninth Army attacks across Roer
enade) toward Rhine.
enade is successfully completed
First Army completes capture of
ored Division seizes Rhine bridge

Third and Seventh armies launch
(Operation Undertone) to clear
tle (successfully completed March

n offensive against Vienna.
Third Army makes assault cross-
nheim.
d Army crosses Rhine (Operation
esel area.
Ninth Army attacks across Rhine
United States Third Army begins
pleted March 25) at Boppard.
Seventh Army crosses Rhine near

Army crosses Rhine near Speyer

Ninth and First armies establish
isolating Ruhr area.
Vienna.
n bypassed Königsberg fortress;
opens major offensive in Italy.
Ninth Army establishes bridge-
Elbe.
Ninth Army seizes second Elbe
secure Vienna.
se one Elbe bridgehead; United
ins in Italian offensive.
n heavy offensive against Berlin.
Seventh Army attacks Nürnberg.
man resistance in Ruhr collapses.
l Army patrols enter Czechoslo-

Seventh Army completes capture

erman resistance ends in Har

way into Berlin; United States
assault crossing of Po River.
First Army patrol makes contact
Torgau.
ete capture of Bremen.
Army begins advance from Elbe
nited States Fifth Army enters
thwest Army Group in Italy sur-
lly.
Seventh Army occupies Munich.
Army reaches Baltic, capturing
Russians mop up Berlin; fighting
Zealand troops occupy Trieste.
nder forces in the Netherlands,
ny, and Denmark (effective May
l States Fifth and Seventh armies
ass.
hird Army begins offensive into
man Army Group G surrenders
States Sixth Army Group.
hird Army takes Plzeň, Czecho-

ommand surrenders all forces un-
ns; Russians finally capture Bres-

ies end officially at 12:01 A.M.

TERN ASIAN OPERATIONS

striking force sails from Kuril

aircraft attack United States
arbor, Hawaii, and nearby Army
stroyers bombard Midway Island.
s raid American air bases in
invade Thailand and Malaya.
ational Settlement; attack main-
ong Kong; bombard Wake and

Gilbert Islands.
Guam and begin landings on
ips *Repulse* and *Prince of Wales*

panese to seize Wake Island is
gin invasion of Burma.
British to withdraw from main-
and.
British Borneo and Burma.
Hong Kong Island.
near Davao, Mindanao, Philip-

major landing at Lingayen Gulf.

Luzon, Philippines; Chiang Kai-shek offers Chinese troops for defense of Burma; first American troops reach Australia.
Dec. 23—Japanese overrun Wake Island; Gen. Douglas MacArthur decides to withdraw into Bataan Peninsula, Luzon.
Dec. 25—Japanese complete conquest of Hong Kong.

1942

Jan. 7—American and Philippine forces complete withdrawal into Bataan Peninsula.
Jan. 11—Japanese begin invasion of Netherlands East Indies.
Jan. 20—Japanese begin major offensive in Burma.
Jan. 22—MacArthur orders withdrawal to final Bataan defensive position.
Jan. 23—Japanese make amphibious landings behind American-Philippine positions on Bataan, but are contained; seize Rabaul, New Britain; and land on New Ireland and Solomon Islands.
Jan. 24—United States destroyers raid Japanese shipping off Balikpapan, Borneo (Battle of Makassar Strait).
Jan. 26—Withdrawal to final Bataan defensive position is successfully completed.
Jan. 27—British forces in Malaya begin withdrawal to Singapore Island.
Jan. 31—British complete withdrawal to Singapore Island.
Feb. 1—United States Pacific Fleet attacks Japanese bases in Marshall and Gilbert Islands.
Feb. 2—Lt. Gen. Joseph W. Stilwell is appointed chief of staff to Chiang Kai-shek.
Feb. 4—Dutch-United States naval force is badly damaged by Japanese aircraft in Madoera Strait, Netherlands East Indies.
Feb. 8—Japanese forces break off Bataan attacks to reorganize for future decisive offensive; Japanese gain foothold on Singapore Island.
Feb. 14—Japanese paratroopers seize Palembang area, Sumatra.
Feb. 15—Singapore surrenders unconditionally.
Feb. 18—Japanese seize Bali, isolating Java.
Feb. 19—Darwin, Australia, is badly damaged by massive Japanese air attacks.
Feb. 22—President Franklin D. Roosevelt orders MacArthur to leave Philippines.
Feb. 23—British in Burma are forced back across Sittang River; Japanese submarine shells refinery near Santa Barbara, Calif.
Feb. 27—Allied naval forces are decisively defeated during attack on Japanese convoy (Battle of the Java Sea).
Feb. 28—Japanese invade Java.
March 7—British evacuate Rangoon, Burma.
March 7–8—Japanese land on New Guinea.
March 9—Dutch forces surrender to Japanese on Java.
March 11—MacArthur, family, and staff leave Bataan (reach Darwin March 17).
March 24—Japanese begin heavy air and artillery bombardment of Bataan and Corregidor.
April 3—Japanese launch major offensive against Bataan.
April 4—Japanese carrier task force begins large-scale raid into Indian Ocean, attacking Colombo and Trincomalee, Ceylon, during following week.
April 9—American-Philippine forces on Bataan surrender; Japanese concentrate planes and artillery against Corregidor.
April 18—MacArthur assumes command of Southwest Pacific area; Lt. Col. James H. Doolittle leads air raid on Tokyo.
April 29—Japanese seize Lashio, southern terminus of Burma Road.
May 3—Japanese occupy Tulagi, Solomon Islands.
May 4—United States carrier planes raid Tulagi.
May 5—British invade Madagascar; Japanese make assault landing on Corregidor.
May 6—Lt. Gen. Jonathan M. Wainwright surrenders all forces in Philippines unconditionally.
May 7—Battle of the Coral Sea begins (ends May 8).
May 10—American-Philippine forces in Mindanao, Palawan, and Visayan Islands begin surrendering (process is completed June 9).
May 20—Japanese complete conquest of Burma.
June 3—American aircraft from Midway locate main Japanese fleet approaching that island.
June 4—Japanese are decisively defeated in Battle of Midway (pursuit continues into June 6).
June 6–7—Japanese land troops on Aleutian islands of Attu and Kiska.
July 2—Joint Chiefs of Staff order recovery of New Britain-New Ireland-New Guinea area, beginning with occupation of lower Solomon Islands.
July 22—Japanese land at Gona and Buna, New Guinea, for overland advance against Port Moresby.
Aug. 7—United States Marines begin landing on Guadalcanal, Solomon Islands.
Aug. 8–9—Japanese naval task force inflicts serious losses on Allied fleet off Guadalcanal (Battle of Savo Island); Allied naval forces retire from Guadalcanal area.
Aug. 21—First Japanese assault on Henderson Field, Guadalcanal, is repulsed.
Aug. 24—United States carrier task force defeats Japanese in Battle of the Eastern Solomons.
Aug. 25—Japanese begin attack on Milne Bay, New Guinea.
Sept. 5—Japanese begin evacuating Milne Bay beachhead.
Sept. 9—Japanese plane (launched from submarine) starts small forest fire near Brookings, Oreg. (this was the only bombing attack on the continental United States during war).
Sept. 13–14—Japanese launch unsuccessful major offensive on Guadalcanal.
Sept. 16—Japanese advance against Port Moresby is halted.
Oct. 11–12—United States naval task force defeats Japanese off Guadalcanal (Battle of Cape Esperance).
Oct. 13—United States Army units land on Guadalcanal.
Oct. 14—Henderson Field, Guadalcanal, is temporarily rendered unusable by Japanese bombardment; Japanese mass for attack on American beachhead.
Oct. 23—Japanese launch major Guadalcanal counteroffensive.
Oct. 25–26—Japanese Guadalcanal attacks fail.
Oct. 26—Japanese are defeated in naval Battle of Santa Cruz.
Oct. 29—Alaska Highway is open for traffic; Japanese break contact with United States forces on Guadalcanal and withdraw northward.
Nov. 1—Americans begin Guadalcanal offensive.
Nov. 12—Series of naval engagements (Battle of Guadalcanal, ending Nov. 15) thwarts Japanese efforts to land reinforcements on Guadalcanal.
Nov. 16—Australians and Americans, having forced Japanese back into Buna-Gona beachhead during past month, attack that position.
Nov. 30—Japanese are thwarted in effort to reinforce Guadalcanal, but defeat United States cruiser task force (Battle of Tassafaronga).
Dec. 1—Australians capture Gona.
Dec. 16—British begin limited offensive in Arakan coastal area in Burma.
Dec. 18—Allies begin major offensive against Japanese positions around Buna.

1943

Jan. 2—Organized Japanese resistance at Buna ends.
Jan. 22—Japanese positions around Sananda, New Guinea, are overrun.
Feb. 1—Japanese begin evacuation of Guadalcanal (operation is completed Feb. 7).
Feb. 8—Brig. Orde C. Wingate's Chindits begin three-month raid against Mandalay-Myitkyina railroad.
Feb. 9—Organized Japanese resistance ends on Guadalcanal.
Feb. 21—Americans land on Russell Islands.
March 2—Battle of the Bismarck Sea begins (ends March 4 with destruction of entire Japanese convoy).
March 12—Japanese defeat British on Arakan front.
March 26—United States naval task force turns back effort by Japanese to reinforce their Aleutian garrisons.
April 18—Adm. Isoroku Yamamoto is killed when a Japanese plane is shot down over Solomon Islands.
May 11—American expeditionary force lands on Attu.
May 12—British withdraw to original positions in Arakan sector of Burma.
May 30—Japanese resistance collapses on Attu.
June 30—Operation Cartwheel begins with Allied landings in central Solomon Islands, Trobriand Islands, and Nassau Bay area of New Guinea.
July 5—United States naval forces partially block Japanese attempt to reinforce Kolombangara Island, central Solomons (Battle of Kula Gulf).
July 12—United States naval task force fails to prevent Japanese reinforcements from reaching Kolombangara (Battle of Kolombangara or Second Battle of Kula Gulf).
July 28—Japanese evacuate Kiska undetected by Allies.
Aug. 5—After 12 days of heavy fighting, Americans capture Munda Airfield, New Georgia, central Solomons.
Aug. 6—Japanese naval force is defeated off Kolombangara (Battle of Vella Gulf).
Aug. 15—Allied force begins landing on Kiska (by Aug. 22, concedes island is deserted).
Oct. 2—Japanese withdraw successfully from Kolombangara; Australians capture Finschhafen, New Guinea.
Oct. 6–7—Japanese destroyers fight off smaller force of American destroyers while evacuating Japanese troops from Vella Lavella (Battle of Vella Lavella).
Oct. 12—United States Army Air Forces begin heavy air attacks on Rabaul, New Britain.
Nov. 1—Americans land on Bougainville Island, northern Solomons; during following night, Japanese naval task force is defeated offshore (Battle of Empress Augusta Bay).
Nov. 21—Americans begin landing on Makin and Tarawa,

Sept. 15—United States First Army breaches West Wall.
Sept. 17—Operation Market-Garden is launched.
Sept. 18—Germans counterattack British airborne troops at Arnhem, Netherlands.
Sept. 19—United States Ninth Army completes mopping up in Brittany.
Sept. 20—British force Germans to withdraw from Rimini Line in Italy.
Sept. 23—Russians break through German lines to Gulf of Riga.
Sept. 25—United States Fifth Army completes penetration of Gothic Line in Italy.
Sept. 26—Germans overrun last British units in Arnhem area, ending decisive phase of Operation Market-Garden.
Sept. 30—Russians cross Danube in drive on Belgrade.
Oct. 2—Germans complete suppression of Warsaw revolt.
Oct. 3—British troops land in southern Greece.
Oct. 13—British airborne troops are dropped near Athens; Germans begin V-1 attacks on Antwerp.
Oct. 14—British troops enter Athens; Russians and Yugoslavs encircle Belgrade.
Oct. 15—United States First Army surrounds Aachen.
Oct. 18—Russians break into eastern Czechoslovakia.
Oct. 20—Belgrade is captured.
Oct. 21—Aachen garrison capitulates.
Oct. 22—Russians advance from Petsamo, Finland, to Norwegian frontier.
Oct. 24—British and Canadians begin clearing approaches to Antwerp port.
Oct. 25—Russians enter Kirkenes, Norway.
Nov. 4—Channel to Antwerp is opened for minesweeping.
Nov. 8—Approaches to Antwerp are completely cleared; United States Third Army begins offensive toward the Saar.
Nov. 16—United States First and Ninth armies begin attempt to clear area between Wurm and Roer rivers (Operation Queen).
Nov. 19—United States Third Army surrounds Metz.
Nov. 20—French First Army breaks into Belfort.
Nov. 23—French troops with United States Seventh Army take Strasbourg.
Nov. 28—Antwerp port is opened for shipping.
Dec. 3—Clashes occur between British troops and Greek factions in Athens.
Dec. 6—Russians intensify offensive toward Budapest, Hungary.
Dec. 13—Last bypassed Metz fort (Jeanne d'Arc) surrenders to United States Third Army.
Dec. 16—Germans open major counteroffensive against United States Twelfth Army Group in Ardennes area.
Dec. 19—United States 101st Airborne Division reaches Bastogne; elements of United States Third Army prepare to move north; United States Seventh Army goes on defensive in Alsace-Lorraine.
Dec. 21—Germans begin siege of Bastogne.
Dec. 23—Soviet forces close in on Budapest; heavy fighting takes place in Lake Balaton area of Hungary.
Dec. 26—Tanks of 4th Armored Division of United States Third Army break through to Bastogne.
Dec. 27—Roads into Bastogne from the south are opened for trucks and ambulances; Russians complete encirclement of Budapest.
Dec. 30—Allied forces begin counterattacks in the Ardennes.
Dec. 31—Germans launch offensive against United States Seventh Army in Alsace-Lorraine.

1945
Jan. 1—Last major German air raid is made against Allied airfields.
Jan. 2—Germans counterattack to relieve Budapest.
Jan. 3—United States First Army begins counteroffensive against northern flank of Ardennes salient.
Jan. 5—Allied forces in Italy begin regrouping for spring offensive.
Jan. 12—Russians launch large-scale winter offensive in Poland (extended to East Prussia Jan. 14).
Jan. 17—Russians capture Warsaw.
Jan. 20—French First Army begins offensive in Alsace-Lorraine against Colmar pocket.
Jan. 25—German Alsace-Lorraine offensive ends with unsuccessful attack near Haguenau.
Jan. 28—Russians complete conquest of Lithuania and encirclement of Königsberg.
Feb. 2—United States First Army begins advance to seize Roer River dams.
Feb. 4—Allied forces in Italy begin limited operations in preparation for spring offensive.
Feb. 8—Canadian First Army begins Operation Veritable to clear area between Maas and Rhine rivers (with subsidiary Operation Blockbuster, successfully completed March 10).
Feb. 9—French First Army completes reduction of Colmar pocket.
Feb. 10—United States First Army seizes main Roer dam but finds that Germans have destroyed outlet controls.
Feb. 12—Varkiza agreement ends civil war in Greece.
Feb. 13—Russians overrun last German position in Budapest.
Feb. 16—Russians surround Breslau.
Feb. 23—United States Ninth Army attacks across Roer River (Operation Grenade) toward Rhine.
March 6—Operation Grenade is successfully completed.
March 7—United States First Army completes capture of Cologne; its 9th Armored Division seizes Rhine bridge at Remagen intact.
March 15—United States Third and Seventh armies launch coordinated offensive (Operation Undertone) to clear Saar-Palatinate triangle (successfully completed March 25).
March 16—Russians begin offensive against Vienna.
March 22—United States Third Army makes assault crossing of Rhine at Oppenheim.
March 23—British Second Army crosses Rhine (Operation Plunder) in Rees-Wesel area.
March 24—United States Ninth Army attacks across Rhine in Dinslaken area; United States Third Army begins similar attack (completed March 25) at Boppard.
March 26—United States Seventh Army crosses Rhine near Worms.
March 31—French First Army crosses Rhine near Speyer and Germersheim.
April 1—United States Ninth and First armies establish contact at Lippstadt, isolating Ruhr area.
April 7—Russians enter Vienna.
April 9—Russians storm bypassed Königsberg fortress; British Eighth Army opens major offensive in Italy.
April 12—United States Ninth Army establishes bridgehead on east bank of Elbe.
April 13—United States Ninth Army seizes second Elbe bridgehead; Russians secure Vienna.
April 14—Americans lose one Elbe bridgehead; United States Fifth Army joins in Italian offensive.
April 16—Russians begin heavy offensive against Berlin.
April 17—United States Seventh Army attacks Nürnberg.
April 18—Organized German resistance in Ruhr collapses; United States Third Army patrols enter Czechoslovakia.
April 20—United States Seventh Army completes capture of Nürnberg.
April 21—Organized German resistance ends in Harz Mountains.
April 23—Russians fight way into Berlin; United States Fifth Army begins assault crossing of Po River.
April 25—United States First Army patrol makes contact with Russians near Torgau.
April 26—British complete capture of Bremen.
April 29—British Second Army begins advance from Elbe River to Baltic; United States Fifth Army enters Milan; German Southwest Army Group in Italy surrenders unconditionally.
April 30—United States Seventh Army occupies Munich.
May 2—British Second Army reaches Baltic, capturing Lübeck and Wismar; Russians mop up Berlin; fighting ends in Italy; New Zealand troops occupy Trieste.
May 4—Germans surrender forces in the Netherlands, northwestern Germany, and Denmark (effective May 5); patrols of United States Fifth and Seventh armies meet near Brenner Pass.
May 5—United States Third Army begins offensive into Czechoslovakia; German Army Group G surrenders in Bavaria to United States Sixth Army Group.
May 6—United States Third Army takes Plzeň, Czechoslovakia.
May 7—German High Command surrenders all forces unconditionally at Reims; Russians finally capture Breslau.
May 9—European hostilities end officially at 12:01 A.M.

PACIFIC AND EASTERN ASIAN OPERATIONS

1941
Nov. 26—Pearl Harbor striking force sails from Kuril Islands.
Dec. 7—Japanese carrier aircraft attack United States naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, and nearby Army air bases; Japanese destroyers bombard Midway Island.
Dec. 8—Japanese planes raid American air bases in Philippines; Japanese invade Thailand and Malaya, seize Shanghai International Settlement; attack mainland territories of Hong Kong; bombard Wake and Guam.
Dec. 9—Japanese invade Gilbert Islands.
Dec. 10—Japanese seize Guam and begin landings on Luzon; British warships *Repulse* and *Prince of Wales* are sunk off Malaya.
Dec. 11—Attempt by Japanese to seize Wake Island is repulsed; Japanese begin invasion of Burma.
Dec. 13—Japanese force British to withdraw from mainland to Hong Kong Island.
Dec. 16—Japanese invade British Borneo and Burma.
Dec. 18—Japanese invade Hong Kong Island.
Dec. 20—Japanese land near Davao, Mindanao, Philippines.
Dec. 22—Japanese make major landing at Lingayen Gulf.

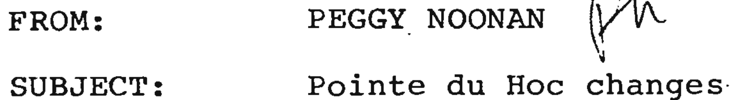
THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

May 30, 1984

MEMORANDUM FOR BEN ELLIOTT

FROM: PEGGY NOONAN



SUBJECT: Pointe du Hoc changes

Here is the final version of the Pointe du Hoc address. Most of the changes suggested by State and NSC had to do with points of style (such as changing "millions cried out for liberation" to "millions sought liberation"). I incorporated those suggestions I judged to be an improvement and rejected the rest. In all, I'd say I accepted 50 percent.

Bob Kimmit, who seems to speak for both State and NSC on these matters, suggested two changes dealing with substance. He suggested we add a graph at the end of page six, saying: "It is fitting here to remember also the great sacrifices made by the Russian people during World War II. Their terrible loss of 20 million lives testifies to all the world the necessity of avoiding another war."

I have not incorporated this suggestion because it is irrelevant (the subject here is Normandy, and the Russians weren't at that party), unneeded (brings up the whole new topic of what losses each nation suffered in the war when we don't talk about the millions of French, British, German and American dead), and . . . it has that egregious sort of special pleading ring that just stops the flow; it sounds like we stopped the speech dead to throw a fish to the bear.

Kimmitt also asks that we add a line at the end of full paragraph two, page 6: "D-Day marked the beginning of an enduring American commitment to European security." I did not incorporate this because of time considerations and also because I feel the passage already makes that point.

Finally, Bud McFarlane suggested a number of stylistic changes. I accepted four of them (things like changing the "boom" of the cannon to the "roar" of the cannon) and rejected one. Bud wants us to change the last sentence of the speech from "borne by their memory" to "sustained by their sacrifice". I prefer "borne . . ." because it is more personal, more lyrical and more positive. Better to be borne that sustained, I always say.

That's it.

KW 5/17/84

PRESERVING PEACE AND PROSPERITY: The President's Trip to Europe, June 1984

THEMES

TO: Writers & Researchers — ☆ The latest boilerplate for Europe ☆

I. Central Perceptions

A. Scene

— The President's trip to Ireland, France and the London Economic Summit should be publicly viewed as a practical expression of the foreign policy principles articulated in the April 6th CSIS speech: Realism, Strength, Economic Growth, Shared Responsibility With Allies, Non-Aggression, and Dialogue With Adversaries.

— Explicitly or implicitly every part of the June itinerary should provide mutual reinforcement for one or more of these principles.

— The importance of the President's June travel will transcend not only the London Summit itself but in a real sense the entire European itinerary: our objective, by the time the trip is completed, will be to place Europe in a larger policy context embracing both the Atlantic and Pacific communities.

B. Primary Perception

— A Strong President and the American Renewal: assertive U.S. leadership is essential to world peace and prosperity.

C. Supporting Perceptions

— The Dynamics of Interdependence: genuine peace is a product of Western strength, constancy, and cohesion.

— Keeping Our Powder (And Our Provender) Dry: viable Western security depends on both economic and defense cooperation.

— Reality Is Catching Up With Reagan's Vision: convergence of the Atlantic and Pacific communities as a positive trend in the late 20th Century.

D. Individual Locations and Matching Themes

1. Ireland

— General Theme: "Return To American Roots"

— Specific Emphases

— Ireland as an island link between two continents

MORE

-- Reaffirmation of cultural and historic ties

-- Partnership of shared values

— Peaceful settlement of conflict (rejection of violence)

-- Importance of East-West dialogue

2. France/Normandy

General Theme: "Reconciliation and the Primacy of Peace"

Specific Emphases

-- The legacy of D-Day: 40 years of peace and prosperity in Europe

-- From sacrifice to security: the significance of the Atlantic Alliance

-- The meaning of American leadership: an enduring commitment to European security

-- From Normandy to the farther shore: America's unflagging efforts to eliminate the world's most destructive weapons

3. Bilaterals in London

-- General Theme: "The sacred trinity of tested ties - tradition, trust, and vitality"

— Specific Emphases

-- Recommitment to the consultative process

-- Necessity of united stand on East-West issues

-- Sincerity of American efforts to deal constructively with the Soviets

— Expanded Japanese role in assuming Western security obligations

MORE

4. London Economic Summit

— General Theme: "The Spirit of Williamsburg Continues"

— Specific Emphases

— Lustre of U.S. economic expansion and its relevance to the world community (American economic performance as a positive stimulus)

— Continued pursuit of non-inflationary growth (sustained recovery creates jobs, increases prosperity)

— Trade liberalization (despite problems, post-Williamsburg actions work to reduce protectionist trends)

— New partnerships and the vitality of the Summit process (Western leaders are pioneering creative approaches to joint cooperative ventures e.g., space research, counter-terrorism)—(tentative depending on evolution of pre-Summit preparations)

— London Summit and the political dimension

— (President Reagan, while maintaining America's deterrent strength, is taking a realistic, positive approach vis-a-vis the USSR and the issue of arms reductions)

— Global political outlook (increasing Asia-Europe-U.S. consultations)

8-10 mins. or w/ 100% line coverage

KUHN

Document No. ______

WHITE HOUSE STAFFING MEMORANDUM

DATE: 5/21/84 ACTION/CONCURRENCE/COMMENT DUE BY: 5:00 p.m. tomorrow 5/22

SUBJECT: ADDRESS: POINTE DU HOC
(5/21 - 3:30 draft)

	ACTION	FYI		ACTION	FYI
VICE PRESIDENT	☐	☐	McFARLANE	☑	☐
MEESE	☐	☑	McMANUS	☐	☐
BAKER	☐	☑	MURPHY	☐	☐
DEAVER	☐	☑	OGLESBY	☑	☐
STOCKMAN	☑	☐	ROGERS	☐	☐
DARMAN	☐P	☑SS	SPEAKES	☐	☐
FELDSTEIN	☐	☐	SVAHN	☑	☐
FIELDING	☑	☐	VERSTANDIG	☐	☐
FULLER	☑	☐	WHITTLESEY	☐	☐
HERRINGTON	☐	☐	ELLIOTT	☐	☑
			TUTWILER	☑	
HICKEY	☐	☐	WIRTHLIN	☑	☐
			HENKEL	☑	

REMARKS:

RESPONSE:

Richard G. Darman
Assistant to the President
Ext. 2702

Received S S

1984 MAY 21 PM 5:32

(Noonan/BE)
May 21, 1984
3:30 p.m.

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS: POINTE DU HOC
WEDNESDAY, JUNE 6, 1984

We are here to mark that day in history when the Allied armies joined in battle to reclaim this continent to liberty. For 4 long years, much of Europe had been under a terrible shadow. Free nations had fallen, Jews cried out in the camps, millions cried out for liberation from the conquerors. Europe was enslaved, and the world waited for its rescue. Here the rescue began. Here the West stood, and fought against tyranny in a giant undertaking unparalleled in human history.

The Allied effort was the result of enormous cooperation, enormous coordination, and enormous courage. The men of this Invasion fought on the land, on the sea, and in the air. And they fought ~~on these cliffs~~.

As we stand here today, the air is soft and full of sunlight, and if we pause and listen we will hear ~~the snap of the flags and the click of cameras and the~~ gentle murmur of people come to visit a place of great sanctity and meaning.

But 40 years ago today -- 40 years ago as I speak -- the air was dense with smoke and the cries of men, the air was filled with the crack of rifle fire and the boom of cannons. Before dawn on the morning of the 6th of June, 1944, 200 American Rangers jumped off the British landing craft, stormed onto the beach, and ran to the bottom of these cliffs. Their mission that day was one of the most difficult and daring of the Invasion: to climb these sheer and desolate cliffs and take out the enemy guns. For here were concentrated the mightiest of those guns,

which would be trained on the beaches to stop the Allied advance. Removing the guns was pivotal to the Normandy Invasion, which itself was pivotal to the reclaiming of Europe, the end of the war, and the end of the long night of totalitarian conquest.

The Rangers looked up and saw the big guns -- and they saw the enemy soldiers at the edge of the cliffs shooting down at them and throwing grenades and filling the air with machine gun fire. And the American Rangers began to climb. They shot their rope ladders into the face of these cliffs and they pulled themselves up. And when one Ranger would fall another would take his place, and when one rope was cut and a Ranger would hurtle to the bottom, he would find another rope and begin his climb again. They climbed and shot back and held their footing; and in time the enemy guns were quieted, in time the Rangers held the cliffs, in time the enemy pulled back and one by one the Rangers pulled themselves over the top -- and in seizing the firm land at the top of these cliffs they seized back the continent of Europe.

Forty years ago as I speak they were fighting to hold these cliffs. They had radioed back and asked for reinforcements and they were told: There aren't any. But they did not give up. It was not in them to give up. They would not be turned back; they held the cliffs.

Words are hollow next to such deeds, and the valor of these men is impossible to describe. But we know that 200 came here, and by the end of two days of fighting only 90 could still bear arms.

We have here today some of the survivors of the battle of Point du Hoc, some of the Rangers who took these cliffs. I think

not true
bit exaggerated -- was probably dead when hit
possibly dead
enemy was wiped out
try to get exact # — presently 62
selflessness
courage
bravery
symbol of entire US commitment to freedom

Looking into faces of true heros (cut aways) TP will be face to face w/ true heros!

I know what they are thinking as they hear themselves praised. They are thinking: "Oh, I was just part of what happened, just a part of a bigger thing . . . and everyone was brave that day."

Everyone was. The heroism of the men of D-Day was boundless, but there was another quality to it, not only of size but of spirit. There was a style that reflected the special honor of each country.

Do you remember Bill Millin of Scotland? The day of the Invasion, British troops were pinned down near a bridge outside Caen. They were trying to hold their position under enemy fire, and they were crouched against the cold gray ground waiting desperately for reinforcements. Suddenly, they heard the sound of bagpipes wafting through the air, amorphous as a dream. Some of them thought it was. But the sound of those bagpipes came closer and louder, and they looked up to see Bill Millin of the 51st Scottish Highlanders marching at the head of the reinforcements, ignoring the smack of the bullets into the sand around him. Lord Lovat was with him -- Lord Lovat of England, marching along with his commandos, and equally unconcerned at the enemy fire. When he got to the bridge Lord Lovat calmly announced, "Sorry I'm a few minutes late." As if he'd been delayed by bad weather or a traffic jam. When in truth he'd been delayed by the bloody fighting on Sword Beach, which he and his men had just taken.

There was the young Frenchman, Michel de Vallavielle, who had been confined by the Germans in his home near Utah Beach. When the Invasion began he defied the enemy patrols, broke the curfew, and ran from his house to the beach to tell the Allied

troops where the German guns were hidden. He did not know it was D-Day -- he had no reason to think the invaders would be successful -- but like so many Frenchmen he had to help, and he did; and later that day he was shot when a paratrooper mistook him for one of the enemy, and it took him a year in Allied hospitals to recover.

There was the doggedness of Lieutenant Colonel Benjamin Vandervoort of the All America Screaming Eagles, who broke his leg when he parachuted on to French soil. So he commandeered a small farm cart and ordered his men to wheel him on to the battlefield. There was the grace of General Theodore Roosevelt Jr., who walked with his men on Omaha Beach, and took the same risks as they. His calmness under fire rallied the troops. He died and was buried during the push for Paris. To this day, his men say he epitomized the phrase "an officer and a gentleman."

There was the impossible valor of the Poles, who threw themselves between the enemy and the rest of Europe as the Invasion took hold. And the unsurpassed courage of the Canadians, the only troops who knew exactly what they would face when they hit the beaches. The year before, their countrymen had been slaughtered at Dieppe. They knew what awaited them here, but they would not be deterred, and they hit Juno Beach and held it and would not let go.

There was the honor of the German soldiers. By the summer of 1944, some of them had lost faith in their rulers; but they kept faith with their people and they kept the faith of the corps. Many fought as great men fight, and, in the military

tradition that honors gallantry for itself alone, some of them were buried with the Allied dead.

All of these men were part of a rollcall of honor, with names that speak of a pride as bright as the colors they wore: the Royal Winnipeg Rifles, the Manitoba Grenadiers, Poland's 24th Lancers, the Royal Scots Fusiliers, the Yeomen of England's armoured divisions, the forces of Free France, the Regiment de Chars de Combat, the 101st Airborne. These names are written forever on this sand and on this wind, for truly these are men who "in their lives fought for life . . . and left the vivid air signed with their honor."

What inspired the men of the armies that met here? What impelled them to put all thought of self-preservation behind, and put themselves in harm's way not for their own sake but for others? What was it that made them overcome fear and become champions of liberty?

It was faith and belief; it was loyalty and love. It was faith that what they were doing was right, faith that they fought for all humanity, faith that a just God would grant them mercy on this beachhead -- or the next. It was the deep knowledge (and pray God we have not lost it) that there is a profound, moral difference between the use of force for liberation and the use of force for conquest. They were here to liberate, not to conquer, and so they did not doubt their cause. And they were right not to doubt.

They knew that some things are worth dying for -- that one's country is worth dying for and that democracy is worth dying for, because it is the most deeply honorable form of Government ever

devised by man. They loved liberty and they were happy to fight against tyranny. And they knew the people of their countries were behind them and supporting them.

The British soldiers knew this when they pushed off from England on the night of June 5th. The Invasion was still a secret and there were to be no big goodbyes for the townspeople who saw them off. But as the soldiers departed they could see the people crying as they said farewell. The American soldiers knew in their hearts, though they could not know in fact, that when word of the Invasion spread throughout America, people filled the churches at 4 a.m., and families dressed in their nightclothes knelt and prayed on their porches; and in Philadelphia they did what they do to mark the most momentous occasions of our national life: They rang the Liberty Bell. Bells rang out all across America that night.

And there was another element that helped the men of D-Day. It was the rockhard belief that Providence would have a great hand in the events that would unfold here; that God was an ally in this great cause. And, so, the night before the Invasion, when Colonel Wolverton asked his parachute troops to kneel with him in prayer he told them: Do not bow your heads but look up so you can see God and ask His blessing in what we are about to do. And in another part of England General Mathew Ridgeway that same night lay on his cot and talked to his God and listened for the words spoken to Joshua: "I will not fail thee nor forsake thee."

These are the things that impelled them; these are the things that informed the unity of the West. And with that unity the West could not be stopped.

Within ~~a few~~ weeks of the Invasion the forces of Free France swept into Paris, and the people of that great city filled the streets with roar after roar of "Vive la France, Vive la division LeClerc." Paris was free again; soon France would be free again, and Europe would be free.

When the war was over the nations that emerged from the ashes were faced with the challenge of making a new beginning. There were lives to be rebuilt and communities to be reconstructed. There were governments to be returned to the people and nations to be reborn. Above all, there was a new peace to be assured. These were huge and daunting tasks. But the Allies who fought in the Normandy Invasion drew new strength from the faith and belief and loyalty and love of those who fell here. And they rebuilt a new Europe together.

Their first accomplishment was a great reconciliation, not only of those who fought on opposite sides in the war . . . but of those nations which had been torn for centuries by rivalries of territory and religion and power. Finally, with the end of World War II, the rivalries which had bedeviled Western Europe for centuries were interred.

After that great and historic accomplishment, the Allies together rebuilt the rubble of Europe. This effort required the same cooperation, coordination, and courage that the Normandy Invasion required. Inspired by the virtues of the men who fought the war, the United States created the Marshall Plan -- ~~by which we helped rebuild~~ our allies and our former enemies. The ~~Marshall Plan led to~~ the Atlantic Alliance -- a great alliance that functions as a shield for democracy and for prosperity, a

great alliance that acknowledges that Europe's destiny is America's destiny.

In spite of our great efforts and our great successes, not all of what followed the end of the war was happy, or planned. The destruction of the war left Europe weakened in the face of Soviet communism. Some of the countries that had been liberated were lost. The great sadness of that fact echoes down to our own time and can be seen in the streets of Poland and Czechoslovakia and Hungary. We saw threatening Soviet action in Berlin -- and we realized that the Soviet troops that occupied the center of this continent would not leave after the end of the war that called them here. They are there to this day, uninvited, unwanted, but still unyielding almost 40 years after the war ended.

Because of this, Allied forces still stand on this continent. But our armies are here only to protect and defend democracy -- and never to take land that is not ours. The only land we hold is the graveyards like these where our heroes rest.

We in America have learned the bitter lessons of two world wars: that it is better to be here and ready to preserve and protect the peace, than to take blind shelter in our homes across the sea, rushing only to respond after freedom is threatened. We have learned, in spite of our long and enduring desire for peace, that isolationism never was and never can be an acceptable response to tyrannical governments with expansionist intent. We have learned that isolationism does not avert war. It assures it.

We live in difficult times. It would be a wonderful thing if today, 40 years after the Normandy Invasion, we could say that tyranny was forever defeated on these shores. But history did not grant us the right to make that claim. There are those who say that the West is the great destabilizing force in the world today, that America is the reason we have not achieved peace, that America is the warmonger and America is the problem.

I tell you truly that this is not so. It never was and it never will be. All that we do to build our defenses and to negotiate the control of arms is part of our effort to be prepared for peace.

In truth there is no reconciliation we would welcome more than a reconciliation with the Soviet Union, so that together we can lessen the chance of conflict, now and forever.

I tell you from my heart that we in the United States do not want war. We want to wipe from the face of the Earth the terrible weapons man now has in his hands. I tell you we are ready to seize that beachhead -- but there must be some sign from the Soviet Union that they are willing to move forward, that they share our desire and love for peace, that they will give up the ways of conquest. There must be a changing there that will allow us to turn our hope into action.

We will pray on forever that some day that changing will come. But for now -- and particularly today -- it is good and fitting for us to renew our commitment to each other, to our freedom, and to the alliance that protects it.

We are bound still by what bound us 40 years ago, bound by the same loyalties and traditions and beliefs. We are bound by

reality: The strength and freedom of America's allies is still vital to the future of the United States. And the American security guarantee remains indispensable to the continued freedom and independence of Europe's democracies. We know, as we did 40 years ago, that our future is your future, and our hopes are your hopes.

restored

Together, on this day 40 years after the Allies (seized back) a continent to liberty, let us make a vow to our dead. Let us show them by our actions that we understand what they died for and we honor those ideals no less than they. Let us say to them through our actions the words for which Mathew Ridgeway listened: "I will not fail thee nor forsake thee."

Strengthened by their courage, heartened by their valor and borne by their memory, let us continue together to represent the ideals for which they lived and died.

Thank you all very much.

to the men who fought here and the men who died here

Jay Sollis

Gen. Grange - Project office for Normandy
the offer to help

- Historical inaccuracies
- Length - too long
- Too little about what the [illegible]es actually did
- Tie Rangers of WWII to modern Ranger

Point Salinas in Grenada

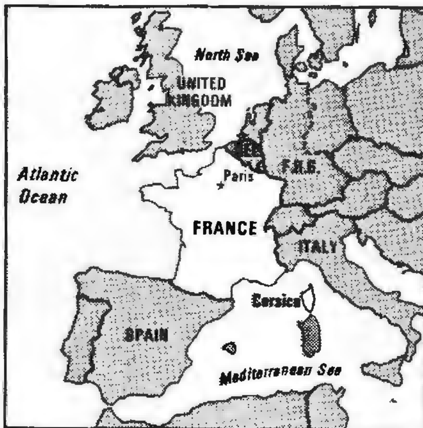
- Too much on Allies - not enough

background notes

France

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

January 1982



Official Name: French Republic

PROFILE

People

Population (1981 est.): 53.8 million. **Annual growth rate (1981 est.):** 0.5%. **Ethnic groups:** Celtic and Latin with Teutonic, Slavic, North African, Indochinese, and Basque minorities. **Religion:** Roman Catholic 90%. **Language:** French. **Education:** *Years compulsory*—10. *Literacy*—99%. **Health:** *Infant mortality rate*—10/1,000. **Work force** (23.2 million, 1980 est.): *Agriculture*—9%. *Industry and commerce*—35%. Services—48%. *Unemployment*—8.1%.

Geography

Area: 551,695 sq. km. (212,973 sq. mi.); about four-fifths the size of Tex. **Cities:** *Capital*—Paris. *Other cities*—Marseille, Lyon, Lille, Toulouse, Strasbourg. **Terrain:** Varied. **Climate:** Temperate; like eastern US.

Government

Type: Republic. **Constitution:** September 28, 1958.

Branches: *Executive*—president (chief of state); prime minister (head of government). *Legislative*—bicameral Parliament (491-member National Assembly, 292-member Senate). *Judicial*—Court of Cassation, Council of State (administrative court), Constitutional Council.

Subdivisions: 95 departments (metropolitan France), and 9 overseas departments and territories.

Political parties: Socialist Party (PS), Rally for the Republic (RPR—Gaullists), Union for a Democratic France (UDF—Giscardians), Communist Party, various minor parties. *Suffrage:* Universal over 18.

Defense: 27% of central government budget (1980 est.).

Flag: Three vertical stripes of blue, white, and red.

Economy

GNP (1980): $585 billion. **Avg. annual growth rate (1980):** 1.3%. **Per capita income (1980):** $8,980. **Avg. inflation rate (1980):** 13.5%.

Natural resources: Coal, iron ore, bauxite, fish, forests.

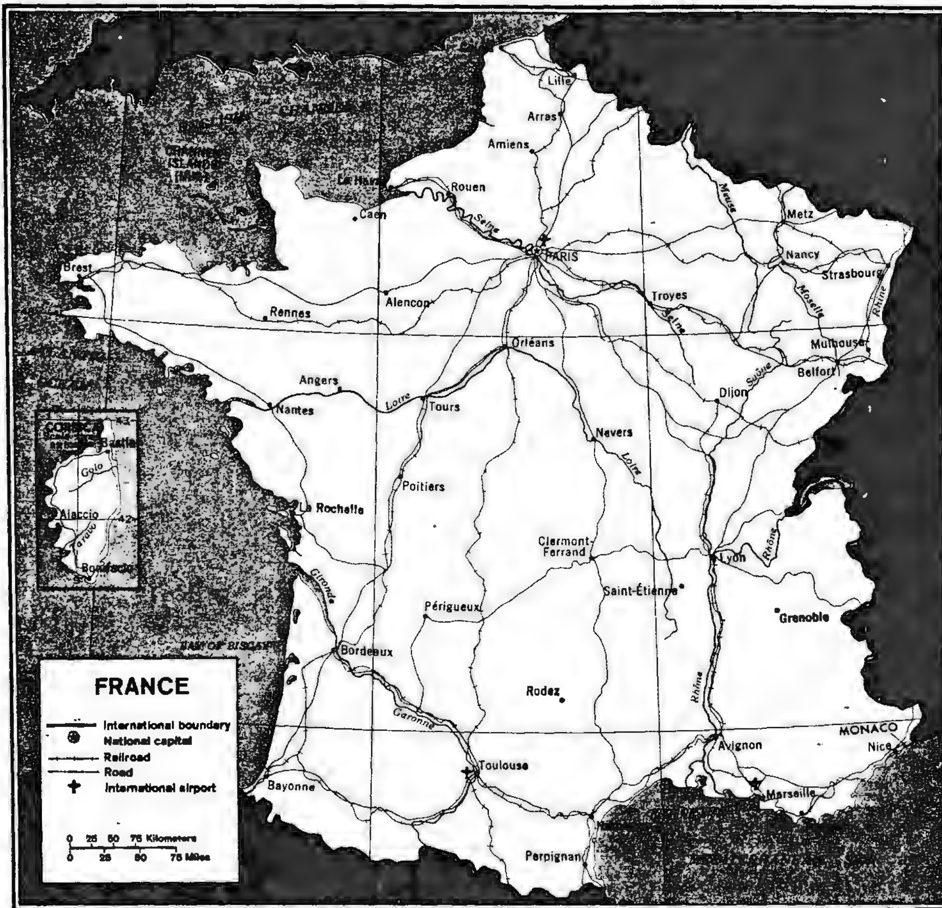
Agricultural products: Beef, dairy products, cereals, sugar beets, potatoes, wine grapes.

Industries: Steel, machinery and equipment, textiles and clothing, chemicals, food processing, aircraft, electronics.

Trade (1980): *Exports*—$111 billion: machinery, transportation equipment, foodstuffs, iron and steel, textiles, agricultural products including wine. *Imports*—$135 billion: crude petroleum, machinery and equipment, chemicals, iron and steel, agricultural products, textiles. *Partners*—FRG, Belgium, Luxembourg, Italy, US, UK, Netherlands, Japan.

Official exchange rate (Jan.-Aug. 1981): 5.33 francs=US$1.

Membership in international organizations: UN and most of its specialized agencies, NATO, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Western European Union, European Community (EC), INTELSAT.



PEOPLE

Since prehistoric times, France has been a crossroads of trade, travel, and invasion. The French people are made up of large elements of three basic European stocks—Celtic, Latin, and Teutonic. Over the centuries, however, these groups have blended, so that today, they may be referred to only in the broadest sense.

France's birth rate was among the highest in Europe from 1945 until the late 1960s, when it began to fall. By 1976 the rate was 13 births per 1,000 people, the lowest since 1945. In 1981 the birth rate was expected to rise to 14.9 per 1,000.

Traditionally, France has had a high level of immigration, and about 3 million people entered the country between the two World Wars. After the establishment of an independent Algerian state in 1962, about 1 million French citizens returned to France. In 1981, France's population of immigrant workers and their families was estimated at 4 million, primarily of North African, Portuguese, Spanish, and Italian extraction with smaller groups coming from Turkey, Yugoslavia, Poland, Senegal, and Mali.

About 90% of the people are baptized Roman Catholic, fewer than 2% are Protestant, and fewer than 1% are Jewish. Immigration in the 1960s and early 1970s from North Africa, especially Algeria, accounts for the more than 1 million Muslims.

French education is free and mandatory between ages 6 and 16. The public education system is highly centralized and has a budget amounting to about 4.4% of the gross domestic product (GDP). In 1982 an estimated 16% of the national budget will be spent on education. Private education is primarily Roman Catholic. Higher education in France, which began with the founding of the University of Paris in 1150, enrolls more than 1 million students in 23 universities and special schools.

The French language is descended from the vernacular Latin spoken by the Romans in Gaul. Although French includes many Celtic and Germanic words, its structure and most of its words derive from Latin. Since the early Middle Ages, French has been an international language. Spoken around the world today, French is a common second language and, like English, is an official language at the United Nations. In Africa, Asia, the Pacific, and the West Indies, the French language has been a unifying factor, particularly in those countries where it serves as the only common language among a variety of indigenous languages and dialects.

Since the time of the Roman Empire, France's achievements in literature and the arts and sciences have influenced Western culture. In architecture, the Romanesque basilicas, soaring Gothic cathedrals, the formal gardens of Versailles, the imperial design of Parisian boulevards and squares, and the modern designs of masters like Le Corbusier attest to France's influence.

French painting has spanned the centuries in greatness. Some famous names include: Watteau (1684–1721), who depicted the polished, elegant society of his time; David (1748–1825), the neoclassical artist of the Revolution and Empire; Delacroix (1798–1863) the romantic; the naturalists and realists Corot (1796–1875), Millet (1814–75), and Courbet (1819–77), who painted realistic landscapes and scenes from rural life; and the impressionists, including Monet (1840–1926) and Renoir (1841–1919), who explored light on canvas, and Cezanne (1839–1906), whose ideas about the treatment of space and dimension are at the base of 20th century modern art. Other famous artists, such as Van Gogh and Picasso, were drawn to France from other countries.

In music, Berlioz (1803–69) in the Romantic period was followed by Debussy (1862–1918) and Faure (1845–1924), who were inspired by the Impressionist movement in painting. In the 19th century, Bizet (1838–75) wrote the opera *Carmen* and Gounod (1818–93) wrote *Faust* and *Romeo and Juliette.* Chopin (1810–49), though born in Poland, spent his adult life in Paris.

France has played a leading role in scientific advance. Descartes (1596–1650) contributed to mathematics and to the modern scientific method; Lavoisier (1743–94) laid the foundations of modern chemistry and physics; Becquerel (1854–1912) and the Curies jointly discovered radium and the principle of radioactivity; and Pasteur (1822–95) developed theories of germs and vaccinations. Several important French inventors were Daguerre (1789–1851), a theatrical scenery painter who invented the daguerrotype, an early photographic process; Braille (1809–52), a blind teacher of the blind, after whom is named the system of raised lettering enabling the blind to read; and Bertillon (1853–1914), an anthropologist and criminologist who organized the fingerprint system of identification. In the

20th century, French scientists have won a number of Nobel Prizes.

French literature is renowned from the medieval romances of Marie de France and Chretien de Troyes and the poetry in Old French of Francois Villon to the 20th century novelists Colette, Proust, Sartre, and Camus. Over the intervening centuries were the Renaissance writers Rabelais (fiction), Ronsard (poetry), and Montaigne (essays); the 17th century classical dramatists Corneille, Racine, and Moliere; the 18th century rationalist philosophers Voltaire and Jean-Jacques Rousseau; the romantics Germain de Stael, Victor Hugo, Alexandre Dumas (father and son), and Alphonse de Lamartine; 19th century novelists Stendhal, George Sand, and Balzac; realist Flaubert; naturalist Zola; and 19th century poets Baudelaire, Verlaine, Rimbaud, and Valery.

French filmmakers from Jean Renoir to Francois Truffaut have won acclaim over the past decades.

GEOGRAPHY

France, the largest West European nation, is two-thirds flat plains or gently rolling hills, and the rest is mountainous. A broad plain covers most of northern and western France from the Belgian border in the northeast to Bayonne in the southwest and rises to uplands in Normandy, Britanny, and the east. This large plain is bounded on the south by the steeply rising ridges of the Pyrenees; on the southeast by the mountainous plateau of the Massif Central; and on the east by the rugged Alps, the low ridges of the Jura, and the rounded summits of the densely forested Vosges. The principal rivers are the Rhone in the south, the Loire and the Garonne in the west, and the Seine in the north. The Rhine River forms part of France's eastern border with the Federal Republic of Germany.

France generally has cool winters and mild summers in the west and north. Southern France has a Mediterranean climate, with hot summers and mild winters.

HISTORY

France was one of the earliest countries to progress from feudalism into the era of the nation-state. Its monarchs surrounded themselves with capable ministers, and French armies were among the most disciplined and professional of their day. During the reign of Louis XIV (1643–1715), France was the preeminent power in Europe. But Louis' and his successors' overly ambitious projects and military campaigns led to chronic financial problems for the government in the 18th century. Deteriorating economic conditions and popular resentment against the complicated system of privileges granted the nobility and other favored groups were principal causes of the French Revolution (1789–94).

Although the revolution established republican and egalitarian principles of government, France reverted to forms of absolute rule or constitutional monarchy four times—the Empire of Napoleon, the Restoration of Louis XVIII, the reign of Louis-Philippe, and the Second Empire of Napoleon III. After the Franco-Prussian War (1870), the Third Republic was established and lasted until the military defeat of 1940.

World War I brought great losses of troops and materiel. In the 1920s, France began to rebuild its army (then the largest in Europe) and to establish an elaborate system of border defenses (the Maginot Line) and alliances to offset resurgent German strength. France

Lyon, at the confluence of the Rhone and Saone Rivers, was once the capital of Roman Gaul and later was a center of the silk trade. Today, Lyon is France's third largest city and is a world-famous medical center.

Courtesy Henry Rutter.

was defeated, however, and occupied in 1940. After 5 years of strife and occupation, France emerged exhausted from World War II and faced a series of new problems.

After the fall of the provisional government, initially led by General Charles de Gaulle, the Fourth Republic was established under a new constitution with a parliamentary form of government controlled by a series of coalitions. The heterogeneous nature of the coalitions and the lack of agreement on measures for dealing with Algeria caused successive Cabinet crises and changes of government. The government structure finally collapsed over the Algerian question on May 13, 1958. A threatened coup led Parliament to call on Gen. de Gaulle to head the government and prevent civil war. He became prime minister in June (at the beginning of the Fifth Republic) and was elected president in December.

On December 5, 1965, for the first time in this century, the French people went to the polls to elect a president by direct ballot. Gen. de Gaulle defeated Francois Mitterrand with 55% of the vote.

Student dissatisfaction and unrest triggered major disturbances and nationwide strikes in May 1968. Students took over university buildings and battled police in Paris and other large cities, and workers occupied factories throughout the country. The economy was grinding to a halt, and France seemed on the brink of chaos. President de Gaulle dissolved the National Assembly, called for national elections, and announced his intention to pursue a policy of sweeping reform, based on the principle of "participation." The voters, fearing disorder and a possible Communist takeover, voted an overwhelming Gaullist majority into the National Assembly.

In April 1969, President de Gaulle's government conducted a national referendum on the creation of 21 regions with limited political powers. On April 27, the government's proposals were defeated (48% in favor, 52% opposed), and President de Gaulle resigned.

In 1969, a number of candidates presented themselves in the election for a new president. Georges Pompidou, a prime minister under de Gaulle, was supported not only by the Gaullists but also by their Independent Republican allies and some Centrists, and was elected with a 58% majority of the votes.

In 1971, Francois Mitterrand assembled various Socialist groups into a new unified party of France. The Socialists, led by Mitterrand, the Communist Party of France (PCF), headed by Georges Marchais, and a faction of the Radical Party reached agreement on a joint program on which to base their campaign for the March 1973 legislative elections. The union of the left more than doubled its assembly representation, and Mitterrand emerged from the campaign as the left's chief spokesman.

President Pompidou died in office on April 2, 1974, and the race to succeed him split the ruling Gaullist coalition. The UDR (Gaullist) Party selected former Prime Minister Chaban-Delmas as its candidate, but he was defeated in the first round of voting. Valery Giscard d'Estaing, finance minister in the Pompidou government and head of the Gaullist-aligned Independent Republicans, narrowly defeated Francois Mitterrand, who ran as the only candidate of the left. Giscard d'Estaing became the first non-Gaullist president of the Fifth Republic. He appointed Gaullist Jacques Chirac as prime minister to head a government of Gaullists, Independent Republicans, Centrists, and nonparty technicians.

Policy differences between President Giscard d'Estaing and Chirac led to the latter's resignation in August 1976, although the Gaullist Party continued to support Chirac's successor, prominent international economist Raymond Barre. Barre's appointment marked the first time under the Fifth Republic that neither the chief of state nor the head of government was a member of the Gaullist Party.

A Communist-Socialist coalition intended to confront the parties of the governing majority in the legislative elections of March 1978. The Communists, a minority within this union of the left, broke with the Socialists by demanding the right to receive key ministries should the left win and by calling for extensive nationalization of industries. The breakup of the common front contributed to the left's defeat in the March 1978 elections, with the coalition of the Giscard d'Estaing party group winning 50.49% of the popular vote and electing 291 deputies to the National Assembly compared to the left's 200.

In November 1980, Francois Mitterrand, after fending off a challenge to his leadership, captured the nomination as the Socialist Party's presidential candidate. A bruising campaign, focusing on the theme of rising unemployment, pitted four principal candidates against each other: Giscard d'Estaing, Jacques Chirac, Francois Mitterrand, and Communist Party Chief Georges Marchais. Giscard and Mitterrand emerged as the finalists after a primary round on April 26, 1981, which also saw the Communist Party's electoral strength reduced to 15% from the PCF's traditional 20% of the vote. On May 18, 1981, Francois Mitterrand defeated Giscard d'Estaing and was elected president with 51.75% of the vote.

On assuming office on May 21, 1981, President Mitterrand named long-time Socialist Party leader Pierre Mauroy as his prime minister and dissolved the National Assembly. New legislative elections were held in June 1981 and Socialist Party candidates captured 265 of the 491 parliamentary seats, giving the Socialists absolute majority control of the National Assembly. Communists kept 44 of the 86 seats they had held before the June elections. Four Communist ministers were appointed to the government.

GOVERNMENT

The constitution of the Fifth Republic was approved by public referendum on September 28, 1958. It greatly strengthened the authority of the executive in relation to Parliament. Under the constitution, the president is elected directly for a 7-year term. Presidential arbitration assures the regular functioning of the public powers and the continuity of the state. The president names the prime minister, presides over the Cabinet, commands the armed forces, and concludes treaties. The president may submit questions to a national referendum and can dissolve the National Assembly. In certain emergency situations, the president may assume full powers. The president is thus the dominant element in the constitutional system.

Parliament meets in regular session twice annually for a maximum of 3 months on each occasion. Although parliamentary powers are diminished from those existing under the Fourth Republic, the National Assembly can still dissolve the government at any time if an absolute majority of the total assembly membership votes a censure motion.

The National Assembly is the principal legislative body. Its deputies are directly elected to 5-year terms, and all seats are voted on in each election. Senators are chosen by an electoral college for 9-year terms, and one-third of the Senate is renewed every 3 years.

The Senate's legislative powers are limited, as the National Assembly has the last word in the event of a disagreement between the two houses. The government has a strong influence in shaping the agenda of Parliament. The government can also link its life to any legislative text, and unless a motion of censure is introduced and voted, the text is considered adopted without a vote.

The most distinctive feature of the French judicial system is that it is divided into two categories: a regular court system and a court system which deals specifically with legal problems of the French administration and its relation to the French citizen. The Court of Cassation is the supreme court of appeals in the regular court system; at the top of the administrative courts is the powerful Council of State.

Traditionally, decisionmaking in France has been highly centralized, with each of France's departments headed by a prefect appointed by the central government. In 1981 the national government introduced legislation to decentralize authority by giving certain administrative and fiscal powers to local officials; however, these laws may not be implemented before 1983.

Principal Government Officials

President—Francois Mitterrand
Prime Minister—Pierre Mauroy
President of the National Assembly—Louis Mermaz
President of the Senate—Alain Poher

Ministers

External Relations—Claude Cheysson
Economy and Finance—Jacques Delors
Defense—Charles Hernu
Interior and Decentralization—Gaston Defferre
Justice—Robert Badinter
National Solidarity—Nicole Questiaux
Foreign Trade—Michel Jobert
State Planning and Coordination—Michel Rocard
Research and Technology—Jean-Pierre Chevenement
Women's Rights—Yvette Roudy
Parliamentary Relations—Andre Labarrere
Overseas Cooperation—Jean-Pierre Cot
Budget—Laurent Fabius
Education—Alain Savary
Agriculture—Edith Cresson
Industry—Pierre Dreyfus
Commerce and Crafts—Andre Delelis
Labor—Jean Auroux
Transport—Charles Fiterman
Health—Jack Ralite
Culture—Jack Lang
Communication (Information)—Georges Fillioud
Leisure—Andre Henry
Youth and Sports—Edwige Avice
Housing—Roger Quilliot
Environment—Michel Crepeau
Consumer Affairs—Catherine Lalumiere
Sea (Maritime Affairs)—Louis Le Pensec
Posts—Louis Mexandeau
Veterans' Affairs—Jean Laurain
Vocational Training—Marcel Rigout
Civil Service and Administrative Reform—Anicet Le Pors
European Affairs—Andre Chandernagor

Ambassador to the United States and OAS—Bernard Vernier-Palliez
Ambassador to the United Nations—Luc de la Barre de Nanteuil

France maintains an embassy in the United States at 2435 Belmont Road NW., Washington, D.C. 20008 (tel. 202-328-2660). Consulates general are in Boston, Chicago, Detroit, Houston, Los Angeles, New Orleans, New York, San Francisco, and Miramir, Puerto Rico.

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

Four political groups dominate the political scene. In the National Assembly the Socialist Party, led by Lionel Jospin who succeeded Mitterrand as first secretary, holds 285 seats (265 held by Socialists, 20 held by various allies). The Chirac-led Gaullists, also known as the Rally for the Republic (RPR), have 91 assembly seats; the UDF federation of parties that supported President Giscard d'Estaing have 63 seats; and the Communist Party holds 44. The remaining seats are unoccupied or held by independents or unaffiliated splinter groups. The Cabinet, headed by Prime Minister Mauroy, is composed of 44 ministers and state secretaries, of whom 38 are Socialists, 4 (transportation, health, vocational training, and civil service and administrative reform) are Communists, 1 (environment) is a left radical, and 1 (commerce) is independent.

Courtesy Randall Anderson.

The *Petite France* section of Strasbourg.

ECONOMY

France is one of the world's major industrial and agricultural countries. It has substantial agricultural resources, a diversified modern industrial system, and a highly skilled labor force.

Between 1959 and 1973, the French economy grew in real terms at an average annual rate of 5.5%. In late 1974, largely as a result of the energy crisis, the economy experienced a steep downturn, accompanied by accelerated inflation, rising unemployment, and large balance-of-payments deficits. Real growth averaged 3.9% annually from 1970 to 1977, 3% during 1977–79, and 1.3% in 1980.

Rising unemployment was a predominant issue in the spring 1981 presidential campaign. Since entering office, President Mitterrand and Prime Minister Mauroy have stated repeatedly that their primary objective is to reduce the number of unemployed (which may have reached 2 million by the end of 1981), even at the risk of increasing France's inflation rate which, at an estimated 14% average in 1981, is high compared to that of some important trading partners. The government is introducing legislation to nationalize 12 key industries, plus various banking institutions which, when added to those already nationalized, will give the state control of 95% of the country's bank deposits. Other measures being proposed call for a sharp rise in government spending, investment incentives, public sector job creation, revision of the tax system to require upper income groups to pay more, increased research and technological development, and increased income transfers as a spur to increased consumption and reduced income inequalities. The government also plans to continue France's development of nuclear power plants, but on a scale somewhat reduced from that planned by the previous administration. On September 15, 1981, the government announced a budget for 1982 based on a projected 3.3% real growth rate—in contrast to an estimated 0.5% rate in 1981. A budget deficit of $17 billion, the largest in France's history, is also projected.

Industry

France's highly developed and diversified industrial enterprises generate almost one-half of the GDP and employ 35% of the work force. The government is a significant factor in the industrial sector both in its planning and regulatory activities and in its ownership and operation of such important facilities as railroads and communications, banks, and key enterprises in the coal, electric power, gas, automobile, aerospace, and capital goods industries. The most important areas of industrial production include ferroalloy and steel products, aluminum, chemicals, and mechanical and electrical goods. France has virtually no domestic oil production and continues to develop one of the world's largest nuclear power programs, which produces one-third of the country's electrical energy.

The level of unionization in France is lower than in the Federal Republic of Germany or the United Kingdom. Only about 20% of the labor force are trade union members. The largest trade union, the CGT, is Communist led.

Trade

France is the second largest trading nation in Western Europe (after the Federal Republic of Germany). Trade with the enlarged EC accounts for over one-half of the total. In recent years, France has sought, with some success, to expand trade with the Middle East, Eastern Europe, and the Soviet Union. It also has active economic relations with the nations of francophone Africa and North Africa.

U.S. sales to France have risen substantially in recent years, principally in machinery and electrical equipment, soybeans, chemicals, aircraft, and aerospace components. Principal French exports to the United States are iron and steel, machinery and electrical equipment, beverages, and chemicals. Cumulative U.S. direct investment in France was $8 billion at the end of 1979.

Agriculture

A favorable climate, large tracts of fertile land, and the application of modern technology have combined to make France the leading agricultural producer in Western Europe. The European Community's (EC) common agricultural policy also has created a large, easily accessible market for French products. France is one of the world's leading producers of dairy products and wheat and is basically self-sufficient in agricultural products, except for feed compounds and tropical produce. Although more land is devoted to pasture and grain, much of France's arable land is planted in wine grapes in strictly controlled, small regions.

Balance of Payments

After recording a current account surplus in 1978 and 1979, France's external account moved into a $7.8 billion deficit in 1980, generally due to the impact of much higher imported energy costs linked to the 1978 oil price increase. In the first half of 1981, the effect of delayed recession in France on import demand helped narrow the deficit 10% below that of the first half of 1980. Since the election of President Mitterrand, the franc has been under strong pressure, in spite of tightened exchange controls. On October 5, 1981, there was a 3% devaluation of the franc and a simultaneous 5.5% reevaluation of the German mark against their respective European Monetary System central rates.

FOREIGN RELATIONS

A charter member of the United Nations, France holds one of the permanent seats in the Security Council and is a member of most of its specialized agencies, including the U.N. Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the International Labor Organization (ILO), and the World Health Organization (WHO).

READING LIST

These titles are provided as a general indication of material published on this country. The Department of State does not endorse unofficial publications.

Major English-language newspaper: *International Herald Tribune,* published in Paris.

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Hayward, Jack. *The One and Indivisible French Republic.* New York: Norton Co., 1973.

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Sulieman, Ezra. *Elites in French Society, the Politics of Survival.* Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1978.

France is a leader in Western Europe because of its size, location, strong economy, membership in European organizations, and energetic diplomacy. Progress toward European political union has a high priority. France has made several proposals to strengthen the institutions of the European Community (EC) but does not envision any significant transfers of its sovereignty to the Community in the near future. France also attaches great importance to Franco-German cooperation as the foundation of efforts to enhance European union. Both President Mitterrand and External Relations Minister Cheysson (a former EC commissioner) strongly support the Community.

Middle East

France supports the Israeli-Egyptian peace treaty and Israel's right to exist within secure boundaries. It also believes in the necessity for a comprehensive Middle East peace settlement which would include Israel's withdrawal from all occupied territories and the establishment of a Palestinian homeland. France continues its active role in efforts to bring stability to the Middle East, including a major contribution to the U.N. peacekeeping force in Lebanon and participation in the Sinai Multinational Force. French policy in the Middle East takes account of the republic's interest in assuring supplies of Arab oil and access to markets.

Africa

In Africa, France plays a significant role, especially in its former colonies, through extensive aid programs, commercial activities, military agreements, and cultural leadership. Key advisory positions are staffed by French nationals in many African countries. In those former colonies where French presence remains important, France contributes to political, military, and social stability.

Asia

France has extensive commercial relations with Asian countries including Japan, South Korea, Indonesia, and China. Japanese competition in automobiles, electronics, and machine tools is a major economic problem. France is making a large contribution to resettling Indochinese refugees and is seeking to broaden its influence with Vietnam and Laos.

Alexandre Gustave Eiffel designed the 295-meter-high iron tower for the Paris exposition of 1889.

DEFENSE

France adheres to the North Atlantic Treaty and is a member of the North Atlantic Council. However, in 1966 it withdrew from the military structure of NATO, and its forces do not fall under NATO's integrated command. Consequently, it neither supplies forces to the NATO commands nor participates in many activities of the alliance.

France has reorganized its army to a force of 15 divisions. Its navy of 228 oceangoing ships with 241 combat aircraft is the largest in Western Europe. The French air force has about 1,125 aircraft in operational units.

France possesses an independent nuclear strike force composed of Mirage IV strategic bombers and ballistic missiles with nuclear warheads deployed in submarines and land silos. The French inventory also includes tactical nuclear weapons.

In 1978, France proposed the convening of a Conference on Disarmament in Europe and the creation of an International Satellite Verification Agency. France participates in the Committee on Disarmament in Geneva. Although

Courtesy French National Railroads

The French National Railroads' new train, known as the TGV—*très grande vitesse* or "very high speed"— can average a speed of more than 160 km./hr. (100 mph), virtually cutting travel time in half.

France is not a signatory of the Limited Test Ban Treaty, all French nuclear testing is conducted underground at a Pacific test site. France has not adhered to the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty but conducts itself in accordance with the terms of the treaty. The French Government endorsed the SALT II treaty. The French strongly support arms control negotiations but object to inclusion of any French forces in these negotiations.

U.S.-FRENCH RELATIONS

In recent years, relations between the United States and France have been particularly active and cordial. Following Francois Mitterrand's presidential victory, External Relations Minister Cheysson visited Washington, and Vice President Bush visited Paris. Presidents Reagan and Mitterrand participated in the seven-nation Economic Summit in Ottawa, Canada and the International Meeting on Cooperation and Development at Cancun, Mexico in summer 1981. In October 1981, President Mitterrand participated in ceremonies commemorating the 200th anniversary of the Battle of Yorktown and met with President Reagan at Williamsburg, Virginia.

France and the United States share common values and have parallel policies on many political, economic, and security issues. Both governments recognize that mutual cooperation enhances their ability to achieve their objectives.

Principal U.S. Officials

Ambassador—Evan G. Galbraith
Deputy Chief of Mission—John J. Maresca
Minister-Counselor for Economic Affairs—Michael E. Ely
Counselor for Political Affairs—Francis deTarr
Consul General—John DeWitt
Counselor for Public Affairs—John L. Hedges
Counselor for Commercial Affairs—Roderick N. Grant
Counselor for Administrative Affairs—Charles E. Emmons
Defense and Army Attache—Brig. Gen. Christian Patte

Consular Posts

Consul General, Marseille—Edward M. Sacchet
Consul General, Bordeaux—Charles T. Sylvester
Consul General, Lyon—Carroll L. Floyd
Consul General, Strasbourg—Robert O. Homme
Consular Agent, Nice—William W. Swayne
Consul, Martinique—Richard A. Dwyer

The U.S. Embassy in France is located at 2 Avenue Gabriel, Paris 8 (tel. 296-1202). The United States is also represented in Paris by its missions to the OECD and UNESCO. ■

TRAVEL NOTES

Clothing—Clothing needs are similar to those in Washington, DC.

Customs—US citizens visiting for less than 3 months need only present a valid passport. No visa or vaccination is required. Travelers must declare goods carried in hand or in baggage and pass through customs inspection.

Health—No special precautions are needed. Standards of medical care are usually acceptable. The American Hospital of Paris is located at 63 Boulevard Victor-Hugo, 9200 Neuilly-sur-Seine (tel. 637-7200).

Telecommunications—Domestic and international telephone, telegraph, and cable communications are good. Paris is six time zones ahead of eastern standard time.

Transportation—Streetcars and buses offer good transportation in all large French cities. Paris has an excellent subway system and local rail services. Taxis are available at moderate rates in all cities. Good air and railway service is available to all parts of France and other European capitals.

Holidays and closing hours—July 14, Bastille Day, is the national holiday. Shops and other businesses close from 1:00 pm to 3:00 pm daily. Many establishments in Paris and other cities are closed during August.

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background
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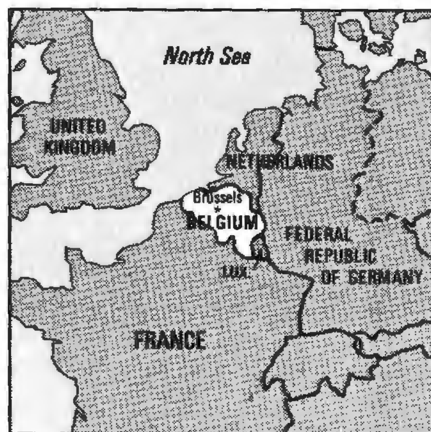
Belgium

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

June 1983



Official Name: Kingdom of Belgium

PROFILE

People

Noun and adjective: Belgian(s). **Population** (1982 est.): 9.9 million. **Annual growth rate**: 0.25%. **Linguistic groups**: Dutch 57%, French 33%, legally bilingual (Brussels) 10%, German 0.7%. **Religion**: Roman Catholic 75%. **Education**: *Years compulsory*—to age 16. *Literacy*—98%. **Health**: *Infant mortality rate* (1979)—11.15/1,000. *Life expectancy* (1976)—women 75.1 yrs., men 68.6 yrs. **Work force** (4 million): *Agriculture*—3%. *Industry and commerce*—33%. *Services and transportation*—36%. *Public service*—21%. *Unemployment*—11%.

Geography

Area: 30,540 sq. km. (11,800 sq. mi.); about the size of Maryland. **Cities**: *Capital*—Brussels (pop. 1 million). *Other cities*—Antwerp (463,000), Ghent (234,000), Liege (211,000). **Terrain**: Varies from coastal plains in northwest, through gently rolling countryside in the center, to the Ardennes Mountains in the southeast. **Climate**: Cool, temperate, and rainy, without extreme temperatures.

Government

Type: Parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarch. **Independence**: 1830. **Constitution**: 1980 (revised).

Branches: *Executive*—king (chief of state), prime minister (head of government), Council of Ministers (cabinet). *Legislative*—bicameral Parliament (Senate and House of Representatives); Flemish Community Assembly with the Flemish Executive for Regional and Cultural Affairs; Walloon Regional Assembly and Executive for Walloon Regional Affairs; and Francophone Community Assembly and Executive for Francophone Cultural Affairs. *Judicial*—Court of Cassation.

Subdivisions: 3 regions (Flanders, Wallonia, Brussels); 2 cultural communities (Francophone, Flemish plus a special status for the German-speaking community); 9 provinces; 589 communes.

Political parties: Flemish Social Christians (CVP), Francophone Social Christians (PSC), Francophone Socialists (PS), Flemish Socialists (SP), Flemish Liberal (PVV), Francophone Liberal (PRL), Volksunie (VU), Francophone Democratic Front (FDF), Flemish Ecologists (AGALEV), Walloon Rally (RW), Francophone Ecologists (ECOLO), Communist Party (PCB). **Suffrage**: Universal over 18; compulsory voting.

Central government budget (1983): $31.2 billion. **Defense** (1983): $1.81 billion (BF 89 billion) or 5.8% of budget.

Flag: Three vertical bands—black, yellow, and red from left to right.

Economy

GNP (1981): $97 billion. **Annual growth rate**: (1981): 3.4%. **Per capita income** (1981): $9,827. **Avg. inflation rate last 3 yrs.**: 6.8%.

Natural resource: Coal.

Agriculture: (2.3% of GNP): Livestock, poultry, grain, sugar beets, flax, tobacco, potatoes, other vegetables, fruits.

Industries: (31% of GNP): Machinery, iron and steel, coal, textiles, chemicals, glass.

Trade (1981): *Exports*—$56 billion: machinery (22%), chemicals (12%), food and livestock (10%), iron and steel (9%). *Imports*—$62 billion: machinery (22%), fuels (20%), chemical products (8%), food (13%). *Major trade partners*—FRG, France, Netherlands.

Official exchange rate (November 1982): About 49 Belgian francs = US$1.

Economic aid budgeted (1982): $497 million.

Membership in International Organizations

UN, NATO, European Communities (EC), Belgium-Luxembourg Economic Union (BLEU), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), INTELSAT, Council of Europe, Western European Union, Belgium-Netherlands-Luxembourg Economic Union (Benelux), and many others.

in the north. The remaining Catholic territory after these wars is approximately equivalent to modern Belgium.

After two centuries of Spanish rule, the country passed as a consequence of the treaty of Utrecht (1713) to the Austrian Hapsburgs. It was annexed to France by Napoleon in 1794. After his defeat in 1815, Belgium was awarded to the Netherlands. However, the inhabitants, after 15 years of chafing against Dutch administrative and economic reforms, revolted and declared the independent state of Belgium in 1830. A German prince was found to take the newly established throne with its progressive, almost republican constitution, and the state was successfully launched with Leopold I as the first king of the Belgians.

For 84 years, Belgium remained neutral in an era of intra-European wars until German troops overran the country during their attack on France in 1914. King Albert, the constitutional commander in chief of the armed forces, rallied what remained of his troops and, after linking up with the French Army, was able to hang onto a tiny corner of Flemish Belgium near the sea throughout the war. Some of the fiercest battles of World War I were fought on these "Flanders' fields."

The interwar years saw an unprecedented blooming of Flemish culture in northern Belgium and a sharpening of the ethnic rivalry between the northern Dutch-speaking Flemings and the southern French-speaking Walloons. Partly as a result, in 1936 Belgium reverted to its former policy of neutrality, trying not to provide Nazi Germany with an excuse to invade. As in 1914, this failed and Belgium was occupied by the Germans in 1940. While the cabinet and other political leaders established a government-in-exile in London, the King remained in Belgium for the entire war. The behavior of the King under the German occupation was sufficiently controversial to force him, in 1951, to abdicate in favor of his son, the present King Baudouin.

GOVERNMENT

Belgium is a parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarch. Although the king (chief of state) is technically the source of all executive authority, the Council of Ministers (cabinet) actually makes all governmental decisions. The Council of Ministers, led by the prime minister (head of government), holds office as long as it retains the confidence of the Parliament. Parliamentary elections are held at least every 4 years. There is universal suffrage, with obligatory voting and a complicated system of proportional representation.

The bicameral Parliament consists of the Senate and the House of Representatives. Of the 181 senators, 50 are elected by provincial councils, 25 by fellow senators, and the remainder (106) by direct vote. Prince Albert, heir to the throne, is also a member of the Senate. Members of the House of Representatives (212), traditionally the dominant body, are all directly elected.

In 1970 and 1980, the constitution was amended to provide for creation of community and regional assemblies and executive boards. These assemblies are composed of the members of the House of Representatives and of the directly elected senators from each regional cultural entity. The Flemish Community Executive Board is composed of 9 ministers and headed by Gaston Geens (CVP). The Walloon Regional Executive Board is composed of 6 ministers and headed by Jean-Maurice Dehousse (PS). The Francophone Community Executive Board is composed of 3 ministers and headed by Phillippe Moureaux (PS).

Courtesy of Institut Belge d'Information et de Documentation

The Scheldt, whose waters flow deep into the hinterland, has made Antwerp a world-famous seaport. The Flemish metropolis, made famous by Ortelius, Plantin, and Rubens, retains all the dignified opulence bequeathed to it by its past history as a great Hanseatic city.

(Dolan/RR)
May 30, 1984
4:00 p.m.

PRESIDENTIAL REMARKS: OMAHA BEACH MEMORIAL REMARKS
WEDNESDAY, JUNE 6, 1984

Mr. President, distinguished guests:

We stand today at a place of battle, one that 40 years ago saw the worst of war. Men bled and died here for a few feet or inches of sand as bullets and shellfire cut through their ranks. About them, General Omar Bradley later said: "Every man who set foot on Omaha Beach that day was a hero."

Words do not do them justice. Speeches cannot portray their suffering, their sacrifice, their heroism. President Lincoln once reminded us that -- through their deeds -- the dead of battle have spoken more eloquently for themselves than any of the living ever could, that we can only honor them by rededicating ourselves to the cause for which they gave a last full measure of devotion.

Today, we do rededicate ourselves to that cause. And in this place of honor, we are humbled by the realization of how much many have given to the cause of freedom and to their fellow man.

Some who survived the battle on June 6, 1944 are here today. Others who hoped to return never did so.

"Someday, Lis, I'll go back," said Private First Class Peter Robert Zanatta of the 37th Engineer Combat Battalion of the first assault wave to hit Omaha Beach. "I'll go back and I'll see it all again. I'll see the beach, the barricades, and the graves. I'll put a flower on the graves of the guys I knew and on the grave of the unknown soldier -- all the guys I fought with."

Those words of Private Zanatta come to us from his daughter, Lisa Zanatta Henn, in an essay written about an event her father spoke of often: "the Normandy Invasion would change his life forever," she said.

letter from Lisa Henn

She tells some of his stories of World War II, but says for her father "the story to end all stories was D-Day."

"He made me feel the fear of being on that boat waiting to land. I can smell the ocean and feel the seasickness. I can see the looks on his fellow soldiers' faces, the fear, the anguish, the uncertainty of what lay ahead. And when they landed, I can feel the strength and courage of the men who took those first steps through the tide to what must have surely looked like instant death."

Private Zanatta's daughter says: "I don't know how or why I can feel this emptiness, this fear, or this determination, but I do. Maybe its the bond I had with my father. (I was really lucky -- we never got tired of talking to each other.) All I know is that it brings tears to my eyes to think about my father as a 20-year-old boy having to face that beach."

She went on to say how the anniversary of D-Day for her and her family was always special; and like all the families of those who went to war, she describes how she came to realize her own father's survival was a miracle.

"So many men died. I know that my father watched many of his friends be killed. I know that he must have died inside a little each time. But his explanation to me was 'You did what you had to do and you kept on going.'"

"My dad won his share of medals. He was a good soldier and fought hard for his country. He was just an ordinary guy, with immigrant Italian parents who never really had enough money. But he was a proud man. Proud of his heritage, proud of his country, proud that he fought in World War II and proud that he lived through D-Day."

When men like Private Zanatta and all our allied forces stormed the beaches of Normandy 40 years ago, they came not as conquerors, but as liberators. [When these troops swept across the French countryside and into the forests of Belgium and Luxembourg, they came not to take, but to restore what had been wrongly taken. When our forces marched into a ruined Germany,] they came not to prey on a brave and defeated people, but to nurture the seeds of democracy among those who yearned again to be free.

We salute them today; we also salute those who were already engaging the enemy inside this country -- the French Resistance -- whose valiant service for France did so much to cripple the enemy in their midst and assist in the advance of the invading armies of liberation. These French Forces of the Interior will forever offer us an image of courage and national spirit, and will be a permanent inspiration to those who are free and all those who would be free.

This day, we celebrate the triumph of democracy. This day, we reaffirm the unity of democratic peoples who fought a war and then joined with the vanquished in a firm resolve to keep the peace from that time on.

From a terrible war, we learned that unity made us invincible; now, in peace, that same unity can make us secure. We sought the inclusion of all freedom-loving nations in a community dedicated to the defense and preservation of our sacred values. Our alliance, forged in the crucible of war, tempered and shaped by the realities of the post-war world, has succeeded in this end. In Europe, the threat has been contained. The peace has been kept.

Today, the living here assembled -- officials, veterans, citizens -- are a tribute to what was achieved here 40 years ago. This land is secure. We are free. These things were worth fighting -- and dying -- for.

Lisa Zanatta Henn began her essay with a quote from her father, who frequently promised he would return to Normandy. She ended her essay with a quote from herself, promising her father, who died eight years ago of cancer, that she would go in his place and see the graves and the flowers and the ceremonies honoring the veterans of D-Day. She promised him, " . . . I'll feel all the things you made me feel through your stories and your eyes."

"I will never forget what you went through, Dad, nor will I let anyone else forget -- and Dad, I'll always be proud."

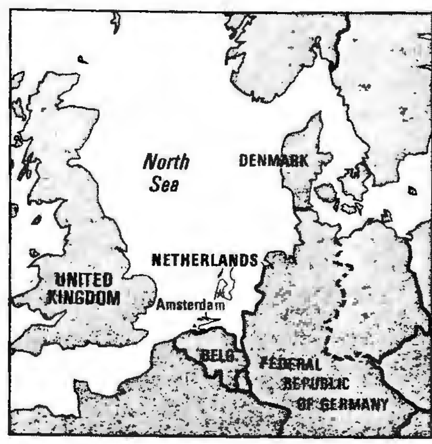
Through the words a loving daughter -- who is here with us today -- a D-Day veteran has given us the meaning of this day far better than any President can. It is enough for us to say about Private Zanatta and all the men of honor and courage who fought beside him four decades ago: We will always remember. We will always be proud.

Background Notes

Netherlands

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

October 1980



Official Name:
Kingdom of the Netherlands

PROFILE

People

POPULATION (1979): 14.1 million. ANNUAL GROWTH RATE: 0.9%. ETHNIC GROUPS: Predominantly Dutch with some Indonesian and Surinamese. RELIGIONS: Roman Catholic, Protestant, nonaffiliated, and other. LANGUAGE: Dutch. EDUCATION: *Years compulsory*—10. *Attendance*—nearly 100%. *Literacy*—98%. HEALTH: *Infant mortality rate*—9/1,000 (US=15/1,000). *Life expectancy*—75 yrs. (male, 72 yrs.; female, 78). WORK FORCE (4.7 million): *Agriculture*—6%. *Industry and commerce*—30%. *Services*—20%. *Government*—15%.

Geography

AREA: 41,160 sq. km. (16,464 sq. mi.). CITIES: *Capital*—Amsterdam (pop. 728, 746). *Other cities*—The Hague (seat of government, pop. 464,858); Rotterdam (principal port, pop. 590,312); Utrecht (240,713). TERRAIN: Coastal lowland. CLIMATE: Northern maritime.

Government

TYPE: Parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarch. CONSTITUTION: 1814.

BRANCHES: *Executive*—Queen (Chief of State), Prime Minister (Head of Government), Cabinet. *Legislative*—bicameral Parliament (First and Second Chambers). *Judicial*—Supreme Court.

SUBDIVISIONS: 11 Provinces.

POLITICAL PARTIES: Christian Democratic Appeal (CDA), Labor Party (PvdA), Liberal Party (VVD), Democrats '66 (D'66), other minor parties. SUFFRAGE: Universal over 18.

DEFENSE: 3.3% of GNP (1980 est.).

FLAG: Three horizontal stripes—red, white, and blue—from top to bottom.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY: Jan. 31 (Queen's birthday).

Economy

GNP (1979): $153 million. ANNUAL GROWTH RATE (1979): 2%. PER CAPITA INCOME (1979): $9,500. AVG. RATE OF INFLATION 1978-80: 4.8%.

NATURAL RESOURCES: Natural gas.

AGRICULTURE (5% of net national income—NNI): *Products*—wheat, barley, sugar beets, fruits, potatoes, oats, meat, dairy products, and flowers and bulbs. *Land*—70%.

INDUSTRY (33% of NNI): *Types*—metal products, electronics, chemicals, textiles.

TRADE (1979): *Exports*—$64 billion: foodstuffs, mineral fuels, chemicals, machinery, textiles. *Imports*—$67 billion: textiles, machinery, foodstuffs, crude petroleum, mineral ores. *Partners*—FRG, Belgium, US, UK.

OFFICIAL EXCHANGE RATE (1979 average): 1.97 Dutch guilders (Fl.)=US$1.

ECONOMIC AID SENT: *Total Dutch development aid 1979*—$1.8 billion.

MEMBERSHIP IN INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS: UN, NATO, EC, OECD, European Monetary System, Benelux Economic Union, INTELSAT.

PEOPLE

The Dutch are primarily of Germanic stock with some Gallo-Celtic mixture. They have clung tenaciously to their small homeland against the constant threat of destruction by the North Sea and recurrent invasions by the great European powers.

Religion influences Dutch history, institutions, and attitudes and is closely related to social and political life, though to a diminishing degree. The right of every individual to religious freedom is guaranteed by the Constitution. Although church and state are separate, a few historical ties remain, e.g., the Royal Family belongs to the Dutch Reformed Church (Protestant).

The arts have played a major role in the development and representation of Dutch culture. World-famous Old Masters, including Rembrandt and Hals, and later artists such as Mondrian and Van Gogh, are on display in museums throughout the Netherlands. The government strongly supports artists, sculptors, and architects and attempts to use their works in public projects wherever possible. The Amsterdam Concertgebouw Orchestra and the resident philharmonics in The Hague and Rotterdam enjoy excellent international reputations. The Netherlands' active intellectual life is stimulated by lively political satire and a counterculture and is sustained by prestigious universities.

GEOGRAPHY

The Netherlands is bordered by the North Sea, Belgium, and the Federal Republic of Germany. The country is low and flat except in the southeast, where some hills rise to 304 meters (1,000 ft.) above sea level. Because much of the remaining land, roughly one-third, is below sea level, the Dutch have had to build their famous dikes in order to reclaim land from the sea.

The warmest weather falls between June and September; the other 8 months are cool or cold. Except for occasional warm spells in summer, temperatures rarely exceed 24°C (75°F). The winters are long, and the damp cold off the North Sea can be penetrating.

The Netherlands is still often referred to as Holland, which was the largest Dutch Province and incorporated the country's three largest and most prosperous cities: Amsterdam, The Hague, and Rotterdam. The original Province is divided into Noord-Holland and Zuid-Holland.

HISTORY

Julius Caesar found the Netherlands inhabited by Germanic tribes, one of which, the Batavi, did not submit to Rome until 13 B.C. and then only as an ally. A part of Charlemagne's empire in the eighth century A.D., the area later passed into the hands of the House of Burgundy and the Austrian Hapsburgs. Falling under harsh Spanish rule in the 16th century, the Dutch revolted in 1568, under the leadership of Willem of Orange. By virtue of the Union of Utrecht in 1579, the seven northern Dutch Provinces became the Republic of the United Netherlands.

During the 17th century, considered its "Golden Era," the Netherlands became a great sea and colonial power. Its importance declined, however, after wars with Spain and France in the 18th century. In 1795 French troops ousted Willem V of Orange, the *Stadhouder* under the Dutch Republic and head of the House of Orange.

Following Napoleon's defeat in 1813, the Netherlands and Belgium became the "Kingdom of the United Netherlands" under King Willem I, son of Willem V of Orange. The Belgians withdrew from the union in 1830 to form their own kingdom. Willem I abdicated in favor of Willem II in 1840. Willem II was largely responsible for the liberalizing revision of the constitution in 1848.

The Netherlands prospered during the long reign of Willem III (1849–90). At the time of his death, his daughter, Wilhelmina, was 10 years old. Her mother, Queen Emma, reigned as regent until 1898 when Wilhelmina reached the age of 18 and became the monarch.

Although the Netherlands was neutral during World War I and again proclaimed neutrality at the start of World War II, German troops overran the country in May 1940. Queen Wilhelmina and Crown Princess Juliana fled to London and then to Canada, where governments-in-exile were established. The German Army in the Netherlands surrendered May 5, 1945, and the Queen and Crown Princess returned to the Netherlands shortly thereafter. Queen Juliana succeeded to the throne in 1948 upon her mother's abdication. In April 1980, Queen Juliana abdicated in favor of her daughter, who is now Queen Beatrix.

The Netherlands' once far-flung empire has been granted complete independence or near autonomy since the end of World War II. Indonesia formally gained its independence from the Netherlands in 1949. Suriname became independent in 1975. The six islands of the Netherlands Antilles (Aruba, Curaçao, Bonaire, Saba, Sint Eustatius, and a part of Sint Maarten) are integral parts of the Netherlands realm but are increasingly autonomous. In 1980, preliminary discussions were being held to consider future forms of independence for an internally self-governing territory. (For more information, see *Background Notes* on Netherlands Antilles, Department of State pub. 8224.)

GOVERNMENT

The present constitution dates from 1814 and has been amended a number of times, most recently in 1972. The government is based on the principles of ministerial responsibility and parliamentary government common to most constitutional monarchies in Western Europe. It is composed of three basic institutions: (1) the Crown (Monarch, Council of Ministers, and Council of State); (2) the States General (Parliament); and (3) the Courts.

The Monarch

Although her functions are largely ceremonial, the Queen does have certain influence deriving from: (a) the traditional veneration for the House of Orange; (b) the personal qualities of Queen Beatrix and Queen Juliana before her; and (c) the political party system, which makes it difficult to obtain a parliamentary majority, thereby enabling the Queen to influence the choice of ministers by designating the individual charged with forming a coalition Council of Ministers.

Council of Ministers (Cabinet)

Ministers have two general functions. With the exception of the Ministers Without Portfolio, they head ministries or departments. Collectively the ministers form the Council of Ministers, which formulates and carries out government policies and initiates legislation. The ministers collectively and individually are responsible to the legislature.

Council of State

An advisory body to the Crown, the Council of State consists of members of the Royal Family and Crown-appointed members generally having political,