

THE WORLD AT WAR

(1920–1945)

The World at War covers the period from the signing of the Versailles Treaty, which signaled the end of World War I, through World War II and the defeat of Japan. Special emphasis is given to the stressed postwar economies of Europe following the Great War, which set the stage for further international conflict. The Roaring Twenties, the stock market crash of 1929, The Great Depression, Roosevelt's New Deal, the rise of fascism, and the grim legacies of the Holocaust figure prominently in this volume. Also discussed is the influence of historic personalities such as Hitler, Stalin, Churchill, Roosevelt, and Mussolini. Challenging map exercises and provocative review questions encourage meaningful reflection and historical analysis.

MP3404 The World at War

Written by: Tim McNeese

Illustrated by: Joan Waites

Page Layout & Editing: Lisa Marty

Cover Design: Jon Davis

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The New Map of Europe

Following the end of World War I, known then as the Great War, the leaders of the nations which had participated in that massive conflict met to hammer out a peace settlement. The Peace Conference of Paris opened on January 18, 1919, just two months after the signing of the armistice (November 11, 1918), which ended hostilities.

The war resulted in the deaths of millions of people, both military and civilian. Twice as many men died in World War I than the number who died in all the major European wars from 1790 until the beginning of the Great War. At least ten million soldiers were killed and another twenty million suffered wounds. Approximately five million civilians lost their lives during the war, as well. Such numbers amounted to staggering losses.

With the war having just ended weeks before the beginning of the peace conference, many of the allied world leaders went to the peace negotiations prepared to make the losing side pay. Others, however, went to the meetings ready to create a new world, one better than its predecessor.

One of the optimistic men who attended the conference was Woodrow Wilson, president of the United States from 1913 to 1921. Although the U.S. had entered the war late (the war began in 1914 and America did not join the Allies until the spring of 1917), Wilson traveled to the conference, held at the old French palace at Versailles, with a plan for Europe's future.

Known popularly as the Fourteen Points, Wilson envisioned a world different from the one which had gone to war in 1914. He first presented his ideas for a new Europe in a speech to Congress in January of 1918. In summary, his 14 points or proposals included all the following: (1) the making of open, not secret, treaties, (2) freedom of the seas, even during wartime, (3) removal of trade barriers between nations, and (4) reduction of military weapons. Points 5 through 13 were concerned with reestablishing order to Europe, as well as the establishing of independence for several European nations from imperial control, such as Poland, Romania, Serbia, Montenegro, and Turkey, as well as independence for Belgium. Such things had been promised to the people living under the rulers of

both the Austrian-Hungarian Empire and the Ottoman Empire. Hundreds of thousands of leaflets were dropped from airplanes into the hands of the peoples living in regions controlled by these empires.

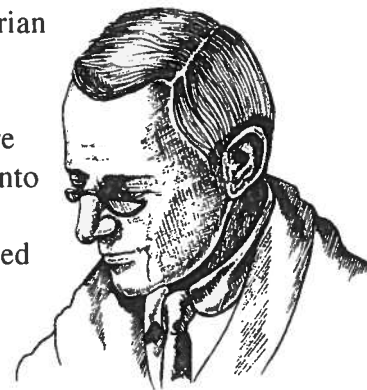
But Wilson's final point—point 14—was the most important of them all. It called for the establishment of a League of Nations, an international body whose main purpose would be to enforce the various treaties created at the Versailles Conference. The League was designed to help maintain peace in the future and to provide a forum where disputing nations could discuss their grievances.

Not all of Wilson's Fourteen Points were accepted by his fellow negotiators. The leaders of the victorious Allied powers of France (Georges Clemenceau), Great Britain (David Lloyd George), and Italy (Vittorio Orlando) blocked several of Wilson's ideas and did not cooperate with him on issues important to Wilson.

When the peace treaty was finally hammered out, the Versailles Treaty placed the responsibility for the war squarely on Germany's shoulders. As a result, Germany was punished severely under the treaty. Germany not only lost important territory, it was also saddled with high war damages amounting to 132 billion gold marks, including shipments of German coal and merchant ships to the Allied powers.

In addition, Germany was forced to disarm. The German army was reduced to 100,000 men. The German navy was limited to six primary warships, with no submarines. The defeated nation was denied any air force. Finally, Germany was forced to accept full responsibility for having caused the war.

This treaty proved to be very unpopular with the German people at home. Such harsh conditions caused much suffering in Germany and helped to set the stage for later war.



Woodrow Wilson

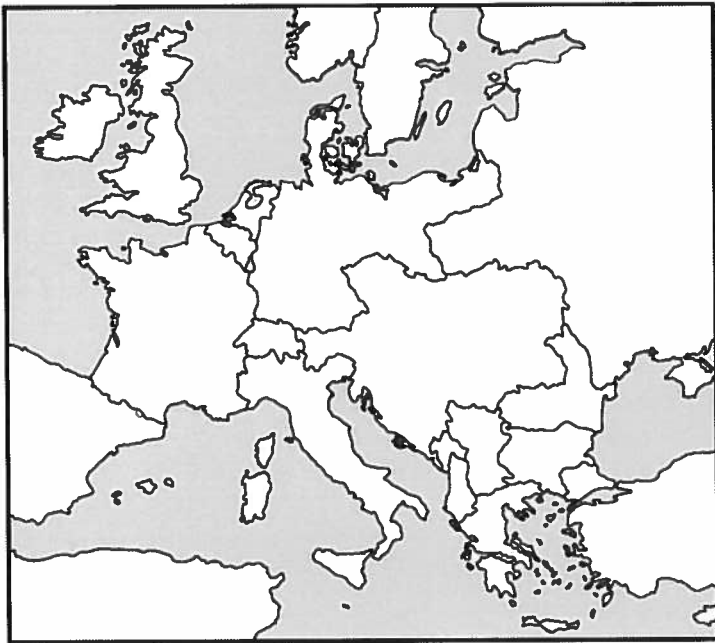
Europe 1919: A Map Study

World War I pitted the nations of the Central Powers (Germany, Bulgaria, the Austrian-Hungarian Empire, and the Ottoman Empire) in a massive struggle against the armies of the Allied Powers (Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy, and, later, the United States).

When the war ended, the negotiations at Versailles brought about important changes in the political map of the European continent. In fact, five treaties were signed at Versailles, as the Allies negotiated separate treaties with Austria, Bulgaria, Germany, Hungary, and Turkey.

Among the casualties of the Great War were the empires of Austria-Hungary and of the Ottoman Turks. Both these imperial powers were dismantled and their former lands were divided into new nation-states to provide national homelands for several of the recognized ethnic groups of eastern Europe. (Strong nationalism among such peoples had helped to bring about World War I in the first place.) Another state to lose large amounts of territory was Russia, which had negotiated a separate peace with Germany before the end of the war.

Europe During World War I



Map Exercise I

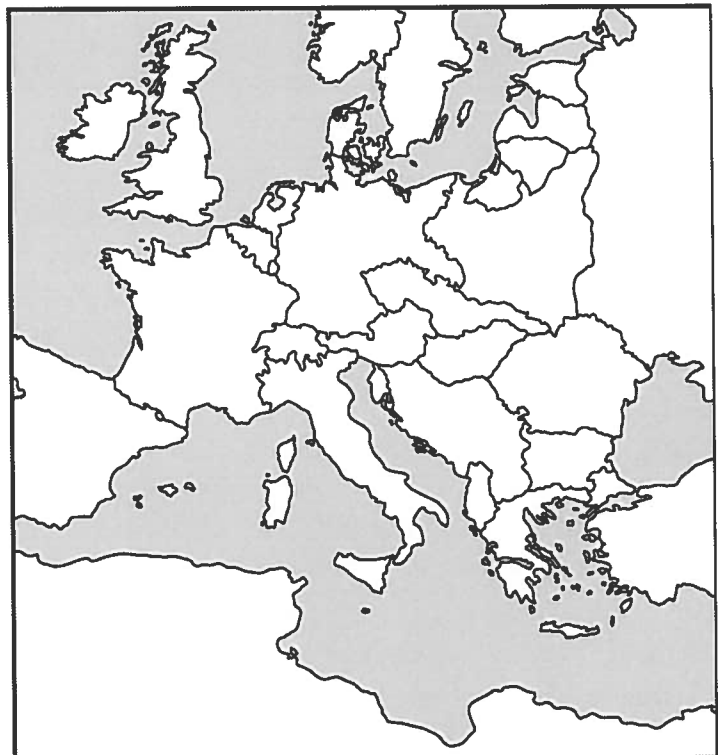
The map at the left shows Europe before and during the Great War. Identify each of the following states: Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, Austrian-Hungarian Empire, Ottoman Empire, Bulgaria, Russia, and Serbia. Also, locate the cities of Berlin and Sarajevo.

Map Exercise II

The map at the right shows Europe following World War I. Locate each of the following states on the map: Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, Russia, and Bulgaria.

Then, identify each of the following newly created states: Yugoslavia, Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Romania, Poland, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania.

Europe Following World War I



Postwar Britain

World War I brought much destruction and death to the people of Europe. After the defeat of the Central Powers, led by Germany, the victorious nations tried to return to a normal way of life. But the war brought great change to some countries, and even created some new states. Nevertheless, Great Britain and France, two of Europe's leading democratic states, attempted to maintain their democratic systems.

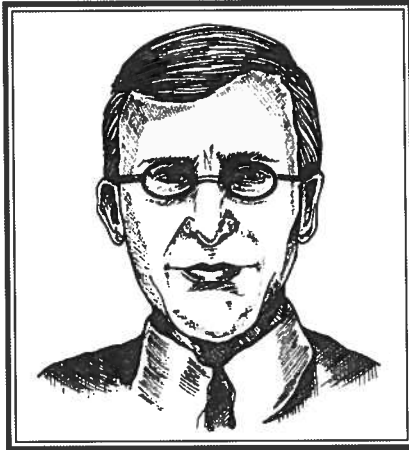
Britain, following the war, found itself in a state of psychic shock. Nearly one million British troops had been killed during the war and twice as many wounded. Despite the war, much of British life continued on as it had before the great conflict. But there were differences. Taxes remained high, many of which had been created during the war. Nearly a generation of British youth had been destroyed through their service and sacrifice. The decade following World War I was one of cynicism and frustration.

But democracy continued without serious question and was even expanded. In 1918, by an act of Parliament, British women over the age of 30 gained the right to vote (the voting age was lowered to 21 a decade later). Women had been campaigning for decades for voting privileges. In 1919, British voters elected the first woman member of the Parliamentary House of Commons, Viscountess Astor (1879–1964).

Economically, Britain struggled with postwar problems. The national debt mushroomed during the war to ten times its prewar level. British factories and mines awkwardly regeared to a peacetime level of production. Britain faced serious nationalist movements within its empire from Ireland, Egypt, and India. One of the most serious independence movements was centered in Ireland. The Irish nationalist movement, (known as *Sinn Fein*, which, in Irish, means “We Ourselves”) campaigned and fought for separation from Great Britain. Led by Eamon de Valera (1882–1975), Sinn Fein supporters attempted to declare Ireland an independent republic in 1919.

Civil war soon broke out between members of the Irish Republican Army (IRA), led by an Irish radical named Michael Collins (1890–1922), and the Royal Irish Constabulary (RIC), the Irish police force. The British sent to Ireland additional police known as the Black and Tans (after the colors of their uniforms), which further clashed with the IRA.

A 1920 parliamentary act separated Northern Ireland (which was largely Protestant) from southern Ireland (largely Catholic), creating two Irelands. This Government of Ireland Act was accepted by the north, thus creating Northern Ireland. The south continued to fight for complete independence until 1923. (Collins was killed in 1922.) By 1949, through continuing political efforts, Ireland gained its complete independence from Great Britain.



Eamon de Valera

Nationalist pressures elsewhere in the British Empire brought autonomy to Australia, Canada, and New Zealand. Such nations made their own laws and were only tied to Britain by allegiance.

Despite such political problems, it was the economy of postwar Britain which caused the greatest concerns at home. Strikes marred the workplace, especially in the coal industry. The government, led by Prime Minister David Lloyd George, tried to answer some of the economic problems by raising unemployment insurance benefits and establishing a higher postwar tariff on foreign imports.

Despite such moves by the government, postwar Britain still suffered with one million men unemployed. Manufacturing and mining did not expand their production bases during these years, due in part to foreign competition. As a result, such significant industries as iron, coal, shipbuilding, and textiles did not expand in scope.

Through these years—especially from 1921 until 1939—the British government did little to solve the basic economic problems which perplexed its leaders. In a country of 40 million people, these years witnessed between one and three million unemployed each year.

Postwar France

While Britain suffered profound losses from World War I, France suffered even more. Most of the fighting on the western front took place on French soil, bringing destruction to the normally peaceful and scenic French landscape.

The numbers tell much of the story. Of France's eight-million-man army mobilized for service during the Great War, 1.3 million were killed and nearly 3 million wounded. Five million acres of French land lay in waste, destroyed and scarred by endless fighting.

France's infrastructure also suffered great losses. One million structures, nine thousand manufacturing plants, six thousand bridges, and one thousand miles of rail track were destroyed by the violence of war. Nearly all French coal and iron mines were destroyed or flooded. Farming was impossible in areas where fighting took place, due to the presence of unexploded artillery shells.

Such wholesale destruction of France caused serious postwar problems for its people. As in Britain, the primary problems after World War I were economic and social. The 1920s were years of poor French political leadership as the nation moved from year to year with a government which brought little significant change.

During the early 1920s, France was led by the National Bloc. This political group featured members who were conservative, coming from the center party and the right wing. One of the best French statesmen of the postwar period was Aristide Briand (1862–1932). He was a moderate who believed in the importance of the new League of Nations in providing security for Europe as a whole. But when Briand took a moderate position concerning Germany's requirement under the Versailles treaty to pay war reparations, he lost his position in 1922 to a political rival, Raymond Poincaré (1860–1934). Poincaré served as the French president from 1913 to 1920 and as the French prime minister from 1922 to 1924 and again from 1926 to 1929.

Poincaré did little to relieve the economic problems which postwar France was experiencing. However, he did take a firm hand in dealing with the Germans. Under the Versailles treaty, Germany

was required to pay the Allies war damages. The amount established in 1921 by the Allied Reparations Commission was 132 billion marks (about 33 billion dollars), to be paid annually in installments of 2.5 billion (gold) marks. In 1923, the German government defaulted on its reparations payments.

When Germany announced its intention to violate the Versailles treaty by not paying its war reparations, France's Poincaré took serious steps. Both French and Belgian troops were ordered into Germany to occupy the Ruhr Valley later in 1923, a German region traditionally rich in agricultural produce, iron and coal mining, and other forms of manufacturing. France's plan was to run Germany's mines and factories, and collect reparations as profits.

The French occupation of the Ruhr did little to help either France or Germany. The ongoing French presence in Germany was not a popular one. The German economy, already in shambles from the war, could not recover from the loss of its factories and mines in the Ruhr. The result was economic devastation as the German mark lost more and more of its value.

This extraordinary move by France was part of an ongoing concern among French leaders and their people concerning their future security and protection from another war with Germany. The French gave their support to the League of Nations as a keeper of the peace during the 1920s. They also spent millions constructing a series of fortifications along the border between France and Germany. Known as the Maginot line, it was a beehive of concrete bunkers, heavy gun emplacements, and underground barracks designed to keep Germany from turning French territory into a future battleground.

Review and Write

Make a list of the problems which Britain and France faced following World War I.

America's Roaring Twenties

As many of the European powers struggled with postwar problems such as demilitarization, cynical politics, poor economies, and anxiety over future wars, the United States emerged from World War I as the strongest nation among the Western powers. Yet, despite the opportunity to take the center stage of world leadership, the United States stepped away from this role. The American public and its politicians were not prepared to remain directly involved in European or world problems. Instead, the country returned to an isolationist policy.

This trend away from international involvement after World War I led the United States Senate to reject the Versailles treaty and refuse to join the League of Nations. Ironically, the League was the brainchild of President Wilson.

In 1920, a new American president was elected, Warren G. Harding (1865–1923). This conservative Republican leader, and his vice president, Calvin Coolidge (who became president after Harding's death) believed that the United States would be better off separating itself from Europe. President Harding referred to this as a "return to normalcy." (Harding was the first president elected after women gained the right to vote under the new 19th Amendment.)

Throughout the 1920s, while other major powers struggled with their postwar economies, the United States experienced tremendous growth in its own economy. Despite a short recession in 1921, the American economic system expanded each year without fail until the last year of the decade.

The Allied powers acquired substantial debt during the Great War with American financiers and bankers—ten billion dollars worth—and those institutions insisted that the Allies pay on schedule despite the state of their struggling economies in Europe. In addition, the United States Congress voted for higher tariffs during the 1920s, which made it more difficult for European powers to sell their goods in the U.S.

Industrial expansion soared during America's "Roaring Twenties." By 1929, the United States was

home to 26 million automobiles. Many people bought not only their first car, but their first refrigerator, washing machine, radio, camera, and dozens of other manufactured items.

Americans were spending money on entertainment as never before. It was the age of silent movies as people crowded theatres across the country, ready for exciting entertainment. Radio stations sprang up across the country, starting with KDKA of Pittsburgh, which began broadcasting in 1920. Radio made some singers very popular and sheet music of their songs sold by the thousands.

This was the America of the Jazz Age and nightclubs. Congress enacted a ban on alcohol in 1919 by passing the 18th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution. Prohibition, as it was called, gave rise to the gangsters of the 1920s such as Al Capone of Chicago.

But these were not prosperous times for everyone in America. While many factory and big business owners made fortunes during the 1920s, factory workers and farmers did not. The conservatism of the period caused labor unions to become unpopular, which kept workers from gaining higher wages. Farmers went deeply into debt when farm prices dropped during the decade. This same conservatism caused a rise in membership of the Ku Klux Klan during the 1920s, as the hate organization's membership rose to four million members by 1923.

Yet, despite such problems and downsides to the era, it was a time of prosperity and growth for the United States. However, the overinflated balloon of a rapidly expanding economy was due to explode with the approach of 1929.



Al Capone

Research and Write

Select one of the following Americans of the 1920s and write a 100-word report on him: Babe Ruth, Charles Lindbergh, George Gershwin, Jack Dempsey, F. Scott Fitzgerald, or Charlie Chaplin.

Germany's Weimar Republic

Like every other nation involved in World War I, the defeated state of Germany emerged from the conflict destroyed, humiliated, and exhausted. Throughout the entire war, the German people had been led to believe that the ultimate victory would be theirs, and many were shocked when the Allies defeated them in 1918.

Another shock came when their leader, William II, known as Kaiser Wilhelm, abdicated his imperial throne on November 9, 1918. In place of the emperor came a form of government new to the Germans—a republic. In January 1919, the German people went to the polls and elected their representatives to the National Assembly. A new constitution was written, and the basis of the new government of Germany was to be democracy.

This newly elected National Assembly first met in February at Weimar and elected their first president, a socialist named Friedrich Ebert (1871-1925). The new constitution was voted on and approved by the summer of 1919.

The constitution called for the election of a president who was to serve a seven-year term. It also established a two-house legislature. The Reichstag was the lower and more-powerful body, made up of members who were elected by the people. A chancellor was appointed by the president and was to preside over the Reichstag.

The other body, known as the Reichsrat, included delegates elected from the 18 German states. It did not have veto power over decisions of the Reichstag, but could delay legislation.

These political institutions and the democracy of the Weimar Republic would be challenged constantly by extremist political parties during the 1920s. Some of these groups even attempted to overthrow the government. German Communists, called Spartacists, tried to take power in Berlin in 1919. Republican troops put down the attempted coup. Other groups, especially communist organizations, attempted other revolts, causing constant political instability for the Weimar Republic.

Postwar Germany also faced other serious challenges and problems. The greatest was the devaluation of its currency, the German mark.

Inflation plagued the German people even before the end of World War I. The initial cause of the dramatic devaluing of the German mark during this period was the forced demands by the Allies for Germany to pay war damages or reparations. The German government continued to print more paper marks until the currency was worthless.

This downward spiral is told in the numbers. In 1914, at the beginning of World War I, the German mark held a value of four to one U.S. dollar. (In simple terms, a mark was similar in value to an American quarter.) By 1919, at the end of the war, the German currency had fallen to a value of nine marks to the dollar, less than half its prewar value. By 1922, the mark had dropped dramatically to a ratio of 500 to one.

But the worse was yet ahead. The bottom began to fall completely out for the German mark within a matter of months. By January of 1923, it took 18,000 marks to equal one U.S. dollar. Within the next six months, the ratio stood at 350,000 to one! Two months later, it stood at five million to one. This great plunge in the value of the mark meant that by November 1923, a newspaper sold on the streets of Berlin cost the equivalent of one billion marks!

Although some people—speculators, real-estate dealers, debtors, and industrialists—actually profited from such inflation, many more were destroyed by the trend. Germany's middle-class wage earners reeled under the economic pressures of their paychecks having no value. At the height of inflation, an average wage earner had to work a full day to earn enough to buy a pound of butter!

Despite this inflationary shock, the German economy recovered by 1924 (receiving a large foreign loan under the Dawes Plan of 1924—an international financial rescue program for Germany), and even experienced prosperity for the next five years.



The Rise of Fascist Italy

Italy, although one of the victors of World War I, emerged from the war seriously weakened. Despite having fought on the side of the victors, along with France, England, and the United States, the Italian military did not perform well, producing an undistinguished record.

At the peace conference at Versailles, Italy and its postwar expectations took a second seat to the aims of the leaders of France and Great Britain. The Italians campaigned heavily to acquire land as a spoil of war, but most of the claims were ignored by the other Allied leaders.

(Italy had not been militarily allied with France, England, or Russia prior to the beginning of World War I. Instead, it was tied by treaty to the Central Powers—Germany and Austria-Hungary. Yet, when war broke out in the summer of 1914, Italy remained neutral for a year until finally deciding to join the Allies against its former treaty partners.)

After the war, Italy found itself in a state similar to that of other participant nations of the Great War—exhausted, economically strained, and ripe for political discord. At home, Italians were plagued with unemployment, high national debts, and spiraling inflation.

The Italian king, Victor Emmanuel III [1900–1944] was not a powerful ruler. He had few advisors and ministers who could provide the proper answers for the problems plaguing his nation-state. People were disillusioned with their government and its leaders and opened themselves to the possibility of political change, especially by the socialists.

During the election of 1919, the Socialist Party gained twice the number of seats already held by the party. Major labor strikes, plus general unrest in the rural corners of the country set the stage for political overthrow. The man responsible for this change was Benito Mussolini (1883–1945).

Mussolini was the son of a blacksmith. He grew up believing in socialism. By age 30, he abandoned the Socialist Party, which had encouraged neutrality

during the first year of World War I. He began campaigning for his country's involvement in the war and, when Italy joined the Allies, Mussolini enlisted and served in the Italian army from 1915 to February of 1917 when he was severely wounded.

In 1919, after the war, Mussolini founded a new political organization called the Fascists. (He took the name from an ancient Roman imperial symbol called a *fascis* that consisted of an axe surrounded

by a group of wooden rods wrapped around the axe handle. This had served as the symbol of power and authority in the Roman Empire.)

From their headquarters in the Italian city of Milan, Mussolini and his followers promoted a program of strong nationalism and fervent patriotism. Mussolini spoke loudly and dramatically about the need of the Italian people to restore the glory of the ancient Roman Empire. As the leader of the new Fascist Party, Mussolini and 34 of his associates were elected to the Italian parliament



Benito Mussolini

in 1921.

Members of the Fascist Party encouraged much violence to intimidate the members of any opposing political parties, including the socialists and especially the communists. Riots between fascists and communists broke out in 1922. As the party gained dominance and power, Mussolini ordered his followers, on October 28, 1922, to participate in a march on Rome, to intimidate the existing political leaders. When King Victor Emmanuel refused to send in the military to put down the march, his prime minister resigned. Unsure what steps to take, the king allowed Mussolini to form a Fascist cabinet, with himself as the head.

Systematically, Mussolini—known by his followers as *Il Duce*, meaning “the leader”—began expanding his control of the Italian government. He was granted dictatorial powers by the king, he gained the support of the army, and had his political opponents murdered. By 1925–1926, Mussolini found himself ruling over Italy.

The Early Years of Adolf Hitler

Just as postwar Italy found itself open to revolutionary political change, so did Germany. As we have seen, the Germany of the Weimar Republic suffered economically under the pressures of war reparations placed on it by the Versailles Treaty.

Politically, the Republic never experienced strong leadership. Many splinter and revolutionary political organizations, some of them little more than violent gangs, attempted repeatedly to topple the democratic, yet lukewarm state of the German Weimar Republic.

Among those who were to challenge the government during the 1920s and early 1930s was an obscure Bavarian rabble-rouser named Adolf Hitler (1889–1945). As an eventual leader of a socialist organization known as the National Socialist German Workers' Party (which became known as the Nazi Party) Hitler rose to a position of absolute dictator over Germany within 15 years of the end of World War I. How he came to power is a fascinating and tragic story.

Hitler was born in Austria on April 20, 1889, the illegitimate son of a local customs official and a woman named Anna Schicklgruber. Adolf was a poor student in school, which constantly angered his father, who regularly beat the young boy. Adolf aspired to become an artist, a goal his father never accepted, wanting instead for his son to become a government worker.

Two years after his father's death, sixteen-year-old Adolf dropped out of school, staying at home, drawing and reading, dreaming about his future. By 1907, he set out on his own, traveling to Vienna—the Austrian capital. His plans to become an art student were dashed when he failed the entrance examination for the Academy of Fine Arts. A year later, he tried again and failed a second time. In the meantime, his mother died, leaving Adolf alone.

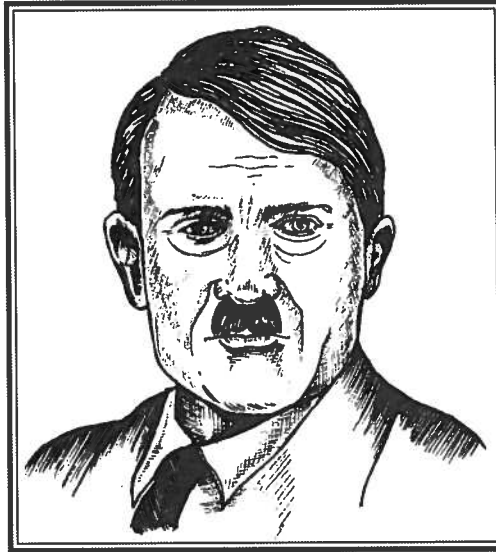
As his dream of becoming a great artist began to die, Adolf Hitler's life became that of a shiftless street vagrant, moving from menial job to job, living

in cheap boarding rooms. Adolf spent much of his time depressed and brooding. Like many of his fellow countrymen, Adolf grew up hating other nationalities and races. Considering himself and all German people supreme, he developed a strong dislike, even loathing, for non-Germans, especially people of Slavic and Jewish descent. (Although he was actually a German-speaking Austrian, Hitler always considered himself German.)

By 1913, Hitler abandoned life in Vienna and moved to Germany, settling in Munich. The next year, when Germany went to war, Hitler enlisted in the German army. Despite his involvement in several battles (he was decorated for bravery twice, including receiving the Iron Cross), he did not achieve a rank higher than corporal. At war's end, Hitler was laid up in a hospital, having been temporarily blinded by a poisonous gas attack.

In the aftermath of World War I, Adolf Hitler became a bitter, frustrated, and angry man. As were most German citizens, he was shocked by the final defeat of Germany in 1918. The terrible conditions during the days following the war—including an economy destroyed by the conflict—caused many in Germany, including Hitler, to look for answers. Some blamed the communists and their supporters in Germany who campaigned for a state similar to Russia's. Others felt the government of the new Republic was too weak and directionless. And Hitler, like others, was angry with the Versailles treaty, which placed the blame for the war solely on Germany's shoulders.

Political extremists, including Hitler, began to campaign and speak against the political leaders of the newly defeated Germany. Such revolutionaries decried the Versailles treaty and the harsh, vindictive war reparations it placed on Germany, further wrecking its economy. Over the next several years, Hitler became more and more involved in revolutionary politics.



Adolf Hitler

The Great Depression

During the decade following the end of World War I and the signing of the Versailles treaty, the economies of the leading industrial powers of Europe struggled along, never fully recovering from the devastating effects of the war itself. By 1929, the economies of the world took a deeper plunge when the United States stock market crashed, leaving nations and their leaders to struggle against complete collapse.

The decade of the 1920s was a long, sad song for the economies of most of the powers of Europe, whether they had won or lost the Great War. In Britain, the problem of postwar unemployment was never solved. Never during the twenties did Great Britain have fewer than one million unemployed men. Despite England's leadership during the Industrial Revolution of the 1800s, by the 1920s much of its manufacturing machinery and production systems were out of date.

Other factors continuously hampered the British economic system: fierce competition from abroad—especially from the U.S. and Japan, the cost and losses connected with the Great War, and a decrease in trade between the nations of the British Empire.

Postwar France faced a continuous struggle with its economy. France never fully industrialized and even after World War I, many French businesses, shops, and production facilities were small, their customers limited to the region. The French only mass produced a few items, such as automobiles, paper, and rubber products, such as tires.

Worker wages in France during the 1920s were low. This was due, in part, to the large number of foreigners who lived throughout France and especially in Paris. It is estimated that nearly three million foreign workers—most from Spain, Belgium, and Italy—lived in France during the postwar years, and many of them were unskilled workers who willingly accepted low pay rather than unemployment.

Conversely, despite having lost World War I, and having been strapped with huge reparations, Germany actually entered a phase of economic recovery after the destructive hyper-inflation of 1924. German industry continued the long process of

regearing, designing more of its factories after the American mass production model.

During the final years of the decade, Germany enjoyed relative economic stability. By 1928, the German unemployment figure stood at about 650,000; retail sales were up twenty percent from three years earlier; and the value of real wages was up ten percent over the same time period. However, despite such growth and stability, the German economy remained in need of continuing infusions of American loans. Such loans helped keep Germany on its feet during the years from 1924 to 1929.

During the 1920s, the United States experienced a booming economy. The stock exchange index rose from 67 points in 1921 to nearly twice that level in 1929. It was a period of quick profits through investment in the stock market even for small-time investors.

But the U.S. economy was flawed during the 1920s. Farmers suffered throughout the decade, having overproduced agricultural goods for the war. Factories overproduced consumer goods, overestimating the ability of the average American worker to buy. By 1929, the American economy was becoming shaky.

Review and Write

From your reading of this page, describe a primary economic problem faced by each of the following nations during the 1920s:

Great Britain:

France:

Germany:

United States:

The Depths of the Great Depression

By October of 1929, the artificial bubble of economic growth in America burst. Much of the economic growth of the 1920s in the United States had been misleading. Stock prices were artificially high due to the ability of world-be investors to buy stock on credit.

Those willing to gamble on the market had been able to buy stock by paying only ten percent of the selling price with the broker (the stock selling agent), floating the difference out of his own pocket, while anticipating a growth in the stock. As long as the stock market remained a booming investment (with relatively sure profits), the system worked with everybody involved ending up richer.

But by 1929, the boom of the market was over, investors were becoming leery, and the market began to lose its value. Between June and October, the value of market stocks fell overall by approximately eight percent. During the same months, European farmers experienced abundant crop yields across the continent, lowering the demand for American agricultural products. This decreased the buying power of American farmers, which hurt manufacturers in the U.S.

As the year continued, the decade's overconsumption turned to underconsumption, while manufacturers continued to produce too many goods. All these factors, as well as others, came to a head on October 24, 1929. Called Black Tuesday, almost 13 million shares of stock were traded that day, mostly as sold stock. And the trend continued—within three weeks of Black Tuesday, the value of the stock market dropped from an estimated 87 billion to 30 billion—barely a third of the earlier figure. By March of 1929, the value of those stocks had dropped further to 19 billion dollars.

For the next several years, the economic disaster only worsened. By 1933, the gross national product (the value of all goods and services produced in the

U.S.) had fallen to one-third its 1929 level. In the same year, 13 million Americans—one out of four—were without work.

It took approximately two years for the impact of the Great Depression to make its full impact on

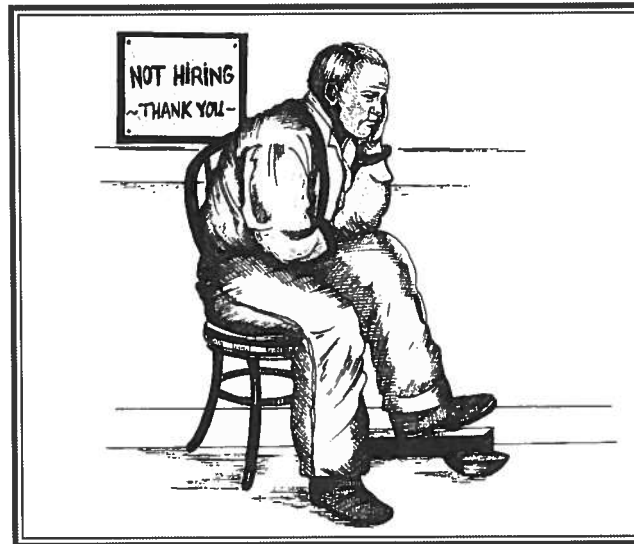
Europe. With the collapse of American investment capital in Europe, the effects were disastrous. By 1931, Britain's unemployment had risen to three million people, nearly 25 percent of the total. The British government did little to help the plight of its citizens who were out of work, hungry, or in danger of losing their homes. The Labor Party-controlled government felt it was better to balance the national budget rather

than to practice deficit spending. By September 1931, the value of the pound had dropped from \$4.86 to \$3.49.

France's economy spiraled down, hitting bottom in 1935. By that year, manufacturing in France hit a level of production lower than it had been prior to World War I. Unemployment was severe, causing approximately 500,000 foreigners to leave the country. The government tried to deal with the economic problems by raising taxes, cutting governmental budgets, and devaluing the franc.

Of the leading nations of Europe, perhaps Germany was hit the hardest. Its economy had recovered somewhat from its earlier depths since 1923, but with the collapse of American loans in 1928–29, the bottom fell out of the German economy. Foreign trade with Germany plummeted to a quarter of its former level. Six million Germans were unemployed.

For several years throughout the 1930s, the nations of the world struggled with their poor economies and the misery of depression. In some nations, these economic challenges encouraged power hungry individuals, such as Adolf Hitler in Germany, who promised to lead the German people out of the depths of economic despair.



Roosevelt and the New Deal

The Great Depression of the 1930s disrupted life in every industrialized nation in the world. It brought a collapse in world trade and caused governments to watch with bewilderment as each year revealed additional economic damage.

Government leaders took few bold steps to combat the Depression, choosing instead to balance their national budgets despite serious declines in national income. States realized that government would have to take a serious leadership role in seeing its people through this great economic calamity. In so doing, European leaders and others provided increases in the number of government jobs and established minimum wages and prices.

One of the leading economists of the time, an Englishman named John Maynard Keynes, supported the idea of government involvement in controlling a state's otherwise free economy during crisis. Keynes said that when poor economic times hit, a government should be ready to engage in deficit spending (spending more than a country's annual income), manipulate interest rates, increase the money supply, and create government public works projects to provide jobs.

One of the best examples of a government applying Keynesian economics during the Great Depression was the United States. When the Depression began in 1929, President Herbert Hoover (1874–1964) was in his first year of office. Despite the increasing severity of the nation's economic problems during his presidency, Hoover remained reluctant to dramatically increase the level of government involvement in the faltering economy. As a result, the Depression worsened until, by 1932, the number of unemployed in the U.S. stood at 12 million workers. By then, hundreds of banks had failed, thousands of businesses had closed their doors, and farmers were unable to sell their produce, causing them to lose their farms.

With the election of 1932, Hoover's presidency

ended, making way for a new approach to the Depression centered in the promises of Hoover's Democratic challenger, Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1882–1945).



Franklin Delano Roosevelt

Roosevelt (often referred to popularly as FDR) believed in the possibilities of Keynesian economics. He pushed through the U.S. Congress a series of acts which created new agencies designed to combat the destructive effects of the Depression. Although not designed as an organized package of legislation, Roosevelt's policies were referred to as the New Deal. FDR and his advisors developed public works programs such as the Public Works Administration (PWA) and the Works Progress (later Work Projects) Administration (WPA) in

1935, which spent 11 billion dollars on creating jobs rather than putting the unemployed on direct relief. Such programs put at least eight million Americans temporarily to work building roads, bridges, dams, and parks, as well as arts projects such as plays, murals, and musical performances.

Other Congressional acts of FDR's New Deal included the Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA), which provided support for farmers; the Federal Housing Administration (FHA), which helped people keep their homes; the National Recovery Administration (NRA), which encouraged fair trade practices by companies and businesses; and the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC); which created jobs for young men including planting trees, building facilities at national and state parks, and fighting forest fires.

Such programs were designed to help rebuild the economy of the nation. The programs had mixed results, and some were declared unconstitutional by the U.S. Supreme Court, including the NRA and AAA. But such policies made Roosevelt popular in America (he was reelected in 1936, 1940, and 1944) and helped to relieve some of the suffering created by the Great Depression.

The Rise of Adolph Hitler

The rise of Adolf Hitler to power over Germany and its people occurred through a systematic series of events—some legal, some not so. That such a man—a bitter, frustrated artist with a passionate patriotism for Germany and an equally fervent hatred for other races and nationalities—could come to power by 1933 speaks to the desperation of the German people seeking answers to their economic problems.

By 1923, Hitler's National Socialist German Workers' Party had a membership of 15,000 men, known as storm troopers. Many of them were out-of-work hoodlums and street-types. Armed with hate—as well as machine guns and other weapons—Hitler's Nazis often took to the streets, wearing brown-shirted uniforms bearing an armband of the swastika emblem, a symbol of party unity, to intimidate Jews, communists, and supporters of western-style democracy.

In November of 1923, Hitler attempted to take over the government of Bavaria. His Beer Hall Putsch (*putsch* is German for “revolution”) was an abject failure, with 16 of his storm troopers killed by Bavarian police. Hitler himself was arrested and sentenced to five years for treason.

During his incarceration, Hitler brooded and wrote his life's story, titled *Mein Kampf* (“My Struggle”). In the book, in which Hitler frequently rambled in almost incoherent fashion, he laid out a blueprint of his political goals and aspirations for the future. Among them was his plan for German domination of Europe, including the recovery of territory lost by Germany under the Versailles treaty following World War I.

In his book, Hitler also expressed his hatred for what he considered to be inferior races, including the Jews. He condemned Jewish people as the cause of Germany's problems: political, social, and economic. Hitler also belittled the democracy of the Weimar

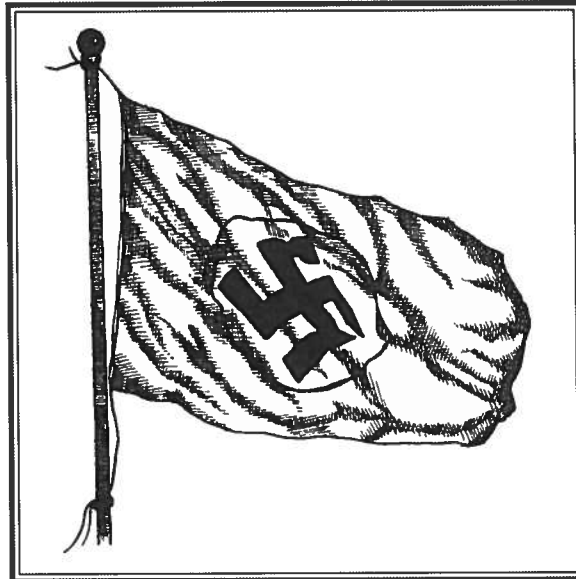
Republic, claiming that such an open society eventually led to an open door for communism. Hitler served less than a year of his sentence before being released from prison. Already he was gaining the support of the German people.

By 1924, the German economy was on its way to recovery. For a while, the government outlawed the Nazi Party until Hitler convinced German officials that he and his followers would never foment revolution again. Hitler then began a campaign to gain support for his party from the business community, labor unions, industrial leaders, and the rural interests. He often lied, telling each interest what they wanted to hear. By 1929, the Nazi Party was the most significant minority political group in Germany.

At the same time, Hitler was further organizing his followers into military units designed to terrorize their enemies. He formed a private army of elite followers, known as the *Schutzstaffel*, commonly known as the SS. Such troops were not just street rowdies—they were a well-trained, well-disciplined political force.

When the collapse of the German economy came in 1930, Hitler was ready to point the finger of blame at Jewish bankers, American capitalists, and Russian communists. He spoke out, as he had for years, against the harshness of the Versailles treaty. His voice became the voice of the German people and his popularity grew with each passing crisis.

By 1932, Hitler's National Socialists had become the most powerful political party in Germany. With the German government in disarray, five elections were held that year. By the July election, the Nazi Party held the most seats in the German government. Hitler then offered to form a Nazi-controlled cabinet. By January 30, 1933, the aging German president, Paul von Hindenburg, named Hitler chancellor (prime minister) of Germany. At last, Hitler's dream of ultimate power had become reality.



Stalin's Soviet Union

Even before Hitler consolidated his control over Germany in the early 1930s, another European dictator had already come to power in Russia. His name was Joseph V. Djugashvili, who became popularly known as Joseph Stalin (1879–1953), a name which translates as “made of steel.”

Having worked his way to the top through the early years of the Communist Revolution of 1917, Stalin fought for control of the revolution after Lenin's death in 1924. His main rival was another high Communist Party official, Leon Trotsky. By 1926, Stalin had driven Trotsky from his position as a Communist Party official. In 1929, Stalin ordered Trotsky to leave Russia altogether.

As Stalin prepared to take complete control of the further direction of the Russian Revolution, he moved the Soviet people into an era noted for abuse, absolute government control, and political murder.

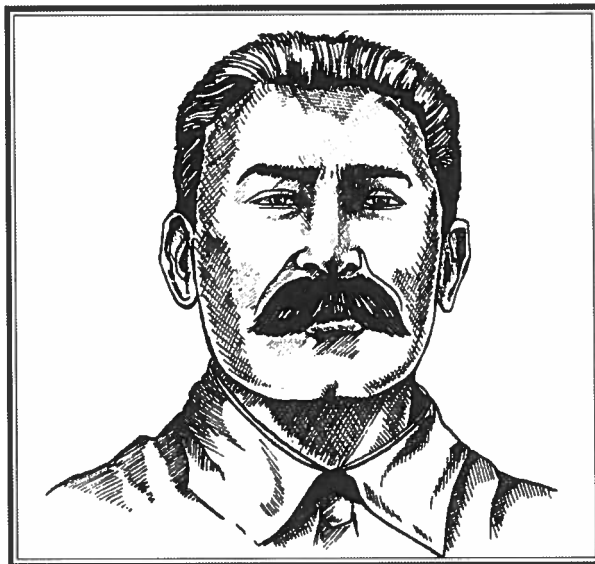
To an extent, Joseph Stalin began what might be called the Second Russian Revolution. It was much more extremist and reactionary than the phase from 1917 to the late 1920s. Stalin was a man of caution, cunning, and calculation. He was cruel and heartless, murdering anyone who appeared to stand in his way or might prove a later threat. (Stalin's agents probably arranged Trotsky's murder in Mexico City in 1940.)

Not only did he order the deaths of those outside the Communist Party, but occasionally purged, or ordered the removal and deaths, of party officials whom he no longer trusted. During the 1930s alone, Stalin's secret police killed hundreds of thousands of Communist Party members. His dictatorship throughout the 1930s, 40s, until the 50s, helped to create—in Russia and the Soviet republics—a state in which Stalin embodied all power.

One of Stalin's great struggles during his years as Soviet premier was the state's economy. He organized a series of Five Year Plans to help create a productive communist state. During his first such plan, Stalin hoped to increase the Soviets' base of industrialization. This first Five Year Plan did manage to double the level of Russian manufacturing. A second plan focused on increasing the Soviet Union's level of technology. Stalin's involvement in World War II interrupted his third plan. Such plans, however, were pursued with such vigor and forcefulness that Stalin's Soviet Union managed, by 1940, to rise to a position of third largest industrial producer in the world, behind the United States and Germany. By 1939, all industrial manufacturing in the Soviet Union was owned and controlled by the state.

Stalin also attempted to revolutionize Soviet agricultural output. By the mid-1930s, the Soviet Union had turned nearly all Soviet farms into socialist cooperatives. To achieve this, Stalin's agents scoured the countryside, forcing peasants to cooperate in killing those who refused to turn their privately owned land over to the state-controlled collectives. (A collective was a business or farm owned by a group for the equal good of all involved.) Perhaps millions of peasant farmers were killed during this period. Also, peasant protest of collectivism caused them to destroy fields and kill their own livestock.

By 1933, the Soviet Union had lost half of its livestock at the hands of uncooperative peasants. Yet collective farming survived. The Soviet Union, under Stalin's control, became a harsh regime which controlled the lives of its citizens on every level. Many of the average peasants were convinced of the necessity of the on-going revolution through continuous propaganda campaigns.



Joseph Stalin

Test I

Part I. Matching (Worksheets 1–6)

Match the answers to the right with the statement on the left.

- | | |
|---|----------------------|
| _____ 1. Woodrow Wilson's plan for peace and a new Europe after World War I | A. Michael Collins |
| _____ 2. First woman elected to Britain's House of Commons | B. Maginot line |
| _____ 3. Irish nationalist organization | C. Spartacists |
| _____ 4. Leader of the Irish Republican Army in the early 1920s | D. Fourteen Points |
| _____ 5. French premier following World War I | E. Friedrich Ebert |
| _____ 6. French defensive placements which included underground bunkers | F. Aristide Briand |
| _____ 7. U.S. president elected in 1920 | G. Viscountess Astor |
| _____ 8. Constitutional ban on alcohol in America in the 1920s | H. Weimar |
| _____ 9. German communist organization which tried to take power in 1919 | I. Warren Harding |
| _____ 10. Name of the German republic established after World War I | J. Black and Tans |
| _____ 11. First German president following World War I | K. Prohibition |
| _____ 12. British police who battled the Irish IRA in the 1920s | L. Sinn Fein |

Part II. Matching (Worksheets 7–13)

- | | |
|---|-----------------------|
| _____ 1. Fascist leader who took power in Italy in 1925 | A. march on Rome |
| _____ 2. Imperial Roman symbol adopted by the Fascists | B. Franklin Roosevelt |
| _____ 3. Event in 1922 which allowed the Fascists to form an Italian cabinet | C. John Keynes |
| _____ 4. Organizer of the National Socialist German Workers' Party | D. Mussolini |
| _____ 5. Date of the beginning of the U.S. stock market crash of 1929 | E. Beer Hall Putsch |
| _____ 6. British economist who encouraged states to deficit spend during crises | F. Black Tuesday |
| _____ 7. U.S. president elected in 1932 | G. New Deal |
| _____ 8. Policies adopted by the U.S. Congress to combat the Depression | H. Five Year Plans |
| _____ 9. Hitler's 1923 attempt to overthrow the Bavarian government | I. Joseph Stalin |
| _____ 10. Hitler's autobiography | J. Adolf Hitler |
| _____ 11. Soviet leader from 1926 until 1953 | K. Mein Kampf |
| _____ 12. Economic programs of the Soviet Union through the 1920s and 1930s | L. fasces |

Part III. Respond and Write

How did the post-World War I dictators Mussolini, Hitler, and Stalin rise to power? What similarities do you see? What differences?

The Road to World War II

Within a generation of the end of World War I, Europe and the world at large were once again at war, a conflict which became the largest conflict in the history of the world—World War II. The events which led to World War II actually help link the two conflicts together. Circumstances created by the First World War set the stage for another conflict down the road.

One such circumstance was the peace conference which hammered out the agreement following World War I—the Versailles treaty. This treaty condemned the Germans harshly, blaming them for WW I, leveling against them payments of billions of gold marks as war damages, thereby crippling Germany's struggling postwar economy. The Versailles treaty also ordered the near destruction of the German military, leaving the German state unable to defend itself from outside aggression.

Many Germans chafed under the Versailles agreement, considering it unfair and vindictive. They dreamed of the day when Germany could again rise up and stand against the confines of Versailles. During the early 1930s, the German people saw in Hitler's vision of a new Germany, one of power and strength. In some ways, the 1930s is a story of how World War II came about.

The story begins with aggression, not in Europe, but in Asia. In September 1931, the Japanese attacked the state of Manchuria, located north of and claimed by China. When the Chinese called on the League of Nations to condemn the Japanese for their attacks, the League only criticized the Japanese government, but did little more. When the League acted weakly to such obvious aggression, others believed they could do the same.

Adolf Hitler was one of them. By 1933, Hitler withdrew Germany from membership in the League

of Nations. Two years later, he condemned the Versailles treaty, calling for Germany to rearm its military once again.

Hitler then systematically set about to re-create the German military. He revived a draft and began building a new army of nearly 500,000 men. The League of Nations protested, but did little more. A cautious Britain and France joined together once again in a military alliance, in case of war.

And Germany was not to be alone in creating a new era of war. Mussolini, fascist leader of Italy, invaded the

African country of Ethiopia (then Abyssinia) in October of 1935. Shield-bearing natives soon found themselves facing tanks, bombs, and poison gas. Again, the League of Nations sanctioned Italy, but did next to nothing. In addition,

England and France did little to stop the Italians and their aggression. (By 1937,

Mussolini withdrew Italy from the League of Nations, ending any interest he might have had in the struggling

organization.)

With each passing year, Hitler, too, became increasingly bold. In March 1936, the German leader sent troops into the Rhineland—rich, fertile German lands which had been controlled by the Allies since World War I. This move was a direct violation of the Versailles treaty.

This move was a risky one for Hitler and his new army. At that time, the western democracies, such as England and France, had the military power to stop Hitler in his tracks. In fact, Hitler was so desperate to avoid a direct conflict with the French military that he had given orders to his commanders to withdraw from the Rhineland at the slightest hint that France might mobilize against Germany. That mobilization did not materialize. With each passing move, the potential for a wider war in Europe loomed larger and larger.



The Fascists Extend Their Power

Throughout the 1920s and 1930s, the ruthless leaders in Europe and Asia took bold steps to extend their power. Under the direction of their war lords, the Japanese invaded Manchuria, Mussolini sent Italian troops against the Ethiopians, and Adolf Hitler violated the Versailles treaty by reoccupying the demilitarized Rhineland. Throughout the early 1930s, none of the western powers—Great Britain, France, even the United States—took a significant stand against such aggression.

By 1936, other ruthless men, however, continued to control events. In July, Spain faced civil war, as a weak Spanish republic fought against right-wing fascists led by General Francisco Franco (1892–1975). Once again, Britain and France declared their neutrality and convinced other European powers to do the same.

However, Hitler and Mussolini agreed to help their fellow fascist Franco by sending war supplies, troops, and airplanes to crush Republican forces. By 1938, Franco had come to power with the aid of power hungry men.

During 1936, Mussolini and Hitler formed a military alliance called the Rome-Berlin axis. This treaty created an agreement in which the two conspirators were determined to rule Europe jointly in the future. The “axis” was to be the center, around which all the other nations would revolve, just as the earth rotates on its axis. Although Mussolini had been critical of Hitler’s march into the Rhineland, the two agreed to cooperate.

Before the year closed, Germany made a similar alliance with Japan—the so-called Anti-Comintern (Anti-Communist) Pact (which Italy joined in 1937). By such agreements, Europe and the world began dividing into two conflicting camps.

By 1938, Adolf Hitler took personal command of all German forces and prepared to send them

into neighboring countries, not just formerly occupied German territory. His first target was Austria to the south. (In 1934, Austrian National Socialists had murdered the Austrian chancellor in a failed coup attempt.) Germany’s takeover of Austria was bloodless. Hitler summoned the Austrian premier to meet with him and forced him to admit Austrian Nazis to his cabinet. When

Premier Schuschnigg resigned, Hitler moved in troops who met with no opposition. On March 13, Germany annexed Austria. With the occupation of Austria, Germany was now in position to attack Hungary, Italy, Yugoslavia, and Czechoslovakia.

Following the annexation of Austria, Hitler continued his campaign of aggression. His next target was the western portion of Czechoslovakia, a region known as the Sudetenland. Hitler claimed that the region should be controlled by Germany since it was home to approximately three million Germans.

Czechoslovakia attempted to fight against German control of any of its land. Tension rose as German troops were moved to the Czech border. The British navy began to mobilize. France was watching closely. War seemed close at hand.

To avoid war, a conference was held in September 1938, in Munich, Germany, attended by Hitler, Mussolini, the French premier Daladier and the British prime minister, Neville Chamberlain. At the meeting, Hitler promised to annex no more territory if given control of the Sudetenland. Daladier and Chamberlain agreed.

This appeasement of Adolf Hitler was considered necessary in the fall of 1938 to avoid general world war across Europe. Upon his return to England, Prime Minister Chamberlain announced in Britain that the agreement, known as the Munich pact, represented “peace in our time.”



Francisco Franco

Nazi Terror and Control

The promise delivered by Adolf Hitler at Munich to stop seizing European territory in the future soon proved a false one. Although British prime minister Neville Chamberlain tried to convince the British people and the world that the surrender of the Sudetenland was necessary to avoid war, others did not agree. Winston Churchill (1874–1965), then a member of the British Parliament and destined to be prime minister, spoke against the Munich Accords, branding them a defeat for democratic Europe.

But such moves and negotiations made Hitler even more popular with the German people. He worked his magic at Munich, forcing the great powers of England and France to give into his demands. (Czechoslovakia had not even been allowed to attend the Munich conference!)

By annexing the Sudetenland, Hitler no longer faced serious challenge from the Czech military, a significant force at the time. This western region of Czechoslovakia was home to nearly 75 percent of all Czech steel mills and coal mines. From the spring to fall of 1938, Hitler added ten million under German control without having to resort to direct war.

Although France and Great Britain had hoped that Hitler's appetite for territory would be satisfied with the Sudetenland, they soon discovered they were wrong. By March of 1939, Hitler sent his military forces to occupy the rest of Czechoslovakia.

Even at home, Hitler continued his policy of aggression. Two months after the signing of the Munich Accords, Hitler launched a domestic campaign across Germany against the Jews. His agents and fellow Nazis began a systematic persecution of all Jewish people, ordering them to register with the government. Eventually, this policy of racial hatred led the National Socialists to build work and slave camps, as well as death camps where all those deemed by Hitler "undesirable"—including Jews, Slavs, communists, gypsies, and others—were sent.

During Hitler's 12 years in power, from 1933 to 1945, the Jews were the Nazi's primary target of hatred. During the 1930s, the policy of intimidation and humiliation of the Jews was replaced by the building of the slave and death camps. Here, approximately ten million people died, including six million Jews, a policy known as the Final Solution.

To the Nazis, absolute control and intimidation was an important aspect of the fascist-controlled state. Hitler organized several extensive organizations within the National Socialist Party to ensure that few, if any, challenged his power in Germany or in states which came under Nazi control.

This pattern of terrorist organizations began in 1922 when Hitler organized his *Sturmabteilung* (the "Storm Troops"), known commonly as the SA, whose uniforms included the distinctive brown shirts. In 1926, another Nazi

power organization was created, the SS, known officially as the *Schutzstaffel*, or "Security Guards." Originally, the SS was a branch of the SA, but by the 1930s, the two organizations had split. Such groups practiced intimidation, beatings, torture, kidnapping, and murder for their own political ends.

When Hitler came to power in 1933, he formed a secret state police force, called the *Geheime Staatspolizei*, or the "Gestapo." Designed to intimidate the populace and arrest anyone suspected of anti-Nazi activity, the Gestapo had a branch organization called the SD, or *Sicherheitsdienst*. This was the Security Service which infiltrated every branch of the German government to help the Nazis maintain power and expose alleged enemies of the party. Such organizations reveal how fundamental hate was within the Nazi organization.



Herman Goering

Research and Write

Using outside sources, write 250 words about the Nazi death camp at Auschwitz.

World War II Begins

When Adolf Hitler sent troops against Czechoslovakia, he violated the promise he made at the Munich conference. There he had promised to end his campaign of land annexation if only France and Great Britain would give him the green light to annex the western portion of the Czech Republic, the region known as the Sudetenland.

However, Hitler invaded and occupied Czechoslovakia in March 1939. That year proved significant in the history of the conflict which would in time be referred to as World War II. Nazi aggression continued throughout 1939, as well as the expansion of other totalitarian states such as Italy, Japan, and Russia.

But Hitler's annexation of the whole of Czechoslovakia did not go unnoticed or fail to bring about cries of protest. The British prime minister, Neville Chamberlain, who had negotiated with Hitler at Munich, realized he had been lied to and publicly chastised the German leader before the House of Commons.

On March 31, 1939, Chamberlain made it clear that Great Britain would not stand by in the future and allow Hitler to invade other states without punishment. The prime minister stated that if Germany invaded Poland at some later date, both the democratic nations of England and France would intervene against Germany.

Chamberlain's challenge caused Hitler to respond angrily. But he remained unconvinced that either Britain or France would declare war on Germany over Poland.

As the tense weeks of spring passed, other invasions took place. Italy attacked the tiny, defenseless nation of Albania on the Adriatic coast on Good Friday, April 7, 1939. Mussolini's occupation of Albania did not draw the attention of the western democracies, however. They considered the real threat to the future security of Europe to be Adolf Hitler. (Mussolini actually invaded Albania, in part, because of his jealousy over Adolf Hitler's successes against neighboring nation-states.)

Despite threats from England and France, Hitler continued his preparations for the invasion of Poland. By April 3, 1939, he instructed his generals to set the date for the Polish invasion for September 1. Once again, Hitler targeted a struggling democracy as his next victim. But Hitler's plans for invading Poland had one serious potential in his mind. Since Poland's eastern neighbor was Russia, a German invasion might bring direct conflict between the communist state and Hitler's armies.

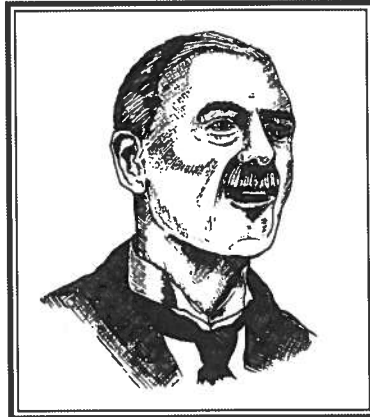
In anticipation of Germany's invasion plans against Poland, Great Britain's leaders attempted to court Russia as a possible ally against Hitler. Their efforts were lukewarm at best, however, and no alliance was formed in the summer of 1939 between England and Russia.

Instead, Joseph Stalin, the Russian leader, made his own contacts with Hitler. Stalin was not much interested at

that point in allying his state with the western democratic powers, especially after they allowed Hitler at Munich to annex the Sudetenland.

Stalin knew Germany would one day invade Poland. For that reason, the Russian leader suggested a Nonaggression Pact, which was agreed to on August 23, 1939. This agreement eliminated (or so it was thought) any future possibility of Germany and Russia going to war against each other. Both Stalin and Hitler were pleased with the agreement.

This treaty cleared the way for Hitler's invasion of Poland. Within one week of their agreement, Hitler sent his armies into Poland. That date—September 1, 1939—is used to mark the beginning of World War II. And the invasion sparked a dramatic expansion of involved powers. As promised, England and France both declared war on Germany on September 3.



Neville Chamberlain

Research and Write

Using information on these pages and from outside sources, create a timeline of events leading to the start of World War II.

Early Victories for Germany

World War II was the greatest conflict in the history of warfare. It was a bloody struggle resulting in the deaths of millions of people, both military and civilian. The war was worldwide in scope, with major campaigns and battles taking place from Europe to Asia, Australia to Africa, the Pacific to the Atlantic.

Unlike its predecessor, World War I, it was not limited to trench warfare. It was a highly mobile conflict involving infantry and armored divisions which moved with furious speed (in German, such movements were referred to as *blitzkrieg*, meaning “lightning war”). World War II was fought with the latest technologies, many of which were invented during the war itself, including radar, jet planes, intercontinental rockets, and the atomic bomb.

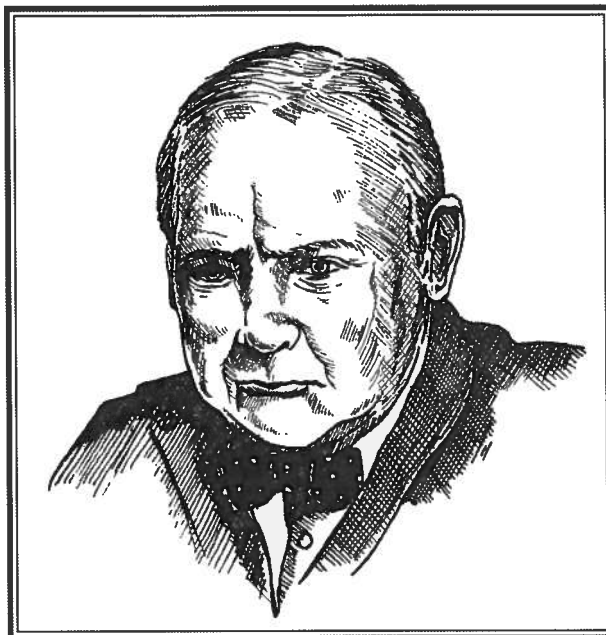
Although the war was fought largely to contain and defeat the spread of fascism in Europe and Asia, it brought together unlikely allies including the western democracies and Soviet communists. And after the war itself was over—signaled by the defeats of Italy, Germany, and eventually Japan—the alliance which brought these powers to their knees did not continue. Instead, the west—led by Britain, the U.S., and France—soon perceived another enemy—their former ally, the Soviet Union, which began to systematically take control of the nations of eastern Europe.

Following the German invasion of Poland on September 1, 1939, the Russians also invaded from the east. By the end of the month, the two powers agreed to partition Poland between them. Two months later, the Soviet Union invaded Finland; by March 1940, the small nation was defeated, surrendering 16,000 square miles of territory to the Russians.

Despite their declarations of war on Germany after the Polish invasion, neither France nor Great

Britain moved immediately against Germany. Both were unprepared for war and settled into a defensive posture.

Meanwhile, Germany continued its assaults. In April 1940, Germany invaded and occupied Denmark and attacked cities in Norway. Later that spring, the Nazi war machine rolled into Belgium



Winston Churchill

and the Netherlands on its way to France. The Germans were able to accomplish a string of such victories by using their infantry, armored ground divisions, and air strikes in a highly coordinated and rapid fashion. As long as the Soviet Union stayed out of the war against Germany, Hitler could concentrate on a single front, which ultimately led him to the streets of Paris. By the summer of 1940, Nazi troops were seen marching in the French capital.

This defeat of the French left the British as the only viable force still facing Germany. Hitler expected them to sue for peace, but the British were led by a newly elected prime minister named Winston Churchill, who vowed that his nation would never surrender. Through the summer of 1940, the courageous island of Britain struggled against Nazi air invasion. The Battle of Britain was finally won by the Royal Air Force, which downed hundreds of German aircraft. By September, the raids had failed to defeat Churchill and his people.

Over the next eight months, the war centered on the Mediterranean region. Italy's involvement in the war threatened England's naval dominance in the east Mediterranean. Serious fighting took place across northern Africa from 1940 to 1941, and the fate of the region was not clearly decided until 1942.

By the summer of 1941, however, Hitler was preparing another invasion which would prove to be one of his costliest mistakes.

The Scope of the War Expands

Although Hitler and Stalin had both agreed not to attack each other in August of 1939, Hitler never intended to live up to the agreement. Despite his campaigns across western and eastern Europe, Hitler's hatred of communism and his immense thirst for power and empire caused him to make plans for an eventual invasion of the Soviet Union.

The German leader began his campaign against Russia by first attacking the Balkan states, on April 16, 1941. Hitler's Balkan campaign was intended to later protect the left flank of his Russian invasion forces. (It also gave relief to Mussolini's disastrous campaign against Greece.) Hitler's primary target in this campaign was Yugoslavia, which had earlier sided with Germany and the Axis powers and later declared its neutrality. The Yugoslavian capital of Belgrade was nearly destroyed by Nazi air and ground attacks.

Two months after invading the Balkans, Hitler's war machine launched a massive offensive against the Soviet Union, including 150 divisions of men, tanks, and air support. Hitler's plan had assumed that the surrender of Russia would come by early fall. But the Russians proved a better foe than the German leader had expected. Although the German campaign slowed, after six months, Germans were within a few miles of Moscow.

On December 6, 1941, the Soviet premier, Joseph Stalin, ordered a massive counteroffensive against the Nazis. The early success of this counterattack managed to push the Germans back by 200 miles. But Hitler's forces were far from being defeated.

The next day, a significant invasion was occurring elsewhere involving other world powers. On the morning of December 7, 1941, Japanese forces attacked the naval and army bases located on the Hawaiian island of Oahu. The Japanese had been preparing and planning their surprise for months. Dozens of American naval ships were destroyed at Pearl Harbor—including several key battleships—as well as nearly 2500 sailors, soldiers,

and civilians.

With the attack by the Japanese at Pearl Harbor, the United States soon joined the Allies in their war efforts. The U.S. Congress declared war on Japan on December 8 at the request of President Franklin Roosevelt.

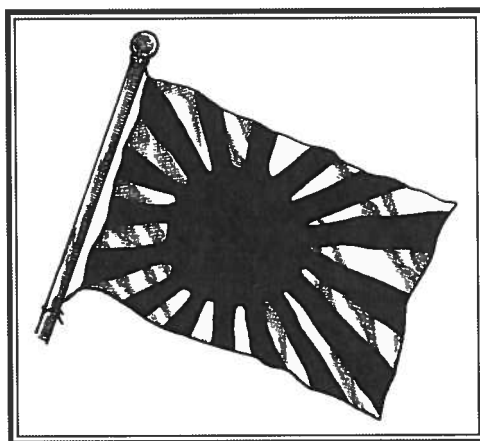
Japan not only attacked United States soil on December 7, but also launched a series of assaults over the following days and weeks—conquering Hong Kong (December 25, 1941), Manila (January 2, 1942), Singapore (February 15, 1942), and the Philippines in May of 1942.

After the U.S. declaration of war against Japan, Germany and Italy declared war on the U.S. on December 11. Before the day was over, the Congress had declared war on both powers. As the scope of the war enlarged with the entrance of the United States into the conflict, the Russian campaign continued on.

By late spring of 1942, the Allied powers were still struggling. Most of Europe was under the control of the German military machine. Russia was still facing strong German thrusts. The United States had not yet recovered fully from the Pearl Harbor attack (and had not been prepared for war even before the bombings at Hawaii). And Hitler's submarines were menacing the British Navy, bringing about serious casualties and ship losses for Great Britain.

There were bright spots for the Allies, however, during 1942. Hitler's Russian campaign ran out of gas during that destructive year of war. When, during the summer, German military units attempted to take control of Soviet oil fields in the Caucasus, they also began to lay siege to the city of Stalingrad.

Although the German Sixth Army came close to victory at Stalingrad, the Russians held out until the arrival of winter, which left the Germans stranded. When Hitler ordered his troops to take Stalingrad or die, the German soldiers there were doomed. By February 1943, Germany had lost the upper hand in the Russian campaign and 500,000 men lost their lives to combat, starvation, and cold.



1943: A Year of Turning Points

By the summer of 1942, the Allies were starting to rebound from their losses of the previous year and of the first six months of 1942.

The British held out in North Africa despite the relentless drives of Germany's great tank commander, General Erwin Rommel (1891–1944).

By October 1942, the British tank commander, General B. L. Montgomery (1887–1976), brought defeat to Germany's Africa Korps at the battle of El Alamein. In November, British and American forces landed in North Africa—a wide-ranging assault plan called Operation Torch—and, by May 1943, brought about the defeat of the Germans in North Africa.

By May 1942, the course of war in the Pacific was turning in favor of the Allies as well. United States naval forces defeated the Japanese in the Battle of the Coral Sea on May 7. The next month, Japanese and American aircraft carriers squared off in the Battle of Midway (June 4–7). The U.S. sank four Japanese carriers—a turning point in the war for the Allies, as was the removal of German forces from North Africa.

On the Atlantic Ocean, the tide was also turning. By 1943, the Allies were using radar and sonar to detect enemy ships and submarines. Germany lost dozens of submarines in the spring of the year, including 40 in May alone. From October until year's end, the German navy lost 53 submarines at the hands of the Allies. (During those months, only 47 merchant ships were lost.) Meanwhile, American shipyards were building merchant ships faster than the enemy could destroy them.

In 1943, the Allied nations extended their bombing of Germany from the air, a trend which continued until the war's end. Allied planes, mostly British and American, dropped 120,000 tons of bombs on German and other targets. In 1944, the Allies dropped five times that figure. And in the first four months of 1945, the final months of the European-based war, the Allies pounded German targets with half a million tons of aerial bombs.

Despite a literally “round-the-clock” schedule for Allied bombing missions during the last two years of the European war, 75 percent of all German

manufacturing and industrial plants were still in operation at war's end.

By the summer of 1943, the Axis nations were losing the war, having been defeated in Russia at Stalingrad and in North Africa. The Japanese had lost the offensive by 1943 and the U.S. navy was busily engaged in an extensive offensive operation. Yet the war would drag on for another two years.

Once the Germans were defeated in North Africa, the Allies developed a plan of assault to the north. The plan was to invade the island of Sicily, (located off the toe of the boot of the Italian peninsula), and to use that site as a springboard to the Italian mainland. The assault against Axis forces at Sicily began on July 10, 1943. In just over five weeks, the campaign was won. The success of the Allied invasion of Sicily helped bring about the ouster of Mussolini. (Over the next two years, Mussolini would further discredit himself by serving as a Hitler-controlled ruler of northern Italy until he was killed by Italian partisans in April of 1945.)

With Sicily firmly in Allied hands, an invasion of the Italian mainland was not far away. On September 2, 1943, the Allies landed along the beaches of southern Italy, bringing about the official surrender of the Italian government by the next day. Yet divisions of tenacious German troops attempted to slow the Allied advance through Italy. Over the next nine months, the Allies fought hard battles against seasoned German troops. Although the Allies occupied and liberated Rome by June 4, 1944, the German forces in Italy did not completely surrender until May of 1945.

Research and Write

Write 100 words describing the fighting which took place at any of the following sites: Anzio, Cassino, Midway, Coral Sea, or El Alamein.

The Allied Drive Continues

As the war continued through 1943 and 1944, the Allies found themselves on the offensive in nearly every theater of combat, from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Hitler's misplaced campaign against Russia caused the German military serious losses in manpower and equipment—losses from which they never fully recovered. Even after the Russians finally broke the German siege at Stalingrad in January 1943, Hitler ordered another offensive two months later.

But the possibilities for ultimate German victory against the Soviets had already died in the harsh Russian winter of 1942–43. The Russians turned the German offensive around and went on the counter-offensive by July. Before year's end, the Russians had pushed the Germans out of nearly all remaining strongholds in the Soviet Union.

Several factors made this Russian campaign successful. The German army was at a crisis point in morale. Hitler often rendered his generals ineffectual, refusing to allow them to make independent mistakes without his input. Their Russian counterparts had complete independence in the field, allowing them to respond faster and more decisively than the Germans. In addition, the Russians, by 1943, simply had more available equipment than did the Germans.

Through the American Lend-Lease Program, U.S.-produced war material was delivered to the Allies—including the Soviet Union—in staggering quantities. By the end of 1943, Lend-Lease materials to the Russians included 8,000 airplanes, 5,000 tanks, and 170,000 trucks, plus food and medicines. By the summer of 1944, the Soviets outnumbered the Germans in the field by three to one and had an equipment advantage of five to one. By the end of the summer, the Germans had been forced out of the Soviet Union altogether and the

Russians pursued them across Poland and Romania, all the way to Germany itself.

But the greatest military feat of the summer of 1944 was the long-planned liberation invasion of France by the Allied armies. This campaign—code-named *Operation Overlord*—was developed by the supreme commander of all Allied forces, General

Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890–1969). For many months prior to its launch, all the elements needed for a successful amphibious attack from bases in England to the northern French coast were assembled. In all, the Allied effort was to include 5,000 ships, over 12,000 aircraft, and hundreds of thousands of men.

On June 6, 1944—D-Day—the invasion began. Although the Germans had known such an attack across the English Channel would come eventually, they did not know when or where. Thus, they did all they could prior to the assault to guarantee Allied failure once it did come. Gun



Dwight Eisenhower

emplacement and protective concrete bunkers sprouting machine guns were erected along the coastal cliffs along French shores. The beach waters were crowded with barbed wire and explosives, as well as anti-assault barriers.

Despite all such challenges, Eisenhower's D-Day plans were successful. By June 10 (D-Day plus four) British, American, and Canadian forces had landed thousands of troops along 80 miles of Normandy coast and had moved inland by as many as 20 miles. By D-Day plus seven, the Allies had landed over 500,000 men and 90,000 tons of supplies and support vehicles. In addition, another 500,000 Free French forces joined the Allies. By August, the Allied invaders had turned back the Germans, occupying and liberating the city of Paris, which had been under Nazi control for four years.

Allied Victory Comes in Europe

The success of the Allied invasion of France's Normandy coast in June 1944 further signaled the victory of the Allied powers over Germany and Hitler's Third Reich. But the war would continue for almost another year before the German surrender materialized.

With the liberation of France, Hitler ordered the first military use of Germany's newly designed *Vengeance Bombs*. These weapons were a form of rocket, consisting of a jet plane carrying no pilot and a ton of explosives in the nose. Popularly known as the "V-1," these deadly weapons rained down on targets in Britain, especially the city of London.

Britain responded by ordering bombing missions against the factories which manufactured the V-1. In addition, British planes attempted to shoot down the V-1s during their approach to the British Isles. In just a few months, Hitler's technicians delivered a new model, the V-2, a true rocket which hurtled through the sky at supersonic speeds, traveled silently and hit its target without the slightest warning. In the months of their use, the V-1 and V-2 weapons resulted in the deaths of 8000 people, nearly all of them in London.

But the Allies were not daunted by these weapons. Before the end of the summer, the German military high command understood that the war was a lost cause for Germany. But Hitler could not be convinced. A group of German generals plotted against Hitler and attempted to assassinate the Nazi leader. But the July 20 bombing scheme failed and the conspirators were killed.

On the battle front, the war continued. By August, the Allies had established a second French invasion site, in southern France. From there, Allied armies pushed toward Germany, crossing the border in September. Hitler, desperate to turn the tide, attempted a last ditch, major offensive near year's end. In December, the Battle of the Bulge (December 16–25) took place. The Germans hit the Allied line hard in several key places and managed, for a short period, to push part of the Allied line back. But the offensive was too little, too late. Before year's end, the Allies had turned the German assault strategy back around.

Through the late winter and early spring of 1945, the Allied efforts brought the close of the war in Europe closer with each passing day. United States tank units, under the command of General George S. Patton (1885–1945) moved along speedily throughout the winter months, finally reaching the Rhine River (the German border) in March 1945, discovering a bridge at Remagen which the Germans had failed to destroy.

In April, the final weeks of the European conflict witnessed the further advance of invading American, British, and Canadian troops into western and southern Germany. At the same time, the Russians were advancing on the city of Berlin. On the 12th, the American public was shocked when they heard of the death of their president. Franklin Roosevelt died of a cerebral hemorrhage.

A week later, the Russians entered the German capital, Berlin. After 11 days of street fighting, which took Russian troops from house to house, the city lay in ruins. Deep under its streets, in his personal bunker, the German leader, Adolf Hitler, committed suicide by taking poison and shooting himself in the head on April 30, 1945. A week later, German leaders surrendered to the Allies on May 7, 1945. The war in Europe was over.

Research and Write

Despite a long succession of victories for the Allies by 1944, Hitler still held out for another year. From your reading of these pages and outside sources, how was Germany able to hold out as long as it did?

Axis and Allied Leaders: Biographies

Research and Write

World War II witnessed the leadership of Adolf Hitler, Benito Mussolini, Winston Churchill, Joseph Stalin, and FDR. Each man made his contribution to the war, as either an Allied or Axis power. Among these men were villains and heroes, and some of them might qualify as both.

In the spaces provided below, write a short biography, hitting the highlights of each of these World War II leaders. Include years of birth and death, and some of the important events of their lives.

Adolf Hitler

Benito Mussolini

Winston Churchill

Franklin D. Roosevelt

Joseph Stalin

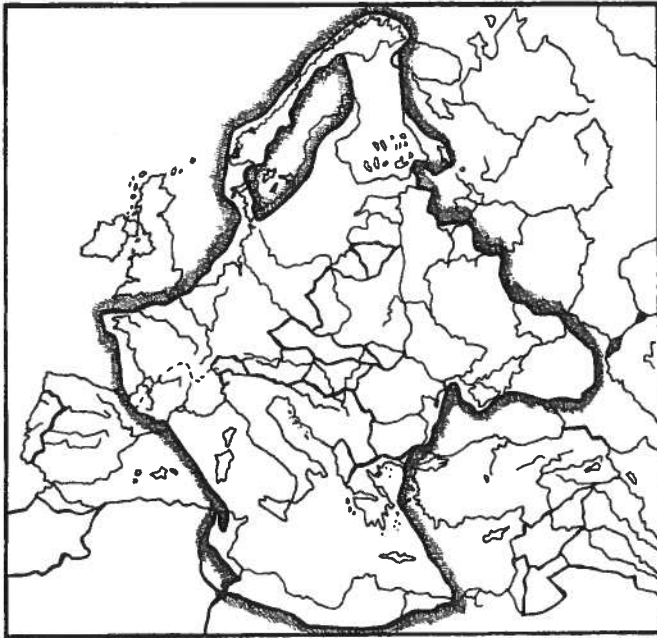
Axis Aggression: A Map Study

September 1, 1939 marks the date of the official beginning of World War II. But the aggression of Germany, Italy, and Japan began even earlier than that. Throughout the early years of the war, the Axis powers, especially Japan and Germany, were responsible for the invasions and annexations of

dozens of states, nations, and island groups from Europe to the South Pacific.

Ambitious and greedy leaders such as Hitler, Mussolini, and the Japanese warlords, led by Hideki Tojo (1884–1948), attempted to extend their national influence with brute, military force.

Europe 1942



Map Exercise I

The map at left reveals the extent of Nazi control over the nations of Europe by 1942.

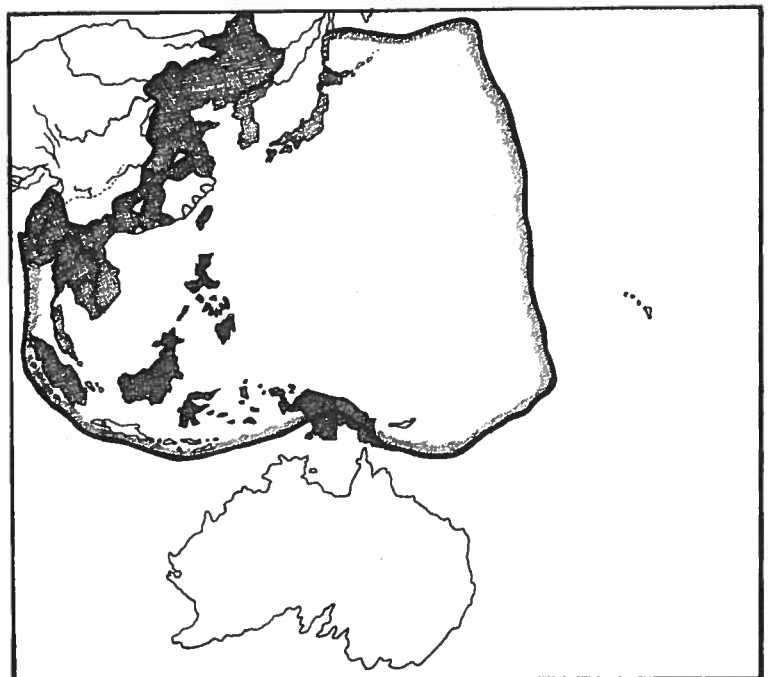
List below as many nations as you can which fell under German occupation.

Map Exercise II

The map at right reveals the furthest extent of Japanese control over the region of the Pacific and Asia by 1942.

List below as many nations as you can which fell under Japanese control.

The Pacific 1942



The Holocaust

As Allied armies descended on Germany in the latter months of the war, a horrible reality came to light. As British, American, and Russian armies swept through Poland and Germany, they discovered the gruesome evidence of the Nazi concentration camps, or death camps, where mass exterminations of “undesirables” had been taking place for years.

During those years, rumors had circulated throughout Europe of the existence of such facilities, built by the dozens by German companies employed by the Nazis. Adolf Hitler had incorporated his own personal brand of hatred toward those he considered of inferior race. When writing his biography, *Mein Kampf*, in the 1920s, Hitler had expressed his loathing for the Jewish race and had advocated persecution. During the 1930s, he repeated his dislike and contempt when delivering his speeches.

In early 1939, six years after becoming Germany’s leader, the Fuehrer announced to the members of the Reichstag that the Jews would be destroyed as a race during the approaching European war. Hitler’s rabid racism stemmed not only from his sense of Jewish inferiority, but from his belief in German superiority. Through his hatred, Hitler formed his program of destruction, which was known as the *Final Solution*.

The German government, led by the National Socialists, helped to bring Hitler’s dream of a master race to life. The Nazis began their campaign by harassing German Jews. Laws were passed restricting their business practices, where they could live, and forced them to register with the government. Over the years, as Hitler’s armies marched into neighboring nations and beyond, the local Jewish population was typically rounded up and forced to work, many of them shipped to the newly constructed concentration camps where the Jews and other persecuted peoples found a miserable existence of oppression, slave labor, and mass

executions. (Although Hitler’s primary targets for destruction were the Jews, the slave and death camps became home for Slavic peoples, gypsies, Poles, Russian Communists who were prisoners of war, the mentally ill, the handicapped, and others.)

By the war’s end, millions of victims were sent to the German concentration camps, many by train, packed into cattle and box cars. Once in the camps, the inmates were either forced to labor for the Nazis, or they were subjected to medical experimentation. The others were executed, many in specially constructed gas chambers. The Polish camp at Sobibor was the sight of nearly a quarter million executions, most by carbon monoxide poisoning, provided by exhaust fumes from German vans. This primitive poisoning system was later replaced, first at the

notorious death camp at Auschwitz-Birkenau, by gas chambers made to resemble large shower facilities, filled with a poison known as Zyklon-B (a form of Prussic gas).

The numbers of people killed during the Holocaust is an appalling figure. Millions were forced to their deaths in the Nazi camps. In Auschwitz, perhaps the worst of the camps, 1.1 million people were killed. In all, perhaps ten million lost their lives in these systematic extermination facilities. Of that figure, perhaps six million were of Jewish heritage, a figure equal to two out of every three Jews in Europe. Among those killed at the hands of the Nazis, 1.5 million of them were children.



*A sign at the entrance to Auschwitz:
“Work makes a person free.”*

Review and Write

Why do you believe the Holocaust took place? What circumstances must exist before one people systematically attempts to exterminate another race? Do you think another Holocaust is possible? Have other Holocausts occurred?

The Allies Defeat Japan

World War II was often referred to as a “two-front war.” Not only was there fighting in the European theater against the forces of Hitler and Mussolini, there was also heavy fighting in the Pacific against the Japanese. While the European war ended in May of 1945, the extensive conflict in Asia continued on for another four months. (In fact, winning the war in Europe first had always been the goal of the Allied leaders.)

The Japanese had achieved their most extensive control of Asia and of Pacific island groups by early summer of 1942. Burma, Malaya, the Netherlands, East Indies, the Philippines, and Thailand had all fallen under Japanese occupation. By that time, the U.S. had recovered from the devastating losses of the surprise Japanese attack at Pearl Harbor. The Battle of Midway was the struggle which turned the Allies around in the Pacific. Fought in early June 1942, it was a stunning loss for the Japanese, as four of their aircraft carriers were destroyed.

From the beginning, the Allies pursued three major goals in the Pacific theater: (1) to bring about the recapture of the extensive Philippine Islands, (2) to cut Japanese control of bases throughout Asia and the Pacific, and (3) to recapture Japanese-control sites for the purpose of launching air attacks against Japan. Following the victory at Midway, each goal was eventually accomplished.

By summer’s end, the Americans and British forces were taking the offensive. With help from loyal Allied nations (including the British Empire’s supporters in Australia, New Zealand, and India), Britain and America pursued a policy of air bombardments, submarine attacks, and island-hopping campaigns.

The first fighting of this first Allied Pacific offensive began on August 7, 1942 when U.S.

Marines landed on Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands, located northeast of Australia. After several months of struggle, the Japanese finally surrendered the islands.

The Allied drive continued into 1943 as the Japanese defended their control over the Gilbert Islands in November after fierce fighting. By

January 1944, the United States began a series of attacks against Japanese positions in the Marshall Islands, located north of the Gilberts. New Guinea was regained by the Allies in early summer, followed by the recapture of the Mariana Islands, located west of the Marshalls, putting the Allies within 16,000 miles of Japan.

With each victory and regain of territory, the Allies moved closer to the islands of Japan. In October 1944, American general Douglas

MacArthur launched a massive assault on the Philippines, which were held by over 270,000 Japanese. Following months of hard fighting, the Allies occupied the Philippines.

Through the spring and summer of 1945, the Allies fought bitter Japanese opposition as they moved closer to Japan. Fighting on the tiny island of Iwo Jima (750 miles from Tokyo) resulted in 26,000 dead before the Japanese surrendered there. At Okinawa (350 miles from Tokyo) the Allies suffered nearly 50,000 casualties. One hundred nine thousand Japanese were killed. The Okinawa campaign was the final major fight of the Pacific war.

By summer, the Allies had constructed a new weapon, the atomic bomb, which they dropped on the Japanese in August 1945. These devastating weapons convinced the Japanese to surrender. On September 2, the Allies and Japan signed the surrender agreement.



General Douglas MacArthur

Test II

Part I. Matching (Worksheets 15–20)

Match the answers to the right with the statement on the left.

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| _____ 1. Asian nation attacked by the Japanese in 1931 | A. Anti-Comintern |
| _____ 2. German region remilitarized by the Germans in 1936 | B. Nonaggression Pact |
| _____ 3. Spanish Fascist leader during the Spanish Civil War | C. blitzkrieg |
| _____ 4. Communism opposition treaty linking Germany, Italy, and Japan | D. Manchuria |
| _____ 5. Agreement by which Britain and France allowed Hitler to annex the Sudetenland | E. Final Solution |
| _____ 6. Organized German policy of extermination of the Jews | F. Winston Churchill |
| _____ 7. Known as the <i>Geheime Staatspolizei</i> : Hitler's secret police force | G. Francisco Franco |
| _____ 8. Agreement between the Soviet Union and Germany made in 1939 | H. Stalingrad |
| _____ 9. "lightning war" | I. Munich Accords |
| _____ 10. British prime minister during most of World War II | J. Gestapo |
| _____ 11. Site of Japanese surprise attack of December 7, 1941 | K. Pearl Harbor |
| _____ 12. Russian city where Germans laid down a siege | L. Rhineland |

Part II. Matching (Worksheets 21–27)

- | | |
|---|-------------------------|
| _____ 1. German tank commander in North Africa | A. Battle of Midway |
| _____ 2. Landing of American and British forces in North Africa | B. Dwight D. Eisenhower |
| _____ 3. June 1942 naval battle in the Pacific which brought U.S. victory | C. Franklin Roosevelt |
| _____ 4. Program which supplied the Allies with American war material | D. Erwin Rommel |
| _____ 5. Plan for an Allied landing in June 1944 off the Normandy coast | E. Operation Overlord |
| _____ 6. Supreme commander of all Allied forces during World War II | F. Treblinka |
| _____ 7. Rocket bomb designed by the Germans and used against England | G. Lend-Lease |
| _____ 8. Last major German offensive of the war (December 1944) | H. Battle of the Bulge |
| _____ 9. American president during most of World War II | I. atomic bomb |
| _____ 10. Pacific theater battle site located just 350 miles from Japan | J. V-1 |
| _____ 11. Nazi concentration camp | K. Okinawa |
| _____ 12. Weapon which brought about the end of the Pacific war | L. Operation Torch |

Part III. Respond and Write

Identify four major battles of World War II which brought about an Allied victory and give the significance of each battle.

Answer Key

Page 4

Britain's postwar problems included loss of one million young men in war, high taxes, decade of cynicism and frustration following WW I, skyrocketing national debt, serious nationalist movements within the Empire, political war, one million men unemployed, strong foreign competition, unresponsive British government.

France's postwar problems included destruction of French land during WWI, 1.3 million men killed and 3 million wounded, loss of infrastructure, unexploded artillery shells, poor French leadership, and economic and social problems.

Page 5

Answers will vary. (Students are to write one 100-word reports on selected topics.)

Page 9

Great Britain: Unsolved unemployment problems, decrease in trade between nations of the British Empire, fierce competition, out of date machinery and production systems.

France: Never fully industrialized, French businesses small, little mass production, worker wages were low.

Germany: Huge reparations repayments, hyperinflation, need for continuous American loans as investment capital.

United States: Farmers suffered from overproduction and low prices for their produce, factories overproduced consumer goods, speculation on the stock market.

Page 14

Part I.

- | | | | |
|------|-------|------|-------|
| 1. D | 7. I | 1. D | 7. B |
| 2. G | 8. K | 2. L | 8. G |
| 3. L | 9. C | 3. A | 9. E |
| 4. A | 10. H | 4. J | 10. K |
| 5. F | 11. E | 5. F | 11. I |
| 6. B | 12. J | 6. C | 12. H |

Part III.

Answers will vary.

Page 17

Answers will vary. Students are to write a 250-word description of the Nazi death camp at Auschwitz.

Page 18

Answers will vary, but could include the following:

| | |
|---|------|
| Japan seizes Manchuria | 1931 |
| Hitler becomes chancellor | 1933 |
| Mussolini invades Ethiopia | 1935 |
| Hitler occupies Rhineland | 1936 |
| Mussolini and Hitler intervene in Spanish Civil War | 1936 |
| Rome-Berlin axis | 1936 |
| Germany annexes Austria | 1938 |
| Munich conference | 1938 |
| Germany occupies Czechoslovakia | 1939 |
| German-Soviet Nonaggression Pact | 1939 |
| Germany invades Poland | 1939 |
| Britain and France declare war on Germany | 1939 |

Page 21

Answers will vary. Students are to select a topic and write 100 words describing the World War II battle selected.

Page 23

Answers will vary, but could include any of the following: Most of Germany's wartime production was still producing at the end of the war; the people continued to believe in Adolf Hitler and Germany; launching of major offensive in December 1944; development of new weapons of war, such as the Vengeance Bombs; continued resistance of German army to enemy advances.

Page 24

Adolf Hitler: 1889, Born in Austria; 1914–1918, serves in the German army and wins the Iron Cross; 1921, becomes leader of the Nazi Party; 1925, publishes *Mein Kampf*, setting out his political theories; 1933, becomes chancellor; 1934–1945, rules Germany as a dictator; 1945, commits suicide.

Benito Mussolini: 1883, born in Italy; 1914, expelled from the Socialist Party for support of Italy's role in World War I; 1922, becomes dictator after march on Rome; 1940, Italy enters World War II on Axis side; 1945, captured and shot by Italians.

Winston Churchill: 1874, born; 1900, elected to British Parliament; 1940, becomes British prime minister and leads Britain during World War II; 1945, defeated in election; 1951, re-elected; 1965, dies.

Franklin D. Roosevelt: 1882, born in New York State; 1928, elected governor of New York; 1932, wins presidential election; 1933, introduces the "New Deal"; 1944, becomes only U.S. president to be re-elected three times; 1945, dies in Warm Springs, Georgia.

Joseph Stalin: 1879, born in Georgia as Josef Dzhugashvili; 1903, joins the Bolshevik Party; 1922, becomes general secretary of the Communist Party; 1924, becomes leader of the USSR; 1953, dies.

Page 25

Map Exercise I: France, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Denmark, the Netherlands,

Belgium, Lichtenstein, Poland, Romania, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Libya, Tunisia, Egypt.

Map Exercise II: China, Manchuria, Burma, Siam, Malaya, French Indochina, Philippines, Indonesia, Dutch East Indies, Celebes, New Guinea, Guam, Saipan, Marianas Islands, Wake Island, Marshall Islands, Gilbert Islands, Caroline Islands.

Page 26

Answers will vary.

Page 28

Part I.

- | | |
|------|-------|
| 1. D | 7. J |
| 2. L | 8. B |
| 3. G | 9. C |
| 4. A | 10. F |
| 5. I | 11. K |
| 6. E | 12. H |

Part II.

- | | |
|------|-------|
| 1. D | 7. J |
| 2. L | 8. H |
| 3. A | 9. C |
| 4. G | 10. K |
| 5. E | 11. F |
| 6. B | 12. I |

Part III.

Answers will vary.