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# 1939

2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: World War II; Years

Year **1939** (**MCMXXXIX**) was a common year starting on Sunday (link will display the full calendar) of the Gregorian calendar.

<b>Centuries:</b> 19th century - <b>20th century</b> - 21st century
<b>Decades:</b> 1900s 1910s 1920s - 1930s - 1940s 1950s 1960s
<b>Years:</b> 1936 1937 1938 - <b>1939</b> - 1940 1941 1942

## Events of 1939

*(Below, many events of World War II have the WWII'prefix.)*

### January

- 1 January
  - The Hewlett-Packard Company is founded.
  - Texas A&M University wins its first football national championship
- 2 January - End of term for Frank Finley Merriam, 28th Governor of California. He is succeeded by Culbert Levy Olson.
- 5 January - Amelia Earhart is officially declared dead after her disappearance.
- 6 January - *Naturwissenschaften* publishes evidence that nuclear fission has been achieved by Otto Hahn.
- 13 January - Black Friday: 71 people die across Victoria in one of Australia's worst ever bushfires.
- 24 January - Earthquake kills 30,000 in Chile – about 50,000 sq mi razed.
- 26 January - Spanish Civil War: Troops loyal to Francisco Franco, and aided by Italy, take Barcelona.

### February



- 2 February - Hungary joins Anti-Comintern Pact.
- 10 February - Falangists take Catalonia.
- 21 February - Golden Gate International Exposition opens in San Francisco, California.
- 27 February
  - United Kingdom and France recognize Franco's government.
  - Borley Rectory burns.
  - Sit-down strikes are outlawed by the Supreme Court of the United States.
- 28 February - The first issue of Serbian weekly magazine Politikin zabavnik was published.



21 February: Golden Gate International Exposition opens.

## March

- March - End of the Great Arab Revolt in the British mandate of Palestine (started 1936)
- 1 March - 94 killed, Japanese Imperial Army ammunition dump exploded at outskirts of Osaka.
- 2 March - Pope Pius XII (Cardinal Pacelli) succeeds Pope Pius XI as the 260th pope.
- 3 March
  - In Bombay, Mohandas Gandhi begins to fast in protest of the autocratic rule in India.
  - Students at Harvard University demonstrate the new tradition of swallowing goldfish to reporters.
- 13 March - Hitler advises Jozef Tiso to declare Slovakia's independence in order to prevent its partition by Hungary and Poland.
- 14 March - Slovak provincial assembly proclaims independence - priest Jozef Tiso becomes the president of independent Slovak government.
- 15 March - German troops occupy the remaining part of Bohemia and Moravia; Czechoslovakia ceases to exist; beginning hostilities leading to WWII. The Ruthenian region of Czechoslovakia declares independence as Carpatho-Ukraine.
- 16 March - Marriage of Princess Fawzia of Egypt to Shah Mohammad Reza Pahlavi of Iran. Hungary invades Carpatho-Ukraine; final resistance ends on 18 March.
- 22 March - After an ultimatum of March 20 Nazi Germany takes Klaipėda Region from Lithuania
- 23 March - Slovak-Hungarian War begins.
- 25 March - The second cartoon to feature Happy Rabbit, *Prest-O Change-O*, is released.
- 26 March - *The Philadelphia Story*, a comedy by Philip Barry starring Katharine Hepburn, debuts at the Shubert Theatre in New York City.
- 28 March
  - Dictator Francisco Franco assumes power in Madrid.
  - The last message from adventurer Richard Halliburton - he disappears later.

## April

- 1 April - Spanish Civil War comes to an end when the last of the Republican forces surrendered.
- 4 April - Faisal II becomes King of Iraq. Slovak-Hungarian War ends with Slovakia ceding eastern territories to Hungary.
- 7 April - Italy invades Albania - King Zog flees.



- 9 April - Singer Marian Anderson performs before 75,000 people at the Lincoln Memorial in Washington, D.C. after having been denied the use both of Constitution Hall by the Daughters of the American Revolution and of a public high school by the federally-controlled District of Columbia.
- 11 April - Hungary leaves the League of Nations.
- 14 April - John Steinbeck's novel *The Grapes of Wrath* is first published.
- 27 April - Ely Racecourse closes.
- 30 April - New York World's Fair opens.

## May

- 2 May - Batman, created by Bob Kane (and, unofficially, Bill Finger), makes his first appearance.
- 2 May - Major League Baseball's Lou Gehrig, the legendary Yankee first baseman known as "The Iron Horse", ends his 2130 consecutive games played streak after contracting amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. The record will stand for 56 years before Cal Ripken, Jr. plays 2131 consecutive games.
- 3 May - The All India Forward Bloc is formed by Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose.
- 7 May - Spain leaves the League of Nations.
- 17 May - King George VI and Queen Elizabeth arrive in Quebec City to begin the first-ever tour of Canada by Canada's monarch.
- 20 May - Pan-American Airways begins trans-Atlantic mail service with the inaugural flight of its Yankee Clipper from Port Washington, New York.
- 22 May - Germany and Italy sign the Pact of Steel.
- 29 May - Northamptonshire gains (over Leicestershire at Northampton) their first victory for 99 matches, easily a record in the County Championship. Their last Championship victory was as far back as *14 May 1935* over Somerset at Taunton.

## June

- 4 June - The SS *St. Louis*, a ship carrying a cargo of 907 Jewish refugees, is denied permission to land in Florida after already having been turned away from Cuba. Forced to return to Europe, most of its passengers later die in Nazi concentration camps during the Holocaust.
- 12 June - The National Baseball Hall of Fame and Museum is officially dedicated in Cooperstown, New York.
- 17 June - Last *public* guillotining in France - murderer Eugen Weidmann is decapitated by the guillotine.
- 23 June - Turkey annexes Hatay.
- 24 June - Government of Siam changes its name to Thailand, which means 'Free Land'.



24 June: Siam is renamed "Thailand"

## July

- 2 July - The 1st World Science Fiction Convention opens in New York City.
- 4 July
  - Lou Gehrig gives his last public speech, following his diagnosis of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS). In it, he states, "Today, I consider myself the



luckiest man on the face of the earth."

- The concentration camp Neuengamme becomes autonomous.
- 6 July - The last remaining Jewish enterprises in Germany are closed by the Nazis.

## August

- 2 August - Albert Einstein writes President Franklin Roosevelt about developing the Atomic Bomb using Uranium. This led to the creation of the Manhattan Project.
- 15 August - MGM's classic musical film version of *The Wizard of Oz*, starring Judy Garland, Ray Bolger, Jack Haley and Bert Lahr, premieres at Grauman's Chinese Theatre in Hollywood. Winner of three Academy Awards, it will not do quite as well as hoped on first release, but years later, after two theatrical re-releases, will grow to legendary status with its annual showings on TV.
- 20 August - Armored forces under the command of Soviet General Georgi Zhukov deliver a decisive defeat to forces of the Japanese Imperial Army in the Japanese-Soviet border war in Inner Mongolia. Although largely unnoticed in the West, this event enhances Soviet military prestige in the East, leading to the Japanese-Soviet non-aggression pact of 1941, and increases German motivation to conclude a non-aggression pact with the Russians before invading Poland.
- 23 August - Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact: Hitler and Stalin agree to divide Europe between themselves (Finland, Estonia, Latvia and eastern Poland to the USSR; Lithuania and western Poland to Germany).so they would not have to fight on two fronts.
- 25 August - An IRA bomb explodes in the centre of Coventry, England killing five people.
- 26 August - The Kriegsmarine orders all German flagged merchant ships to head to German ports immediately in anticipation of the Invasion of Poland.
- 27 August - A Heinkel 178, the first turbojet-powered aircraft, flies for the first time with Captain Erich Warsitz in command.
- 30 August - Poland begins mobilization against Nazi Germany.

## September

- 1 September - WWII: Nazi Germany invades Poland, beginning the Second World War in Europe.'
- 1 September - German navy fires on Danzig.
- 1 September - Norway, Finland, Sweden, and Switzerland declare their neutrality.
- 2 September - Following the invasion of Poland, Danzig (now Gdańsk, Poland) is annexed to Nazi Germany.
- 2 September - Spain and Ireland declare their neutrality.
- 3 September - WWII: United Kingdom, France, New Zealand and Australia declare war on Germany.
- 4 September - WWII: Nepal declares war on Germany.
- 5 September - WWII: The United States declares its neutrality in the war.
- 6 September - WWII: South Africa declares war on Germany.
- 9 September - Canada declares war on Germany.
- 16 September - Ceasefire ending undeclared Border War between The Soviet Union (and Mongolian allies) and Japan.
- 17 September - Soviet Union invades Poland and then occupies eastern Polish territories.



Wieluń destroyed by Luftwaffe bombing the 1st of September 1939



- 21 September - Radio station WJSV in Washington, D.C. records an entire broadcast day for preservation in the National Archives.
- 23 September - Death of Sigmund Freud.
- 27 September - Warsaw surrenders to Germany; Modlin surrenders day later; last Polish large operational unit surrenders near Kock eight days later.

## October

- 8 October - WWII: Germany annexes Western Poland.
- 11 October - Manhattan Project: US President Franklin D. Roosevelt is presented with a letter signed by Albert Einstein urging the United States to rapidly develop the atomic bomb.
- 12 October - Jüri Uluots becomes prime minister of Estonia.
- 14 October - German U-Boat *U-47* sinks British battleship HMS *Royal Oak*.
- 15 October - The New York Municipal Airport (later renamed La Guardia Airport) is dedicated.
- 24 October - Nylon stockings go on sale for the first time anywhere in Wilmington, Delaware.
- 25 October - *The Time of Your Life*, a drama by William Saroyan, debuts in New York City.

## November

- 4 November - WWII: US President Franklin D. Roosevelt orders the United States Customs Service to implement the Neutrality Act of 1939, allowing cash-and-carry purchases of weapons to non-belligerent nations.
- 6 November
  - *Hedda Hopper's Hollywood* debuts on radio with Hollywood gossip columnist Hedda Hopper as host (the show ran until 1951 and made Hopper a powerful figure in the Hollywood elite).
  - WWII: Sonderaktion Krakau, the codename for a German action against scientists from the University of Kraków and other Kraków universities at the beginning of World War II.
- 8 November
  - Venlo Incident: Two British agents of SIS are captured by the Germans.
  - In Munich, Adolf Hitler narrowly escapes an assassination attempt by Georg Elser while celebrating the 16th anniversary of the Beer Hall Putsch.
- 15 November - In Washington, DC, US President Franklin D. Roosevelt lays the cornerstone of the Jefferson Memorial.
- 16 November - Al Capone released from Alcatraz
- 30 November - Winter War begins: Soviet forces attack Finland and reach the Mannerheim Line, starting the war.
- 30 November - Sweden declares non-warfaring (not neutral) in the Winter War.



6 November: Hedda Hopper

## December



- 2 December - La Guardia Airport opens for business in New York City.
- 13 December - WWII - Battle of the River Plate: German pocket battleship *Admiral Graf Spee* trapped by cruisers HMS *Ajax*, HMNZS *Achilles*, and HMS *Exeter* after a running battle off the coast of Uruguay. *Admiral Graf Spee* is scuttled by its crew off Montevideo harbour on 17 December.
- 14 December - League of Nations expels the USSR for attacking Finland.
- 15 December - The film version of *Gone with the Wind*, starring Vivien Leigh, Clark Gable, Olivia de Havilland and Leslie Howard, premieres at Loew's Grand Theatre in Atlanta, Georgia.
- 26 December - Mining strike in Borinage, Belgium
- 27 December - Earthquake in Eastern Anatolia, Turkey, destroys the town of Erzincan - about 30,000 dead.
- 31 December - *The Hunchback of Notre Dame*, the first sound film version of the Victor Hugo classic, is released by RKO. It stars Charles Laughton as Quasimodo the hunchback, and Maureen O'Hara as Esmerelda the gypsy.



15 December:  
*Gone with the Wind* premieres.

## Undated

- Kirlian photography is invented by Semyon Kirlian.
- A logging crew sets off a second forest fire in the Tillamook Burn, which destroys 190,000 acres (769 km<sup>2</sup>).
- Sandia View Academy, a private Adventist school, is founded in Corrales, New Mexico.

## Ongoing

- Spanish Civil War (1936-1939).
- Sino-Japanese War (1937-1945).
- The Great Depression (1929-The Late 1930s, early 1940s).
- World War II (1939-1945).

## Fictional

The following are references to year 1939 in fiction:

- *All Dogs Go to Heaven* (1989) - Takes place in 1939 New Orleans
- According to " The Twilight Zone Tower of Terror" theme park attraction and the derivative 1997 television movie *Tower of Terror*, it was on October 31, 1939 that five unfortunate souls aboard an elevator at the fictional Hollywood Tower Hotel were cast into the Twilight Zone when the tower was struck by lightning. Since this event, the hotel has been abandoned and apparently cursed.

## Births



## January-February

- 3 January
  - Bobby Hull, Canadian hockey player
  - Ruben Reyes, Filipino Supreme Court jurist
- 6 January - Valeri Lobanovsky, Ukrainian footballer and manager (d. 2002)
- 6 January - Murray Rose, Australian swimmer
- 9 January - Malcolm Bricklin, American automotive pioneer
- 10 January
  - Sal Mineo, American actor (d. 1976)
  - Bill Toomey, American athlete
- 11 January - Ann Heggtveit, Canadian skier
- 12 January - William Lee Golden, American country and gospel singer, member of the Oak Ridge Boys
- 17 January - Maury Povich, American talk show host
- 17 January - Archbishop Christodoulos, The most popular Archbishop of the modern Greek History, he was the best Archbishop of Greece considering the criticism from people.
- 18 January - James Gritz, U.S. Presidential candidate
- 19 January - Phil Everly, American musician
- 20 January - Chandra Wickramasinghe, British astronomer and poet
- 22 January - Ray Stevens, American musician
- 29 January - Germaine Greer, Australian writer
- 1 February - Paul Gillmor, American politician (d. 2007)
- 6 February - Mike Farrell, American actor
- 10 February
  - Adrienne Clarkson, 26th Governor General of Canada
  - Peter Purves, British actor and television presenter
- 12 February - Ray Manzarek, American keyboardist
- 13 February - Beate Klarsfeld, German-born Nazi hunter
- 16 February - Adolfo Azcuna, Filipino Supreme Court jurist
- 20 February - Frank Arundel, English footballer
- 21 February - Gert Neuhaus, German artist
- 27 February - David Mitton, British producer, director, model maker, and author (d. 2008)
- 28 February - Daniel C. Tsui, Chinese-born physicist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 28 February - Tommy Tune, American dancer, choreographer, and actor

## 1939 in other calendars

Gregorian calendar	1939 <i>MCMXXXIX</i>
Ab urbe condita	2692
Armenian calendar	1388 ԹՎ ՌՅՁԸ
Bahá'í calendar	95 – 96
Berber calendar	2889
Buddhist calendar	2483
Burmese calendar	1301
Byzantine calendar	7447 – 7448
Chinese calendar	戊寅年十一月十一日 (4575/4635-11-11) — to — 己卯年十一月廿一日 (4576/4636-11-21)
Coptic calendar	1655 – 1656
Ethiopian calendar	1931 – 1932
Hebrew calendar	5699 – 5700
Hindu calendars	
- <i>Vikram Samvat</i>	1994 – 1995
- <i>Shaka Samvat</i>	1861 – 1862
- <i>Kali Yuga</i>	5040 – 5041
Holocene calendar	11939
Iranian calendar	1317 – 1318
Islamic calendar	1357 – 1358
Japanese calendar	Shōwa 14 (昭和14年)
Korean calendar	4272
Thai solar calendar	2482

## March-April





- 1 March - Leo Brouwer, Cuban composer and guitarist
- 4 March
  - Jack Fisher, former American Major League baseball pitcher
  - Paula Prentiss, American actress
  - Carlos Vereza, Brazilian actor
- 8 March - Robert Tear, Welsh tenor
- 12 March - Johnny Callison, American baseball player (d. 2006)
- 13 March - Neil Sedaka, American singer
- 14 March - Raymond J. Barry, American actor
- 17 March - Jim Gary, American sculptor (d. 2006)
- 20 March - Brian Mulroney, eighteenth Prime Minister of Canada
- 31 March
  - Zviad Gamsakhurdia, President of Georgia (d. 1993)
  - Volker Schlöndorff, German film director
- 2 April - Marvin Gaye, American singer (d. 1984)
- 4 April - Hugh Masakela, South African musician
- 7 April
  - Francis Ford Coppola, American film director
  - David Frost, English television personality
- 13 April - Seamus Heaney, Irish writer, Nobel Prize laureate
- 13 April - Paul Sorvino, American actor
- 16 April - Dusty Springfield, English singer (d. 1999)
- 20 April - Elspeth Ballantyne, Australian actress
- 22 April - Jason Miller, American playwright and actor (d. 2001)
- 23 April - Lee Majors, American actor
- 25 April - Ted Kooser, U.S. Poet Laureate
- 27 April - Erik Pevernagie, Belgian painter

## May-June

- 1 May - Judy Collins, American singer and songwriter
- 7 May
  - Sidney Altman, Canadian-born chemist, Nobel Prize laureate
  - Ruud Lubbers, Prime Minister of the Netherlands
  - Jimmy Ruffin, American singer
  - Marco St. John, American actor
- 9 May



- Ralph Boston, American athlete
  - Pierre Desproges, French humorist (d. 1988)
- 11 May - Dante Tinga, Filipino Supreme Court jurist
- 12 May - Ron Ziegler, White House Press Secretary (d. 2003)
- 13 May - Harvey Keitel, American actor
- 19 May
  - Livio Berruti, Italian athlete
  - Sonny Fortune, American jazz musician
  - James Fox, English actor
  - Dick Scobee, astronaut (d. 1986)
- 21 May - Heinz Holliger, Swiss oboist and composer
- 23 May - Reinhard Hauff, German film director
- 25 May - Dixie Carter, American actress
- 26 May - Brent Musburger, American sports announcer
- 29 May - Al Unser, American race car driver
- 30 May - Michael J. Pollard, American actor
- 1 June - Cleavon Little, American actor (d. 1992)
- 3 June - Ian Hunter (singer), English singer ( Mott the Hoople)
- 6 June - Louis Andriessen, Dutch composer
- 9 June
  - Ileana Cotrubaș, Romanian soprano
  - Dick Vitale, American basketball broadcaster
- 11 June - Jackie Stewart, Scottish race car driver
- 15 June - Brian Jacques, British writer
- 16 June
  - Billy Crash Craddock, American country singer
  - Richard Spendlove, British radio and television presenter and scriptwriter

## July-August

- 5 July - Booker Edgerson, American football player
- 14 July - George E. Slusser, American scholar and writer
- 15 July - Aníbal Cavaco Silva, President of Portugal and former Prime Minister
- 17 July
  - Milva, Italian singer and actress
  - Ali Khamenei, Supreme Leader of Iran
- 21 July - John Negroponte, U.S. Director of National Intelligence



- 23 July - Raine Karp, Estonian architect
- 26 July
  - John Howard, twenty-fifth Prime Minister of Australia
  - Bob Lilly, American football player
- 27 July - Michael Longley, Irish poet
- 2 August - John Snow, 73rd United States Secretary of the Treasury
- 5 August - Princess Irene of the Netherlands
- 12 August - George Hamilton, American actor
- 12 August - Skip Caray, American broadcaster for baseball (d. 2008)
- 17 August - Luther Allison, American musician (d. 1997)
- 19 August - Ginger Baker - Drummer of English rock group Cream
- 22 August - Carl Yastrzemski, baseball player
- 25 August - Robert Jager, American composer and theorist
- 29 August - Joel Schumacher, American film producer and director
- 30 August - John Peel, English disk jockey (d. 2004)
- 31 August - Cleveland Eaton, American jazz musician

## September-October

- 5 September - Clay Regazzoni, Swiss Formula 1 Driver (d. 2006)
- 5 September - George Lazenby, Australian Actor
- 6 September - Brigid Berlin, American actress and artist
- 6 September - David Allan Coe, American musician
- 8 September - Carsten Keller, German field hockey player
- 8 September - Susumu Tonegawa, Japanese biologist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
- 8 September - Guitar Shorty, American blues guitarist
- 9 September - Ron McDole, American football player
- 13 September - Richard Kiel, American actor
- 16 September - Breyten Breytenbach, South African writer and painter
- 17 September - Shelby Flint, American singer
- 18 September - Frankie Avalon, American musician
- 18 September - Fred Willard, American comedian
- 23 September - Janusz Gajos, Polish actor
- 26 September - Ricky Tomlinson, British actor
- 29 September - Larry Linville, American actor (d. 2000)
- 30 September - Len Cariou, Canadian actor and singer
- 30 September - Jean-Marie Lehn, French chemist, Nobel Prize laureate



- 1 October - George Archer, American golfer (d. 2005)
- 5 October - Consuelo Ynares-Santiago, Filipino Supreme Court jurist
- 7 October - John Hopcroft, American computer scientist
- 7 October - Harold Kroto, English chemist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 7 October - Bill Snyder, American football coach
- 11 October - Austin Currie, Irish politician
- 13 October - T. J. Cloutier, American poker player
- 13 October - Melinda Dillon, American actress
- 18 October - Flavio Cotti, Swiss Federal Councilor
- 18 October - Lee Harvey Oswald, assassin of President John F. Kennedy (d. 1963)
- 14 October - Ralph Lauren, American fashion designer
- 22 October - George Cohen, English footballer
- 24 October - F. Murray Abraham, American actor
- 27 October - John Cleese, British actor
- 30 October - Leland H. Hartwell, American scientist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
- 30 October - Grace Slick, American singer (The Great Society, Jefferson Airplane, Jefferson Starship, and Starship)
- 31 October - Ron Rifkin, American actor

## November-December

- 1 November - Barbara Bosson, American actress
- 6 November
  - Athanasios Angelopoulos, Greek academic
  - Leonardo Quisumbing, Filipino Supreme Court jurist
- 8 November - Laila Kinnunen, Finnish singer (d. 2000)
- 9 November - Paul Cameron, American psychologist
- 10 November - Russell Means, Native American activist
- 15 November - Yaphet Kotto, American actor
- 16 November - Michael Billington, British drama critic
- 18 November
  - Margaret Atwood, Canadian writer
  - Brenda Vaccaro, American actress
- 21 November - Mulayam Singh Yadav, Indian politician
- 23 November - Bill Bissett, Canadian poet
- 26 November - Tina Turner, American singer
- 27 November - Laurent-Désiré Kabila, President of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (d. 2001)
- 1 December - Dianne Lennon, American singer ( The Lennon Sisters }



- 2 December
  - Yael Dayan, Israeli writer and politician
  - Harry Reid, American politician and U.S. Senate Majority Leader
- 5 December - Minita Chico-Nazario, Filipino Supreme Court jurist
- 8 December - James Galway, Irish flautist
- 11 December - Thomas McGuane, American writer
- 13 December - Eric Flynn, British actor and singer (d. 2002)
- 17 December - Eddie Kendricks, American singer (The Temptations)
- 18 December
  - Alex Bennett, American radio personality
  - Robert T. Bennett, American politician
  - Michael Moorcock, English writer
  - Harold E. Varmus, American scientist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
- 22 December - Alfred J. Ferrara, American baseball player

## Deaths

### January - June

- 2 January - Roman Dmowski, Polish politician (b. 1864)
- 23 January - Matthias Sindelar, Austrian footballer (b. 1903)
- 24 January - Maximilian Bircher-Benner, Swiss physician and nutritionist (b. 1867)
- 28 January - William Butler Yeats, Irish writer, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1865)
- 10 February - Pope Pius XI (b. 1857)
- 11 February - Franz Schmidt, Austrian composer (b. 1874)
- 12 February - S. P. L. Sørensen, Danish chemist (b. 1868)
- 22 February - Antonio Machado, Spanish poet (b. 1875)
- 27 February - Nadezhda Konstantinovna Krupskaya, Russian Marxist revolutionary, Vladimir Lenin's wife (b. 1869)
- 2 March - Howard Carter, British archaeologist (b. 1874)
- 19 March - Lloyd L. Gaines, American civil rights activist
- 28 March - Francis Matthew John Baker, Australian politician (b. 1903)
- 7 April - Joseph Lyons, tenth Prime Minister of Australia (b. 1879)
- 25 April - John Foulds, British classical music composer (b. 1880)
- 25 April - Georges Ricard-Cordingley, painter (b. 1873)
- 4 June - Tommy Ladnier, American jazz trumpeter (b. 1900)
- 19 June - Grace Abbott, American social worker and activist (b. 1878)



- 26 June - Ford Madox Ford, English writer (b. 1873)

## July - December

- 14 July - Alfons Mucha, Czech painter and decorative artist (b. 1860)
- 2 August - Harvey Spencer Lewis, American mystic (b. 1883)
- 11 August - Jean Bugatti, German automobile designer (b. 1909)
- 30 August - Wilhelm Bölsche, German journalist and science writer (b. 1861)
- 6 September - Arthur Rackham, British artist (b. 1867)
- 18 September - Stanisław Ignacy Witkiewicz, Polish writer and painter (b. 1885)
- 23 September - Sigmund Freud, Austrian psychiatrist (b. 1856)
- 7 October - Harvey Cushing, American neurosurgeon (b. 1869)
- 29 October - Dwight B. Waldo, American educator and historian (b. 1864)
- 12 November - Norman Bethune, Canadian humanitarian (b. 1890)
- 28 November - James Naismith, Canadian inventor of basketball (b. 1861)
- 29 November - Philipp Scheidemann, Chancellor of Germany (b. 1865)
- 3 December - Princess Louise of the United Kingdom, second youngest daughter of Queen Victoria (b. 1848)
- 23 December - Anthony Fokker, Dutch aircraft manufacturer (b. 1890)

## Nobel prizes

- Physics - Ernest Orlando Lawrence
- Chemistry - Adolf Friedrich Johann Butenandt, Leopold Ruzicka
- Physiology or Medicine - Gerhard Domagk
- Literature - Frans Eemil Sillanpää
- Peace - not awarded

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See also our



# 1940

2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: World War II; Years

Year **1940** (**MCMXL**) was a leap year starting on Monday (link will display the full 1940 calendar) of the Gregorian calendar.

<p><b>Centuries:</b> 19th century - <b>20th century</b> - 21st century</p> <p><b>Decades:</b> 1910s 1920s 1930s - 1940s - 1950s 1960s 1970s</p> <p><b>Years:</b> 1937 1938 1939 - <b>1940</b> - 1941 1942 1943</p>
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## Events of 1940

*(Below, many events of World War II have the WWII'prefix.)*

### January

- 4 January - WWII: Axis powers - Luftwaffe General Hermann Goering assumes control of all war industries in Germany.
- 6 January - WWII: Winter War - General Semyon Timoshenko takes command of all Russian forces.
- 8 January - WWII: Winter War - Russian 44th Assault Division destroyed by Finnish forces in Battle of Suomussalmi.
- 26 January - Australia - Brisbane swelters through its hottest day ever, 43.2 degrees Celsius (109.76 Fahrenheit).
- 27 January - WWII: South Africa - A peace resolution introduced in Parliament is defeated by 81 votes to 59.
- 29 January - Three gasoline multiple units carrying factory workers crash and explode while approaching Ajikawaguchi station, Yumesaki Line ( Nishinari Line), Osaka, Japan, killing at least 181 people and injuring at least 92.

### February

- 1 February - WWII: Winter War - Russian forces launch major assault on Finnish troops which occupy the Karelian Isthmus.
- 7 February - RKO releases Walt Disney's second full-length animated film, *Pinocchio*.
- 16 February - WWII: In the Altmark Incident British destroyer *Cossack* pursues German tanker *Altmark* into Jøssingfjord in southwestern Norway.
- 27 February - Martin Kamen and Sam Ruben discovered carbon-14

### March

- 2 March - Elmer Fudd makes his debut in the short *Elmer's Candid Camera*.
- 3 March - In Sweden, a time bomb destroys the office of *Norrskensflamman* newspaper of Swedish communists - 5 dead.
- 5 March- Members of Soviet politburo: Stalin, Molotov, Lazar Kaganovich, Mikhail Kalinin, Kliment Voroshilov and Lavrenty Beria, signed an order,



prepared by Beria, for the execution of 25,700 Polish intelligentsia, including 14,700 Polish POWs. The action is known as the Katyn massacre.

- 12 March - Soviet Union and Finland sign a peace treaty in Moscow ending the Winter War. Finns, along with the world at large, were shocked by the harsh terms.
- 18 March - WWII: Axis powers - Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini meet at Brenner Pass in the Alps and agree to form an alliance against France and the United Kingdom.
- 21 March - Édouard Daladier resigns as prime minister of France. He is replaced by Paul Reynaud.
- 23 March - The *Pakistan Resolution* is rallied by the All-India Muslim League: Muslims from every corner of India meet up around Iqbal Park, Lahore (now in modern-day Pakistan).

## April

- 5 April - Neville Chamberlain, in what will prove to be a tragic lapse of judgment, declares in a major public speech that Hitler has "missed the bus".
- 7 April - Booker T. Washington becomes the first African American to be depicted on a United States postage stamp.
- 9 April - WWII: Germany invades Denmark and Norway in operation *Weserübung*. The British campaign in Norway is simultaneously commenced.
- 12 April - The Faroe Islands were occupied by British troops following the invasion of Denmark by Nazi Germany. This action was taken to avert a possible German occupation of the islands, which would have had very grave consequences for the course of the Battle of the Atlantic.
- 15 April - Opening day at Jamaica Racetrack features the use of pari-mutuel betting equipment, a departure from bookmaking heretofore used exclusively throughout New York state. Other NY tracks follow suit later in 1940.
- 21 April - *Take It or Leave It* makes its debut on CBS Radio, with Bob Hawk as host.
- 23 April - Rhythm Night Club burns in Natchez, Mississippi: 198 dead.

## May

- 10 May - WWII:
  - Battle of France begins - German forces invade Low Countries.
  - Invasion of Iceland by the United Kingdom.
  - With the resignation of Neville Chamberlain, Winston Churchill becomes Prime Minister of the United Kingdom.





- 13 May
  - Winston Churchill, in his first address as Prime Minister, tells the House of Commons, "I have nothing to offer you but blood, toil, tears, and sweat."
  - WWII: German armies open 60-mile wide breach in Maginot Line at Sedan.
- 14 May
  - Queen Wilhelmina of the Netherlands and her government flee to London; Rotterdam subjected to savage terror bombing by the Luftwaffe - 980 killed, 20,000 buildings destroyed.
  - Recruitment begins in Britain for a home defence force - the Local Defence Volunteers, later known as the Home Guard.
- 15 May
  - WWII: Dutch army surrenders.
- 16 May - U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt, addressing a joint session of Congress, asks for an extraordinary credit of approximately \$900 million to finance construction of at least 50,000 airplanes per year.
- 17 May - Brussels falls to German forces; Belgian government flees to Ostend.
- 18 May - Marshal Henri Petain named vice-premier of France.
- 19 May - General Maxime Weygand replaces Maurice Gamelin as commander-in-chief of all French forces.
- 20 May - WWII: German forces, under General Erwin Rommel, reach the English Channel. Holocaust: concentration and death camp, Auschwitz-Birkenau opens in Poland.
- 22 May - WWII: British Parliament passes Emergency Powers Act giving the government full control over all persons and property.
- 26 May - WWII: Dunkirk evacuation of British Expeditionary Force starts.
- 28 May
  - WWII: King Leopold III orders the Belgian forces to cease fighting. Leaders of the Belgian government on French territory declare Leopold deposed.
  - Winston Churchill warns the House of Commons to, "... prepare itself for hard and heavy tidings."
- 29 May - First flight of the Vought XF4U-1, the prototype of the F4U Corsair U.S. fighter later used in WWII.



10 May: Winston Churchill

## June

- 3 June
  - Holocaust: Franz Rademacher proposes the Madagascar Plan.
  - WWII: Paris is bombed by the Luftwaffe for the first time.
- 4 June
  - Dunkirk evacuation ends - British forces complete evacuating 300,000 troops from Dunkirk in France.
  - Winston Churchill tells the House of Commons, "We shall not flag or fail. We shall fight on the beaches...on the landing grounds...in the fields and the streets... We shall never surrender."



- 9 June - WWII: The British Commandos are created.
- 10 June - WWII
  - Italy declares war on France and the United Kingdom.
  - U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt denounces Italy's actions with "Stab in the Back" speech from the graduation ceremonies of the University of Virginia.
  - Canada declares war on Italy.
  - Norway surrenders to German forces.
  - French government flees to Tours.
- 12 June - WWII: 13,000 British and French troops surrender to Field Marshal Erwin Rommel at St. Valery-en-Caux.
- 13 June - WWII: Paris is declared an open city.
- 14 June - WWII:
  - French government flees to Bordeaux.
  - Paris falls under German occupation.
  - U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt signs the Naval Expansion Act into law which aims to increase the United States Navy's tonnage by 11 %.
  - A group of 728 Polish political prisoners from Tarnów become the first residents of the Auschwitz concentration camp.
- 15 June - WWII: Verdun falls to German forces.
- 16 June : The Sturgis Motorcycle Rally is held for the first time in Sturgis, South Dakota.
- 17 June
  - Philippe Petain becomes Prime Minister of France and immediately asks Germany for peace terms.
  - Soviet Army enters Baltic states of Estonia, Latvia.
  - Operation Ariel begins - Allied troops start to evacuate France, following Germany's takeover of Paris and most of the nation.
  - Luftwaffe Junkers 88 bomber sinks British ship *RMS Lancastria*, that was evacuating troops from near Saint-Nazaire, France. Death toll is over 2500. Wartime censorship prevents the story going public.
- 18 June
  - Winston Churchill speaks to the House of Commons: "... the Battle of France is over. The Battle of Britain is about to begin."
  - General Charles de Gaulle broadcasts from London, calling on all French people to continue the fight against Nazi Germany: "France has lost a battle. But France has not lost the war."
- 21 June - WWII: Vichy France and Germany sign armistice at Compiègne in the same wagon-lit railroad car used by Marshal Ferdinand Foch to accept the surrender of Germany in 1918.
- 23 June - WWII: German leader Adolf Hitler surveys newly defeated Paris in now occupied France.
- 24 June
  - U.S. politics: Republican Party begins its national convention in Philadelphia and nominates Wendell Willkie as its candidate for president.
  - WWII: Vichy France signs armistice terms with Italy.
- 28 June - General Charles DeGaulle is officially recognized by Britain as "Leader of all Free Frenchmen, wherever they may be."
- 30 June - WWII: German forces land in Guernsey marking the start of the 5-year Occupation of the Channel Islands.

## July



- 1 July The first Tacoma Narrows Bridge opened for traffic and is build with 8-foot girder and is 190 feet above the water. The bridge opened as the third longest suspension bridge in the world.
- 3 July - WWII: British naval units sink or seize ships of the French fleet anchored in the Algerian ports of Oran and Mers-el-Kebir. The following day, Vichy France breaks off diplomatic relations with Britain.
- 10 July - WWII: Vichy France begins with a constitutional law where only 80 members of the parliament voted against.
- 15 July - U.S. politics: Democratic Party begins its national convention in Chicago and nominates Franklin D. Roosevelt for an unprecedented third term as president.
- 19 July - WWII: Adolf Hitler makes peace appeal to Britain in an address to the Reichstag. Lord Halifax, British foreign minister, flatly rejects peace terms in a broadcast reply on 22 July.
- 21 July - Estonian SSR, Latvian SSR and Lithuanian SSR are proclaimed.

## August

- 3 August - Lithuanian SSR, Latvian SSR ( 5 August) and Estonian SSR ( 6 August) are incorporated into the Soviet Union.
- 4 August - Gen. John J. Pershing, in a nationwide radio broadcast, urges all-out aid to Britain in order to defend the Americas, while Charles Lindbergh speaks to an isolationist rally at Soldier Field in Chicago.
- 8 August - Wilhelm Keitel signs the " Aufbau Ost" directive.
- 20 August
  - Winston Churchill pays tribute in the House of Commons to the Royal Air Force: "Never in the field of human conflict was so much owed by so many to so few."
  - Leon Trotsky assassinated in Mexico by Ramón Mercader, a Soviet agent, with an ice axe.
- 26 August - Chad is the first French colony to proclaim its support for the Allies.

## September

- September - U.S. Army 45th Infantry Division (previously a National Guard Division in Arizona, Colorado, New Mexico, and Oklahoma), activated and ordered into federal service for one year to engage in a training program in Ft. Sill and Louisiana prior to serving in World War II.
- 2 September - WWII: Agreement between America and Great Britain announced to the effect that fifty U.S. destroyers needed for escort work would be transferred to Great Britain. In return, America gained 99-year leases on British bases in the North Atlantic, West Indies and Bermuda.
- 7 September
  - Treaty of Craiova: Romania loses Southern Dobrudja to Bulgaria.
  - WWII: The Blitz - Nazi Germany begins to rain bombs on London. This will be the first of 57 consecutive nights of strategic bombing.
- 12 September
  - Lascaux, France - 17,000-year-old cave paintings are discovered by a group of young Frenchmen hiking through Southern France. The paintings depict animals and date to the Stone Age.
  - The Hercules Munitions Plant in Kenvil, New Jersey explodes, killing 55 people.



- 16 September - WWII: Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 signed into law by Franklin D. Roosevelt, creating the first peacetime draft in U.S. history.
- 26 September - WWII: U.S. imposes a total embargo on all shipments of scrap metal to Japan.
- 27 September - WWII: Germany, Italy and Japan sign Tripartite Pact.

## October

- 16 October - Draft registration of approximately 16 million men begins in the United States.
- 28 October - WWII: Italian troops invaded Greece meeting strong resistance from Greek troops and civilians. This action signals the beginning of the Balkans Campaign.
- 29 October - Selective Service System lottery held in Washington, D.C..

## November

- 5 November - U.S. presidential election, 1940: Democrat incumbent Franklin D. Roosevelt defeats Republican challenger Wendell Willkie and becomes the United States' first third-term president.
- 7 November - In Tacoma, Washington, the Tacoma Narrows Bridge (known as Galloping Gertie) collapsed in a 42-mile per hour wind storm causing the center span of the bridge to sway. When it collapsed, a 600 foot-long design of the centre span fell 190 feet above the water killing Tubby, a black male cocker spaniel dog.
- 9 November - Premiere of Joaquin Rodrigo's *Concierto de Aranjuez* in Barcelona, Spain.
- 10 November - Earthquake in Bucharest, Romania - 1,000 dead.
- 11 November - WWII:
  - Battle of Taranto - The Royal Navy launches the first aircraft carrier strike in history, on the Italian fleet at Taranto.
  - The German Hilfskreuzer (cruiser) *Atlantis* captures top secret British mail, and sends it to Japan.
  - Armistice Day Blizzard: An unexpected blizzard kills 144 in U.S. Midwest.
- 13 November - Walt Disney's *Fantasia* is released. It is the first box office failure for Disney, though it will eventually recoup its cost years later, and become one of the most highly regarded of Disney's films.
- 14 November - WWII: In England, the city of Coventry is destroyed by 500 German Luftwaffe bombers (150,000 fire bombs, 503 tons of high explosives, 130 parachute mines leveled 60,000 of the city's 75,000 buildings; 568 people were killed).
- 16 November
  - WWII: In response to Germany leveling Coventry two days before, the Royal Air Force begins to bomb Hamburg (by war's end, 50,000 Hamburg residents died from Allied attacks).
  - Unexploded pipe bomb found in Consolidated Edison office building. (Only years later is the culprit, George Metesky, apprehended.)
  - The Jamaica Association of Local Government Officers is founded.
- 18 November - WWII: German leader Adolf Hitler and Italian Foreign Minister Galeazzo Ciano meet to discuss Benito Mussolini's disastrous invasion of Greece.



- 20 November - WWII: Hungary, Romania and Slovakia join the Axis Powers.
- 27 November
  - In Romania, coup leader General Ion Antonescu's Iron Guard arrests and executes over 60 of exiled king Carol II of Romania's aides. Among the dead is former minister and acclaimed historian Nicolae Iorga.
  - WWII: Royal Navy and Regia Marina fight the Battle of Cape Spartivento.

## December

- 1 December - Manuel Ávila Camacho takes office as President of Mexico.
- 8 December - The Chicago Bears, in what will become the most one-sided victory in National Football League history, defeat the Washington Redskins 73-0 in the 1940 NFL Championship Game.
- 12 December & 15 December - WWII: The "Sheffield Blitz". The City of Sheffield is badly damaged by German air-raids.
- 14 December - Plutonium first isolated chemically in the laboratory.
- 23 December - Winston Churchill, in a broadcast address to the people of Italy, squarely blames Benito Mussolini for leading his nation to war against the British contrary to Italy's historic friendship with them.
- 26 December - The film version of *The Philadelphia Story*, starring Katharine Hepburn, Cary Grant, James Stewart and Ruth Hussey, premieres at Radio City Music Hall in New York City.
- 29 December
  - Franklin D. Roosevelt, in a fireside chat to the nation, declares that the United States must become, "... the great arsenal of democracy."
  - WWII: "Second Great Fire of London"; Luftwaffe carries out massive incendiary bombing raid starting 1500 fires. Many famous buildings, including the Guildhall and Trinity House, are either damaged or destroyed.
- 30 December - California's first modern freeway, the future State Route 110, is opened to traffic in Pasadena, California, as the Arroyo Seco Parkway. It is now called the Pasadena Freeway.

## Undated

- Guilin, China, acquires the current name.
- Tibet, province of Amdo: five-year-old Tenzin Gyatso was proclaimed the *tulku* (rebirth) of the thirteenth Dalai Lama.
- Korea *The Hunmin Jeong-eum Haerye* (1446) was discovered, explaining the basis of Hangul.
- *Truth or Consequences* debuts on NBC Radio.

## Ongoing

- Sino-Japanese War (1937-1945)
- World War II (1939 - 1945).



## Births

### January-February

- 4 January- Brian David Josephson, Welsh physicist, Nobel Prize laureate
- Gao Xingjian, Chinese-born writer, Nobel Prize laureate
- 6 January - Penny Lernoux, American journalist and author (d. 1989)
- 9 January - Miguel Ángel Rodríguez, a Costa Rican politician, lawyer, economist, and businessman.
- 14 January - Julian Bond, American civil rights activist
- 19 January - Mike Reid, English actor (d. 2007)
- 20 January - Carol Heiss, American figure skater
- 21 January - Jack Nicklaus, American golfer
- 22 January - John Hurt, English actor
- 27 January - James Cromwell, American actor
- 31 January - Kitch Christie, South African rugby coach (d. 1998)
- 2 February - David Jason, English actor
- 3 February - Fran Tarkenton, American football player
- 4 February - George Romero, American film writer, producer, and director
- 5 February - H.R. Giger, Swiss artist
- 6 February
  - Tom Brokaw, American television news reporter
  - Jimmy Tarbuck, English comedian
- 8 February
  - Ted Koppel, American journalist
  - Joe South, American singer and songwriter
- 9 February - J. M. Coetzee, South African writer, Nobel Prize laureate
- 12 February - Richard Lynch, American actor
- 17 February - Gene Pitney, American singer (d. 2006)
- 19 February - Smokey Robinson, American musician
- 20 February - Jimmy Greaves, English footballer
- 21 February - James Wong, Hong Kong composer (d. 2004)
- 22 February
  - Johnson Mlambo, South African politician
  - Billy Name, American photographer and Warhol archivist

### 1940 in other calendars

Gregorian calendar	1940 <i>MCMXL</i>
Ab urbe condita	2693
Armenian calendar	1389 ԹՎ ՌՅՁԹ
Bahá'í calendar	96 – 97
Berber calendar	2890
Buddhist calendar	2484
Burmese calendar	1302
Byzantine calendar	7448 – 7449
Chinese calendar	己卯年十一月廿二日 (4576/4636-11-22) — <i>to</i> — 庚辰年十二月初三日 (4577/4637-12-3)
Coptic calendar	1656 – 1657
Ethiopian calendar	1932 – 1933
Hebrew calendar	5700 – 5701
Hindu calendars	
- <i>Vikram Samvat</i>	1995 – 1996
- <i>Shaka Samvat</i>	1862 – 1863
- <i>Kali Yuga</i>	5041 – 5042
Holocene calendar	11940
Iranian calendar	1318 – 1319
Islamic calendar	1358 – 1359
Japanese calendar	Shōwa 15 (昭和15年)
Korean calendar	4273
Thai solar calendar	2483



- 23 February - Peter Fonda, American actor
- 24 February - Denis Law, Scottish footballer
- 25 February - Ron Santo, American baseball player
- 28 February - Mario Andretti, American race car driver

## March-April

- 3 March - Germán Castro Caycedo, Colombian writer and journalist
- 3 March - Owen Spencer-Thomas, English broadcaster, journalist and clergyman
- 6 March - Willie Stargell, baseball player (d. 2001)
- 7 March - Rudi Dutschke, German student leader (d. 1979)
- 9 March - Raúl Juliá, Puerto Rican actor (d. 1994)
- 10 March - Chuck Norris, American actor and martial artist
- 12 March - Al Jarreau, American singer
- 15 March - Phil Lesh, American musician ( Grateful Dead)
- 16 March
  - Bernardo Bertolucci, Italian writer and film director
  - Jan Pronk, Dutch politician and diplomat
- 17 March - Mark White, Governor of Texas
- 22 March - Haing S. Ngor, Cambodian actor (d. 1996)
- 25 March - Anita Bryant, American entertainer
- 26 March -
  - James Caan, American actor
  - Nancy Pelosi, Speaker of the United States House of Representatives
- 27 March
  - Austin Pendleton, American actor
  - Cale Yarborough, American race car driver
- 29 March - Ray Davis, American musician ( P-Funk)
- 30 March - Astrud Gilberto, Brazilian-born singer
- 1 April - Wangari Maathai, Kenyan environmentalist, recipient of the Nobel Peace Prize
- 2 April - Penelope Keith, English actress
- 12 April
  - Herbie Hancock, American musician
  - John Hagee, American televangelist
- 16 April - Queen Margrethe II of Denmark
- 18 April - Joseph L. Goldstein, American scientist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
- 25 April - Al Pacino, American actor



- 26 April - Giorgio Moroder, Italian film composer

## May-June

- 1 May - Elsa Peretti, Italian jewelry designer
- 7 May - Jim Connors, Legendary Radio personality (d. 1987)
- 8 May
  - Peter Benchley, American author (d. 2006)
  - Angela Carter, English author and editor (d. 1992)
  - Ricky Nelson, American singer (d. 1985)
- 8 May - Toni Tennille, American singer
- 9 May - James L. Brooks, American film producer and writer
- 11 May - Juan Downey, Chilean-born video artist (d. 1993)
- 14 May - 'H'. Jones, British soldier (VC recipient) (d. 1982)
- 15 May - Don Nelson, American basketball player and coach
- 17 May
  - Alan Kay, American computer scientist
  - Reynato Puno, Filipino Supreme Court Chief Justice
- 18 May - Lenny Lipton, American inventor
- 20 May
  - Stan Mikita, Slovakian-born hockey player
  - Sadaharu Oh, Japanese baseball player
- 22 May - Bernard Shaw, American journalist and television news reporter
- 24 May - Joseph Brodsky, Russian-born poet, Nobel Prize laureate (d. 1996)
- 29 May - Farooq Leghari, President of Pakistan
- 1 June - René Auberjonois, American actor
- 2 June - King Constantine II of Greece
- 4 June - Ludwig Schwarz, Austrian bishop
- 6 June - Richard Paul, American actor (d. 1998)
- 7 June - Tom Jones, Welsh singer
- 8 June - Carole Ann Ford, British actress
- 8 June - Nancy Sinatra, American singer
- 16 June - Neil Goldschmidt, Governor of Oregon
- 17 June - George Akerlof, American economist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 20 June - John Mahoney, English-born actor
- 21 June - Mariette Hartley, American actress
- 22 June





- Abbas Kiarostami, Iranian film director, screenwriter, and film producer
- Esther Rantzen, British broadcaster
- 23 June
  - Adam Faith, English singer and actor (d. 2003)
  - Lord Irvine of Lairg, Lord Chancellor of England
  - Wilma Rudolph, American athlete (d. 1994)
- 25 June - A.J. Quinnell, English writer (d. 2005)
- 29 June - Vyacheslav Artyomov, Russian composer

## July-August

- 3 July - César Tovar, Venezuelan Major League Baseball player (d. 1994)
- 7 July - Ringo Starr, British drummer (The Beatles)
- 10 July
  - Gene Alley, baseball player
  - Tom Farmer, Scottish entrepreneur
  - Helen Donath, American soprano
- 13 July - Patrick Stewart, English actor
- 17 July
  - Tim Brooke-Taylor, English comedian
  - Verne Lundquist, American sportscaster
- 18 July
  - Joe Torre, baseball player and manager
  - James Brolin, American actor and director
- 22 July
  - George Clinton, American musician
  - Alex Trebek, Canadian game show host
- 24 July - Stanley Hauerwas, American theologian
- 26 July - Mary Jo Kopechne, American aide to Ted Kennedy (d. 1969)
- 27 July - Bharati Mukherjee, Indian-born novelist
- 31 July - Roy Walker, comedian and TV presenter of ITV's Catchphrase (1986-1999)
- 3 August - Martin Sheen, American actor
- 7 August - Jean-Luc Dehaene, Prime Minister of Belgium
- 8 August - Dilip Sardesai, former Indian Test cricketer (d. 2007)
- 9 August - Beverlee McKinsey, American actress
- 10 August - Bobby Hatfield, American singer ( Righteous Brothers) (d. 2003)
- 19 August - Jill St. John, American actress



- 20 August
  - Musa Geshaev, Chechen poet and historian
  - Rubén Hinojosa, American politician
- 22 August - Valerie Harper, American actress
- 25 August - José Van Dam, Belgian bass-baritone
- 28 August - Tom Baker, American actor (d. 1982)
- 29 August
  - Johnny Paris, American musician ( Johnny and the Hurricanes) (d. 2006)
  - Bennie Maupin, American musician

## September-October

- 5 September - Raquel Welch, American actress
- 10 September - David Mann, American artist (d. 2004)
- 12 September
  - Skip Hinnant, American actor
  - Mickey Lolich, baseball player
- 13 September - Óscar Arias, Costa Rican politician, recipient of the Nobel Peace Prize
- 14 September - Larry Brown, American basketball coach
- 23 September - Mohammad-Reza Shajarian, Iranian traditional singer and undisputed Master
- 24 September - Michiko Suganuma, Urushi japanese lacquer artist
- 9 October - John Lennon, British musician and singer (The Beatles) (d. 1980)
- 13 October - Pharoah Sanders, American saxophonist
- 14 October - Cliff Richard, English singer
- 15 October - Peter Doherty, Australian immunologist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
- 19 October - Michael Gambon, Irish actor
- 20 October - Robert Pinsky, Poet Laureate of the United States
- 21 October
  - Manfred Mann ( Manfred Lubowitz), South African musician ( Manfred Mann bands)
  - Geoffrey Boycott, English cricketer
- 23 October - Pelé, Brazilian footballer
- 25 October - Bobby Knight, American basketball coach
- 27 October - John Gotti, American gangster (d. 2002)

## November-December



- 1 November - Ramesh Chandra Lahoti, Chief Justice of India
- 15 November - Sam Waterston, American actor
- 15 November - Roberto Cavalli, Italian Designer
- 17 November - Luke Kelly, Irish Ballad Singer from The Dubliners
- 21 November - Richard Marcinko, U.S. Navy SEAL team member and author
- 25 November - Joe Gibbs, American football coach
- 27 November - Bruce Lee, Chinese American martial artist and actor (d. 1973)
- 29 November - Chuck Mangione, famous American flugelhorn player
- 1 December - Richard Pryor, American actor and comedian (d. 2005)
- 4 December - Freddy Cannon, American singer
- 4 December - Gary Gilmore, American murderer (d. 1977)
- 5 December - Peter Pohl, Swedish writer
- 12 December
  - Sharad Pawar, Indian politician
  - Dionne Warwick, American singer
- 21 December - Frank Zappa, American musician, composer, and satirist (d. 1993)
- 22 December - Noel Jones, British ambassador to Kazakhstan (d. 1995)
- 23 December - Jorma Kaukonen, American musician ( Jefferson Airplane, Hot Tuna)
- 23 December - Robert Labine, former mayor of old city of Gatineau, Quebec
- 26 December - Edward C. Prescott, American economist, Nobel Prize laureate

## Unknown dates

- Seamus Deane, Irish poet and novelist
- António Roseiro Founder and President of VITAE

## Deaths

### January - June

- 4 January - Flora Finch, English-born actress and comedian (b. 1869)
- 18 January - Kazimierz Tetmajer, Polish poet and writer (b. 1865)
- 27 January - Isaac Babel, Ukrainian writer (b. 1894)
- Fusajiro Yamauchi, Japanese business executive
- 1 February - Philip Francis Nowlan, science fiction writer, creator of Buck Rogers character (b. 1888)
- 11 February - John Buchan, 1st Baron Tweedsmuir, Governor General of Canada (b. 1875)



- 26 February - Michael Hainisch, second President of Austria (b. 1858)
- 29 February - Edward Frederic Benson, English writer
- 5 March - Cai Yuanpei, Chinese educator (b. 1868)
- 10 March - Mikhail Boulgakov, Russian writer (b. 1891)
- 16 March - Selma Lagerlöf, Swedish writer, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1858)
- 20 March - Alfred Ploetz, German physician, biologist, and eugenicist (b. 1860)
- 26 March - Spiridon Louis, Greek runner (b. 1873)
- 27 March - Michael Joseph Savage, Prime Minister of New Zealand (b. 1872)
- 31 March - Tinsley Lindley, English footballer (b. 1865)
- 1 April - John A. Hobson, English economist (b. 1858).
- 26 April - Carl Bosch, German chemist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1874)
- 14 May - Emma Goldman, Lithuanian-born anarchist (b. 1869)
- 15 May - Menno ter Braak, Dutch writer (b. 1902)
- 20 May - Verner von Heidenstam, Swedish writer, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1859)
- 25 May - Joe De Grasse, Canadian film director (b. 1873)
- 28 May - Prince Frederick Charles of Hesse (b. 1868)
- 10 June - Marcus Garvey, Jamaican-born publisher, entrepreneur, and black nationalist (b. 1887)
- 11 June - Alfred S. Alschuler, American architect (b. 1876)
- 17 June - Arthur Harden, English chemist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1865)
- 21 June - Smedley Butler, U.S. general (b. 1881)
- 29 June - Paul Klee, Swiss artist (b. 1879)

## July - December

- 4 July - Robert Pershing Wadlow, tallest man ever (infection) (b. 1918)
- 8 August - Johnny Dodds, American jazz clarinetist (b. 1892)
- 18 August - Walter Chrysler, American automobile pioneer (b. 1875)
- 21 August - Leon Trotsky, Russian revolutionary (b. 1879)
- 21 August - Hermann Obrecht, Swiss Federal Councillor (b. 1882)
- 22 August - Mary Vaux Walcott, American artist and naturalist (b. 1860)
- 30 August - J.J. Thomson, English physicist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1856)
- 5 September - Charles de Broqueville, Prime Minister of Belgium (b. 1860)
- 27 September - Julius Wagner-Jauregg, Austrian neuroscientist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine (b. 1857)
  
- 5 October - Ballington Booth, American co-founder of Volunteers of America (b. 1857)
- 9 October - Wilfred Grenfell, English medical missionary to Newfoundland and Labrador (b. 1865)
- 10 October - Berton Churchill, Canadian actor (b. 1876)



- 9 November - Neville Chamberlain, Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (b. 1869)
- 9 November - John Henry Kirby, Texas legislator and American businessman (b. 1860)
- 17 November - Eric Gill, British sculptor and writer (b. 1882)
- 17 November - Raymond Pearl, American biologist (b. 1879)
- 5 December - Jan Kubelík, Czech violinist (b. 1880)
- 15 December or 16 December - Billy Hamilton, Baseball Hall of Fame outfielder (b. 1866)
- 19 December - Kyösti Kallio, President of Finland (b. 1873)
- 21 December - F. Scott Fitzgerald, American writer (b. 1896)
- 25 December - Agnes Ayres, American actress (b. 1898)

## Nobel prizes

- Physics - not awarded
- Chemistry - not awarded
- Physiology or Medicine - not awarded
- Literature - not awarded
- Peace - not awarded

## Ship events

- List of ship launches in 1940
- List of ship commissionings in 1940
- List of ship decommissionings in 1940
- List of shipwrecks in 1940

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# 1941

2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: World War II; Years

Year **1941** (**MCMXLI**) was a common year starting on Wednesday (the link will display 1941 calendar) of the Gregorian calendar.

<b>Centuries:</b> 19th century - <b>20th century</b> - 21st century
<b>Decades:</b> 1910s 1920s 1930s - 1940s - 1950s 1960s 1970s
<b>Years:</b> 1938 1939 1940 - <b>1941</b> - 1942 1943 1944

## Events

*(Below, many events of World War II have the World War II'prefix.)*

### January

- 1 January - Thailand Prime Minister Plaek Phibunsongkhram decrees January 1 as the official start of the Thai solar calendar new year (thus the previous year that began 1 April had only nine months).
- 4 January - The short subject *Elmer's Pet Rabbit* is released, marking the second appearance of Bugs Bunny, and also the first to have his name on a title card.
- 6 January
  - Franklin Delano Roosevelt delivers his Four Freedoms Speech in the State of the Union Address.
  - Keel of USS Missouri (BB-63) is laid at New York Navy Yard in Brooklyn.
- 8 January - Robert Baden-Powell, 1st Baron Baden-Powell the founder of Scouting, dies.
- 10 January - Lend-Lease is introduced into the U.S. Congress.
- 15 January - John Vincent Atanasoff and Clifford E. Berry describe the workings of the Atanasoff–Berry Computer in print.
- 19 January - World War II: British troops attack Italian-held Eritrea.
- 20 January - Chief Justice Charles Evans Hughes swears in U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt for his third term.
- 21 January - World War II: Australian and British forces attack Tobruk, Libya.
- 22 January - World War II: British troops capture Tobruk from the Italians.
- 23 January - Aviator Charles Lindbergh testifies before the U.S. Congress and recommends that the United States negotiate a neutrality pact with Adolf Hitler.
- 27 January - World War II: Attack on Pearl Harbour - U.S. Ambassador to Japan Joseph C. Grew passes on to Washington a rumor overheard at a diplomatic reception about a planned surprise attack upon Pearl Harbour, Hawaii.



Jan.21 Tobruk

## February

- 3 February - World War II: The Nazis forcibly restore Pierre Laval to office in occupied Vichy, France.
- 4 February - World War II: The United Service Organization (USO) is created to entertain American troops.
- 7 February - World War II: Attack on Pearl Harbour - General Walter C. Short becomes Commanding General, Hawaiian Command.
- 9 February - Winston Churchill, in a worldwide broadcast, pleads with the U.S. to show its support by sending arms to the British: "Give us the tools, and we will finish the job."
- 11 February - World War II: Lieutenant-General Erwin Rommel arrives in Tripoli.
- 14 February - World War II: Attack on Pearl Harbour - Admiral Kichisaburo Nomura begins his duties as Japanese ambassador to the United States.
- 19 February - World War II: The start of the **Three Nights' Blitz** over Swansea, South Wales. Over these three nights of intensive bombing, which lasted a total of 13 hours and 48 minutes, Swansea town centre was almost completely obliterated by the 896 High Explosive bombs employed by the Luftwaffe. A total of 397 casualties and 230 deaths were reported. The Three nights Blitz ended in the early hours of February 22
- 23 February: Glenn T. Seaborg isolates and discovers plutonium.

## March

- March - Captain America Comics #1 issues the first *Captain America & Bucky* comic.
- 1 March - World War II: Bulgaria signs the Tripartite Pact thus joining the Axis powers.
- 1 March
  - W47NV begins operations in Nashville, Tennessee becoming the first FM radio station.
  - Arthur L. Bristol becomes Rear Admiral for the U.S. Navy's Support Force, Atlantic Fleet
- 4 March - World War II: British Commandos carry out a successful raid on the Lofoten Islands off the north coast of Norway.
- 11 March
  - World War II: President Franklin Delano Roosevelt signs the Lend-Lease Act into law, allowing American-built war supplies to be shipped to the Allies on loan.
  - Kinsmen Club of Brantford is chartered.
- 17 March
  - In Washington, DC, the National Gallery of Art is officially opened by President Franklin D. Roosevelt.
  - British Minister of Labour, Ernest Bevin, calls for women to fill vital jobs.



- 22 March - Washington's Grand Coulee Dam begins to generate electricity.
- 25 March - World War II: Kingdom of Yugoslavia in Vienna joins the Axis powers
- 27 March - World War II:
  - Anti-Axis coup d'état in Yugoslavia - Prince Paul exiled; 17-year-old King Peter II assumes power.
  - Attack on Pearl Harbour - Japanese spy Takeo Yoshikawa arrives in Honolulu, Hawaii and begins to study the United States fleet at Pearl Harbour.
  - World War II: Battle of Cape Matapan starts off the Peloponnesus coast in the Mediterranean, British naval forces defeat those of Italy sinking five warships. Battle ends on 29 March.
- 30 March - All German, Italian, and Danish ships anchored in United States waters are taken into "protective custody".

## April

- 6 April - World War II: Germany invades Yugoslavia and Greece.
- 9 April - The U.S. acquires full military defense rights in Greenland.
- 10 April - World War II: U.S. destroyer *Niblack*, while picking up survivors from a sunken Dutch freighter, drops depth charges on a German U-Boat - the first "shot in anger" fired by America against Germany.
- 12 April - World War II: German troops enter Belgrade.
- 13 April - Soviet Union and Japan sign a neutrality pact.
- 15 April - World War II: The U.S. begins shipping Lend-Lease aid to China.
- 17 April - World War II: Yugoslav Royal Army capitulates.
- 18 April - World War II: Prime Minister of Greece Alexandros Koryzis commits suicide as German troops approach Athens.
- 21 April - World War II: Greece capitulates. Commonwealth troops and some elements of the Greek Army withdraw to Crete.
- 23 April - America First Committee holds its first mass rally in New York City with Charles Lindbergh as keynote speaker.
- 25 April - Franklin D. Roosevelt, at his regular press conference, criticizes Charles Lindbergh by comparing him to the Copperheads of the Civil War period. In response, Lindbergh resigns his commission in the U.S. Army Air Corps Reserve on 28 April.
- 27 April - World War II: German troops enter Athens.

## May

- 1 May
  - Breakfast cereal Cheerios is introduced as CheeriOats by General Mills.
  - Orson Welles' film *Citizen Kane* premieres in New York City
  - The first Defense Bonds and Defense Savings Stamps go on sale in the United States to help fund the greatly increased production of military equipment.
- 5 May - World War II: Emperor Haile Selassie enters Addis Ababa, which had been liberated from Italian forces; this date has been since commemorated as Liberation Day in Ethiopia.
- 6 May - At California's March Field, Bob Hope performs his first USO Show.





- 9 May - World War II: The German submarine U-110 is captured by the British Royal Navy. On board is the latest Enigma cryptography machine which Allied cryptographers later use to break coded German messages.
- 10 May - World War II:
  - The United Kingdom's House of Commons is damaged by the Luftwaffe in an air raid.
  - Rudolf Hess parachutes into Scotland claiming to be on a peace mission.
- 12 May - Konrad Zuse presented the Z3, the world's first working programmable, fully automatic computer in Berlin.
- 15 May
  - First British jet aircraft, the Gloster E.28/39, is flown.
  - Joe DiMaggio's 56-game hitting streak begins, lasting until 17 July.
- 20 May - World War II: The Battle of Crete begins as Germany launches an airborne invasion of Crete.
- 21 May - World War II: 950 miles off the coast of Brazil, the freighter SS *Robin Moor* becomes the first United States ship sunk by a German U-boat.
- 24 May - World War II: In the North Atlantic, the German battleship *Bismarck* sinks the HMS *Hood* killing all but three crewman on what was the pride of the Royal Navy.
- 26 May - World War II: In the North Atlantic, Fairey Swordfish aircraft from the carrier HMS Ark Royal fatally cripple the German battleship Bismarck in torpedo attack.
- 27 May - World War II:
  - President Roosevelt proclaims an "unlimited national emergency."
  - German battleship *Bismarck* is sunk in North Atlantic killing 2,300.

## June

- 4 June - The ex-kaiser of Germany, Wilhelm II, dies in exile at Doorn, Netherlands.
- 5 June - Four thousand Chongqing residents are asphyxiated in a bomb shelter during the Bombing of Chongqing.
- 8 June - World War II: British and Free French forces invade Syria.
- 8 June - A Serbian ammunition plant explodes at Smederevo, outskirts of Belgrade, Serbia, killing 1,500.
- 13 June - TASS, the official Soviet news agency, denies reports of tension between Germany and the Soviet Union.
- 14 June
  - Mass deportations by Soviet Union authorities take place in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania.
  - All German and Italian assets in the United States are frozen.
- 16 June - All German and Italian consulates in the United States are ordered closed and their staffs to leave the country by July 10.
- 22 June - World War II:
  - Germany attacks the Soviet Union in Operation Barbarossa
  - Italy and Romania declare war on the Soviet Union.
  - Winston Churchill promises all possible British assistance to the Soviet Union in a worldwide broadcast: "Any man or state who fights against Nazidom will have our aid. Any man or state who marches with Hitler is our foe."
  - First Sisak Partisan Brigade, first anti-fascist armed unit in occupied Europe founded by partisans near Sisak, Croatia.
- 23 June - World War II: Hungary and Slovakia declare war on the Soviet Union.



- 25 June - World War II: Finland attacks the Soviet Union to seek the opportunity of revenge in the Continuation War.
- 28 June - World War II: Albania declares war on the Soviet Union.

## July

- July - The British army's SAS (Special Air Service) formed.
- 2 July - World War II: Japan calls up one million men for military service.
- 3 July - World War II: Joseph Stalin, in his first address since the German invasion, calls upon the Soviet people to carry out a "scorched earth" policy of resistance to the bitter end.
- 4 July - Mass murder of Polish scientists and writers, committed by German troops in captured Polish city of Lwów.
- 5 July
  - World War II: German troops reach the Dnieper River.
  - War breaks out between Peru and Ecuador, lasts until 19 July.
- 7 July - World War II:
  - American forces take over the defense of Iceland from the British
  - Serbia starts the first popular uprising in Europe against the Axis Powers.
  - World War II: German troops take over Estonia from the Soviets.
- 13 July - World War II: Montenegro starts the second popular uprising in Europe against the Axis Powers.
- 14 July - World War II: Vichy France signs armistice terms ending all fighting in Syria and Lebanon.
- 19 July - World War II: A BBC broadcast by "Colonel Britton" calls on the people of Occupied Europe to resist the Nazis under the slogan "V for Victory".
- 26 July - World War II:
  - In response to the Japanese occupation of French Indo-China, US President Franklin D. Roosevelt orders the seizure of all Japanese assets in the United States.
  - General Douglas MacArthur is named commander of all U.S. forces in the Philippines; the Philippines Army ordered nationalized by President Roosevelt.
- 30 July - World War II: U.S. gunboat *Tutuila* attacked by Japanese aircraft while anchored in the Yangtze River at Chungking. Japan apologizes for the incident the following day.
- 31 July - World War II: Holocaust: Under instructions from Adolf Hitler, Nazi official Hermann Göring, orders SS general Reinhard Heydrich to "submit to me as soon as possible a general plan of the administrative material and financial measures necessary for carrying out the desired final solution of the Jewish question."

## August

- August - Formation of the Political Warfare Executive in the United Kingdom
- 1 August - The first Jeep is produced



- 6 August - Six-year-old Elaine Esposito goes to an appendix operation in Florida and lapses into a coma. She dies 1978, still in coma.
- 9 August - Franklin D. Roosevelt and Winston Churchill meet at Argentia, Dominion of Newfoundland. The Atlantic Charter is created as a result.
- 12 August - By one vote (203-202), the U.S. House of Representatives passes legislation extending the draft period for selectees and the National Guard from one year to 30 months.
- 16 August - HMS *Mercury*, Royal Navy Signals School and Combined Signals School Opens at Leydene, near Petersfield, Hampshire, England.
- 18 August - Adolf Hitler orders a temporary halt to Nazi Germany's systematic euthanasia of mentally ill and handicapped due to protests. However, graduates of the T-4 Euthanasia Program were then transferred to concentration camps, where they continued in their trade.
- 22 August - World War II: France - German Occupation Authority announces that anyone found either working for or aiding the Free French will be sentenced to death.
- 24 August - World War II: A Luftwaffe bomb hits an Estonian steamer with 3500 Soviet-mobilized Estonian men on board, killing 598 of them.
- 25 August - World War II: Operation Countenance begins with United Kingdom and Soviet forces invading Iran.
- 27 August - World War II: France - Pierre Laval is shot in an assassination attempt at Versailles.
- 28 August - World War II: Soviets announce the destruction of massive Dnieper River dam at Zaporozhye to prevent its capture by the Germans.
- 31 August - *The Great Gildersleeve* debuts on NBC Radio.

## September

- 4 September - World War II: The USS *Greer* becomes the first United States ship fired upon by a German submarine in the war, even though the United States is a neutral power. Tension heightens between the two nations as a result.
- 6 September - Holocaust: The requirement to wear the Star of David with the word "Jew" inscribed, is extended to all Jews over the age of 6 in German-occupied areas.
- 8 September - World War II: Siege of Leningrad begins - German forces begin a siege against the Soviet Union's second-largest city, Leningrad. Stalin orders the Volga Deutsche deported to Siberia.
- 11 September - World War II:
  - Franklin D. Roosevelt orders the United States Navy to shoot on sight if any ship or convoy is threatened.
  - Charles Lindbergh, at an America First Committee rally in Des Moines, Iowa, accuses "the British, the Jewish, and the Roosevelt administration" of leading the United States toward war. Widespread condemnation of Lindbergh follows.
- 12 September - World War II: First snowfall reported on Russian front.
- 15 September - Self-government of Estonia, headed by Hjalmar Mäe, is appointed by German military administration.
- 16 September - Reza Pahlavi, Shah of Iran is forced to resign in favour of his son Mohammad Reza Pahlavi of Iran under pressure from the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union.
- 27 September - The first Liberty Ship, the SS *Patrick Henry*, is launched at Baltimore, Maryland.

## October

- 2 October - World War II: Operation Typhoon begins as Germany begins an all-out offensive against Moscow.



- 7 October - John Curtin becomes the 14th Prime Minister of Australia
- 8 October - World War II: In their invasion of the Soviet Union, Germany reaches the Sea of Azov with the capture of Mariupol.
- 16 October - World War II: The Soviet Union government moves to Kuibyshev, but Stalin remains in Moscow.
- 17 October - World War II: The destroyer USS *Kearny* is torpedoed and damaged near Iceland, killing eleven sailors - the first American military casualties of the war.
- 18 October - General Hideki Tojo becomes the 40th Prime Minister of Japan.
- 21 October - World War II: The Germans rampage in Yugoslavia, killing thousands of civilians
- 23 October - Walt Disney's feature-length cartoon *Dumbo* is released.
- 24 October - Franz von Werra disappears during a flight over North Sea
- 30 October - World War II: Franklin Delano Roosevelt approves US\$1 billion in Lend-Lease aid to the Soviet Union.
- 31 October
  - After 14 years of work, drilling is completed on Mount Rushmore.
  - World War II: The destroyer USS *Reuben James* is torpedoed by a German U-boat near Iceland, killing more than 100 United States Navy sailors.

## November

- 6 November - World War II: Soviet leader Joseph Stalin addresses the Soviet Union for only the second time during his three-decade rule (the first time was earlier that year on 2 July). He states that even though 350,000 troops were killed in German attacks so far, that the Germans have lost 4.5 million soldiers (a gross exaggeration) and that Soviet victory was near.
- 7 November - World War II: The Soviet hospital Ship Armenia sunk by German planes while evacuating refugees, wounded military and staff of several Crimean hospitals. It is estimated that over 5,000 people died in the sinking.
- 10 November - In a speech at the Mansion House in London, Winston Churchill promises, "...should the United States become involved in war with Japan, the British declaration will follow within the hour."
- 12 November - World War II: As Battle of Moscow begins, temperatures around Moscow drop to  $-12^{\circ}\text{C}$  and the Soviet Union launches ski troops for the first time against the freezing German forces near the city.
- 13 November - World War II: The aircraft carrier HMS *Ark Royal* is hit by German U-boat *U-81*
- 14 November - World War II:
  - HMS *Ark Royal* capsizes and sinks, having been torpedoed by *U-81*.
  - Attack on Pearl Harbour - Japanese diplomat Saburo Kuruusu arrives in the United States to assist Ambassador Kichisaburo Nomura in peace negotiations.
- 17 November - World War II: Attack on Pearl Harbour - Joseph Grew, the United States ambassador to Japan, cables to Washington a warning that Japan may strike suddenly and unexpectedly at any time.
- 19 November - World War II: The Australian cruiser HMAS *Sydney* sinks off the coast of Western Australia, killing 645 sailors.
- 21 November - The radio program *King Biscuit Time* is broadcast for the first time (it would later become the longest running daily radio broadcast in history and the most famous live blues radio program).
- 24 November - World War II: The United States grants Lend-Lease to the Free French.
- 25 November - Riaz Ahmed Gohar Shahi, Pakistani author, Spiritual Leader and founder of International Spiritual Movement Anjuman Serfaroshan-



## e-Islam

- 26 November
  - US President Franklin Delano Roosevelt signs a bill establishing the fourth Thursday in November as Thanksgiving Day in the United States (this partly reversed a 1939 action by Roosevelt that changed the celebration of Thanksgiving to the third Thursday of November).
  - The Hull note ultimatum is delivered to Japan by the United States.
  - World War II: Attack on Pearl Harbour - A fleet of six aircraft carriers commanded by Japanese Vice Admiral Chuichi Nagumo leaves Hitokapu Bay for Pearl Harbour under strict radio silence.
- 27 November
  - A group of young men stop traffic on highway US 99 south of Yreka, California, handing out fliers proclaiming the establishment of the State of Jefferson.
  - World War II: Germans reach their closest approach to Moscow. They are subsequently frozen by cold weather and attacks by the Soviets.
  - World War II: Attack on Pearl Harbour - All U.S. military forces in Asia and the Pacific are placed on war alert.

## December

- 1 December - World War II:
  - Fiorello La Guardia, Mayor of New York City and Director of the Office of Civilian Defense, signed Administrative Order 9 creating the Civil Air Patrol under the authority of the United States Army Air Force.
  - State of emergency declared in Malaya and the Straits Settlements.
- 2 December - World War II: Attack on Pearl Harbour - The code message "Climb Mount Niitaka" is transmitted to the Japanese task force, indicating that negotiations have broken down and that the attack is to be carried out according to plan.
- 4 December - State of Jefferson declared in Yreka, California, with judge John Childs as a governor
- 6 December - World War II: Attack on Pearl Harbour - Franklin D. Roosevelt makes a personal peace appeal to Emperor Hirohito of Japan.
- 7 December, ( 8 December, Japan standard time) - Japanese Navy launches a surprise attack on the United States fleet at Pearl Harbour, thus drawing the United States into World War II.
- 8 December - World War II:
  - The United States officially declares war on Japan.
  - China officially declares war on Japan
  - The Netherlands declares war on Japan
  - Japan launches invasions in Hong Kong, Malaya, Manila, and Singapore.
  - Japan launches invasions in the Philippines.
- 10 December - World War II: The British battleships HMS *Prince of Wales* and HMS *Repulse* are sunk by Japanese aircraft in the South China Sea north of Singapore.
- 11 December - World War II:



The USS *Arizona* ablaze after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour



- Germany and Italy declare war on the United States. The U.S. responds in kind.
- American forces repel a Japanese landing attempt at Wake Island.
- 12 December - World War II
  - Hungary and Romania declare war on the United States.
  - India declares war on Japan.
  - United States seizes French ship Normandie.
- 13 December - Sweden's low temperature record of  $-53^{\circ}\text{C}$  was set in a village within Vilhelmina Municipality.
- 19 December - World War II: Hitler becomes Supreme Commander-in-Chief of the German Army
- 23 December - World War II: A second Japanese landing attempt on Wake Island is successful, and the American garrison surrenders after a full night and morning of fighting.
- 25 December - World War II: British and Canadians are defeated by the Japanese at Hong Kong.
- 26 December - World War II: Winston Churchill becomes the first British Prime Minister to address a Joint session of the U.S. Congress
- 27 December - World War II: British Commandos raid the Norwegian port of Vaagso, causing Hitler to reinforce the garrison and defenses, drawing vital troops away from other areas.
- 28 December - World War II: Operation Anthropoid, the assassination of Heydrich in Prague.

## Undated

- The Valley of Geysers is discovered in Russia.
- Results of the Ives–Stilwell experiment are published, showing that ions radiate at frequencies affected by their motion.
- In Sweden, Victor Hasselblad forms the Hasselblad camera company.
- Indochina Communist party, led by Ho Chi Minh, combines with Nationalist party to form the Vietminh.

## Ongoing

- Sino-Japanese War (1937-1945).
- World War II (1939-1945).

## Births



## January

- 3 January - Van Dyke Parks, American composer, producer, and musician
- 4 January
  - John Bennett Perry, American actor
  - Maureen Reagan, American actress.
- 5 January
  - Hayao Miyazaki, Japanese filmmaker
  - Kevin Keelan, English footballer
- 7 January
  - Iona Brown, British violinist and conductor (d. 2004)
  - Manfred Schellscheidt, German American soccer coach
  - John E. Walker, English chemist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 8 January - Graham Chapman, British comedian (d. 1989)
- 9 January - Joan Baez, American singer and activist
- 11 January - Dave Edwards, American musician (d. 2000)
- 12 January - Long John Baldry, British singer (d. 2005)
- 14 January
  - Faye Dunaway, American actress
  - Milan Kučan, Slovenian politician and statesman
  - David Johnston, retired Australian newsreader
- 15 January - Captain Beefheart, American singer
- 18 January - David Ruffin, American singer (d. 1991)
- 21 January
  - Plácido Domingo, Spanish-born tenor
  - Richie Havens, American musician
- 24 January
  - Neil Diamond, American singer and songwriter
  - Aaron Neville, American singer
- 26 January
  - Scott Glenn, American actor
  - Henry Jaglom, English film director
- 27 January - Beatrice Tinsley, English astronomer
- 30 January
  - Dick Cheney, Vice President of the United States
  - Tineke Lagerberg, Dutch swimmer
- 31 January - Dick Gephardt, American politician

## 1941 in other calendars

Gregorian calendar	1941 <i>MCMXLI</i>
Ab urbe condita	2694
Armenian calendar	1390 ԹՎ ՌՅՂ
Bahá'í calendar	97 – 98
Berber calendar	2891
Buddhist calendar	2485
Burmese calendar	1303
Byzantine calendar	7449 – 7450
Chinese calendar	庚辰年十二月初四日 (4577/4637-12-4) — to — 辛巳年十一月十四日 (4578/4638-11-14)
Coptic calendar	1657 – 1658
Ethiopian calendar	1933 – 1934
Hebrew calendar	5701 – 5702
Hindu calendars	
- <i>Vikram Samvat</i>	1996 – 1997
- <i>Shaka Samvat</i>	1863 – 1864
- <i>Kali Yuga</i>	5042 – 5043
Holocene calendar	11941
Iranian calendar	1319 – 1320
Islamic calendar	1359 – 1360
Japanese calendar	Shōwa 16 (昭和16年)
Korean calendar	4274
Thai solar calendar	2484



## February



- 1 February - Jerry Spinelli, American children's author
- 5 February
  - David Selby, American actor
  - Kaspar Villiger, Swiss Federal Councilor
- 6 February - Howard Phillips, American politician
- 7 February - Peter Foxhall, Australian evangelist
- 8 February - Nick Nolte, American actor
- 10 February - Michael Apted, English film director
- 13 February - Sigmar Polke, German painter
- 19 February - David Gross, American physicist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 20 February - Buffy Sainte-Marie, American singer
- 26 February - Tony Ray-Jones, British photographer (d. 1972)
- 27 February - Paddy Ashdown, British politician

## March

- 4 March
  - Adrian Lyne, English film director
  - John Aprea, American actor
- 5 March - Nona Gaprindashvili, Georgian chess player
- 6 March - Willie Stargell, baseball player (d. 2001)
- 13 March - Mahmoud Darwish, Palestinian prominent poet and writer of prose.(d. 2008)
- 14 March - Wolfgang Petersen, German film director
- 15 March - Mike Love, American musician ( The Beach Boys)
- 16 March
  - Robert Guéï, military ruler of Côte d'Ivoire (d. 2002)
  - Chuck Woolery, American game show host
- 18 March - Wilson Pickett, American singer (d. 2006)
- 23 March - Jim Trelease, American educator and author
- 26 March - Richard Dawkins, British scientist
- 28 March - Jim Turner, American football player
- 29 March - Joseph Hooton Taylor, Jr., American astrophysicist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 30 March - Wasim Sajjad, President of Pakistan





## April

- 3 April - Philippe Wynne, American musician (d. 1984)
- 8 April - Peggy Lennon, American singer ( The Lennon Sisters)
- 9 April - Kaye Adams, American country singer
- 12 April - Bobby Moore, English football player and World Cup winning captain (d. 1993)
- 13 April - Michael Stuart Brown, American geneticist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
- 14 April - Julie Christie, British actress
- 14 April - Pete Rose, baseball player
- 23 April
  - Paavo Lipponen, Prime Minister of Finland
  - Ed Stewart, English disc jockey
- 24 April - John Williams, Australian guitarist
- 27 April - Lee Roy Jordan, American football player
- 28 April
  - Ann-Margret, Swedish-born actress
  - K. Barry Sharpless, American chemist, Nobel Prize laureate
  - Iryna Zhylenko, Ukrainian poet

## May

- 5 May - Alexander Ragulin, Russian hockey player (d. 2004)
- 11 May - Eric Burdon, English singer ( The Animals)
- 13 May
  - Senta Berger, Swedish actress
  - Ritchie Valens, American singer (d. 1959)
- 15 May - K.T. Oslin, American musician
- 19 May
  - Bobby Burgess, American dancer and singer
  - Nora Ephron, American film, producer, director, and screenwriter
- 20 May - Goh Chok Tong, Prime Minister of Singapore
- 22 May - Paul Winfield, American actor (d. 2004)
- 24 May - Bob Dylan, American poet and musician
- 26 May - John Kaufman, Sculptor
- 31 May - Louis J. Ignarro, American pharmacologist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine



## June

- 4 June - Erkin Koray, Turkish musician
- 5 June
  - Martha Argerich, Argentine pianist
  - Spalding Gray, American actor and screenwriter (d. 2004)
- 6 June - Neal Adams, American comic book artist
- 8 June
  - Robert Bradford, Irish footballer and politician (d. 1981)
  - Fuzzy Haskins, American musician ( P-Funk)
- 9 June
  - Jon Lord, organist of Deep Purple, the "Lord of the Hammond organ"
- 10 June - Mickey Jones, American actor and musician
- 12 June - Marv Albert, American sports announcer
- 21 June
  - Joe Flaherty, American-Canadian actor
  - Valeri Zolotukhin, Soviet/Russian actor
- 19 June - Conchita Carpio-Morales, Filipino Supreme Court jurist
- 22 June - Michael Lerner, American actor
- 24 June - Bill Reardon, American politician and educator
- 27 June - Krzysztof Kieślowski, Polish film director (d. 1996)
- 28 June - Joseph Goguen, American computer scientist (d. 2006)

## July

- 1 July
  - Alfred G. Gilman, American scientist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
  - Myron Scholes, American economist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 6 July - Harold Leighton Weller, American conductor
- 7 July - Bill Oddie, English comedian and ornithologist
- 10 July - Jackie Lane, British actress
- 11 July - Tommy Vance, English disc jockey (d. 2005)
- 12 July - Benny Parsons, American race car driver (d. 2007)

14 July



- ■ Maulana Karenga, American author and activist
- ■ Andreas Khol, Austrian politician
- 19 July - Vikki Carr, American singer
- 27 July - Bill Baxley, Alabama politician
- 28 July - Riccardo Muti, Italian conductor
- 29 July
  - Jennifer Dunn, American politician (d. 2007)
  - David Warner, English actor
- 30 July - Paul Anka, Canadian-American singer and songwriter
- 31 July - Amarsinh Chaudhary, Indian politician

## August

- 3 August - Martha Stewart, American television and magazine personality
- 6 August - Lyle Berman, American poker player
- 14 August - Connie Smith, American singer
- 20 August - Slobodan Milošević, President of Serbia (d. 2006)
- 22 August - Bill Parcells, American football coach
- 28 August - Joseph Shabalala, South African musician (Ladysmith Black Mambazo)

## September

- 2 September
  - David Bale, South African-born activist (d. 2003)
  - John Thompson, American basketball coach
- 4 September - Sushilkumar Shinde, Indian politician
- 9 September
  - Otis Redding, American musician (d. 1967)
  - Dennis Ritchie, American computer scientist
- 10 September
  - Christopher Hogwood, English conductor and harpsichordist
  - Gunpei Yokoi, Japanese computer game producer (d. 1997)
- 14 September - Alberto Naranjo, Venezuelan musician
- 15 September
  - George Saines, American football player
  - Mirosław Hermaszewski, First Polish Cosmonaut in Space



- 17 September - Bob Matsui, U.S. Congressman from California (d. 2005)
- 19 September - Cass Elliott, American singer (d. 1974)
- 20 September - Dale Chihuly, American Glass Sculptor
- 24 September - Guy Hovis, American singer
- 27 September - Gay Kayler Ashcroft, Australian country music singer

## October

- 2 October - Zareh Baronian, Archimandrite, Dr., theologian, Armenian Church, Bucarest
- 4 October
  - Elizabeth Eckford, one of the Little Rock Nine
  - Jackie Collins, British writer
  - Anne Rice, American writer
- 5 October - Eduardo Duhalde, President of Argentina
- 8 October - Jesse Jackson, American clergyman and civil rights activist
- 9 October - Trent Lott, former United States Senate Minority Leader and United States Senate Majority Leader
- 10 October - Peter Coyote, American actor
- 13 October - Paul Simon, American singer and composer
- 16 October - Tim McCarver, baseball commentator
- 20 October - Anneke Wills, British actress
- 23 October - Mel Winkler, American actor
- 25 October
  - Helen Reddy, Australian singer and actress
  - Anne Tyler, American novelist
- 28 October
  - John Hallam, Irish actor
  - Hank Marvin, British guitarist, singer and songwriter
- 27 October - Gerd Brantenberg, Norwegian feminist author and gay rights activist
- 30 October - Theodor W. Hänsch, German physicist, Nobel Prize laureate

## November

- 1 November - Nigel Dempster, British journalist, author, broadcaster and diarist (d. 2007)
- 5 November - Art Garfunkel, American singer.
- 6 November - Doug Sahm, American musician (d. 1999)
- 18 November - David Hemmings, English actor (d. 2003)



- 23 November - Derek Mahon, Irish poet
- 25 November - Gohar Shahi, Spiritual Leader of Pakistan (d. 2001)
- 26 November - G. Alan Marlatt, American psychologist
- 27 November - Eddie Rabbitt, American musician (d. 1998)
- 29 November - Bill Freehan, baseball player

## December

- 9 December - Beau Bridges, American actor
- 10 December
  - Colin Kelly, American airman
  - Kyu Sakamoto, Japanese singer and actor (d. 1985)
- 13 December - John Davidson, American singer and actor
- 18 December - Prince William of Gloucester
- 19 December - Lee Myung Bak, the 17th president of South Korea
- 23 December - Ron Bushy, musician, Iron Butterfly
- 23 December - Tim Hardin, American musician (d. 1980)
- 24 December - John Levene, British actor
- 30 December - Mel Renfro, American football player
- 31 December - Sir Alex Ferguson, Manager of Manchester United

## Deaths

### January-February

- 4 January - Henri Bergson, French philosopher, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Literature (b. 1859)
- 5 January - Amy Johnson, English aviator (b. 1903)
- 8 January - Lord Robert Baden-Powell, English soldier and founder of the Boy Scouts (b. 1847)
- 10 January
  - Frank Bridge, English composer (b. 1879)
  - Sir John Lavery, Irish artist (b. 1856)
  - Joe Penner, American comedian and actor (b. 1904)
- 13 January - James Joyce, Irish writer (b. 1882)
- 6 February - Banjo Paterson, Australian poet & journalist (b. 1864)
- 9 February - Aaron S. Watkins, American temperance movement leader (b. 1863)
- 11 February - Rudolf Hilferding, German economist and Minister of Finance (b. 1877)



- 21 February - Frederick Banting, Canadian physician, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine (b. 1891)
- 24 February - Lothar von Arnauld de la Perière, German submariner (b. 1886)
- 27 February - William D. Byron, U.S. Congressman (b. 1895)
- 28 February - King Alfonso XIII of Spain (b. 1886)

## March-July

- 6 March - Gutzon Borglum, American sculptor (b. 1867)
- 8 March - Sherwood Anderson, American author (b. 1876)
- 15 March - Alexej von Jawlensky, Russian painter (b. 1864)
- 28 March
  - Virginia Woolf, English writer (b. 1882)
  - Kavasji Jamshedji Petigara, Indian police commissioner (b. 1887)
- 13 April - Annie Jump Cannon, American astronomer (b. 1863)
- 16 April - Josiah Stamp, 1st Baron Stamp, Bt, GCB, GBE, FBA, a British civil servant, industrialist, economist, statistician and banker (b.1880)
- 24 April - Karin Boye, Swedish poetess (suicide) (b. 1900)
- 28 April - Luisa Tetrazzini, Italian coloratura soprano (b. 1871)
- 16 May - Minnie Vautrin, American missionary and heroine of the Nanjing Massacre (b. 1887)
- 30 May - Prajadhipok, Rama VII, king of Thailand (b. 1893)
- 2 June - Lou Gehrig, baseball player (b. 1903)
- 4 June - Wilhelm II, Last Emperor of Germany (b. 1859)
- 6 June - Louis Chevrolet, Swiss-born automobile builder and race car driver (b. 1878)
- 29 June - Ignacy Jan Paderewski, Polish pianist, composer, and third Prime Minister of Poland (b. 1860)
- 4 July - Antoni Łomnicki, Polish mathematician (b. 1881)
- 10 July - Jelly Roll Morton, American jazz musician and composer (b. 1890)
- 11 July - Arthur Evans, English archaeologist (b. 1851)
- 25 July - Allan Forrest, American actor (b. 1885)
- 26 July - Henri Lebesgue, French mathematician (b. 1875)

## August-December

- 7 August - Rabindranath Tagore, Indian author, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1861)
- 13 August - James Stuart Blackton, American film producer (b. 1875)
- 14 August - Paul Sabatier, French chemist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1854)
- 30 August - Peder Oluf Pedersen, Danish engineer and physicist (b. 1874)
- 31 August - Marina Tsvetaeva, Russian poet (suicide) (b. 1892)



- 12 September - Hans Spemann, German embryologist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine (b. 1869)
- 5 October - Louis Brandeis, U.S. Supreme Court Justice (b. 1856)
- 8 October - Valentine O'Hara, author and authority on Russia and the Baltic States (b. 1875)
- 26 October - Arkady Gaidar, Russian writer (b. 1904)
- 29 October - Harvey Hendrick, American baseball player (b. 1897)
- 18 November
  - Walther Nernst, German chemist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1864)
  - Chris Watson, third Prime Minister of Australia (b. 1867)
- 21 November - Henrietta Vinton Davis, American elocutionist, dramatist, impersonator, public speaker (b. 1860)
- 26 November - Niels Hansen Jacobsen, Danish sculptor and ceramist (b. 1861)
- 3 December - Christian Sinding, Norwegian composer (b. 1856)
- 7 December - Pearl Harbour Attack, Japanese Surprise Attack On Naval Base In Hawaii (b. 1884)
- 7 December - Isaac Campbell Kidd, American admiral (died in the attack on Pearl Harbour) (b. 1884)
- 12 December - Cesar Basa, Filipino pilot (b. 1915)
- 30 December - El Lissitzky, Russian artist and architect (b. 1890)

## Nobel prizes

- Physics - not awarded
- Chemistry - not awarded
- Medicine - not awarded
- Literature - not awarded
- Peace - not awarded

## Ship events

- List of ship launches in 1941
- List of ship commissionings in 1941
- List of shipwrecks in 1941

Retrieved from "<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1941>"

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# 1942

2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: World War II; Years

Year **1942** (**MCMXLII**) was a common year starting on Thursday (the link will display the full 1942 calendar) of the Gregorian calendar.

<p><b>Centuries:</b> 19th century - <b>20th century</b> - 21st century</p> <p><b>Decades:</b> 1910s 1920s 1930s - 1940s - 1950s 1960s 1970s</p> <p><b>Years:</b> 1939 1940 1941 - <b>1942</b> - 1943 1944 1945</p>
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## Events of 1942

*(Below, many events of World War II have the WWII'prefix.)*

### January

- 1 January - WWII: The United States and Filipino troops fight the Battle of Bataan.
- 2 January - WWII: Manila is captured by Japanese forces.
- 7 January - WWII: Siege of the Bataan Peninsula begins.
- 10 January - WWII: The last German air-raid on Liverpool. This raid destroyed the home of William Patrick Hitler, Adolf Hitler's nephew. After his house was destroyed William Hitler went to the USA and joined the navy to fight against his uncle.
- 11 January - WWII:
  - Japan declares war on the Netherlands and invades the Netherlands East Indies.
  - WWII: The Japanese capture Kuala Lumpur.
- 16 January - Actress Carole Lombard and her mother are among those killed in a plane crash near Las Vegas while returning from a tour to promote the sale of war bonds.
- 19 January - WWII: Japanese forces invade Burma.
- 20 January - WWII: Nazis at the Wannsee conference in Berlin decide that the " final solution to the Jewish problem" is relocation, and later extermination.
- 23 January - WWII: The Battle of Rabaul begins.
- 25 January - WWII: Thailand declares war on the United States and United Kingdom.
- 26 January - WWII: The first American forces arrive in Europe landing in Northern Ireland.
- 31 January - WWII: The last organized Allied forces leave Malaya, ending the 54-day campaign.

### February

- 2 February - WWII: President Franklin Delano Roosevelt signs an executive order directing the internment of Japanese Americans and the seizure of their

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property.

- 8 February
  - António Óscar Carmona is elected president of Portugal.
  - WWII: Top United States military leaders hold their first formal meeting to discuss American military strategy in the war.
  - Daylight saving time goes into effect in the United States.
- 11 February - Operation Cerberus - Flotilla of Kriegsmarine ships dash from Brest through the English Channel to northern ports; British fail to sink any one of them.
- 15 February - WWII: Singapore surrenders to Japanese forces.
- 19 February - WWII:
  - 242 Japanese warplanes attack Darwin, Australia.
  - President Franklin D. Roosevelt signs executive order 9066 allowing the United States military to define areas as exclusionary zones. These zones affect the Japanese on the West Coast, and Germans and Italians primarily on the East Coast.
- 20 February - Lieutenant Edward O'Hare becomes America's first World War II flying ace.
- 22 February - WWII: President Franklin Delano Roosevelt orders General Douglas MacArthur out of the Philippines as American defense of the nation collapses.
- 23 February - The Japanese submarine *I-17* fires seventeen high-explosive shells toward an oil refinery near Santa Barbara, California, causing little damage.
- 24 February - Propaganda: The Voice of America begins broadcasting.
- 25 February - Princess Elizabeth registers for war service.
- 25 February - Over 1400 AA shells were fired at an unidentified, slow-moving object in the skies over Los Angeles. The appearance of the object triggered most of Southern California into an immediate wartime blackout with thousands of Air Raid Wardens being deployed throughout the city. In total there were six deaths. Despite the several hour barrage no planes were downed during the ' Battle of Los Angeles'.
- 26 February
  - The worst Coal dust explosion to date occurs in Honkeiko, China. It claims 1549 lives. The growth of the coal mining industry was a major goal of Mao Zedong's first Five-Year Plan.
  - 14th Academy Awards ceremony
- 27 February - WWII: During the Battle of the Java Sea an allied ( ABDA) task force under Dutch command, trying to stem a Japanese invasion of the Dutch East Indies is defeated by a Japanese task force in the Java Sea.

## March

- March - Construction began what would be the largest army ammunition plant in the United States during WWII; the Badger Army Ammunition Plant
- 9 March - WWII: Executive Order 9082 (February 28, 1942) reorganized the United States Army into three major commands - Army Ground Forces, Army Air Forces, and Services of Supply, later redesignated Army Service Forces.
- 28 March - WWII: British Commandos raided St Nazaire on the coast of Western France.



## April

- 3 April - WWII: Japanese forces begin an all-out assault on the United States and Filipino troops on the Bataan Peninsula. Bataan fell on 9 April and the Bataan Death March began.
- 5 April - WWII: Japanese Navy attacks Colombo in Ceylon (Sri Lanka). Royal Navy Cruisers HMS Cornwall and HMS Dorsetshire are sunk southwest of the island.
- 9 April - WWII: Japanese Navy launches air raid on Trincomalee in Ceylon (Sri Lanka); Royal Navy Aircraft Carrier HMS Hermes and Royal Australian Navy Destroyer HMAS Vampire are sunk off the country's East Coast.
- 13 April - The FCC minimum programming time required of TV stations is cut from 15 hours to four hours a week during the war.
- 15 April - WWII: King George VI awards the George Cross to Malta, "To honour her brave people I award the George Cross to the Island Fortress of Malta, to bear witness to a heroism and a devotion that will long be famous in history." From January 1 to July 24, 1942, there was only one 24-hour period during which no bombs fell on this tiny island.
- 18 April - Tokyo, Japan is bombed by B-25 Mitchells commanded by then-Lieutenant Colonel James Doolittle.
- 27 April - WWII: A national plebiscite is held in Canada on the issue of conscription.
- 29 April - WWII: Explosion at a chemical factory in Tessenderlo, Belgium leaves 200 dead and 1,000 injured.



The Japanese aircraft carrier, *Hiryu* under attack by US aircraft at the Battle of Midway.

## May

- May - First test of an undersea oil pipeline in Operation Pluto.
- 5 May - WWII: Operation Ironclad - United Kingdom forces invades French colony of Madagascar.
- 6 May - WWII: On Corregidor, the last American and Filipino forces in the Philippines surrender to the Japanese.
- 8 May - WWII: The Battle of the Coral Sea comes to an end. This is the first time in the naval history where two enemy fleets fought without seeing each other's fleets.
- 8 May/ 9 May - WWII: On the night of 8/9 May 1942, gunners of the Ceylon Garrison Artillery on Horsburgh Island in the Cocos Islands rebelled. Their mutiny was crushed and three of them were executed, the only British Commonwealth soldiers to be executed for mutiny during the Second World War.
- 12 May - WWII: Second Battle of Kharkov - In the eastern Ukraine, the Soviet Army initiates a major offensive. During the battle the Soviets will capture the city of Kharkov from the German Army, only to be encircled and destroyed.
- 14 May - Aaron Copland's *Lincoln Portrait* is performed for the first time by the Cincinnati Symphony Orchestra.
- 15 May - WWII: In the United States, a bill creating the Women's Auxiliary Army Corps (WAAC) is signed into law.
- 20 May - First African-American seamen taken into United States Navy.
- 21 May - WWII: Mexico declares war against Nazi Germany after the sinking of the Mexican tanker Faja de Oro by the German U-boat, U-160, off Key



West.

- 26 May - WWII: Battle of Bir Hakeim.
- 27 May - WWII: Operation Anthropoid - attempted assassination of Reinhard Heydrich in Prague.
- 31 May - 1 June- WWII: Attack on Sydney Harbour - Japanese submarines infiltrate Sydney Harbour in an attempt to attack Allied warships.

## June

- 1 June - WWII: Mexico declares war on Germany, Italy and Japan.
- 4 June - WWII: Reinhard Heydrich succumbs to wounds sustained on 27 May from Czechoslovakian paratroopers acting in Operation Anthropoid
- 4 June- 7 June - WWII: The Battle of Midway.
- 7 June - WWII: Japanese forces invade the Aleutian Islands. This is the first invasion of American soil in 128 years.
- 8 June - WWII: Attack on Sydney Harbour: Australian cities of Sydney and Newcastle are shelled by Japanese submarines. The eastern suburbs of both cities are damaged and the east coast is blacked-out.
- 9 June - WWII: Nazis burn the Czech village of Lidice as reprisal for the killing of Reinhard Heydrich.
- 10 June - WWII: the Gestapo massacre 173 male residents of Lidice, Czechoslovakia in retaliation for the killing of a Nazi official.
- 12 June - Holocaust: Anne Frank receives a diary for her thirteenth birthday.
- 13 June - The United States opens its Office of War Information, a centre for production of propaganda.
- 21 June - Fort Stevens was fired upon by Japanese submarine.
- 29 June - The German Eleventh Army under Erich von Manstein takes Sevastopol, although fighting rages until 9 July.

## July

- 1 July - 27 July - WWII: the First Battle of El Alamein.
- 3 July - Guadalcanal falls to the Japanese.
- 9 July - Holocaust: Anne Frank's family goes into hiding in an attic above her father's office in an Amsterdam warehouse.
- 13 July - WWII: German U-Boats sink three more merchant ships in Gulf of St. Lawrence.
- 16 July
  - Holocaust: On order from the Vichy France government headed by Pierre Laval, French police officers round-up 13,000-20,000 Jews and imprison them in the Winter Velodrome.
  - Georges Bégué and others escape from Mauzac prison camp.
- 18 July - WWII: The Germans test fly the Messerschmitt Me-262 using only its jets for the first time.
- 19 July - WWII: Battle of the Atlantic - German Grand Admiral Karl Dönitz orders the last U-boats to withdraw from their United States Atlantic coast positions in response to an effective American convoy system.
- 21 July - Japanese establish beachhead on the north coast of New Guinea in the Buna-Gona area; small Australian force begins rearguard action on the Kokoda Track Campaign.
- 22 July - Holocaust: The systematic deportation of Jews from the Warsaw Ghetto begins.



- 29 July - The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR institutes the Order of Suvorov, the Order of Kutuzov, and reinstates the Order of Alexander Nevsky.
- 31 July - The Oxford Committee of Famine Relief (OXFAM) founded.

## August

- 7 August - WWII: Battle of Guadalcanal begins - USMC initiate the first American offensive of the war with a landing on Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands.
- 8 August
  - WWII: In Washington, DC, six German would-be saboteurs are executed (two others were cooperative and received life imprisonment instead).
  - Quit India resolution is passed by the Bombay session of the All India Congress Committee (AICC), which led to the start of a historical civil disobedience movement across India.
- 9 August
  - Indian leader, Mohandas Gandhi is arrested in Bombay by British forces.
  - *Start*, led by the goalkeeper Nikolai Trusevich, play football against the German Luftwaffe team Flakelf in Nazi-occupied Kiev. Against all odds, they win 5-3. Eight of them are later arrested and tortured, and at least four are killed.
- 10 August Music legend Isaac Hayes is born.
- 13 August - 14 night - In London instruments detect a massive burst of cosmic rays.
- 15 August - WWII: *SS Ohio*, an American tanker, reaches Malta as part of the convoy of *Operation Pedestal*.
- 16 August - Polish-Jewish teacher Janusz Korczak follows a group of Jewish children into Treblinka death camp.
- 16 August - U.S. Navy blimp L-8 (Flight 101) comes ashore near San Francisco, eventually coming down in Daly City. The crew is missing.
- 19 August - WWII: The Dieppe Raid - Allied forces raid Dieppe, France. Fred Thompson Born.
- 22 August - WWII: Brazil declared war on Germany and Italy.
- 25 August - WWII: Japanese marines land at Milne Bay.
- 30 August - Luxembourg is formally annexed to the German Reich.
- 31 August - General strike launched in Luxembourg to protest against forced conscription.

## September

- 3 September - An attempt by the Germans to liquidate the Jewish ghetto in Lakhva leads to an uprising.
- 5 September - WWII: Japanese forces suffer their first defeat on land at the Battle of Milne Bay.
- 12 September - RMS *Laconia*, carrying civilians, Allied soldiers and Italian POWs is torpedoed off the coast of West Africa and sinks.
- 24 September - Andrée Borrel and Lise de Baissac became the first female SOE agents to be parachuted into occupied France.

## October



- 2 October - British cruiser *Curaçao* collides with the liner *Queen Mary* off the coast of Donegal and sinks - 338 drowned.
- 3 October - First successful launch of A-4 rocket from Test Stand VII at Peenemünde, Germany. The rocket flew 147 kilometres wide and reached a height of 84.5 kilometres and was therefore the first man-made object reaching space.
- 9 October - Statute of Westminster Adoption Act formalizes Australian autonomy.
- 11 October - WWII: Battle of Cape Esperance - On the northwest coast of Guadalcanal, United States Navy ships intercept and defeat a Japanese fleet on their way to reinforce troops on the island.
- 14 October - A German U-boat sinks the ferry SS *Caribou*, killing 137.
- 16 October - Hurricane and flooding in Bombay - 40,000 dead.
- 23 October - Award-winning composer and Hollywood songwriter Ralph Rainger (*Thanks for the Memory*) is among the 12 people killed in the mid-air collision between an American Airlines DC-3 airliner and a U.S. Army bomber near Palm Springs, California.
- 23 October - 4 November - WWII: the Second Battle of El Alamein.
- 26 October - WWII: Battle of the Santa Cruz Islands - Two Japanese aircraft carriers are heavily damaged and one US carrier is sunk.
- 28 October - The Alaska Highway is completed.
- 29 October - Holocaust: In the United Kingdom, leading clergymen and political figures hold a public meeting to register outrage over Nazi Germany's persecution of Jews.

## November

- 2 November - USAF forces, including B-24 Liberator's fly toward Oran, Africa. The squad intercepts many Luftwaffe patrols off the coast of Oran. The US Force won the air battle.
- 3 November - WWII: Second Battle of El Alamein ends - German forces under Erwin Rommel are forced to retreat during the night.
- 8 November - WWII:
  - Operation Torch - United States and United Kingdom forces land in French North Africa.
  - French Resistance Coup in Algiers, by which 400 French civil resisters neutralize the Vichyist XIXth Army Corps and the Vichyist generals (Juin, Darlan, etc.), so allowing the immediate success of Operation Torch in Algiers, and ultimately the whole of French North Africa.
- 9 November - WWII: U.S serviceman Edward Leonski hanged at Melbourne's Pentridge Prison for the "Brown-Out" Murders of three women in May.
- 10 November - WWII: In violation of a 1940 armistice, Germany invades Vichy France following French Admiral François Darlan agreement to an armistice with the Allies in North Africa.
- 12 November - WWII: Battle of Guadalcanal begins - A naval battle near Guadalcanal starts between Japanese and American forces.
- 13 November - WWII: Battle of Guadalcanal - Aviators from the USS *Enterprise* sink the Japanese battleship Hiei.
- 15 November - WWII: Battle of Guadalcanal ends - Although the United States Navy suffered heavy losses, it was able to retain control of Guadalcanal.
- 15 November - An BOAC scheduled passenger flight, a DC-3 with registration: G-AGBB, (formerly KLM PH-ALI, Ibis), enroute between Lisbon and Bristol, is attacked over the Bay of Biscay by German fighters. Although damaged they manage to escape and land in England. Other attacks on the same aircraft and on the same scheduled route: April 19 1943 and June 1 1943 (fatal).
- 19 November - WWII: Battle of Stalingrad - Soviet Union forces under General Georgy Zhukov launch the Operation Uranus counter-attacks at



Stalingrad, turning the tide of the battle in the USSR's favour.

- 21 November - The completion of the Alaska Highway (also known as the Alcan Highway) is celebrated (the "highway" was not usable by general vehicles until 1943, however).
- 22 November - WWII: Battle of Stalingrad - The situation for the German attackers of Stalingrad seems desperate during the Soviet counter-attack Operation Uranus and General Friedrich Paulus sends Adolf Hitler a telegram saying that the German Sixth Army is surrounded.
- 23 November - German U-boat sinks *SS Ben Lomond* off the coast of Brazil. One crewman, Chinese second steward Poon Lim, is separated from the others and spends 130 days adrift until he is rescued 3 April 1943.
- 26 November - The movie *Casablanca* premièred at the Hollywood Theatre in New York City.
- 27 November - WWII: At Toulon, the French navy scuttles its ships and submarines to keep them out of Nazi hands.
- 28 November
  - In Boston, Massachusetts, a fire in the Cocoanut Grove night club kills 491 people.
  - The large-scale German "pacification" of Zamojszczyzna region of Poland begins.

## December

- 1 December - Gasoline rationing begins in the United States.
- 2 December - Manhattan Project: Below the bleachers of Stagg Field at the University of Chicago, a team led by Enrico Fermi initiate the first self-sustaining nuclear chain reaction (a coded message, "The Italian navigator has landed in the new world" was then sent to US President Franklin D. Roosevelt).
- 4 December - Holocaust: In Warsaw, two women, Zofia Kossak and Wanda Filipowicz risk their lives by setting up the Council for the Assistance of the Jews.
- 7 December - WWII: British commandos conduct Operation Frankton a raid on shipping in Bordeaux harbour.
- 24 December - French Admiral Darlan, the former Vichy leader who had switched over to the Allies following the Torch landings, assassinated in Algiers.
- 27 December - The Union of Pioneers of Yugoslavia is founded.

## Undated

- Grand Coulee Dam finished in Columbia River.
- DDT first used as a pesticide.
- C. S. Lewis publishes *The Screwtape Letters*.
- Lions became extinct in Iran by this date.

## Ongoing

- World War II (1939-1945)
- Sino-Japanese War (1937-1945)



# Births

## January

- 1 January
  - Martin Frost, American politician
  - Gennadi Sarafanov, cosmonaut
  - Country Joe McDonald, American musician
- 2 January
  - Dennis Hastert, American politician and former Speaker of the United States House of Representatives
  - Hugh Shelton, American Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff
- 3 January - John Thaw, English actor (d. 2002)
- 5 January
  - Maurizio Pollini, Italian pianist
  - Charlie Rose, American talk show host
  - Jan Leeming, Former BBC newsreader
- 7 January - Vasily Alexeev, Soviet weightlifter
- 8 January
  - Stephen Hawking, British physicist and Autoharp player
  - Junichiro Koizumi, Prime Minister of Japan
  - Yvette Mimieux, American actress
  - George Passmore, English artist ( Gilbert and George)
- 11 January - Clarence Clemons, American musician
- 14 January - Yogesh Kumar Sabharwal, Chief Justice of India
- 15 January - Charo, American singer and actress
- 17 January
  - Muhammad Ali, American boxer
  - Ulf Hoelscher, German violinist
  - Nancy Parsons, American actress (d. 2001)
- 19 January - Michael Crawford, English singer and actor
- 25 January
  - Carl Eller, American football player
  - Eusébio, Portuguese footballer
- 26 January - Souad Hosni, Egyptian actress (d. 2001)
- 31 January

## 1942 in other calendars

Gregorian calendar	1942 <i>MCMXLII</i>
Ab urbe condita	2695
Armenian calendar	1391 ԹՎ ՌՅՂԱ
Bahá'í calendar	98 – 99
Berber calendar	2892
Buddhist calendar	2486
Burmese calendar	1304
Byzantine calendar	7450 – 7451
Chinese calendar	辛巳年十一月十五日 (4578/4638-11-15) — to — 壬午年十一月廿四日 (4579/4639-11-24)
Coptic calendar	1658 – 1659
Ethiopian calendar	1934 – 1935
Hebrew calendar	5702 – 5703
Hindu calendars	
- <i>Vikram Samvat</i>	1997 – 1998
- <i>Shaka Samvat</i>	1864 – 1865
- <i>Kali Yuga</i>	5043 – 5044
Holocene calendar	11942
Iranian calendar	1320 – 1321
Islamic calendar	1360 – 1361
Japanese calendar	Shōwa 17 (昭和17年)
Korean calendar	4275
Thai solar calendar	2485



- Derek Jarman, English director and writer (d. 1994)
- Daniela Bianchi, Italian actress

## February

- 1 February - Terry Jones, Welsh actor and writer
- 2 February - Graham Nash, American (English-born) rock musician
- 5 February - Roger Staubach, American football player
- 9 February - Carole King, American singer and composer
- 12 February - Ehud Barak, Prime Minister of Israel
- 13 February - Peter Tork, American musician and actor
- 14 February
  - Michael Bloomberg, American businessman, philanthropist, and the founder of Bloomberg L.P., Mayor of New York City
  - Andrew Robinson, American actor
- 15 February - Sherry Jackson, American actress
- 19 February - Paul Krause, American football player
- 20 February
  - Phil Esposito, Canadian hockey player
  - Mitch McConnell, American Politician
- 21 February - Margarethe von Trotta, German actress, film director, and writer
- 24 February - Joseph Lieberman, American politician
- 27 February - Robert H. Grubbs, American chemist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 27 February - Michel Forget, Canadian actor
- 28 February - Brian Jones, English musician (The Rolling Stones) (d. 1969)

## March

- 2 March
  - John Irving, American author
  - Lou Reed, American singer-songwriter and guitarist ( Velvet Underground)
- 4 March
  - Charles C. Krulak, U.S. Marine Corps commander
  - Gloria Gaither, American gospel songwriter
- 5 March - Felipe González Márquez, Spanish politician
- 7 March
  - Tammy Faye Bakker, American evangelist, singer and television personality (d. 2007)





- Michael Eisner, American film studio executive
- 9 March - John Cale, Welsh composer and musician ( Velvet Underground)
- 12 March - Jimmy Wynn, American baseball player, 1963-1977
- 13 March
  - Dave Cutler, American software engineer
  - Scatman John, American musician (d. 1999)
- 16 March - James Soong, Taiwan politician
- 17 March - John Wayne Gacy, American serial killer (d. 1994)
- 23 March - Walter Rodney, Guyanese historian and political figure
- 25 March
  - Aretha Franklin, American singer
  - Richard O'Brien, English-born actor and writer
- 26 March - Erica Jong, American author
- 27 March
  - John E. Sulston, British chemist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
  - Michael York, English actor
  - Michael Jackson, English writer (d. 2007)
- 28 March
  - Neil Kinnock, British statesman
  - Mike Newell, British film director
  - Conrad Schumann, East German border guard (d. 1998)
  - Jerry Sloan, American basketball coach
- 29 March - Scott Wilson, American actor

## April

- 1 April - Annie Nightingale, British DJ (Radio 1)
- 2 April
  - Hiroyuki Sakai, Japanese chef
  - Leon Russell, American singer, songwriter, pianist, and guitarist
- 3 April
  - Marsha Mason, American actress
  - Wayne Newton, American singer
- 4 April - Elizabeth Levy, American author
- 5 April
  - Peter Greenaway, Welsh film-maker
  - Pascal Couchepin, Swiss Federal Councilor



- 6 April - Barry Levinson, American film producer and director
- 8 April - Roger Chapman, British rock singer ( Family, Streetwalkers)
- 9 April - James Cowan, Australian novelist
- 10 April - Nick Auf der Maur, Canadian journalist and politician (d. 1998)
- 14 April
  - Valeriy Brumel, Russian athlete (d. 2003)
  - Valentin Lebedev, cosmonaut
- 15 April
  - Kenneth Lay, American businessman (d. 2006)
  - Julie Sommars, American actress
- 17 April
  - David Bradley, British actor
  - Buster Williams, American jazz bassist
- 23 April - Sandra Dee, American actress (d. 2005)
- 24 April - Barbra Streisand, American singer, theatre and film actress, composer
- 26 April
  - Bobby Rydell, American singer
  - Michael Kergin, Canadian diplomat
  - Claudine Auger, French actress
- 27 April - Jim Keltner, American drummer

## May

- 2 May - Jacques Rogge, Belgian International Olympic Committee president
- 5 May - Tammy Wynette, American musician (d. 1998)
- 8 May - Terry Neill, Northern Irish footballer and football manager
- 9 May - John Ashcroft, United States Attorney General
- 10 May - Youssouf Sambo Bâ, Burkinabé politician
- 12 May - Ian Dury, British musician (d. 2000)
- 17 May - Taj Mahal, American singer and guitarist
- 18 May
  - Albert Hammond, English-born musician and composer
  - Nobby Stiles, English footballer
- 19 May - Gary Kildall, American computer scientist (d. 1994)
- 20 May - David Proval, American actor
- 22 May
  - Theodore Kaczynski, American bomber



- Calvin Simon, American musician ( P Funk)
- 23 May - Gabriel Liiceanu, Romanian philosopher
- 26 May - Levon Helm, American musician ( The Band)
- 28 May - Stanley B. Prusiner, American scientist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine

## June

- 2 June - Eduard Malofeyev, Russian football coach and former international player
- 3 June
  - Curtis Mayfield, American musician (d. 1999)
  - Frank McRae, American actor
- 10 June
  - Gordon Burns, British journalist and TV presenter
  - Preston Manning, Canadian politician
- 12 June - Bert Sakmann, German physiologist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 17 June
  - Mohamed ElBaradei, Egyptian International Atomic Energy Agency director, recipient of the Nobel Peace Prize
  - Roger Steffens, Reggae archivist, actor, author, Bob Marley biographer
- 18 June
  - Roger Ebert, American film critic and television personality
  - Paul McCartney, British musician and composer (The Beatles)
  - Hans Vonk, Dutch conductor
  - Thabo Mbeki, South African politician
- 19 June
  - Michael Broggie, Disney historian and author
  - Ralna English, American singer
- 20 June - Brian Wilson, American singer ( The Beach Boys)
- 24 June
  - Mick Fleetwood, English drummer ( Fleetwood Mac)
  - Michele Lee, American actress, singer and dancer
- 27 June - Bruce Johnston, American musician ( The Beach Boys)
- 28 June - David Miner, musician and record producer

## July

- 4 July



- Floyd Little, American football player
- Prince Michael of Kent
- 7 July - Carmen Duncan, Welsh-born actress
- 8 July - Janice Pennington, American model and playboy playmate
- 9 July - Richard Roundtree, African-American actor
- 10 July
  - Pyotr Klimuk, cosmonaut
  - Ronnie James Dio, American singer
- 13 July
  - Harrison Ford, American actor and producer
  - Roger McGuinn, American musician ( The Byrds)
- 15 July - Mil Máscaras, Mexican professional wrestler
- 18 July - Adolf Ogi, member of the Swiss Federal Council
- 23 July - Myra Hindley, English murderer
- 24 July - Chris Sarandon, American actor
- 27 July - Dennis Ralston, American tennis player
- 28 July - Kaari Utrio, Finnish writer
- 29 July - Tony Sirico, American actor

## August

- 1 August - Jerry Garcia, American musician (d. 1995), ( Grateful Dead)
- 2 August - Isabel Allende, Chilean writer
- 4 August - David Lange, Prime Minister of New Zealand (d. 2005)
- 7 August - Garrison Keillor, American writer and radio host
- 17 August - Roshan Seth, British Indian actor
- 18 August - Judith Keppel, First person to win £1,000,000 on Who Wants To Be A Millionaire?
- 19 August - Fred Dalton Thompson, U.S. Senator and actor
- 20 August - Isaac Hayes, American singer and actor (d. 2008)
- 26 August - Dennis Turner (Lord Bilston), British politician
- 27 August - "Captain" Daryl Dragon, American musician
- 28 August - Sterling Morrison, American musician (d. 1995)
- 31 August - Isao Aoki, Japanese golfer

## September



- 1 September - John Lange, American scientist
- 3 September - John Shrapnel, English actor
- 14 September - Bernard MacLaverty, Irish writer
- 15 September - Lee Dorman, American Bassist
- 17 September - Desmond Lynam, British TV presenter
- 19 September - Freda Payne, American singer and actress
- 22 September - David Stern, American commissioner of the National Basketball Association
- 24 September - Ilkka "Danny" Lipsanen, Finnish singer
- 28 September - Marshall Bell, American actor
- 29 September
  - Madeline Kahn, American actress (d. 1999)
  - Ian McShane, English actor
  - Jean-Luc Ponty, French jazz violinist
- 30 September - Frankie Lymon, American singer (d. 1968)

## October

- 1 October - Gunther Wallraff, German investigative journalist
- 6 October
  - Britt Ekland, Swedish actress
  - Fred Travalena, American comedian and impressionist
- 7 October - Ronald Baecker, American computer scientist
- 11 October - Amitabh Bachchan, Indian actor
- 12 October - Melvin Franklin, American musician (d. 1995)
- 13 October - Jerry Jones, American football team owner
- 14 October - Evelio Javier, Filipino politician, lawyer, and civil servant (d. 1986)
- 15 October
  - Penny Marshall, American actress, producer and director
  - Satguru Bodhinatha Veylanswami, American Hindu guru and pontiff of Kauai's Hindu monastery on Kauai, Hawaii, USA.
- 19 October - Andrew Vachss, American author and attorney
- 20 October
  - Earl Hindman, American actor (d. 2003)
  - Christiane Nüsslein-Volhard, German biologist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
- 21 October - Elvin Bishop, American musician
- 22 October - Annette Funicello, American actress
- 23 October - Michael Crichton, American author
- 26 October



- Bob Hoskins, British actor
- Chelcie Ross, American actor
- 29 October - Bob Ross, American painter and television presenter (d. 1995)
- 31 October - David Ogden Stiers, American voice-over artist

## November

- 1 November
  - Larry Flynt, American publisher
  - Ralph Klein, Premier of Alberta
- 2 November - Stefanie Powers, American actress
- 8 November
  - Angel Cordero Jr., Puerto Rican jockey
  - Fernando Sorrentino, Argentine writer
- 10 November
  - Robert F. Engle, American economist, Nobel Prize laureate
  - Hans-Rudolf Merz, Swiss Federal Councilor
- 13 November - John P. Hammond, American singer
- 15 November - Daniel Barenboim, Argentine-born pianist and conductor
- 17 November - Martin Scorsese, American film director
- 18 November
  - Linda Evans, American actress
  - Susan Sullivan, American actress
- 20 November - Joe Biden, U.S. Senator from Delaware
- 22 November - Francis K. Butagira, Ugandan ambassador
- 24 November - Billy Connolly, Scottish comedian
- 26 November - Khalil Kalfat, Egyptian intellectual and writer
- 27 November
  - Henry Carr, American athlete
  - Jimi Hendrix, American musician (d. 1970)
  - Manolo Blahnik, Spanish shoe designer
- 28 November - Paul Warfield, American football player
- 29 November - Michael Craze, British actor (d. 1998)
- 29 November - Philippe Huttenlocher, Swiss baritone

## December



- 4 December - Gemma Jones, British actress
- 6 December - Peter Handke, Austrian novelist
- 7 December - Peter Tomarken, American game show host (d. 2006)
- 9 December - Dick Butkus, American football player
- 11 December - Donna Mills, American actress
- 12 December - Peter Sarstedt, British musician
- 17 December - Paul Butterfield, American musician (d. 1987)
- 20 December - Bob Hayes, American athlete
- 21 December - Carla Thomas, American singer
- 23 December - Jorma Kaukonen, American musician ( Jefferson Airplane and Hot Tuna)
- 27 December - Charmian Carr, American actress
- 29 December - Rajesh Khanna, Indian actor
- 30 December
  - Betty Aberlin, American actress
  - Allan Gotthelf, American philosopher
- 31 December - Andy Summers, English guitarist

## Date unknown

- Roger Angleton, American murderer (d. 1998)
- John M. Bennett, American poet
- Dick Stockton, American sports announcer
- George Negus, Australian author, journalist, and television presenter.
- *probable* - Muammar al-Gaddafi, leader of Libya

## Deaths

### January-February

- 6 January - Henri de Baillet-Latour, Belgian International Olympic Committee president (b. 1876)
- 14 January - Porfirio Barba-Jacob, Colombian poet and writer (b. 1883)
- 16 January
  - Prince Arthur, Duke of Connaught and Strathearn, second youngest son of Queen Victoria (b. 1850)
  - Carole Lombard, American actress (air crash) (b. 1908)
- 22 January - Walter Sickert, English Impressionist painter (b. 1860)
- 26 January - Felix Hausdorff, German mathematician (suicide) (b. 1868)



- 14 February - Miroslaw Feric, Polish pilot of the No. 303 Squadron in Northolt (b. 1915)
- 19 February - Frank Abbandando, American gangster (executed) (b. 1910)
- 22 February - Stefan Zweig, Austrian writer (suicide with wife) (b. 1881)
- 28 February - Karel Doorman, Dutch admiral (sinking ship) (b. 1889)

## March-May

- 1 March - Cornelius Vanderbilt III, American military officer, inventor, and engineer (b. 1873)
- 1 March - George S. Rentz, United States Navy Chaplain and Navy Cross winner (b. 1882)
- 8 March - José Raúl Capablanca, Cuban chess player (b. 1888)
- 10 March - William Henry Bragg, English physicist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1862)
- 21 March - J.S Woodsworth, Canadian politician (b. 1874)
- 15 April - Robert Musil, Austrian-born novelist (b. 1880)
- 16 April - Princess Alexandra of Edinburgh and Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, granddaughter of Queen Victoria
- 17 April - Jean Baptiste Perrin, French physicist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1870)
- 18 April - Gertrude Vanderbilt Whitney, American sculptor and socialite (b. 1875)
- 24 April - Deenanath Mangeshkar, Indian singer and composer (b. 1900)
- 2 May - Jose Abad Santos, Filipino chief justice of the Supreme Court (b. 1886)
- 3 May - Thorvald Stauning, Prime Minister of Denmark (b. 1873)
- 7 May - Felix Weingartner, Yugoslavian conductor (b. 1863)
- 27 May - Chen Duxiu, General Secretary of the Communist Party of China (b. 1879)
- 29 May - John Barrymore, American actor (b. 1882)
- 29 May - Akiko Yosano, Japanese author, poet (b. 1878)

## June-October

- 4 June - Reinhard Heydrich, chief of the Nazi Reich Main Security Office and Reich governor of Bohemia and Moravia (assassinated) (b. 1904)
- 7 June - Alan Blumlein, English electronics engineer (b. 1903)
- 30 June - William Henry Jackson, American photographer (b. 1843)
- 15 July - Wenceslao Vinzons, Filipino politician and resistance leader (bayoneted to death) (b. 1910)
- 23 July - Adam Czerniakow, Polish engineer and senator (suicide) (b. 1880)
- 26 July - Roberto Arlt, Argentine writer (b. 1900)
- 28 July - William Matthew Flinders Petrie, English Egyptologist (b. 1853)
- 3 August - Richard Willstätter, German chemist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1872)
- 25 August- Prince George, Duke of Kent, fourth eldest son of King George V
- 14 September - Ezra Seymour Gosney, American philanthropist and eugenicist (b. 1855)





- 29 September - Gene Stack, first player from a major league roster to be drafted during WWII and also the first to die in service (b. 1920)
- 23 October - Ralph Rainger, American composer and Hollywood songwriter (b. 1901)

## November-December

- 1 November - Hugo Distler, German composer (b. 1908)
- 5 November - George M. Cohan, American songwriter and entertainer (b. 1878)
- 12 November - Laura Hope Crews, stage & film actress (aunt PityPat), (b. 1879)
- 19 November - Bruno Schulz, Polish writer and painter (shot) (b. 1892)
- 21 November - Leopold Graf Berchtold, Austro-Hungarian foreign minister (b. 1863)
- 7 December - Orland Steen Loomis, Governor-elect of Wisconsin (b. 1893)
- 22 December - Franz Boas, German anthropologist (b. 1858)

## Nobel prizes

- Physics - not awarded
- Chemistry - not awarded
- Medicine - not awarded
- Literature - not awarded
- Peace - not awarded

## Ship events

- List of ship launches in 1942
- List of ship commissionings in 1942
- List of ship decommissionings in 1942
- List of shipwrecks in 1942

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# 1943

2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: World War II; Years

Year **1943** (**MCMXLIII**) was a common year starting on Friday (the link will display full 1943 calendar) of the Gregorian calendar.

<p><b>Centuries:</b> 19th century - <b>20th century</b> - 21st century</p> <p><b>Decades:</b> 1910s 1920s 1930s - 1940s - 1950s 1960s 1970s</p> <p><b>Years:</b> 1940 1941 1942 - <b>1943</b> - 1944 1945 1946</p>
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## Events of 1943

*(Below, many events of World War II have the WWII'prefix.)*

### January

- 4 January - End of term for Culbert Olson, 29th Governor of California. He is succeeded by Earl Warren.
- 11 January
  - The United States and United Kingdom give up territorial rights in China.
  - General Juanto dies in Argentina - Ramón Castillo succeeds him
- 12 January - Dutch journalist and writer Jan Campert, dies in Neuengamme concentration camp
- 13 January - Helmut Schenk is the first person to use an ejection seat from an aircraft
- 14 January - Franklin D. Roosevelt becomes the first President of the United States to travel by airplane while in office (Miami, Florida to Morocco to meet with Winston Churchill to discuss World War II).
- 15 January
  - WWII: Japanese are driven off Guadalcanal.
  - The world's largest office building, The Pentagon, is dedicated in Arlington, Virginia.
- 18 January
  - WWII: Soviet officials announce they have broken the Wehrmacht's siege of Leningrad.
  - Beginning of the Warsaw Ghetto Uprising.
- 23 January
  - WWII: British forces capture Tripoli from the Italians.
  - Duke Ellington plays at New York City's Carnegie Hall for the first time.
    - Critic and commentator Alexander Woollcott suffers an eventually fatal heart attack during a regular broadcast of the CBS Radio roundtable program "People's Platform".
- 27 January - WWII: 50 bombers mount the first all American air raid against Germany ( Wilhelmshaven was the target).
- 29 January - German police arrest alleged necrophiliac Bruno Ludke



## February

- 2 February - WWII: In Russia, the Battle of Stalingrad comes to an end with the surrender of the German 6th Army.
- 3 February - WWII:
  - The death of the Four Chaplains when their ship was struck by a torpedo
- 7 February - WWII: In the United States, it is announced that shoe rationing will go into effect in two days.
- 8 February - WWII: Battle of Guadalcanal - United States forces defeat Japanese troops.
- 10 February - 3 March - Mohandas Gandhi keeps a hunger strike to protest his imprisonment
- 11 February - General Eisenhower is selected to command the allied armies in Europe.
- 14 February - WWII:
  - Rostov-na-Donu, Russia is liberated.
  - Battle of the Kasserine Pass - German General Erwin Rommel and his Afrika Korps launch an offensive against Allied defenses in Tunisia; it is the United States' first major battle defeat of the war.
- 16 February - WWII: Soviet Union reconquers Kharkov, but is later driven out in the Third Battle of Kharkov
- 18 February
  - In a speech at the Berlin Sportpalast German Propagandaminister (Propaganda Minister) Joseph Goebbels declare a " Total War" against the allies
  - The Nazis arrest the members of the White Rose movement.
- 20 February
  - American movie studio executives agree to allow the Office of War Information to censor movies.
  - The Mexican volcano Parícutin is born in a farmer's cornfield.
- 22 February - Members of White Rose are executed in Nazi Germany.
- 23 February - A fire breaks out at St Joseph's Orphanage , Co Cavan , Ireland , killing 36 people (35 of whom were children)
- 27 February - The Smith Mine #3 in Bearcreek, Montana, United States explodes, killing 74 men.
- 28 February - Operation Gunnerside, 6 Norwegians led by Joachim Ronneberg successfully attack the heavy water plant Vemork.



Soviet T34 tanks during the Battle of Kursk.

## March

- 1 March - Heinz Guderian becomes the Inspector-General of the Armoured Troops for the German Army.
- 2 March - WWII: Battle of the Bismarck Sea - United States and Australian forces sink Japanese convoy ships.
- 3 March - 173 people are killed in a crush while trying to enter an air-raid shelter at Bethnal Green tube station in London.
- 4 March - 15th Academy Awards ceremony
- 8 March - WWII: American forces are attacked by Japanese troops on Hill 700 in Bougainville in a battle that will last five days.
- 13 March
  - WWII: On Bougainville, Japanese troops end their assault on American forces at Hill 700.
  - Holocaust: German forces liquidate the Jewish ghetto in Kraków.
- 17 March - Éamon de Valera makes the speech " The Ireland That We Dreamed Of", commonly called the "comely maidens" speech



- 19 March - Frank Nitti suicides
- 22 March - WWII: The entire population of Khatyn in Belarus is burnt alive by the German occupation forces.
- 23 March- the drug in Vicodin and Lortab is made in Germany.
- 26 March - WWII: Battle of Komandorski Islands - In the Aleutian Islands the battle begins when United States Navy forces intercept Japanese attempting to reinforce a garrison at Kiska.
- 28 March - In Italy a ship full of weapons and ammunitions explode in the port of Naples, over 600 dead
- 31 March - Rodgers and Hammerstein's *Oklahoma!* opens on Broadway, heralds a new era in "integrated" stage musicals, becomes an instantaneous stage classic, and goes on to be Broadway's longest-running musical up to that time (1948).

## April

- 3 April - Shipwrecked steward Poon Lim is rescued by Brazilian fishermen after he has been adrift for 130 days
- 13 April - WWII: Radio Berlin announces the discovery by Wehrmacht of mass graves of Poles killed by Soviets in the Katyn massacre.
- 19 April - Albert Hofmann self administers the drug LSD for the first time in history, and records the details of his trip.
- 19 April - A BOAC scheduled passenger flight, a DC-3 with registration: G-AGBB, (formerly KLM PH-ALI, Ibis), enroute between Lisbon and Bristol, is attacked over the Bay of Biscay by German fighters. They manage to escape and land in England. Other attacks on the same aircraft and on the same scheduled route: November 15 1942 and June 1 **1943** (fatal).
- 21 April - Worst Bombing of Aberdeen in WW2.
- 22 April - Albert Hofmann writes his first report about the hallucinogenic properties of LSD, which he first synthesized in 1938.
- 25 April - Easter occurs on the latest possible date. Last time 1886 next time 2038.
- 27 April - The U.S. Federal Writers' Project is shuttered.

## May

- 9 May- 12 - Japanese troops carry out the Changjiao massacre in Changjiao, Hunan, China.
- 11 May - WWII: American troops invade Attu in the Aleutian Islands in an attempt to expel occupying Japanese forces.
- 12 May - Trident Conference begins in Washington, D.C. with Franklin D. Roosevelt and Winston Churchill taking part.
- 13 May - WWII: German Afrika Korps and Italian troops in North Africa surrender to Allied forces.
- 14 May - Sinking of the Australian Hospital Ship Centaur off the coast of Queensland, by a Japanese submarine.
- 15 May - Comintern is dissolved.
- 16 May - WWII: The Dambuster Raids by RAF 617 Sqdn on German dams.
- 16 May - Holocaust: The Warsaw Ghetto Uprising ends.
- 17 May - WWII:
  - Surviving RAF *Dam Busters* return.
  - The United States Army contracts with the University of Pennsylvania's Moore School to develop the ENIAC.
  - The Memphis Belle Becomes the first airplane in the 8th Air Force to complete a 25-mission tour of duty.



- 19 May - Winston Churchill addresses a joint session of the U.S. Congress.
- 24 May - Holocaust: Josef Mengele becomes Chief Medical Officer in Auschwitz.
- 29 May - Norman Rockwell's illustration of "Rosie the Riveter" first appears on the cover of the *Saturday Evening Post*.
- 31 May - Rioting between military personnel and Mexican American youths erupts in East Los Angeles and is dubbed the "Zoot Suit Riots".
- 31 May - Helmut Kapp has been killed in Jędrzejów

## June

- 1 June - British Overseas Airways Corporation Flight 777, a DC-3 with registration: G-AGBB, (formerly KLM PH-ALI, Ibis), on a scheduled passenger flight, is shot down over the Bay of Biscay by German Junkers Ju 88s, all 17 persons aboard perish, including the actor Leslie Howard. There is speculation that the downing was an attempt to kill British Prime Minister Winston Churchill as the Germans may have had wrong information he was aboard. Previous (for the occupants more fortunate) attacks on the same aircraft and on the same scheduled route happened on November 15 1942 and April 19 1943.
- 4 June - Military Coup d'état in Argentina ousts Ramón Castillo.
- 13 June - The Looney Tunes animated short *Porky Pig's Feat*, is released to theaters in the U.S.
- 22 June - U.S. Army 45th Infantry Division land in North Africa prior to training at Arzew, French Morocco while serving in World War II.

## July

- 5 July - WWII:
  - Battle of Kursk - The largest tank battle in history begins.
  - An Allied invasion fleet sails to Sicily.
- 6 July - WWII: Americans and Japanese fight the Battle of Kula Gulf off Kolombangara.
- 10 July - WWII: The Allied invasion of Sicily marks the beginning allied invasion of Axis-controlled Europe with landings on the island of Sicily, off mainland Italy by the U.S. Army 45th Infantry Division.
- 11 July - United States Army forces assault the village of Piano Lupo, just outside of Gela, Sicily.
- 12 July - WWII: the Wehrmacht and the Red Army fight the Battle of Prokhorovka.
- 13 July - WWII: the invasion of Sicily begins with British landings at Augusta on the island's eastern side and American landings to the south.
- 19 July - WWII: Rome is bombed by the Allies for the first time in the war.
- 24 July - WWII: Operation Gomorrah begins: British and Canadian aeroplanes bomb Hamburg by night, those of the Americans by day. By the end of the operation in November, 9,000 tons of explosives will have killed more than 30,000 people and destroyed 280,000 buildings.
- 25 July - \*In Italy the Gran Consiglio del Fascismo retires its consent to Mussolini; Mussolini is arrested and the power is given to Maresciallo d'Italia Gen. Pietro Badoglio.
- 28 July - WWII: Operation Gomorrah - The British bomb Hamburg causing a firestorm that kills 42,000 German civilians.

## August



- 1 August - Operation Tidal Wave: 177 B-24 Liberator bombers from the U.S. Army Air Force bomb oil refineries at Ploiești, Romania.
- 3 August - WWII: John F. Kennedy's PT-109 is rammed by a destroyer, the Battle of Vella Gulf will be more successful.
- 4 August - WWII: USS Intrepid (CV-11) is launched
- 5 August - WWII: John F. Kennedy and crew are found by coastwatcher scouts Solomon Islanders Biuku Gasa and Eroni Kumana with their dugout canoe.
- 6 August - WWII: Americans defeat a Japanese convoy at the Battle of Vella Gulf off Kolombangara as the U.S. Army drives the Japanese out of Munda airfield on New Georgia.
- 13 August - WWII: Rome is declared an open city.
- 14 August - Quadrant Conference begins in Quebec City. Canadian Prime Minister MacKenzie King meets with Winston Churchill and Franklin D. Roosevelt.
- 17 August - WWII: The US 7th Army under General George S. Patton arrive in Messina, Sicily followed several hours later by the British 8th Army under Field Marshal Bernard L. Montgomery, thus completing the Allied conquest of Sicily.
- 23 August - The Battle of Kursk ends with a serious strategic defeat for the German forces.
- 24 August - WWII: Germany - Heinrich Himmler is named Reichminister of the Interior.
- 26 August - WWII: Lord Louis Mountbatten is named Supreme Allied Commander for Southeast Asia.
- 28 August - WWII: Bulgaria - King Boris III dies under peculiar circumstances. His six-year-old son, Simeon II, ascends to the throne.
- 29 August - WWII: Germany dissolves the Danish government after it refuses to deal with a wave of strikes and disturbances to the satisfaction of the German authorities. (See: Occupation of Denmark)

## September

- 3 September - WWII: Mainland Italy is invaded by Allied forces under Bernard L. Montgomery, for the first time in the war.
- 5 September - WWII: The 503rd Parachute Regiment under American General Douglas MacArthur lands and occupies Nadzab, just east of the port city of Lae in northeastern Papua New Guinea.
- 7 September - A fire at the Gulf Hotel in Houston, Texas, kills 55 people.
- 8 September - WWII:
  - United States General Dwight D. Eisenhower publicly announces the surrender of Italy to the Allies and the USAAF bombed the German General Headquarter for the Mediterranean zone Frascati bombing raid September 8, 1943.
  - Julius Fucik is executed by Nazis.
- 8 September - First classes commence at Grace University.
- 12 September - WWII: German paratroopers rescue Mussolini from imprisonment, in "Operation Oak".
- 16 September - WWII: Salerno Mutiny
- 17 September - WWII: The Villefranche-de-Rouergue uprising takes place.
- 23 September - WWII: Republic of Salò is founded.
- 27 September - WWII: First of the four days of Naples uprising.



## October

- 1 October - WWII: American forces enter liberated Naples.
- 6 October - WWII: Americans and Japanese fight the naval Battle of Vella Lavella.
- 7 October - WWII: Naples post office explosion
- 10 October - The Order of Bogdan Khmel'nitsky instituted in the USSR.
- 13 October - WWII: The new government of Italy sides with the Allies and declares war on Germany.
- 18 October - Chiang Kai-shek takes the oath of office as president of China.
- 21 October - Lucie Aubrac and others in her French Resistance cell liberate Raymond Aubrac from Gestapo imprisonment
- 22 October - WWII: RAF delivers a highly destructive airstrike on the German industrial and population centre of Kassel
- 30 October - The Merrie Melodies short, Falling Hare, the only short with Bugs getting out-smarted is released.

## November

- 1 November - WWII: In Operation Goodtime, United States Marines land on Bougainville in the Solomon Islands.
- 2 November - WWII:
  - In the early morning hours, American and Japanese ships fight the inconclusive Battle of Empress Augusta Bay off Bougainville.
  - British troops, in Italy, reach the Garigliano River.
- 14 November - Leonard Bernstein, substituting at the last minute for ailing principal conductor Bruno Walter, directs the New York Philharmonic in its regular Sunday afternoon broadcast concert over CBS Radio. The event receives front page coverage in the New York Times the following day.
- 15 November - Porajmos: German SS leader Heinrich Himmler orders that Gypsies and "part-Gypsies" were to be put "on the same level as Jews and placed in concentration camps."
- 16 November - WWII:
  - After flying from Britain, 160 American bombers strike a hydro-electric power facility and heavy water factory in German-controlled Vemork, Norway.
  - Japanese submarine sinks surfaced USA submarine USS Corvina near Truk
- 18 November - WWII: 440 Royal Air Force planes bomb Berlin causing only light damage and killing 131. The RAF lost nine aircraft and 53 aviators.
- 20 November - WWII: Battle of Tarawa begins - United States Marines land on Tawara and Makin atolls in the Gilbert Islands and take heavy fire from Japanese shore guns.
- 22 November
  - WWII: War in the Pacific - US President Franklin D. Roosevelt, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, and ROC leader Chiang Kai-Shek meet in Cairo, Egypt, to discuss ways to defeat Japan.
  - Lebanon gains independence from France.
- 23 November - The Deutsche Opernhaus on Bismarckstraße in the Berlin neighbourhood of Charlottenburg was destroyed. It was rebuilt in 1961 and called the Deutsche Oper Berlin.
- 25 November - WWII: Americans and Japanese fight the naval Battle of Cape St. George between Buka and New Ireland.



- 28 November - WWII: Tehran Conference - US President Franklin D. Roosevelt, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill and Soviet Leader Joseph Stalin meet in Tehran to discuss war strategy (on 30 November they established an agreement concerning a planned June 1944 invasion of Europe codenamed Operation Overlord).
- 29 November - Second session of AVNOJ, the Anti-fascist council of national liberation of Yugoslavia, is held in Jajce, Bosnia and Herzegovina, determining the post-war ordering of the country.

## December

- 2 December - A Luftwaffe bombing raid on the harbour of Bari, Italy, sinks an American ship with a mustard gas stockpile. Numerous fatalities (though the exact death toll is unresolved as the bombing raid itself caused hundreds of deaths too).
- 3 December - Edward R. Murrow delivers his classic "Orchestrated Hell" broadcast over CBS Radio describing a Royal Air Force nighttime bombing raid on Berlin.
- 4 December
  - WWII: In Yugoslavia, resistance leader Marshal Tito proclaims a provisional democratic Yugoslav government in-exile.
  - Great Depression officially ends in the United States: With unemployment figures falling fast due to World War II-related employment, US President Franklin D. Roosevelt closes the Works Progress Administration.
- 20 December - Military coup in Bolivia
- 24 December - WWII: US General Dwight D. Eisenhower becomes the Supreme Allied Commander in Europe.
- 30 December - Subhash Chandra Bose sets up a pro-Japanese Indian government at Port Blair, India.

## Undated

- Development of the Colossus computer by British to break German encryption (see History of computing hardware).
- Mondragón cooperative begins in Basque Country in Spain
- Arana Hall, Otago founded.
- Jacques-Yves Cousteau co-invents, with Emile Gagnan, the first commercially successful open circuit type of scuba diving equipment, the aqua-lung.
- Publication of Martin Noth's groundbreaking *Überlieferungsgeschichtliche Studien: Die sammelnden und bearbeitenden Geschichtswerke im Alten Testament* [Schriften der Königsberger Gelehrten Gesellschaft: Geisteswissenschaftliche Klasse; 18,2 (trans: "Writings of the Königsberger Scholarly Society: Spiritual Scientific Class No. 18.2")]: ( Halle ["Halle an der Saale"]: M. Niemeyer, **1943**)

## Ongoing

- Second World War (1939-1945)
- Sino-Japanese War (1937-1945)

## Births





## January-February

- 1 January - Don Novello, American actor
- 2 January - Barış Manço, Turkish singer and television personality (d. 1999)
- 4 January - Doris Kearns Goodwin, American writer
- 6 January - Terry Venables, English football manager
- 7 January - Sadako Sasaki, Japanese atomic bomb sickness victim (d. 1955)
- 9 January - Freddie Starr, English comedian and singer
- 10 January - Jim Croce, American singer (d. 1973)
- 11 January - Jim Hightower, American radio host and author
- 13 January - Richard Moll, American actor
- 16 January - Brian Ferneyhough, British composer
- 18 January - Kay Granger, American politician
- 19 January
  - Janis Joplin, American singer (d. 1970)
  - Princess Margriet of the Netherlands
- 20 January - Mel Hague, English singer and author
- 24 January - Sharon Tate, American actress and murder victim (d. 1969)
- 25 January - Tobe Hooper, American film director
- 26 January - César Gutiérrez, Venezuelan Major League Baseball player (d. 2005)
- 29 January - Tony Blackburn, British radio disc jockey
- 30 January - Marty Balin, American musician
- 2 February - Erkan Genis, Turkish artist
- 3 February - Blythe Danner, American actress
- 4 February - Alberto João Jardim, Portuguese politician
- 5 February
  - Nolan Bushnell, American video game pioneer
  - Michael Mann, American film director, writer, and producer
  - Craig Morton, American football player
- 6 February - Fabian, American singer
- 7 February - Gareth Hunt, English actor
- 9 February
  - Joe Pesci, American actor
  - Joseph E. Stiglitz, American economist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 14 February - Maceo Parker, American musician ( P-Funk)
- 18 February - Graeme Garden, Scottish writer, comedian, and actor
- 19 February

## 1943 in other calendars

Gregorian calendar	1943 <i>MCMXLIII</i>
Ab urbe condita	2696
Armenian calendar	1392 ԹՎ ՌՅՂԲ
Bahá'í calendar	99 – 100
Berber calendar	2893
Buddhist calendar	2487
Burmese calendar	1305
Byzantine calendar	7451 – 7452
Chinese calendar	壬午年十一月廿五日 (4579/4639-11-25) — <i>to</i> — 癸未年十二月初五日 (4580/4640-12-5)
Coptic calendar	1659 – 1660
Ethiopian calendar	1935 – 1936
Hebrew calendar	5703 – 5704
Hindu calendars	
- <i>Vikram Samvat</i>	1998 – 1999
- <i>Shaka Samvat</i>	1865 – 1866
- <i>Kali Yuga</i>	5044 – 5045
Holocene calendar	11943
Iranian calendar	1321 – 1322
Islamic calendar	1361 – 1363
Japanese calendar	Shōwa 18 (昭和18年)
Korean calendar	4276
Thai solar calendar	2486



- Tim Hunt, British biochemist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
- Homer Hickam, American author and retired NASA engineer
- 20 February - Mike Leigh, British film director
- 21 February - David Geffen, American record executive and film producer
- 23 February - Fred Biletnikoff, American football player and coach
- 24 February - Hristo Prodanov, Bulgarian mountaineer
- 25 February - George Harrison, British musician (The Beatles) (d. 2001)
- 26 February - Bill Duke, American actor and director
- 27 February
  - Morten Lauridsen, American composer
  - Graham Bowers, British musician, artist and engineer

## March-April

- March - John Leeson, British actor
- 1 March
  - Richard H. Price, American physicist
  - Gil Amelio, American entrepreneur
- 2 March
  - Peter Straub, American author
  - Zygfrzyd Blaut, Polish footballer
- 3 March - Trond Mohn, Norwegian billionaire
- 4 March
  - Lucio Dalla, Italian singer and songwriter
  - Zoltan Jeney, Hungarian composer
- 8 March - Lynn Redgrave, English actress
- 9 March
  - Bobby Fischer, American chess player (d. 2008)
  - Charles Gibson, American television journalist
  - Colin Murdock, American voice actor
- 15 March - David Cronenberg, Canadian film director
- 16 March
  - Helen Armstrong, American violinist
  - Kim Mu-saeng, South Korean actor (d. 2005)
- 18 March - Kevin Dobson, American actor
- 19 March
  - Mario J. Molina, Mexican chemist, Nobel Prize laureate



- Mario Monti, Italian member of the European Commission
- 20 March
  - Gerard Malanga, American poet and photographer
  - Naima Neidre, Estonian graphic artist
- 21 March
  - Ellen Cannon Reed, American witch and author, (d. 2003)
  - Vivian Stanshall, English comedian, writer, artist, broadcaster, and musician (d. 1995)
  - István Gyulai, Hungarian sports official (d. 2006)
- 22 March
  - Bruno Ganz, Swiss actor
  - Keith Relf, British musician ( The Yardbirds) (d. 1976)
- 25 March - Royston Maldoom OBE, British choreographer (**1943**)
- 26 March - Bob Woodward, American journalist
- 29 March
  - Eric Idle, English actor, writer, and composer
  - John Major, Prime Minister of the United Kingdom
  - Vangelis, Greek musician and composer
- 31 March - Christopher Walken, American actor
- 2 April - Frank Feather, British-born international business futurist and author
- 5 April - Max Gail, American actor
- 7 April - Mick Abrahams, British rock guitarist
- 8 April - Miller Farr, American football player
- 10 April - Andrzej Badeński, Polish athlete
- 20 April - John Eliot Gardiner, English conductor
- 22 April - Louise Glück, American poet and 12th US Poet Laureate
- 23 April
  - Hervé Villechaize, French-born actor (d. 1993)
  - Dominik Duka, Czech Roman Catholic bishop and theologian
  - Frans Koppelaar, Dutch painter
- 25 April - James G. Mitchell, Canadian computer scientist
- 28 April - John O. Creighton, astronaut

## May-June

- 5 May - Michael Palin, British comedian
- 7 May - Terry Allen, American country music singer
- 8 May



- Paul Samwell-Smith, British musician ( The Yardbirds)
  - Toni Tennille, American singer
- 10 May - Richard (Dick) Darman, American federal government official and businessman
- 14 May
  - Jack Bruce, British musician and songwriter
  - Ólafur Ragnar Grímsson, President of Iceland
- 17 May - Tuanku Syed Sirajuddin, King of Malaysia
- 22 May - Betty Williams, Irish politician, recipient of the Nobel Peace Prize
- 25 May - Jessi Colter, American singer and composer
- 26 May - Erica Terpstra, Dutch swimmer, politician and president of the Dutch Olympic Committee
- 27 May - Bruce Weitz, American actor
- 30 May - James Chaney, American civil rights worker (d. 1964)
- 31 May
  - Joe Namath, American football player
  - Sharon Gless, American actress
- 2 June - Ilayaraaja, Indian composer
- 3 June - John Burgess, Australian game show host and actor
- 4 June - Joyce Meyer, Christian author and speaker
- 6 June - Richard Smalley, American chemist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 7 June- Nikki Giovanni, American poet
- 8 June - Colin Baker, British actor
- 14 June - Jim Sensenbrenner, American politician
- 15 June
  - Johnny Hallyday, French singer and actor
  - Poul Nyrup Rasmussen, Prime Minister of Denmark
- 16 June - Joan Van Ark, American actress
- 17 June
  - Newt Gingrich, American politician
  - Barry Manilow, American musician
- 21 June - Marika Green French-Swedish actress
- 23 June - James Levine, American conductor
- 26 June
  - John Beasley, American actor
  - Klaus von Klitzing, German physicist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 27 June - Rico Petrocelli, baseball player
- 29 June
  - Maureen O'Brien, British actress



- Soon-Tek Oh, Japanese actor

## July-August

- 1 July - Jeff Wayne, musician
- 3 July
  - Judith Durham, Australian singer
  - Kurtwood Smith, American actor
- 4 July
  - Konrad "Conny" Bauer, German trombonist
  - Geraldo Rivera, American reporter and talk show host
- 5 July - Curt Blefary, baseball player (d. 2001)
- 7 July - Joel Siegel, American film critic (d. 2007)
- 10 July - Arthur Ashe, American tennis player (d. 1993)
- 12 July - Christine McVie, British musician ( Fleetwood Mac)
- 15 July - Jocelyn Bell Burnell, Irish astrophysicist
- 16 July - Reinaldo Arenas, Cuban writer (d. 1990)
- 20 July - Wendy Richard, British actress
- 21 July - Edward Herrmann, American actor
- 23 July
  - Dr. Randall Forsberg, American nuclear freeze advocate (d. 2007)
  - Bob Hilton, American game show host and announcer
- 25 July - Jim McCarty, British musician ( The Yardbirds)
- 26 July - Mick Jagger, English singer (Rolling Stones)
- 28 July - Rick Wright, English keyboardist (Pink Floyd)
- 31 July - Sab Shimono, American actor
- 2 August
  - Patrick Adiarte, American actor and dancer
  - Kathy Lennon, American singer ( The Lennon Sisters)
- 4 August - Bjørn Wirkola, Norwegian ski jumper
- 5 August - Nelson Briles, baseball player (d. 2005)
- 6 August - Jim Hardin, former Baltimore Orioles, New York Yankees and Atlanta Braves pitcher (d. 1991)
- 7 August - Dino Valente, American musician (d. 1994)
- 11 August
  - Abigail Folger, American heiress and murder victim (d. 1969)
  - Pervez Musharraf, Pakistani general and leader
- 14 August - Jimmy Johnson, American football coach and television analyst



- 17 August - Robert De Niro, American actor
- 18 August - Gianni Rivera, Italian footballer
- 20 August - Sylvester McCoy, British actor
- 24 August - John Cipollina, American musician (d. 1989)
- 28 August - Lou Piniella, baseball player and manager
- 30 August - Jean-Claude Killy, French skier
- 31 August - Leonid Ivashov, Russian general

## September-October

- 1 September - Don Stroud, American actor
- 5 September - Dulce Saguisag, Filipino politician and former DSWD Secretary. (d. 2007)
- 6 September
  - Richard J. Roberts, English biochemist and molecular biologist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
  - Roger Waters, English musician (Pink Floyd)
- 9 September - Art LaFleur, American actor
- 10 September - Daniel Truhitte, American actor
- 11 September
  - Gilbert Proesch, Italian-born artist ( Gilbert and George)
  - Raymond Villeneuve, Canadian terrorist
- 14 September - Irwin Goodman, Finnish singer (d. 1991)
- 19 September - Joe Morgan, Hall of Fame baseball player
- 22 September - Toni Basil, American musician and video artist
- 28 September - J. T. Walsh, American actor (d. 1998)
- 29 September - Lech Wałęsa, President of Poland, recipient of the Nobel Peace Prize
- 30 September - Johann Deisenhofer, German biochemist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 30 September - Ian Ogilvy, English actor
- October - Judy Graubart, American actress
- 2 October - Franklin Rosemont, American poet
- 6 October - Michael Durrell, American actor
- 8 October - Chevy Chase, American comedian and actor
- 14 October - Lois Hamilton, American model, actress, and artist (d. 1999)
- 16 October - Paul Rose, Canadian terrorist
- 18 October - Birthe Rønn Hornbech, Danish politician
- 31 October - Paul Frampton, English physicist



## November-December

- 1 November - John McEnery, English actor
- 4 November - Chuck Scarborough American News Anchor on NBC
- 5 November
  - Friedman Paul Erhardt, German American pioneering television chef (d. 2007)
  - Sam Shepard, American playwright and actor
- 7 November
  - Michael Byrne, English actor
  - Joni Mitchell, Canadian musician
  - Michael Spence, American economist, Nobel Prize laureate
  - Stephen Greenblatt, American literary critic
- 11 November - Doug Frost, Australian swimming coach
- 12 November - Wallace Shawn, American actor
- 13 November - Jay Sigel, American golfer
- 14 November - Peter Norton, American software engineer and businessman
- 19 November - Aurelio Monteagudo, Cuban Major League Baseball player (d. 1990)
- 20 November - Mie Hama, Japanese actress
- 21 November - Larry Mahan, American rodeo cowboy
- 26 November - Marilynne Robinson, American writer
- 2 December - Wayne Allard U.S Senator from Colorado - Senior Senator
- 5 December - Eva Joly, Norwegian-born French magistrate
- 8 December - James Douglas "Jim" Morrison, American musician (d. 1971)
- 11 December - John Kerry, American politician
- 12 December - Grover Washington, Jr., American saxophonist (d. 1999)
- 13 December - Ferguson Jenkins, baseball player
- 14 December - Mike Gorman, American sports announcer ( Boston Celtics)
- 15 December - Lucien den Arend, sculptor
- 17 December - Ron Geesin, British musician and songwriter (Pink Floyd)
- 18 December - Keith Richards, English guitarist and songwriter (The Rolling Stones)
- 19 December - Ross M. Lence, American political scientist (d. 2006)
- 23 December - Harry Shearer, American actor and writer
- 24 December - Tarja Halonen, President of Finland
- 27 December - Peter Sinfield, British lyricist and producer
- 28 December - Richard Whiteley, English television presenter (d. 2005)
- 31 December
  - John Denver, American musician (d. 1997)



- Ben Kingsley, British actor

## Unknown dates

- Dulce Saguisag, Filipino former secretary (d. 2007)

## Deaths

### January-June

- 5 January - George Washington Carver, American botanist (b. 1864)
- 7 January - Nikola Tesla, Croatian-born American scientist (b. 1856)
- 8 January - Richard Hillary, Battle of Britain Spitfire pilot, author of *The Last Enemy* (b. 1919)
- 15 January - Eric Knight, Author of *Lassie*
- February - Bess Houdini, wife of Harry Houdini
- 4 February - Frank Calder, the first NHL President (b. 1877)
- 26 February - Theodor Eicke, Nazi official (b. 1892)
- 28 March - Sergei Rachmaninoff, Russian composer (b. 1873)
- 18 April - Isoroku Yamamoto, Japanese admiral (b. 1884)
- 1 June - Leslie Howard, British actor (b. 1893)
- 2 June – Nile Kinnick, American athlete and Heisman Trophy winner (b. 1918)
- 4 June - Kermit Roosevelt, American explorer and author (b. 1889)

### July-December

- 4 July - Wladyslaw Sikorski, Polish politician (b. 1881)
- 21 July - Charlie Paddock, American athlete (b. 1900)
- 12 August - Bobby Peel, English cricketer (b. 1857)
- 14 August - Joe Kelley, baseball player (b. 1871)
- 21 August - Henrik Pontoppidan, Danish writer, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1857)
- 28 August - King Boris III of Bulgaria (b. 1894)
- 6 September - Reginald McKenna, British Chancellor of the Exchequer 1915–1916 (born 1863)
- 1 September - Charles Atangana, Cameroonian chief
- 24 September - John Stone Stone, American physicist and inventor (b. 1869)
- 5 October - Leon Roppolo, American musician (b. 1902)
- 9 October - Pieter Zeeman, Dutch physicist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1865)





- 19 October - Camille Claudel, French sculptor (b. 1864)
- 7 November - Dwight Frye, American actor (b. 1899)
- 22 November - Lorenz Hart, American lyricist (b. 1885)
- 1 December - Damrong Rajanubhab, Thai prince and historian (b. 1862)
- 14 December - John Harvey Kellogg, American doctor (b. 1852)
- 15 December - Fats Waller, American jazz pianist (b. 1904)
- 22 December - Beatrix Potter, British children's author and illustrator (b. 1866)

## Nobel prizes

- Physics - Otto Stern
- Chemistry - George de Hevesy
- Physiology or Medicine - Carl Peter Henrik Dam, Edward Adelbert Doisy, Gerhard Domagk
- Literature - not awarded
- Peace - not awarded

## Ship events

- List of ship launches in 1943
- List of ship commissionings in 1943
- List of ship decommissionings in 1943
- List of shipwrecks in 1943

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# 1944

2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: World War II; Years

Year **1944** (**MCMXLIV**) was a leap year starting on Saturday (link will display full calendar) of the Gregorian calendar.

<p><b>Centuries:</b> 19th century - <b>20th century</b> - 21st century</p> <p><b>Decades:</b> 1910s 1920s 1930s - 1940s - 1950s 1960s 1970s</p> <p><b>Years:</b> 1941 1942 1943 - <b>1944</b> - 1945 1946 1947</p>
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## Events of 1944-

WWII begins on September 1, 1939 after Germany invades Poland.

*(Below, events of World War II have the WWII'prefix.)*

### January

- 4 January - WWII: The Battle of Monte Cassino begins.
- 5 January
  - WWII: Murder of Danish priest, poet and playwright Kaj Munk.
  - The *Daily Mail* becomes the first transoceanic newspaper.
- 14 January - WWII: The Soviet troops start the offensive at Leningrad and Novgorod.
- 15 January \*\*WWII: The 27th Polish Home Army Infantry Division recreated, marking the start of Operation Tempest by the Polish Home Army.
  - An earthquake hits San Juan, Argentina killing an estimated 10,000 people in the worst natural disaster in Argentina's history.
- 17 January - WWII:
  - British forces, in Italy, cross the Garigliano River.
  - Meat Rationing ends in Australia.
  - Soviet Union ceases the production of Mosin-Nagant 1891/30 sniper rifle.
  - 20 January - WWII: The Royal Air Force drops 2,300 tons of bombs on Berlin. The U.S. Army 36th Infantry Division, in Italy, attempts to cross the Rapido River.
- 22 January - WWII: Allies begin Operation Shingle, the assault on Anzio, Italy. The U.S. Army 45th Infantry Division stand their ground at Anzio against violent assaults for 4 months.
- 27 January - WWII: The two year Siege of Leningrad is lifted.
- 29 January - WWII: The Battle of Cisterna takes place.
- 30 January - WWII: United States troops invade Majuro, Marshall Islands.



- 31 January - WWII: American forces land on Kwajalein Atoll and other islands in the Japanese-held Marshall Islands.

## February

- 1 February - WWII: United States troops land in the Marshall Islands.
- 2 February - Publication of first issue of *Human Events*.
- 3 February - WWII: United States troops capture the Marshall Islands.
- 7 February - WWII: In Anzio, Italian forces launch a counteroffensive.
- 14 February - WWII:
  - SHAEF headquarters established in Britain by General Dwight D. Eisenhower.
  - Anti-Japanese revolt on Java.
- 15 February - WWII: Battle of Monte Cassino - the monastery atop Monte Cassino is destroyed by Allied bombing.
- 17 February - WWII: Battle of Eniwetok Atoll begins. The battle ended in an American victory on 22 February.
- 20 February - WWII:
  - "Big Week" begins with American bomber raids on German aircraft manufacturing centers.
  - The United States takes Eniwetok Island.
- 23 February - WWII: The Chechens and Ingush are forcibly deported to Central Asia.
- 26 February - - Shooting begins of the Nazi propaganda film, "The Fuehrer Gives a Village to the Jews" in Theresienstadt.
- 29 February - WWII: The Admiralty Islands are invaded by U.S. forces in the Battle of Los Negros and Operation Brewer.

## March

- March - WWII: The Japanese launch an offensive in central and south China.
- 1 March - WWII:
  - USS Tarawa and USS Kearsarge laid down.
  - Anti-fascist strike in northern Italy.
- 2 March - WWII: Train stalls inside a railway tunnel outside Salerno, Italy - 521 choke to death
- 2 March - 16th Academy Awards ceremony
- 3 March - WWII: The Order of Nakhimov and the Order of Ushakov were instituted in USSR
- 4 March - In Ossining, New York, Louis Buchalter, the leader of 1930s crime syndicate Murder, Inc., is executed at Sing Sing, along with Emanuel "Mendy" Weiss, and Louis Capone.
- 6 March - WWII: Soviet Army planes attack Narva in Estonia, destroying almost the entire old town.
- 9 March - WWII: Soviet Army planes attack Tallinn, Estonia.
- 10 March - WWII: In Britain the Education Act lifts the ban on women teachers marrying.
- 12 March - WWII: The Creation of the politic Committee of national liberation in Greece.
- 15 March - WWII:



- Battle of Monte Cassino - Allied aircraft bomb German-held monastery and stage an assault.
- The National Council of the French Resistance approves the Resistance programme.
- 17 March - WWII: The hitlerists assassinate at Rîbnița almost 400 prisoners, Soviet citizens and anti-fascist Romanians.
- 19 March - WWII: German forces occupy Hungary.
- 18 March - The eruption of Mount Vesuvius in Italy kills 26 and causes thousands to flee their homes.
- 20 March - WWII: RAF Flight Sergeant Nicholas Alkemade's bomber is hit over Germany and he has to bail out without a parachute from the height of over 4000 meters. Tree branches interrupt his fall and he lands safely on deep snow
- 23 March - WWII: members of the Italian Resistance attack Nazis marching in via Rasella. 33 Nazis are killed.
- 24 March - WWII:
  - The Fosse Ardeatine massacre in Rome, Italy. 335 Italians are killed, including 75 Jews and over 200 members of the Italian Resistance from various groups.
  - In the Polish village of Markowa, German police kill Józef and Wiktoria Ulm, their six children and eight Jewish people they were hiding.

## April

- 25 April - WWII: The United Negro College Fund is incorporated.
- 28 April - WWII: 749 American troops are killed in Exercise Tiger at Start Bay, Devon, England.

## May

- 5 May - WWII: Mohandas Gandhi released in India.
- 9 May - WWII: In the Ukrainian city of Sevastopol, Soviet troops had completely driven out the German forces. The besieged German troops had been ordered by Hitler to “fight to the last Man.”
- 12 May - WWII: Soviet troops finalize the liberation of Crimea.
- 18 May - WWII:
  - Battle of Monte Cassino - Germans evacuate Monte Cassino and Allied forces take the stronghold after a struggle that claimed 20,000 lives.
  - Deportation of Crimean Tatars by the Soviet Union government.
- 30 May - Princess Charlotte Louise Juliette Louvet Grimaldi of Monaco, heir to the throne resigns from her rights in favour of her son Prince Rainier Louis Henri Maxence Bertrand Grimaldi, later reigning Prince Rainier III of Monaco.

## June



- 1 June - WWII: The BBC transmits a coded message (the first line of a poem by Paul Verlaine) to underground resistance fighters in France warning that the invasion of Europe is imminent.
- 2 June - WWII: The provisional French government is established.
- 4 June - WWII:
  - A hunter-killer group of the United States Navy captures the German submarine U-505, marking the first time a U.S. Navy vessel had captured an enemy vessel at sea since the 19th century.
  - Rome falls to the Allies. It is the first capital of an Axis nation to fall.
- 5 June - WWII:
  - More than 1000 British bombers drop 5000 tons of bombs on German gun batteries on the Normandy coast in preparation for D-Day.
  - At 10:15 p.m. local time, the BBC transmits the second line of the Paul Verlaine poem to the underground resistance indicating that the invasion of Europe is about to begin.
  - The German navy's Enigma messages are decoded almost in real time.
- 6 June - WWII: Battle of Normandy begins - *Operation Overlord*, code named D-Day, commences with the landing of 155,000 Allied troops on the beaches of Normandy in France. The allied soldiers quickly break through the Atlantic Wall and push inland in the largest amphibious military operation in history. This operation was used to help liberate France from Germany. It also weakened the Nazi Germany hold on Europe.
- 7 June - WWII: Bayeux liberated by British troops.
- 9 June - WWII: Stalin launches an offensive against Finland with the intent of defeating Finland before pushing for Berlin.
- 10 June - WWII: 642 men, women and children are killed in the Oradour-sur-Glane Massacre in France.
- 13 June - WWII: Germany launches a V1 Flying Bomb attack on England.
- 15 June - WWII:
  - Battle of Saipan: The United States invades Saipan.
  - American forces push back Germans in St. Lo, capturing the city.
- 17 June
  - WWII: The proclamation of the Republic of Iceland.
  - Iceland declares full independence from Denmark.
- 22 June - WWII:
  - Operation Bagration: General attack by Soviet forces to clear the German forces from Belarus which resulted in the destruction of the German Army Group Centre, possibly the greatest defeat of the Wehrmacht during WWII.
  - Burma Campaign: The Battle of Kohima ends in a British victory.
- 25 June - WWII: The Battle of Tali-Ihantala between Finnish and Soviet troops begins. Largest battle ever to be fought in the Nordic countries.
- 26 June - WWII: American troops enter Cherbourg.
- 29 June - Deportation of Hungarian Jews to Auschwitz and other Nazi concentration camps begins.



Allied troops land on the beaches of Normandy during D-Day.

## July



- 1 July - Start of the United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference at Bretton Woods, New Hampshire.
- 3 July - WWII:
  - Soviet troops liberate Minsk.
  - Battle of Imphal: Japanese forces call off their advance, ending the battle in a British victory.
- 6 July
  - Hartford Circus Fire: More than 100 children died in one of the worst fire disasters in the history of the United States.
  - WWII: At Camp Hood, Texas, future baseball star and 1st Lt. Jackie Robinson is arrested and later court-martialed for refusing to move to the back of a segregated U.S. Army bus. He is eventually acquitted.
- 9 July - WWII: British and Canadian forces capture Caen.
- 10 July - WWII: Soviet troops start the operations for occupying the Baltic countries.
- 13 July - WWII: Liberation of Vilnius.
- 16 July - WWII: Arrival of the first contingent of the Brazilian Expeditionary Force in Italy.
- 17 July - WWII:
  - The largest convoy of the war embarks from Halifax, Nova Scotia under Royal Canadian Navy protection.
  - SS *E.A. Bryan*, loaded with ammunition, explodes in the Port Chicago naval base - 320 dead.
- 18 July - WWII: Hideki Tojo resigns as Prime Minister of Japan due to numerous setbacks in the war effort.
- 20 July - WWII: Adolf Hitler survives an assassination attempt. See Claus von Stauffenberg
- 21 July - WWII:
  - Battle of Guam - American troops land on Guam starting the battle (ends on 10 August).
  - The creation of the Polish Committee for national liberation.
- 22 July - End of Bretton Woods conference and signing of Agreements.
- 25 July - WWII: Operation Spring - One of the bloodiest days for Canadians during the war: 18,444 casualties, including 5,021 killed.

## August



- 1 August - WWII: Warsaw Uprising begins.
- 2 August - WWII:
  - Turkey ends diplomatic and economic relations with Germany.
  - the First Assembly of ASNOM was held in the Prohor Pchinski monastery
- 4 August - Holocaust: A tip from a Dutch informer leads the Gestapo to a sealed-off area in an Amsterdam warehouse where they find Jewish diarist Anne Frank and her family.
- 5 August - Holocaust: Polish insurgents liberate a German labor camp in Warsaw, freeing 348 Jewish prisoners.
- 7 August - IBM dedicates the first program-controlled calculator, the Automatic Sequence Controlled Calculator (known best as the Harvard Mark I).
- 9 August - The United States Forest Service and the Wartime Advertising Council release posters featuring Smokey the Bear for the first time.
- 12 August - WWII:
  - Allies capture Florence, Italy.
  - World's first undersea oil pipeline laid, between England and France in Operation Pluto
- 15 August - WWII: Operation Dragoon lands Allies in southern France. U.S. Army 45th Infantry Division participates in its fourth assault landing at St. Maxime, spearheading the drive for the Belfort Gap.
- 19 August - WWII: Start of Victorious insurrection in Paris.
- 20 August - WWII: American forces successfully defeat nazi forces at Chambois. This victory closed the Falaise Gap.
- 23 August - WWII: Ion Antonescu, prime minister of Romania, is arrested and a new government is established. Romania exits the war against Soviet Union joining the Allies.
- 24 August - WWII: Allies liberate Paris, therefore ending The Battle of Normandy.
- 25 August - WWII: Hungary decides to continue the war together with Germany.
- 29 August - WWII: Slovak National Uprising against Axis powers begins.
- 31 August - The Mad Gasser of Mattoon resumes his mysterious attacks in Mattoon, Illinois.



Szare Szeregi Scouts also fought in the Warsaw Uprising.

## September

- 1 September - WWII: In Bulgaria, the Bagrianov government resigns.
- 2 September - WWII: Holocaust: Diarist Anne Frank and her family are placed on the last transport train from Westerbork to Auschwitz. They arrive three days later.
- 3 September - WWII: Allies liberate Brussels.
- 4 September - WWII:
  - The British 11th Armored Division liberates the city of Antwerp in Belgium.
  - Finland breaks off relations with Germany.
- 5 September - WWII: The Soviets declare war on Bulgaria.
- 7 September - WWII: The Belgian government returns from exile in Britain.



- 8 September - WWII:
  - London is hit by a V2 rocket for the first time.
  - The French town of Menton is liberated from Germany.
- 9 September - WWII: Insurrection in Sofia.
- 11 September - WWII: Northern and Southern France invasion forces link up near Dijon.
- 17 September - WWII: Operation Market Garden begins.
- 19 September - WWII: Armistice between Finland and Soviet Union signed. (End of the Continuation War)
- 20 September - WWII: Jüri Uluots, prime minister in capacity of president of Estonia, escapes to Sweden. Two days later, Tallinn is taken over by the Red Army.
- 24 September - WWII: The U.S. Army 45th Infantry Division takes the strongly defended city of Epinal before crossing the Moselle River and entering the western foothills of the Vosges.
- 26 September - WWII: Operation Market Garden ends in an Allied withdrawal.
  - On middle front of Gothic Line Brazilians troops controlled the Serchio valley region after ten days of fighting.

## October

- 2 October - WWII:
  - Warsaw Uprising ends.
  - Holocaust: Nazi troops end the Warsaw Uprising.
- 5 October - WWII: Royal Canadian Air Force pilots shoot down the first German jet fighter over Holland )
- 6 October - WWII: Battle of Debrecen starts on the Eastern Front (lasts until 29 October).
- 8 October - The radio show, *The Adventures of Ozzie and Harriet* debuts.
- 9 October - WWII: British Prime Minister Winston Churchill and Soviet Union Premier Joseph Stalin begin a nine-day conference in Moscow to discuss the future of Europe.
- 10 October - Holocaust: 800 Gypsy children are systematically murdered at Auschwitz death camp
- 12 October - WWII: The Allies land at Athens.
- 13 October - WWII: Riga, the capital of Latvia is taken over by the Red Army.
- 14 October - WWII: German Field Marshal Erwin Rommel committed suicide rather than face execution for allegedly conspiring against Adolf Hitler.
- 18 October - WWII: Volkssturm founded on Hitler's orders.
- 20 October - WWII:
  - Belgrade is liberated by Yugoslav Partisans and the Red Army.
  - LNG explosion destroys a square mile (2.6 km<sup>2</sup>) of Cleveland, Ohio.
  - Landed by the American forces in Red Beach in Palo, Leyte, since general Douglas MacArthur returned to the Philippines with the Philippine Commonwealth president Sergio Osmeña with the Philippine generals of the Armed Forces of the Philippines are general Basilio Valdes and general Carlos P. Romulo.
  - The United States and Filipino troops with the Filipino guerillas started in the Battle of Leyte.





- The American forces landed the beaches in Dulag, Leyte, the Philippines by the attacked from the Japanese occupation forces, and continued by the Filipino troops entered to the town.
- 21 October - WWII: Aachen, the first German city to fall, is captured by the Americans.
- 23 October - WWII: Naval Battle of Leyte Gulf in the Philippines begins (lasts until 26 October).
- 25 October
  - Florence Foster Jenkins recital in the Carnegie Hall
  - WWII: Red Army liberates Kirkenes, the first town in Norway to be liberated from German occupation.
- 30 October - Anne Frank and sister Margot Frank are deported from Auschwitz to the Bergen-Belsen concentration camp.
- 31 October - Mass murderer Marcel Petiot is apprehended in Paris Métro station

## November

- 3 November - WWII: Two supreme commanders of the Slovak National Uprising, Generals Ján Golian and Rudolf Viest are captured, tortured and later executed by German forces.
- 7 November
  - U.S. presidential election, 1944: Franklin D. Roosevelt wins reelection over Republican challenger Thomas E. Dewey to become the only U.S. president to be elected to a fourth term.
  - Passenger train derails in Aguadilla, Puerto Rico due to excessive speed in a declining hill. 16 killed; 50 injured.
- 22 November - William Lyon Mackenzie King introduces conscription in Canada (see Conscription Crisis of 1944).
- 24 November - The entire territory of Estonia is taken over by the Red Army.

## December

- 30 December - WWII: Edward Stettinius Jr. becomes the last United States Secretary of State of the Roosevelt administration, by filling the seat left by Cordell Hull.
- 3 December - WWII: Civil war breaks out in a newly-liberated Greece, between Communists and royalists.
- 10 December - Legendary Italian conductor Arturo Toscanini leads a concert performance of the first half of Beethoven's *Fidelio* (minus its spoken dialogue) on NBC radio, starring Rose Bampton. He chooses this opera for its political message - a statement against tyranny and dictatorship. Conducting it in German, Toscanini intends it as a tribute to the German people who are being oppressed by Hitler. The second half will be broadcast a week later. The performance will later be released on LP and CD. This is the first of seven operas that the Maestro will conduct on radio.
- 12 December and 13 - WWII: British units attempt to take the hilltop town of Tossignano; they are repulsed.
- 13 December - The United States and Philippine Commonwealth troops landed in Mindoro Island, the Philippines by the attack the Japanese forces during the Battle of Mindoro.
- 14 December - Soviet government change Turkish names of place to Russian in Crimean
- 15 December - A private airplane carrying bandleader Glenn Miller disappears in heavy fog over the English Channel while flying to Paris.
- 16 December - WWII:



- Germany begins the Ardennes offensive, later to become known as Battle of the Bulge.
- General George C. Marshall becomes the first Five-Star General.
- 17 December - WWII: German troops carry out the Malmedy massacre.
- 22 December - WWII: Brigadier General Anthony C. McAuliffe, commander of the U.S. forces defending Bastogne, refuses to accept demands for surrender by sending a one-word reply, "Nuts!", to the German command.
- 24 December - WWII: The Bulge reaches its deepest point at Celles.
- 26 December
  - WWII: American troops repulse German forces at Bastogne.
  - Premiere of *The Glass Menagerie* by Tennessee Williams.
- 30 December - WWII: King George II of Greece declares a regency, leaving his throne vacant.
- 31 December - WWII: Hungary declares war on Germany.
- 31 December - WWII: over hundreds of thousands of the Japanese Imperial forces killed in action, after the battles from the Filipino and American military forces are victory after the Battle of Leyte.

## Undated

- In Sweden, the law of 1864 that criminalizes homosexuality is abolished.
- Swedish author of children's books Astrid Lindgren publishes her first book *Pippi Longstocking*.
- In Sweden, Erik Wallenberg and Ruben Rausing invent a way to package milk in paper and start the company Tetra Pak.
- Hans Asperger publishes his paper on Asperger's Syndrome
- National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence established.
- Canadian Arctic explorer Henry Larsen becomes the first person to successfully navigate the Northwest Passage in both directions in a schooner. He would chronicle the event in his autobiography, entitled "The Big Ship" ( ASIN B000ETAS4K).

## Ongoing

- Sino-Japanese War (1937-1945)
- Second World War (1939-1945)

## Births



## January-February

- 1 January - Omar Hasan Ahmad al-Bashir, President of the Sudan
- 2 January - Prince Norodom Ranariddh, Cambodian politician
- 3 January - Chris von Saltza, American swimmer
- 6 January
  - Bonnie Franklin, American actress
  - Rolf M. Zinkernagel, Swiss immunologist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
- 9 January - Ian Hornak, American Painter, Draughtsman and Sculptor (d. 2002)
- 9 January - Jimmy Page, English guitarist ( Led Zeppelin)
- 12 January - Joe Frazier, American boxer
- 17 January - Françoise Hardy, French singer
- 18 January - Paul Keating, twenty-fourth Prime Minister of Australia
- 19 January - Shelley Fabares, American actress and singer
- 23 January - Rutger Hauer, Dutch actor
- 25 January - Anita Pallenberg, Italian model and actress
- 26 January - Angela Davis, American feminist and activist
- 27 January
  - Peter Akinola, Nigerian religious leader
  - Mairead Corrigan, Northern Irish activist, recipient of the Nobel Peace Prize
  - Nick Mason, English drummer (Pink Floyd)
- 28 January
  - Susan Howard, American actress
  - John Tavener, British composer
- 3 February - Dave Davies, British musician ( The Kinks)
- 5 February - Al Kooper, American musician ( Blood, Sweat, and Tears)
- 9 February - Alice Walker, American writer
- 10 February - Vernor Vinge, American writer
- 11 February - Michael G. Oxley, American politician
- 12 February - Moe Bandy, country music singer
- 13 February
  - Stockard Channing, American actress
  - Jerry Springer, English-born television host
- 14 February
  - Carl Bernstein, American journalist
  - Alan Parker, English-born film director, actor, and writer
- 16 February - Richard Ford, American writer

## 1944 in other calendars

Gregorian calendar	1944 <i>MCMXLIV</i>
Ab urbe condita	2697
Armenian calendar	1393 ԹՎ ՌՅՂԳ
Bahá'í calendar	100 – 101
Berber calendar	2894
Buddhist calendar	2488
Burmese calendar	1306
Byzantine calendar	7452 – 7453
Chinese calendar	癸未年十二月初六日 (4580/4640-12-6) — to — 甲申年十一月十七日 (4581/4641-11-17)
Coptic calendar	1660 – 1661
Ethiopian calendar	1936 – 1937
Hebrew calendar	5704 – 5705
Hindu calendars	
- <i>Vikram Samvat</i>	1999 – 2000
- <i>Shaka Samvat</i>	1866 – 1867
- <i>Kali Yuga</i>	5045 – 5046
Holocene calendar	11944
Iranian calendar	1322 – 1323
Islamic calendar	1363 – 1364
Japanese calendar	Shōwa 19 (昭和19年)
Korean calendar	4277
Thai solar calendar	2487



- 17 February - Karl Jenkins, Welsh composer
- 20 February - Willem van Hanegem, Dutch football player and coach
- 22 February
  - Jonathan Demme, American film director, producer, and writer
  - Tom Okker, Dutch tennis player
- 23 February - Johnny Winter, American musician
- 24 February - Nicky Hopkins, British musician (d. 1994)
- 27 February - Ken Grimwood, American writer (d. 2003)
- 28 February - Sepp Maier, German footballer
- 29 February - Dennis Farina, American actor

## March-April

- 1 March
  - John Breaux, U.S. Senator from Louisiana
  - Roger Daltrey, English musician ( The Who)
- 2 March - Uschi Glas, German actress
- 4 March
  - Harvey Postlethwaite, British engineer and race car designer (d. 1999)
  - Mary Wilson (singer), American singer
  - Bobby Womack, American singer and songwriter
- 6 March - Kiri Te Kanawa, New Zealand soprano
- 8 March - Buzz Hargrove, Canadian labour leader
- 11 March - Don Maclean, British comedian
- 15 March - Sly Stone, American singer
- 17 March - John Sebastian, American singer and songwriter ( The Lovin' Spoonful)
- 19 March
  - Said Musa, Prime Minister of Belize
  - Sirhan Sirhan, Palestinian assassin of Robert F. Kennedy
- 24 March - R. Lee Ermey, U.S. Marine and actor
- 26 March - Diana Ross, American singer (The Supremes)
- 28 March - Rick Barry, American basketball player
- 29 March - Denny McLain, baseball player
- 3 April - Tony Orlando, American musician
- 4 April - Magda Aelvoet, Belgian politician
- 6 April - Felicity Palmer, English soprano
- 7 April - Gerhard Schröder, Chancellor of Germany



- 8 April
  - Jimmy Walker, American professional basketball player (d. 2007)
  - Odd Nerdrum, Norwegian painter
- 11 April - John Milius, American film director, producer, and screenwriter
- 13 April - Jack Casady, American musician ( Jefferson Airplane and Hot Tuna)
- 15 April - Dzhokhar Dudayev, Chechen leader, the first President of the Chechen Republic of Ichkeria, an unrecognized breakaway state in the North Caucasus (d. 1996)
- 19 April - James Heckman, American economist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 22 April - Steve Fossett, American aviator, sailor and millionaire adventurer ( m. 2007, l. d. 2008)
- 27 April - Michael Fish, British TV weatherman
- 28 April - Jean-Claude Van Cauwenberghe, Belgian politician
- 29 April - Richard Kline, American actor and television director
- 30 April - Jill Clayburgh, American actress

## May-June

- 1 May - Suresh Kalmadi, Indian politician
- 4 May - Paul Gleason, American actor (d. 2006)
- 5 May - John Rhys-Davies, Welsh actor
- 8 May - Gary Glitter, English singer
- 9 May - Richie Furay, American musician ( Poco and Buffalo Springfield)
- 10 May - Jim Abrahams, American film director
- 12 May - Sara Kestelman, British actor
- 13 May - Armistead Maupin, American author
- 14 May - George Lucas, American film director and producer
- 20 May
  - Joe Cocker, British singer
  - Boudewijn de Groot, Dutch singer
  - Dietrich Mateschitz, Austrian businessman
- 21 May - Mary Robinson, President of Ireland
- 23 May
  - John Newcombe, Australian tennis player
  - Avraham Oz, Israeli Professor of Theatre, translator, and political activist
- 24 May - Patti LaBelle, American singer
- 25 May - Frank Oz, English puppeteer and film director
- 28 May
  - Rudy Giuliani, former Mayor of New York City



- Gladys Knight, American singer
- Patricia Quinn, Northern Irish actress
- Rita MacNeil, Canadian folk singer
- 30 May - Meredith MacRae, American actress (d. 2000)
- 1 June - Robert Powell, English actor
- 3 June - Edith McGuire, American sprinter
- 4 June - Michelle Phillips, American singer ( Mamas and the Papas) and actress
- 5 June
  - Tommie Smith, American athlete
  - Colm Wilkinson, Irish singer
- 6 June - Phillip Allen Sharp, American scientist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine
- 8 June
  - Don Grady, American actor and singer
  - Mark Belanger, baseball player (d. 1998)
- 24 June
  - Jeff Beck, British musician
  - John "Charlie" Whitney, British rock guitarist ( Family)
- 29 June - Gary Busey, American actor
- 30 June - Raymond Moody, parapsychologist

## July-August

- 8 July - Jeffrey Tambor, American actor
- 13 July - Ernő Rubik, Hungarian inventor
- 17 July - Mark Burgess, New Zealand cricket captains
- 21 July
  - Tony Scott, English film director
  - Paul Wellstone, U.S. Senator from Minnesota (d. 2002)
- 23 July - Alex Buzo, of Sydney, Australian playwright and author (d. 2006)
- 27 July - Tony Capstick, English comedian, actor, and musician (d. 2003)
- 31 July
  - Geraldine Chaplin, American actress
  - Robert C. Merton, American economist, Nobel Prize laureate
- 2 August - Jim Capaldi, British drummer, singer, and songwriter ( Traffic) (d. 2005)
- 4 August
  - Richard Belzer, American actor and comedian
  - Orhan Gencebay, Turkish musician, baglama virtuoso, composer, singer, arranger, music producer, music director, and actor.



- 8 August - Brooke Bundy, American actress
- 9 August - Sam Elliott, American actor
- 11 August - Ian McDiarmid, Scottish actor
- 13 August - Kevin Tighe, American actor
- 15 August - Sylvie Vartan, Bulgarian singer
- 19 August - Bodil Malmsten, Swedish writer
- 20 August - Linda Clifford, American R&B and dance singer
- 21 August
  - Peter Weir, Australian film director
  - Kari S. Tikka, Finnish Professor of Finance (d. 2006)
- 23 August - Saira Banu, Indian actress
- 26 August - HRH Prince Richard of Gloucester
- 31 August
  - Roger Dean, British artist
  - Jos LeDuc, Canadian professional wrestler (d. 1999)

## September-October

- 1 September - Leonard Slatkin, American conductor
- 2 September - Gilles Marchal, French musician
- 6 September - Christian Boltanski, French artist.
- 7 September
  - Earl Manigault, American basketball player (d. 1998)
  - Bora Milutinovic, Serbian football coach
- 12 September
  - Leonard Peltier, U.S. Presidential candidate
  - Barry White, American singer (d. 2003)
- 16 September - Betty Kelley, American singer (Martha and the Vandellas)
- 17 September - Reinhold Messner, Italian Mountaineer
- 19 September - Ismet Özel, Turkish poet
- 21 September - Hamilton Jordan, Carter's first Chief of Staff (d. 2008)
- 22 September - Frazer Hines, British actor
- 25 September - Michael Douglas, American actor
- 26 September - Anne Robinson, British television host
- 30 September - Jimmy Johnstone, Scottish footballer
- 6 October - Mylon LeFevre, American singer and evangelist
- 9 October



- John Entwistle, English musician ( The Who) (d. 2002)
- Nona Hendryx, singer ( LaBelle)
- Peter Tosh, Jamaican singer and musician (d. 1987)
- October 12 - Ronnie Fischer (Baseball)
- 15 October
  - David Trimble, Northern Irish politician, recipient of the Nobel Peace Prize
  - Şerif Gören, Turkish film director
- 28 October
  - Dennis Franz, American actor
  - Ian Marter, British actor (d. 1986)

## November-December

- 4 November - Linda Gary, American voice-over artist (d. 1995)
- 7 November - Joe Niekro, baseball player (d. 2006)
- 10 November - Silvestre Reyes, American politician
- 11 November - Kemal Sunal, a master of comedy in the Turkish history of cinema
- 12 November
  - Booker T. Jones, American musician, singer, and songwriter ( Booker T. and the M.G.'s)
  - Al Michaels, American sportscaster
- 16 November - Oliver Braddick, British Psychologist
- 17 November
  - Danny DeVito, American actor
  - Rem Koolhaas, Dutch architect
  - Lorne Michaels, Canadian film producer
  - Tom Seaver, baseball player
- 18 November - Wolfgang Joop, German artist, fashion designer and art collector
- 21 November - Richard Durbin, American politician
- 24 November - Ibrahim Gambari, Nigerian scholar and diplomat
- 25 November - Ben Stein, American law professor, actor, and author
- 2 December - Ibrahim Rugova, first President of Kosovo (d. 2006)
- 6 December - Jonathan King, British music producer
- 7 December - Daniel Chorzempa, American organist
- 9 December - Ki Longfellow, American novelist
- 12 December - Kenneth Cranham, Scottish born actor
- 21 December
  - Zheng Xiaoyu, Chinese bureaucrat (d. 2007)





- Michael Tilson Thomas, American conductor
  - Bill Atkinson, English footballer
- 22 December - Steve Carlton, baseball player
- 23 December
  - Wesley Clark, U.S. general and NATO Supreme Allied Commander
  - Ingar Knudtsen, Norwegian writer
- 25 December - Jairzinho, Brazilian football player
- 26 December - Eli Cohen, Israeli Spy
- 28 December - Kary Mullis, American chemist, Nobel Prize laureate

## Deaths

For more 1944 deaths see Category:1944 deaths

### January - March

- 1 January - Charles Turner, Australian cricketer (b. 1862)
- 5 January - Kaj Munk Danish playwright and martyr (b. 1898) (executed)
- 6 January - Ida Tarbell, American journalist (b. 1857)
- 10 January - William Emerson Ritter, American biologist (b. 1856)
- 11 January - Edgard Potier, Belgian spy (b. 1903)
- 20 January - James McKeen Cattell, American psychologist (b. 1860)
- 23 January - Edvard Munch, Norwegian painter (b. 1863)
- 31 January
  - Jean Giraudoux, French writer (b. 1882)
  - William Allen White, American journalist (b. 1868)
- 1 February - Piet Mondriaan, Dutch painter (b. 1872)
- 4 February - Yvette Guilbert, French singer and actress (b. 1867)
- 11 February - Carl Meinhof, German linguist (b. 1857)
- 21 February - Ferenc Szisz, Hungarian-born race car driver (b. 1873)
- 4 March - Louis Buchalter, Jewish American mobster, head of Murder, Inc. (b. 1897)
- 5 March - Max Jacob, French poet (b. 1876)
- 22 March - Pierre Brossolette, journalist and French Resistance fighter (b. 1903)
- 24 March - Orde Wingate, British soldier (b. 1903)

### April - June

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- 9 April - Evgeniya Rudneva, Soviet World War II heroine (b. 1920)
- 17 April - J.T. Hearne English cricketer (b. 1867)
- 25 April - George Herriman, American cartoonist (b. 1880)
- 28 April - Paul Poiret, French couturier (b. 1879)
- 29 April - Bernardino Machado, President of Portugal (b. 1851)
- 12 May - Max Brand, American author (b. 1892)
- 12 May - Q, British writer (b. 1863)
- 16 May - George Ade, American author (b. 1866)
- June - Joseph Campbell, Northern Irish poet and lyricist (b. 1879)
- 27 June - Milan Hodža, Slovak politician, champion of regional integration in Europe (b. 1878)

## July - September

- 6 July
  - Andrée Borrel, French World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1919)
  - Vera Leigh, English World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1903)
  - Sonia Olschanezky, German World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1923)
  - Diana Rowden, English World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1915)
- 7 July - Georges Mandel, French politician and World War II hero (executed) (b. 1885)
- 26 July - Reza Pahlavi, Shah of Iran (b. 1877)
- 31 July - Antoine de Saint-Exupéry, French pilot and writer (b. 1900)
- 1 August - Manuel L. Quezon, Philippine president (b. 1878)
- 4 August - Krzysztof Kamil Baczyński, Polish poet, Warsaw Uprising
- 8 August - Chaim Soutine, Russian painter (b. 1893)
- 12 August - Suzanne Spaak, Belgian World War II heroine (executed)
- 19 August - Henry Wood, British conductor (b. 1869)
- 23 August - Abdul Mejid II, Caliph of the Ottoman Empire (b. 1868)
- 26 August
  - Adam von Trott zu Solz, German diplomat (executed) (b. 1909)
  - Hans Leesment, Estonian general (b. 1873)
- 27 August - Princess Mafalda of Savoy (executed) (b. 1902)
- 6 September
  - Gustave Biéler, Swiss World War II hero (executed) (b. 1904)
  - Jan Franciszek Czartoryski, Polish RC priest, executed during the Warsaw Uprising
- 9 September - Robert Benoist, French race car driver and war hero (executed) (b. 1895)
- 11 September
  - Yolande Beekman, French World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1911)



- Madeleine Damerment, French World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1917)
- Noor Inayat Khan, Indian princess and World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1914)
- 13 September - Heath Robinson, British cartoonist and illustrator (b. 1872)
- 14 September
  - John Kenneth Macalister, Canadian World War II hero (executed) (b. 1914)
  - Frank Pickersgill, Canadian World War II hero (executed) (b. 1915)
  - Roméo Sabourin, Canadian World War II hero (executed) (b. 1923)
- 16 September - Gustav Bauer, Chancellor of Germany (b. 1870)
- 25 September - Eugeniusz Lokajski, Polish athlete, gymnast and photographer, Warsaw Uprising

## October - December

- 4 October - Al Smith, American politician (b. 1873)
- 8 October - Wendell Willkie, American politician (b. 1892)
- 14 October - Erwin Rommel, German Field Marshal (b. 1891)
- 21 October - Alois Kayser, German missionary (b. 1877)
- 23 October - Charles Glover Barkla, English physicist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1877)
- 24 October - Shoji Nishimura, Japanese Vice admiral (b. 1889)
- 26 October
  - HRH The Princess Beatrice, youngest and last living child of Queen Victoria (b. 1857)
  - William Temple, Archbishop of Canterbury (b. 1881)
- 2 November - Thomas Midgley, American chemist and inventor (b. 1889)
- 5 November - Alexis Carrel, French surgeon and biologist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine (b. 1873)
- 7 November - Hannah Szenes, Hungarian World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1921)
- 2 December - Josef Lhévinne, Russian pianist (b. 1874)
- 4 December - Roger Bresnahan, baseball player (b. 1879)
- 13 December - Wassily Kandinsky, Russian-born artist (b. 1866)
- 30 December - Romain Rolland, French writer, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1866)
- 31 December - Vicente Lim, Filipino general of the Armed Forces of the Philippines (b. 1889)
- *date unknown* - Gerald Haxton secretary and lover of the famous novelist and playwright W. Somerset Maugham (b. 1892)

## Nobel prizes

- Physics - Isidor Isaac Rabi
- Chemistry - Otto Hahn
- Medicine - Joseph Erlanger, Herbert Spencer Gasser



- Literature - Johannes Vilhelm Jensen
- Peace - International Committee of the Red Cross.

## Ship events

- Ship launches
- Ship commissionings
- Ship decommissionings
- Shipwrecks

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# 1945

## 2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: World War II; Years

Year **1945** (**MCMXLV**) was a common year starting on Monday (link will display the full calendar). It is most widely known for being the year in which World War II ended. It is also known as the beginning of the Information Age.

<p><b>Centuries:</b> 19th century - <b>20th century</b> - 21st century</p> <p><b>Decades:</b> 1910s 1920s 1930s - 1940s - 1950s 1960s 1970s</p> <p><b>Years:</b> 1942 1943 1944 - <b>1945</b> - 1946 1947 1948</p>
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## Events of 1945

*(Below, many events of World War II have the WWII'prefix.)*

### January

- January - American troops cross the Siegfried Line into Belgium
- January 5 - Soviet Union recognizes the new pro-Soviet government of Poland.
- January 7 - British General Bernard Montgomery holds a press conference at Zonhoven describing his contribution to the Battle of the Bulge.
- January 12 - WWII: The Soviet Union begins the Vistula-Oder Offensive in Eastern Europe against the Nazis.
- January 13 - A Soviet patrol arrests Raoul Wallenberg in Hungary.
- January 16 - Adolf Hitler evacuates to his underground bunker, the *Führerbunker*.
- January 17 - WWII:
  - Soviet Union occupies Warsaw.
  - Holocaust: Nazis begin to evacuate from Auschwitz concentration camp.
- January 20
  - Franklin D. Roosevelt is inaugurated to an unprecedented fourth term as President of the United States.
  - Hungary drops out of the Second World War, agreeing to an armistice with the Allies.
- January 24 - First successful launch of the German A4b-Rocket
- January 27 - The Red Army arrives at Auschwitz and Birkenau in Poland and find the Nazi concentration camp where 1.3 million people were murdered.
- January 28 - WWII: Supplies begin to reach China over the newly reopened Burma Road.
- January 30
  - The *Wilhelm Gustloff* ship with over 10,000 mainly civilian Germans from Gotenhafen ( Gdynia) in the Gdansk Bay is sunk by 3 torpedoes from the Soviet submarine S-13 in the Baltic Sea. Based on recent research, over 9,000 died.
  - 121 American Soldiers and other 200 Filipino guerrillas commence the Raid of Cabanatuan, freeing 513 American & British POWs from the



Japanese-held camp at Cabanatuan City, Philippines.

- January 31 - Eddie Slovik is executed by firing squad for desertion, the first American soldier since the American Civil War, and last to date to be executed for this offence.

## February

- February 2 - WWII: President Franklin D. Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill leave to meet with Soviet leader Joseph Stalin at the Yalta Conference.
- February 3 - WWII: Soviet Union agrees to enter the Pacific Theatre conflict against Japan.
- February 4 - WWII: President Franklin D. Roosevelt, Prime Minister of the United Kingdom Winston Churchill and Soviet leader Joseph Stalin begin the Yalta Conference (ends February 11)
- February 6 - French writer Robert Brasillach executed for collaboration with the Germans
- February 7 - WWII: General Douglas MacArthur returns to Manila
- February 9 - Walter Ulbricht becomes the leader of German communists in Moscow
- February 10 - WWII: The SS General von Steuben sunk by the Soviet submarine S-13.
- February 13 - WWII:
  - Soviet Union forces capture Budapest, Hungary from the Nazis.
  - The Royal Air Force bombs Dresden, Germany.
- February 14 - Chile, Ecuador, Paraguay and Peru join the United Nations.
- February 16 - WWII:
  - American and Filipino forces land on Corregidor island in the Philippines.
  - American and Filipino forces recapture the Bataan Peninsula
- February 19 - WWII: Battle of Iwo Jima - about 30,000 United States Marines landed on Iwo Jima starting the battle.
- February 21 - Last launch of an A4-rocket at Peenemünde
- February 23 - WWII:
  - During the Battle of Iwo Jima, a group of United States Marines reach the top of Mount Suribachi on the island and are photographed raising the American flag. The photo, *Raising the Flag on Iwo Jima* taken by Joe Rosenthal will later win a Pulitzer Prize.
  - The capital of the Philippines, Manila, is liberated by American and Filipino forces.
  - The liberating Filipino and American troops entering in Intramuros, Manila by the attack from the Japanese forces.
  - Capitulation of German garrison in Poznań, city is liberated by Red Army and Polish forces.
- February 24 - Egyptian Premier Ahmed Maher Pasha is killed in Parliament after reading a decree.



February 2: The "Big Three" at the Yalta Conference, Winston Churchill, Franklin D. Roosevelt and Joseph Stalin.

## March

- Early March - Annelies Marie Frank, also called Anne Frank, dies in the Bergen-Belsen concentration camp, Lower Saxony, Germany of typhus.



- March 1 - Franklin D. Roosevelt gives what will be his last address to a joint session of Congress, reporting on the Yalta Conference.
- March 2
  - Former US Vice-President Henry Agard Wallace starts his term of office as US Secretary of Commerce, serving under President Franklin D. Roosevelt
  - Launch of the Bachem Ba 349 Natter from Stetten am kalten Markt. The Natter was the first manned rocket and developed as anti-aircraft weapon. The launch failed and the pilot died.
- March 3 - WWII:
  - Previously neutral Finland declares war on the Axis powers.
  - A possible experimental atomic test blast occurs at the Nazis' Ohrdruf military testing area.
  - The United States and Filipino troops take Manila.
- March 4 - In the United Kingdom, Princess Elizabeth, later to become Queen Elizabeth II, joins the British Army as a driver.
- March 6 - Communist-led government formed in Romania
- March 7 - WWII: American troops seize the bridge over the Rhine River at Remagen, Germany and begin to cross.
- March 8 - Josip Broz Tito forms a government in Yugoslavia
- March 9- March 10 - WWII: American B-29 bombers attack Japan with incendiary bombs. Tokyo is fire-bombed killing 100,000 citizens.
- March 10 - WWII: The Battle of Mindanao founded to the battles of the American and Philippine Commonwealth troops together with the Allied Filipino Guerrillas against the Japanese.
- March 15 - 17th Academy Awards ceremony
- March 16 - WWII: The Battle of Iwo Jima ends, with small pockets of guerrilla resistance persisting past the official conclusion of the battle.
- March 17 - WWII: Japanese city of Kobe is fire-bombed by 331 B-29 bombers, killing over 8,000.
- March 18 - WWII: 1,250 American bombers attack Berlin.
- March 19 - WWII:
  - Adolf Hitler orders that all industries, military installations, shops, transportation facilities and communications facilities in Germany be destroyed.
  - Off the coast of Japan, bombers hit the aircraft carrier USS *Franklin*, killing 800 of her crew and crippling the ship.
- March 21 - WWII: British troops liberate Mandalay, Burma
- March 22 - The Arab League is formed with the adoption of a charter in Cairo, Egypt.
- March 24 - WWII: Operation Varsity takes place, with two airborne divisions capturing bridges across the River Rhine to aid the Allied advance.
- March 29 - The "Clash of Titans": George Mikan and Bob Kurland duelled at Madison Square Garden. OSU defeats DePaul 52-44.
- March 30 - WWII: Soviet Union forces invade Austria and take Vienna. Alger Hiss congratulated in Moscow for his part in bringing about the Western betrayal at the Yalta Conference.
- From February 14, 1936, to March 1, 1945, AG Weser launched a total of 162 U-boats.

## April

- April 1 - WWII: United States troops land on Okinawa in the last campaign of the war. The Battle of Okinawa starts.
- April 4 - WWII: American troops liberate their first Nazi concentration camp, Ohrdruf death camp in Germany.
- April 7 - WWII:



- The first and only flight of the German ramming unit known as the Sonderkommando Elbe took place, resulting in the loss of some 24 B-17s and B-24s of the United States Eighth Air Force.
- The Japanese battleship *Yamato* is sunk 200 miles north of Okinawa while enroute on a suicide mission.
- Visoko was liberated by the 7th, 9th and 17th Krajina brigades from the Tenth division of Yugoslav Partisan forces.
- Kantaro Suzuki becomes the Prime Minister of Japan
- April 9
  - Abwehr conspirators Wilhelm Canaris, Hans Oster and Hans Dohanyi are hanged at Flossenberg concentration camp along with pastor Dietrich Bonhoeffer.
  - WWII: Battle of Königsberg, in East Prussia, ends.
- April 10 - The Allied Forces liberate the Nazi concentration camp, Buchenwald.
- April 12 - United States President Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1933-1945) dies suddenly at Warm Springs, Georgia; Vice President Harry S. Truman (1945-1953) becomes the 33rd President.
- April 15 - Bergen-Belsen concentration camp liberated.
- April 16 - WWII: The Goya sunk by the Soviet submarine L-3.
- April 18 - U.S. war correspondent Ernie Pyle is killed by Japanese machine gun fire on the island of Ie Shima off Okinawa.
- April 19 - Rodgers and Hammerstein's *Carousel*, a musical play based on Ferenc Molnar's *Liliom*, opens on Broadway and becomes their second long-running stage classic.
- April 20- The League of Nations officially ceases to exist.
- April 24 - Retreating German troops destroy all the bridges over the Adige in Verona, including the historical Ponte di Castelvecchio and Ponte Pietra.
- April 25
  - Founding negotiations of United Nations in San Francisco
  - WWII: Elbe Day, United States and Soviet troops link up at the Elbe River, cutting Germany in two
- April 26 - Battle of Bautzen (World War II) - last "successful" German panzer-offensive in Bautzen, the city is recaptured
- April 27 - U.S. Ordinance troops find the coffins of Frederick Wilhelm I, Frederick the Great, Paul Von Hindenburg, and his wife
- April 28 - Italian dictator Benito Mussolini and his mistress, Clara Petacci, are executed by Italian partisans as they attempt to flee the country. Their bodies are then hung by their heels in the public square of Milan.
- April 29 - Start of Operation Manna: British Lancaster bombers drop food into the Netherlands to prevent the starvation of the civilian population.
- April 30 - Adolf Hitler and his wife of one day, Eva Braun, commit suicide as Red Army approaches Führerbunker in Berlin. Karl Dönitz succeeds Hitler as President of Germany. Joseph Goebbels succeeds Hitler as Chancellor of Germany.

## May

- May 1 - WWII:
  - Hamburg Radio announces that Hitler has died in battle, "...fighting up to his last breath against Bolshevism."
  - Joseph Goebbels and his wife commit suicide after killing their 6 children. Karl Dönitz appoints Count Lutz Schwerin von Krosigk as the new Chancellor of Germany.
  - Troops of Yugoslav 4th Army together with Slovene 9th Corps NOV enter Trieste.





- May 2 - WWII:
  - The Soviet Union announces the fall of Berlin. Soviet soldiers hoist the red flag over the *Reich Chancellery*.
  - Troops of New Zealand Army 2nd Division enter Trieste a day after the Yugoslavs. German Army in Trieste surrenders to the New Zealand Army.
  - The last postage stamp utilized by Manzhouguo is issued.
  - Liberation of Lübeck by British Army.
- May 3 - WWII:
  - Sinkings of the prison ships Cap Arcona, Thielbek and Deutschland by the RAF in the Lübeck Bay.
  - Rocket scientist Wernher von Braun and 120 members of his team surrender to US forces. They later help start the US space program.
- May 4 - WWII:
  - Liberation of the concentration camp Neuengamme near Hamburg by the British army.
  - Reddition of the North Germany army by Marshal Bernard Montgomery.
  - Holland liberated by Canadian troops. German troops officially surrender one day later.
- May 5 - WWII:
  - Prague uprising against the Nazis.
  - Ezra Pound, poet and author, is arrested by American soldiers in Italy for treason.
  - US 11th Armored Division liberates prisoners of Mauthausen concentration camp - including Simon Wiesenthal
  - Canadian soldiers liberate the city of Amsterdam from Nazi occupation.
    - Admiral Karl Dönitz orders all U-boats to cease offensive operations and return to their bases.
  - A Japanese balloon bomb killed five children and a woman, Elsie Mitchell near Bly, Oregon, when it exploded as they dragged it from the woods. They were the only people killed by enemy attack on the United States mainland during World War II.
- May 6 - WWII: Axis Sally delivers her last propaganda broadcast to Allied troops (first was on December 11, 1941).
- May 7 - WWII: General Alfred Jodl signs unconditional surrender terms at Rheims, France, ending Germany's participation in the war. The document will take effect the next day.
- May 8 - WWII:
  - V-E Day (Victory in Europe, as Nazi Germany surrenders) commemorates the end of World War II in Europe.
  - British 8th Army together with Slovene partisan troops and motorized detachment of Yugoslav 4th Army arrives to Carinthia and Klagenfurt.
- May 8- May 29 - In Algeria, thousands die as French troops and released Italian POW's kill an estimated 6 thousand Algerian citizens (Sétif rebellion).
- May 9 - WWII:
  - Russian V-E day and Hermann Göring is captured by the United States Army; Norway arrests Vidkun Quisling; Soviet Union marks V-E Day.
  - Red Army enters Prague (capitulation of German occupation troops)
  - General Alexander Löhr Commander of German Army Group E near Topolšica, Slovenia, signs capitulation of German occupation troops.
  - Occupation of the Channel Islands ends with the liberation by British troops. Alderney, annex of the concentration camp Neuengamme liberated.
- May 14 - May 15 - WWII: the Battle of Poljana: the last battle of WWII in Europe is fought at Poljana near Slovenj Gradec, Slovenia
- May 23
  - President of Germany Karl Dönitz and Chancellor of Germany Count Lutz Schwerin von Krosigk are arrested by British forces at Flensburg. They would respectively be the last German Head of state and Head of government until 1949.
  - Heinrich Himmler, the head of the Nazi Gestapo, commits suicide in British custody.



- May 28 - William Joyce, known as " Lord Haw-Haw" is captured. He is later charged with high treason in London for his English-language wartime broadcasts on German radio. He is hanged in January 1946.
- May 29 - Group of German communists, Ulbricht in the lead, arrive in Berlin.
- May 30 - Iranian government demands that Soviet and British troops leave the country.

## June

- June 1 - British take over Lebanon and Syria
- June 5 - Allied Control Council, military occupation governing body of Germany, formally takes power.
- June 6 - King Haakon VII of Norway returns to Norway
- June 11 - William Lyon Mackenzie King is re-elected as Canadian prime minister. Franck Committee recommends against a surprise nuclear bombing of Japan.
- June 12 - Yugoslav Army leaves Trieste, leaving the New Zealand Army in control.
- June 21 - WWII: The Battle of Okinawa ends.
- June 24 - WWII: Victory parade in Red Square
- June 25 - Seán T. O'Kelly is elected the second President of Ireland.
- June 26 - United Nations charter signed.
- June 29 - Czechoslovakia cedes Ruthenia to Soviet Union

## July

- July 1 - WWII: Germany is divided between Allied occupation forces
- July 5 - WWII: Liberation of the Philippines declared.
- July 8 - WWII: Harry S. Truman was informed that Japan will talk peace if she can keep the Emperor.
- July 9 - A forest fire breaks out in the Tillamook Burn, the third fire in that area since 1933.
- July 15 - Philippines fully independent in United States.
- July 16 - Nuclear testing: The Trinity Test, the first test of an atomic bomb, using 6 kilograms of plutonium, succeeds in detonating, unleashing an explosion equivalent to that of 19 kilotons of TNT.
- July 16 - WWII: A train collision near Munich, Germany kills 102 war prisoners.
- July 17 - WWII: Potsdam Conference - At Potsdam, the three main Allied leaders begin their final summit of the war. The meeting will end on August 2.
- July 21 - WWII: Harry S. Truman approves order for atomic bombs to be used.
- July 23 - WWII: French marshal Philippe Pétain, who headed the Vichy government during World War II goes on trial, charged with treason.
- July 26
  - Winston Churchill resigns as Britain's prime minister after his Conservative Party is soundly defeated by the Labour Party in the 1945 general



July 16: Trinity Test at night in Nevada.



election. Clement Attlee becomes the new prime minister.

- Potsdam Declaration demands Japan's unconditional surrender; Article 12 permitting Japan to retain the Emperor had been deleted by Truman.
- July 28
  - An Army Air Forces B-25 bomber accidentally crashes into the Empire State Building, killing 14 people.
  - WWII: Japan rejects Potsdam Declaration .
- July 29 - The BBC Light Programme radio station was launched, aimed at mainstream light entertainment and music.
- July 30 - WWII: The USS *Indianapolis* is hit and sunk by the Japanese submarine I-58. Some 900 survivors jump into the sea and are adrift for 4 days. Nearly 600 die before help arrives. Captain Charles B. McVay III is later court-martialed.
- July 31 - WWII: Pierre Laval, fugitive former leader of Vichy France, surrenders to Allied soldiers in Austria.

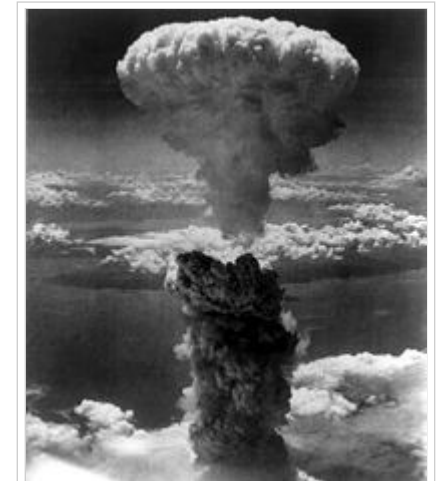


July 30: USS *Indianapolis* will be sunk.

## August



- August 6 - WWII: the Atomic bombing of Hiroshima. The United States detonates an atomic bomb nicknamed " Little Boy" on Hiroshima, Japan at 8:15 a.m. (local time).
- August 7 - President Harry Truman announces the successful bombing of Hiroshima with an atomic bomb while returning from the Potsdam Conference aboard the heavy cruiser USS Augusta (CA-31) in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean.
- August 8 - The United Nations Charter is ratified by the United States, and that nation becomes the third to join the new international organization. Soviet Union declares war on Japan.
- August 9 - WWII:
  - The United States detonates an atomic bomb nicknamed " Fat Man" over the city of Nagasaki, Japan at 11:02 a.m. (local time).
  - The Soviet Union begins its offensive against Japan in the then Japanese controlled Chinese region of Manchuria.
- August 10 - WWII:
  - Japan offers to surrender to the Allies, "...provided this does not prejudice the sovereignty of the Emperor."
  - US drops warning leaflets on Nagasaki.
- August 11 - WWII: Allies reply to the Japanese surrender offer by saying that Emperor Hirohito would be subject to the authority of the Supreme Commander of the Allied Forces.
- August 13 - Zionist World Congress approaches British government to talk about founding of Israel.
- August 14 - WWII: Emperor Hirohito accepts the terms of the Potsdam Declaration.
- August 15 - WWII:
  - Emperor Hirohito announces Japan's surrender on the radio. The United States called this day V-J Day (Victory in Japan). This ends the period of Japanese expansionism and begins the period of Occupied Japan.
- Korea gains independence following Japan's surrender
- August 17 - Indonesian nationalists Soekarno and Mohammed Hatta declare the independence of Republic of Indonesia, Soekarno as a president. Dutch colonial authorities do not approve. Animal Farm by George Orwell is first published by Fredric Warburg
- August 19 - Vietnam War: Viet Minh led by Ho Chi Minh take power in Hanoi, Vietnam.
- End of August - Chinese Civil War: Mao Zedong and Chiang Kai-shek meet in Chongqing to discuss an end to hostilities between the Communists and the Nationalists.



*August 9: The mushroom cloud from the nuclear bomb dropped on Nagasaki rising 18 km into the air.*



*September 2: Japan signs the Instrument of Surrender aboard the USS Missouri.*

## September

- September 2
  - The Commanding of the Imperial Japanese Army general Tomoyuki Yamashita surrendered to the Filipino and American forces at Kiangsan, Ifugao.
  - World War II ends: The final official surrender of Japan was accepted by Supreme Allied Commander General of the Army Douglas MacArthur and



Fleet Admiral Chester Nimitz from a delegation led by Mamoru Shigemitsu, aboard the battleship Missouri in Tokyo Bay. But in Japan August 14 is well recognized as the day the Pacific War ended.

- Ho Chi Minh promulgates the Vietnamese Declaration of Independence, and unity from the north to the south.
- September 4 - WWII: Japanese forces surrender on Wake Island after hearing word of their nation's surrender.
- September 5 - Iva Toguri D'Aquino, a Japanese-American suspected of being wartime radio propagandist "Tokyo Rose," is arrested in Yokohama.
- September 5 - Russian code clerk Igor Gouzenko comes forward with numerous documents implicating the Soviet Union of having numerous spy rings in North America.
- September 8
  - US troops occupy southern Korea, Soviet Union occupy the north. This arrangement proves to be the beginning of a divided Korea.
- \* Hideki Tojo, Japanese prime minister during most of World War II, attempts suicide to avoid facing a war crimes tribunal.
- September 9 - "First actual case of (a computer) bug being found" - a moth lodged in a relay of a Harvard Mark II computer at the Naval Weapons Centre in Dahlgren, Virginia.
- September 11
  - Radio Republik Indonesia starts broadcasting.
  - Batu Lintang camp in Sarawak, Borneo liberated by Australian forces.
- September 12 - Japanese army formally surrendered in Singapore.
- September 18 - Typhoon Makurazaki in Japan kills 3,746.
- September 20 - Mohandas Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru demand that British troops leave India

## October



- October 1 - to October 15 - Launch of three A4 rockets near Cuxhaven in order to show Allied forces the rocket with liquid fuel ( Operation Backfire)
- October 3 - to October 10 - Detroit Tigers won the World Series against the Chicago Cubs. The Cubs haven't made it to the World Series since.
- October 4 - Established Partizan, sports society from Belgrade, Serbia.
- October 5 - A strike by the Set Decorator's Union in Hollywood results in riot
- October 15 - WWII: Former premier of Vichy France, Pierre Laval, is executed by firing squad for treason.
- October 17 - A massive number of people, headed for CGT, gather in the Plaza de Mayo in Argentina to demand Juan Peron's release. This is known to the Peronists as the *Día de la lealtad* (day of loyalty) or *San Perón* (Saint Perón). It's considered the birthday of Peronism.
- October 18
  - The first German war crimes trial begins in Nuremberg.
  - Isaías Medina Angarita, president of Venezuela, is overthrown by a military coup.
- October 21 - Women's suffrage: Women are allowed to vote in France for the first time.
- October 23 - Jackie Robinson signs a contract with the Montreal Royals.
- October 24
  - United Nations founded.
  - Norwegian Nazi leader, Vidkun Quisling, is shot by firing squad for treason.
- October 27 - Indonesian separatists riot and fight Dutch and British security forces.
- October 29
  - Getúlio Vargas, president of Brazil, resigns.
  - At Gimbel's Department Store in New York City, the first ballpoint pens go on sale at \$12.50 each.

## November

- November 1
  - John H. Johnson publishes the first issue of the magazine *Ebony*.
  - Telechron introduces the model 8H59 "Musalarm", the first clock radio.
- November 11 - Musical theatre composer Jerome Kern dies after suffering a stroke a week before.
- November 13 - Charles De Gaulle elected head of a French provisional government
- November 15 - Harry S. Truman, Clement Attlee, and Mackenzie King call for a UN Atomic Energy Commission.
- November 16
  - Cold War: The United States controversially imports 88 German scientists to help in the production of rocket technology.
  - The motion picture *The Lost Weekend*, starring Ray Milland, is released. It is the most realistic film portrayal of an alcoholic up to that time, and wins several Oscars, including Best Picture, Best Director ( Billy Wilder) and Best Actor (Ray Milland). Billy Wilder wins his first Oscar for the film; Milland his only one. After his Oscar win, Ray Milland, who has usually starred in light comedies and adventure films, will be given more heavily dramatic roles.



October 24: The United Nations is formed. This was its flag. The modern version is slightly retouched.



October 18: Nuremberg trials begin, after Buchenwald closed.



- Yeshiva College founded
- November 20 - Nuremberg Trials begin: Trials against 24 Nazi war criminals of World War II start at the Nuremberg Palace of Justice.
- November 28 - Earthquake in Balochistan (Pakistan) caused a tsunami and killed 4000.
- November 29
  - The Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia is declared (this day was celebrated as Republic Day until 1990s). Marshal Tito is named president.
  - Assembly of the world's first general purpose electronic computer, the Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer ( ENIAC), is completed. It covers 1800 feet of floor space. The first set of calculations is run on the computer.

## December

- December 2 - General Eurico Gaspar Dutra elected president of Brazil
- December 3 - Communist demonstrations in Athens - preliminary of the Greek Civil War
- December 4 - By a vote of 65 to 7, the United States Senate approves the entry of the United States into the United Nations.
- December 5 - A flight of USAF Avenger torpedo bombers known as Flight 19 disappears on a training exercise.
- December 21 - General George S. Patton dies from injuries sustained in a car accident on December 9.
- December 27
  - Twenty-eight nations sign an agreement creating the World Bank.
  - Terror strikes against British military bases in Palestine.

## Undated

- Foundation of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.
- Poland has two rival governments.



- Discovery of Nag Hammadi scriptures.
- Dutch painter Han van Meegeren is arrested for collaboration with Nazis but the paintings he had sold to Hermann Göring are found to be his fakes.
- Female suffrage in Guatemala and Japan
- Saskatchewan Government Insurance, the first state-owned automobile insurance company in North America, is created.
- Denmark recognizes independent Iceland
- US House of Representatives calls for unrestricted Jewish immigration to Palestine in order to establish a Jewish commonwealth there
- Berklee College of Music founded

## Science and technology

- The Canadian Memorial Chiropractic College, the first chiropractic college in Canada, initiates its four year doctoral program.
- Arthur C. Clarke puts forward the idea of a communications satellite in a *Wireless World* magazine article.
- At the Mayo Clinic, streptomycin is first used to treat tuberculosis.
- Percy Spencer accidentally discovers that microwaves can heat food. Invention of the microwave oven follows.
- Grand Rapids, Michigan and Newburgh, New York become the first cities to add fluoride to drinking water.
- The first nuclear reactor outside of the U.S. is built in Chalk River, Ontario, Canada.
- High-altitude, west-to-east winds across the Pacific Ocean—discovered by the Japanese in 1942 and by Americans in 1944—are dubbed the *jet stream*.
- Salvador Edward Luria and Alfred Day Hershey independently recognize that viruses undergo mutations.
- The herbicide 2,4-D is introduced; it is later used as a component of Agent Orange.
- A team led by Charles DuBois Coryell discovers chemical element 61, the only one still missing between 1 and 96 on the periodic table. The new element is called promethium.
- Raymond Libby develops oral penicillin.
- American Canamid discovers folic acid, a vitamin abundant in green leafy vegetables, liver, kidney, and yeast.
- The first geothermal milk pasteurization occurs in Klamath Falls, Oregon, USA.

## Births



1945: Nag Hammadi texts found.





## January

- January 3
  - Stephen Stills, American singer and songwriter ( Crosby, Stills, Nash and Young)
  - Abbas Khattak, Commander of Pakistan Air Force
- January 4 - Richard R. Schrock, American chemist, Nobel Prize laureate
- January 6 - Pepe Le Pew, Looney Tunes cartoon character
- January 10
  - Jennifer Moss, British actress (d. 2006)
  - Rod Stewart, British singer
- January 14 - Einar Hakonarson, Painter
- January 15
  - Princess Michael of Kent
  - Vince Foster, a deputy White House counsel during the first term of President Bill Clinton (d.1993)
- January 20 - Robert Olen Butler, American writer
- January 26 - Jacqueline du Pré, English cellist (d. 1987)
- January 27 - Harold Cardinal, Cree political leader, writer, and lawyer (d. 2005)
- January 29
  - Jim Nicholson, Northern Irish politician
  - Tom Selleck, American actor
- January 30 - Michael Dorris, American author (d. 1997)
- January 31 - Joseph Kosuth, American artist

## February

- February 2 - David Friedman, American economist
- February 3
  - Bob Griese, American football player
  - Philip Waruinge, Kenyan boxer
- February 5 - Charlotte Rampling, English actress
- February 6 - Bob Marley, Jamaican singer and musician (d. 1981)
- February 7
  - Gerald Davies, Welsh rugby player
  - Pete Postlethwaite, English actor
- February 9 - Mia Farrow, American actress
- February 12 - Maud Adams, Swedish actress

## 1945 in other calendars

Gregorian calendar	1945 <i>MCMXLV</i>
Ab urbe condita	2698
Armenian calendar	1394 ԹՎ ՌՅՂԴ
Bahá'í calendar	101 – 102
Berber calendar	2895
Buddhist calendar	2489
Burmese calendar	1307
Byzantine calendar	7453 – 7454
Chinese calendar	甲申年十一月十八日 (4581/4641-11-18) — <i>to</i> — 乙酉年十一月廿七日 (4582/4642-11-27)
Coptic calendar	1661 – 1662
Ethiopian calendar	1937 – 1938
Hebrew calendar	5705 – 5706
Hindu calendars	
- <i>Vikram Samvat</i>	2000 – 2001
- <i>Shaka Samvat</i>	1867 – 1868
- <i>Kali Yuga</i>	5046 – 5047
Holocene calendar	11945
Iranian calendar	1323 – 1324
Islamic calendar	1364 – 1365
Japanese calendar	Shōwa 20 (昭和20年)
Korean calendar	4278
Thai solar calendar	2488



- February 16 - Frank Welker, American voice actor
- February 14 - Prince Hans-Adam II of Liechtenstein
- February 17 - Brenda Fricker, Irish actress
- February 24 - Barry Bostwick, American actor
- February 25 - Elkie Brooks, English singer
- February 25 - Roy Saari, American swimmer
- February 26 - Marta Kristen, Norwegian actress
- February 27 - Carl Anderson, American singer and actor (d. 2004)
- February 28 - Bubba Smith, American football player and actor

## March

- March 1 - Dirk Benedict, American actor
- March 3 - Hattie Winston, American actress
- March 4
  - Dieter Meier, Swiss singer and children's writer
  - Tommy Svensson, Swedish football manager and former player
  - Gary Williams, American basketball coach
- March 6 - Rob Reiner, American actor, comedian and director
- March 7 - John Heard, American actor
- March 8
  - Jim Chapman, American politician
  - Micky Dolenz, American actor, director, and musician ( The Monkees)
  - Anselm Kiefer, German painter
- March 9 - Dennis Rader, American serial killer
- March 13 - Anatoly Timofeevich Fomenko, Russian mathematician
- March 15 - A. K. Faezul Huq, Bangladeshi lawyer and Politician (d. 2007)
- March 17 - Katri Helena, Finnish singer
- March 19 - Cem Karaca, Turkish musician (d. 2004)
- March 20 - Jay Ingram, television host, author and journalist
- March 20 - Pat Riley, American basketball coach
- March 24 - Sylvester the Cat, Looney Tunes cartoon character
- March 26 - Mikhail Voronin, Russian gymnast (d. 2004)
- March 29 - Walt Frazier, American basketball player
- March 30 - Eric Clapton, English guitarist
- March 31 - Gabe Kaplan, American actor, comedian, and professional poker player



## April

- April 2 - Linda Hunt, American actress
- April 4 - Daniel Cohn-Bendit, French activist
- April 7 - Werner Schroeter, German film director
- April 9
  - Peter Gammons, baseball sportswriter
  - Steve Gadd, American session drummer
- April 12 - Lee Jong-wook, Korean Director-General of the World Health Organization (d. 2006)
- April 13
  - Tony Dow, American actor, producer, and director
  - Lowell George, American musician ( Little Feat)
  - Bob Kalsu, American football player (d. 1970)
- April 14 - Ritchie Blackmore, English guitarist ( Deep Purple 1968-1975 & 1984-1993)
- April 20 - Frank DiLeo, American actor
- April 21 - Diana Darvey, British actress, singer and dancer (d. 2000)
- April 25 - Björn Ulvaeus, Swedish songwriter ( ABBA)
- April 27 - August Wilson, American playwright (d. 2005)

## May

- May 1 - Rita Coolidge, American singer
- May 2
  - Judge Dread, English musician
  - Sarah Weddington, American attorney
- May 4 - Narasinh Ram, Indian journalist
- May 5 - Kurt Loder American film critic, author, and television personality.
- May 5 - Yosemite Sam, Looney Tunes cartoon character
- May 6
  - Jimmie Dale Gilmore, American musician
  - Bob Seger, American singer
- May 8 - Keith Jarrett, American musician
- May 14
  - George Nicholls, British rugby league footballer
  - Yochanan Vollach, former Israeli football player and president of Maccabi Haifa, CEO
- May 15 - Duarte Pio, Duke of Braganza, heir to the Portuguese crown



- May 16 - Nicky Chinn, English songwriter ( The Sweet and Suzi Quatro)
- May 17 - Tony Roche, Australian tennis player
- May 19 - Pete Townshend, English guitarist and lyricist ( The Who)
- May 21 - Ernst Messerschmid, German physicist and astronaut
- May 23 - Doris Mae Oulton, Canadian community developer
- May 24 - Priscilla Presley, American actress
- May 28
  - John Fogerty, American singer
  - Gary Stewart, American singer (d. 2003)
- May 31 - Rainer Werner Fassbinder, German film director (d. 1982)

## June

- June 1 - Frederica von Stade, American mezzo-soprano
- June 8 - Steven Fromholz, American singer-songwriter
- June 9 - Nike Wagner, German woman of the theatre
- June 11 - Adrienne Barbeau, American film and television actress
- June 12 - Pat Jennings, Northern Irish footballer player
- June 14 - Jörg Immendorff, German painter
- June 15 - Françoise Chandernagor, French writer
- June 16 - Claire Alexander, Canadian ice hockey player
- June 17 - P. D. T. Acharya, Secretary General Lok Sabha
  - Frank Ashmore, American actor
  - Art Bell, American radio talk show host
  - Anupam Kher, Indian actor
  - Eddy Merckx, Belgian cyclist
- June 19
  - Aung San Suu Kyi, Myanmar poet, politician, recipient of the Nobel Peace Prize
  - Radovan Karadžić, Serbian politician
- June 24 - George Pataki, former New York State Governor
- June 25 - Carly Simon, American singer and songwriter
- June 26 - Dwight York, American musician, fashion consultant, cult leader, and child molester

## July

- July 1 - Debbie Harry, American singer ( Blondie)



- July 5 - Lu Sheng-yen, leader of the True Buddha School
- July 6 - Burt Ward, American actor
- July 7 - Michael Ancram, British politician
- July 8 - Micheline Calmy-Rey, Swiss Federal Councilor
- July 9 - Dean R. Koontz, American writer
- July 11 - Richard Wesley, American playwright and screenwriter
- July 15 - Jürgen Möllemann, German politician (d. 2003)
- July 16 - Victor Sloan, Irish artist
- July 17 - Alexander, Crown Prince of Yugoslavia
- July 20 - Kim Carnes, American singer-songwriter
- July 20 - Larry Craig, U.S. senator from Idaho
- July 21 - John Lowe, English darts player
- July 24 - Azim Premji, Indian businessman
- July 26 - Dame Helen Mirren, British actress
- July 28 - Jim Davis, American cartoonist

## August

- August 1
  - Laila Morse, American actress
  - Douglas D. Osheroff, American physicist, Nobel Prize laureate
- August 5 - Loni Anderson, American actress
- August 6 - Ron Jones, director (d. 1995)
- August 7 - Alan Page, American football player
- August 9 - Posy Simmonds, English cartoonist
- August 14
  - Steve Martin, American actor and comedian
  - Eliana Pittman, Brazilian singer and actress
- August 15 - Mahamandaleshwar Paramhans Swami Maheshwarananda, Indian guru
- August 19 - Ian Gillan, English singer ( Deep Purple)
- August 22 - Ron Dante, American singer, songwriter, and record producer ( The Archies)
- August 24 - Vince McMahon, American wrestling promoter
- August 31
  - Van Morrison, Irish musician
  - Itzhak Perlman, Israeli-American violinist and conductor



## September

- September 1 - Mustafa Balel, Turkish writer
- September 5 - Al Stewart, Scottish singer-songwriter
- September 8 - Jose Feliciano, Puerto Rican singer
- September 14 - Martin Tyler, British sports broadcaster
- September 15 - Jessye Norman, American soprano
- September 17 - Phil Jackson, American basketball coach
- September 19 - Randolph Mantooth, American actor
- September 21 - Shaw Clifton, General of The Salvation Army
- September 27 - Kay Ryan, American poet
- September 30
  - Salaheddin Ali Nader Shah Angha, 42nd Oveyssi-Shahmaghsoudi leader
  - Ehud Olmert, 12th Prime Minister of Israel

## October

- October 3 - Kay Baxter, American bodybuilder (d. 1988)
- October 12 - Aurore Clément, French actress
- October 15 - Jim Palmer, baseball player
- October 18 - Yıldı, Turkish famous showmen, football player
- October 19 - John Lithgow, American actor
- October 22 - Yvan Ponton, Canadian actor and sportscaster
- October 24 - Eugenie Scott, Executive Director of the National Centre for Science Education
- October 25 - David Schramm, American astrophysicist
- October 27 - Luís Inácio Lula da Silva, President of Brazil
- October 27 - John Kane, actor/writer
- October 30 - Henry Winkler, American actor
- October 31 - Brian Doyle-Murray, American actor

## November

- November 5 - Jacques Lanctôt, Canadian terrorist
- November 11 - Chris Dreja, British musician ( The Yardbirds)
- November 12
  - Michael Bishop, American author



- Tracy Kidder, American journalist and author
- Neil Young, Canadian singer
- November 15 - Anni-Frid Lyngstad, Norwegian singer ( ABBA)
- November 16 - Casper the Friendly Ghost, Harvey Comics cartoon character
- November 18 - Wilma Mankiller, Chief of the Cherowkee nation
- November 18 - Mahinda Rajapaksa, President of Sri Lanka
- November 21 - Goldie Hawn, American actress
- November 23 - Jerry Harris, American sculptor
- November 26
  - Daniel Davis, American actor
  - John McVie, English musician ( Fleetwood Mac)

## December

- December 1 - Bette Midler, American singer and actress
- December 6
  - Larry Bowa, baseball player
  - Dan Harrington, American poker player
- December 7 - Marion Rung, Finnish singer
- December 8 - John Banville, Irish novelist and journalist
- December 12 - Tony Williams, American musician (d. 1997)
- December 20 - Peter George Criscoula, American drummer and singer ( Kiss)
- December 22 - Diane Sawyer, American television anchor
- December 24 - Ian "Lemmy" Kilminster, British bassist and singer ( Motörhead)
- December 28 - King Birendra of Nepal

## Unknown dates

- Victor Sloan, Irish artist
- Roger Dobkowitz, American game show producer

## Deaths

### January-March

- January 2 - Bertram Ramsay, British admiral (b. 1883)



- January 3 - Edgar Cayce, American psychic (b. 1877)
- January 6 - Josefa Llanes Escoda, Filipino advocate of women's right of suffrage and founder of the Girl Scouts of the Philippines (b. 1898)
- January 9 - Jüri Uluots, Estonian statesman (b. 1890)
- January 22 - Else Lasker-Schuler, German poet (b. 1869)
- January 31 - Eddie Slovik, American soldier (b. 1920)
- February 5
  - Denise Bloch, French World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1915)
  - Lilian Rolfe, French World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1914)
  - Violette Szabo, French World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1921)
- February 10 - Anacleto Diaz, Filipino jurist (murdered during Battle of Manila) (b. 1878)
- February 11 - Al Dubin, Swiss songwriter (b. 1891)
- February 12 - Antonio Villa-Real, Filipino jurist (murdered during Battle of Manila) (b. 1878)
- February 14 - Didier Bonvitesse, Belgian painter and sculptor (b. 1880)
- February 17 - Gabrielle Weidner, Belgian World War II heroine (b. 1914)
- February 21 - Eric Liddell, Scottish runner (b. 1902)
- February 25 - Mário de Andrade, Brazilian writer and photographer (b. 1893)
- March - Margot Frank (b. 1926) and her younger sister Anne Frank, German-born diarist (typhus) (b. 1929)
- March 2 - Emily Carr, Canadian artist (b. 1871)
- March 16 - Börries von Münchhausen, German poet (b. 1874)
- March 18 - William Grover-Williams, French race car driver and war hero (b. 1903)
- March 19 - Friedrich Fromm, Nazi official (b. 1888)
- March 20 - Lord Alfred Douglas, English poet (b. 1870)
- March 22
  - Eliyahu Bet-Zuri, Israeli assassin (executed) (b. 1922)
  - Eliyahu Hakim, Israeli assassin (executed) (b. 1925)
- March 23 - Elisabeth de Rothschild, French World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1902)
- March 26 - David Lloyd George, Welsh Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (b. 1863)
- March 30 - Élise Rivet, French nun and war heroine (b. 1890)
- March 31 - Hans Fischer, German chemist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1881)

## April-June

- April- Auguste van Pels, housemate of Anne Frank
- April 5 - Huldreich Georg Früh (b. 1903)
- April 9
  - Dietrich Bonhoeffer, German theologian (hanged) (b. 1906)
  - Wilhelm Canaris, head of the German Abwehr (hanged) (b. 1887)





- April 10 - H.N. Werkman, Dutch artist and printer (executed) (b. 1882)
- April 12 - Franklin Delano Roosevelt, President of the United States (cerebral hemorrhage) (b. 1882)
- April 18
  - Ernie Pyle, American journalist (sniper fire) (b. 1900)
  - Prince William of Wied, sovereign Prince of Albania (b.1876)
- April 22 - Käthe Kollwitz, German artist (b. 1867)
- April 24 - Ernst-Robert Grawitz, Reichsphysician SS and Police in the Third Reich (b. 1899)
- April 28 - Benito Mussolini, Italian dictator (executed) (b. 1883)
- April 30
  - Adolf Hitler, German dictator (suicide) (b. 1889)
  - Eva Braun, wife of Adolf Hitler (suicide) (b. 1912)
  - William Darby, creator of the U.S. Army Rangers (b. 1911)
- May 1
  - Cecily Lefort, English World War II heroine (executed) (b. 1900)
  - Joseph Goebbels, Nazi propagandist (suicide) (b. 1897)
  - Magda Goebbels, wife of Joseph Goebbels (suicide) (b. 1901)
- May 5 - Peter van Pels, love interest of diarist Anne Frank (b. 1926)
- May 14 - Heber J. Grant, seventh president of The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (b. 1856)
- May 15 - Charles Williams, British author (b. 1886)
- May 18 - William Joseph Simmons, founder of the second KKK (b. 1880)
- May 19 - Philipp Bouhler, German Nazi Leader
- May 23 - Heinrich Himmler, head of the SS (suicide) (b. 1900)
- June 8 - Robert Desnos, French poet and French resistance fighter (b. 1900)
- June 15 - Nikola Avramov, Bulgarian painter (b. 1897)
- June 16 - Nikolai Berzarin, Russian Red Army General (b.1904)

## July-September

- July 5 - John Curtin, fourteenth Prime Minister of Australia (b. 1885)
- July 20 - Paul Valéry, French poet (b. 1871)
- August 2 - Pietro Mascagni, Italian composer (b. 1863)
- August 9 - Harry Hillman, American athlete (b. 1881)
- August 10 - Robert Goddard, American rocket scientist (b. 1882)
- August 15 - Korechika Anami, Japanese general (b. 1887)
- August 18 - Subhash Chandra Bose, Indian political leader (b. 1897)
- August 19 - Tomas Burgos, Chilean philanthropist (b.1875)
- August 31 - Stefan Banach, Polish mathematician (b. 1892)



- September 12 - Sugiyama Hajime, Japanese general (b. 1880)
- September 15 - Anton Webern, Austrian composer (b. 1883)
- September 24 - Johannes Hans Geiger, German physicist and inventor (b. 1882)
- September 26 - Béla Bartók, Hungarian composer (b. 1881)

## October-December

- October 13 - Milton Hershey, American chocolate tycoon (b. 1857)
- October 15 - Pierre Laval, Prime Minister of France (executed) (b. 1883)
- October 19 - N.C. Wyeth, American illustrator (b. 1882)
- October 24 - Vidkun Quisling, Norwegian traitor (executed) (b. 1887)
- October 25 - Robert Ley, Nazi politician (suicide) (b. 1890)
- October 26 - Paul Pelliot, French explorer (b. 1878)
- October 31 - Henry Ainley, actor (b. 1879)
- November 8 - August von Mackensen, German field marshal (b. 1849)
- November 11 - Jerome Kern, American composer (b. 1885)
- November 20 - Francis William Aston, English chemist, Nobel Prize laureate (b. 1877)
- November 21 - Robert Benchley, American humorist, theatre critic, and actor (b. 1889)
- December 4 - Thomas Hunt Morgan, American geneticist, recipient of the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine (b. 1866)
- December 5 - Cosmo Lang, Archbishop of Canterbury (b. 1864)
- December 13 - Josef Kramer, commandant of Bergen-Belsen concentration camp (executed) (b. 1906)
- December 16 - Fumimaro Konoe, Prime Minister of Japan (suicide) (b. 1891)
- December 21 - George S. Patton, U.S. general (car accident) (b. 1885)
- December 28 - Theodore Dreiser, American author (b. 1871)

## Nobel prizes

- Physics - Wolfgang Pauli
- Chemistry - Artturi Ilmari Virtanen
- Physiology or Medicine - Sir Alexander Fleming, Ernst Boris Chain, Sir Howard Walter Florey
- Literature - Gabriela Mistral
- Peace - Cordell Hull

## Ship events



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# 1973 oil crisis

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The **1973 oil crisis** began on October 17, 1973, when the members of Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries (OAPEC, consisting of the Arab members of OPEC plus Egypt and Syria) announced, as a result of the ongoing Yom Kippur War, that they would no longer ship oil to nations that had supported Israel in its conflict with Syria and Egypt (the United States, its allies in Western Europe, and Japan).

The same time, OPEC members agreed to use their leverage over the world price-setting mechanism for oil in order to raise world oil prices, after the failure of negotiations with the "Seven Sisters" earlier in the month. Because of the dependence of the industrialized world on crude oil and the predominant role of OPEC as a global supplier, these price increases were dramatically inflationary to the economies of the targeted countries, while at the same time suppressive of economic activity. The targeted countries responded with a wide variety of new, and mostly permanent, initiatives to contain their further dependency. The United States of America, however, failed to produce any major initiatives towards reducing its foreign dependency.

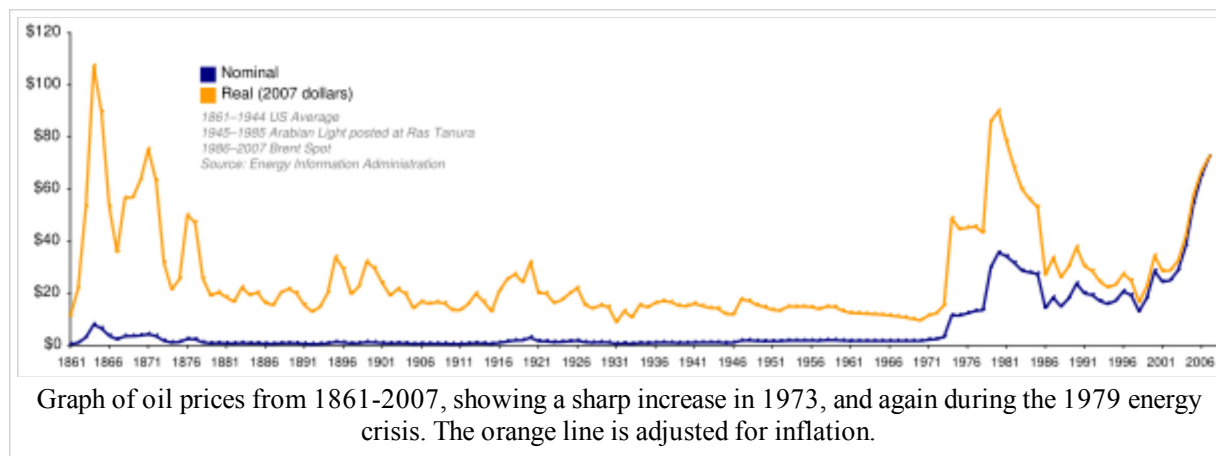
## Background

### Founding of OPEC

The Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) consisted of twelve countries, including Iran, seven Arab countries, plus Indonesia, Nigeria, Angola and Venezuela. OPEC had been formed on September 14, 1960 at the Baghdad conference. It was made to protest pressure by major oil companies (mostly owned by U.S., British, and Dutch nationals) to reduce oil prices and payments to producers. At first it had operated as an informal bargaining unit for the sale of oil by Third World nations. It confined its activities to gaining a larger share of the revenues produced by Western oil companies and greater control over the levels of production. However, in the early 1970s it began to exert its strength.

### Yom Kippur War/Ramadan War

On October 6, 1973, Syria and Egypt launched a military attack on Israel starting the Yom Kippur War, also known as the Ramadan War or October War. The persistence of the Arab-Israeli conflict finally triggered pressure on the West over its support of Israel (in part because of operations such as Operation Nickel





Grass). Egypt and Syria, though not major oil-exporting countries, joined the latter grouping to help articulate its objectives. On October 17, 1973, Arab states placed an embargo on oil as punishment for U.S. support for Israel in the Yom Kippur War. During the war the Arab world imposed an oil embargo against the United States, Western Europe, and Japan for their support of Israel. By the early 1970s the great Western oil conglomerates suddenly faced a unified bloc of producers.

The Arab-Israeli conflict triggered a crisis already in the making. The West could not continue to increase its energy use 5% annually, pay low oil prices, yet sell inflation-priced goods to the petroleum producers in the Third World. This was stressed by the Shah of Iran, whose nation was the world's second-largest exporter of oil and the closest ally of the United States in the Middle East at the time. "Of course [the world price of oil] is going to rise," the Shah told the *New York Times* in 1973. "Certainly! And how...; You [Western nations] increased the price of wheat you sell us by 300%, and the same for sugar and cement...; You buy our crude oil and sell it back to us, refined as petrochemicals, at a hundred times the price you've paid to us...; It's only fair that, from now on, you should pay more for oil. Let's say ten times more."

## End of Bretton Woods

On August 15, 1971, the United States pulled out of the Bretton Woods Accord taking the US off the Gold Exchange Standard (whereby only the value of the US dollar had been pegged to the price of gold and all other currencies were pegged to the US dollar), allowing the dollar to "float". Shortly thereafter, Britain followed, floating the pound sterling. The industrialized nations followed suit with their respective currencies. In anticipation of the fluctuation of currencies as they stabilized against each other, the industrialized nations also increased their reserves (printing money) in amounts far greater than ever before. The result was a depreciation of the value of the US dollar, as well as the other currencies of the world. Because oil was priced in dollars, this meant that oil producers were receiving less "real" income for the same price. The OPEC cartel issued a joint communique stating that forthwith they would price a barrel of oil against gold. This led to the "Oil Shock" of the mid-seventies. In the years after 1971, OPEC was slow to readjust prices to reflect this depreciation. From 1947-1967 the price of oil in U.S. dollars had risen by less than two percent per year. Until the Oil Shock, the price remained fairly stable versus other currencies and commodities, but suddenly became extremely volatile thereafter. OPEC ministers had not developed the institutional mechanisms to update prices rapidly enough to keep up with changing market conditions, so their real incomes lagged for several years. The large price increases of 1973-74 largely caught up their incomes to Bretton Woods levels in terms of other commodities such as gold.

## Arab oil embargo

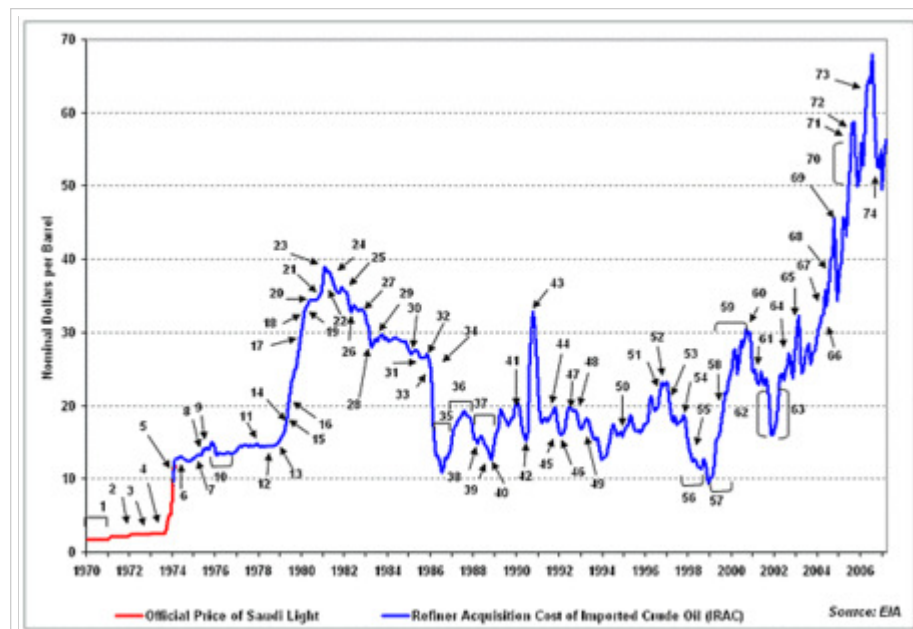
On October 16, 1973, OPEC cut production of oil and placed an embargo on shipments of crude oil to the West, with the United States and the Netherlands specifically targeted. The Netherlands had supplied arms to Israel and allowed the Americans to use Dutch airfields for supply runs to Israel. Also imposed was a boycott of Israel and price increases. Since oil demand falls little with price rises, prices had to rise dramatically to reduce demand to the new lower level of supply. Anticipating this, the market price for oil immediately rose substantially. A world financial system already under pressure from the breakdown of the Bretton Woods agreement was set on a path of a series of recessions and high inflation that persisted until the early 1980s, and elevated oil prices persisted until 1986.



Over the long term, the oil embargo changed the nature of policy in the West, towards more exploration, towards energy conservation, and towards more restrictive monetary policy, which more aggressively fought inflation.

## Chronology

- August 23, 1973—In preparation for the Yom Kippur War, Saudi King Faisal and Egyptian president Anwar Sadat meet in Riyadh and secretly negotiate an accord whereby the Arabs will use the "oil weapon" as part of the upcoming military conflict.
- September 15—The Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) declares a negotiating front, consisting of the 6 Persian Gulf States, to pressure for price increases and an end to support of Israel, based on the 1971 Tehran agreement.
- October 6—Egypt and Syria attack Israel on Yom Kippur, starting the fourth Arab-Israeli War.
- October 8– October 10—OPEC negotiations with oil companies to revise the 1971 Tehran price agreement fail.
- October 16—Saudi Arabia, Iran, Iraq, Abu Dhabi, Kuwait, and Qatar unilaterally raise posted prices by 17% to \$3.65 per barrel and announce production cuts.
- October 17—OPEC oil ministers agree to use oil as a weapon to punish the West for its support of Israel in the Arab-Israeli war. They recommend an embargo against unfriendly states and mandate a cut in exports.
- October 19—Saudi Arabia, Libya and other Arab states proclaim an embargo on oil exports to the United States.
- October 23– October 28—The Arab oil embargo is extended to the Netherlands.
- November 5—Arab producers announce a 25% output cut. A further 5% cut is threatened.
- November 23—The Arab embargo is extended to Portugal, Rhodesia, and South Africa.
- November 27—U.S. President Richard Nixon signs the Emergency Petroleum Allocation Act authorizing price, production, allocation and marketing controls.



The price of oil during the embargo. The graph is based on the nominal, not real, price of oil, and so overstates prices at the end. However, the effects of the Arab Oil Embargo are clear—it effectively doubled the real price of crude oil at the refinery level, and caused massive shortages in the U.S.



- December 9—Arab oil ministers agree to another five percent cut for non-friendly countries for January 1974.
- December 25—Arab oil ministers cancel the five percent output cut for January. Saudi oil minister Yamani promises a ten percent OPEC production rise.
- January 7– January 9, 1974—OPEC decides to freeze prices until April 1.
- February 11— United States Secretary of State Henry Kissinger unveils the Project Independence plan to make U.S. energy independent.
- February 12– February 14—Progress in Arab-Israeli disengagement brings discussion of oil strategy among the heads of state of Algeria, Egypt, Syria and Saudi Arabia.
- March 17—Arab oil ministers, with the exception of Libya, announce the end of the embargo against the United States.

## Price controls and rationing

The crisis was further exacerbated by government price controls in the United States, which limited the price of "old oil" (that already discovered) while allowing newly discovered oil to be sold at a higher price, resulting in a withdrawal of old oil from the market and artificial scarcity. The rule had been intended to promote oil exploration. This scarcity was dealt with by rationing of gasoline (which occurred in many countries), with motorists facing long lines at gas stations.

In the U.S., drivers of vehicles with license plates having an odd number as the last digit (or a vanity license plate) were allowed to purchase gasoline for their cars only on odd-numbered days of the month, while drivers of vehicles with even-numbered license plates were allowed to purchase fuel only on even-numbered days. The rule did not apply on the 31st day of those months containing 31 days, or on February 29 in leap years — the latter never came into play, since the restrictions had been abolished by 1976.

In some U.S. states, a three colour flag system was used to denote gasoline availability at service stations. A green flag denoted unrationed sale of gasoline. A yellow flag denoted restricted and rationed sales. A red flag denoted that no gasoline was available at the service station but was open for other services.

Coupons for gasoline rationing were ordered in 1974 and 1975 for Federal Energy Administration, but were never actually used for this crisis or the 1979 energy crisis.

## Conservation and reduction in demand



The U.S. government response to the embargo was quick but of limited effectiveness. A National Maximum Speed Limit of 55 mph (near 90 km/h) was imposed through the Emergency Highway Energy Conservation Act to help reduce consumption. President Nixon named William Simon as an official "energy czar," and in 1977, a cabinet-level Department of Energy was created, leading to the creation of the United States's Strategic Petroleum Reserve. The National Energy Act of 1978 was also a response to this crisis.

Year-round daylight saving time was implemented: at 2:00 a.m. local time on January 6, 1974, clocks were advanced one hour across the nation. The move spawned significant criticism because it forced many children to commute to school before sunrise. As a result, the clocks were turned back on the last Sunday in October as originally scheduled, and in 1975 clocks were set forward one hour at 2:00 a.m. on February 23. The pre-existing daylight-saving rules, calling for the clocks to be advanced one hour on the last Sunday in April, were restored in 1976.

The crisis also prompted a call for individuals and businesses to conserve energy — most notably a campaign by the Advertising Council using the tag line "Don't Be Fuelish." Many newspapers carried full-page advertisements that featured cut-outs which could be attached to light switches that had the slogan "Last Out, Lights Out: Don't Be Fuelish" emblazoned thereon.

The U.S. "Big Three" automakers' first order of business after Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards were enacted was to downsize existing automobile categories as mandated by the U.S. Department of Transportation. By the end of the 1970s, full-size luxury cars with a 130-inch (3.3 m) wheelbase and gross weights averaging 4,500 pounds were a thing of the past. Before the mass production of automatic overdrive transmissions and electronic fuel injection, the traditional front engine/rear wheel drive layout was being phased out for the more efficient front engine/front wheel drive, starting with compact cars. Using the Volkswagen Rabbit as the archetype, much of Detroit went to front wheel drive after 1980 in response to CAFE's 27.5 mile per gallon fuel consumption mandate.

Though not required by legislation, the sport of auto racing voluntarily sought reductions. The 24 Hours of Daytona was cancelled in 1974. Also in 1974, NASCAR reduced all race distances by 10%. At the Indianapolis 500, qualifying was reduced from four days down to two, and several days of practice were eliminated.

## Search for alternatives

The energy crisis led to greater interest in renewable energy and spurred research in solar power and wind power. It also led to greater pressure to exploit North American oil sources, and increased the West's dependence on coal and nuclear power. This included increased interest in mass transit and personal rapid transit, which do not use petroleum directly.



Gas coupon printed but not issued during the crisis



Gas stations abandoned during the crisis were sometimes used for other purposes. This station at Potlatch, Washington was turned into a revival hall.





In Australia, heating oil ceased being considered an appropriate winter heating fuel. This often meant that a lot of oil-fired room heaters that were popular from the late-1950s to the early-1970s were considered outdated. Gas-conversion kits that let the heaters burn natural gas or propane were introduced.

For the handful of industrialized nations that were net energy exporters, the effects of the oil crisis were very different. In Canada the industrial east suffered many of the same problems of the United States. In oil rich Alberta, however, there was a sudden and massive influx of money that quickly made it the richest province in the country. The federal government attempted to correct this imbalance through the creation of the government-owned Petro-Canada and later the National Energy Program. These efforts produced a great deal of anger in the west producing a sentiment of alienation that has remained a central element of Canadian politics to this day. Overall the oil embargo had a sharply negative effect on the Canadian economy. The economic malaise in the United States easily crossed the border and increases in unemployment, and stagflation hit Canada as hard as the United States despite Canadian fuel reserves.

The Soviet Union was also a net oil exporter. The Soviet economy had stagnated for several years, and the increase in the price of oil had a beneficial effect, especially after the bloc's internal terms of trade were adjusted to reflect the increased value of Russian oil. The increase in foreign currency reserves allowed the import of grain and other foodstuffs from abroad, and increased production of consumer goods and kept military spending at its traditional levels. Some historians believe the windfall in oil revenues during this period kept the Soviet Union in existence for a considerably longer period of time than would otherwise have occurred.

The Brazilian government implanted a very large project called " Proálcool" (pro-alcohol) that would make a mixture of ethanol to gas for using in the vehicles. This project, focused on producing ethanol from sugar cane, is still ongoing and has reduced the oil importation needs of the country, and also has decreased the price of the gas in that nation.

## Macroeconomic effects

The 1973 oil crisis was a major factor in Japan's economy shifting away from oil-intensive industries and resulted in huge Japanese investments in industries such as electronics.

The Western nations' central banks decided to sharply cut interest rates to encourage growth, deciding that inflation was a secondary concern. Although this was the orthodox macroeconomic prescription at the time, the resulting stagflation surprised economists and central bankers, and the policy is now considered by some to have deepened and lengthened the adverse effects of the embargo.

Long-term effects of the embargo are still being felt. Public suspicion of the oil companies, who were thought to be profiteering or even working in collusion with OPEC, continues (seven of the fifteen top Fortune 500 companies in 1974 were oil companies, with total assets of over \$100 billion).

## Effects on international relations

The Cold War policies of the Nixon administration also suffered a major blow in the aftermath of the oil embargo. They had focused on China and the Soviet Union, but the latent challenge to U.S. hegemony coming from the Third World became evident. U.S. power was under attack even in Latin America.

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The oil embargo was announced roughly just one month after a right-wing military coup in Chile toppled elected socialist president Salvador Allende on September 11, 1973. The United States' subsequent assistance to this government did little to curb the activities of socialist guerrillas in the region. The response of the Nixon administration was to propose doubling of the amount of military arms sold by the United States. As a consequence, a Latin American bloc was organized and financed in part by Venezuela and its oil revenues, which quadrupled between 1970 and 1975.

In addition, Western Europe and Japan began switching from pro-Israel to more pro-Arab policies (some of which are still in effect today). This change further strained the Western alliance system, for the United States, which imported only 12% of its oil from the Middle East (compared with 80% for the Europeans and over 90% for Japan), remained staunchly committed to its backing of Israel.

A year after the unveiling of the 1973 oil embargo, the nonaligned bloc in the United Nations passed a resolution demanding the creation of a "new international economic order" in which resources, trade, and markets would be distributed more equitably, with the local populations of nations within the global South receiving a greater share of benefits derived from the exploitation of southern resources, and greater respect for the right to self-directed development in the South be afforded by the North.

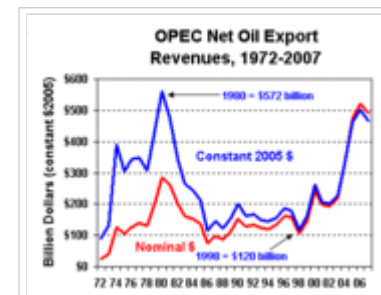
## Decline of OPEC

Since 1973, OPEC failed to hold on to its preeminent position, and by 1981, its production was surpassed by that of other countries. Additionally, its own member nations were divided among themselves. Saudi Arabia, trying to gain back market share, increased production and caused downward pressure on prices, making high-cost oil production facilities less profitable or even unprofitable. The world price of oil, which had reached a peak in 1979 during the 1979 energy crisis, at more than US\$80 per barrel, decreased during the early 1980s to US\$38 per barrel (239 US\$/m<sup>3</sup>). In real prices, oil briefly fell back to pre-1973 levels. Overall, the reduction in price was a windfall for the oil-consuming nations: United States, Japan, Europe and especially the Third World.

Part of the decline in prices and economic and geopolitical power of OPEC comes from the move away from oil consumption to alternate energy sources. OPEC had relied on the famously limited price sensitivity of oil demand to maintain high consumption but had underestimated the extent to which other sources of supply would become profitable as the price increased. Electricity generation from nuclear power and natural gas, home heating from natural gas and ethanol blended gasoline all reduced the demand for oil.

At the same time, the drop in prices represented a serious problem for oil-producing countries in northern Europe and the Persian Gulf region. For a handful of heavily populated, impoverished countries, whose economies were largely dependent on oil — including Mexico, Nigeria, Algeria, and Libya — governments and business leaders failed to prepare for a market reversal, the price drop placed them in wrenching, sometimes desperate situations.

When reduced demand and over-production produced a glut on the world market in the mid-1980s, oil prices plummeted and the cartel lost its unity. Oil exporters such as Mexico, Nigeria, and Venezuela, whose economies had expanded in the 1970s, were plunged into near-bankruptcy, and even Saudi Arabian



OPEC net oil export revenues for 1971 - 2007.



economic power was significantly weakened. The divisions within OPEC made subsequent concerted action more difficult.

Nevertheless, the 1973 oil shock provided dramatic evidence of the potential power of Third World resource suppliers in dealing with the developed world. The vast reserves of the leading Middle East producers guaranteed the region its strategic importance, but the politics of oil still proves dangerous for all concerned to this day.

## Long term effects

Despite efforts by the Arab states to use the "oil weapon" to display Western energy vulnerability and the futility of maintaining a heavy-handed pro-Israeli policy, it can be argued that the Arab states ultimately traded diplomatic gains for ever-increasing dependence on the West for economic and military security. The sharp reaction by the United States, Western Europe and Japan, the Soviet Union, and the influx of new oil wealth, had dire effects for the Arab states in the years following the 1973 Yom Kippur War and OPEC embargo. Prior to the embargo, the geo-political competition between the Soviet Union and the United States, in combination with low oil prices that hindered the necessity and feasibility for the West to seek alternative energy sources, presented the Arab States with financial security, moderate economic growth, and disproportionate international bargaining power. Following the embargo, higher oil prices opened new avenues for energy exploration or expansion including Alaska, the North Sea, the Caspian Sea, and Caucasus.

## Soviet reaction

Prior to the ascendance of Mohammed Anwar Al Sadat to president of Egypt in 1970, the Middle East had been an important arena in the global superpower competition, most lucidly displayed in the arms sales and cooperation between the American and Soviet governments with Israel, Saudi Arabia, and Iran on one hand and Egypt, Syria, and Iraq on the other. Although none of these states entered into any formal alliances comparative to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, they did benefit greatly from the geo-political competition in the region and vacillations in alignment often resulted in greater gains of assistance. This competitive environment, beneficial to the regional states involved, was mitigated sharply after 1970. Sadat's dismissal of Soviet specialists in Egypt and the dramatic price increases in hydrocarbons hardened relations with all of the Middle East and created new opportunities for the export of Soviet oil. Exploration in the Caspian Basin and Siberia became more cost effective. Former cooperation evolved into a far more adversarial relationship as the Soviet Union increased oil production and export (by 1980 the Soviet Union was the world's largest producer of oil) to take advantage of the supply problems in the West created by OPEC's production reductions. This growing economic competition turned into genuine fears of military aggression after the 1979 Soviet invasion of Afghanistan, leaving the Gulf States to look to the United States for the type of security guarantees against Soviet military action in the Persian Gulf that the Israelis had exclusively received only a decade earlier.

## Growing security concerns

The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan was only part of the growing security destabilization in the Middle East, most obviously seen in the increased sale of American weapons, technology, and outright military presence. Saudi Arabia and Iran became increasingly dependent on bi-lateral American security assurances to combat both external and internal threats, including increased military competition between these states because of the increased oil revenues.



Both states were seemingly competing for preeminence in the Persian Gulf and using increased revenues on disproportionately powerful military forces. By 1979, Saudi weapon purchases from the United States was in excess of five times the amount that Israel was purchasing annually. Following the failure of the Shah during January 1979 to maintain control of Iran, the Saudis were forced to deal with the prospect of internal destabilization via Islamic fundamentalism, a reality which would quickly be revealed in the seizure of the Grand Mosque in Mecca by Wahhabi extremists during November and a Shia revolt in al-Hasa during December.

## Conclusions

Growing fears about eventual Western energy independence, various security threats, and the absence of a Western rival in the geo-political competition over the Middle-East led the Arab states in a more dependent relationship with the West. This is most explicit in Saudi Arabia's consistent policy of price and production moderation in an effort to reduce the chances of Western alienation and the opportunity costs for alternative energy production. The exchange for Western moderation in Arab-Israeli affairs ultimately led to a reshaping of the Middle-Eastern geo-political landscape that was significantly less advantageous than prior to 1973.

## Impact on motor industry

### Impact on West European motor industry

The motor industry was one of Western Europe's most affected industries in the wake of the 1973 oil crisis.

After the Second World War most West European countries applied heavy taxes to motor fuel because it was imported, and as a result most cars made in Europe were small and economical. However by the late sixties as wealth increased car sizes were rising despite heavy fuel taxes, although some of the more upmarket brands were building cars that could take lead-free fuel, and there were still a number of "economy" cars in production at this time.

But the oil crisis gradually saw many West European car buyers move away from larger, less economical cars. The most notable result of this transition in the car market was the rise in popularity of compact hatchbacks.

The only notable small hatchbacks built in Western Europe at the time of the oil crisis were the Peugeot 104, Renault 5 and Fiat 127. By the end of the decade, the market had massively expanded with the introduction of the Ford Fiesta, Vauxhall Chevette (sold as the Opel Kadett City in West Germany), Chrysler Sunbeam and Citroen Visa.

Buyers looking for larger cars were increasingly drawn to medium sized hatchbacks that were virtually unknown in Europe in 1973, but by the end of the decade were gradually replacing saloons as the mainstay of this sector. Between 1973 and 1980, the following medium sized hatchbacks were launched across Europe: the Chrysler/Simca Horizon, Fiat Ritmo (Strada in the UK), Ford Escort MK3, Renault 14, Vauxhall Astra (also sold as the Opel Kadett) and Volkswagen Golf. These cars offered new standard of fuel economy, which were much needed in the aftermath of the oil crisis.



The modern hatchbacks launched in the wake of the oil crisis were considerably more economical than the traditional saloons they were taking the place of, and even attracted a considerable number of buyers who would have otherwise chosen cars in the next sector. Their success continued into the 1980s and by the later part of the decade, some 15 years after the oil crisis, hatchbacks almost monopolised most European small and medium car markets, and had gained a substantial share of the large family car market.

## Impact on U.S. motor industry

Like Western Europe, Detroit was significantly impacted by the 1973 oil embargo. Before the embargo American cars got bigger and thirstier each year. V8 engines got bigger, the cars got longer wheelbases, and more and more power and convenience features added weight and sapped power. By 1971 the standard engine in a Chevrolet Caprice was a 400-cubic inch V8, and most came with power windows, seats, and air conditioning. The wheelbase of this car was a long 121.5 inches (3,090 mm), and Motor Trend's 1972 test of the similar Chevrolet Impala could not yield more than 15 miles per gallon, even on the highway. However, after the oil embargo, these big behemoths sat on dealers' lots week after week, month after month, without being sold while the newly-introduced four-cylinder subcompacts and six-cylinder compacts were in greater demand than the supply. In addition, Japanese and European automakers began to export more compact cars into the US than ever before to meet the demand. Toyota become a top seller in a short time due to the superior quality of their models. Nissan (Datsun prior to 1984)), Peugeot, Volkswagen, Mazda and Honda also racked up record sales in the US during this period.

This forced the Big Three (GM, Ford, and Chrysler) to introduce smaller and fuel-efficient models for domestic sales. The Chrysler Omni/Horizon, Ford Fiesta and Fairmont, and the Chevrolet Chevette all had four-cylinder engines and room for at least four passengers by the late seventies. But Toyota, Honda, and Nissan had by that time captured the market to a great degree with their improved, front-wheel drive models that offered more for the money and better fuel mileage than their American competitors.

The February 2008 issue of Collectible Automobile magazine contained an article titled "Designing Cars of the Seventies: Freedoms Lost" which detailed the following: federal safety standards e.g. NHTSA Federal Motor Vehicle Safety Standard 215 (pertaining to the 5 mph (8.0 km/h) safety bumpers), and marketing compacts like the 1974 Mustang II as a prelude to downsizing (where the DOT revised vehicle categories). An article in the March 2008 Collectible Automobile magazine detailing GM's 1977 full-sized cars reflected on the 1973 oil crisis and subsequent downsizing. It concluded that if mass production of overdrive transmission been introduced, there would not have actually been any vehicle downsizing.

By 1979, virtually all the big "full size" American cars were "downsized," featuring smaller engines and smaller dimensions outside, but generally retaining the roominess demanded by Americans. These new smaller models were able to achieve much better fuel economy than their predecessors. GM and Ford Motor Company continued production of downsized luxury cars while Chrysler Corporation ended production of their full-sized luxury sedans in 1981, leaving the company with a full front wheel drive lineup.

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# Afghanistan

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**Afghanistan**, officially the **Islamic Republic of Afghanistan** ( Persian: *جمهوری اسلامی افغانستان*, Pashto: *د افغانستان اسلامي جمهوریت* ), is a landlocked country that is located approximately in the centre of Asia. It is variously designated as geographically located within Central Asia, South Asia, and the Middle East. It has religious, ethno-linguistic, and geographic links with most of its neighboring states. It is bordered by Pakistan in the south and east, Iran in the west, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Tajikistan in the north, and China in the far northeast. The name Afghanistan means the "*Land of Afghans*." During the Cold War Afghanistan bordered the Soviet Union.

Ariana was the original name of Afghanistan back in the 1700s. Afghanistan is a culturally mixed nation, a crossroads between the East and the West, and has been an ancient focal point of trade and migration. It has an important geostrategical location, connecting South, Central and Southwest Asia. During its long history, the land has seen various invaders and conquerors, while on the other hand, local entities invaded the surrounding vast regions to form their own empires. Ahmad Shah Durrani created the Durrani Empire in 1747, with its capital at Kandahar. Subsequently, the capital was shifted to Kabul and most of its territories ceded to former neighboring countries. In the 19th century, Afghanistan became a buffer state in " The Great Game" played between the British Indian Empire and Russian Empire. On August 19, 1919, following the third Anglo-Afghan war, the country regained full independence from the United Kingdom over its foreign affairs.

Since the late 1970s Afghanistan has suffered continuous and brutal civil war, which included foreign interventions in the form of the 1979 Soviet invasion and the recent 2001 US-led invasion that toppled the Taliban government. In late 2001 the United Nations Security Council authorized the creation of an International Security Assistance Force (ISAF). This force is composed of NATO troops that are involved in assisting the government of President Hamid Karzai in establishing the writ of law as well as rebuilding key infrastructures in the nation. In 2005, the United States and Afghanistan signed a strategic partnership agreement committing both nations to a long-term relationship. In the meantime, multi-billion US dollars have also been provided by the international community for the reconstruction of the country.

## Etymology

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<p>جمهوری اسلامی افغانستان  <i>Jamhūrī-ye Islāmī-ye Afġānistān</i>  <b>Islamic Republic of Afghanistan</b></p>	
 <p>Flag</p>	 <p>Emblem</p>
<p><b>Anthem:</b> <i>Milli Tharana</i></p>	
	
<b>Capital</b> (and largest city)	Kabul
<b>Official languages</b>	Pashto, Dari
Recognised regional languages	Balochi, Pashto, Uzbek, Turkmen, Hazaragi, Farsi, Nuristani, Pashai, Tajik, Kyrgyz
<b>Demonym</b>	Afghan (most common)
<b>Government</b>	Islamic republic



The name *Afghānistān* translates to the "*Land of Afghans*." Its modern usage derives from the word *Afghan*.

### Origin of the word "Afghan"

There are different theories about the origin of the word Afghan, its age, and its meaning. Some believe that "Afghan" is formed from *ʾApagān*. The Pashtuns began using the term *Afghan* as a name for themselves from at least the Islamic period and onwards. According to W. K. Frazier Tyler, M. C. Gillet and several other scholars, *The word Afghan first appears in history in the Hudud-al-Alam in 982 AD.*

In this regard the *Encyclopædia Iranica* states:

From a more limited, ethnological point of view, "Afghān" is the term by which the Persian-speakers of Afghanistan (and the non-Paštō-speaking ethnic groups generally) designate the Paštūn. The equation [of] *Afghan* [and] *Paštūn* has been propagated all the more, both in and beyond Afghanistan, because the Paštūn tribal confederation is by far the most important in the country, numerically and politically.

It further explains:

The term "Afghān" has probably designated the Paštūn since ancient times. Under the form *Avagānā*, this ethnic group is first mentioned by the Indian astronomer Varāha Mihira in the beginning of the 6th century CE in his *Brihat-samhita*.

### Meaning and origin of the name "Afghanistan"

The last part of the name, *-stān*, is an Iranian suffix for "place", prominent in many languages of the region.

The term "*Afghanistan*," meaning the "*Land of Afghans*," was mentioned by the sixteenth century Mughal Emperor Babur in his memoirs, referring to the territories south of Kabul that were inhabited by Pashtuns (called *Afghans* by Babur).

Until the 19th century the name was only used for the traditional lands of the Pashtuns, while the kingdom as a whole was known as the *Kingdom of Kabul*, as mentioned by the British statesman and historian Mountstuart Elphinstone. Other parts of the country were at certain periods recognized as independent kingdoms, such as the *Kingdom of Balkh* in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.

With the expansion and centralization of the country, Afghan authorities adopted and extended the name "Afghanistan" to the entire kingdom, after its English

- President	Hamid Karzai
- Vice President	Ahmad Zia Massoud
- Vice President	Karim Khalili
<b>Independence</b>	from the United Kingdom
- Declared	August 8, 1919
- Recognized	August 19, 1919
<b>Area</b>	
- Total	647,500 km <sup>2</sup> ( 41st) 251,772 sq mi
- Water (%)	0
<b>Population</b>	
- 2007 estimate	31,889,923 ( 37th)
- 1979 census	13,051,358
- Density	46/km <sup>2</sup> ( 150th) 119/sq mi
<b>GDP ( PPP)</b>	2006 estimate
- Total	\$32.4 billion ( 92nd)
- Per capita	\$1,490 ( 158th)
<b>HDI (1993)</b>	0.229 (n/a) ( unranked)
<b>Currency</b>	Afghani ( ₰)
<b>Time zone</b>	( UTC+4:30)
- Summer ( DST)	( UTC+4:30)
<b>Internet TLD</b>	.af
<b>Calling code</b>	+93



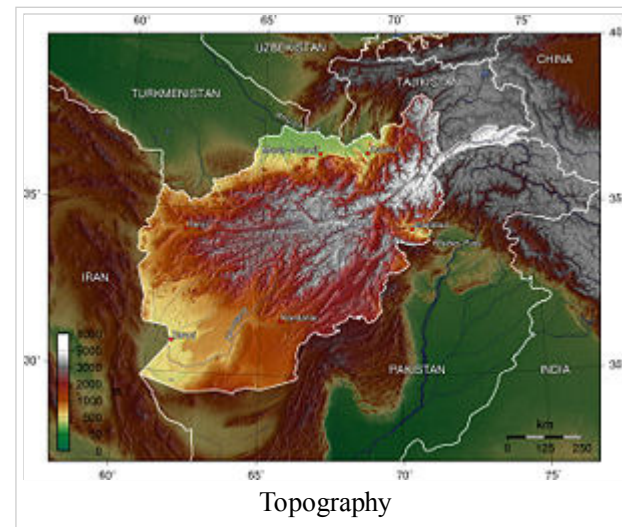
translation, "Afghanland", had already appeared in various treaties between British Raj and Qajarid Persia, referring to the lands that were subject to the Pashtun Barakzai Dynasty of Kabul. "Afghanistan" as the name for the entire kingdom was mentioned in 1857 by Frederick Engels. It became the official name when the country was recognized by the world community in 1919, after regaining its full independence from the British, and was confirmed as such in the nation's 1923 constitution.

## Geography

Afghanistan is a landlocked and mountainous country in South- Central Asia, with plains in the north and southwest. The highest point is Nowshak, at 7,485 m (24,557 ft) above sea level. Large parts of the country are dry, and fresh water supplies are limited. The endorheic Sistan Basin is one of the driest regions in the world. Afghanistan has a continental climate with hot summers and cold winters. The country is frequently subject to minor earthquakes, mainly in the northeast of Hindu Kush mountain areas. Some 125 villages were damaged and 4000 people killed by the May 30, 1998 earthquake.

At 249,984 sq mi (647,500 km<sup>2</sup>), Afghanistan is the world's 41st-largest country (after Myanmar). Comparatively, it is slightly smaller than the U.S. state of Texas.

The country's natural resources include gold, silver, copper, zinc and iron ore in southeastern areas; precious and semi-precious stones such as lapis, emerald and azure in the north-east; and potentially significant petroleum and natural gas reserves in the north. The country also has uranium, coal, chromite, talc, barites, sulfur, lead, and salt. However, these significant mineral and energy resources remain largely untapped due to the effects of the Soviet invasion and the subsequent civil war. Plans are underway to begin extracting them in the near future.



## History

Though the modern state of Afghanistan was founded or created in 1747 by Ahmad Shah Durrani, the land has an ancient history and various timelines of different civilizations. Excavation of prehistoric sites by Louis Dupree, the University of Pennsylvania, the Smithsonian Institution and others suggests that humans were living in what is now Afghanistan at least 50,000 years ago, and that farming communities of the area were among the earliest in the world.

Afghanistan is a country at a unique nexus point where numerous Indo-European civilizations have interacted and often fought, and was an important site of early historical activity. Through the ages, the region has been home to various people, among them the Aryan ( Indo-Iranian) tribes, such as the Kambojas, Bactrians, Persians, etc. It also has been conquered by a host of people, including the Median and Persian Empires, Alexander the Great, Kushans, Hephthalites, Arabs, Turks, and Mongols. In recent times, invasions from the British, Soviets, and most recently by the Americans and their allies have taken place. On the other hand, native entities have invaded surrounding regions in Iranian plateau and Indian subcontinent to form empires of their own.



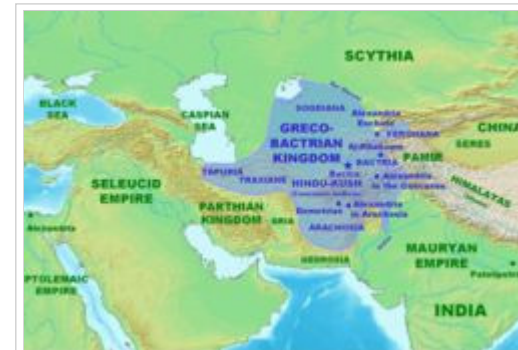


Between 2000 and 1200 BC, Indo-European-speaking Aryans are thought to have been in the region of northern Afghanistan. It is unlikely that the Aryans themselves originated in Afghanistan although they did migrate from there south towards India and west towards Persia, but they also migrated into Europe via north of the Caspian. These Aryans set up a nation that during the rule of Medes and Achaemenid Persians which became known as Aryānām Xšaθra or Airyānem Vāejah. Original homelands of the Aryans have been proposed as Anatolia, Central Asia, Iran, or Northern India, with the directions of the historical migration varying accordingly. Later, during the rule of Ashkanian, Sasanian and after, it was called Erānshahr ( Persian: **ایران‌شهر** - *Īrānšahr*) meaning "Dominion of the Aryans."

It has been speculated that Zoroastrianism might have originated in what is now Afghanistan between 1800 to 800 BC, as Zoroaster lived and died in Balkh.. Ancient Eastern Iranian languages, such as Avestan, may have been spoken in this region around the time of the rise of Zoroastrianism. By the middle of the sixth century BC, the Persian Empire of the Achaemenids supplanted the Median Empire and incorporated what was known as Persia to the Greeks within its boundaries; and by 330 BC, Alexander the Great invaded Afghanistan and conquered the surrounding regions. Following Alexander's brief occupation, the Hellenistic successor states of the Seleucids and Greco-Bactrians controlled the area, while the Mauryas from India annexed the southeast for a time and introduced Buddhism to the region until the area returned to the Bactrian rule.



The region that is now Afghanistan was for much of its history part of various Persian dynasties, such as the Achaemenid dynasty of the Persian Empire (559–330 BCE)



The Greco-Bactrian Kingdom at its maximum extent, circa 180 BCE



During the first century AD, the Kushans created a vast empire centered in modern Afghanistan and were patrons of Buddhist culture. The Kushans were defeated by the Sassanids in the third century. Although various rulers calling themselves Kushans (and generally known as *Kushano-Sasanians*) continued to rule at least parts of the region, they were probably more or less subject to the Sassanids. The late Kushans were followed by the Kidarite Huns who, in turn, were replaced by the short-lived but powerful Hephthalites, as rulers of the region in the first half of the fifth century. The Hephthalites were defeated by the Sasanian king Khosrau I in AD 557, who re-established Sasanian power in Persia. However, the successors of Kushans and Hephthalites established a small dynasty in Kabulistan called Kushano-Hephthalites or Kabul-Shahan/ Shahi and were later defeated by the Muslim armies.

## Islamic conquest

In the Middle Ages, up to the nineteenth century, the region was known as Khorasan. Several important centers of Khorāsān are thus located in modern Afghanistan, such as Balkh, Herat, Ghazni and Kabul. It was during this period of time when Islam was introduced and spread in the area.

The region of Afghanistan became the centre of various important empires, including that of the Samanids (875–999), Ghaznavids (977–1187), Seljukids (1037–1194), Ghurids (1149–1212), and Timurids (1370–1506). Among them, the periods of Ghaznavids of Ghazni, and Timurids of Herat are considered as some of the most brilliant eras of Afghanistan's history.

In 1219 the region was overrun by the Mongols under Genghis Khan, who devastated the land. Their rule continued with the Ilkhanates, and was extended further following the invasion of Timur Lang ("Tamerlane"), a ruler from Central Asia. In 1504, Babur, a descendant of both Timur Lang and Genghis Khan, established the Mughal Empire with its capital at Kabul. By the early 1700s, Afghanistan was controlled by several ruling groups: Uzbeks to the north, Safavids to the west and the remaining larger area by the Mughals or self-ruled by local Afghan tribes.

## Emergence of Afghan rule

### Hotaki dynasty

In 1709, Mir Wais Hotak, a local Afghan (*Pashtun*) from the Ghilzai clan, overthrew and killed Gurgin Khan, the Safavid governor of Kandahar. Mir Wais successfully defeated the Persians, who were attempting to convert the local population of Kandahar from Sunni to the Shia sect of Islam. Mir Wais held the region of Kandahar until his death in 1715 and was succeeded by his son Mir Mahmud Hotaki. In 1722, Mir Mahmud led an Afghan army to Isfahan (now in Iran), sacked the city and proclaimed himself King of Persia. However, the great majority still rejected the Afghan regime as usurping, and after the massacre of thousands of civilians in Isfahan by the Afghans – including more than three thousand religious scholars, nobles, and members of the Safavid family – the Hotaki dynasty was eventually removed from power by a new ruler, Nadir Shah of Persia.

### Durrani Empire

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Buddhas of Bamiyan were among the largest Buddha statues in the world, dating back to the first century AD.



In 1738 Nadir Shah and his army, which included four thousand Pashtuns of the Abdali clan, conquered the region of Kandahar; in the same year he occupied Ghazni, Kabul and Lahore. On June 19, 1747, Nadir Shah was assassinated, possibly planned by his nephew Ali Qoli. In the same year, one of Nadir's military commanders and personal bodyguard, Ahmad Shah Abdali, a Pashtun from the Abdali clan, called for a loya jirga following Nadir's death. The Afghans gathered at Kandahar and chose Ahmad Shah as their King. Since then, he is often regarded as the founder of modern Afghanistan. After the inauguration, he changed his title or clans' name to *Durrani*,"which derives from the Persian word *Durr*, meaning *Pearl*."

By 1751 Ahmad Shah Durrani and his Afghan army conquered the entire present-day Afghanistan, Pakistan, Khorasan and Kohistan provinces of Iran, along with Delhi in India. In October 1772, Ahmad Shah retired to his home in Maruf, Kandahar, where he died peacefully. He was succeeded by his son, Timur Shah Durrani, who transferred the capital from Kandahar to Kabul. Timur died in 1793 and was finally succeeded by his son Zaman Shah Durrani.

## European influence

During the nineteenth century, following the Anglo-Afghan wars (fought 1839–42, 1878–80, and lastly in 1919) and the ascension of the Barakzai dynasty, Afghanistan saw much of its territory and autonomy ceded to the United Kingdom. The UK exercised a great deal of influence, and it was not until King Amanullah Khan acceded to the throne in 1919 that Afghanistan re-gained complete independence over its foreign affairs (see " The Great Game"). During the period of British intervention in Afghanistan, ethnic Pashtun territories were divided by the Durand Line. This would lead to strained relations between Afghanistan and British India – and later the new state of Pakistan – over what came to be known as the Pashtunistan debate. The longest period of stability in Afghanistan was between 1933 and 1973, when the country was under the rule of King Zahir Shah.

However, in 1973 Zahir Shah's brother-in-law, Mohammed Daoud Khan, launched a bloodless coup and became the first President of Afghanistan. Daoud Khan and his entire family were murdered in 1978, when the communist People's Democratic Party of Afghanistan launched a coup known as the Great Saur Revolution and took over the government. The 1978 Khalq uprising against the government of Daoud Khan was essentially a resurgence by the Ghilzai tribe of the Pashtun against the Durrani (the tribe of Daoud Khan and the previous monarchy).



## Soviet invasion and civil war

As part of a Cold War strategy, in 1979 the United States government (under President Jimmy Carter and National Security Advisor Zbigniew Brzezinski) began to covertly fund and train anti-government Mujahideen forces through the Pakistani secret service known as Inter Services Intelligence (ISI). In order to bolster the local Communist forces, the Soviet Union—citing the 1978 Treaty of Friendship, Cooperation and Good Neighborliness that had been signed between the two countries—intervened on December 24, 1979. Over 100,000 Soviet troops took part in the invasion, who were backed by another 100,000 and plus pro-communist forces of Afghanistan. The Soviet occupation resulted in the killings of at least 600,000 to 2 million Afghan civilians. Over five million Afghans fled their country to Pakistan, Iran and other parts of the world. Faced with mounting international pressure and great number of casualties on both sides, the Soviets withdrew in 1989.



The Soviet withdrawal from the Democratic Republic of Afghanistan was seen as an ideological victory in the US, which had backed the Mujahideen through three US presidential administrations in order to counter Soviet influence in the vicinity of the oil-rich Persian Gulf.

Following the removal of the Soviet forces, the US and its allies lost interest in Afghanistan and did little to help rebuild the war-ravaged country or influence events there. The USSR continued to support President Najibullah (former head of the Afghan secret service, *KHAD*) until 1992 when new Russian government refused to sell oil products to Najibullah regime.

Because of the fighting, a number of elites and intellectuals fled to take refuge abroad. This led to a leadership imbalance in Afghanistan. Fighting continued among the victorious Mujahideen factions, which gave rise to a state of warlordism. The most serious fighting during this period occurred in 1994, when over 10,000 people were killed in Kabul alone. It was at this time that the Taliban developed as a politico-religious force, eventually seizing Kabul in 1996. By the end of 2000 the Taliban had captured 95% of the country.

During the Taliban's seven-year rule, much of the population experienced restrictions on their freedom and violations of their human rights. Women were banned from jobs, girls forbidden to attend schools or universities. Those who resisted were punished instantly. Communists were systematically eradicated and thieves were punished by amputating one of their hands or feet. Meanwhile, the Taliban managed to nearly eradicate the majority of the opium production by 2001.

## 2001-present war in Afghanistan

Following the September 11, 2001 attacks the United States launched Operation Enduring Freedom, a military campaign to destroy the al-Qaeda terrorist training camps inside Afghanistan. The US military also threatened to overthrow the Taliban government for refusing to hand over Osama bin Laden and several al-Qaida members. The US made a common cause with the former Afghan Mujahideen to achieve its ends, including the Northern Alliance, a militia still recognized by the UN as the Afghan government.

In late 2001, US Special Forces invaded Afghanistan to aid anti-Taliban militias, backed by US air strikes against Taliban and Al Qaeda targets, culminating in the seizure of Kabul by the Northern Alliance and the overthrow of the Taliban, with many local warlords switching allegiance from the Taliban to the Northern Alliance.

In December of the same year, leaders of the former Afghan mujahideen and diaspora met in Germany, and agreed on a plan for the formulation of a new democratic government that resulted in the inauguration of Hamid Karzai, an ethnic Pashtun from the southern city of Kandahar, as Chairman of the Afghan Interim Authority.

After a nationwide *Loya Jirga* in 2002, Karzai was chosen by the representatives to assume the title as Interim President of Afghanistan. The country convened a Constitutional Loya Jirga (Council of Elders) in 2003 and a new constitution was ratified in January 2004. Following an election in October 2004, Hamid



Soviet troops withdrawing from Afghanistan in 1988. Photo by Mikhail Evstafiev



Karzai won and became the President of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan. Legislative elections were held in September 2005. The National Assembly – the first freely elected legislature in Afghanistan since 1973 – sat in December 2005, and was noteworthy for the inclusion of women as voters, candidates, and elected members.

As the country continues to rebuild and recover, it is still struggling against poverty, poor infrastructure, large concentration of land mines and other unexploded ordnance, as well as a huge illegal poppy cultivation and opium trade. Afghanistan also remains subject to occasionally violent political jockeying. The country continues to grapple with the Taliban insurgency and the threat of attacks from a few remaining al Qaeda.

At the start of 2007 reports of the Taliban's increasing presence in Afghanistan led the US to consider longer tours of duty and even an increase in troop numbers. According to a report filed by Robert Burns of Associated Press on January 16, 2007, "U.S. military officials cited new evidence that the Pakistani military, which has long-standing ties to the Taliban movement, has turned a blind eye to the incursions." Also, "The number of insurgent attacks is up 300 percent since September, 2006, when the Pakistani government put into effect a peace arrangement with tribal leaders in the north Waziristan area, along Afghanistan's eastern border, a U.S. military intelligence officer told reporters." In 2008 another 3,200 U.S. troops will be sent to Afghanistan to fight the Taliban.



US Army in Kunar Province

## Government and politics

Politics in Afghanistan has historically consisted of power struggles, bloody coups and unstable transfers of power. With the exception of a military junta, the country has been governed by nearly every system of government over the past century, including a monarchy, republic, theocracy and communist state. The constitution ratified by the 2003 Loya jirga restructured the government as an Islamic republic consisting of three branches, ( executive, legislature and judiciary).

Afghanistan is currently led by President Hamid Karzai, who was elected in October 2004. The current parliament was elected in 2005. Among the elected officials were former mujahadeen, Taliban members, communists, reformists, and Islamic fundamentalists. 28% of the delegates elected were women, 3 points more than the 25% minimum guaranteed under the constitution. This made Afghanistan, long known under the Taliban for its oppression of women, one of the leading countries in terms of female representation. Construction for a new parliament building began on August 29, 2005.

The Supreme Court of Afghanistan is currently led by Chief Justice Abdul Salam Azimi, a former university professor who had been legal advisor to the president. The previous court, appointed during the time of the interim government, had been dominated by fundamentalist religious figures, including Chief Justice Faisal Ahmad Shinwari. The court had issued numerous questionable rulings, such as banning cable television, seeking to ban a candidate in the 2004 presidential election and limiting the rights of women, as well as overstepping its



Politicians of Afghanistan having lunch with the visiting U.S. President George W. Bush in Kabul on March 1, 2006.



constitutional authority by issuing rulings on subjects not yet brought before the court. The current court is seen as more moderate and led by more technocrats than the previous court, although it has yet to issue any rulings.

## Law enforcement and military

Afghanistan currently has more than 70,000 national police officers, with plans to recruit more so that the total number can reach 80,000. They are being trained by and through the Afghanistan Police Program. Although the police officially are responsible for maintaining civil order, sometimes local and regional military commanders continue to exercise control in the hinterland. Police have been accused of improper treatment and detention of prisoners. In 2003 the mandate of the International Security Assistance Force, now under command of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was extended and expanded beyond the Kabul area. However, in some areas unoccupied by those forces, local militias maintain control. In many areas, crimes have gone uninvestigated because of insufficient police and/or communications. Troops of the Afghan National Army have been sent to quell fighting in some regions lacking police protection.

## Administrative divisions

Afghanistan is administratively divided into thirty-four (34) provinces (*welayats*), and for each province there is a capital. Each province is then divided into many provincial districts, and each district normally covers a city or several townships.

The Governor of the province is appointed by the Ministry of Interior, and the Prefects for the districts of the province will be appointed by the provincial Governor. The Governor is the representative of the central government of Afghanistan, and is responsible for all administrative and formal issues. The provincial Chief of Police is appointed by the Ministry of Interior, who works together with the Governor on law enforcement for all the cities or districts of that province.

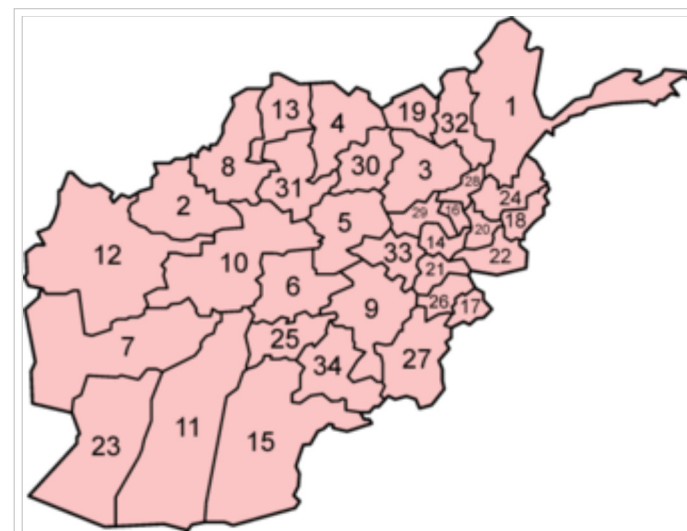
There is an exception in the capital city (Kabul) where the Mayor is selected by the President of Afghanistan, and is completely independent from the prefecture of the Kabul Province.



First deputy vice president Ahmad Zia Massoud presents a new police officer with his diploma at the Kabul Police Academy.



- |               |               |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1. Badakhshan | 18. Konar     |
| 2. Badghis    | 19. Kunduz    |
| 3. Baghlan    | 20. Laghman   |
| 4. Balkh      | 21. Lowgar    |
| 5. Bamyan     | 22. Nangarhar |
| 6. Daykundi   | 23. Nimruz    |
| 7. Farah      | 24. Nurestan  |
| 8. Faryab     | 25. Oruzgan   |
| 9. Ghazni     | 26. Paktia    |
| 10. Ghor      | 27. Paktika   |
| 11. Helmand   | 28. Panjshir  |
| 12. Herat     | 29. Parvan    |
| 13. Jowzjan   | 30. Samangan  |
| 14. Kabul     | 31. Sare Pol  |
| 15. Kandahar  | 32. Takhar    |
| 16. Kapisa    | 33. Wardak    |
| 17. Khost     | 34. Zabol     |



Map showing the 34 provinces of Afghanistan.

## Demography

### Largest cities

The only city in Afghanistan with over one million residents is its capital, Kabul. The other major cities in the country are, in order of population size, Kandahar, Herat, Mazar-e Sharif, Jalalabad, Ghazni and Kunduz.

### Ethnic groups



The population of Afghanistan is divided into a wide variety of ethnic groups. Because a systematic census has not been held in the country in decades, exact figures about the size and composition of the various ethnic groups are not available. Therefore most figures are approximations only.

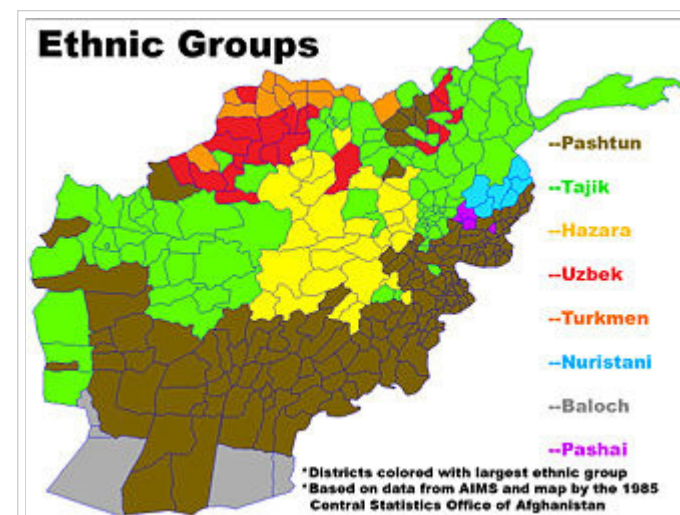
An approximate distribution of ethnic groups estimated by the CIA World Factbook is as following:

- Pashtun: 42%
- Tajik: 27%
- Hazara: 9%
- Uzbek: 9%
- Aimak: 4%
- Turkmen: 3%
- Baloch: 2%
- Other: 4%

Based on official census numbers from the 1960s to the 1980s, as well as information found in mainly scholarly sources, the Encyclopædia Iranica gives the following list:

- 36.4% Pashtun
- 33.7% Tajik, Farsiwan, and Qezelbash
- 8.0% Hazara
- 8.0% Uzbek
- 4.1% Aimak
- 3.3% Turkmen
- 1.6% Baloch
- 1.9% other

## Languages



### Ethnic groups of Afghanistan (percentages are from *Encyclopædia Iranica* and *CIA World Factbook*)

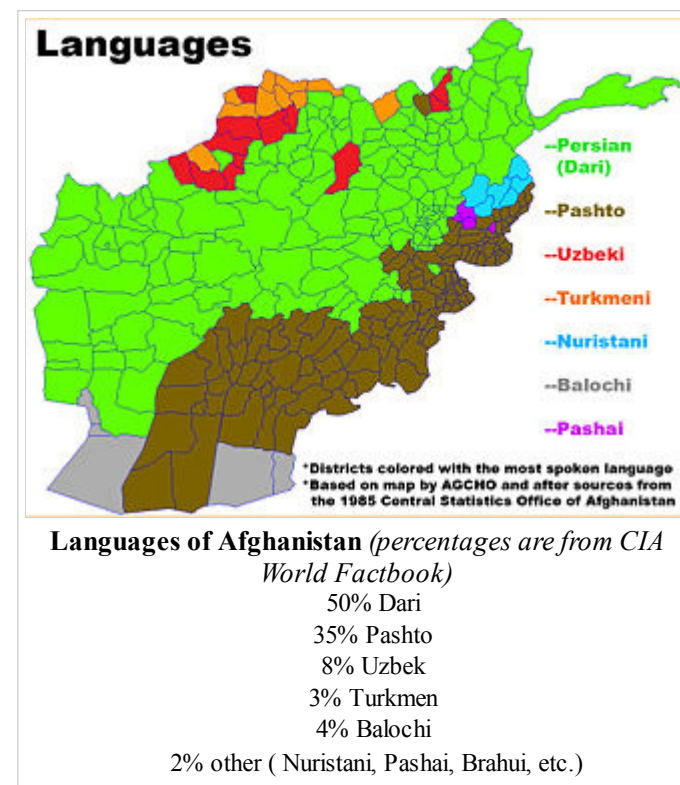
39.4% to 42% Pashtun  
 27% to 33.7% Tajik  
 8.0% to 9% Hazara  
 8.0% to 9% Uzbek  
 3.2% to 4% Aimak  
 3% Turkmen  
 1.6% to 4% Baloch  
 4% to 9.2% other ( Pashai, Nuristani, Brahui, Hindkowans, Hindustani, etc.)





The CIA World Factbook on languages spoken in Afghanistan is shown in the right image box. Persian ( Dari dialects) 50% and Pashto 35%; both are Indo-European languages from the Iranian languages sub-family. Pashto and Persian are the official languages of the country. Hazaragi, spoken by the Hazara minority, is another dialect of Persian. Other languages spoken include Turkic languages (primarily Uzbek and Turkmen) 9%, as well as 30 minor languages 4% (primarily Balochi, Nuristani, Pashai, Brahui, Pamiri languages, Hindko, etc.). Bilingualism is common.

According to the Encyclopædia Iranica, the Persian language is the mother tongue of roughly one-third of Afghanistan's population, while it is also the most widely used language of the country, spoken by around 80% of the population. It further states that Pashto is spoken by around 50% of the population.



## Culture



Afghans display pride in their religion, country, ancestry, and above all, their independence. Like other highlanders, Afghans are regarded with mingled apprehension and condescension, for their high regard for personal honour, for their clan loyalty and for their readiness to carry and use arms to settle disputes. As clan warfare and internecine feuding has been one of their chief occupations since time immemorial, this individualistic trait has made it difficult for foreign invaders to hold the region.

Afghanistan has a complex history that has survived either in its current cultures or in the form of various languages and monuments. However, many of the country's historic monuments have been damaged in recent wars. The two famous statues of Buddha in the Bamyān Province were destroyed by the Taliban, who regarded them as idolatrous. Other famous sites include the cities of Kandahar, Herat, Ghazni and Balkh. The Minaret of Jam, in the Hari River valley, is a UNESCO World Heritage site. The cloak worn by Muhammad is stored inside the famous Khalka Sharifa in Kandahar City.

Buzkashi is a national sport in Afghanistan. It is similar to polo and played by horsemen in two teams, each trying to grab and hold of a goat carcass. Afghan hounds (a type of running dog) also originated in Afghanistan.

Although literacy levels are very low, classic Persian poetry plays a very important role in the Afghan culture. Poetry has always been one of the major educational pillars in Iran and Afghanistan, to the level that it has integrated itself into culture. Persian culture has, and continues to, exert a great influence over Afghan culture. Private poetry competition events known as “musha’era” are quite common even among ordinary people. Almost every home owns one or more poetry collections of some sort, even if they are not read often.

The eastern dialects of the Persian language are popularly known as "Dari". The name itself derives from "Pārsī-e Darbārī", meaning *Persian of the royal courts*. The ancient term *Darī* – one of the original names of the Persian language – was revived in the Afghan constitution of 1964, and was intended *to signify that Afghans consider their country the cradle of the language*. Hence, the name *Fārsī*, the language of Fārs, is strictly avoided. With this point in mind, we can consider the development of Dari or Persian literature in the political entity known as Afghanistan."

Many of the famous Persian poets of the tenth to fifteenth centuries stem from Khorasan where is now known as Afghanistan. They were mostly also scholars in many disciplines like languages, natural sciences, medicine, religion and astronomy.

- Mawlānā Rumi, who was born and educated in Balkh in the thirteenth century and moved to Konya in modern-day Turkey
- Rabi'a Balkhi (the first poetess in the History of Persian Poetry, tenth century, native of Balkh)
- Daqiqi Balkhi (tenth century, native of Balkh)
- Farrukhi Sistani (tenth century, the Ghaznavids royal poet)
- Unsuri Balkhi (a tenth/eleventh century poet, native of Balkh)
- Khwaja Abdullah Ansari (eleventh century, from Herat)
- Nasir Khusraw (eleventh century, from Qubadyan near Balkh)
- Anvari (twelfth century, lived and died in Balkh)



Girls in Kabul, wearing their traditional clothes, sing at a celebration of International Women's Day in 2002.



- Sanāī Ghaznawi (twelfth century, native of Ghazni)
- Jāmī of Herāt (fifteenth century, native of Herat in western Afghanistan), and his nephew Abdullah Hatifi Herawi, a well-known poet
- Alī Sher Navāī (fifteenth century, Herat).

Most of these individuals were of Persian ( Tājīk) ethnicity who still form the second-largest ethnic group in Afghanistan. Also, some of the contemporary Persian language poets and writers, who are relatively well-known in Persian-speaking world, include Ustad Betab, Qari Abdullah, Khalilullah Khalili, Sufi Ghulam Nabi Ashqari, Sarwar Joya, Qahar Asey, Parwin Pazwak and others. In 2003, Khaled Hosseini published *The Kite Runner* which though fiction, captured much of the history, politics and culture experienced in Afghanistan from the 1930s to present day.

In addition to poets and authors, numerous Persian scientists were born or worked in the region of present-day Afghanistan. Most notable was Avicenna (Abu Alī Hussein ibn Sīnā) whose father hailed from Balkh. Ibn Sīnā, who travelled to Isfahan later in life to establish a medical school there, is known by some scholars as "the father of modern medicine". George Sarton called ibn Sīnā "the most famous scientist of Islam and one of the most famous of all races, places, and times." His most famous works are *The Book of Healing* and *The Canon of Medicine*, also known as the Qanun. Ibn Sīnā's story even found way to the contemporary English literature through Noah Gordon's *The Physician*, now published in many languages. Moreover, according to Ibn al-Nadim, Al-Farabi, a well-known philosopher and scientist, was from the Faryab Province of Afghanistan, .

Before the Taliban gained power, the city of Kabul was home to many musicians who were masters of both traditional and modern Afghan music, especially during the Nauroz-celebration. Kabul in the middle part of the twentieth century has been likened to Vienna during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

The tribal system, which orders the life of most people outside metropolitan areas, is potent in political terms. Men feel a fierce loyalty to their own tribe, such that, if called upon, they would assemble in arms under the tribal chiefs and local clan leaders (Khans). In theory, under Islamic law, every believer has an obligation to bear arms at the ruler's call ( Ulul-Amr).

Heathcote considers the tribal system to be the best way of organizing large groups of people in a country that is geographically difficult, and in a society that, from a materialistic point of view, has an uncomplicated lifestyle.

## Religions



Religiously, Afghans are over 99% Muslims: approximately 74-80% Sunni and 19-25% Shi'a (estimates vary). Up until the mid-1980s, there were about 30,000 to 150,000 Hindus and Sikhs living in different cities, mostly in Jalalabad, Kabul, and Kandahar.

There was a small Jewish community in Afghanistan (*see Bukharan Jews*) who fled the country after the 1979 Soviet invasion, and only one individual, Zablun Simintov, remains today.

## Economy

Afghanistan is a member of the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC), Economic Cooperation Organization (ECO) and the Organization of the Islamic Conference (OIC). It is an impoverished country, one of the world's poorest and least developed. Two-thirds of the population lives on fewer than 2 US dollars a day. Its economy has suffered greatly from the 1979 Soviet invasion and subsequent conflicts, while severe drought added to the nation's difficulties in 1998–2001.

The economically active population in 2002 was about 11 million (out of a total of an estimated 29 million). As of 2005, the official unemployment rate is at 40%. The number of non-skilled young people is estimated at 3 million, which is likely to increase by some 300,000 per annum.

The nation's economy began to improve since 2002 due to the infusion of multi-billion US dollars in international assistance and investments, as well as remittances from expats. It is also due to dramatic improvements in agricultural production and the end of a four-year drought in most of the country.

The real value of *non-drug* GDP increased by 29% in 2002, 16% in 2003, 8% in 2004 and 14% in 2005. As much as one-third of Afghanistan's GDP comes from growing poppy and illicit drugs including opium and its two derivatives, morphine and heroin, as well as hashish production. Opium production in Afghanistan has soared to a new record in 2007, with an increase on last year of more than a third, the United Nations has said. Some 3.3 million Afghans are now involved in producing opium. In a recent article in the Washington Quarterly, Peter van Ham and Jorrit Kamminga argue that the international community should establish a pilot project and investigate a licensing scheme to start the production of medicines such as morphine and codeine from poppy crops to help it escape the economic dependence on opium:

According to a 2004 report by the Asian Development Bank, the present reconstruction effort is two-pronged: first it focuses on rebuilding critical physical infrastructure, and second, on building modern public sector institutions from the remnants of Soviet style planning to ones that promote market-led development. In 2006, two US companies, Black & Veatch and the Louis Berger Group, have won a US 1.4 billion dollar contract to rebuild roads, power lines and water supply systems of Afghanistan.

One of the main drivers for the current economic recovery is the return of over 4 million refugees from neighbouring countries and the West, who brought with them fresh energy, entrepreneurship and wealth-creating skills as well as much needed funds to start up businesses. What is also helping is the estimated US 2–3



Blue Mosque in Mazari Sharif.



A business centre in Kabul.



billion dollars in international assistance every year, the partial recovery of the agricultural sector, and the reestablishment of market institutions. Private developments are also beginning to get underway. In 2006, a Dubai-based Afghan family opened a \$25 million Coca Cola bottling plant in Afghanistan.

While the country's current account deficit is largely financed with the donor money, only a small portion – about 15% – is provided directly to the government budget. The rest is provided to non-budgetary expenditure and donor-designated projects through the United Nations system and non-governmental organizations. The government had a central budget of only \$350 million in 2003 and an estimated \$550 million in 2004. The country's foreign exchange reserves totals about \$500 million. Revenue is mostly generated through customs, as income and corporate tax bases are negligible.

Inflation had been a major problem until 2002. However, the depreciation of the Afghani in 2002 after the introduction of the new notes (which replaced 1,000 old Afghani by 1 new Afghani) coupled with the relative stability compared to previous periods has helped prices to stabilize and even decrease between December 2002 and February 2003, reflecting the turnaround appreciation of the new Afghani currency. Since then, the index has indicated stability, with a moderate increase toward late 2003.

The Afghan government and international donors seem to remain committed to improving access to basic necessities, infrastructure development, education, housing and economic reform. The central government is also focusing on improved revenue collection and public sector expenditure discipline. The rebuilding of the financial sector seems to have been so far successful. Money can now be transferred in and out of the country via official banking channels. Since 2003, over sixteen new banks have opened in the country, including Afghanistan International Bank, Kabul Bank, Azizi Bank, Standard Chartered Bank, First Micro Finance Bank, and others. A new law on private investment provides three to seven-year tax holidays to eligible companies and a four-year exemption from exports tariffs and duties.

Some private investment projects, backed with national support, are also beginning to pick up steam in Afghanistan. An initial concept design called the City of Light Development, envisioned by Dr. Hisham N. Ashkouri, Principal of ARCADD, Inc. for the development and the implementation of a privately based investment enterprise has been proposed for multi-function commercial, historic and cultural development within the limits of the Old City of Kabul along the Southern side of the Kabul River and along Jade Meywand Avenue, revitalizing some of the most commercial and historic districts in the City of Kabul, which contains numerous historic mosques and shrines as well as viable commercial activities among war damaged buildings. Also incorporated in the design is a new complex for the Afghan National Museum.

According to the US Geological Survey and the Afghan Ministry of Mines and Industry, Afghanistan may be possessing up to 36 trillion cubic feet of natural gas, 3.6 billion barrels of petroleum and up to 1,325 million barrels of natural gas liquids. This could mark the turning point in Afghanistan's reconstruction efforts. Energy exports could generate the revenue that Afghan officials need to modernize the country's infrastructure and expand economic opportunities for the beleaguered and fractious population. Other reports show that the country has huge amounts of gold, copper, coal, iron ore and other minerals. The government of Afghanistan is in the process of extracting and exporting its copper reserves, which will be earning \$1.2 billion US dollars in royalties and taxes every year for the next 30 years. It will also provide permanent labor to 3,000 of its citizens.



The plan for Kabul's nine billion dollar future modern urban development project, the City of Light Development.



## Infrastructure

### Transport

Ariana Afghan Airlines is the national airlines carrier, with domestic flights between Kabul, Kandahar, Herat and Mazar-e Sharif. International flights include to Dubai, Frankfurt, Istanbul and a number of other destinations. There are also limited domestic and international flight services available from Kam Air, Pamir Airways and Safi Airlines.

The country has limited rail service with Turkmenistan. There are two railway projects currently in progress, one is between Herat and the Iranian city Mashad while another is between Kandahar and Quetta in Pakistan. Most people who travel from one city to another use bus services. Automobiles have recently become more widely available, with Land Rover, BMW, Toyota, Nissan and Hyundai dealerships in Kabul. Large number of second-hand vehicles are also arriving from the UAE. Nearly all highways and roads are being rebuilt in the country.

### Communications and technology

Telecommunication services in the country are provided by Afghan Wireless, Etisalat, Roshan, Areeba and Afghan Telecom. In 2006, the Afghan Ministry of Communications signed a US\$64.5 million agreement with ZTE Corporation for the establishment of a countrywide fibre optic cable network. This will improve telephone, internet, television and radio broadcast services throughout the country.

Television and radio broadcastings are available in most parts of the country, with local and international channels or stations.

The nation's post service is also operating. Package delivery services such as FedEx, DHL and others are also available.

### Education



Construction of the *Afghanistan-Tajikistan Bridge* which was completed in August 2007 and is now the largest bridge in Central Asia.



As of 2006 more than four million male and female students are enrolled in schools throughout the country. Primary education is totally free and available for all boys and girls.

Literacy of the entire population is estimated (as of 1999) at 36%, the male literacy rate is 51% and female literacy is 21%. Up to now there are 9,500 schools in the country.

Another aspect of education that is rapidly changing in Afghanistan is the face of higher education. Following the fall of the Taliban, Kabul University was reopened to both male and female students. In 2006, the American University of Afghanistan also opened its doors, with the aim of providing a world-class, English-language, co-educational learning environment in Afghanistan. The university accepts students from Afghanistan and the neighboring countries. Construction work will soon start at the new site selected for University of Balkh in Mazari Sharif. The new building for the university, including the building for the Engineering Department, would be constructed at 600 acres (2.4 km<sup>2</sup>) of land at the cost of 250 million US dollars.



Female students at Kabul University.

Retrieved from "<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Afghanistan>"

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# Berlin Wall

## 2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: Recent History

The **Berlin Wall** (German: *Berliner Mauer*) was a barrier separating West Berlin from East Berlin and the rest of East Germany. The longer '**inner German border**' demarcated the remainder of the East-West German border between the two states. Both borders were part of the Iron Curtain.

The wall separated East Berlin and West Berlin for 28 years, from the day construction began on August 13, 1961 until it was dismantled in 1989, and was considered to be a longtime symbol of the Iron Curtain. During this period, at least 133 people were confirmed killed trying to cross the Wall into West Berlin, according to official figures. However, a prominent victims' group claims that more than 200 people had been killed trying to flee from East to West Berlin. The GDR/East German government gave shooting orders to border guards dealing with defectors; such orders are not the same as shoot to kill orders which GDR officials have denied exist.

When the East German government announced on November 9, 1989, after several weeks of civil unrest, that visits in West Germany and West Berlin would be permitted, crowds of East Germans climbed onto and crossed the wall, joined by West Germans on the other side in a celebratory atmosphere. Over the next few weeks, parts of the wall were chipped away by a euphoric public and by souvenir hunters; industrial equipment was later used to remove almost all of the rest of it.

The fall of the Berlin Wall paved the way for German reunification, which was formally concluded on October 3, 1990.

## Background



View in 1986 from the west side of graffiti art on the wall's infamous "death strip"





After the end of World War II in Europe, what territorially remained of Nazi Germany was divided into four occupation zones (per the Potsdam Agreement), each one controlled by one of the four occupying Allied powers: the Americans, British, French and Soviets. The old capital of Berlin, as the seat of the Allied Control Council, was similarly subdivided into four sectors despite the city lying deep inside the zone of the Soviet Union. Although the intent was for the occupying powers to govern Germany together inside the 1947 borders, the advent of Cold War tension caused the French, British and American zones to be formed into the Federal Republic of Germany (and West Berlin) in 1949, excluding the Soviet zone, which then formed the German Democratic Republic (including East Berlin).

## Divergence of German states

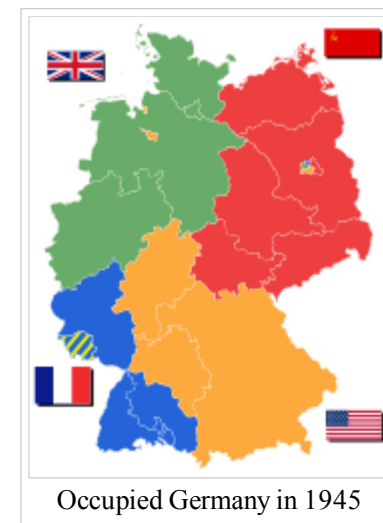
West Germany developed into a western capitalist country with a social market economy (*Soziale Marktwirtschaft* in German) and a democratic parliamentary government. Continual economic growth starting in the 1950s fuelled a 30-year "economic miracle" (*Wirtschaftswunder*). Across the inner-German border, East Germany established an authoritarian government with a Soviet-style planned economy. While West Germany became rich, many East Germans wanted to move to West Germany. The East Germans constructed the Berlin Wall to stop East Germans from fleeing. However, East German soldiers allowed West Berliners to cross into East Germany.

## Barrier between East and West Germany

On 1 April 1952, East German leaders met the Soviet leader Stalin in Moscow; during the discussions Stalin's foreign minister Vyacheslav Molotov proposed that the East Germans should "introduce a system of passes for visits of West Berlin residents to the territory of East Berlin [so as to stop] free movement of Western agents" in the GDR. Stalin agreed, calling the situation "intolerable". He advised the East Germans to build up their border defenses, telling them that "The demarcation line between East and West Germany should be considered a border – and not just any border, but a dangerous one ... The Germans will guard the line of defense with their lives."

Consequently, the border between East and West Germany was closed, and a barbed-wire fence erected. The border between East and West Berlin, however, remained open, although traffic between the Eastern and the Western sectors was somewhat restricted.

## Construction begins, 1961





On June 15, 1961, two months before the construction of the Berlin Wall started, First Secretary of the Socialist Unity Party and Staatsrat chairman Walter Ulbricht stated in an international press conference, *Niemand hat die Absicht, eine Mauer zu errichten!* ("No one has the intention to erect a wall"). It was the first time the colloquial term *Mauer* (wall) had been used in this context.

On Saturday August 12, 1961, the leaders of East Germany attended a garden party at a government guesthouse in Döllnsee, in a wooded area to the north of East Berlin, and Walter Ulbricht signed the order to close the border and erect a Wall.

At midnight the army, police, and units of the East German army began to close the border and by morning on Sunday August 13, 1961 the border to West Berlin had been shut. East German troops and workers had begun to tear up streets running alongside the barrier to make them impassable to most vehicles, and to install barbed wire entanglements and fences along the 156 km (97 miles) around the three western sectors and the 43 km (27 miles) which actually divided West and East Berlin. The Soviets were not directly involved.

The barrier was built slightly inside East German territory to ensure that it did not encroach on West Berlin at any point, and was later built up into the Wall proper, the first concrete elements and large blocks being put in place on August 15. During the construction of the Wall, NVA and KdA soldiers stood in front of it with orders to shoot anyone who attempted to defect. Additionally, the whole length of the border between East and West Germany was closed with chain fences, walls, minefields, and other installations.

## Secondary response

It was clear both that West German morale needed lifting and that there was a serious potential threat to the viability of West Berlin. If West Berlin fell after all the efforts of the Berlin Airlift, how could any of America's other allies rely on it? On the other hand, in the face of any serious Soviet threat, an enclave like West Berlin could not be defended except with nuclear weapons. As such, it was vitally important for the Americans to show the Soviets a display of strength and also placate West German and French pressure for a more serious response.

Accordingly, General Lucius D. Clay, an anti-communist who was known to have a firm attitude towards the Soviets, was sent to Berlin with ambassadorial rank as Kennedy's special advisor. He and Vice President Lyndon B. Johnson arrived at Tempelhof Airport on the afternoon of Saturday August 19.

They arrived in a city defended by what would soon be known as the "Berlin Brigade", which then consisted of the 2nd and 3rd Battle Groups of the 6th Infantry, with Company F, 40th Armor. The battle groups were "pentatomic" (A flatter command structure with five battle groups instead of the old three regiments with three battalions and were also equipped with tactical nuclear weapons), with 1,362 officers and men each. On August 16, Kennedy had given the order for them to be reinforced. Early on August 19, the 1st Battle Group, 18th Infantry (commanded by Col. Glover S. Johns Jr.) was alerted.

On Sunday morning, lead elements arranged in a column of 491 vehicles and trailers carrying 1,500 men divided into five march units and left the Helmstedt-Marienborn checkpoint at 06:34. At Marienborn, the Soviet checkpoint next to Helmstedt on the West German/East German border, U.S. personnel were counted by guards. The column was 160 km (~100 miles) long, and covered 177 km (~110 miles) from Marienborn to Berlin in full battle gear, with VoPos (East



East German construction workers building the Berlin Wall, November 20, 1961.



German police) watching from beside trees next to the autobahn all the way along. The front of the convoy arrived at the outskirts of Berlin just before noon, to be met by Clay and Johnson, before parading through the streets of Berlin to an adoring crowd. At 04:00 on August 21, Lyndon Johnson left a visibly reassured West Berlin in the hands of Gen. Frederick O. Hartel and his brigade of 4,224 officers and men. Every three months for the next three and a half years, a new American battalion was rotated into West Berlin by autobahn to demonstrate Allied rights.

The creation of the Wall had important implications for both German states. By stemming the exodus of people from East Germany, the East German government was able to reassert its control over the country: in spite of discontent with the wall, economic problems caused by dual currency and the black market were largely eliminated, and the economy in the east grew. However, the Wall proved a propaganda disaster for the communist bloc as a whole. Western powers used it as a symbol of communist tyranny, particularly after the shootings of would-be defectors (which were later treated as acts of murder by the reunified Germany). In 1987, Ronald Reagan gave a famous speech at the Brandenburg Gate, at which he challenged Mikhail Gorbachev to "tear down this wall". In West Germany, dismay that the Western powers had done nothing to prevent the Wall's creation led directly to the policy of Ostpolitik or rapprochement with the east, in an effort to stabilize the relationship of the two German states.

## Layout and modifications



The Wall was over 155 kilometers (96 mi) long. In June 1962, work started on a second parallel fence up to 91 meters (100 yd) further into East German territory, with houses in between the fences torn down and their inhabitants relocated. A no man's land was created between the two barriers, which became widely known as the "death strip". It was paved with raked gravel, making it easy to spot footprints; it offered no cover; it was booby-trapped with tripwires; and, most importantly, it offered a clear field of fire to the watching guards. Over the years, the Wall went through four distinct phases:

1. Basic wire fence (1961)
2. Improved wire fence (1962–1965)
3. Concrete wall (1965–1975)
4. *Grenzmauer 75* (Border Wall 75) (1975–1989)

The "fourth-generation wall", known officially as "Stützwandelement UL 12.11" (retaining wall element UL 12.11), was the final and most sophisticated version of the Wall. Begun in 1975 and completed about 1980, it was constructed from 45,000 separate sections of reinforced concrete, each 3.6 meters (12 ft) high and 1.2 meters (4 ft) wide, and cost 16,155,000 East German Marks or about 3,638,000 United States Dollars. The top of the wall was lined with a smooth pipe, intended to make it more difficult to scale. It was reinforced by mesh fencing, signal fencing, anti-vehicle trenches, barbed wire, dogs on long lines, " fakir beds" under balconies hanging over the "death strip", over 116 watchtowers, and 20 bunkers. This version of the Wall is the one most commonly seen in photographs, and surviving fragments of the Wall in Berlin and elsewhere around the world are generally pieces of the fourth-generation Wall. The layout came to resemble the Inner German border in most technical aspects, except the Berlin Wall had no landmines and no Spring-guns.

## Official crossings and usage

There were eight border crossings between East and West Berlin, allowing visits by West Berliners, West Germans, western foreigners and Allied personnel into East Berlin, as well as visits of East German citizens into West Berlin, provided they held the necessary permit. Those crossings were restricted according to which nationality was allowed to use it (East Germans, West Germans, West Berliners, other countries). The most famous was Friedrichstraße ( Checkpoint Charlie), which was restricted to Allied personnel and non-German citizens.

Several other border crossings existed between West Berlin and surrounding East Germany. These could be used for transit between West Germany and West Berlin, for visits by West Berliners into East Germany, for transit into countries neighbouring East Germany (Poland, Czechoslovakia, Denmark), and for visits by East Germans into West Berlin carrying a permit. After the 1972 agreements, new crossings were opened to allow West Berlin waste to be transported into East German dumps, as well as some crossings for access to West Berlin's exclaves (see *Steinstücken*).



Position and course of the Berlin Wall and its border control checkpoints (1989)



Satellite image of Berlin, with the wall's location marked in yellow.



Four motorways usable by West Germans connected West Berlin to West Germany, the most famous being Berlin-Helmstedt autobahn, which entered East German territory at the town of Helmstedt (Checkpoint Alpha) and connected to Berlin at Dreilinden (Checkpoint Bravo) in south-western Berlin. Access to West Berlin was also possible by railway (four routes) and by boat using canals and rivers.

Westerners could cross the border at Friedrichstraße station in East Berlin and at Checkpoint Charlie. When the Wall was erected, Berlin's complex public transit networks, the S-Bahn and U-Bahn, were divided with it. Some lines were cut in half; many stations were shut down. Three Western lines traveled through brief sections of East Berlin territory, passing through eastern stations (called *Geisterbahnhöfe*, or ghost stations) without stopping. Both the eastern and western networks converged at Friedrichstraße, which became a major crossing point for those (mostly Westerners) with permission to cross.



The famous *you are leaving* sign

## Who could cross

**West Germans** and citizens of other **Western countries** could in general visit East Germany. Usually this involved application of a visa at an East German embassy several weeks in advance. Visas for day trips restricted to East Berlin were issued without previous application in a simplified procedure at the border crossing. However East German authorities could refuse entry permit without stating a reason.

**West Berliners** could at first not visit East Berlin or East Germany at all. All crossing points were closed to them between August 26, 1961 and December 17, 1963. In 1963 negotiations between East and West resulted a limited possibility for visits at Christmas that year ("Passierscheinregelung"). Similar very limited arrangements were made in 1964, 1965 and 1966.

In 1971 with the Four Power Agreement on Berlin, agreements were reached that allowed West Berliners to apply for visas for East Berlin and East Germany regularly, comparable to the regulations already in force for West Germans. East German authorities could still refuse entry permits.

**East Berliners** and **East Germans** could at first not travel to West Berlin or West Germany at all. This regulation remained in force basically until the fall of the wall, but over the years several exceptions to these rules were introduced. The most significant being:

- Old age pensioners could travel to the west starting in 1964
- Visits of relatives for important family matters
- People who had to travel to the west for professional reasons (e.g. artists, lorry drivers etc.)

However each visit had to be applied for individually and the permission was never guaranteed.

Citizens of other **East European countries** were in general subject to the same prohibition to visit western countries as East Germans, even though there was variation in the applicable exception (if any) from country to country.

**Allied military personnel**, officials, and **diplomats** were able to pass into East Berlin without passport check; likewise **Soviet patrols** could pass into West



Berlin. This was a requirement of the post-war Four Powers Agreements.

## Escape attempts

During the Wall's existence there were around 5,000 successful escapes into West Berlin. The number of people who died trying to cross the wall or as a result of the wall's existence has been controversial. The most vocal claims by Alexandra Hildebrandt, Director of the Checkpoint Charlie Museum and widow of the Museum's founder estimated the death toll to be well above 200 people while an ongoing historic research group at the Centre for Contemporary Historical Research ( ZZF) in Potsdam has confirmed 133 deaths. Guards were told by East German authorities that people attempting to cross the wall were criminals and needed to be shot: "Do not hesitate to use your firearm, not even when the border is breached in the company of women and children, which is a tactic the traitors have often used," they said.

Early successful escapes involved people jumping the initial barbed wire or leaping out of apartment windows along the line but these ended as the wall was fortified. In order to solve these simple escape attempts, East German authorities no longer permitted Apartments near the wall to be occupied and any building near the wall had to have their windows boarded up. On August 15, 1961, Conrad Schumann was the first East German border guard to escape by jumping the barbed wire to West Berlin. Later successful escape attempts included long tunnels, waiting for favorable winds and taking a hot air balloon, sliding along aerial wires, flying ultralights, and in one instance, simply driving a sports car at full speed through the basic, initial fortifications. When a metal beam was placed at checkpoints to prevent this kind of escape, up to four people (two in the front seats and possibly two in the boot) drove under the bar in a sports car that had been modified to allow the roof and wind screen to come away when it made contact with the beam. They simply lay flat and kept driving forward. This issue was rectified with zig-zagging roads at checkpoints.

Another airborne escape was by Thomas Krüger, who landed a Zlin Z-42M light aircraft of the Gesellschaft für Sport und Technik, an East German youth military training organization, at RAF Gatow. His aircraft, registration DDR-WOH, was dismantled and returned to the East Germans by road, complete with humorous slogans painted on by RAF Airmen such as "Wish you were here" and "Come back soon". DDR-WOH is still flying today, but under the registration D-EWOH.

If an escapee was wounded in a crossing attempt and lay on the death strip, no matter how close they were to the Western wall, they could not be rescued for fear of triggering engaging fire from the 'Grepos', the East Berlin border guards. The guards often let fugitives bleed to death in the middle of this ground, like in the most notorious failed attempt, that of Peter Fechter (aged 18). He was shot and bled to death in full view of the western media, on August 17, 1962. The last person to be killed while trying to cross the border was Chris Gueffroy on February 6, 1989.

## The Fall, 1989



Peter Fechter lies dying after being shot by East German border guards. This photo achieved international notoriety, 1962.



On August 23, 1989, communist Hungary removed its border restrictions with Austria, and in September more than 13,000 East German tourists in Hungary escaped to Austria. Mass demonstrations against the government in East Germany began in October 1989. The long-time leader of East Germany, Erich Honecker, resigned on October 18, 1989, and was replaced by Egon Krenz a few days later. Honecker had predicted in January of that year that the wall would stand for a "hundred more years" if the conditions which had caused its construction did not change.

Protest demonstrations broke out all over East Germany in September 1989. Initially, they were of people wanting to leave to the West, chanting "Wir wollen raus!" ("We want out!"). Then protestors began to chant "Wir bleiben hier", ("We're staying here!"). This was the start of what East Germans generally call the "Peaceful Revolution" of late 1989. The protestors wanted to create "socialism with a human face," and by November 4, 1989, the protests had swelled significantly, with a million people gathered that day in Alexanderplatz in East Berlin.

Meanwhile the wave of refugees leaving East Germany for the West had increased and had found its way through Czechoslovakia, tolerated by the new Krenz government and in agreement with the communist Czechoslovak government. In order to ease the complications, the politburo led by Krenz decided on November 9, 1989, to allow refugees to exit directly through crossing points between East Germany and West Germany, including West Berlin. On the same day, the ministerial administration modified the proposal to include private travel. The new regulations were to take effect on November 10. Günter Schabowski, the East German Minister of Propaganda, had the task of announcing this; however he had been on vacation prior to this decision and had not been fully updated. Shortly before a press conference on November 9, 1989, he was handed a note that said that East Berliners would be allowed to cross the border with proper permission but given no further instructions on how to handle the information. These regulations had only been completed a few hours earlier and were to take effect the following day, so as to allow time to inform the border guards. However, nobody had informed Schabowski. He read the note out loud at the end of the conference and when asked when the regulations would come into effect, he assumed it would be the same day based on the wording of the note and replied "As far as I know effective immediately, without delay". After further questions from journalists he confirmed that the regulations included the border crossings towards West Berlin, which he had not mentioned until then.

Tens of thousands of East Berliners heard Schabowski's statement live on East German television and flooded the checkpoints in the Wall demanding entry into West Berlin. The surprised and overwhelmed border guards made many hectic telephone calls to their superiors, but it became clear that there was no one among the East German authorities who would dare to take personal responsibility for issuing orders to use lethal force, so there was no way for the vastly outnumbered soldiers to hold back the huge crowd of East German citizens. In face of the growing crowd, the guards finally yielded, opening the checkpoints and allowing people through with little or no identity checking. Ecstatic East Berliners were soon greeted by West Berliners on the other side in a celebratory atmosphere. November 9 is thus considered the date the Wall fell. In the days and weeks that followed, people came to the wall with sledgehammers in order to chip off souvenirs, demolishing lengthy parts of it in the process. These people were nicknamed "Mauerspechte" (wall woodpeckers).



United States President Ronald Reagan delivers his famed speech at the Berlin Wall in June 1987, in which he called for Soviet General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev to "tear down this wall!"



Germans begin standing on top of the wall, 1989; it would begin being physically torn apart in the upcoming days.



A crane removing a section of the Berlin Wall near Brandenburg Gate on December 21, 1989

The East German regime announced the opening of ten new border crossings the following weekend, including some in symbolic locations ( Potsdamer Platz, Glienicker Brücke, Bernauer Straße). Crowds on both sides waited there for hours, cheering at the bulldozers who took parts of the Wall away to reinstate old roads. Photos and television footage of these events is sometimes mislabelled "dismantling of the Wall", even though it was merely the construction of new crossings. New border crossings continued to be opened through summer 1990, including the Brandenburg Gate on December 22, 1989.

West Germans and West Berliners were allowed visa-free travel starting December 23, 1989. Until then they could only visit East Germany and East Berlin under restrictive conditions that involved application for a visa several days or weeks in advance, and obligatory exchange of at least 25 DM per day of their planned stay, all of which hindered spontaneous visits. Thus, in the weeks between November 9 and December 23, East Germans could travel "more freely" than Westerners.

Technically the Wall remained guarded for some time after November 9, though at a decreasing intensity. In the first months, the East German military even tried to repair some of the damages done by the "wall peckers". Gradually these attempts ceased, and guards became more lax, tolerating the increasing demolitions and "unauthorised" border crossing through the holes. On June 13, 1990, the official dismantling of the Wall by the East German military began in Bernauer Straße. On July 1, the day East Germany adopted the West German currency, all border controls ceased, although the inter-German border had become meaningless for some time before that. The dismantling continued to be carried out by military units (after unification under the Bundeswehr) and lasted until November 1991. Only a few short sections and watchtowers were left standing as memorials.

The fall of the Wall was the first step toward German reunification, which was formally concluded on October 3, 1990.

## Celebrations

On December 25, 1989, Leonard Bernstein gave a concert in Berlin celebrating the end of the Wall, including Beethoven's 9th symphony ( *Ode to Joy*) with the word "Joy" (*Freude*) changed to "Freedom" (*Freiheit*) in the text sung. The orchestra and chorus were drawn from both East and West Germany, as well as the United Kingdom, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States.

Roger Waters performed the Pink Floyd album *The Wall* in Potsdamer Platz on 21 July 1990, with guests including Scorpions, Bryan Adams, Sinéad O'Connor, Thomas Dolby, Joni Mitchell, Marianne Faithfull and Van Morrison. David Hasselhoff performed his song "Looking for Freedom", which was very popular in Germany at that time, standing on the Berlin wall.

Some believe November 9 would have made a suitable German National Holiday, since it both marks the emotional apogee of East Germany's peaceful revolution and is also the date of the declaration of the first German republic, the Weimar Republic, in 1918. However, November 9 is also the anniversary of the 1923 Beer Hall Putsch and the infamous *Kristallnacht* pogroms of 1938 and, therefore, October 3 was chosen instead. Part of this decision was that the East German government wanted to conclude reunification before East Germany could celebrate a 41st anniversary on October 7, 1990.

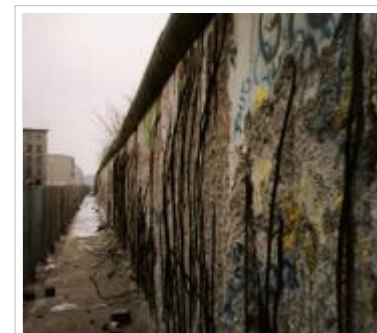


Former United States President Ronald Reagan is presented the famous but now obsolete 'you are leaving sign' at Tempelhof Airport on September 14, 1990.





# Legacy



Almost all of the remaining sections of Berlin Wall were rapidly chipped away. Photo December 1990.



A section of the Berlin Wall used as the centre of "Liberty Plaza" on the campus of Chapman University in the United States.



Remaining stretch of the Wall  
near Ostbahnhof in  
Friedrichshain, August 2006



Remains of the Wall near  
Potsdamer Platz, August 2007



Little is left of the Wall at its original site, which was destroyed almost everywhere. Three long sections are still standing: an 80-meter (263 ft) piece of the "first (westernmost) wall" at the site of the former Gestapo headquarter half way between Checkpoint Charlie and Potsdamer Platz; a longer section of the "second (easternmost) wall" along the Spree River near the Oberbaumbrücke nicknamed East Side Gallery; and a third section with hints of the full installation, but partly reconstructed, in the north at Bernauer Straße, which was turned into a memorial in 1999. Some other isolated fragments and a few watchtowers also remain in various parts of the city. None still accurately represent the Wall's original appearance. They are badly damaged by souvenir seekers, and fragments of the Wall both with and without certificates of authenticity are a staple on the online auction service eBay as well as German souvenir shops. Moreover, the eastern side is covered in graffiti that did not exist while the Wall was guarded by the armed soldiers of East Germany. Previously, graffiti appeared only on the western side. Along the tourist areas of the city centre, the city government has marked the location of the former wall by a row of cobblestones in the street. In most places only the "first" wall is marked, except near Potsdamer Platz where the stretch of both walls is marked, giving visitors an impression of the dimension of the barrier system. Pieces of the wall were taken and sold around the world.

## Museum

Fifteen years after the fall, a private museum rebuilt a 200-metre (656 ft) section close to Checkpoint Charlie, although not in the location of the original wall. They also raised more than 1,000 crosses in memory of those who died attempting to flee to the West. The memorial was installed in October 2004 and demolished in July 2005.

## Cultural differences

Even now, some years after reunification, there is still talk in Germany of cultural differences between East and West Germans (colloquially *Ossis* and *Wessis*), sometimes described as "Mauer im Kopf" ("The wall in the head"). A September 2004 poll found that 25% of West Germans and 12% of East Germans wished that East Germany and West Germany were again cut off by the Berlin Wall.

Retrieved from "[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Berlin\\_Wall](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Berlin_Wall)"

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A memorial of over 1,000 crosses and a segment of the wall for those who died attempting to cross. The memorial stood for ten months in 2004 and 2005 before being demolished.



# Cold War

2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: General history; Recent History

The **Cold War** was the period of conflict, tension and competition between the United States and the Soviet Union and their respective allies from the mid-1940s until the early 1990s. Throughout this period, the rivalry between the two superpowers unfolded in multiple arenas: military coalitions; ideology, psychology, and espionage; sports; military, industrial, and technological developments, including the space race; costly defense spending; a massive conventional and nuclear arms race; and many proxy wars.

There was never a direct military engagement between the US and the Soviet Union, but there was half a century of military buildup as well as political battles for support around the world, including significant involvement of allied and satellite nations in proxy wars. Although the US and the Soviet Union had been allied against Nazi Germany, the two sides differed on how to reconstruct the postwar world even before the end of World War II. Over the following decades, the Cold War spread outside Europe to every region of the world, as the US sought the "containment" of communism and forged numerous alliances to this end, particularly in Western Europe, the Middle East, and Southeast Asia. There were repeated crises that threatened to escalate into world wars but never did, notably the Berlin Blockade (1948–49), the Korean War (1950–53), the Vietnam War (1959–1975), the Cuban Missile Crisis (1962), and the Soviet-Afghan War (1979–89). There were also periods when tension was reduced as both sides sought détente. Direct military attacks on adversaries were deterred by the potential for mutual assured destruction using deliverable nuclear weapons.

The Cold War drew to a close in the late 1980s following Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev's summit conferences with United States President Ronald Reagan, as well as Gorbachev's launching of reform programs: *perestroika* and *glasnost*.

## Origins of the term

In the specific sense of the Cold War referring to the post-World War II geopolitical tensions between the Soviet Union and the United States, the term has been attributed to American financier and U.S. presidential advisor Bernard Baruch. The *Cassell Companion to Quotations* cites a speech Baruch gave in South Carolina, April 16, 1947 in which he said, "Let us not be deceived: we are today in the midst of a cold war." The Cassell Companion notes that the phrase was actually suggested to Baruch by his speechwriter, Herbert Bayard Swope, who had been using it privately since 1940. Columnist Walter Lippmann also gave the term wide currency after his 1947 book titled *Cold War*.

## History



The USA and USSR were the two superpowers during the Cold War, each leading its own sphere of influence. Here Ronald Reagan and Mikhail Gorbachev meet in 1985.

### History of the Cold War

Origins

1947–1953

1953–1962

1962–1979

1979–1985

1985–1991

Timeline



## Pre-Cold War

There is some disagreement over what constitutes the beginning of the Cold War. While most historians say that it began in the period just after World War II, some say that it began towards the end of World War I, though tensions between Russian Empire/USSR and British Empire and the United States date back to the middle of the 19th century.

The ideological clash between communism and capitalism began in 1917 following the Russian Revolution, when the USSR emerged as the first major communist power. This was the first event which made Russian-American relations a matter of major, long-term concern to the leaders in each country.

Several events led to suspicion and distrust between the United States and the Soviet Union: US intervention in Russia supporting the White Army in the Russian Civil War, Russia's withdrawal from World War I in the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany, the Bolsheviks' challenge to capitalism, the US refusal to recognize the Soviet Union until 1933. Other events in the period immediately before WWII increased this suspicion and distrust. The British appeasement of Germany and the German-Soviet Non-aggression Pact are two notable examples.

## World War II and Post-War (1939–47)

During the war, the Soviets strongly suspected that the Anglo-Americans had opted to let the Russians bear the brunt of the war effort, to insert themselves only at the last minute so as to influence the peace settlement and dominate Europe. Historians such as John Lewis Gaddis dispute this claim, citing other military and strategic calculations for the timing of the Normandy invasion. Nevertheless, Soviet perceptions (or misconceptions) of the West and *vice versa* left a strong undercurrent of tension and hostility between the Allied powers.

There was severe disagreement between the Allies about how Europe should look following the war. Both sides, moreover, held very dissimilar ideas regarding the establishment and maintenance of post-war security. The Americans tended to understand security in situational terms, assuming that, if US-style governments and markets were established as widely as possible, countries could resolve their differences peacefully, through international organizations. Soviet leaders, however, tended to understand security in terms of space. This reasoning was conditioned by Russia's historical experiences, given the frequency with which the country had been invaded over the last 150 years.



Molotov signs the German-Soviet Non-aggression Pact. Behind him are Ribbentrop and Stalin.



The "Big Three" at the Yalta Conference, Winston Churchill, Franklin D. Roosevelt and Joseph Stalin.

At the Yalta Conference in February 1945, the Allies attempted to define the framework for a post-war settlement in Europe but could not reach a firm consensus. Following the Allied victory in May, the Soviets effectively occupied Eastern Europe, while the US had much of Western Europe. In occupied Germany, the US and the Soviet Union established zones of occupation and a loose framework for four-power control with the ailing French and British.

At the Potsdam Conference, starting in late July, serious differences emerged over the future development of Germany and Eastern Europe. At this conference Truman informed Stalin that the United States possessed a powerful new weapon. "Stalin's only reply was to say that he was glad to hear of the bomb and he hoped [the United States] would use it." One week after the end of the Potsdam Conference, the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki led to further conflict between the Soviet Union and the United States. Shortly after the attacks, Stalin protested to US officials when Truman offered the Soviets little real influence in occupied Japan.



Harry S. Truman and Joseph Stalin meeting at the Potsdam Conference on July 18, 1945.

In February 1946, George F. Kennan's "Long Telegram" from Moscow helped to articulate the growing hard line that was being taken against the Soviets.. On September 6, 1946, James F. Byrnes made a speech in Germany, repudiating the Morgenthau Plan and warning the Soviets that the US intended to maintain a military presence in Europe indefinitely. As Byrnes admitted one month later, "The nub of our program was to win the German people [...] it was a battle between us and Russia over minds [...]" A few weeks after the release of this "Long Telegram", former British Prime Minister Winston Churchill delivered his famous "Iron Curtain" speech in Fulton, Missouri. The speech called for an Anglo-American alliance against the Soviets, whom he accused of establishing an "iron curtain" from "Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic."

### From "Containment" through the Korean War (1947–53)

By 1947, Truman's advisors were worried that time was running out to counter the influence of the Soviet Union. In Europe, post-war economic recovery was faltering, and shortages of food and other essential consumer goods were common. Truman's advisors feared that the Soviet Union was seeking to weaken the position of the US in a period of post-war confusion and collapse.

The event which spurred Truman on to announce formally the US's adopting the policy of "containment" was the British government's announcement in February 1947 that it could no longer afford to finance the Greek monarchical military regime in its civil war against communist-led insurgents. Rather than view this war as a civil conflict revolving around domestic issues, US policymakers interpreted it as a Soviet effort; however, the insurgents were helped by Josip Broz Tito's Yugoslavia, not Moscow. Secretary of State Dean Acheson accused the Soviet Union of conspiracy against the Greek royalists in an effort to "expand" into the Middle East, Asia, and Africa, and in March 1947 the administration unveiled the "Truman Doctrine". As Truman declared during March 1947:

“ It must be the policy of the United States, to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or outside pressures...[W]e must assist free peoples to work out their own destinies in their own way. ”



Truman rallied Americans in his famous "Truman Doctrine" speech to spend \$400,000,000 on intervention in the civil war in Greece. In order to mobilize an unfriendly Republican Congress, the Democratic president painted the conflict as a contest between "free" peoples and "totalitarian" regimes, thus dramatically heightening the rhetorical stakes of the conflict. By aiding Greece, Truman set a precedent for US aid to regimes, no matter how repressive and corrupt, that requested help to fight communists.

Without the assistance of huge capital resources to rebuild industry transferred from the United States, Western European economies failed to recover from the enormous wartime destruction of the region's infrastructure. Communist parties, meanwhile, were winning large votes in free elections in countries such as France and Italy. American policymakers were worried that economic conditions in Western Europe might deteriorate to the point where communist parties could seize power there, too, through free elections or popular revolutions. Some US policymakers also feared that their own economy might suffer unless effective demand for their exports in Western Europe was restored.

For US policymakers, threats to Europe's balance of power were not necessarily military ones, but a political and economic challenge. George Kennan helped to summarise the problem at the State Department Planning Staff in May 1947: "Communist activities" were not "the root of the difficulties of Western Europe" but rather "the disruptive effects of the war on the economic, political, and social structure of Europe." According to this view, the Communists were "exploiting the European crisis" to gain power. In June, following the recommendations of the State Department Planning Staff, the Truman Doctrine was complemented by the Marshall Plan, a pledge of economic assistance aimed at rebuilding the Western political-economic system and countering perceived threats to Europe's balance of power, which the US had gone to war to restore, from the radical left.

After lobbying by the Joint Chiefs of Staff, and Generals Clay and Marshall, the Truman administration finally realised that economic recovery in Europe could not go forward without the reconstruction of the German industrial base on which it had previously been dependent.



President Truman signs the National Security Act Amendment of 1949 with guests in the Oval Office.





Map of Cold-War era Europe and the Near East showing countries that received Marshall Plan aid. The red columns show the relative amount of total aid per nation.

In July, Truman rescinded, on "national security grounds", the punitive Morgenthau plan JCS 1067, which had directed the US forces of occupation in Germany to "take no steps looking toward the economic rehabilitation of Germany." It was replaced by JCS 1779, which stressed instead that "[a]n orderly, prosperous Europe requires the economic contributions of a stable and productive Germany."

Also in July, Truman reorganised his government to fight the Cold War. The National Security Act of 1947, signed by Truman on July 26, created a unified Department of Defense, the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), and the National Security Council. These would become the main bureaucracies for US policy in the Cold War.

The twin policies of the Truman Doctrine and the Marshall Plan led to billions in economic and military aid to Western Europe, and Greece and Turkey. With US assistance, the Greek military won its civil war, and the Italian Christian Democrats defeated the powerful Communist- Socialist alliance in the elections of 1948.



The US consolidated its new role as leader of the West. In retaliation to Western moves to reunite West Germany, Stalin built blockades to block western access to West Berlin, but Truman maintained supply lines to the enclave by flying supplies in over the blockade from 1948 to '49.

The US formally allied itself to the Western European states in the North Atlantic Treaty of 1949, establishing the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). Stalin countered by tying together the economies of the Eastern bloc in a Soviet-led version of the Marshall Plan, the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (COMECON), and exploding the first Soviet atomic device in August 1949.

The US took the lead in re-establishing West Germany from the three Western zones of occupation in 1949. To counter this Western reorganisation of Germany, the Soviet Union proclaimed its zone of occupation in Germany the "German Democratic Republic" in 1949. In the early 1950s, the US worked for the rearmament of West Germany and, in 1955, its full membership to NATO.

In 1949 Mao's Red Army defeated the US-backed Kuomintang regime in China. Shortly afterwards, the Soviet Union created an alliance with the newly formed People's Republic of China. Confronted with the Chinese Revolution and the end of the US atomic monopoly in 1949, the Truman administration quickly moved to escalate and expand the containment policy. In a secret 1950 document, NSC-68, Truman administration officials proposed to reinforce pro-Western alliance systems and quadruple spending on defence.

US officials moved thereafter to expand "containment" into Asia, Africa, and Latin America. At the same time, revolutionary nationalist movements, often led by Communist parties, were fighting against the restoration of Europe's colonial empires in South-East Asia. The US formalized an alliance with Japan in the early 1950s, thereby guaranteeing the United States a number of long-term military bases. Truman also brought other states, including Australia, New Zealand, Thailand and the Philippines, into a series of alliances.

One of the most significant impacts of containment was the Korean War. The US and Soviet Union had been fighting proxy wars as just mentioned, on a small scale, and without US troops; but to Stalin's surprise, Truman committed US forces to drive back the North Koreans, who had invaded South Korea. Public opinion in countries such as Great Britain, usual allies of the US, was divided for and against the war. British Attorney General Sir Hartley Shawcross repudiated the sentiment of those opposed when he said "I know there are some who think that the horror and devastation of a world war now would be so frightful, whoever won, and the damage to civilization so lasting, that it would be better to submit to Communist domination. I understand that view - but I reject it." In 1953, the Korean War ended in stalemate, but the US gradually got itself entangled in another civil war. The US supported the South Vietnamese government against North Vietnam, which was backed by the Soviet Union and China.

## Crisis and escalation (1953–62)

In 1953 changes in political leadership on both sides shifted the dynamic of the Cold War. Dwight D. Eisenhower was inaugurated president in January 1953.

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European economic alliances.



European military alliances.



During the last 18 months of the Truman administration, the US defence budget had quadrupled; and Eisenhower resolved to reduce military spending by brandishing the United States' nuclear superiority while continuing to fight the Cold War effectively. In March Joseph Stalin died, and the Soviets, now led by Nikita Khrushchev, moved away from Stalin's policies.

Eisenhower's secretary of state, John Foster Dulles initiated a "New Look" for the "containment" strategy, calling for a greater reliance on nuclear weapons to US enemies. Dulles also enunciated the doctrine of "massive retaliation," threatening a severe US response to any Soviet aggression. Possessing nuclear superiority, for example, Eisenhower curtailed Soviet threats to intervene in the Middle East during the 1956 Suez Crisis.

There was a slight relaxation of tensions after Stalin's death in 1953, but the Cold War in Europe remained an uneasy armed truce. US troops seemed stationed indefinitely in West Germany and Soviet forces seemed indefinitely stationed throughout Eastern Europe. To counter West German rearmament, the Soviets established a formal alliance with the Eastern European Communist states termed the Warsaw Pact Treaty Organization or Warsaw Pact in 1955. In 1956, the status quo was briefly threatened in Hungary, when the Soviets invaded rather than allow the Hungarians to move out of their orbit. Berlin remained divided and contested. In 1961, the East Germans erected the *Berlin Wall* to prevent the movement of East Berliners into West Berlin.



Map of the Warsaw Pact countries.

In the US, Wisconsin senator Joseph McCarthy emerged as an influential proponent of a hard-line stance on the Cold War. Although the president quietly deplored his demagoguery, the senator exploited anti-Soviet sentiment when alleging a communist conspiracy to take over the US government, leading to a massive political witch-hunt.

During the 1950s, the Third World was an increasingly important arena of Cold War competition. After the Second World War, the US emerged as the predominant power in the Third World, filling the vacuum of the old imperial hegemony of its principal Cold War allies—the traditional Western European colonial powers (particularly the UK, France, and the Netherlands). However, nationalists in many postcolonial states were often unsympathetic to the Western bloc. Adjusting to decolonization, meanwhile, was a difficult process economically and psychologically for European powers; and NATO suffered, as it included all the world's major colonial empires.

Nationalist movements in some countries and regions, notably Guatemala, Iran, the Philippines, and Indochina were often allied with communist groups—or at least were perceived in the West to be allied with communists. In this context, the US and the Soviet Union increasingly competed for influence by proxy in the Third World as decolonization gained momentum in the 1950s and early 1960s. The US government utilized the CIA in order to remove a string of unfriendly Third World governments and to support others. The US used the CIA to overthrow governments suspected by Washington of turning pro-Soviet, including Iran's first democratically elected government under Prime Minister Mohammed Mossadegh in 1953 and Guatemala's democratically-elected president Jacobo Arbenz Guzmán in 1954. Between 1954 and 1961, the US sent economic aid and military advisors to stem the collapse of South Vietnam's pro-Western regime.

Many emerging nations of Asia, Africa, and Latin America rejected the pressure to choose sides in the East-West competition. In 1955, at the Bandung Conference in Indonesia dozens of Third World governments resolved to stay out of the Cold War. The consensus reached at Bandung culminated with the



creation of the Non-Aligned Movement in 1961. Meanwhile, Khrushchev broadened Moscow's policy to establish ties with India and other key neutral states. Independence movements in the Third World transformed the postwar order into a more pluralistic world of decolonized African and Middle Eastern nations and of rising nationalism in Asia and Latin America.

During the 1950s, the US and the USSR pursued nuclear rearmament and developed long-range weapons with which they could strike the territory of the other. The Soviets developed their own hydrogen bomb and, in 1957, launched the first earth satellite. However, the period after 1956 was marked by serious setbacks for the Soviet Union, most notably the breakdown of the Sino-Soviet alliance. Before Khrushchev's ousting in 1964, the Soviets focused on a bitter rivalry with Mao's China for leadership of the global communist movement.

The nuclear arms race brought the two superpowers to the brink of nuclear war. Khrushchev formed an alliance with Fidel Castro after the Cuban Revolution in 1959. In 1962, President John F. Kennedy responded to the installation of nuclear missiles in Cuba with a naval blockade—a show of force that brought the world close to nuclear war. The Cuban Missile Crisis showed that neither superpower was ready to use nuclear weapons for fear of the other's retaliation, and thus of mutually assured destruction. The aftermath of the crisis led to the first efforts at nuclear disarmament and improving relations.

### **From confrontation through détente (1962–79)**

In the course of the 1960s and 1970s, both the US and the Soviet Union struggled to adjust to a new, more complicated pattern of international relations in which the world was no longer divided into two clearly opposed blocs by the two superpowers. Since the beginning of the postwar period, Western Europe and Japan rapidly recovered from the destruction of World War II and sustained strong economic growth through the 1950s and 1960s, increasing their strength compared to the United States. As a result of the 1973 oil crisis, combined with the growing influence of Third World alignments such as the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) and the Non-Aligned Movement, less-powerful countries had more room to assert their independence and often showed themselves resistant to pressure from either superpower. (EB) Moscow, meanwhile, was forced to turn its attention inward to deal with the Soviet Union's deep-seated domestic economic problems. During this period, Soviet leaders such as Alexei Kosygin and Leonid Brezhnev embraced the notion of détente.



Nevertheless, both superpowers resolved to reinforce their global leadership. Both the Soviet Union and the United States struggled to stave off challenges to their leadership in their own regions. President Lyndon B. Johnson landed 22,000 troops in the Dominican Republic, citing the threat of the emergence of a Cuban-style revolution in Latin America.

In Eastern Europe, the Soviets invaded Czechoslovakia during 1968, in order to crush the Prague Spring reform movement, that might have threatened to take the country out of the Warsaw Pact. The invasion sparked intense protests from Yugoslavia, Romania and China, as well as from other Western European communist parties.

The US continued to spend heavily on supporting friendly Third World regimes in Asia. Conflicts in peripheral regions and client states—most prominently in Vietnam—continued. Johnson stationed 575,000 troops in Southeast Asia to defeat the National Front for the Liberation of South Vietnam (NLF) and their North Vietnamese allies, but his costly policy weakened the US economy and, by 1975, ultimately culminated in what most of the world saw as a humiliating defeat of the world's most powerful superpower at the hands of one of the world's poorest nations. Brezhnev, meanwhile, faced far more daunting challenges in reviving the Soviet economy, which was declining in part because of heavy military expenditures.



Mao greets United States President Richard Nixon during his visit to China in 1972.



Leonid Brezhnev and Jimmy Carter sign SALT II treaty, June 18, 1979, in Vienna.

Although indirect conflict between Cold War powers continued through the late 1960s and early 1970s, tensions began to ease, as the period of détente began. The Chinese had sought improved relations with the US in order to gain advantage over the Soviets. In February 1972, Richard Nixon traveled to Beijing and met with Mao Zedong and Chou En-Lai. Nixon and Henry Kissinger then announced a stunning rapprochement with Mao's China.

Later, in June, Nixon and Kissinger met with Soviet leaders in Moscow, and announced the first of the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks, aimed at limiting the development of costly antiballistic missiles and offensive nuclear missiles. Between 1972 and 1974, the two sides also agreed to strengthen their economic ties. Meanwhile, these developments coincided with the "Ostpolitik" of West German Chancellor Willy Brandt. Other agreements were concluded to stabilize the situation in Europe, culminating in the Helsinki Accords signed by the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe in 1975.

However, the détente of the 1970s was short-lived. The US Congress limited the economic pact between Nixon and Brezhnev so much that the Soviets repudiated it in 1975. Indirect conflict between the superpowers continued through this period of détente in the Third World, particularly during political crises in the Middle East, Chile and Angola. While President Jimmy Carter tried to place another limit on the arms race with a SALT II agreement in 1979, his efforts were undercut by the other events that year, including the Iranian Revolution and the Nicaraguan Revolution, which both ousted pro-US regimes, and his retaliation against Soviet intervention in Afghanistan in December.



Brezhnev and Nixon during Brezhnev's June 1973 visit to Washington; this marked a high-water mark in détente between the United States and the Soviet Union.

## The "Second Cold War" (1979–85)

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The term *second Cold War* has been used by some historians to refer to the period of intensive reawakening of Cold War tensions and conflicts in the early 1980s. Tensions greatly increased between the major powers with both sides becoming more militaristic.

During December 1979, about 75,000 Soviet troops invaded Afghanistan, in order to support the Marxist government led by Prime-minister Nur Muhammad Taraki. As a result to this, US President Jimmy Carter, withdrew the SALT II treaty from the Senate, decided to impose embargoes on grain and technology shipments to the USSR, demanded a significant increase in military spendings and further announced that the United States would boycott the 1980 Moscow Summer Olympics. Also, he described the Soviet intervention in Afghanistan as *the most serious threat to the peace since the Second World War*.

In 1980 Ronald Reagan defeated Jimmy Carter, vowing to increase military spending and confront the Soviets everywhere. Both Reagan and Britain's new prime minister, Margaret Thatcher, denounced the Soviet Union in ideological terms that rivaled that of the worst days of the Cold War in the late 1940s.

With the background of the build-up of tension between the Soviet Union and the United States, as well as deployment of Soviet SS-20 ballistic missiles targeting Western Europe, NATO decided, under the impetus of the Carter presidency, to deploy Pershing II and cruise missiles in Europe, primarily West Germany. This deployment would have placed missiles just 10 minutes striking distance from Moscow. Yet support for the deployment was wavering and many doubted whether the push for deployment could be sustained. But on September 1, 1983, the Soviet Union shot down Korean Air Lines Flight 007, a Boeing 747 with 269 people aboard when it violated Soviet airspace just past the west coast of Sakhalin Island—an act which Reagan characterized as a "massacre". This act, galvanized support for the deployment—which stood in place until the later accords between Reagan and Mikhael Gorbachev.

Reagan spent \$2.2 trillion for the military over eight years. Military spending, combined with the legacy of the economic structural problems of the 1970s, transformed the US from the world's leading creditor in 1981 to the world's leading debtor. Tensions intensified in the early 1980s when Reagan installed US cruise missiles in Europe and announced his experimental Strategic Defense Initiative, dubbed "Star Wars" by the media, to shoot down missiles in mid-flight. Reagan also imposed economic sanctions to protest the suppression of the opposition Solidarity movement in Poland.

US domestic public concerns about intervening in foreign conflicts persisted from the end of the Vietnam War. But Reagan did not encounter major public opposition to his foreign policies. The Reagan administration emphasized the use of quick, low cost counterinsurgency tactics to intervene in foreign conflicts. In 1983, the Reagan administration intervened in the multisided Lebanese Civil War, invaded Grenada, bombed Libya and backed the Central American Contras—right-wing paramilitaries seeking overthrow the Soviet-aligned Sandinista government in Nicaragua. While Reagan's interventions against Grenada and Libya were popular in the US, his backing of the Contra rebels was mired in controversy. In 1985, the president authorized the sale of arms to Iran; later, administration subordinates illegally diverted the proceeds to the Contras.

Meanwhile, the Soviets incurred high costs for their own foreign interventions. Although Brezhnev was convinced in 1979 that the Soviet war in Afghanistan would be brief, Muslim guerrillas, aided by the USA, waged a surprisingly fierce resistance against the invasion. The Kremlin sent nearly 100,000 troops to support its puppet regime in Afghanistan, leading many outside observers to call the war the Soviets' Vietnam. However, Moscow's quagmire in Afghanistan was far more disastrous for the Soviets than Vietnam had been for the Americans because the conflict coincided with a period of internal decay and domestic crisis



This map shows the two essential global spheres during the Cold War in 1980 - the US in blue and the USSR in red. Consult the legend on the map for more details.



in the Soviet system. A high US State Department official predicted such an outcome as early as 1980, positing that the invasion resulted in part from a "domestic crisis within the Soviet system....It may be that the thermodynamic law of entropy has...caught up with the Soviet system, which now seems to expend more energy on simply maintaining its equilibrium than on improving itself. We could," he construed, "be seeing a period of foreign movement at a time of internal decay."

## End of the Cold War



In a famed address, United States President Ronald Reagan challenges Mikhail Gorbachev to tear down the Berlin Wall, 12 June 1987.

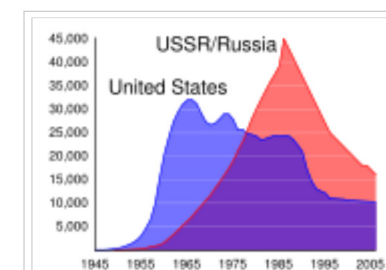
By the early 1980s, the Soviet armed forces were the largest in the world by many measures—in terms of the numbers and types of weapons they possessed, in the number of troops in their ranks, and in the sheer size of their military-industrial base. However, the quantitative advantages held by the Soviet military often concealed areas where the Eastern bloc dramatically lagged behind the West. This led many US observers to vastly overestimate Soviet power.

By the late years of the Cold War, Moscow had built up a military that consumed as much as twenty-five percent of the Soviet Union's gross national product at the expense of consumer goods and investment in civilian sectors. But the size of the Soviet armed forces was not necessarily the result of a simple action-reaction arms race with the United States (Odom). Instead, Soviet spending on the arms race and other Cold War commitments can be understood as both a cause and effect of the deep-seated structural problems in the Soviet system, which accumulated at least a decade of economic stagnation during the Brezhnev years. Soviet investment in the defence sector was not necessarily driven by military necessity, but in large part by the interests of massive party and state bureaucracies

dependent on the sector for their own power and privileges .

By the time Mikhail Gorbachev had ascended to power in 1985, the Soviets suffered from an economic growth rate close to zero percent, combined with a sharp fall in hard currency earnings as a result of the downward slide in world oil prices in the 1980s. (Petroleum exports made up around 60 percent of the Soviet Union's total export earnings.) To restructure the Soviet economy before it collapsed, Gorbachev announced an agenda of rapid reform. Reform required Gorbachev to redirect the country's resources from costly Cold War military commitments to more profitable areas in the civilian sector. As a result, Gorbachev offered major concessions to the United States on the levels of conventional forces, nuclear weapons, and policy in Eastern Europe.

Many US Soviet experts and administration officials doubted that Gorbachev was serious about winding down the arms race but the new Soviet leader eventually proved more concerned about reversing the Soviet Union's deteriorating economic condition than fighting the arms race with the West.



U.S. and USSR/Russian nuclear weapons stockpiles, 1945-2006.

<b>Comparison between USSR and US economies (1989) according to 1990 CIA The World Factbook</b>		
	<b>USSR</b>	<b>US</b>
GDP (1989 - millions \$)	2,659,500	5,233,300
Population (July 1990)	290,938,469	250,410,000



Soviet withdrawal from Afghanistan in 1988.

The Kremlin made major military and political concessions; in response Reagan agreed to renew talks on economic issues and the scaling-back of the arms race. The East-West tensions that had reached intense new heights earlier in the decade rapidly subsided through the mid-to-late 1980s. In 1988, the Soviets officially declared that they would no longer intervene in the affairs of allied states in Eastern Europe—the so-called Sinatra Doctrine. In 1989, Soviet forces withdrew from Afghanistan.

GDP Per Capita (\$)	9,211	21,082
Labor force (1989)	152,300,000	125,557,000

In December 1989, Gorbachev and George H.W. Bush declared the Cold War officially over at a summit meeting in Malta. But by then, the Soviet alliance system was on the brink of collapse, and the Communist leaders of the Warsaw Pact states were losing power. In the USSR itself, Gorbachev tried to reform the party to destroy resistance to his reforms, but, in doing so, ultimately weakened the bonds that held the state and union together. By February 1990, the Communist Party was forced to surrender its 73-year old monopoly on state power. By December of the next year, the union-state also dissolved, breaking the USSR up into fifteen separate independent states.

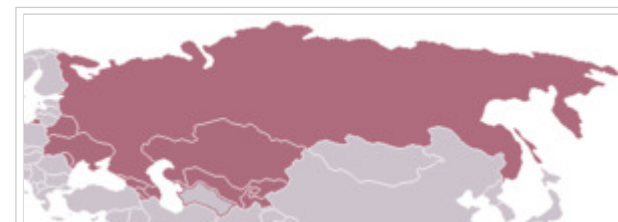
## Legacy

The Cold War was fought at a tremendous cost globally over the course of more than four decades. It cost the U.S. up to \$8 trillion in military expenditures, and the lives of nearly 100,000 Americans in Korea and Vietnam. It cost the Soviets an even higher share of their gross national product. In Southeast Asia, local civil wars were intensified by superpower rivalry, leaving millions dead.

After the dissolution of the Soviet Union, the post-Cold War world is widely considered as a unipolar world, with the United States as the world's sole remaining superpower. In the words of Samuel P. Huntington, "The United States, of course, is the sole state with preeminence in every domain of power — economic, military, diplomatic, ideological, technological, and cultural — with the reach and capabilities to promote its interests in virtually every part of the world."

The newly created Commonwealth of Independent States on December 21, 1991, could be viewed as a successor entity to the Soviet Union and, according to leaders of Russia, its purpose was to "allow a civilized divorce" between the Soviet Republics. However, the CIS is emphatically not a state unto itself, and is more comparable to a loose confederation, similar to the European Community.

The end of the Cold War gave Russia the chance to cut military spending dramatically, but the adjustment was wrenching. The military-industrial sector employed at least one of every five Soviet adults. Its dismantling left millions throughout the former Soviet Union unemployed. Russian living standards have worsened overall in the post-Cold War years, although the economy has resumed growth in recent years. In the 1990s, Russia suffered an economic downturn more severe than the U.S. or Germany had undergone six decades earlier in the Great Depression after it had embarked on capitalist economic reforms.



Formation of the CIS, the official end of the USSR.

The legacy of the Cold War continues to structure world affairs. The Cold War institutionalized the role of the United States in the postwar global economic and





political system. By 1989, the U.S. was responsible for military alliances with 50 countries and 1.5 million US troops were posted in 117 countries. The Cold War also institutionalized the commitment to a huge, permanent wartime military-industrial complex.

Some of the economic and social tensions that underpinned Cold War competition in parts of the Third World remain acute. The breakdown of state control in a number of areas formerly ruled by Communist governments has produced new civil and ethnic conflicts, particularly in the former Yugoslavia. In some countries, the breakdown of state control was accompanied by state failure, such as in Afghanistan. But in other areas, particularly much of Eastern Europe, the end of the Cold War was accompanied by a large growth in the number of liberal democracies. In areas where the two superpowers had been waging proxy wars, and subsidizing local conflicts, many conflicts ended with the Cold War; and the occurrence of interstate wars, ethnic wars, revolutionary wars, or refugee and displaced persons crises declined sharply.

## Historiography

As soon as the term "Cold War" was popularized to refer to postwar tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union, interpreting the course and origins of the conflict has been a source of heated controversy among historians, political scientists, and journalists. In particular, historians have sharply disagreed as to who was responsible for the breakdown of Soviet-U.S. relations after the Second World War; and whether the conflict between the two superpowers was inevitable, or could have been avoided. Historians have also disagreed on what exactly the Cold War was, what the sources of the conflict were, and how to disentangle patterns of action and reaction between the two sides.

While the explanations of the origins of the conflict in academic discussions are complex and diverse, several general schools of thought on the subject can be identified. Historians commonly speak of three differing approaches to the study of the Cold War: "orthodox" accounts, "revisionism," and "post-revisionism." Nevertheless, much of the historiography on the Cold War weaves together two or even all three of these broad categories.

### Orthodox accounts

The first school of interpretation to emerge in the U.S. was the "orthodox" one. For more than a decade after the end of the Second World War, few U.S. historians challenged the official U.S. interpretation of the beginnings of the Cold War. This "orthodox" school places the responsibility for the Cold War on the Soviet Union and its expansion into Eastern Europe. Thomas A. Bailey, for example, argued in his 1950 *America Faces Russia* that the breakdown of postwar peace was the result of Soviet expansionism in the immediate postwar years. Bailey argued Stalin violated promises he had made at Yalta, imposed Soviet-dominated regimes on unwilling Eastern European populations, and conspired to spread communism throughout the world. From this view, U.S. officials were forced to respond to Soviet aggression with the Truman Doctrine, plans to contain communist subversion around the world, and the Marshall Plan.

This interpretation has been described as the "official" U.S. version of Cold War history. Although it lost its dominance as a mode of historical thought in academic discussions in 1960s, it continues to be influential.

### Revisionism

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U.S. involvement in Vietnam in the 1960s disillusioned many historians with the premise of "containment", and thus with the assumptions of the "orthodox" approach to understanding the Cold War. "Revisionist" accounts emerged in the wake of the Vietnam War, in the context of a larger rethinking of the U.S. role in international affairs, which was seen more in terms of American empire or hegemony.

The Wisconsin school of interpretation argues that the U.S. and the U.S.S.R. were economic rivals, making them natural adversaries, irrespective of their ideologies. Walter LaFeber, meanwhile, argues the U.S. and Imperial Russia were already rivals by 1900 over the development of Manchuria. Russia, unable to compete industrially with the States, sought to close off parts of East Asia to trade with other colonial powers. Meanwhile, the U.S. demanded open competition for markets.

While the new school of thought spanned many differences among individual scholars, the works comprising it were generally responses in one way or another to William Appleman Williams' landmark 1959 volume, *The Tragedy of American Diplomacy*. Williams challenged the long-held assumptions of "orthodox" accounts, arguing that Americans had always been an empire-building people, even while American leaders denied it.

Following Williams, "revisionist" writers placed more responsibility for the breakdown of postwar peace on the United States, citing a range of U.S. efforts to isolate and confront the Soviet Union well before the end of World War II. According to Williams and later "revisionist" writers, U.S. policymakers shared an overarching concern with maintaining capitalism domestically. In order to achieve that objective, they pursued an "open door" policy abroad, aimed at increasing access to foreign markets for U.S. business and agriculture. From this perspective, a growing economy domestically went hand-in-hand with the consolidation of U.S. power internationally.

"Revisionist" scholars challenged the widely accepted notion that Soviet leaders were committed to postwar "expansionism". They cited evidence that the Soviet Union's occupation of Eastern Europe had a defensive rationale, and that Soviet leaders saw themselves as attempting to avoid encirclement by the United States and its allies. In this view, the Soviet Union was so weak and devastated after the end of the Second World War as to be unable to pose any serious threat to the United States; moreover, the U.S. maintained a nuclear monopoly until the U.S.S.R. tested its first atomic bomb in August 1949.

Revisionist historians have also challenged the assumption that the origins of the Cold War date no further back than the immediate postwar period. Notably, Walter LaFeber, in his landmark study, *America, Russia, and the Cold War*, first published in 1972, argued that the Cold War had its origins in 19th century conflicts between Russia and America over the opening of East Asia to U.S. trade, markets, and influence. LaFeber argued that the U.S. commitment at the close of World War II to ensuring a world in which every state was open to U.S. influence and trade underpinned many of the conflicts that triggered the beginning of the Cold War.

Starting with Gar Alperovitz, in his influential *Atomic Diplomacy: Hiroshima and Potsdam* (1965), "revisionist" scholars have focused on the U.S. decision to use atomic weapons against Hiroshima and Nagasaki during the last days of World War II. In their view, the nuclear bombing of Nagasaki and Hiroshima, in effect, started the Cold War. According to Alperovitz, the bombs were not used on an already defeated Japan to win the war, but to intimidate the Soviets, signaling that the U.S. would use nuclear weapons to structure a postwar world around U.S. interests as U.S. policymakers saw fit. According to some revisionists, Japan had tried to surrender for several months, but the U.S. wanted to test nuclear weapons in war and, most importantly, show its power to the Soviet Union.



Joyce and Gabriel Kolko's *The Limits of Power: The World and U.S. Foreign Policy, 1945–1954* (1972) has also received considerable attention in the historiography on the Cold War. The Kolkos argued U.S. policy was both reflexively anticommunist and counterrevolutionary. The U.S. was not necessarily fighting Soviet influence, but any form of challenge to the U.S. economic and political prerogatives through either covert or military means. In this sense, the Cold War is less a story of rivalry between two blocs, and more a story of the ways by which the dominant states within each bloc controlled and disciplined their own populations and clients, and about who supported and stood to benefit from increased arms production and political anxiety over a perceived external enemy.

## Post-revisionism

The "revisionist" interpretation produced a critical reaction of its own. In a variety of ways, "post-revisionist" scholarship, before the fall of Communism, challenged earlier works on the origins and course of the Cold War.

During the period, "post-revisionism" challenged the "revisionists" by accepting some of their findings but rejecting most of their key claims. Particularly, post-revisionist historians argued that revisionists put too much emphasis on U.S. economic considerations while ignoring domestic politics and perceptions held at the time. Another current attempted to strike a balance between the "orthodox" and "revisionist" camps, identifying areas of responsibility for the origins of the conflict on both sides. Thomas G. Paterson, in *Soviet-American Confrontation* (1973), for example, viewed Soviet hostility and U.S. efforts to dominate the postwar world as equally responsible for the Cold War.

The seminal work of this approach was John Lewis Gaddis's *The United States and the Origins of the Cold War, 1941–1947* (1972). The account was immediately hailed as the beginning of a new school of thought on the Cold War claiming to synthesize a variety of interpretations. Gaddis then maintained that "neither side can bear sole responsibility for the onset of the Cold War." He did, however, emphasize the constraints imposed on U.S. policymakers due to the complications of domestic politics. Gaddis has, in addition, criticized some "revisionist" scholars, particularly Williams, for failing to understand the role of Soviet policy in the origins of the Cold War.

Out of the "post-revisionist" literature emerged a new area of inquiry that was more sensitive to nuance and interested less in the question of who started the conflict than in offering insight into U.S. and Soviet actions and perspectives. From this perspective, the Cold War was not so much the responsibility of either side, but rather the result of predictable tensions between two world powers that had been suspicious of one another for nearly a century. For example, Ernest May wrote in a 1984 essay:

After the Second World War, the United States and the Soviet Union were doomed to be antagonists.... There probably was never any real possibility that the post-1945 relationship could be anything but hostility verging on conflict... Traditions, belief systems, propinquity, and convenience ... all combined to stimulate antagonism, and almost no factor operated in either country to hold it back.

From this view of "post-revisionism" emerged a line of inquiry that examines how Cold War actors perceived various events, and the degree of misperception involved in the failure of the two sides to reach common understandings of their wartime alliance and their disputes.

While Gaddis does not hold either side entirely responsible for the onset of the conflict, he has now argued that the Soviets should be held clearly more



accountable for the ensuing problems. According to Gaddis, Stalin was in a much better position to compromise than his Western counterparts, given his much broader power within his own regime than Truman, who was often undermined by vociferous political opposition at home. Asking if it were possible to predict that the wartime alliance would fall apart within a matter of months, leaving in its place nearly a half century of cold war, Gaddis wrote in a 1997 essay, *We Now Know: Rethinking Cold War History*:

Geography, demography, and tradition contributed to this outcome but did not determine it. It took men, responding unpredictably to circumstances, to forge the chain of causation; and it took [Stalin] in particular, responding predictably to his own authoritarian, paranoid, and narcissistic predisposition, to lock it into place.

For Stalin, Gaddis continues:

World politics was an extension of Soviet politics, which was in turn an extension of Stalin's preferred personal environment: a zero-sum game, in which achieving security for himself, his regime, his country and his ideology meant depriving everyone else of it.

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# Enigma machine

2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: Cryptography; Engineering

The **Enigma machine** was a cipher machine used to encrypt and decrypt secret messages. More precisely, Enigma was a family of related electro-mechanical rotor machines, comprising a variety of different models.

The Enigma was used commercially from the early 1920s on, and was also adopted by the military and governmental services of a number of nations—most famously by Nazi Germany before and during World War II.

The German military model, the **Wehrmacht Enigma**, is the version most commonly discussed. The machine has gained notoriety because Allied cryptologists were able to decrypt a large number of messages that had been enciphered on the machine. Decryption was made possible in 1932 by Polish cryptographers Marian Rejewski, Jerzy Różycki and Henryk Zygalski from Cipher Bureau. In mid-1939 reconstruction and decryption methods were delivered from Poland to Britain and France. The intelligence gained through this source, codenamed ULTRA, was a significant aid to the Allied war effort. The exact influence of ULTRA is debated, but a typical assessment is that the end of the European war was hastened by two years because of the decryption of German ciphers.

Although the Enigma cipher has cryptographic weaknesses, in practice it was only in combination with other significant factors (mistakes by operators, procedural flaws, an occasional captured machine or codebook) that Allied codebreakers were able to decipher messages.

## Description

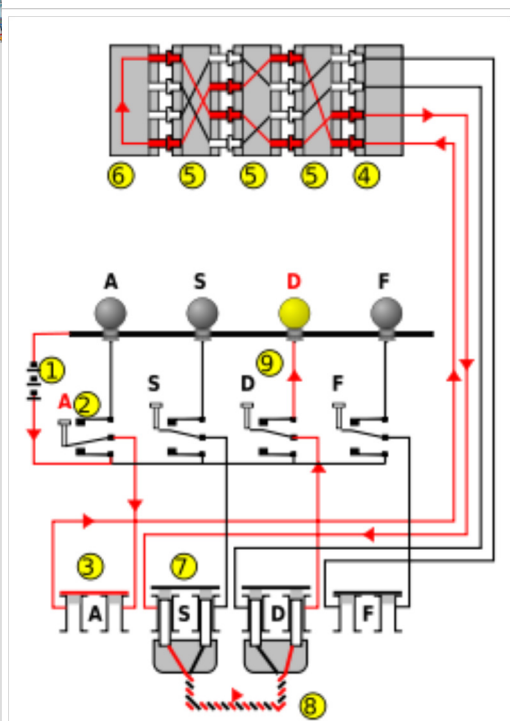


The plugboard, keyboard, lamps, and finger-wheels of the rotors emerging from the inner lid of a three-rotor German military Enigma machine



### The Enigma cipher machine

- **Enigma machine**
  - Enigma rotor details
- Cryptanalysis of the Enigma
  - Cipher Bureau
    - Perforated sheets
    - Bomba
    - Polish Enigma doubles
    - Cyclometer



Enigma wiring diagram showing current flow. The "A" key is encoded to the "D" lamp. D yields A, but A never yields A.

Like other rotor machines, the Enigma machine is a combination of mechanical and electrical systems. The mechanical mechanism consists of a keyboard; a set of rotating disks called *rotors* arranged adjacently along a spindle; and a stepping mechanism to turn one or more of the rotors with each key press. The exact mechanism varies, but the most common form is for the right-hand rotor to step once with every key stroke, and occasionally the motion of neighbouring rotors is triggered. The continual movement of the rotors results in a different cryptographic transformation after each key press.

The mechanical parts act in such a way as to form a varying electrical circuit—the actual encipherment of a letter is performed electrically. When a key is pressed, the circuit is completed; current flows through the various components and ultimately lights one of many different lamps, indicating the output letter. For example, when encrypting a message starting *ANX...*, the operator would first press the *A* key, and the *z* lamp might light; *z* would be the first letter of the ciphertext. The operator would then proceed to encipher *N* in the same fashion, and so on.

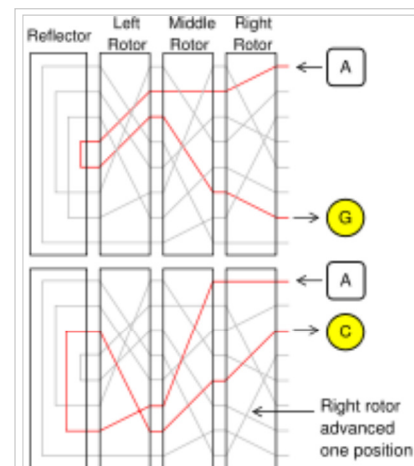
To explain the Enigma, we use the wiring diagram on the left. To simplify the example, only four components of each are shown. In reality, there are 26 lamps, keys, plugs and wirings inside the rotors. The current flows from the battery (1) through the depressed bi-directional letter-switch (2) to the

plugboard (3). The plugboard allows rewiring the connections between keyboard (2) and fixed entry wheel (4). Next, the current proceeds through the—unused, so closed—plug (3) via the entry wheel (4) through the wirings of the three (Wehrmacht Enigma) or four (Kriegsmarine M4 or Abwehr variant) rotors (5) and enters the reflector (6). The reflector returns the current, via a different path, back through the rotors (5) and entry wheel (4), and proceeds through plug 'S' connected with a cable (8) to plug 'D', and another bi-directional switch (9) to light-up the lamp.

The continual changing of electrical paths through the unit because of the rotation of the rotors (which cause the pin contacts to change with each letter typed) implements the polyalphabetic encryption which provided Enigma's high security.

## Rotors

- Bletchley Park
  - Banburismus
  - Herivel tip
  - Bombe
  - Hut 6
  - Hut 8
- PC Bruno
- Ultra



The scrambling action of the Enigma rotors shown for two consecutive letters—current is passed into set of rotors, around the reflector, and back out through the rotors again. The greyed-out lines represent other possible circuits within each rotor, which are hard-wired to contacts on each rotor. Letter *A* encrypts differently with consecutive key presses, first to *G*, and then to *C*. This is because the right hand rotor has stepped, sending the signal on a completely different route.



The rotors (alternatively *wheels* or *drums*—*Walzen* in German) form the heart of an Enigma machine. Approximately 10 cm in diameter, each rotor is a disc made of hard rubber or bakelite with a series of brass spring-loaded pins on one face arranged in a circle; on the other side are a corresponding number of circular electrical contacts. The pins and contacts represent the alphabet—typically the 26 letters A–Z (this will be assumed for the rest of the description). When placed side-by-side, the pins of one rotor rest against the contacts of the neighbouring rotor, forming an electrical connection. Inside the body of the rotor, a set of 26 wires connects each pin on one side to a contact on the other in a complex pattern. The wiring differs for every rotor.



Three Enigma rotors and the shaft on which they are placed when in use.

By itself, a rotor performs only a very simple type of encryption—a simple substitution cipher. For example, the pin corresponding to the letter E might be wired to the contact for letter T on the opposite face. The complexity comes from the use of several rotors in series—usually three or four—and the regular movement of the rotors; this provides a much stronger type of encryption.

When placed in the machine, a rotor can be set to one of 26 positions. It can be turned by hand using a grooved finger-wheel which protrudes from the internal cover when closed, as shown in Figure 2. So that the operator knows the position, each rotor has an *alphabet tyre* (or letter ring) attached around the outside of the disk, with 26 letters or numbers; one of these can be seen through a window, indicating the position of the rotor to the operator. In early Enigma models, the alphabet ring is fixed; a complication

introduced in later versions is the facility to adjust the alphabet ring relative to the core wiring. The position of the ring is known as the *Ringstellung* ("ring setting").

The rotors each contain a notch (sometimes multiple notches), used to control the stepping of the rotors. In the military versions the notches are located on the alphabet ring.

The Army and Air Force Enigmas came equipped with several rotors; when first issued there were only three. On 15 December 1938 this changed to five, from which three were chosen for insertion in the machine. These were marked with Roman numerals to distinguish them: I, II, III, IV and V, all with single notches located at different points on the alphabet ring. This must have been intended as a security measure, but ultimately allowed the Polish Clock Method and British Banburismus attacks.

The Naval version of the Wehrmacht Enigma had always been issued with more rotors than the other services: at first, six, then seven and finally eight. The additional rotors were named VI, VII and VIII, all with different wiring, and had two notches cut into them at N and A, resulting in a more frequent turnover.

The four-rotor Naval Enigma (M4) machine accommodated an extra rotor in the same space as the three-rotor version. This was accomplished by replacing the original reflector with a thinner reflector and adding a special fourth rotor. The fourth rotor can be one of two types, "Beta" or "Gamma", and never steps, but it can be manually placed in any of the 26 positions.

## Stepping motion

<http://cd3wd.com> [wikipedia-for-schools](http://wikipedia-for-schools) <http://gutenberg.org> page no: 183 of 307



The Enigma rotor assembly. The three movable rotors are sandwiched between two fixed wheels: the entry wheel on the right and the reflector (here marked "B") on the left.



To avoid merely implementing a simple (and easily breakable) substitution cipher, some rotors turned with consecutive presses of a key. This ensured the cryptographic substitution would be different at each position, producing a formidable polyalphabetic substitution cipher.

The most common arrangement used a ratchet and pawl mechanism. Each rotor had a ratchet with 26 teeth; a group of pawls engage the teeth of the ratchet. The pawls pushed forward in unison with each keypress on the machine. If a pawl engaged the teeth of a ratchet, that rotor advanced by one step.

In the Wehrmacht Enigma, each rotor had an adjustable notched ring. The five basic rotors (I–V) had one notch each, while the additional naval rotors VI, VII and VIII had two notches. At a certain point, a rotor's notch eventually aligned with the pawl, allowing it to engage the ratchet of the next rotor with the subsequent key press. When a pawl was not aligned with the notch, it simply slid over the surface of the ring without engaging the ratchet. In a single-notch rotor system, the second rotor advanced one position every 26 advances of the first rotor. Similarly, the third rotor advanced one position for every 26 advances of the second rotor. The second rotor also advanced at the same time as the third rotor, meaning the second rotor can step twice on subsequent key presses—"double stepping"—resulting in a reduced period.

This double stepping caused the rotors to deviate from a normal odometer. A double step occurred as follows: the first rotor stepped, and took the second rotor one step further. If the second rotor moved by this step into its own notch-position, the third pawl drops down. On the next step this pawl would push the ratchet of the third rotor and advance it, but pushed into the second rotor's notch, advancing the second rotor a second time in a row.

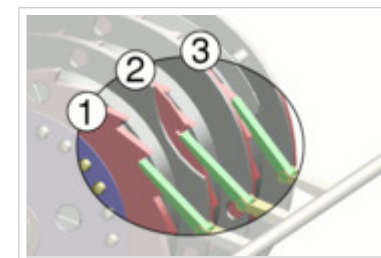
With three wheels and only single notches in the first and second wheels, the machine had a period of  $26 \times 25 \times 26 = 16,900$  (not  $26 \times 26 \times 26$  because of the double stepping of the second rotor.) Historically, messages were limited to a couple of hundred letters, and so there was very little risk of repeating any position within a single message.

To make room for the naval fourth rotors "Beta" and "Gamma", introduced in 1942, the reflector was changed, by making it much thinner and the special thin fourth rotor was placed against it. No changes were made to rest of the mechanism. Since there were only three pawls, the fourth rotor never stepped, but could be manually set into one of its 26 positions.

When pressing a key, the rotors stepped before the electrical circuit is connected.

## Entry wheel

The entry wheel (*Eintrittswalze* in German), or entry stator, connects the plugboard, if present, or otherwise the keyboard and lampboard, to the rotor assembly. While the exact wiring used is of comparatively little importance to the security, it proved an obstacle in the progress of Polish cryptanalyst Marian Rejewski during his deduction of the rotor wirings. The commercial Enigma connects the keys in the order of their sequence on the keyboard: Q→A, W→B, E→C and so on. However, the military Enigma connects them in straight alphabetical order: A→A, B→B, C→C etc. It took an inspired piece of guesswork for Rejewski to realise the modification, and he was then able to solve his even more inspired equations.



Stepping motion of the Enigma.





## Reflector

With the exception of the early models A and B, the last rotor came before a *reflector* (German: *Umkehrwalze*, meaning "reversal rotor"), a patented feature distinctive of the Enigma family amongst the various rotor machines designed in the period. The reflector connected outputs of the last rotor in pairs, redirecting current back through the rotors by a different route. The reflector ensured that Enigma is self-reciprocal: conveniently, encryption was the same as decryption. However, the reflector also gave Enigma the property that no letter ever encrypted to itself. This was a severe conceptual flaw and a cryptological mistake subsequently exploited by codebreakers.

In the commercial Enigma model C, the reflector could be inserted in one of two different positions. In Model D the reflector could be set in 26 possible positions, although it did not move during encryption. In the Abwehr Enigma, the reflector stepped during encryption in a manner like the other wheels.

In the German Army and Air Force Enigma, the reflector was fixed and did not rotate; there were four versions. The original version was marked *A*, and was replaced by *Umkehrwalze B* on 1 November 1937. A third version, *Umkehrwalze C* was used briefly in 1940, possibly by mistake, and was solved by Hut 6. The fourth version, first observed on 2 January 1944 had a rewirable reflector, called *Umkehrwalze D*, allowing the Enigma operator to alter the connections as part of the key settings.

## Plugboard

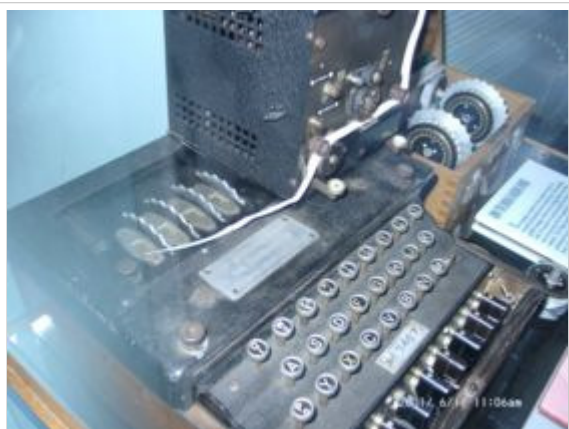
The plugboard (*Steckerbrett* in German) permitted variable wiring that could be reconfigured by the operator (visible on the front panel of Figure 1; some of the patch cords can be seen in the lid). It was introduced on German Army versions in 1930 and was soon adopted by the Navy as well. The plugboard contributed a great deal to the strength of the machine's encryption: more than an extra rotor would have done. Enigma without a plugboard—"unsteckered" Enigma—can be solved relatively straightforwardly using hand methods; these techniques are generally defeated by the addition of a plugboard, and Allied cryptanalysts resorted to special machines to solve it.

A cable placed onto the plugboard connected letters up in pairs, for example, E and Q might be a "steckered" pair. The effect was to swap those letters before and after the main rotor scrambling unit. For example, when an operator presses E, the signal was diverted to Q before entering the rotors. Several such steckered pairs, up to 13, might be used at one time.

Current flowed from the keyboard through the plugboard, and proceeded to the entry-rotor or *Eintrittswalze*. Each letter on the plugboard had two jacks. Inserting a plug disconnected the upper jack (from the keyboard) and the lower jack (to the entry-rotor) of that letter. The plug at the other end of the crosswired cable was inserted into another letter's jacks, thus switching the connections of the two letters.



The plugboard (*Steckerbrett*) was positioned at the front of the machine, below the keys. When in use, there were up to 13 connections. In the above photograph, two pairs of letters have been swapped (S-O and J-A).



The "Schreibmax" was a printing unit which could be attached to the Enigma, removing the need for laboriously writing down the letters indicated on the lamp panel.

## Accessories

A feature that was used on the M4 Enigma was the "Schreibmax", a little printer which could print the 26 letters on a small paper ribbon. This did away with the need for a second operator to read the lamps and write the letters down. The Schreibmax was placed on top of the Enigma machine and was connected to the lamp panel. To install the printer, the lamp cover and all lightbulbs had to be removed. Besides its convenience, it could improve operational security; the printer could be installed remotely such that the signal officer operating the machine no longer had to see the decrypted plaintext information.

Another accessory was the remote lamp panel. If the machine was equipped with an extra panel, the wooden case of the Enigma was wider and could store the extra panel. There was a lamp panel version that could be connected afterwards, but that required, just as with the Schreibmax, that the lamp panel and lightbulbs be removed. The remote panel made it possible for a person to

read the decrypted plaintext without the operator seeing it.

In 1944 the Luftwaffe introduced an extra plugboard switch, called the Uhr (clock). There was a little box, containing a switch with 40 positions. It replaced the default plugs. After connecting the plugs, as determined in the daily key sheet, the operator turned the switch into one of the 40 positions, each position producing a different combination of plug wiring. Most of these plug connections were, unlike the default plugs, not pair-wise.

## Mathematical description

The Enigma transformation for each letter can be specified mathematically as a product of permutations. Assuming a three-rotor German Army/Air Force Enigma, let  $P$  denote the plugboard transformation,  $U$  denote the reflector, and  $L, M, R$  denote the actions of the left, middle and right rotors. Then the encryption  $E$  can be expressed as

$$E = PRMLUL^{-1}M^{-1}R^{-1}P^{-1}$$

After each key press the rotors turn, changing the transformation. For example, if the right hand rotor  $R$  is rotated  $i$  positions, the transformation becomes  $\rho^i R \rho^{-i}$ , where  $\rho$  is the cyclic permutation mapping A to B, B to C, and so forth. Similarly, the middle and left-hand rotors can be represented as  $j$  and  $k$  rotations of  $M$  and  $L$ . The encryption function can then be described as:



The Enigma Uhr attachment



$$E = P(\rho^i R \rho^{-i})(\rho^j M \rho^{-j})(\rho^k L \rho^{-k})U(\rho^k L^{-1} \rho^{-k})(\rho^j M^{-1} \rho^{-j})(\rho^i R^{-1} \rho^{-i})P^{-1}$$

## Procedures for using the Enigma

In German military usage, communications were divided up into a number of different networks, all using different settings for their Enigma machines. These communication nets were termed *keys* at Bletchley Park, and were assigned codenames, such as *Red*, *Chaffinch* and *Shark*. Each unit operating on a network was assigned a settings list for its Enigma for a period of time. For a message to be correctly encrypted and decrypted, both sender and receiver had to set up their Enigma in the same way; the rotor selection and order, the starting position and the plugboard connections must be identical. All these settings (together the key in modern terms) must have been established beforehand, and were distributed in codebooks.

An Enigma machine's initial state, the cryptographic key, has several aspects:

- Wheel order (*Walzenlage*)—the choice of rotors and the order in which they are fitted.
- Initial position of the rotors—chosen by the operator, different for each message.
- Ring settings (*Ringstellung*)—the position of the alphabet ring relative to the rotor wiring.
- Plug settings (*Steckerverbindungen*)—the connections of the plugs in the plugboard.
- In very late versions, the wiring of the reconfigurable reflector.

Enigma was designed to be secure even if the rotor wiring was known to an opponent, although in practice there was considerable effort to keep the wiring secret. If the wiring is secret, the total number of possible configurations has been calculated to be around  $10^{114}$  (approximately 380 bits); with known wiring and other operational constraints, this is reduced to around  $10^{23}$  (76 bits). Users of Enigma were confident of its security because of the large number of possibilities; it was not then feasible for an adversary to even begin to try every possible configuration in a brute force attack.

## Indicators

Most of the keys were kept constant for a set time period, typically a day. However, a different initial rotor position was chosen for each message, a concept similar to an initialisation vector in modern cryptography, because if a number of messages are sent encrypted with identical or near-identical settings a cryptanalyst, with several messages "in depth", might be able to attack the messages using frequency analysis. The starting position was transmitted just before the ciphertext. The exact method used was termed the "indicator procedure"—weak indicator procedures allowed the initial breaks into Enigma.



In use, the Enigma required a list of daily key settings as well as a number of auxiliary documents. The procedures for German Naval Enigma were more elaborate, and secure, than the procedures used in other services. The Navy codebooks were also printed in red, water-soluble ink on pink paper so that they could easily be destroyed if they were at risk of being seized by the enemy. The above codebook was taken from captured U-boat *U-505*.

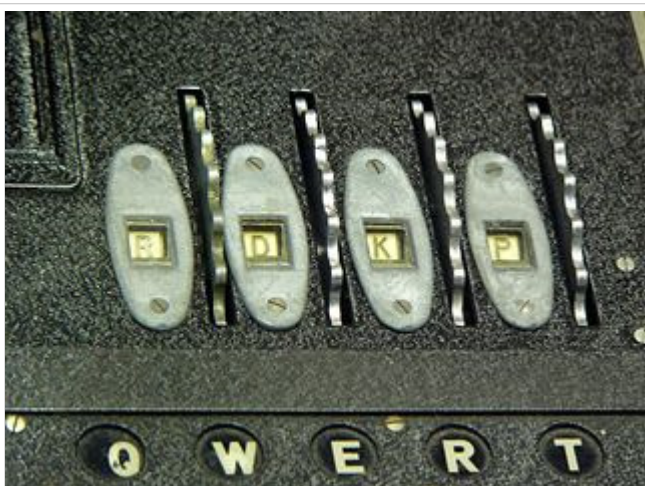


Figure 2. With the inner lid down, the Enigma was ready for use. The finger wheels of the rotors protruded through the lid, allowing the operator to set the rotors, and their current position—here RDKP—was visible to the operator through a set of windows.

One of the earliest indicator procedures was used by Polish cryptanalysts to make the initial breaks into the Enigma. The procedure was for the operator to set up his machine in accordance with his settings list, which included a global initial position for the rotors (*Grundstellung*—"ground setting"), AOH, perhaps. The operator turned his rotors until AOH was visible through the rotor windows. At that point, the operator chose his own, arbitrary, starting position for that particular message. An operator might select EIN, and this became the *message settings* for that encryption session. The operator then typed EIN into the machine, twice, to allow for detection of transmission errors. The results were an encrypted indicator—the EIN typed twice might turn into XHTLOA, which would be transmitted along with the message. Finally, the operator then spun the rotors to his message settings, EIN in this example, and typed the plaintext of the message.

At the receiving end, the operation was reversed. The operator set the machine to the initial settings and typed in the first six letters of the message (XHTLOA). In this example, EINEIN emerged on the lamps. By moving his rotors to EIN, the receiving operator then typed in the rest of the ciphertext, deciphering the message.

The weakness in this indicator scheme came from two factors. First, use of a global ground setting—this was later changed so the operator selected his initial position to encrypt the indicator, and sent the initial position in the clear. The second problem was the repetition of the indicator, which was a serious security

flaw. The message setting was encoded twice, resulting in a relation between first and fourth, second and fifth, and third and sixth character. This security problem enabled the Polish Cipher Bureau to break into the pre-war Enigma system as early as 1932. However, from 1940 on, the Germans changed the procedures to increase the security.

During World War II codebooks were used only to set up the rotors and ring settings. For each message, the operator selected a random start position, let's say WZA, and random message key, perhaps SXT. He moved the rotors to the WZA start position and encoded the message key SXT. Assume the result was UHL. He then set up the message key SXT as the start position and encrypted the message. Next, he transmitted the start position WZA, the encoded message key UHL and then the ciphertext. The receiver set up the start position according the first trigram, WZA and decoded the second trigram, UHL, to obtain the SXT message setting. Next, he used this SXT message setting as the start position to decrypt the message. This way, each ground setting was different and the new procedure avoided the security flaw of double encoded message settings.

This procedure was used by Wehrmacht and Luftwaffe only. The Kriegsmarine procedures on sending messages with the Enigma were far more complex and elaborate. Prior to encryption with the Enigma, the message was encoded using the Kurzsignalheft code book. The Kurzsignalheft contained tables to convert sentences into four-letter groups. A great many choices were included, e.g. logistic matters such as refueling and rendezvous with supply ships, positions and grid lists, harbour names, countries, weapons, weather conditions, enemy positions and ships, date and time tables. Another codebook contained the *Kenngruppen* and *Spruchschlüssel*: the key identification and message key. More details on Kurzsignale on German U-Boats



## Abbreviations and guidelines

The Army Enigma machine only used the 26 alphabet characters. Signs were replaced by rare character combinations. A space was omitted or replaced by an X. The X was generally used as point or full stop. Some signs were different in other parts of the armed forces. The Wehrmacht replaced a comma by ZZ and the question sign by FRAGE or FRAQ. The Kriegsmarine however, replaced the comma by Y and the question sign by UD. The combination CH, as in "Acht" (eight) or "Richtung" (direction) were replaced by Q (AQT, RIQTUNG). Two, three and four zeros were replaced by CENTA, MILLE and MYRIA.

The Wehrmacht and the Luftwaffe transmitted messages in groups of five characters. The Kriegsmarine, using the four rotor Enigma, had four-character groups. Frequently used names or words were to be varied as much as possible. Words like Minensuchboot (minesweeper) could be written as MINENSUCHBOOT, MINBOOT, MMMBOOT or MMM354. To make cryptanalysis harder, more than 250 characters in one message were forbidden. Longer messages were divided in several parts, each using its own message key. For more details see Tony Sale's translations of "General Procedure" and "Officer and Staff procedure".

## History and development of the machine

Far from being a single design, there are numerous models and variants of the Enigma family. The earliest Enigma machines were commercial models dating from the early 1920s. Starting in the mid-1920s, the various branches of the German military began to use Enigma, making a number of changes in order to increase its security. In addition, a number of other nations either adopted or adapted the Enigma design for their own cipher machines.



A selection of seven Enigma machines and paraphernalia exhibited at the USA's National Cryptologic Museum. From left to right, the models are: 1) Commercial Enigma; 2) Enigma T; 3) Enigma G; 4) Unidentified; 5) Luftwaffe (Air Force) Enigma; 6) Heer (Army) Enigma; 7) Kriegsmarine (Naval) Enigma—M4.

## Commercial Enigma

On 23 February 1918 German engineer Arthur Scherbius applied for a patent for a cipher machine using rotors, and, with E. Richard Ritter, founded the firm of Scherbius & Ritter. They approached the German Navy and Foreign Office with their design, but neither was interested. They then assigned the patent rights to Gewerkschaft Securitas, who founded the Chiffriermaschinen Aktien-Gesellschaft (Cipher Machines Stock Corporation) on 9 July 1923; Scherbius and Ritter were on the board of directors.

Chiffriermaschinen AG began advertising a rotor machine—*Enigma model A*—which was exhibited at the Congress of the International Postal Union in 1923 and 1924. The machine was heavy and bulky, incorporating a typewriter. It measured 65×45×35 cm and weighed about 50 kg. A *model B* was introduced, and was of a similar construction. While bearing the Enigma name, both models A and B were quite unlike later versions: they differed in physical size and shape, but also cryptographically, in that they lacked the reflector.

The reflector—an idea suggested by Scherbius's colleague Willi Korn—was first introduced in the *Enigma C* (1926) model. The reflector is a key feature of the Enigma machines.



A rare 8-rotor printing Enigma.

Model C was smaller and more portable than its predecessors. It lacked a typewriter, relying instead on the operator reading the lamps; hence the alternative name of "glowlamp Enigma" to distinguish from models A and B. The Enigma C quickly became extinct, giving way to the *Enigma D* (1927). This version was widely used, with examples going to Sweden, the Netherlands, United Kingdom, Japan, Italy, Spain, United States, and Poland.

## Military Enigma

The Navy was the first branch of the German military to adopt Enigma. This version, named *Funkschlüssel C* (*Radio cipher C*), had been put into production by 1925 and was introduced into service in 1926. The keyboard and lampboard contained 29 letters—A-Z, Ä, Ö and Ü—which were arranged alphabetically, as opposed to the QWERTZU ordering. The rotors had 28 contacts, with the letter x wired to bypass the rotors unencrypted. Three rotors were chosen from a set of five and the reflector could be inserted in one of four different positions, denoted  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$ . The machine was revised slightly in July 1933.

By 15 July 1928, the German Army (*Reichswehr*) had introduced their own version of the Enigma—the *Enigma G*, revised to the *Enigma I* by June 1930. Enigma I is also known as the *Wehrmacht*, or *Services Enigma*, and was used extensively by the German military services and other government organisations (such as the railways), both before and during World War II. The major difference between Enigma I and commercial Enigma models was the addition of a plugboard to swap pairs of letters,

greatly increasing the cryptographic strength of the machine. Other differences included the use of a fixed reflector, and the relocation of the stepping notches from the rotor body to the movable letter rings. The machine measured 28×34×15 cm (11"×13.5"×6") and weighed around 12 kg (26 lbs).

By 1930, the Army had suggested that the Navy adopt their machine, citing the benefits of increased security (with the plugboard) and easier interservice communications. The Navy eventually agreed and in 1934 brought into service the Navy version of the Army Enigma, designated *Funkschlüssel M* or *M3*. While the Army used only three rotors at that time, for greater security the Navy specified a choice of three from a possible five.

In December 1938, the Army issued two extra rotors so that the three rotors were chosen from a set of five. In 1938, the Navy added two more rotors, and then another in 1939 to allow a choice of three rotors from a set of eight. In August 1935, the Air Force also introduced the Wehrmacht Enigma for their communications. A four-rotor Enigma was introduced by the Navy for U-boat traffic on 1 February 1942, called *M4* (the network was known as *Triton*, or *Shark* to the Allies). The extra rotor was fitted in the same space by splitting the reflector into a combination of a thin reflector and a thin fourth rotor.

There was also a large, eight-rotor printing model, the *Enigma II*. During 1933, Polish codebreakers detected that it was in use for high-level military communications, but that it was soon withdrawn from use after it was found to be unreliable and jam frequently.



An Enigma model T (Tirpitz)—a modified commercial Enigma K manufactured for use by the Japanese.



Enigma G, used by the Abwehr, had four rotors, no plugboard, and multiple notches on the rotors.

The Abwehr used the *Enigma G* (the *Abwehr Enigma*). This Enigma variant was a four-wheel unsteckered machine with multiple notches on the rotors. This model was equipped with a counter which incremented upon each key press, and so is also known as the *counter machine* or the *Zählwerk Enigma*.

Other countries also used Enigma machines. The Italian Navy adopted the commercial Enigma as "Navy Cipher D"; the Spanish also used commercial Enigma during their Civil War. British codebreakers succeeded in breaking these machines, which lacked a plugboard. The Swiss used a version of Enigma called *model K* or *Swiss K* for military and diplomatic use, which was very similar to the commercial Enigma D. The machine was broken by a number of parties, including Poland, France, Britain and the United States (the latter codenamed it INDIGO). An *Enigma T* model (codenamed *Tirpitz*) was manufactured for use by the Japanese.

The Enigma wasn't perfect, especially after the Allies got hold of it, thus allowing the Allies to decode the German messages, which proved vital in the Battle of the Atlantic.

It has been estimated that 100,000 Enigma machines were constructed. After the end of the Second World War, the Allies sold captured Enigma machines, still widely considered secure, to a number of developing countries.

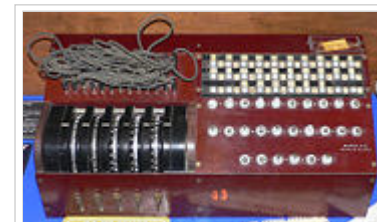


The four-wheel Swiss Enigma K, made in Germany, used re-wired rotors.

## Surviving Enigma machines

The effort to break the Enigma was not disclosed until the 1970s. Since then, interest in the Enigma machine has grown considerably and a number of Enigmas are on public display in museums in the U.S. and Europe. The Deutsches Museum in Munich has both the three and four-wheel German military variants, as well as several older civilian versions. A functional Enigma is on display in the NSA's National Cryptologic Museum at Fort Meade, Maryland, where visitors can try their hand at encrypting messages and deciphering code. The Armémuseum in Stockholm in Sweden currently has an Enigma on display. There are also examples at the Computer History Museum in the United States, at Bletchley Park in the United Kingdom, at the Australian War Memorial, and in foyer of the Defence Signals Directorate, both located at Canberra in Australia, as well as a number of other locations in Germany, the U.S., the UK and elsewhere. The now-defunct San Diego Computer Museum had an Enigma in its collection, which has since been given to the San Diego State University Library. A number are also in private hands. Occasionally, Enigma machines are sold at auction; prices of US\$20,000 are not unusual.

Replicas of the machine are available in various forms, including an exact reconstructed copy of the Naval M4 model, an Enigma implemented in electronics (Enigma-E), various computer software simulators and paper-and-scissors analogues.



U.S. Enigma replica on display at the National Cryptologic Museum in Fort Meade, Maryland, USA.





A rare Abwehr Enigma machine, designated G312, was stolen from the Bletchley Park museum on 1 April 2000. In September, a man identifying himself as "The Master" sent a note demanding £25,000 and threatened to destroy the machine if the ransom was not paid. In early October 2000, Bletchley Park officials announced that they would pay the ransom but the stated deadline passed with no word from the blackmailer. Shortly afterwards the machine was sent anonymously to BBC journalist Jeremy Paxman, but three rotors were missing. In November 2000, an antiques dealer named Dennis Yates was arrested after telephoning *The Sunday Times* to arrange the return of the missing parts. The Enigma machine was returned to Bletchley Park after the incident. In October 2001, Yates was sentenced to ten months in prison after admitting handling the stolen machine and blackmailing Bletchley Park Trust director Christine Large, although he maintained that he was acting as an intermediary for a third party. Yates was released from prison after serving three months.

## Enigma derivatives

The Enigma was influential in the field of cipher machine design, and a number of other rotor machines are derived from it. The British Typex was originally derived from the Enigma patents; Typex even includes features from the patent descriptions that were omitted from the actual Enigma machine. Owing to the need for secrecy about its cipher systems, no royalties were paid for the use of the patents by the British government. A Japanese Enigma clone was codenamed GREEN by American cryptographers. Little used, it contained four rotors mounted vertically. In the U.S., cryptologist William Friedman designed the M-325, a machine similar to Enigma in logical operation, although not in construction.

A unique rotor machine was constructed in 2002 by Netherlands-based Tatjana van Vark. This unusual device was inspired by Enigma but makes use of 40-point rotors, allowing letters, numbers and some punctuation to be used; each rotor contains 509 parts.



A Japanese Enigma clone, codenamed GREEN by American cryptographers.

## Fiction

The play, *Breaking the Code*, by Hugh Whitmore is about the life and death of Alan Turing, who was the central force in breaking the Enigma in Britain during World War II. Turing was played by Derek Jacobi, who also played Turing in a 1996 television adaptation of the play. The television adaptation is generally available (though currently only on VHS). Although it is a drama and thus takes artistic license, it is nonetheless a fundamentally accurate account. It contains a two-minute, stutteringly-nervous speech by Jacobi that comes very close to encapsulating the entire Enigma codebreaking effort.

Robert Harris' 1996 novel *Enigma* is set against the backdrop of World War II Bletchley Park and cryptologists working to read Naval Enigma in Hut 8. The book, with significant changes in the story, was made into the 2001 film, *Enigma*, directed by Michael Apted and starring Kate Winslet and Dougray Scott; the film has been criticized for many historical inaccuracies and neglecting the role of Biuro Szyfrów in breaking the Enigma code. An earlier Polish film dealing with the Polish aspects of the subject was the 1979 *Sekret Enigmy* (The Enigma Secret).

Neal Stephenson's novel *Cryptonomicon* also features World War II military cryptography, including the Enigma and Bletchley Park. It takes considerable historical liberties.



Tatjana van Vark's Enigma-inspired rotor machine.



The 1989 *Doctor Who* story *The Curse of Fenric* features British cryptographers, including a character based on Alan Turing, using a similar device called ULTIMA that is ultimately used to decrypt ancient Viking runes and unleash a plague of vampires.

An interactive fiction game *Jigsaw* by Graham Nelson contains a puzzle in which the player must decrypt a message with a simplified version of the Enigma. The puzzle is generally accepted as the most annoying in the game, which is perhaps some measure of how hard it was to decrypt messages produced by the original machine(s).

Jonathan Mostow's 2000 film *U-571* describes a fictional patrol by American submariners who have hijacked a German submarine to obtain an Enigma machine. The machine used in the film was an authentic Enigma obtained from a collector. The historical liberties taken are large, for the Polish breaks into Enigma (beginning in December 1932) did not require a captured machine, the Royal Navy captured several Enigmas or parts before the U.S. entered the war, and the U.S. capture of a U-boat occurred only days before D-Day in 1944. The film caused considerable protests when it was released in Britain, since it effectively transferred the exploits of the real life HMS *Bulldog* to a fictional American boat.

Friedrich Kittler's 1986 (trans. 1999) *Gramophone, Film, Typewriter* examines the use of the Enigma and similar devices in relation to the Symbolic order of Jacques Lacan.

Wolfgang Petersen's 1981 film *Das Boot* includes an Enigma machine which is evidently a four-rotor Kriegsmarine variant. It appears in many scenes which probably capture well the flavour of day-to-day Enigma use aboard a World War II U-Boat.

*The Beast*, the online puzzle-solving alternate reality game (ARG) created by a team at Microsoft to promote the Steven Spielberg film *A.I.: Artificial Intelligence*, required players to use an online Enigma simulator to solve one of the puzzles.

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# Iraq War

2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: Conflict and Peace; Military History and War; Recent History

The **Iraq War**, also known as the **Second Gulf War**, **Operation Iraqi Freedom**, or the **occupation of Iraq**, is an ongoing conflict which began on March 20, 2003 with the United States-led invasion of Iraq by a multinational coalition composed of U.S. and U.K. troops supported by smaller contingents from Australia, Poland, and other nations.

The rationale for the invasion offered by U.S. President George W. Bush and coalition supporters included the allegation that Iraq possessed and was actively developing weapons of mass destruction (WMD) in violation of a 1991 agreement. U.S. officials argued that Iraq posed an imminent, urgent, and immediate threat to the United States, its people, allies, and interests. The supporting intelligence was widely criticized, and weapons inspectors found no evidence of WMD. After the invasion, the Iraq Survey Group concluded that Iraq had ended its WMD programs in 1991 and had none at the time of the invasion, but that they intended to resume production if and when the Iraq sanctions were lifted. Although some earlier degraded remnants of misplaced or abandoned WMD were found, they were not the weapons for which the coalition invaded. Some U.S. officials claimed Saddam Hussein and al-Qaeda were cooperating, but no evidence of any collaborative relationship has been found. Other reasons for the invasion stated by officials included concerns about Iraq's financial support for the families of Palestinian suicide bombers, Iraqi government human rights abuses, spreading democracy, and Iraq's oil reserves.

The invasion led to the quick defeat of the Iraqi army and flight of President Saddam Hussein, his capture in December, 2003, and his execution in December, 2006. The U.S.-led coalition occupied Iraq and attempted to establish a new democratic government. But shortly after the initial invasion, violence against coalition forces and among various sectarian groups led to asymmetric warfare with the Iraqi insurgency, civil war between many Sunni and Shia Iraqis, and al-Qaeda operations in Iraq. Estimates of the number of people killed range from over 150,000 to more than 1 million. The financial cost of the war has been more than \$491 billion to the U.S., and over £4.5 billion to the UK. Coalition nations have begun to withdraw troops as public opinion favoring troop withdrawal increases and Iraqi forces begin to take responsibility for security.

## 1991–2003: U.N. inspectors and the no-fly zones

Following the 1991 Gulf War, the United Nations Security Council Resolution 687 mandated that Iraqi

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**Iraq War**

Clockwise, starting at top left: a joint patrol in Samarra; the toppling of the Saddam Hussein statue in Firdos Square; an Iraqi Army soldier readies his rifle during an assault; an IED detonates in South Baghdad.

<b>Date</b>	March 20, 2003 – present
<b>Location</b>	Iraq
<b>Status</b>	Conflict ongoing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Occupation of Iraq</li> <li>■ Overthrow of Baath Party government and execution of Saddam Hussein.</li> <li>■ Humanitarian crisis with human rights abuses,</li> </ul>



chemical, biological, nuclear, and long range missile programs be halted and all such weapons destroyed under a United Nations Special Commission control. U.N. weapons inspectors inside Iraq were able to verify the destruction of a large amount of WMD-material, but substantial issues remained unresolved after they left Iraq in 1998 due to current UNSCOM head Richard Butler's belief that U.S. and U.K. military action was imminent. Shortly after the inspectors withdrew, the U.S. and U.K. launched a four-day bombing campaign .

In addition to the inspection regimen, the United States and the United Kingdom (along with France until 1998) engaged in a low-level conflict with Iraq by enforcing northern and southern Iraqi no-fly zones. These zones were created following the Persian Gulf War to protect Iraqi Kurdistan in the north and the southern Shia areas, and were seen by the Iraqi government as an infringement of Iraq's sovereignty. Iraqi air-defense installations and American and British air patrols regularly exchanged fire during this period.

In April 2001, Bush's Cabinet agreed to use military intervention in Iraq, because it was considered a destabilizing influence to the flow of oil to international markets from the Middle East. Neoconservatives in the U.S. called for the sell-off of all of Iraq's oil fields and planned for a *coup d'etat* in long before the September 11th attacks, hoping a new government would use, "Iraq's oil to destroy the OPEC cartel through massive increases in production above OPEC quotas." Those plans were abandoned shortly after the invasion because former Shell Oil Company CEO Philip Carroll, who had been charged with their implementation, refused to be involved with Iraqi oil industry privatization because it could have led to the exclusion of U.S. firms, unlike the state-run oil ministry. U.S. oil industry consultant Falah Aljibury alleges that soon after Bush took office in 2001, he took part in secret meetings in Washington, the Middle East, and California involving an overthrow of the Iraq regime. Aljibury told BBC's *Newsnight* that he, "interviewed potential successors to Saddam Hussein on behalf of the Bush administration."

Approximately a year before Operation Iraqi Freedom, the United States initiated Operation Southern Focus as a change to its response strategy, by increasing the overall number of missions and selecting targets throughout the no-fly zones to disrupt the military command structure in Iraq. The weight of bombs dropped increased from none in March 2002 and 0.3 in April 2002 to between 8 and 14 tons per month in May-August, reaching a pre-war peak of 54.6 tons in September 2002.

## 2001–2003: Iraq disarmament crisis and pre-war intelligence

### U.N. weapons inspections resume











The issue of Iraq's disarmament reached a crisis in 2002-2003, when President George W. Bush demanded

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civilian casualties and refugees

- Iraqi insurgency and outbreak of civil war.
- Widespread infrastructure damage
- Privatisation of Iraqi services
- Election of a democratic government
- Al-Qaeda terror operations in Iraq.

#### Belligerents

	Baathist Iraq		United States
	Baath Party		United Kingdom
	Loyalists		New Iraqi Army
	Mahdi Army		Iraqi Kurdistan
	al-Qaeda in Iraq		Other Coalition forces
	Other Insurgent groups		Awakening Councils
	Kurdistan Workers Party		Turkey

#### Commanders

	Saddam Hussein †		George W. Bush
#	Muqtada al-Sadr		Tommy Franks
	Izzat Ibrahim ad-Douri		Ricardo Sanchez
	Ishmael Jubouri		George Casey
	Abu Musab al-Zarqawi ☠		David Petraeus
			Tony Blair
			Gordon Brown
			Brian Burridge



a complete end to alleged Iraqi production of weapons of mass destruction and full compliance with UN Resolutions requiring UN weapons inspectors unfettered access to suspected weapons production facilities. Previously, the UN had prohibited Iraq from developing or possessing such weapons since the 1991 Gulf War and required Iraq to permit inspections confirming Iraqi compliance.

During 2002, Bush repeatedly backed demands for unfettered inspection and disarmament with threats of military force. In accordance with UN Security Council Resolution 1441 Iraq reluctantly agreed to new inspections in late 2002. The results of these inspections were mixed with no discovery of WMDs and skepticism of Iraqi WMD program declarations.

## Alleged weapons of mass destruction

In the initial stages of the war on terror, the Central Intelligence Agency, under George Tenet, was rising to prominence as the lead agency in the Afghanistan war. But when Tenet insisted in his personal meetings with President Bush that there was no connection between Al Qaeda and Iraq, V.P. Dick Cheney and Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld initiated a secret program to re-examine the evidence and marginalize the CIA and Tenet. The questionable intelligence acquired by this secret program was "stovepiped" to the Vice President and presented to the public. In some cases, Cheney's office would leak the intelligence to reporters, where it would be reported by outlets such as *The New York Times*. Cheney would subsequently appear on the Sunday political television talk shows to discuss the intelligence, referencing *The New York Times* as the source to give it credence.



Ambassador Joseph C. Wilson

In late February 2002, the CIA sent former Ambassador Joseph Wilson to investigate dubious claims about Iraq's attempted purchase of yellowcake uranium from Niger. Wilson returned and informed the CIA that reports of yellowcake sales to Iraq were "unequivocally wrong." However, the Bush administration continued to allege attempts to obtain yellowcake as justification for military action - most prominently in the January, 2003, State of the Union when President Bush said that Iraq had sought uranium, citing British intelligence sources. In response, Wilson wrote a critical *The New York Times* op-ed in June 2003 saying that he had personally investigated claims of yellowcake purchases and believed them to be

fraudulent. Wilson's report did not clarify the matter for analysts, but they found it interesting that the former Nigerien Prime Minister said an Iraqi delegation had visited Niger for what he believed was to discuss uranium sales. Shortly after Wilson's op-ed, the identity of Wilson's wife, undercover CIA analyst Valerie Plame, was revealed in a column by Robert Novak. Since it is a felony to reveal the identity of a

Abu Ayyub al-Masri	Nouri al-Maliki
Murat Karayılan	Yaşar Büyükanıt
<b>Strength</b>	
<b>Iraqi</b> (under Saddam Hussein): 375,000+ regular forces.	<b>Coalition</b> ~300,000 invasion ~177,000 current
Post-Baathist government, multi-sided conflict:	<b>Contractors</b> ~182,000 (118,000 Iraqi, 43,000 Other, 21,000 US)
<b>Sunni Insurgents</b> ~70,000	<b>Kurdish Army</b> 50,000 invasion 175,000 current
<b>Mahdi Army</b> ~60,000	<b>New Iraqi Army</b> 165,000
<b>al Qaeda/others</b> 1,300+	<b>Iraqi Police</b> 227,000 Awakening Council militias 65,000-80,000
<b>Casualties and losses</b>	
<b>Iraqi combatant dead</b> (invasion period): 7,600-10,800	<b>Iraqi Security Forces</b> (post-Saddam, Coalition allies) Police/military killed: 9,685 <i>See: Casualties of the Iraq War</i>
<b>Insurgents dead</b> (post-Saddam): 15,947-21,776 per these reports. 19,429 per U.S. military ( 26 September 2007)	<b>Coalition dead</b> (3,945 US, 173 UK, 133 other): 4,251
<b>Detainees (Coalition-held):</b> 23,000	<b>Coalition missing or captured</b> (US): 4



CIA agent Novak's column launched an investigation by the Justice Department into the source of the leak. In March, 2007, Dick Cheney's Chief of Staff I. Lewis 'Scooter' Libby was convicted of perjury in the Plame leak investigation. The source of the leak was found to be Richard Armitage. He was never charged.

A British government memo was published in *The Sunday Times* on May 1, 2005. Known as the "Downing Street memo," it contains an overview of a secret July 23, 2002 meeting among United Kingdom Labour government, defense and intelligence figures, discussing the build-up to the Iraq war—including direct reference to classified U.S. policy of the time. The memo states, "Bush wanted to remove Saddam, through military action, justified by the conjunction of terrorism and WMD. But the intelligence and facts were being fixed around the policy."

On September 18, 2002, George Tenet briefed Bush that Saddam Hussein did not have weapons of mass destruction. Bush dismissed this top-secret intelligence from Saddam's inner circle which was approved by two senior CIA officers, but it turned out to be completely accurate. The information was never shared with Congress or even CIA agents examining whether Saddam had such weapons. The CIA had contacted Saddam Hussein's foreign minister, Naji Sabri, who was being paid by France as a spy. He informed them that Saddam had ambitions for a nuclear program but that it was not active, and that no biological weapons were being produced or stockpiled, although research was underway. The U.S. obtained three subsequent human intelligence reports indicating that Saddam had authorized the use of chemical weapons in the event of war.

In September 2002, the Bush administration said attempts by Iraq to acquire thousands of high-strength aluminium tubes pointed to a clandestine program to make enriched uranium for nuclear bombs. Iraq was not permitted to import such tubes under the U.N. monitoring plan. This view was supported by the CIA and DIA but opposed by the Department of Energy (DOE) and INR which was significant because the DOE was the only department in the United States government that had expertise in gas centrifuges and nuclear weapons programs. All agencies believed the tubes could be used in a centrifuge program but the latter two argued that they were poorly suited to do so. An effort by the DOE to change Powell's comments before his UN appearance was rebuffed by the administration. Indeed, Colin Powell, in his address to the U.N. Security Council just prior to the war, made reference to the aluminium tubes. But a report released by the Institute for Science and International Security in 2002 reported that it was highly unlikely that the tubes could be used to enrich uranium. Powell later admitted he had presented an inaccurate case to the United Nations on Iraqi weapons, and the intelligence he was relying on was, in some cases, "deliberately misleading."

Between September, 2002 and June, 2003, Deputy Secretary of Defense Paul Wolfowitz created a

**Detainees (Iraqi Security Forces-held):**  
37,000

**Coalition wounded:**  
28,530 US, ~300 UK

**Coalition injured, diseased, or other medical:\*\***28,645 US, 1,155 UK.

**Contractors dead (US 235):** 1,015

**Contractors missing or captured (US 9):** 17

**Contractors wounded & injured:** 10,569

**Awakening Councils:**  
200+ killed

**All Iraqi violent deaths, Opinion Research Business.** As of August 2007: **1,033,000** (946,000-1,120,000). Causes; gunshots (48%), car bombs (20%), aerial bombing (9%), accidents (6%), another blast/ordnance (6%).

**\*\*\*Total deaths (all excess deaths) Johns Hopkins (Lancet) -** As of June 2006: **654,965** (392,979-942,636). 601,027 violent deaths (31% by Coalition, 24% by others, 46% unknown)

**All Iraqi violent deaths. Iraqi Health Ministry casualty survey for the World Health Organization.** As of June 2006: **151,000** (104,000 to 223,000).

\* Contractors (U.S. government) perform "highly dangerous duties almost identical to those performed by many U.S.



Pentagon unit known as the Office of Special Plans (OSP), headed by Douglas Feith. It was created to supply senior Bush administration officials with raw intelligence pertaining to Iraq, unvetted by intelligence analysts, and circumventing traditional intelligence gathering operations by the CIA. One former CIA officer described the OSP as dangerous for U.S. national security and a threat to world peace, and that it lied and manipulated intelligence to further its agenda of removing Saddam Hussein. He described it as a group of ideologues with pre-determined notions of truth and reality, taking bits of intelligence to support their agenda and ignoring anything contrary. Subsequently, in 2008, the nonpartisan Centre for Public Integrity has enumerated a total of 935 false statements made by George Bush and six other top members of his administration in a carefully launched campaign of misinformation, during the two year period following 9-11, in order to rally support for the invasion of Iraq.

### Authorization for the use of force

In October, 2002, a few days before the U.S. Senate vote on the Joint Resolution to Authorize the Use of United States Armed Forces Against Iraq, about 75 senators were told in closed session that Saddam Hussein had the means of attacking the U.S. eastern seaboard with biological or chemical weapons delivered by unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs). On February 5, 2003, Colin Powell presented further evidence in his Iraqi WMD program presentation to the Security Council that UAVs were ready to be launched against the U.S. At the time, there was a vigorous dispute within the intelligence community as to whether CIA conclusions about Iraqi UAVs were accurate. The U.S. Air Force agency most familiar with UAVs, the State Department's Bureau of Intelligence and Research, and the Defense Intelligence Agency denied that Iraq possessed any offensive UAV capability, saying the few they had were designed and intended for surveillance. A majority of the U.S. intelligence committee agreed that the Iraqi UAVs were used only for reconnaissance. In fact, Iraq's UAV fleet was never deployed and consisted of a handful of outdated 24.5-foot (7.5 m) wingspan drones with no room for more than a camera and video recorder, and no offensive capability. Despite this controversy, the Senate voted to approve the Joint Resolution on 11 October 2002 providing the Bush Administration with the legal basis for the U.S. invasion.

U.N. weapons inspector chief Hans Blix remarked in January 2003 that "Iraq appears not to have come to a genuine acceptance – not even today – of the disarmament, which was demanded of it and which it needs to carry out to win the confidence of the world and to live in peace." Among other things he noted that 1,000 tons of chemical agent were unaccounted for, information on Iraq's VX nerve agent program was missing, and that "no convincing evidence" was presented for the destruction of 8,500 liters of anthrax that had been declared. But in March, Blix said no evidence of WMDs had been found, and progress had been made in inspections.

In early 2003, the United States, United Kingdom, and Spain proposed the so-called "eighteenth resolution" to give Iraq a deadline for compliance with previous resolutions enforced by the threat of military action. This proposed resolution was subsequently withdrawn for lack of support on the U.N. Security Council. In particular, NATO members France and Germany, together with Russia, were opposed to military intervention in Iraq due to the high level of risk to the international community's security and defended disarmament through diplomacy.

troops."

\*\* "injured, diseased, or other medical" - required medical air transport. UK number includes wounded ("aeromed evacuations").

\*\*\***Total deaths** include all additional deaths due to increased lawlessness, degraded infrastructure, poorer healthcare, etc.

For more on casualty estimates, see: Casualties of the Iraq War



Colin Powell holding a model vial of anthrax while giving a presentation to the United Nations Security Council



## Opposition to invasion

On January 20, 2003, French Foreign Minister Dominique de Villepin declared. "we believe that military intervention would be the worst solution". Meanwhile anti-war groups across the world organised public protests. According to the French academic Dominique Reynié between the 3rd of January and 12th of April 2003, 36 million people across the globe took part in almost 3,000 protests against war in Iraq, the demonstrations on February 15 2003 being the largest and most prolific.

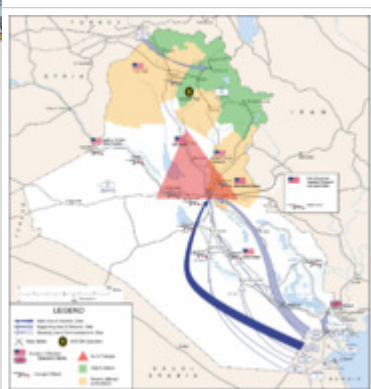
In March 2003, UN weapons inspector Hans Blix reported that, "No evidence of proscribed activities have so far been found," in Iraq, saying that progress was made in inspections which would continue. But the U.S. government announced that "diplomacy has failed" and that it would proceed with a coalition of allied countries, named the "coalition of the willing", to rid Iraq of its alleged weapons of mass destruction. The U.S. government abruptly advised U.N. weapons inspectors to immediately pull out of Baghdad.

There are also serious legal questions surrounding the conduct of the war in Iraq and the Bush Doctrine of preemptive war. On September 16, 2004 Kofi Annan, the Secretary General of the United Nations, said of the invasion, "I have indicated it was not in conformity with the UN charter. From our point of view, from the charter point of view, it was illegal."

## 2003: Invasion

The 2003 invasion of Iraq, led by General Tommy Franks, began on March 20, under the U.S. codename "Operation Iraqi Freedom", the UK codename Operation Telic, and the Australian codename Operation Catalyst. Coalition forces also cooperated with Kurdish peshmerga forces in the north. Approximately forty other nations, the "coalition of the willing," participated by providing equipment, services, security, and special forces. The initial coalition military forces were roughly 300,000, of which 98% were U.S. and UK troops.





Map of major operations and battles of the Iraq War as of 2007

The Iraqi Army was quickly overwhelmed with only the elite Fedayeen Saddam putting up strong resistance before melting away into the civilian population. On April 9 Baghdad fell, ending Saddam's 24-year rule. U.S. forces seized the deserted Baath Party ministries and helped tear down a huge iron statue of Saddam, photos and video of which became symbolic of the event. The abrupt fall of Baghdad was accompanied by massive civil disorder, including looting of government buildings and drastically increased crime. The invasion phase concluded when Tikrit, Saddam's home town, fell with little resistance to the Marines of Task Force Tripoli and on April 15 the coalition declared the invasion effectively over.

In the invasion phase of the war (March 20-April 30), 9,200 Iraqi combatants were killed along with 7,299 civilians, primarily by US air and ground forces. Coalition forces reported the death in combat of 139 U.S. military personnel and 33 UK military personnel.

### **Coalition Provisional Authority and Iraq Survey Group**

Shortly after the invasion, the multinational coalition created the Coalition Provisional Authority (CPA) سلطة الائتلاف الموحدة, based in the Green Zone, as a transitional government of Iraq until the establishment of a democratic government. Citing

United Nations Security Council Resolution 1483 (22 May 2003) and the laws of war, the CPA vested itself with executive, legislative, and judicial authority over the Iraqi government from the period of the CPA's inception on April 21, 2003, until its dissolution on June 28, 2004.

The CPA was originally headed by Jay Garner, a former U.S. military officer, but his appointment lasted only until May 11, 2003. After Garner resigned, President Bush appointed L. Paul Bremer as the head the CPA and he served until the CPA's dissolution in July 2004. Another group created in the spring of 2003 was the Iraq Survey Group (ISG; its final report is commonly called the Duelfer Report.). This was a fact-finding mission sent by the multinational force in Iraq after the 2003 Invasion of Iraq to find weapons of mass destruction (WMD) programmes developed by Iraq. It consisted of a 1,400-member international team organised by the Pentagon and CIA to hunt for suspected stockpiles of WMD, such as chemical and biological agents, and any supporting research programmes and infrastructure that could be used to develop WMD. In 2004 the ISG's Duelfer report stated that Iraq did not have a viable WMD program.

### **Post-invasion phase**



On May 1, 2003, President Bush staged a dramatic visit to the aircraft carrier USS *Abraham Lincoln* operating a few miles west of San Diego, California on its way home from a long deployment which had included service in the Persian Gulf. The visit climaxed at sunset with Bush's now well-known "Mission Accomplished" speech. In this nationally-televised speech, delivered before the sailors and airmen on the flight deck, Bush effectively declared victory due to the defeat of Iraq's conventional forces. However, Saddam Hussein remained at large and significant pockets of resistance remained.

After President Bush's speech, coalition forces noticed a gradually increasing flurry of attacks on its troops in various regions, especially in the "Sunni Triangle". In the initial chaos after the fall of the Iraqi government, there was massive looting of infrastructure, including government buildings, official residences, museums, banks, and military depots. According to The Pentagon, 250,000 tons (of 650,000 tons total) of ordnance was looted, providing a significant source of ammunition for the Iraqi insurgency. The insurgents were further helped by hundreds of weapons caches created prior to the invasion by the conventional Iraqi army and Republican Guard.



The USS *Abraham Lincoln* returning to port carrying its *Mission Accomplished* banner



May 18, 2004: Staff Sgt. Kevin Jessen checks the underside of two anti-tank mines found in a village outside Ad Dujayl, Iraq in the Sunni Triangle.

Initially, Iraqi resistance (known to the coalition as "Anti-Iraqi Forces") largely stemmed from fedayeen and Saddam/ Baath Party loyalists, but soon religious radicals and Iraqis angered by the occupation contributed to the insurgency. The three provinces with the highest number of attacks were Baghdad, Al Anbar, and Salah Ad Din. Those three provinces account for 35% of the population, but are responsible for 73% of U.S. military deaths (as of December 5, 2006), and an even higher percentage of recent U.S. military deaths (about 80%). Insurgents use guerrilla tactics including; mortars, missiles, suicide attacks, snipers, improvised explosive devices (IEDs), car bombs, small arms fire (usually with assault rifles), and RPGs (rocket propelled grenades), as well as sabotage against the oil, water, and electrical infrastructure.

Post-invasion Iraq coalition efforts commenced after the fall of the Hussein regime. The coalition nations, together with the United Nations, began to work to establish a stable democratic state capable of defending itself, holding itself together as well as overcoming insurgent attacks and internal divisions.

Meanwhile, coalition military forces launched several operations around the Tigris River peninsula and in the Sunni Triangle. A series of similar operations were launched throughout the summer in the Sunni Triangle. Toward the end of 2003, the intensity and pace of insurgent attacks began to increase. A sharp surge in guerrilla attacks ushered in an insurgent effort that was termed the "Ramadan Offensive", as it coincided with the beginning of the Muslim holy month of Ramadan. To counter this offensive, coalition forces begin to use air power and artillery again for the first time since the end of the invasion by striking suspected ambush sites and mortar launching positions. Surveillance of major routes, patrols, and raids on suspected insurgents were stepped up. In addition, two villages, including Saddam's birthplace of al-Auja and the small town of Abu Hishma were wrapped in barbed wire and carefully monitored.

However, the failure to restore basic services to pre-war levels, where over a decade of sanctions, bombing, corruption, and decaying infrastructure had left major cities barely functioning, contributed to local anger at the IPA government headed by an executive council. On July 2, 2003, President Bush declared that American troops would remain in Iraq in spite of the attacks, challenging the insurgents with "My answer is, bring 'em on," a widely criticized line which Bush later expressed misgivings about. In the summer of 2003, the multinational forces also focused on hunting down the remaining leaders of the former regime. On



July 22, a raid by the U.S. 101st Airborne Division and soldiers from Task Force 20 killed Saddam Hussein's sons ( Uday and Qusay) along with one of his grandsons. In all, over 300 top leaders of the former regime were killed or captured, as well as numerous lesser functionaries and military personnel.

## Saddam Hussein captured

In the wave of intelligence information fueling the raids on remaining Baath Party members connected to insurgency, Saddam Hussein himself was captured on December 13, 2003 on a farm near Tikrit in Operation Red Dawn. The operation was conducted by the United States Army's 4th Infantry Division and members of Task Force 121.

With the capture of Saddam and a drop in the number of insurgent attacks, some concluded the multinational forces were prevailing in the fight against the insurgency. The provisional government began training the New Iraqi Security forces intended to defend the country, and the United States promised over \$20 billion in reconstruction money in the form of credit against Iraq's future oil revenues. Oil revenue was also used for rebuilding schools and for work on the electrical and refining infrastructure.

Shortly after the capture of Saddam, elements left out of the Coalition Provisional Authority began to agitate for elections and the formation of an Iraqi Interim Government. Most prominent among these was the Shia cleric Grand Ayatollah Ali al-Sistani. The Coalition Provisional Authority opposed allowing democratic elections at this time, preferring instead to eventually hand-over power to the Interim Iraqi Government. Due to the internal fight for power in the new Iraqi government more insurgents stepped up their activities. The two most turbulent centers were the area around Fallujah and the poor Shia sections of cities from Baghdad ( Sadr City) to Basra in the south.



Saddam Hussein shortly after capture

## 2004: The insurgency expands

*See also: Military operations of the Iraq War for a list of all Coalition operations for this period, 2004 in Iraq, Iraqi coalition counter-insurgency operations, History of Iraqi insurgency, United States occupation of Fallujah, Iraq Spring Fighting of 2004*

The start of 2004 was marked by a relative lull in violence. Insurgent forces reorganised during this time, studying the multinational forces' tactics and planning a renewed offensive. However, violence did increase during the Iraq Spring Fighting of 2004 with foreign fighters from around the Middle East as well as al-Qaeda in Iraq (an affiliated al-Qaeda group), led by Abu Musab al-Zarqawi helping to drive the insurgency.

As the insurgency grew there was a distinct change in targeting from the coalition forces towards the new Iraqi Security Forces, as hundreds of Iraqi civilians and police were killed over the next few months in a series of massive bombings. An organized Sunni insurgency, with deep roots and both nationalist and Islamist motivations, was becoming more powerful throughout Iraq. The Shia Mahdi Army also began launching attacks on coalition targets in an attempt to seize control from Iraqi security forces. The southern and central portions of Iraq were beginning to erupt in urban guerrilla combat as multinational forces attempted to keep control and prepared for a counteroffensive.



Coalition Provisional Authority director L. Paul Bremer signs over sovereignty to the appointed Iraqi Interim Government, June 28, 2004.

The most serious fighting of the war so far began on March 31, 2004, when Iraqi insurgents in Fallujah ambushed a Blackwater USA convoy led by four American private military contractors who were providing security for food caterers Eurest Support Services. The four armed contractors, Scott Helvenston, Jerko Zovko, Wesley Batalona, and Michael Teague, were killed with grenades and small arms fire. Subsequently, their bodies were dragged from their vehicles, beaten, set ablaze, and their burned corpses hung over a bridge crossing the Euphrates. Photos of the event were released to news agencies worldwide, causing a great deal of indignation and moral outrage in the United States, and prompting an unsuccessful "pacification" of the city: the First Battle of Fallujah in April 2004.

The offensive was resumed in November, 2004 in the bloodiest battle of the war so far: the Second Battle of Fallujah, described by the U.S. military as "the heaviest urban combat (that they had been involved in) since the battle of Hue City in Vietnam." Intelligence briefings given prior to battle reported that Coalition forces would encounter Chechnyan, Filipino, Saudi, Iranian, Italian, and Syrian combatants, as well as native Iraqis. During the assault, U.S. forces used white phosphorus as an incendiary weapon against insurgent personnel, attracting controversy. The 10-day battle resulted in a victory for the

coalition, with 54 Americans killed and approximately 1000 insurgents. Fallujah was totally devastated during the fighting, though civilian casualties were low, as they had mostly been evacuated before the fight.

Another major event of this year was the revelation of prisoner abuse at Abu Ghraib which received international media attention in April 2004. First reports of the abuse, as well as graphic pictures showing American military personnel taunting and abusing Iraqi prisoners, came to public attention from a *60 Minutes II* news report ( April 28) and a Seymour M. Hersh article in the *The New Yorker* (posted online on April 30). Thomas Ricks, an author who has studied the war, claimed that these revelations dealt a blow to the moral justifications for the occupation in the eyes of some Iraqis and was a turning point in the war.

## 2005: Elections and transitional government

On January 31, Iraqis elected the Iraqi Transitional Government in order to draft a permanent constitution. Although some violence and widespread Sunni boycott marred the event, most of the eligible Kurd and Shia populace participated. On February 4, Paul Wolfowitz announced that 15,000 U.S. troops whose tours of duty had been extended in order to provide election security would be pulled out of Iraq by the next month. February to April proved to be relatively peaceful months compared to the carnage of November and January, with insurgent attacks averaging 30 a day from the prior average of 70.



Hopes for a quick end to an insurgency and a withdrawal of U.S. troops were dashed in May, Iraq's bloodiest month since the invasion. Suicide bombers, believed to be mainly disheartened Iraqi Sunni Arabs, Syrians and Saudis, tore through Iraq. Their targets were often Shia gatherings or civilian concentrations mainly of Shias. As a result, over 700 Iraqi civilians died in that month, as well as 79 U.S. soldiers.

The summer of 2005 saw fighting around Baghdad and at Tall Afar in northwestern Iraq as US forces tried to seal off the Syrian border. This led to fighting in the autumn in the small towns of the Euphrates valley between the capital and the that border .

A constitutional referendum was held in October and a national assembly was elected in December .

Insurgent attacks increased in 2005 with 34,131 recorded incidents, compared to a total 26,496 for the previous year .

## 2006: Civil war and permanent Iraqi government

The beginning of 2006 was marked by government creation talks, growing sectarian violence, and continuous anti-coalition attacks. Sectarian violence expanded to a new level of intensity following the al-Askari Mosque bombing in the Iraqi city of Samarra, on February 22, 2006. The explosion at the mosque, one of the holiest sites in Shi'a Islam, is believed to have been caused by a bomb planted by Al-Qaeda in Iraq. Although no injuries occurred in the blast, the mosque was severely damaged and the bombing resulted in violence over the following days. Over 100 dead bodies with bullet holes were found on February 23, and at least 165 people are thought to have been killed. In the aftermath of this attack the US military calculated that the average homicide rate in Baghdad tripled from 11 to 33 deaths per day. The United Nations has since described the environment in Iraq as a "civil war-like situation." A 2006 study by the Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health has estimated that more than 601,000 Iraqis have died in violence since the U.S. invasion and that fewer than one third of these deaths came at the hands of Coalition forces. The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and the Iraqi government estimate that more than 365,000 Iraqis have been displaced since the bombing of the al-Askari Mosque, bringing the total number of Iraqi refugees to more than 1.6 million.

The current government of Iraq took office on May 20, 2006 following approval by the members of the Iraqi National Assembly. This followed the general election in December 2005. The government succeeded the Iraqi Transitional Government which had continued in office in a caretaker capacity until the formation of the permanent government.

### Increased sectarian violence

In September 2006, *The Washington Post* reported that the commander of the Marine forces in Iraq filed "an unusual secret report" concluding that the prospects for securing the Anbar province are dim, and that there is almost nothing the U.S. military can do to improve the political and social situation there.

Iraq was listed fourth on the 2006 Failed States Index compiled by the American *Foreign Policy* magazine and the Fund for Peace think-tank. The list was topped by Sudan.



Saddam Hussein at his appearance before the Iraqi Special Tribunal on July 1, 2004; he went on trial in Baghdad for crimes against humanity on October 19, 2005



As of October 20 the U.S military announced that Operation Together Forward had failed to stem the tide of violence in Baghdad, and Shiite militants under al-Sadr seized several southern Iraq cities.

## **U.S. congressional elections and expanding violence**

On November 7, 2006, United States midterm elections removed the Republican Party from control of both chambers of the United States Congress. The failings in the Iraq War were cited as one of the main causes of the Republicans' defeat, even though the Bush administration had attempted to distance itself from its earlier "stay the course" rhetoric.

On November 23, the deadliest attack since the beginning of the Iraq war occurred. Suspected Sunni-Arab militants used five suicide car bombs and two mortar rounds on the capital's Shiite Sadr City slum to kill at least 215 people and wound 257. Shiite mortar teams quickly retaliated, firing 10 shells at Sunni Islam's most important shrine in Baghdad, badly damaging the Abu Hanifa mosque and killing one person. Eight more rounds slammed down near the offices of the Association of Muslim Scholars, the top Sunni Muslim organisation in Iraq, setting nearby houses on fire. Two other mortar barrages on Sunni neighborhoods in west Baghdad killed nine and wounded 21, police said.

On November 28, another Marine Corps intelligence report was released confirming the previous report on Anbar stating that, "U.S. and Iraqi troops 'are no longer capable of militarily defeating the insurgency in al-Anbar,' and 'nearly all government institutions from the village to provincial levels have disintegrated or have been thoroughly corrupted and infiltrated by Al Qaeda in Iraq.'"

## **Iraq Study Group report and Saddam's execution**

The Iraq Study Group Report was released on December 6, 2006. The bipartisan Iraq Study Group was led by former secretary of state James Baker and former Democratic congressman Lee Hamilton, and concludes that "the situation in Iraq is grave and deteriorating" and "U.S. forces seem to be caught in a mission that has no foreseeable end." The report's 79 recommendations include increasing diplomatic measures with Iran and Syria and intensifying efforts to train Iraqi troops. On December 18, a Pentagon report found that attacks on Americans and Iraqis were averaging about 960 a week, the highest since the reports had begun in 2005.

Coalition forces formally transferred control of a province to the Iraqi government, the first since the war. Military prosecutors charged 8 Marines with the deaths of 24 Iraqi civilians in Haditha in November 2005, 10 of them women and children. Four officers were also charged with dereliction of duty in relation to the event.

Saddam Hussein was hanged on December 30, 2006 after being found guilty of crimes against humanity by an Iraqi court, after a year-long trial.

## **2007: U.S. troop surge**

In a January 10, 2007 televised address to the American public, Bush proposed 21,500 more troops for Iraq, a job programme for Iraqis, more reconstruction

<http://cd3wd.com> [wikipedia-for-schools](http://wikipedia-for-schools) <http://gutenberg.org> page no: 206 of 307



proposals, and \$1.2 billion for these programmes. Asked why he thought his plan would work this time, Bush said: "Because it has to." On January 23, 2007 in the 2007 State of the Union Address, Bush announced "deploying reinforcements of more than 20,000 additional soldiers and Marines to Iraq." On February 10, 2007 David Petraeus was made commander of Multi-National Force - Iraq (MNF-I), the four-star post that oversees all U.S. forces in the country, replacing General George Casey. In his new position, Petraeus has overseen all coalition forces in Iraq and employed them in the new "Surge" strategy outlined by the Bush administration. . 2007 also saw a sharp increase in insurgent chlorine bombings.

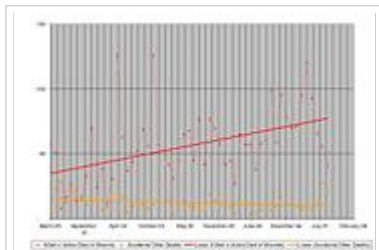


Chart summarizing Department of Defense data regarding U.S. military personnel that were killed in action or died of their wounds (red line) and that were killed as a result of an accident or for "other" reasons (orange line).

However, maintaining higher troop levels in the face of higher casualties required two changes in the army. Tours of duty were increased and the exclusions of volunteers with a history of criminal acts were relaxed. A defense department sponsored report described increased length of tours leading to higher stress which increase manifestations of anger and disrespect for civilians. Statistics released in April indicated that more and more soldiers have been deserting their duty, a sharp rise from the years before.

Pressures on U.S. troops were compounded by the continuing withdrawal of British forces from the Basra Governorate. In early 2007, British Prime Minister Tony Blair announced that following Operation Sinbad UK troops would begin to withdraw from Basra, handing security over to the Iraqis. This announcement was confirmed in the Autumn by Prime Minister Gordon Brown, Blair's successor, who again outlined a withdrawal plan for the remaining UK forces with a complete withdrawal date sometime in late 2008. In July Danish Prime Minister Anders Fogh Rasmussen also announced the withdrawal of 441 Danish troops from Iraq, leaving only a unit of nine soldiers manning four observational helicopters.



British Land Rover Wolfs on patrol around Basra

### Planned troop reduction

In a speech made to Congress on September 10, 2007, General David Petraeus "envisioned the withdrawal of roughly 30,000 U.S. troops by next summer, beginning with a Marine contingent [in September]." On September 14, President Bush backed a limited withdrawal of troops from Iraq. Bush said 5,700 personnel would be home by Christmas 2007, and expected thousands more to return by July 2008. The plan would take troop numbers back to their level before the surge at the beginning of 2007. Some controversy has arisen due to the fact that former secretary of state Colin Powell announced before the surge took place that there would have to be a draw down of troops by mid-2007.

### Effects of the surge on security



U.S. soldiers take cover during a firefight with insurgents in the Al Doura section of Baghdad March 7, 2007

By mid-March 2007, violence in Baghdad was reported by US sources close to the military as having been curtailed by 80%; however, independent reports have raised questions about such assessments. An Iraqi military spokesman claims that civilian deaths since the start of the troop surge plan were 265 in Baghdad, down from 1,440 in the four previous weeks. The *New York Times* has found more than 450 Iraqi civilians were killed during the same 28-day period, based on initial daily reports from Interior Ministry and hospital officials. Historically, the daily counts tallied by the *NYT* have underestimated the total death toll by 50% or more when compared to studies by the United Nations, which rely upon figures from the Iraqi Health Ministry and morgue figures.

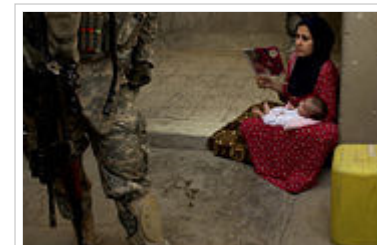
Also, the rate of American combat deaths in Baghdad over the first seven weeks of the "surge" security escalation has nearly doubled from the previous period to a rate of 3.14/day.

Despite a massive security crackdown in Baghdad associated with the surge in coalition troop strength, the monthly death toll in Iraq rose 15% in March. 1,869 Iraqi civilians were killed and 2,719 were wounded in March, compared to 1,646 killed and 2,701 wounded in February. In March, 165 Iraqi policemen were killed against 131 the previous month, while 44 Iraqi soldiers died compared to 29 in February. US military deaths in March were nearly double those of the Iraqi army, despite US claims that Iraqi forces led the security crackdown in Baghdad. The death toll among insurgent militants fell to 481 in March, compared to 586 killed in February; however, the number of arrests jumped to 5,664 in March against 1,921 in February.

Three months after the start of the surge, troops controlled less than a third of the capital, far short of the initial goal, according to an internal military assessment completed in May 2007. Violence was especially chronic in mixed Shiite-Sunni neighborhoods in western Baghdad. Improvements had not yet been widespread or lasting across Baghdad.

On August 14, 2007 the deadliest single attack of the whole war occurred. Over 500 civilians were killed by a series of co-ordinated suicide bomb attacks on the northern Iraqi settlement of Qahtaniya. More than 100 homes and shops were destroyed in the blasts. US officials blamed al-Qaeda in Iraq. The targeted villagers belong to the non-Muslim Yazidi ethnic minority. The attack may represent the latest spasm in a blood feud that erupted earlier this year when members of the Yazidi community stoned to death a teenage girl called Du'a Khalil Aswad accused of dating a Sunni Arab man and converting to Islam. The killing of the girl was recorded on camera-mobiles and the video was downloaded onto the internet

On September 13, Abdul Sattar Abu Risha was killed in a bomb attack in the city of Ramadi. He was an important US ally because he led the "Anbar Awakening", an alliance of Sunni Arab tribes that rose up against al-Qaeda in Iraq. The latter organisation claimed responsibility for the attack. A statement posted on the Internet by the shadowy Islamic State of Iraq called Abu Risha "one of the dogs of Bush" and described Thursday's killing as a "heroic operation that took over a month to prepare".



An Iraqi woman looks on as U.S. soldiers search her house in Ameriyah, Iraq. House searches by U.S. soldiers are a common occurrence in the Iraq war.





Graph of US Fatalities in Iraq by month. The reported decline in violence has been highlighted in red.

There has been a reported trend of decreasing US troop deaths since May of 2007, and violence against coalition troops has fallen to the "lowest levels since the first year of the American invasion". These, and several other positive developments, have been attributed to the surge by many analysts. However, there is anecdotal evidence that a trend by troops to conduct "search and avoid" missions in place of "search and destroy" may also be playing a small part. Data from the Pentagon and other US agencies such as the Government Accountability Office (GAO) found that daily attacks against civilians in Iraq have remained "about the same" since February. The GAO also stated that there was no discernible trend in sectarian violence. However, this report runs counter to the most recent report to Congress, which shows a general downward trend in civilian deaths and ethno-sectarian violence since December 2006. In late 2007, as the U.S. troop surge began to wind down, violence in Iraq had begun to decrease from its 2006 highs. However, political progress remained slow as the Shia-Kurd coalition government continued to stall on any significant progress on the host of issues facing Iraq.

In the Shia region near Basra, British forces turned over security for the region to Iraqi Security Forces as conditions there have stabilized over recent months. Basra is the ninth province of Iraq's 18 provinces to be returned to local security forces' control since the beginning of the war.

## Political developments

More than half of the members of Iraq's parliament rejected the continuing occupation of their country for the first time. 144 of the 275 lawmakers signed onto a legislative petition that would require the Iraqi government to seek approval from parliament before it requests an extension of the U.N. mandate for foreign forces to be in Iraq expiring at the end of 2007. It also calls for a timetable for the troop withdrawal and a freeze on the size of the foreign forces. The U.N. Security Council mandate for U.S.-led forces in Iraq will terminate "if requested by the government of Iraq." Under Iraqi law, the speaker must present a resolution called for by a majority of lawmakers. 59% of those polled in the U.S. support a timetable for withdrawal.

In mid-2007, the Coalition began a controversial program to recruit Iraqi Sunnis for the formation of "Guardian" militias. These Guardian militias are intended to support and secure various Sunni neighborhoods unable to provide internal security themselves.

## Tensions with Iran

During 2007, tensions increased greatly between Iran and Iraqi Kurdistan due to its sanctuary given to the militant anti-Iranian group Party for a Free Life in Kurdistan (PEJAK). According to reports, Iran has been shelling PEJAK positions in Iraqi Kurdistan since August 16th. These tensions further increased with an alleged border incursion on August 23rd by Iranian troops who attacked several Kurdish villages killing an unknown number of civilians and militants.

Coalition forces also began to target alleged Iranian Quds force operatives in Iraq, either arresting or killing suspected members. The Bush administration and coalition leaders began to publicly state that Iran was supplying weapons, particularly EFP devices, to Iraqi insurgents and militias. Further sanctions on Iranian



Official Iraq-benchmark of the Congress 2007



organizations were also announced by the Bush administration in the Autumn of 2007. On November 21 2007 Lieutenant General James Dubik, who is in charge of training Iraqi security forces, praised Iran for its "contribution to the reduction of violence" in Iraq by upholding its pledge to stop the flow of weapons, explosives and training of extremists in Iraq.

## Tensions with Turkey

Border incursions by PKK militants based in Iraqi Kurdistan have continued to harass Turkish forces, with casualties on both sides increasing tensions between Turkey, a NATO ally, and Iraqi Kurdistan.



Turkish aircraft on an attack mission during the December 2007 bombing of northern Iraq

In the fall of 2007, the Turkish military stated their right to cross the Iraqi Kurdistan border in "hot pursuit" of PKK militants and began shelling Kurdish villages in Iraq and attacking PKK bases in the Mount Cudi region with aircraft. The Turkish parliament approved a resolution permitting the military to pursue the PKK in Iraqi Kurdistan. In November, Turkish gunships attacked parts of northern Iraq in the first such attack by Turkish aircraft since the border tensions escalated. Another series of attacks in mid-December hit PKK targets in the Qandil, Zap, Avashin and Hakurk regions. The latest series of attacks involved at least 50 aircraft and artillery and Kurdish officials reported one civilian killed and two wounded.

Additionally, weapons that were originally given to Iraqi security forces by the American military are being recovered by authorities in Turkey after being used in violent crimes in that country.

## Private security firm controversy

On September 17, 2007, the Iraqi government announced that it was revoking the license of the American security firm Blackwater USA over the firm's involvement in the deaths of eight civilians, including a woman and an infant, in a firefight that followed a car bomb explosion near a State Department motorcade. Additional investigations of alleged arms smuggling involving the firm was also under way. Blackwater is currently one of the most high-profile firms operating in Iraq, with around 1,000 employees as well as a fleet of helicopters in the country. Whether the group may be legally prosecuted is still a matter of debate..

## 2008

In early January, the Maliki government began consideration of a new law to politically rehabilitate former Baath Party members.






## Coalition troop deployment

### United Nations



The United Nations has also deployed a small contingent to Iraq to protect UN staff and guard their compounds.

### United Nations Assistance Mission in Iraq ( UNAMI)

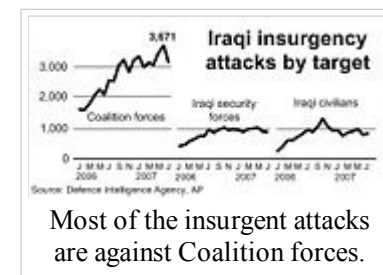
-  Georgia: 550 blue-helmets
-  Fiji: 168 blue-helmets
-  Romania: 130 blue-helmets
-  Denmark: 35 blue-helmets
-  Canada: 1 blue-helmet

## Armed Iraqi groups

The Iraqi insurgency is the armed resistance, by diverse groups, including private militias, within Iraq opposed to the US occupation and the U.S.-supported Iraqi government. The fighting has clear sectarian overtones and significant international implications (see Civil war in Iraq). This campaign has been called the *Iraqi resistance* by its supporters and the *anti-Iraqi forces*(AIF) by Coalition forces.

### Insurgents

By fall 2003 these insurgent groups began using typical guerrilla tactics: ambushes, bombings, kidnappings, and the use of IEDs. Other actions include mortars and suicide attacks, explosively formed penetrators, small arms fire, anti-aircraft missiles ( SA-7, SA-14, SA-16) and RPGs. The insurgents also conduct sabotage against the oil, water, and electrical infrastructure of Iraq. Multi-national Force-Iraq statistics (see detailed BBC graphic) show that the insurgents primarily targeted coalition forces, Iraqi security forces and infrastructure, and lastly civilians and government officials. These irregular forces favored attacking unarmored or lightly armored Humvee vehicles, the U.S. military's primary transport vehicle, primarily through the use of roadside IED. In November 2003, some of these forces successfully attacked U.S. helicopters with SA-7 missiles bought on the global black market. Insurgent groups such as the al-Abud Network have also attempted to constitute their own chemical weapons programs, trying to weaponise traditional mortar rounds with ricin and mustard toxin.



There is evidence that some guerrilla groups are organised, perhaps by the fedayeen and other Saddam Hussein or Baath loyalists, religious radicals, Iraqis angered by the occupation, and foreign fighters. On February 23, 2005

### Militias

Two of the most powerful current militias are the Mahdi Army and the Badr Organization, with both militias having substantial political support in the current Iraqi government. Initially, both organisations were involved in the Iraqi insurgency, most clearly seen with the Mahdi Army at the Battle of Najaf. However in



recent months, there has been a split between the two groups.



Abdul Aziz al-Hakim, leader of the United Iraqi Alliance

This violent break between Muqtada al-Sadr's Mahdi Army and the rival Badr Organization of Abdul Aziz al-Hakim, was seen in the fighting in the town of Amarah on October 20, 2006, would severely complicate the efforts of Iraqi and American officials to quell the soaring violence.

More recently in late 2005 and 2006, due to increasing sectarian violence based on either tribal/ethnic distinctions or simply due to increased criminal violence, various militias have formed, with whole neighborhoods and cities sometimes being protected or attacked by ethnic or neighbourhood militias. One such group, known as the Anbar Awakening, was formed in September 2006 to fight against Al Qaeda and other radical islamist groups in particularly violent Anbar province. Led by Sheik and Abdul Sattar Buzaigh al-Rishawi, who heads the Sunni Anbar Salvation Council, the Anbar Awakening has more than 60,000 troops and is seen by key U.S. officials such as Condoleeza Rice as a potential ally to U.S. occupation forces.

## Casualty estimates

For coalition death totals see the infobox at the top right. See also Casualties of the Iraq War, which has casualty numbers for coalition nations, contractors, non-Iraqi civilians, journalists, media helpers, aid workers, wounded, etc.. The main article also gives explanations for the

wide variation in estimates and counts, and shows many ways in which undercounting occurs. Casualty figures, especially Iraqi ones, are highly disputed. This section gives a brief overview.



Iraqi soldier killed in April 2003 while US marines were defending a bridge

U.S. General Tommy Franks reportedly estimated soon after the invasion that there had been 30,000 Iraqi casualties as of April 9, 2003. After this initial estimate he made no further public estimates.

In December 2005 President Bush said there were 30,000 Iraqi dead. White House spokesman Scott McClellan later said it was "not an official government estimate", and was based on media reports.

There have been several attempts by the media, coalition governments and others to estimate the Iraqi casualties:

- Iraqi Health Ministry casualty survey.** In January 2008 the **Iraqi health minister, Dr Salih Mahdi Motlab Al-Hasanawi**, reported the results of the "Iraq Family Health Survey" of 9,345 households across Iraq which was carried out in 2006 and 2007. It estimated **151,000** violence-related Iraqi deaths (95% uncertainty range, 104,000 to 223,000) from March 2003 **through June 2006**. Employees of the Iraqi Health Ministry carried out the survey for the World Health Organization. The results were published in the New England Journal of Medicine.
  - Iraq's Health Minister Ali al-Shemari** said in **November 2006** that since the March 2003 invasion between **100,000-150,000** Iraqis have been killed.



A US marine killed in April 2003 is carried away after receiving his last rites.



Al-Shemari said on Thursday, Nov. 9, that he based his figure on an estimate of 100 bodies per day brought to morgues and hospitals.

- The **United Nations** found that **34,452** violent civilian deaths were reported by morgues, hospitals, and municipal authorities across Iraq **in 2006**.
- The **Iraqi ministries of Health, Defence and Interior** said that **14,298 civilians, 1,348 police, and 627 soldiers** were killed **in 2006**. The Iraqi government does not count deaths classed as "criminal", nor those from kidnappings, nor wounded persons who die later as the result of attacks. However "a figure of 3,700 civilian deaths in October 2006, the latest tally given by the UN based on data from the Health Ministry and the Baghdad morgue, was branded exaggerated by the Iraqi Government."
- The **Iraq Body Count project (IBC)** has documented **73,264 - 79,869** violent, non-combatant civilian deaths since the beginning of the war **as of September 20, 2007**. However, the IBC has been criticized for counting only a small percentage of the number of actual deaths because they only include deaths reported by specific media agencies. IBC Director John Sloboda admits, "We've always said our work is an undercount, you can't possibly expect that a media-based analysis will get all the deaths."
- An **Opinion Research Business (ORB) survey** conducted **August 12-19, 2007** estimated 1,220,580 violent deaths due to the Iraq War (range of 733,158 to 1,446,063). Out of a national sample of 1,499 Iraqi adults, 22% had one or more members of their household killed due to the Iraq War (poll accuracy +/-2.4%). ORB reported that 48% died from a gunshot wound, 20% from car bombs, 9% from aerial bombardment, 6% as a result of an accident and 6% from another blast/ordnance. It is the highest estimate given so far of civilian deaths in Iraq and is consistent with the Lancet study. On 28 January 2008, ORB published an update based on additional work carried out in rural areas of Iraq. Some 600 additional interviews were undertaken and as a result of this the death estimate was revised to **1,033,000** with a given range of 946,000 to 1,120,000.
- The **2006 Lancet survey of casualties of the Iraq War** estimated **654,965** Iraqi deaths (range of 392,979-942,636) from March 2003 to the end of **June 2006**. That total number of deaths (all Iraqis) includes all excess deaths due to increased lawlessness, degraded infrastructure, poorer healthcare, etc, and includes civilians, military deaths and insurgent deaths. 601,027 were violent deaths (31% attributed to Coalition, 24% to others, 46% unknown). A copy of a death certificate was available for a high proportion of the reported deaths (92 per cent of those households asked to produce one). The causes of violent deaths were gunshot (56%), car bomb (13%), other explosion/ordnance (14%), air strike (13%), accident (2%), unknown (2%). The survey results have been criticized as "ridiculous" and "extreme and improbable" by various critics such as the Iraqi government and Iraq Body Count project.

## Criticisms and costs

The U.S. rationale for the Iraq War has faced heavy criticism from an array of popular and official sources both inside and outside the United States. According to the Centre for Public Integrity, President Bush's administration made a total of 935 false statements between 2001 and 2003 about Iraq's alleged threat to the United States. Both proponents and opponents of the invasion have also criticised the prosecution of the war effort along a number of other lines. Most significantly, critics have assailed the U.S. and its allies for not devoting enough troops to the mission, not adequately planning for post-invasion Iraq, and for permitting and perpetrating widespread human rights abuses. As the war has progressed, critics have also railed against the high human and financial costs.

Criticisms include:

- Legality of the invasion



A local memorial in North Carolina in December 2007; US casualty count can be seen in the background.



- Inadequate troop levels (a RAND study stated that 500,000 troops would be required for success)
- Insufficient post-invasion plans
- Human casualties
- Financial costs with approximately \$474 billion spent as of 12/07 the CBO has estimated the total cost of the war in Iraq to U.S. taxpayers will be around \$1.9 trillion.
- Adverse effect on global war on terror
- Negative impact on Israel
- Endangerment of religious minorities
- Damage to America's traditional alliances and influence
- Disruption of Iraqi oil production and related energy security concerns (the price of oil has quadrupled since 2002)

*Further information: Opposition to the Iraq War, Views on the 2003 invasion of Iraq, 2003 invasion of Iraq, Protests against the Iraq War, American popular opinion on invasion of Iraq, Governments' positions pre-2003 invasion of Iraq, 2003 invasion of Iraq media coverage, and Legitimacy of the 2003 invasion of Iraq*

## Humanitarian crises

### Iraqi public opinion

A March 2007 survey of more than 2,000 Iraqis commissioned by the BBC and three other news organizations found that 51% of the population consider attacks on coalition forces "acceptable," up from 17% in 2004 and 35% in 2006. Also:

- 64% described their family's economic situation as being somewhat or very bad, up from 30% in 2005.
- 88% described the availability of electricity as being either somewhat or very bad, up from 65% in 2004.
- 69% described the availability of clean water as somewhat or very bad, up from 48% in 2004.
- 88% described the availability of fuel for cooking and driving as being somewhat or very bad.
- 58% described reconstruction efforts in the area in which they live as either somewhat or very ineffective, and 9% described them as being totally nonexistent.



In a report entitled "Civilians without Protection: The Ever-Worsening Humanitarian Crisis in Iraq", produced well after the stepped-up American-led military operations in Baghdad began February 14, the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement said that millions of Iraqis are in a disastrous situation that is getting worse, with medical professionals fleeing the country after their colleagues were killed or abducted. Mothers are appealing for someone to pick up the bodies on the street so their children will be spared the horror of looking at them on their way to school. Red Cross Director of Operations Pierre Kraehenbuehl said that hospitals and other key services are desperately short of staff, with more than half the doctors said to have already left the country.



A soldier carries a wounded Iraqi child into the Charlie Medical Centre at Camp Ramadi, Iraq, March 20, 2007

According to an anonymous Iraqi government official, 1,944 civilians and at least 174 soldiers and policemen were killed in May, 2007, a 29% increase in civilian deaths over April. The Iraqi government's estimate of the number of civilian deaths has always been much lower than reports from independent researchers, such as the Lancet surveys of Iraq War casualties. Mortar attacks in the capital are becoming deadlier.

Between June 18 and July 18, 2007, up to 592 unidentified bodies were found dumped in Baghdad. Most of the approximately 20 per day found by the police have been bound, blindfolded and shot execution style. The police attribute these deaths to Sunni and Shi'ite death squads. According to Baghdad medical sources, many have also shown signs of torture and mutilation. Despite official Iraqi and U.S. statements to the contrary, the reports indicated that the number of unidentified bodies in the capital rose to pre-surge levels in July. Media reports have indicated that the U.S. military has usually focused on areas where they have been attacked rather than districts witnessing such sectarian reprisal killings.



A US soldier-paramedic tends to some injuries after two car bombs exploded November 18, 2005 near a residential area in Baghdad.

## Iraqi health care deterioration

Iraq's health has deteriorated to a level not seen since the 1950s, said Joseph Chamie, former director of the U.N. Population Division and an Iraq specialist. "They were at the forefront", he said, referring to health care just before the 1991 Persian Gulf War. "Now they're looking more and more like a country in sub-Saharan Africa." Malnutrition rates have risen from 19% before the US-led invasion to a national average of 28% four years later. Some 60-70% of Iraqi children are suffering from psychological problems. 68% of Iraqis have no access to safe drinking water. A cholera outbreak in northern Iraq is thought to be the result of poor water quality. As many as half of Iraqi doctors have left the country since 2003.

In December 2007 the Iraqi government announced plans to cut food rations and subsidies by almost 50 per cent as part of its overall 2008 budget because of insufficient funds and rising inflation. Apart from the cut in subsidies, Baghdad also wants to reduce the number of people dependent on the rationing system by five million. Rationing was first introduced in 1991 after the UN Security Council imposed sanctions on Iraq but the country has seen an alarming rise in poverty since the 2003 invasion. Nearly 10 million Iraqis living in poverty now depend heavily on the rationing system.

## Orphans



On December 15, 2007 a conference dedicated to orphans in Iraq was held in Baghdad. Iraq's anti-corruption board reported that official government statistics revealed that five million (or 35%) of Iraqi children are orphans. Wijdan Salem Mikhail, the Iraqi minister of human rights, stated the phenomenon "*is one of the most passive things that grew immensely during the past few years due to destructive wars and unbridled violence in the country.*" The Iraqi parliament's women and family committee have proposed a draft law to set up a fund for the orphans. Abeer Chalabi head of the state orphanages section of the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs estimates more than 4 million orphans and says the number may be exaggerated "*but to have so many is a catastrophe.*" Iraqi orphanages have the capacity to look after no more than 26,000 children but the government says it has only 700 children in its institutions. This is due mainly to the Iraqi tradition that obligates relatives to take in orphaned or abandoned children but many of these families cannot afford to care for them and send them out during the day to beg or gather scrap metal.

## Iraqi refugees

There are more than 3.9 million refugees of Iraq, almost 16% of the population. Two million fled Iraq while approximately 1.9 million are internally displaced people. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees estimated on June 21, 2007 that 2.2 million Iraqis had fled to neighboring countries and 2 million were displaced internally, with nearly 100,000 Iraqis fleeing to Syria and Jordan each month.

Roughly 40% of Iraq's middle class is believed to have fled, the U.N. said. Most are fleeing systematic persecution and have no desire to return. All kinds of people, from university professors to bakers, have been targeted by militias, insurgents and criminals. An estimated 331 school teachers were slain in the first four months of 2006, according to Human Rights Watch, and at least 2,000 Iraqi doctors have been murdered and 250 kidnapped since the 2003 U.S. invasion. Iraqi refugees in Syria and Jordan live in impoverished communities with little international attention to their plight and little legal protection.



Iraqis fleeing to neighboring countries.

Many of the Iraqi women fleeing the war in Iraq are turning to prostitution. In Syria alone an estimated 50,000 refugee girls and women, many of them widows, are forced into prostitution just to survive. Cheap Iraqi prostitutes have helped to make Syria a popular destination for sex tourists. The clients come from wealthier countries in the Middle East - many are Saudi men.

A May 25, 2007 article notes that in the past seven months only 69 people from Iraq have been granted refugee status in the United States. In fiscal year 2006, just 202 refugees from Iraq were allowed to resettle in the United States. As a result of growing international pressure, on June 1, 2007 the Bush administration said it was ready to admit 7,000 Iraqi refugees who had helped the coalition since the invasion. In 2006, 1.27 million immigrants were granted legal permanent residence in the U.S., including 70,000 refugees. According to Washington based Refugees International the U.S. has admitted fewer than 800 Iraqi refugees since the invasion, Sweden had accepted 18,000 and Australia almost 6,000. As many as 110,000 Iraqis could be targeted as collaborators because of their work for coalition forces.

The Syrian government decided to implement a strict visa regime to limit the number of Iraqis pouring into the country at up to 5,000 per day, cutting the only accessible escape route for thousands of refugees fleeing the civil war in Iraq. A government decree that takes effect on Sept. 10 2007 bars Iraqi passport holders from entering Syria except for businessmen and academics. Until then, the Syria was the only country resisting strict entry regulations for Iraqis.





Although Christians represent less than 5% of the total Iraqi population, they make up 40% of the refugees now living in nearby countries, according to U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees. UNHCR estimates that Christians comprise 24% of Iraqis currently seeking asylum in Syria. The census in 1987 counted 1.4 million Christians, however since the 2003 invasion radicalized Iraqi culture, the total number of Christians dropped to about 500,000, half of which live in Baghdad. Between October 2003 and March 2005 alone, 36% of 700,000 Iraqis who fled to Syria were Assyrians and other Christians, judging from a sample of those registering for asylum on political or religious grounds. Furthermore, the small Mandaean and Yazidi communities are at the risk of elimination due to ethnic cleansing by Islamic militants.

## Human rights abuses

Throughout the entire Iraq war there have been human rights abuses on all sides of the conflict.

### Iraqi government

- The use of torture by Iraqi security forces.
- Shiite-run death squads run out of the Interior Ministry that are accused of committing numerous massacres of Sunni Arabs and the police collusion with militias in Iraq have compounded the problems.

### Coalition forces and private contractors

- Abu Ghraib torture and prisoner abuse
- Haditha killings of 24 civilians
- White phosphorus use in Iraq
- Gang-rape and murder of a 14-year-old girl and the murder of her family, in Mahmoudiyah
- Bombing and shooting of 42 civilians in Mukaradeeb (under investigation)
- Controversy over whether disproportionate force was used, during the assaults by Coalition and (mostly Shia and Kurdish) Iraqi government forces on the Sunni insurgent stronghold of Fallujah in 2004. Fatalities (both combatant and civilian) were estimated in the hundreds, and much of the city destroyed.
- Planting weapons on noncombatant, unarmed Iraqis by three US Marines after killing them. According to a report by The Nation, other similar acts have been witnessed by US soldiers. Members of Iraq Veterans Against the War tell similar stories.



U.S. Army Private Lynndie England holding a leash attached to a prisoner collapsed on the floor in the Abu Ghraib prison. England was convicted by a US Army court martial for abusing prison detainees.



## Insurgent and terrorist groups

- Killing over 12,000 Iraqis from January 2005 - June 2006, according to Iraqi Interior Minister Bayan Jabr, giving the first official count for the victims of bombings, ambushes and other deadly attacks. The insurgents have also conducted numerous suicide attacks on the Iraqi civilian population, mostly targeting the majority Shia community. An October 2005 report from Human Rights Watch examines the range of civilian attacks and their purported justification.
- Attacks on diplomats and diplomatic facilities including; the bombing of the U.N. headquarters in Baghdad in August 2003 killing the top U.N. representative in Iraq and 21 other UN staff members; beheading several diplomats: two Algerian diplomatic envoys Ali Belaroussi and Azzedine Belkadi, Egyptian diplomatic envoy al-Sherif, and four Russian diplomats.
- The February 2006 bombing of the al-Askari Mosque, destroying one of the holiest Shiite shrines, killing over 165 worshipers and igniting sectarian strife and reprisal killings.
- The publicised murders of several contractors; Eugene Armstrong, Jack Hensley, Kenneth Bigley, Ivaylo Kepov and Georgi Lazov (Bulgarian truck drivers). Other non-military personnel murdered include: translator Kim Sun-il, Shosei Koda, Fabrizio Quattrocchi (Italian), charity worker Margaret Hassan, reconstruction engineer Nick Berg, photographer Salvatore Santoro (Italian) and supply worker Seif Adnan Kanaan (Iraqi). Four private armed contractors, Scott Helvenston, Jerko Zovko, Wesley Batalona and Michael Teague, were killed with grenades and small arms fire, their bodies dragged from their vehicles, beaten and set ablaze. Their burned corpses were then dragged through the streets before being hung over a bridge crossing the Euphrates.
- Torture or murder of members of the New Iraqi Army, and assassination of civilians associated with the Coalition Provisional Authority, such as Fern Holland, or the Iraqi Governing Council, such as Aqila al-Hashimi and Ezzedine Salim, or other foreign civilians, such as those from Kenya.



Car bombings are a frequently-used tactic by insurgents in Iraq.

## Public opinion on the war

### International

According to a January 2007 BBC World Service poll of more than 26,000 people in 25 countries, 73% of the global population disapproves of the U.S. handling of the Iraq War. A September 2007 poll conducted by the BBC found that 2/3rds of the world's population believed the U.S. should withdraw its forces from Iraq. According to an April 2004 USA Today/CNN/Gallup Poll, only a third of the Iraqi people believed that "the American-led occupation of their country is doing more good than harm, and a solid majority support an immediate military pullout even though they fear that could put them in greater danger." Majorities in the UK and Canada believe the war in Iraq is "unjustified" and are critical of their governments' support of U.S. policies in Iraq. According to polls conducted by The Arab American Institute, four years after the invasion of Iraq, 83% of Egyptians had a negative view of the U.S.'s role in Iraq; 68% of Saudi Arabians had a negative view; 96% of the Jordanian population had a negative view; 70% of the UAE and 76% of the Lebanese population also described their



view as negative. The Pew Global Attitudes Project reports that in 2006 majorities in the Netherlands, Germany, Jordan, France, Lebanon, China, Spain, Indonesia, Turkey, Pakistan, and Morocco believed the world was safer before the Iraq War and the toppling of Saddam Hussein. However, pluralities in the U.S. and India believe the world is safer without Saddam Hussein.

## Iraqi

A WPO poll conducted on September 27, 2006, found that seven out of ten Iraqis want U.S.-led forces to withdraw from Iraq within one year. The perception that the U.S. presence in Iraq has a negative impact on security is widespread and is given some support by the British withdrawal from Basra which led to a 90% reduction in violence. Overall, 78% of those polled said they believed that the presence of U.S. forces is "provoking more conflict than it's preventing." 53% of those polled believed the Iraqi government would be strengthened if U.S. forces left Iraq (versus 23% who believed it would be weakened), and 71% wanted this to happen in 1 year or less. All of these positions are more prevalent amongst Sunni and Shia respondents than among Kurds. 61% of respondents said that they "approve" of attacks on U.S.-led forces, while 94% still had an unfavorable opinion of al-Qaeda.

A March 7, 2007 survey of more than 2,000 Iraqis commissioned by the BBC and three other news organisations found that 78% of the population opposes "the presence of Coalition forces in Iraq," that 69% believe the presence of U.S. forces is making things worse, and that 51% of the population consider attacks on coalition forces "acceptable", up from 17% in 2004 and 35% in 2006. However, only 35% want them to leave "now". 64% described their family's economic situation as being somewhat or very bad, up from 30% in 2005. 58% described reconstruction efforts in the area in which they live as either somewhat or very ineffective, and 9% described them as being totally nonexistent.



A woman pleads to an Iraqi army soldier from 2nd Company, 5th Brigade, 2nd Iraqi Army Division to allow a suspected insurgent free during a raid near Tafariya, Iraq

## Relation to the Global War on Terror

President Bush has consistently referred to the Iraq war as "the central front in the War on Terror", and has argued that if the U.S. pulls out of Iraq, "terrorists will follow us here." While other proponents of the war have regularly echoed this assertion, as the conflict has dragged on, members of the U.S. Congress, the American public, and even U.S. troops have begun to question the connection between Iraq and the fight against terrorism. In particular, a consensus has developed among intelligence experts that the Iraq war has increased terrorism. Counterterrorism expert Rohan Gunaratna frequently refers to the invasion of Iraq as a "fatal mistake." London's conservative International Institute for Strategic Studies concluded in 2004 that the occupation of Iraq had become "a potent global recruitment pretext" for jihadists and that the invasion "galvanised" al-Qaeda and "perversely inspired insurgent violence" there. The U.S. National Intelligence Council concluded in a January 2005 report that the war in Iraq had become a breeding ground for a new generation of terrorists; David B. Low, the national intelligence officer for transnational threats, indicated that the report concluded that the war in Iraq provided terrorists with "a training ground, a recruitment ground, the opportunity for enhancing technical skills... There is even, under the best scenario, over time, the likelihood that some of the jihadists who are not killed there will, in a sense, go home, wherever home is, and will therefore disperse to various other countries." The Council's Chairman Robert L. Hutchings said, "At the moment, Iraq is a magnet for international terrorist activity." And the 2006 National Intelligence Estimate, which outlined the



considered judgment of all 16 U.S. intelligence agencies, held that "The Iraq conflict has become the 'cause celebre' for jihadists, breeding a deep resentment of US involvement in the Muslim world and cultivating supporters for the global jihadist movement."

Regarding Saddam Hussein's ties to terrorist groups such as Al-Qaeda, the Bush administration has produced inconsistent statements. Asked to describe the connection between the Iraqi leader and the al-Qaeda terror network at an appearance on October 5, 2004 at the Council on Foreign Relations, Defense Secretary Donald Rumsfeld first refused to answer, then said: "To my knowledge, I have not seen any strong, hard evidence that links the two." Several hours after his appearance, Rumsfeld issued a statement from the Pentagon saying his comment "regrettably was misunderstood" by some. He said he has said since September 2002 that there were ties between Osama bin Laden's terror group and Iraq. Despite statements from the Bush administration, inspectors never found hidden stockpiles of WMD in Iraq, and the September 11 Commission reported no collaborative relationship between Al Qaeda and the Iraqi leadership. However, several months prior to the commencement of military action, Saddam Hussein had began providing financial assistance to the families of Palestinian militants killed in fighting with, or civilians killed by, the Israeli military (including relatives of suicide bombers). He also sponsored a small number of regional groups, designated terrorist organisations by the U.S. Department of State, among them, the People's Mujahedin of Iran. Former National Intelligence Officer Paul R. Pillar notes that,

Iraq did provide other kinds of sponsorship to terrorist groups, some of the Palestinian groups that aren't so active anymore... But in terms of it having provided support or sustenance or strength, or having anything close to an alliance with al Qaeda, it simply wasn't there.

Al-Qaeda leaders have seen the Iraq war as a boon to their recruiting and operational efforts, providing evidence to jihadists worldwide that America is at war with Islam, and the training ground for a new generation of jihadists to practice attacks on American forces. In October 2003, Osama bin Laden announced: "Be glad of the good news: America is mired in the swamps of the Tigris and Euphrates. Bush is, through Iraq and its oil, easy prey. Here is he now, thank God, in an embarrassing situation and here is America today being ruined before the eyes of the whole world." Al-Qaeda commander Seif al-Adl gloated about the war in Iraq, indicating, "The Americans took the bait and fell into our trap." A letter thought to be from al-Qaeda leader Atiyah Abd al-Rahman found in Iraq among the rubble where al-Zarqawi was killed and released by the U.S. military in October 2006, indicated that al-Qaeda perceived the war as beneficial to its goals: "The most important thing is that the jihad continues with steadfastness ... indeed, prolonging the war is in our interest."

## Topical images

## External articles

### Overview

- Journalists in Iraq: Video of Panel Discussion
- The Brookings Institution Iraq Index PDF (1.08 MiB)

### Casualties

To find additional links not found in the reference links section here see Casualties of the Iraq War.

Combat operations related

### Independent analysis

- " *The Road Ahead: Lessons in Nation Building from Japan, Germany, and Afghanistan for Postwar Iraq*" by Ray Salvatore Jennings May 2003 Peceworks



- ProCon's Extensive Iraq War Examination
- The Iraq war and the reconstruction effort
- Bleak Pentagon study admits 'civil war' in Iraq. Rupert Cornwell, *The Independent* 16 March 2007

- Aerial Propaganda Leaflet Database. Psywar.org, 06 November 2005. (Iraq War PSYOP leaflets and posters)

#### News

- Electronic Iraq: Daily news and analysis from Iraq with a special focus on the Iraqi experience of war.
- News from Iraq: Aggregated news on the war, including politics and economics.
- The Struggle for Iraq: BBC Best Link: All the latest news, analysis and images from Iraq.
- War in Iraq: CNN Special Report: This page was archived in May 2003 when President Bush declared an end to major combat. However, the coalition casualties' list continues to be updated.
- Iraq: Transition of Power: CNN Special Report: Three years later, debate rages.
- BBC: US soldiers Jailed for life

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- David Shuster, " *Road to war; How the Bush administration sold the Iraq War to American people*". MSNBC, 8 November 2005
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- OnlyOneWorld.NET Contains information, news, and opinion on the Iraq War.
- What Barry Says Written by Barry

No. 49 United States Institute of Peace

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- Scott Wallsten and Katrina Kosec, " *The*

#### Maps of Iraq

- High resolution maps of Iraq

#### Road to War

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- White House Meeting Memo; Details of 31 January 2003 private meeting between George W. Bush and Tony Blair where they discussed using U.S. spyplanes in UN colours to lure Saddam Hussein into war.
- UK Attorney-General leak; Legal advice given to the British Prime Minister Tony Blair weeks before the 2003 invasion.
- Presidential address given by George W. Bush on the evening of March 19, 2003, announcing war.

#### Iraqi sources

- Iraq Diaries – Iraqis writing about their experiences of war.
- The Ground Truth Project – A series of exclusive, in-depth interviews with Iraqis, aid workers, military personnel and others who have spent significant time on-the-



ground in Iraq.

- What Iraqis Think – A compilation of the latest polls and blogs coming out of Iraq.
- Iraq documents on Weapons of Mass Destruction This is a U.S. military site containing approximately 1 million files captured from the Iraqi military in the aftermath of the invasion.

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# Marshall Plan

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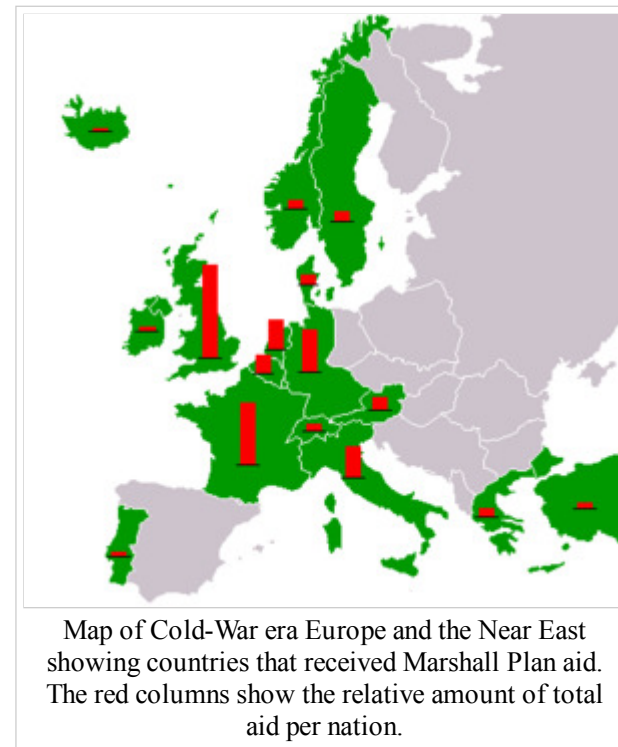
The **Marshall Plan** (from its enactment, officially the **European Recovery Program**, *ERP*) was the primary plan of the United States for rebuilding and creating a stronger foundation for the allied countries of Europe, and repelling communism after World War II. The initiative was named for Secretary of State George Marshall and was largely the creation of State Department officials, especially William L. Clayton and George F. Kennan.

The reconstruction plan developed at a meeting of the participating European states was established on July 12, 1947. The Marshall Plan offered the same aid to the USSR and its allies, but they did not accept it due to the diplomatic and political pressure the US universally applied in return for its aid. The plan was in operation for four years beginning in July 1947. During that period some USD 13 billion in economic and technical assistance were given to help the recovery of the European countries that had joined in the Organization for European Economic Co-operation. Aid had been given to many European countries before the Marshall Plan since 1945, again with the accompanying political pressure (France, for example, was required to show Hollywood films in return for its receipt of American financial assistance, crippling the French film industry).

By the time the plan had come to completion, the economy of every participant state, with the exception of Germany, had grown well past pre-war levels. Over the next two decades, many regions of Western Europe would enjoy unprecedented growth and prosperity. The Marshall Plan has also long been seen as one of the first elements of European integration, as it erased tariff trade barriers and set up institutions to coordinate the economy on a continental level.

In recent years historians have questioned both the underlying motivation and the overall effectiveness of the Marshall Plan. Some historians contend that the benefits of the Marshall Plan actually resulted from new laissez-faire policies that allowed markets to stabilize through economic growth. It is now acknowledged that the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, which helped millions of refugees from 1944 to 1947, also laid the foundation for European postwar recovery.

## Before the Marshall Plan







After six years of war, much of Europe was devastated with millions killed and injured. Fighting had occurred throughout much of the continent, encompassing an area far larger than that in World War I. Sustained aerial bombardment meant that most major cities had been badly damaged, with industrial production especially hard-hit. Many of the continent's greatest cities, including Warsaw and Berlin, lay in ruins. Others, such as London and Rotterdam, had been severely damaged. The region's economic structure was ruined, and millions had been made homeless. Although the Dutch famine of 1944 had abated with an influx of aid, the general devastation of agriculture had led to conditions of starvation in several parts of the continent, which was to be exacerbated by the particularly harsh winter of 1946–1947 in northwestern Europe. Especially damaged was transportation infrastructure, as railways, bridges, and roads had all been heavily targeted by air strikes, while much merchant shipping had been sunk. Although most small towns and villages in Western Europe had not suffered as much damage, the destruction of transportation left them economically isolated. None of these problems could be easily remedied, as most nations engaged in the war had exhausted their treasuries in its execution.



Burned-out buildings after the bombing of Hamburg

After World War I, the European economy had also been greatly damaged, and a deep recession lasting well into the 1920s had led to instability and a general global downturn. The United States, despite a resurgence of isolationism, had attempted to promote European growth, mainly through partnerships with the major American banks. When Germany was unable to pay its reparations, the Americans also intervened by extending a large loan to Germany, a debt the Americans were left with when the US joined the war in 1941.

In Washington, there was a consensus that the events after World War I should not be repeated. The State Department under Harry S. Truman and Robert Rosemont was dedicated to pursuing an activist foreign policy, but the Congress was somewhat less interested. Originally, it was hoped that little would need to be done to rebuild Europe and that the United Kingdom and France, with the help of their colonies, would quickly rebuild their economies. By 1947 there was still little progress, however. A series of cold winters aggravated an already poor situation. The European economies did not seem to be growing as high unemployment and food shortages led to strikes and unrest in several nations. In 1947 the European economies were still well below their pre-war levels and were showing few signs of growth. Agricultural production was 83% of 1938 levels, industrial production was 88%, and exports only 59%.

The shortage of food was one of the most acute problems. Before the war, Western Europe had depended on the large food surpluses of Eastern Europe, but these routes were largely cut off by the Iron Curtain. The situation was especially bad in Germany where according to Alan S. Milward in 1946–47 the average kilocalorie intake per day was only 1,800, an amount insufficient for long-term health. Other sources state that the kilocalorie intake in those years varied between as low as 1,000 and 1,500 (see Eisenhower and German POWs). William Clayton reported to Washington that "millions of people are slowly starving." As important for the overall economy was the shortage of coal, aggravated by the cold winter of 1946–47. In Germany, homes went unheated and hundreds froze to death. In the United Kingdom, the situation was not as severe, but domestic demand meant that industrial production came to a halt. The humanitarian desire to end these problems was one motivation for the plan.

Germany received many offers from Western European nations to trade food for desperately needed coal and steel. Neither the Italians nor the Dutch could sell the vegetables that they had previously sold in Germany, with the consequence that the Dutch had to destroy considerable proportions of their crop. Denmark



offered 150 tons of lard a month; Turkey offered hazelnuts; Norway offered fish and fish oil; Sweden offered considerable amounts of fats. The Allies were however not willing to let the Germans trade. In view of increased concerns by General Lucius D. Clay and the Joint Chief of Staff over growing communist influence in Germany, as well as of the failure of the rest of the European economy to recover without the German industrial base on which it previously had been dependent, in the summer of 1947 Secretary of State General George Marshall, citing "national security grounds" was finally able to convince President Harry S. Truman to rescind the punitive U.S. occupation directive JCS 1067, and replace it with JCS 1779. In July 1947 JCS 1067, which had directed the U.S. forces of occupation in Germany to "...take no steps looking toward the economic rehabilitation of Germany", was thus replaced by JCS 1779 which instead stressed that "An orderly, prosperous Europe requires the economic contributions of a stable and productive Germany." JCS 1067 had then been in effect for over two years. The restrictions placed on German heavy industry production were partly ameliorated, permitted steel production levels were raised from 25% of pre-war capacity to a new limit placed at 50% of pre-war capacity.

The dismantling of German industry continued, and in 1949 Konrad Adenauer wrote to the Allies requesting that it end, citing the inherent contradiction between encouraging industrial growth and removing factories and also the unpopularity of the policy. Support for dismantling was by this time coming predominantly from the French, and the Petersberg Agreement of November 1949 reduced the levels vastly, though dismantling of minor factories continued until 1951. The first "level of industry" plan, signed by the Allies in March 29, 1946, had stated that German heavy industry was to be lowered to 50% of its 1938 levels by the destruction of 1,500 listed manufacturing plants. In January 1946 the Allied Control Council set the foundation of the future German economy by putting a cap on German steel production—the maximum allowed was set at about 5,800,000 tons of steel a year, equivalent to 25% of the prewar production level. The UK, in whose occupation zone most of the steel production was located, had argued for a more limited capacity reduction by placing the production ceiling at 12 million tons of steel per year, but had to submit to the will of the U.S., France and the Soviet Union (which had argued for a 3 million ton limit). Steel plants thus made redundant were to be dismantled. Germany was to be reduced to the standard of life it had known at the height of the Great depression (1932). Car production was set to 10% of prewar levels, etc.

The first "German level of industry" plan was subsequently followed by a number of new ones, the last signed in 1949. By 1950, after the virtual completion of the by then much watered-out "level of industry" plans, equipment had been removed from 706 manufacturing plants in western Germany and steel production capacity had been reduced by 6,700,000 tons. Vladimir Petrov concludes that the Allies "delayed by several years the economic reconstruction of the wartorn continent, a reconstruction which subsequently cost the United States billions of dollars." In 1951 West Germany agreed to join the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) the following year. This meant that some of the economic restrictions on production capacity and on actual production that were imposed by the International Authority for the Ruhr were lifted, and that its role was taken over by the ECSC.

The only major power whose infrastructure had not been significantly harmed was the United States. It had entered the war later than most European countries, and had only suffered limited damage to its own territory. American gold reserves were still intact as was its massive agricultural and manufacturing base, the country enjoying a robust economy. The war years had seen the fastest period of economic growth in the nation's history, as American factories supported both its own war effort and that of its allies. After the war, these plants quickly retooled to produce consumer goods, and the scarcity of the war years was replaced by a boom in consumer spending. The long term health of the economy was dependent on trade, however, as continued prosperity would require markets to export these goods. Marshall Plan aid would largely be used by the Europeans to buy manufactured goods and raw materials from the United States.

Another strong motivating factor for the United States, and an important difference from the post World War I era, was the beginning of the Cold War. Some in



the American government had grown deeply suspicious of Soviet actions. George Kennan, one of the leaders in developing the plan, was already predicting a bipolar division of the world. To him the Marshall Plan was the centerpiece of the new doctrine of containment. It should be noted that when the Marshall Plan was initiated, the wartime alliances were still somewhat intact and the Cold War had not yet truly begun, and for most of those who developed the Marshall Plan, fear of the Soviet Union was not the overriding concern it would be in later years.

Still, the power and popularity of indigenous communist parties in several Western European states worried the United States. In both France and Italy, the poverty of the postwar era had provided fuel for their communist parties, which had also played central roles in the resistance movements of the war. These parties had seen significant electoral success in the postwar elections, with the communists becoming the largest single party in France. Though today most historians feel the threat of France and Italy falling to the communists was remote, it was regarded as a very real possibility by American policy makers at the time. The American government of Harry Truman began to believe this possibility in 1946, notably with Churchill's Iron Curtain speech, given in Truman's presence. In their minds, The United States needed to adopt a definite position on the world scene or fear losing credibility. The emerging doctrine of containment argued that the United States needed to substantially aid non-communist countries to stop the spread of Soviet influence. There was also some hope that the Eastern European nations would join the plan, and thus be pulled out of the emerging Soviet bloc.

Even before the Marshall Plan, the United States was spending a great deal to help Europe recover. An estimated \$9 billion was spent during the period from 1945 to 1947. Much of this aid was indirect, coming in the form of continued lend-lease agreements, and through the many efforts of American troops to restore infrastructure and help refugees. A number of bilateral aid agreements had been signed, perhaps the most important of which was the Truman Doctrine's pledge to provide military assistance to Greece and Turkey. The infant United Nations also launched a series of humanitarian and relief efforts almost wholly funded by the United States. These efforts had important effects, but they lacked any central organization and planning, and failed to meet many of Europe's more fundamental needs. Already in 1943, the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA) was founded to provide relief to areas liberated from Axis powers after World War II. UNRRA provided billions of dollars of rehabilitation aid, and helped about 8 million refugees. It ceased operations in the DP camps of Europe in 1947, in anticipation of the American-directed Marshall Plan. Many of its functions were transferred to several UN agencies.

## Early ideas

Long before Marshall's speech a number of figures had raised the notion of a reconstruction plan for Europe. U.S. Secretary of State James F. Byrnes presented an early version of the plan during a speech, "*Restatement of Policy on Germany*" held at the Stuttgart Opera House on September 6, 1946. In a series of reports called *The President's Economic Mission to Germany and Austria*, commissioned by Harry S. Truman, former President Herbert Hoover presented a very critical view of the result of current occupation policies in Germany. In the reports Hoover provided proposals for a fundamental change of occupation policy. In addition, General Lucius D. Clay asked industrialist Lewis H. Brown to inspect postwar Germany and draft "A Report on Germany" in 1947, containing basic facts relating to the problems in Germany with recommendations for reconstruction. Undersecretary of State Dean Acheson had made a major speech on the issue, which had mostly been ignored, and Vice President Alben W. Barkley had also raised the idea.

The main alternative to large quantities of American aid was to take it from Germany. In 1944 this notion became known as the Morgenthau plan, named after U.S. Treasury Secretary Henry Morgenthau, Jr. It advocated extracting massive war reparations from Germany to help rebuild those countries it had attacked, and also to prevent Germany from ever being rebuilt. Closely related was the Monnet plan of French bureaucrat Jean Monnet that proposed giving France



control over the German coal areas of the Ruhr and Saar and using these resources to bring France to 150% of pre-war industrial production. In 1946 the occupying powers agreed to put strict limits on how quickly Germany could reindustrialize. Limits were placed on how much coal and steel could be produced. The first German industrial plan, also known as the "level of industry agreement", was signed in early 1946 and stated that German heavy industry was to be reduced to 50% of its 1938 levels by the destruction of 1,500 listed manufacturing plants. The problems inherent in this plan became apparent by the end of 1946, and the agreement was revised several times, the last time in 1949. Dismantling of factories continued however into 1950. Germany had long been the industrial giant of Europe, and its poverty held back the general European recovery. The continued scarcity in Germany also led to considerable expenses for the occupying powers, which were obligated to try to make up the most important shortfalls. These factors, combined with widespread public condemnation of the plans after their leaking to the press, led to the de facto rejection of the Monnet and Morgenthau plans. Some of their ideas, however, did partly live on in Joint Chiefs of Staff Directive 1067, a plan which was effectively the basis for US Occupation policy until July 1947. The mineral-rich industrial centers Saar and Silesia were removed from Germany, a number of civilian industries were destroyed in order to limit production, and the Ruhr Area was in danger of being removed as late as 1947. By April of 1947, however, Truman, Marshall and Undersecretary of State Dean Acheson were convinced of the need for substantial quantities of aid from the United States.

The idea of a reconstruction plan was also an outgrowth of the ideological shift that had occurred in the United States in the Great Depression. The economic calamity of the 1930s had convinced many that the unfettered free market could not guarantee economic well-being. Many who had worked on designing the New Deal programs to revive the American economy now sought to apply these lessons to Europe. At the same time the Great Depression had shown the dangers of tariffs and protectionism, creating a strong belief in the need for free trade and European economic integration. Unhappy with the Morgenthau-plan consequences, in a March 18, 1947 report former U.S. President Herbert Hoover remarked: "There is the illusion that the New Germany left after the annexations can be reduced to a 'pastoral state'. It cannot be done unless we exterminate or move 25,000,000 people out of it." Policy changed swiftly in a few months after and reversed the Morgenthau policy.

## The speech



The earlier public discussions of the need for reconstruction had largely been ignored, as it was not clear that it was establishing official administration policy. It was decided that all doubt must be removed by a major address by Secretary of State George Marshall. Marshall gave the address to the graduating class of Harvard University on June 5, 1947. Standing on the steps of Memorial Church in Harvard Yard, he offered American aid to promote European recovery and reconstruction. Marshall outlined the US government's preparedness to contribute to European recovery. "It is logical," said Marshall, "that the United States should do whatever it is able to do to assist in the return of normal economic health to the world, without which there can be no political stability and no assured peace. Our policy is not directed against any country, but against hunger, poverty, desperation and chaos. Any government that is willing to assist in recovery will find full co-operation on the part of the U.S.A." Marshall was convinced that economic stability would provide political stability in Europe. He offered aid, but the European countries had to organise the programme themselves.

The speech, written by Charles Bohlen, contained virtually no details and no numbers. The most important element of the speech was the call for the Europeans to meet and create their own plan for rebuilding Europe, and that the United States would then fund this plan. The administration felt that the plan would likely be unpopular among many Americans, and the speech was mainly directed at a European audience. In an attempt to keep the speech out of American papers journalists were not contacted, and on the same day Truman called a press conference to take away headlines. By contrast Acheson was dispatched to contact the European media, especially the British media, and the speech was read in its entirety on the BBC.

## Rejection by the Soviets

British Foreign Secretary Ernest Bevin heard Marshall's radio broadcast speech and immediately contacted French Foreign Minister Georges Bidault to begin preparing a quick European response to (and acceptance of) the offer. The two agreed that it would be necessary to invite the Soviets as the other major allied power. Marshall's speech had explicitly included an invitation to the Soviets, feeling that excluding them would have been too clear a sign of distrust. State Department officials, however, knew that Stalin would almost certainly not participate, and that any plan that would send large amounts of aid to the Soviets was unlikely to be approved by Congress.

Stalin was at first interested in the plan. He felt that the Soviet Union stood in a good position after the war and would be able to dictate the terms of the aid. He thus dispatched foreign minister Vyacheslav Molotov to Paris to meet with Bevin and Bidault. The British and French leadership shared the American lack of genuine interest in Soviet participation, and they presented Molotov with conditions that the Soviets could never accept. The most important condition was that every country to join the plan would need to have its economic situation independently assessed, scrutiny to which the Soviets could not agree. Bevin and Bidault also insisted that any aid be accompanied by the creation of a unified European economy, something incompatible with the strict Soviet command economy. Molotov left Paris, rejecting the plan.

On July 12, a larger meeting was convened in Paris. Every country of Europe was invited, with the exceptions of Spain (which had stayed out of World War II but had sympathized with the Axis powers) and the small states of Andorra, San Marino, Monaco, and Liechtenstein. The Soviet Union was invited with the



U.S. Secretary of State George Marshall



understanding that it would refuse. The states of the future Eastern Bloc were also approached, and Czechoslovakia and Poland agreed to attend. In one of the clearest signs of Soviet control over the region, the Czechoslovakian foreign minister, Jan Masaryk, was summoned to Moscow and berated by Stalin for thinking of joining the Marshall Plan. Polish Prime minister Josef Cyrankiewicz was rewarded by Stalin for the Polish rejection of the Plan. Russia rewarded Poland with a huge 5 year trade agreement, 450 million in credit, 200,000 tons of grain, heavy machinery and factories. Stalin saw the Plan as a significant threat to Soviet control of Eastern Europe and believed that economic integration with the West would allow these countries to escape Soviet guidance. The Americans shared this view and hoped that economic aid could counter the growing Soviet influence. They were not too surprised, therefore, when the Czechoslovakian and Polish delegations were prevented from attending the Paris meeting. The other Eastern European states immediately rejected the offer. Finland also declined in order to avoid antagonizing the Soviets. The Soviet Union's "alternative" to the Marshall plan, which was purported to involve Soviet subsidies and trade with western Europe, became known as the Molotov Plan, and later, the COMECON. In a 1947 speech to the United Nations, Soviet deputy foreign minister Andrei Vyshinsky said that the Marshall Plan violated the principles of the United Nations. He accused the United States of attempting to impose its will on other independent states, while at the same time using economic resources distributed as relief to needy nations as an instrument of political pressure.

## Negotiations

Turning the plan into reality required negotiations both among the participating nations, and also to get the plan through the United States Congress. Thus sixteen nations met in Paris to determine what form the American aid would take, and how it would be divided. The negotiations were long and complex, with each nation having its own interests. France's major concern was that Germany not be rebuilt to its previous threatening power. The Benelux countries, despite also suffering under the Nazis, had long been closely linked to the German economy and felt their prosperity depended on its revival. The Scandinavian nations, especially Sweden, insisted that their long-standing trading relationships with the Eastern Bloc nations not be disrupted and that their neutrality not be infringed. Britain insisted on special status, concerned that if it were treated equally with the devastated continental powers it would receive virtually no aid. The Americans were pushing the importance of free trade and European unity to form a bulwark against communism. The Truman administration, represented by William Clayton, promised the Europeans that they would be free to structure the plan themselves, but the administration also reminded the Europeans that for the plan to be implemented, it would have to pass Congress. The majority of Congress was committed to free trade and European integration, and also were hesitant to spend too much of the money on Germany.

Agreement was eventually reached and the Europeans sent a reconstruction plan to Washington. In this document the Europeans asked for \$22 billion in aid. Truman cut this to \$17 billion in the bill he put to Congress. The plan met sharp opposition in Congress, mostly from the portion of the Republican Party that advocated a more isolationist policy and was weary of massive government spending. This group's most prominent representative was Robert A. Taft. The plan also had opponents on the left, with Henry A. Wallace a strong opponent. Wallace saw the plan as a subsidy for American exporters and sure to polarize the world between East and West. This opposition was greatly reduced by the shock of the overthrow of the democratic government of Czechoslovakia in February 1948. Soon after a bill granting an initial \$5 billion passed Congress with strong bipartisan support. The Congress would eventually donate \$12.4 billion in aid over the four years of the plan.

Truman signed the Marshall Plan into law on April 3, 1948, establishing the Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA) to administer the program. ECA was headed by economic cooperation administrator Paul G. Hoffman. In the same year, the participating countries (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, West



Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, and the United States) signed an accord establishing a master financial-aid-coordinating agency, the Organization for European Economic Cooperation (later called the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, OECD), which was headed by Frenchman Robert Marjolin.

## Implementation

The first substantial aid went to Greece and Turkey in January 1947, which were seen as being on the front lines of the battle against communist expansion and were already being aided under the Truman Doctrine. Initially the UK had supported the anti-communist factions in those countries, but due to its dire economic condition it requested the U.S. to continue its efforts. The ECA formally began operation in July 1948. Its official mission statement was to give a boost to the European economy: to promote European production, to bolster European currency, and to facilitate international trade, especially with the United States, whose economic interest required Europe to become wealthy enough to import U.S. goods. Another unofficial goal of ECA (and of the Marshall Plan) was the containment of growing Soviet influence in Europe, evident especially in the growing strength of communist parties in Czechoslovakia, France, and Italy.

The Marshall Plan money was transferred to the governments of the European nations. The funds were jointly administered by the local governments and the ECA. Each European capital had an ECA envoy, generally a prominent American businessman, who would advise on the process. The cooperative allocation of funds was encouraged, and panels of government, business, and labor leaders were convened to examine the economy and see where aid was needed.

The Marshall Plan aid was mostly used for the purchase of goods from the United States. The European nations had all but exhausted their foreign exchange reserves during the war, and the Marshall Plan aid represented almost their sole means of importing goods from abroad. At the start of the plan these imports were mainly much-needed staples such as food and fuel, but later the purchases turned towards reconstruction needs as was originally intended. In the latter years, under pressure from the United States Congress and with the outbreak of the Korean War, an increasing amount of the aid was spent on rebuilding the militaries of Western Europe. Of the some \$13 billion allotted by mid-1951, \$3.4 billion had been spent on imports of raw materials and semi-manufactured products; \$3.2 billion on food, feed, and fertilizer; \$1.9 billion on machines, vehicles, and equipment; and \$1.6 billion on fuel.

Also established were counterpart funds, which used Marshall Plan aid to establish funds in the local currency. According to ECA rules 60% of these funds had to be invested in industry. This was prominent in Germany, where these government-administered funds played a crucial role lending money to private enterprises which would spend the money rebuilding. These funds played a central role in the reindustrialization of Germany. In 1949 – 50, for instance, 40% of the investment in the German coal industry was by these funds. The companies were obligated to repay the loans to the government, and the money would then



First page of the Marshall Plan

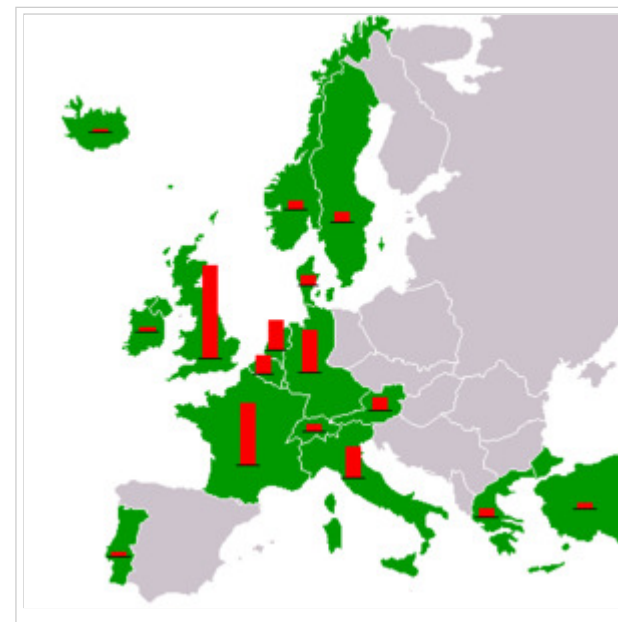


be lent out to another group of businesses. This process has continued to this day in the guise of the state owned KfW bank. The Special Fund, then supervised by the Federal Economics Ministry, was worth over DM 10 billion in 1971. In 1997 it was worth DM 23 billion. Through the revolving loan system, the Fund had by the end of 1995 made low-interest loans to German citizens amounting to around DM 140 billion. The other 40% of the counterpart funds were used to pay down the debt, stabilize the currency, or invest in non-industrial projects. France made the most extensive use of counterpart funds, using them to reduce the budget deficit. In France, and most other countries, the counterpart fund money was absorbed into general government revenues, and not recycled as in Germany.

A far less expensive, but also quite effective, ECA initiative was the Technical Assistance Program. This program funded groups of European engineers and industrialists to visit the United States and tour mines, factories, and smelters so that they could then copy the American advances at home. At the same time several hundred American technical advisors were sent to Europe.



















## Expenditures

The Marshall Plan aid was divided amongst the participant states on a roughly per capita basis. A larger amount was given to the major industrial powers, as the prevailing opinion was that their resuscitation was essential for general European revival. Somewhat more aid per capita was also directed towards the Allied nations, with less for those that had been part of the Axis or remained neutral. The table below shows Marshall Plan aid by country and year (in millions of dollars) from *The Marshall Plan Fifty Years Later*. There is no clear consensus on exact amounts, as different scholars differ on exactly what elements of American aid during this period was part of the Marshall Plan.







Country	1948/49 (\$ millions)	1949/50 (\$ millions)	1950/51 (\$ millions)	Cumulative (\$ millions)
 Austria	232	166	70	468
 Belgium and  Luxembourg	195	222	360	777
 Denmark	103	87	195	385
 France	1085	691	520	2296
 Germany	510	438	500	1448
 Greece	175	156	45	366
 Iceland	6	22	15	43
 Ireland	88	45	0	133
 Italy and  Trieste	594	405	205	1204
 Netherlands	471	302	355	1128
 Norway	82	90	200	372
 Portugal	0	0	70	70
 Sweden	39	48	260	347
 Switzerland	0	0	250	250
 Turkey	28	59	50	137
 United Kingdom	1316	921	1060	3297
<b>Totals</b>	<b>4,924</b>	<b>3,652</b>	<b>4,155</b>	<b>12,721</b>



## Effects



The Marshall Plan ended in 1953, as originally scheduled. Any effort to extend it was halted by the growing cost of the Korean War and rearmament. U.S. Republicans hostile to the plan had also gained seats in the 1950 Congressional elections, and conservative opposition to the plan was revived. Thus the plan ended in 1951, though various other forms of American aid to Europe continued afterwards.

The years 1948 to 1952 saw the fastest period of growth in European history. Industrial production increased by 35%. Agricultural production substantially surpassed pre-war levels. The poverty and starvation of the immediate postwar years disappeared, and Western Europe embarked upon an unprecedented two decades of growth that saw standards of living increase dramatically. There is some debate among historians over how much this should be credited to the Marshall Plan. Most reject the idea that it alone miraculously revived Europe, as evidence shows that a general recovery was already underway. Most believe that the Marshall Plan sped this recovery, but did not initiate it.

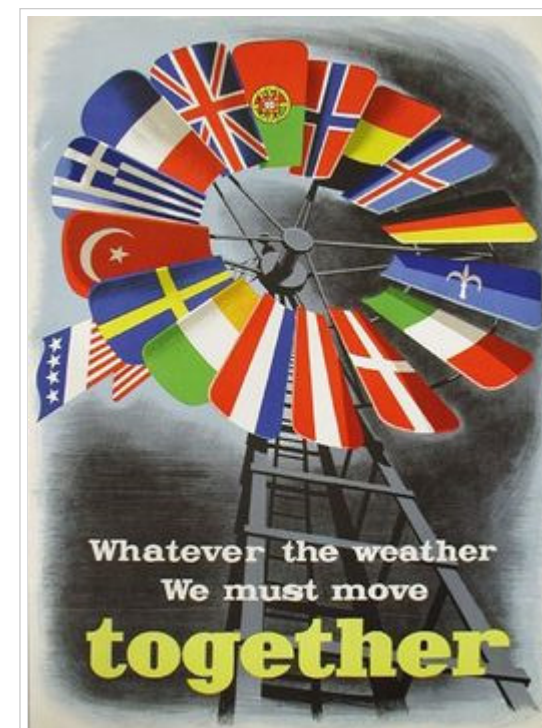
The political effects of the Marshall Plan may have been just as important as the economic ones. Marshall Plan aid allowed the nations of Western Europe to relax austerity measures and rationing, reducing discontent and bringing political stability. The communist influence on Western Europe was greatly reduced, and throughout the region communist parties faded in popularity in the years after the Marshall Plan. The trade relations fostered by the Marshall Plan helped forge the North Atlantic alliance that would persist throughout the Cold War. At the same time the nonparticipation of the states of Eastern Europe was one of the first clear signs that the continent was now divided.

The Marshall Plan also played an important role in European integration. Both the Americans and many of the European leaders felt that European integration was necessary to secure the peace and prosperity of Europe, and thus used Marshall Plan guidelines to foster integration. In some ways this effort failed, as the OEEC never grew to be more than an agent of economic cooperation. Rather it was the separate European Coal and Steel Community, which notably excluded Britain, that would eventually grow into the European Union. However, the OEEC served as both a testing and training ground for the structures and bureaucrats that would later be used by the European Economic Community. The Marshall Plan, linked into the Bretton Woods system, also mandated free trade throughout the region.

While some modern historians today feel some of the praise for the Marshall Plan is exaggerated, it is still viewed favorably and many thus feel that a similar project would help other areas of the world. After the fall of communism several proposed a "Marshall Plan for Eastern Europe" that would help revive that region. Others have proposed a Marshall Plan for Africa to help that continent, and U.S. vice president Al Gore suggested a Global Marshall Plan. "Marshall Plan" has become a metaphor for any very large scale government program that is designed to solve a specific social problem. It is usually used when calling for federal spending to correct a perceived failure of the private sector.

The West German economic recovery was partly due to the economic aid provided by the Marshall Plan, but mainly it was due to the currency reform of 1948 which replaced the Reichsmark with the Deutsche Mark as legal tender, halting rampant inflation. This act to strengthen the German economy had been

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One of a number of posters created to promote the Marshall Plan in Europe. The blue and white flag between those of Germany and Italy is a version of the Trieste flag.



explicitly forbidden during the two years that the occupation directive JCS 1067 was in effect. The Allied dismantling of the West German coal and steel industry finally ended in 1951. The Marshall Plan was only one of several forces behind the German recovery. Even so, in Germany the myth of the Marshall Plan is still alive. According to *Marshall Plan 1947–1997 A German View* by Susan Stern, many Germans still believe that Germany was the exclusive beneficiary of the plan, that it consisted of a free gift of vast sums of money, and that it was solely responsible for the German economic recovery in the 1950s.

## Repayment

The Organization for European Economic Cooperation took the leading role in allocating funds, and the ECA arranged for the transfer of the goods. The American supplier was paid in dollars, which were credited against the appropriate European Recovery Program funds. The European recipient, however, was not given the goods as a gift, but had to pay for them (though not necessarily at once, on credit etc.) in local currency, which was then deposited by the government in a counterpart fund. This money, in turn, could be used by the ERP countries for further investment projects.

Most of the participating ERP governments were aware from the beginning that they would never have to return the counterpart fund money to the U.S.; it was eventually absorbed into their national budgets and "disappeared." Originally the total American aid to Germany (in contrast to grants given to other countries in Europe) had to be repaid. But under the London debts agreement of 1953, the repayable amount was reduced to about \$1 billion. Aid granted after 1 July 1951 amounted to around \$270 million, of which Germany had to repay \$16.9 million to the Washington Export-Import Bank. In reality, Germany did not know until 1953 exactly how much money it would have to pay back to the U.S., and insisted that money was given out only in the form of interest-bearing loans — a revolving system ensuring the funds would grow rather than shrink. A lending bank was charged with overseeing the program. European Recovery Program loans were mostly used to support small- and medium-sized businesses. Germany paid the U.S. back in installments (the last check was handed over in June 1971). However, the money was not paid from the ERP fund, but from the central government budget.

## Areas without the Marshall Plan

Large parts of the world devastated by World War II did not benefit from the Marshall Plan. The only major Western European nation excluded was Francisco Franco's Spain. After the war, it pursued a policy of self-sufficiency, currency controls, and quotas, with little success. With the escalation of the Cold War, the United States reconsidered its position, and in 1951 embraced Spain as an ally, encouraged by Franco's aggressive anti-communist policies. Over the next decade, a considerable amount of American aid would go to Spain, but less than its neighbors had received under the Marshall Plan.

While the western portion of the Soviet Union had been as badly affected as any part of the world by the war, the eastern portion of the country was largely untouched and had seen a rapid industrialization during the war. The Soviets also imposed large reparations payments on the Axis allies that were in its sphere of influence. Finland, Hungary, Romania, and especially East Germany were forced to pay vast sums and ship large amounts of supplies to the USSR. These reparation payments meant that the Soviet Union received almost as much as any of the countries receiving Marshall Plan aid.

Eastern Europe saw no Marshall Plan money, as their governments rejected joining the program, and moreover received little help from the Soviets. The Soviets did establish COMECON as a rebuttal to the Marshall Plan. The members of Comecon looked to the Soviet Union for oil; in turn, they provided machinery,



equipment, agricultural goods, industrial goods, and consumer goods to the Soviet Union. Economic recovery in the east was much slower than in the west, and the economies never fully recovered in the communist period, resulting in the formation of the shortage economies and a gap in wealth between East and West. Finland, which did not join the Marshall Plan and which was required to give large reparations to the USSR, saw its economy recover to pre-war levels in 1947. France, which received billions of dollars through the Marshall Plan, similarly saw its economy return to pre-war levels in 1947. By mid-1948 industrial production in Poland, Hungary, Bulgaria, and Czechoslovakia had recovered to a level somewhat above pre-war level.

Japan too, had been badly damaged by the war. However, the American people and Congress were far less sympathetic towards the Japanese than they were to the Europeans. Japan was also not considered to have as great a strategic or economic importance to the United States. Thus no grand reconstruction plan was ever created, and the Japanese economic recovery before 1950 was slow. However, by 1952 growth had picked up, such that Japan continued, from 1952 to 1971 to grow in real GNP at an average annual rate of 9.6 percent. The US by contrast, grew at a rate of 2.9 percent from 1952 to 1991. The Korean War may have played a role in the early economic growth in Japan. It began in 1950 and Japan became the main staging ground for the United Nations war effort, and a crucial supplier of material. One well known example is that of the Toyota company. In June 1950, the company produced 300 trucks, and was on the verge of going out of business. The first months of the war saw the military order over 5,000 vehicles, and the company was revived. During the four years of the Korean War, the Japanese economy saw a substantially larger infusion of cash than had any of the Marshall Plan nations.

Canada, like the United States, was little damaged by the war and in 1945 was one of the world's largest economies. The Canadian economy had long been more dependent than the American one on trade with Europe, and after the war there were signs that the Canadian economy was struggling. In April 1948, the U.S. Congress passed the provision in the plan that allowed the aid to be used in purchasing goods from Canada. The new provision ensured the health of that nation's economy as Canada made over a billion dollars in the first two years of operation. This contrasted heavily with the treatment Argentina, another major economy dependent on its agricultural exports with Europe, received from the ECA, as the country was deliberately excluded from participation in the Plan due to political differences between the U.S. and then-president Perón. This would damage the Argentine agricultural sector and help to precipitate an economic crisis in the country.

## Criticism

### Early criticism

Initial criticism of the Marshall Plan came from a number of liberal economists. Wilhelm Röpke, who influenced German chancellor Ludwig Erhard in his economic recovery program, believed recovery would be found in eliminating central planning and restoring a market economy in Europe, especially in those countries which had adopted more fascist and corporatist economic policies. Röpke criticized the Marshall plan for forestalling the transition to the free market by subsidizing the current, failing systems. Erhard put Röpke's theory into practice and would later credit Röpke's influence for the West Germany's preeminent success. Henry Hazlitt criticized the Marshall Plan in his 1947 book *Will Dollars Save the World?*, arguing that economic recovery comes through savings, capital accumulation and private enterprise, and not through large cash subsidies. Ludwig von Mises also criticized the Marshall Plan in 1951, believing that "The American subsidies make it possible for [Europe's] governments to conceal partially the disastrous effects of the various socialist measures they have adopted." He also made a general critique of foreign aid, believing it creates ideological enemies rather than economic partners by stifling the free market.



## Modern criticism

Criticism of the Marshall Plan became prominent among historians of the revisionist school, such as Walter LaFeber, during the 1960s and 1970s. They argued that the plan was American economic imperialism, and that it was an attempt to gain control over Western Europe just as the Soviets controlled Eastern Europe. In a review of West Germany's economy from 1945 to 1951, German analyst Werner Abelshauser concluded that "foreign aid was not crucial in starting the recovery or in keeping it going." The economic recoveries of France, Italy, and Belgium, Cowen found, also predated the flow of U.S. aid. Belgium, the country that relied earliest and most heavily on free market economic policies after its liberation in 1944, experienced the fastest recovery and avoided the severe housing and food shortages seen in the rest of continental Europe.

Former U.S. Chairman of the Federal Reserve Bank Alan Greenspan gives most credit to Ludwig Erhard for Europe's economic recovery. Greenspan writes in his memoir *The Age of Turbulence* that Erhard's economic policies were the most important aspect of postwar Western Europe recovery, far outweighing the contributions of the Marshall Plan. He states that it was Erhard's reductions in economic regulations that permitted Germany's miraculous recovery, and that these policies also contributed to the recoveries of many other European countries. Japan's recovery is also used as a counter-example, since it experienced rapid growth without any aid whatsoever. Its recovery is attributed to traditional economic stimuli, such as increases in investment, fueled by a high savings rate and low taxes. Japan saw a large infusion of cash during the Korean war, but because this came in the form of investment and not subsidies, it proved far more beneficial.

Criticism of the Marshall Plan also aims at showing that it has begun a legacy of disastrous foreign aid programs. Since the 1990s, economic scholarship has been more hostile to the idea of foreign aid. For example, Alberto Alesina and Beatrice Weder, summing up economic literature on foreign aid and corruption, find that aid is primarily used wastefully and self-servingly by government officials, and ends up increasing governmental corruption. This policy of promoting corrupt government is then attributed back to the initial impetus of the Marshall Plan.

Noam Chomsky wrote that the amount of American dollars given to France and the Netherlands equaled the funds these countries used to finance their military forces in southeast Asia. The Marshall Plan was said to have "set the stage for large amounts of private U.S. investment in Europe, establishing the basis for modern transnational corporations." Other criticism of the Marshall Plan stemmed from reports that the Netherlands used a significant portion of the aid it received to try to re-conquer Indonesia in the Indonesian War of Independence.

## The E.R.P. in numismatics

The E.R.P. has left such a legacy behind that has been the main motive of many collectors and bullion coins. One of the most recent is the 20 euro Post War Period coin, minted in September 17, 2003. The reverse side of the coin is based on the design of two famous posters of the era: the "Four in a Jeep" and the E.R.P. The German inscription "Wiederaufbau in Österreich" translates as "Reconstruction in Austria", one of the countries aided by this program.

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# Morse code

2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: Cryptography; World War II

**Morse code** is a method for transmitting telegraphic information, using standardized sequences of short and long elements to represent the letters, numerals, punctuation and special characters of a given message. The short and long elements can be formed by sounds, marks or pulses, in on off keying and are commonly known as "dots" and "dashes" or "dits" and "dahs".

International Morse code is composed of five elements:

1. short mark, dot or 'dit' (·) — one unit long
2. longer mark, dash or 'dah' (-) — three units long
3. intra-character gap (between the dots and dashes within a character) — one unit long
4. short gap (between letters) — three units long
5. medium gap (between words) — seven units long

Morse code can be transmitted in a number of ways: originally as electrical pulses along a telegraph wire, but also as an audio tone, a radio signal with short and long tones, or as a mechanical or visual signal (e.g. a flashing light) using devices like an Aldis lamp or a heliograph. Morse code is transmitted using just two states (on and off) so it was an early form of a digital code. However, it is technically not binary, as the pause lengths are required to decode the information.

Originally created for Samuel F. B. Morse's electric telegraph in the early 1840s, Morse code was also extensively used for early radio communication beginning in the 1890s. For the first half of the twentieth century, the majority of high-speed international communication was conducted in Morse code, using telegraph lines, undersea cables, and radio circuits. However, the variable length of the Morse characters made it hard to adapt to automated circuits, so for most electronic communication it has been replaced by more machinable formats, such as Baudot code and ASCII.

The most popular current use of Morse code is by amateur radio operators, although it is no longer a requirement for Amateur licensing in the USA and many other countries. It also continues to be used for specialized purposes, including identification of navigational radio beacon and land mobile transmitters, plus some military communication, including flashing-light semaphore communications between ships in some naval services. Morse code is designed to be easily read by humans without a computer, making it appropriate for sending automated digital data in voice channels, as well as making it ideal for emergency signaling, such as by way of improvised energy sources that can be easily "keyed" by supplying and removing electric power (e.g. by flipping a switch or turning a flashlight on and off).

**International Morse Code**

1. A dash is equal to three dots.
2. The space between parts of the same letter is equal to one dot.
3. The space between two letters is equal to three dots.
4. The space between two words is equal to seven dots.

A	· —	U	·· —
B	— · · ·	V	·· — —
C	— — · ·	W	— · — —
D	— · · ·	X	— · — ·
E	· · ·	Y	— · — —
F	· · — ·	Z	— — · ·
G	— — · ·		
H	·· · ·		
I	·· ·		
J	· — — —		
K	— · — —	1	· — — — —
L	· — · ·	2	· — — — —
M	— —	3	· · — — —
N	— ·	4	· · · — —
O	— — —	5	· · · · ·
P	· — — —	6	· · · · ·
Q	— — · —	7	· — — · ·
R	· — · —	8	· — — · ·
S	· · · ·	9	— — — · ·
T	— · ·	0	— — — — ·

Chart of the Morse code letters and numerals



In situations in which the pulse can only be the same length (such as tapping on wood, or on walls of prison cells -- as opposed to an electronic tone), a slightly longer pause between beats can be used in place of a long pulse ("dah").

## Development and history

Beginning in 1836, Samuel F. B. Morse and Alfred Vail developed an electric telegraph, which sent pulses of electrical current to control an electromagnet that was located at the receiving end of the telegraph wire. The technology available at the time made it impossible to print characters in a readable form, so the inventors had to devise an alternate means of communication. Beginning in 1837, William Cooke and Charles Wheatstone operated electric telegraphs in England, which also controlled electromagnets in the receivers; however, their systems used needle pointers that rotated to indicate the alphabetic characters being sent.

In contrast, Morse and Vail's initial telegraph, which first went into operation in 1844, made indentations on a paper tape when an electrical current was transmitted. Morse's original telegraph receiver used a mechanical clockwork to move a paper tape. When an electrical current was received, an electromagnet engaged an armature that pushed a stylus onto the moving paper tape, making an indentation on the tape. When the current was interrupted, the electromagnet retracted the stylus, and that portion of the moving tape remained unmarked.

The Morse code was developed so that operators could translate the indentations marked on the paper tape into text messages. In his earliest code, Morse had planned to only transmit numerals, and use a dictionary to look up each word according to the number which had been sent. However, the code was soon expanded to include letters and special characters, so it could be used more generally. The shorter marks were called "dots", and the longer ones "dashes", and the letters most commonly used in the English language were assigned the shortest sequences.

In the original Morse telegraphs, the receiver's armature made a clicking noise as it moved into and out of position to mark the tape. Operators soon learned to translate the clicks directly into dots and dashes, making it unnecessary to use the paper tape. When Morse code was adapted to radio, the dots and dashes were sent as short and long pulses. It was later found that people become more proficient at receiving Morse code when it is taught as a language that is *heard*, instead of one read from a page. To reflect the sound of Morse code, practitioners began to vocalise a dot as "dit", and a dash as "dah".

Morse code was an integral part of international aviation. Commercial and military pilots were required to be familiar with it, both for use with early communications systems and identification of navigational beacons which transmitted continuous three letter ID's in Morse code. As late as the 1990s, aeronautical charts listed the three letter ID of each airport in Morse and sectionals still show the Morse signals for Vortac and NDB used for in flight navigation.

Morse code was also used as an international standard for maritime communication until 1999, when it was replaced by the Global Maritime Distress Safety System. When the French navy ceased using Morse code in 1997, the final message transmitted was "Calling all. This is our last cry before our eternal silence."



A typical "straight key." This U.S. model, known as the J-38, was manufactured in huge quantities during World War II, and remains in widespread use today. In a straight key, the signal is "on" when the knob is pressed, and "off" when it is released. Length and timing of the *dits* and *dahs* are entirely controlled by the operator.



See also: 500 kHz

## Modern International Morse Code

Morse code has been in use for more than 160 years — longer than any other electronic encoding system. What is called Morse code today is actually somewhat different from what was originally developed by Vail and Morse. The Modern International Morse code, or *continental code*, was created by Friedrich Clemens Gerke in 1848 and initially used for telegraphy between Hamburg and Cuxhaven in Germany. After some minor changes, in 1865 it was standardised at the International Telegraphy congress in Paris (1865), and later made the norm by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) as International Morse code. Morse's original code specification, largely limited to use in the United States, became known as **American Morse code** or "railroad code." American Morse is now very rarely used except in historical re-enactments.

## Amateur radio

International Morse code today is most popular among amateur radio operators, where it is used as the pattern to key a transmitter on and off in the radio communications mode commonly referred to as "continuous wave" or "CW". The original amateur radio operators used Morse code exclusively, as voice-capable radio transmitters did not become commonly available until around 1920. Until 2003 the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) mandated Morse code proficiency as part of the amateur radio licensing procedure worldwide. However, the World Radiocommunication Conference of 2003 (WRC-03) made the Morse code requirement for amateur radio licensing optional. Many countries subsequently removed the Morse requirement from their licence requirements.

Until 1991, a demonstration of the ability to send and receive Morse code at 5 words per minute (WPM) was required to receive an amateur radio license for use in the United States from the Federal Communications Commission. Demonstration of this ability was still required for the privilege to use the HF bands. Until 2000, proficiency at the 20 WPM level was required to receive the highest level of amateur license (Extra Class); effective April 15, 2000, the FCC reduced the Extra Class requirement to 5 WPM. Finally, effective February 23, 2007, the FCC eliminated the Morse code proficiency requirements for all amateur licenses.

While phone (voice) and data transmissions are limited to specific amateur radio bands, CW is the only form of communication that is permitted on all amateur bands— LF, MF, HF, UHF, and VHF. In some countries, certain portions of the amateur radio bands are reserved for transmission of Morse code signals only. Because Morse transmissions employ an on-off keyed radio signal, it requires less complex equipment than other forms of radio communication. Morse code also requires less bandwidth than voice communication, typically 100-150 Hz, compared to the roughly 2400 Hz used by single-sideband voice. Morse code is received as a high-pitched audio tone, so transmissions are easier to copy than voice through the noise on congested frequencies, and it can be used in very high noise / low signal environments.



Vibroplex semiautomatic key. The paddle, when pressed to the right by the thumb, generates a series of *dits*, the length and timing of which are controlled by a sliding weight toward the rear of the unit. When pressed to the left by the knuckle of the index finger, the paddle generates a *dah*, the length of which is controlled by the operator. Multiple *dahs* require multiple presses. Left-handed operators use a key built as a mirror image of this one.





The fact that the transmitted energy is concentrated into a very limited bandwidth makes it possible to use narrow receiver filters, which suppress or eliminate interference on nearby frequencies. The narrow signal bandwidth also takes advantage of the natural aural selectivity of the human brain, further enhancing weak signal readability. This efficiency makes CW extremely useful for DX (distance) transmissions, as well as for low-power transmissions (commonly called "QRP operators", from the Q-code for "reduce power"). There are several amateur clubs that require solid high speed copy, the highest of these has a standard of 60 WPM. For a slower level, the American Radio Relay League offers a code proficiency certification program that starts at 10 WPM.

The relatively limited speed at which Morse code can be sent led to the development of an extensive number of abbreviations to speed communication. These include prosigns and Q codes, plus a restricted standardized format for typical messages. This use of abbreviations also facilitates communication between operators who do not share a common language and thus would have great difficulty in communicating using voice modes.

Although the traditional telegraph key (straight key) is still used by many amateurs, the use of semi- and fully-automatic electronic keys (known as "bugs") is prevalent today. Computer software is also frequently employed to produce and decode Morse code radio signals.

## Other uses

Operators skilled in Morse code can often understand ("copy") code in their heads at rates in excess of 40 WPM. International contests in code copying are still occasionally held. In July 1939 at a contest in Asheville in the United States Ted R. McElroy set a still-standing record for Morse copying, 75.2 WPM. In his online book on high speed sending, William Pierpont N0HFF notes some operators may have passed 100 WPM. By this time they are "hearing" phrases and sentences rather than words. The fastest speed ever sent by a straight key was achieved in 1942 by Harry Turner W9YZE (d. 1992) who reached 35 WPM in a demonstration at a U.S. Army base.

As of 2007 commercial radiotelegraph licenses are still being issued in the United States by the Federal Communications Commission. Designed for shipboard and coast station operators, they are awarded to applicants who pass written examinations on advanced radio theory and show 20 WPM code proficiency [this requirement is waived for "old" (20 WPM) Extra Class licensees]. However, since 1999 the use of satellite and very high frequency maritime communications systems (GMDSS) have essentially made them obsolete.

Radio navigation aids such as VORs and NDBs for aeronautical use broadcast identifying information in the form of Morse Code, though many VOR stations now also provide voice identification.

## Applications for the general public

An important application is signaling for help through SOS or ... --- ... . This can be sent many ways: keying a radio on and off, toggling a flashlight, banging on a structure, arranging earth material (best to make a triangle instead), and any other method imaginable.



A commercially manufactured iambic paddle used in conjunction with an electronic keyer to generate high-speed Morse code, the timing of which is controlled by the electronic keyer. Manipulation of dual-lever paddles is similar to the Vibroplex, but pressing the right paddle generates a series of *dahs*, and squeezing the paddles produces dit-dah-dit-dah sequence. The actions are reversed for left-handed operators.



In speed contests between expert Morse code operators and expert cellphone SMS text messaging users, Morse code has consistently won, leading to speculation that cellphone manufacturers might someday build interfaces for Morse code input. This interface would translate the Morse code input into text, so that it could be sent to any SMS-capable cellphone, thus the recipient would not need to know Morse code in order to read it. (There are third party applications already available for some cellphones that allow Morse code input for sending SMS (see external links)). Other speculated applications include taking an existing assistive application of Morse code (see below) and using the vibrating alert feature on the cellphone to translate SMS messages to Morse code for silent, hands free "reading" of the incoming messages. Many Nokia cellphones have an option to beep either "SMS" or "CONNECTING PEOPLE" in Morse code as an audible alert for the reception of a text message.

## Morse code as an assistive technology

Morse code has been employed as an assistive technology, helping people with a variety of disabilities to communicate. Morse can be sent by persons with severe motion disabilities, as long as they have some minimal motor control. In some cases this means alternately blowing into and sucking on a plastic tube ("puff and sip" interface). People with severe motion disabilities in addition to sensory disabilities (e.g. people who are also deaf or blind) can receive Morse through a skin buzzer. Products are available that allow a computer operating system to be controlled by Morse code, allowing the user access to the Internet and electronic mail.

In one case reported in the radio amateur magazine *QST* an old shipboard radio operator who had a stroke and lost the ability to speak or write was able to communicate with his physician (a radio amateur) by blinking his eyes in Morse. A better confirmed case occurred in 1966 when prisoner of war Jeremiah Denton, brought on television by his North Vietnamese captors, Morse-blinked the word TORTURE.

## Representation and timing

Morse messages are generally transmitted by a hand-operated device such as a telegraph key, so there are variations introduced by the skill of the sender and receiver — more experienced operators can send and receive at faster speeds. There are two "symbols" used to represent letters, called dots and dashes or (more commonly among CW users) dits and dahs. The length of the dit determines the speed at which the message is sent, and is used as the timing reference.

The speed of Morse code is typically specified in "words per minute" (WPM). In text-book, full-speed Morse, a dah is conventionally 3 times as long as a dit. The spacing between dits and dahs within a character is the length of one dit; between letters in a word it is the length of a dah (3 dits); and between words it is 7 dits. The **Paris standard** defines the speed of Morse transmission as the dot and dash timing needed to send the word "Paris" a given number of times per minute. The word Paris is used because it is precisely 50 "dits" based on the text book timing.

Under this standard, the time for one "dit" can be computed by the formula:

$$T = 1200 / W$$

Where:  $W$  is the desired speed in words-per-minute, and  $T$  is one dit-time in milliseconds.

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Below is an illustration of timing conventions. The phrase "MORSE CODE", in Morse code format, would normally be written something like this, where - represents dahs and · represents dits:

```

- - - - · · · · · (space) - - - - · · · · ·
M O R S E (space) C O D E

```

Next is the exact conventional timing for this phrase, with = representing "signal on", and . representing "signal off", each for the time length of exactly one dit:

```

          1          2          3          4          5          6          7          8
123456789012345678901234567890123456789012345678901234567890123456789
M----- O----- R----- S---- E      C----- O----- D----- E
===== . . . . .===== . . . . .===== . . . . .===== . . . . .===== . . . . .===== . . . . .=====
^      ^      ^      ^      ^      ^      ^      ^
|      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
symbol space  dah dit  space  word space

```

People learning Morse code using the **Farnsworth method**, named for Donald R. "Russ" Farnsworth, also known by his call sign, W6TTB, are taught to send and receive letters and other symbols at their full target speed, that is with normal relative timing of the dots, dashes and spaces within each symbol for that speed. However, initially exaggerated spaces between symbols and words are used, to give "thinking time" to make the sound "shape" of the letters and symbols easier to learn. The spacing can then be reduced with practice and familiarity. Another popular teaching method is the **Koch method**, named after German psychologist Ludwig Koch, which uses the full target speed from the outset, but begins with just two characters. Once strings containing those two characters can be copied with 90% accuracy, an additional character is added, and so on until the full character set is mastered.

Morse code is often spoken or written with "dah" for dashes, "dit" for dots located at the end of a character, and "di" for dots located at the beginning or internally within the character. Thus, the following Morse code sequence:

```

M O R S E (space) C O D E
- - - - · · · · · (space) - - - - · · · · ·

```


is verbally:

*Dah-dah dah-dah-dah di-dah-dit di-di-dit dit, Dah-di-dah-dit dah-dah-dah dah-di-dit dit.*

Note that there is little point in learning to read *written* Morse as above; rather, the *sounds* of all of the letters and symbols need to be learnt, for both sending and receiving.



## Letters, numbers, punctuation

 This section includes inline links to audio files. If you have trouble playing the files, see [Wikipedia Media help](#).

Character	Code	Character	Code	Character	Code	Character	Code	Character	Code	Character	Code
A	· —	J	· — — —	S	· · ·	1	· — — — —	Period [.]	· — · — · —	Colon [:]	— — — · · ·
B	— · · ·	K	— · —	T	—	2	· · — — —	Comma [,]	— — — · — —	Semicolon [;]	— · — · — ·
C	— · — ·	L	· — · ·	U	· · —	3	· · · — —	Question mark [?]	· · — — · ·	Double dash [=]	— · · · —
D	— · ·	M	— —	V	· · · —	4	· · · · —	Apostrophe [']	· — — — — ·	Plus [+]	· — · — ·
E	·	N	— ·	W	· — —	5	· · · · ·	Exclamation mark [!]	— · — · — —	Hyphen, Minus [-]	— · · · · —
F	· · — ·	O	— — —	X	— · · —	6	— · · · ·	Slash [/], Fraction bar	— · · — ·	Underscore [_]	· · — — · —
G	— — ·	P	· — — ·	Y	— · — —	7	— — · · ·	Parenthesis open [(]	— · — — ·	Quotation mark ["]	· — · · — ·
H	· · · ·	Q	— — · —	Z	— — · ·	8	— — — · ·	Parenthesis closed [)]	— · — — · —	Dollar sign [\$]	· · · — · · —
I	· ·	R	· — ·	0	— — — — —	9	— — — — ·	Ampersand [&], Wait	· — · · ·	At sign [@]	· — — · — ·

There is no standard representation for the exclamation mark (!), although the KW digraph (— · — · — —) was proposed in the 1980s by the Heathkit Company (a vendor of assembly kits for amateur radio equipment). While Morse code translation software prefers this version, on-air use is not yet universal as some amateur radio operators in Canada and the USA continue to prefer the older MN digraph (— — — ·) carried over from American landline telegraphy code.

The **&**, **\$** and the **\_** sign are not defined inside the ITU recommendation on morse code. But the \$ sign code was defined inside the Phillips Code (huge collection of abbreviations used on land line telegraphy) as a **SX** representation. The above given representation for the **&**-sign is the morse pro sign used for **wait**.



On May 24, 2004—the 160th anniversary of the first public Morse telegraph transmission—the Radiocommunication Bureau of the International Telecommunication Union (ITU-R) formally added the "@" ("commercial at" or "commat") character to the official Morse character set, using the sequence denoted by the AC digraph (· — — · — ·). This sequence was reportedly chosen to represent "A[T] C[OMMERCIAL]" or the letter "a" inside the swirl appearing to be a "C". The new character facilitates sending electronic mail addresses by Morse code and is notable since it is the first official addition to the Morse set of characters since World War I.

## Prosigns

Character(s)	Code	Character(s)	Code	Character(s)	Code
Wait	· - · · ·	Error	· · · · · · ·	Understood	· · · - ·
Invitation to transmit	- · -	End of work	· · · - · -	Starting Signal	- · - · -

Defined in the ITU recommendation.

## Non-English extensions to the Morse code

Char.	Code	Char.	Code	Char.	Code	Char.	Code	Char.	Code
ä (also æ)	· — · —	ch (also š)	— — — —	é (also ě)	· · — · ·	ĵ	· — — — ·	ŝ	· · · — ·
à (also å)	· — — · —	ď	· · — — ·	ĝ	— — · — ·	ñ	— — · — —	þ	· — — · ·
ç (also ĉ)	— · — · ·	è	· — · · -	ĥ	— · — — ·	ö (also ø)	— — — ·	ü (also ŭ)	· · — —

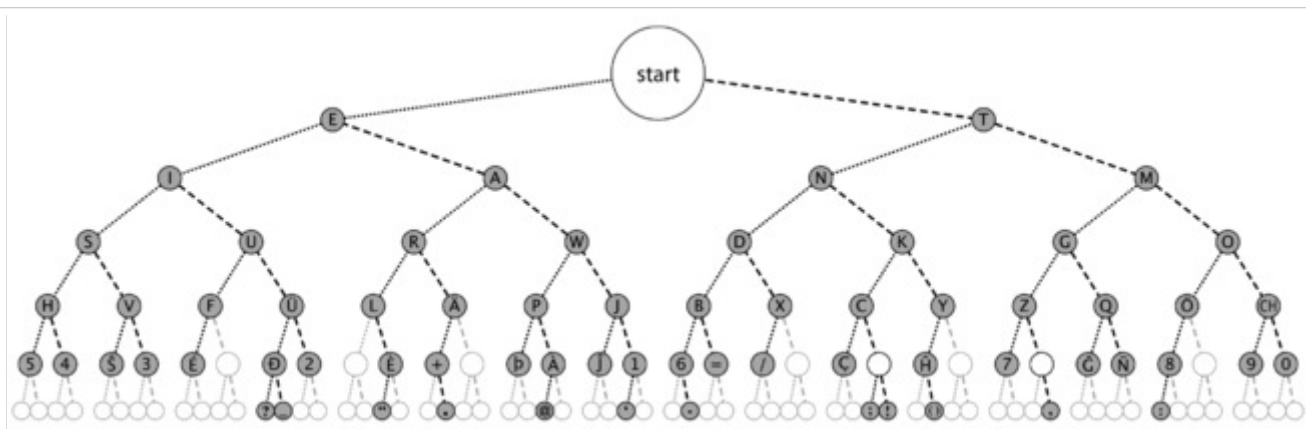
## Non-Latin extensions to Morse code

See Other alphabets in Morse code. For Chinese, Chinese telegraph code is used to map Chinese characters to four-digit codes and send these digits out using standard Morse code.

## Alternative display of more common characters for the international code

Some methods of teaching or learning morse code use the dichotomic search table below.

<http://cd3wd.com> [wikipedia-for-schools](http://wikipedia-for-schools) <http://gutenberg.org> page no: 245 of 307



A graphical representation of the dichotomic search table: the user branches left at every dot and right at every dash until the character is finished.

## Morse code in popular culture

Morse code has been used many times in music, print advertising, artwork, and as a plot device in films, television, and novels.

The album *Radio K.A.O.S.* by Roger Waters features Morse code on its cover and several songs.

The theme music of the television series *Some Mothers Do 'Ave 'Em*, composed by Ronnie Hazlehurst, spells out the programme's title in Morse code.

The popular Rush song "YYZ" also uses morse code. YYZ is the abbreviation for their hometown's airport (specifically, Toronto Pearson International Airport). YYZ in morse code is  $-. - / -. - / -. .$ , which is the same beat as the intro to the song.

The German Synth-rock band Kraftwerk, in the song Radio-Aktivität or Radio-Activity in English on the 1975 album of the same name, used morse code to spell out the name of the band.

The New York based band Interpol used Morse code to spell out the titles of the tracks on their album *Antics*.

In *Infernal Affairs*, Wong Chi Shing used Morse Code to communicate with Chan Wing-Yan during the mission.

Each episode of the TV Series *Jericho* begins with a different message in Morse code. Each message is usually something about the upcoming episode.

In the British TV Series *Inspector Morse*, the theme music spells out the name "MORSE" in Morse code.



On the album Train of Thought by band Dream Theatre, the song "In the Name of God" has a section where drummer Mike Portnoy taps out in Morse code the message, "EAT MY ASS AND BALLS." The phrase is a running joke with the band and was placed into the song as an Easter egg for fans.

The author, Trenton Lee Sewart incorporated Morse code into the plot of his children's book, The Mysterious Benedict Society, using it as a way for the characters to communicate during their mission. There is also a secret message in Morse code on the back flap of the hardback cover.

The Capitol Records building in Hollywood California, designed to look like a stack of 45 RPM records, has a red beacon light on top of the "spindle" that spells out H O L L Y W O O D in Morse code.

Retrieved from "[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morse\\_code](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Morse_code)"

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# Nazism

## 2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: World War II

**Nazism**, commonly known as **National Socialism** (German: *Nationalsozialismus*), refers primarily to the ideology and practices of the Nazi Party under Adolf Hitler; and the policies adopted by the government of Nazi Germany from 1933 to 1945, a period also known as the Third Reich. The official name of the party was *Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei (NSDAP)* — “National Socialist German Workers’ Party”. The Nazis were one of several historical groups that used the term National Socialism to describe themselves, and in the 1920s they became the largest such group. Nazism is generally considered by scholars to be a form of fascism, and while it incorporated elements from both political wings, it formed most of its temporary alliances on the political right. Among the key elements of Nazism were anti-parliamentarism, ethnic nationalism, racism, collectivism, eugenics, antisemitism, opposition to economic liberalism and political liberalism, anti-communism, and totalitarianism.

Nazism was not a monolithic movement, but rather a (mainly German) combination of various ideologies and groups, sparked by anger at the Treaty of Versailles and what was considered to have been a Jewish/Communist conspiracy (known in the vernacular as the *Dolchstoßlegende* or “Stab-in-the-Back Legend”) to humiliate Germany at the end of the First World War.

## Terminology

The term *Nazi* is derived from the first two syllables of *Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei*, the official German language name of the National Socialist German Workers’ Party (commonly known in English as the Nazi Party). Party members rarely referred to themselves as *Nazis*, and instead used the official term, *Nationalsozialisten* (National Socialists). The word mirrors the term *Sozi*, a common and slightly derogatory term for members of the Social Democratic Party of Germany (*Sozialdemokratische Partei Deutschlands*). When Adolf Hitler took power, the use of the term *Nazi* almost disappeared from Germany, although it was still used by opponents in Austria.

## History

National Socialist philosophy came together during a time of crisis in Germany; the nation had lost World War I in 1918, but had also been forced to sign the Treaty of Versailles, a devastating capitulation, and was in the midst of a period of great

### Nazism



Flag of the NSDAP 1920-1945 and of Nazi Germany 1933-1945

#### Nazi organizations

- Nazi Party
- Sturmabteilung
- Schutzstaffel
- Hitler Youth

#### Nazism in history

- Early Nazi Timeline
- Hitler's rise to power
- Nazi Germany
- Night of the Long Knives
- Nuremberg Rallies
- Kristallnacht
- The Holocaust
- Nuremberg Trials
- Ex-Nazis and Neo-Nazism

#### Nazi ideology

- Nazism and race
- Gleichschaltung
- Hitler's political beliefs
- National Socialist Program
- Religious aspects of Nazism
- Nazi propaganda
- Nazi architecture
- Mein Kampf*

#### Nazism and race





economic depression and instability. The *Dolchstosslegende* (or “stab in the back”), described by the National Socialists, featured a claim that the war effort was sabotaged internally, in large part by Germany’s Jews. The National Socialists suggested that a lack of patriotism had led to Germany’s defeat (for one, the front line was not on German soil at the time of the armistice). In politics, criticism was directed at the Social Democrats and the Weimar government ( *Deutsches Reich* 1919–1933), which the National Socialists accused of selling out the country. The concept of Dolchstosslegende led many to look at Jews and other so-called “non-Germans” living in Germany as having extra-national loyalties, thereby raising antisemitic sentiments and the *Judenfrage* (German for “ Jewish Question”), at a time when the Völkisch movement and a desire to create a Greater Germany were strong.

On January 5, 1919, the party that eventually became the Nazi Party was founded under the name German Workers' Party (DAP) by Anton Drexler, along with six other members. German intelligence authorities sent Hitler, a corporal at the time, to investigate the German Workers’ Party. As a result, party members invited him to join after he impressed them with the speaking ability he displayed while arguing with party members. Hitler joined the party in September 1919, and he became the propaganda boss. The party was renamed the National Socialist German Workers’ Party on February 24, 1920, against Hitler’s choice of Social Revolutionary Party. Hitler ousted Drexler and became the party leader on July 29, 1921.

Although Adolf Hitler had joined the Nazi Party in September 1919, and published *Mein Kampf* (“My Struggle”) in 1925 and 1926, the seminal ideas of National Socialism had their roots in groups and individuals of decades past. These include the Völkisch movement and its religious-occult counterpart, Ariosophy. Among the various Ariosophic lodge-like groups, only the Thule Society is related to the origins of the Nazi party.

The term *Nazism* refers to the ideology of the National Socialist German Workers’ Party and its Weltanschauung, which permeated German society (and to some degree European and American society) during the party’s years as the German government (1933 to 1945). Free elections in 1932 under Germany’s Weimar Republic made the NSDAP the largest parliamentary faction; no similar party in any country at that time had achieved comparable electoral success. Hitler’s January 30, 1933 appointment as Chancellor of Germany and his subsequent consolidation of dictatorial power marked the beginning of Nazi Germany. During its first year in power, the NSDAP announced the *Tausendjähriges Reich* (“Thousand Years’ Empire”) or *Drittes Reich* (“Third Reich”), a putative successor to the Holy Roman Empire and the German Empire).

## Post-1933 developments

In the night of February 27, 1933, the Reichstag fire provided Hitler with a convenient excuse for suppressing his opponents. The following day, he persuaded

Part of the Politics series on

### Fascism

Nazism and race  
Racial policy of Nazi Germany  
Nazi eugenics  
Doctors' Trial  
Nazi physicians  
Nazi human experimentation  
Nazism and Religion  
Nuremberg Trials

#### Outside Germany

National Socialist Front (Sweden)  
Swedish Resistance Movement  
White Aryan Resistance (Sweden)  
National Socialist Movement of Denmark  
National Socialist Movement of Norway  
Norwegian Resistance Movement  
Canadian National Socialist Unity Party  
German American Bund  
Hungarian National Socialist Party  
Nasjonal Samling  
Nationaal-Socialistische Beweging  
National Socialist Bloc  
National Socialist League  
National Socialist Workers’ Party of Denmark  
Ossewabrandwag  
Arrow Cross Party of Hungary  
Ustaša - Croatian Revolutionary Movement

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#### Lists

Nazi Party leaders and officials  
Adolf Hitler books  
Adolf Hitler speeches  
SS personnel  
Living Nazis  
Former Nazis influential after 1945

#### Politics Portal



President Paul von Hindenburg to sign an emergency decree suspending civil liberties and stripping the power of the federal German states. Opponents were imprisoned first in improvised camps (*wilde Lager*) and later in an organized system of Nazi concentration camps. On March 23, the Reichstag passed an “Enabling Law” which granted Hitler dictatorial powers. Unions were abolished and political parties, other than the National Socialists, forbidden.

Having dealt with his political enemies, Hitler moved against his rivals in the party, principally those allied with Ernst Röhm, leader of the Sturmabteilung (known as SA or “brownshirts”) and Gregor Strasser, leader of the Nazi left wing. Between June 30 and July 2, 1934, these were purged in the so-called Night of the Long Knives. With this, Hitler assured the support of the powerful Reichswehr. After the death of President Paul von Hindenburg on August 2, there was no one left who could present an effective challenge to Nazi power.

The Nazi Party had been anti-Semitic from the beginning, and shortly after seizing power had attempted a boycott against the Jews (see Nazi boycott of Jewish businesses). Official measures against the Jews had been limited by the reluctance of President Hindenburg, but the Nuremberg Laws, proclaimed by Hitler at the 1935 Nazi rally in Nuremberg, provided a legal basis for systematic persecution. Visible signs of anti-Semitism were removed during the 1936 Summer Olympics, but replaced shortly thereafter.

## Foreign reaction

The British Conservative party and the right-wing parties in France appeased the Nazi regime in the mid- and late 1930s, even though they had begun to criticise its totalitarianism and, in Britain especially, Nazi Germany’s policies towards the Jews. However, Britain had appeased pre-Nazi Germany too. Important reasons behind this appeasement included, first, the erroneous assumption that Hitler had no desire to precipitate another world war, even though in *Mein Kampf*, he explained the party’s program to the voters in detail, describing World War I very much as he actually fought it (overtly and explicitly committing himself to World War II in precise detail) and second, when the rebirth of the German military could no longer be ignored, a concern that neither Britain nor France was yet ready to fight an all-out war against Germany.

The second reason, that the West was not ready for war with Germany is, as Churchill pointed out, unsatisfactory, for the appeasement program worsened that problem, for example by removing Czechoslovakia’s resources from the anti Nazi side, and adding them to the Nazi side. As Churchill said of appeasement:

You were given the choice between war and dishonor. You chose dishonor, and you will have war. If you will not fight for the right when you can easily win without bloodshed; if you will not fight when your victory will be sure and not too costly, you may come to the moment when you will have to fight with all the odds are against you and only a precarious chance of survival. There may even be a worse case. You may have to fight when there is no hope of victory, because it is better to perish than live as slaves.

In 1936, Nazi Germany and Japan entered into the Anti-Comintern Pact, aimed directly at countering Soviet foreign policy. This alliance later became the basis for the Tripartite Pact with Italy, the foundation of the Axis Powers. The three nations united in their rabid opposition to communism, as well as their militaristic, racist regimes, but they failed to coordinate their military efforts effectively.

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In his early years, Hitler also greatly admired the United States of America. In *Mein Kampf*, he praised the United States for its race-based anti-immigration laws and for the subordination of the “inferior” black population. According to Hitler, America was a successful nation because it kept itself “pure” of “lesser races”. Nevertheless, his view of the United States became more negative as time passed.

## World War Two

The Nazi rulers of Germany began World War II by invading Poland in September 1939 and conquered most of Western Europe except for the United Kingdom and Ireland by the summer of 1940. On June 22, 1941, they invaded the Soviet Union and came close to capturing Moscow in December 1941. However, its fortunes in the war declined by late 1942 and early 1943 when the Allies defeated Nazi forces at Stalingrad and at both El-Alamein and Tunisia in North Africa.

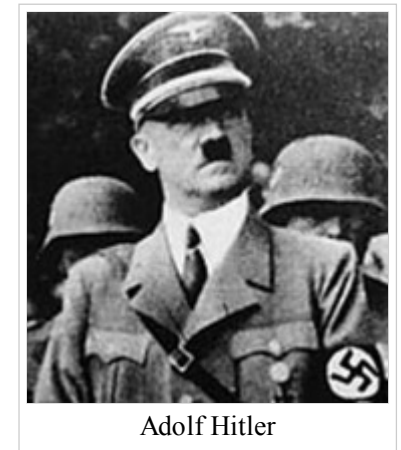
The Nazi regime in Germany ended with World War II in 1945, when the party was declared a criminal organisation by the victorious Allied Powers. Since 1945, Nazism has been outlawed as a political ideology in Germany, as are forms of iconography and propaganda from the Nazi era. Nevertheless, neo-Nazis continue to operate in Germany and several other countries. Following World War II and the Holocaust, the term *Nazi* and symbols associated with Nazism (such as the Swastika) acquired extremely negative connotations in Europe and North America.



## Ideology

Nazism has come to stand for a belief in the superiority of an Aryan race, an abstraction of the Germanic peoples. During Hitler’s time, the Nazis advocated a strong, centralized government under the Führer and claimed to defend Germany and the German people (including those of German ethnicity abroad) against Communism and so-called Jewish subversion. Ultimately, the Nazis sought to create a largely homogeneous and autarkic ethnic state, absorbing the ideas of Pan-Germanism.

Historians often disagree on the principal interests of the Nazi Party and whether Nazism can be considered a coherent ideology. The original National Socialists claimed that there would be no program that would bind them, and that they wanted to reject any established world view. Still, as Hitler played a major role in the development of the Nazi Party from its early stages and rose to become the movement’s indisputable iconographic figurehead, much of what is thought to be “Nazism” is in line with Hitler’s own political beliefs — the ideology and the man remain largely interchangeable in the public eye. Some dispute whether Hitler’s views relate directly to those surrounding the movement; the problem is exacerbated by the inability of various self-proclaimed Nazis and Nazi groups to decide on a universal ideology. But if Nazism is the world view promulgated in *Mein Kampf*, that world view is consistent and coherent, being characterized essentially by a conception of history as a race struggle; the Führerprinzip; anti-Semitism; and the need to acquire *Lebensraum* (living space) at the expense of the Soviet Union. The core concept of Nazism is that the German Volk is under attack from a judeo-bolshevist conspiracy, and must become united, disciplined and self-sacrificing (must submit to Nazi leadership) in order to win.





Hitler's political beliefs were formulated in *Mein Kampf*. His views were composed of three main axes: a conception of history as a race struggle influenced by Social Darwinism; antisemitism; and the idea that Germany needed to acquire land from Russia. His antisemitism, coupled with his anti-Communism, gave the grounds of his conspiracy theory of “judeo-bolshevism”. Hitler first began to develop his views through observations he made while living in Vienna from 1907 to 1913. He concluded that a racial, religious, and cultural hierarchy existed, and he placed “Aryans” at the top as the ultimate superior race, while Jews and “Gypsies” were people at the bottom. He vaguely examined and questioned the policies of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, where as a citizen by birth, Hitler lived during the Empire’s last throes. He believed that its ethnic and linguistic diversity had weakened the Empire and helped to create dissent. Further, he saw democracy as a destabilizing force because it placed power in the hands of ethnic minorities who, he claimed, “weakened and destabilized” the Empire by dividing it against itself. Hitler’s political beliefs were then affected by World War I and the 1917 October Revolution, and saw some modifications between 1920 and 1923. He formulated them definitively in *Mein Kampf*.

## Fascism

In both popular thought and academic scholarship, Nazism is generally considered a form of fascism — a term whose definition is itself contentious. The debate focuses mainly on comparisons of fascist movements in general with the Italian prototype, including the fascists in Germany. The idea mentioned above to reject all former ideas and ideologies like democracy, liberalism, and especially marxism (as in Ernst Nolte) make it difficult to track down a perfect definition of these two terms; however, Italian Fascists tended to believe that all elements in society should be unified through corporatism to form an “Organic State”; this meant that these Fascists often had no strong opinion on the question of race, since it was only the state and nation that mattered.

German Nazism, on the other hand, emphasized the Aryan race or “Volk” principle to the point where the state seemed simply a means through which the Aryan race could realize its “true destiny”. Since a debate among historians (especially Zeev Sternhell) to see each movement, or at least the German one, as unique, the issue has been for the most part settled, showing that there is a stronger family resemblance between the Italian and the German fascist movement than there is between democracies in Europe or the communist states of the Cold War; additionally, the crimes of the fascist movement can be compared, not only in numbers of casualties, but also in common developments: the March on Rome of Mussolini to Hitler’s response shortly after to attempt a coup d'etat himself in Munich.

Also, Aryanism was not an attractive idea for Italians who were seen as a non-Nordic population, but still there was a strong racism and also genocide in concentration camps long before either was in place in Germany. The philosophy that had seemed to be separating both fascisms was shown to be a result of happening in two different countries: since the king of Italy had not died, unlike the Reichspräsident, the leader in Italy (Duce) was not able to gain the absolute power the leader in Germany (Führer) did, leading to Mussolini’s fall. The academic challenge to separate all fascist movements has since the 1980s and early 1990s been ground for a new attempt to see even more similarities.

According to most scholars of fascism, there are both left and right influences on fascism as a social movement, and fascism, especially once in power, has historically attacked communism, conservatism and parliamentary liberalism, attracting support primarily from the "far right" or "extreme right."

## Nationalism



Hitler founded the Nazi state upon a racially defined “German people” and principally rejected the idea of being bound by the limits of nationalism. That was only a means for attempting unlimited supremacy. In that sense, its hyper-nationalism was tolerated to reach a world-dominating Germanic-Aryan *Volksgemeinschaft*. This idea is a central concept of *Mein Kampf*, symbolized by the motto *Ein Volk, ein Reich, ein Führer* (one people, one empire, one leader). The Nazi relationship between the Volk and the state was called the *Volksgemeinschaft* (people’s community), a late nineteenth or early twentieth century neologism that defined a communal duty of citizens in service to the Reich (as opposed to a simple society). The term “National Socialism” derives from this citizen-nation relationship, whereby the term *socialism* is invoked and is meant to be realized through the common duty of the individuals to the German people; all actions are to be in service of the Reich. The Nazis stated that their goal was to bring forth a nation-state as the locus and embodiment of the people’s collective will, bound by the *Volksgemeinschaft*, as both an ideal and an operating instrument. In comparison, traditional socialist ideologies oppose the idea of nations.

## Militarism

Nazi rationale invested heavily in the militarist belief that great nations grow from military power and maintained order, which in turn grow “naturally” from “rational, civilized cultures”. The Nazi Party appealed to German nationalists and national pride, capitalizing on irredentist and revanchist sentiments as well as aversions to various aspects of modernist thinking (although at the same time embracing other modernist ideas, such as admiration for engine power). Many ethnic Germans felt deeply committed to the goal of creating the Greater Germany (the old dream to include German-speaking Austria), which some believe required the use of military force to achieve.

## Racism and discrimination

The Nazi racial philosophy was influenced by the works of Arthur de Gobineau, Houston Stewart Chamberlain, and Madison Grant, and was elaborated by Alfred Rosenberg in the *Myth of the Twentieth Century*.

Hitler also claimed that a nation was the highest creation of a “race”, and “great nations” (literally *large* nations) were the creation of homogeneous populations of “great races” working together. These nations developed cultures that naturally grew from “races” with “natural good health, and aggressive, intelligent, courageous traits”. The “weakest nations”, Hitler said, were those of “impure” or “mongrel races”, because they had divided, quarreling, and therefore weak cultures. Worst of all were seen to be the parasitic “Untermensch” (“subhumans”), mainly Jews, but also Gypsies and Jehovah's Witnesses, homosexuals, the disabled and so-called anti-socials, all of whom were considered “*lebensunwertes Leben*” (“life-unworthy life”) owing to their perceived deficiency and inferiority, as well as their wandering, nationless invasions (“the International Jew”). The persecution of homosexuals as part of the Holocaust (with the *pink triangle*) has seen increasing scholarly attention since the 1990s, even though many homosexuals served in the *Sturmabteilungen*.

According to Nazism, it is an obvious mistake to permit or encourage plurality within a nation. Fundamental to the Nazi goal was the unification of all German-speaking peoples, “unjustly” divided into different Nation States. The Nazis tried to recruit Dutch and Scandinavian men into the SS, considering them of superior “Germanic” stock, with only limited success.

Hitler claimed that nations that could not defend their territory did not deserve it. He thought “slave races”, like the Slavic peoples, to be less worthy to exist



than “ leader races”. In particular, if a master race should require room to live (“ Lebensraum”), he thought such a race should have the right to displace the inferior indigenous races.

“Races without homelands”, Hitler proclaimed, were “parasitic races”, and the richer the members of a parasitic race were, the more virulent the parasitism was said to be. A master race could therefore, according to the Nazi doctrine, easily strengthen itself by eliminating parasitic races from its homeland. This idea was the given rationalization for the Nazis’ later oppression and elimination of Jews, Gypsies, Czechs, Poles, the mentally and physically handicapped, homosexuals and others not belonging to these groups or categories that were part of the Holocaust. The Waffen-SS and other German soldiers (including parts of the Wehrmacht), as well as civilian paramilitary groups in occupied territories, were responsible for the deaths of an estimated eleven million men, women, and children in concentration camps, prisoner-of-war camps, labor camps, and death camps such as Auschwitz and Treblinka.

## Eugenics

The belief in the need to purify the German race led them to eugenics; this effort culminated in the involuntary euthanasia of disabled people and the compulsory sterilization of people with mental deficiencies or illnesses perceived as hereditary. Adolf Hitler considered Sparta to be the first “ Völkisch State”, and praised its early eugenics treatment of deformed children.

## Antisemitism

According to Nazi propaganda, the Jews thrived on fomenting division amongst Germans and amongst states. Nazi antisemitism was primarily racial: “The Jew is the enemy and destroyer of the purity of blood, the conscious destroyer of our race;” however, the Jews were also described as plutocrats exploiting the worker: “As socialists we are opponents of the Jews because we see in the Hebrews the incarnation of capitalism, of the misuse of the nation’s goods.” In addition, the Nazis articulated opposition to finance capitalism with an emphasis on antisemitic claims that this was manipulated by a conspiracy of Jewish bankers.

## Homosexuality

An estimated 100,000 homosexuals were arrested after Hitler’s rise to power in the 1930s. Of those, 50,000 were suspected to be incarcerated in concentration camps, making for 5,000 to 15,000 deaths. According to Harry Oosterhuis, the Nazis’ original view toward homosexuality was at least ambiguous if not openly tolerant or even approving, with homosexuality common in the Sturmabteilung(SA) which was critical to Hitler as the paramilitary arm of the NSDAP. Thus, the eventual arrests of homosexuals should not be viewed in the context of “race hygiene” or eugenics. Völkisch-nationalist youth movements attracted homosexuals because of the preaching of *Männerbund* (male bonding); in practice, Oosterhuis says, this meant that the persecution of homosexuals was more politically motivated or opportunistic than anything else. For example, the homosexuality of Ernst Röhm and other leaders of the Sturmabteilung was well known for years and became the basis for satire and jokes, including in the Army, which was highly suspicious and resentful of the SA’s power and size. Röhm was killed chiefly because he was perceived as a political threat, not for his homosexuality. Indeed, it was only **after** the murder of Roehm that the Nazis publicly expressed concern about the depraved morals of Roehm and the other S.A. leaders who were shot. ...Hitler in addressing the surviving storm troop leaders in Munich at noon on June 30, just after the first executions, declared that for their corrupt morals alone these men deserved to die.

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Eventually, Nazism declared itself incompatible with homosexuality, because gays did not reproduce and perpetuate the master race. In 1936, Heinrich Himmler, Chief of the SS, created the "Reich Central Office for the Combating of Homosexuality and Abortion." Homosexuality was declared contrary to "wholesome popular sentiment," and gay men were regarded as "defilers of German blood." Homosexuals were persecuted for their sexuality. When they were prisoners in a concentration camp, they were forced to wear a pink triangle.

## Religion

Hitler extended his rationalizations into a religious doctrine, underpinned by his criticism of traditional Catholicism. In particular, and closely related to Positive Christianity, Hitler objected to Catholicism's ungrounded and international character — that is, it did not pertain to an exclusive race and national culture. At the same time, and somewhat contradictorily, the Nazis combined elements of Germany's Lutheran community tradition with its northern European, organic pagan past. Elements of militarism found their way into Hitler's own theology; he preached that his was a "true" or "master" religion, because it would "create mastery" and avoid comforting lies. Those who preached love and tolerance, "in contravention to the facts", were said to be "slave" or "false" religions. The man who recognized these "truths", Hitler continued, was said to be a "natural leader", and those who denied it were said to be "natural slaves". "Slaves" — especially intelligent ones, he claimed — were always attempting to hinder their masters by promoting false religious and political doctrines.

Anti-clericalism can also be interpreted as part of Nazi ideology, simply because the new Nazi hierarchy did not allow itself to be overridden by the power that the Church traditionally held. In Austria, clerics had a powerful role in politics and ultimately responded to the Vatican. Although a few exceptions exist, Christian persecution was primarily limited to those who refused to accommodate the new regime and yield to its power. A particularly poignant example is seen in the life of Dietrich Bonhoeffer. However, the Nazis often used the church to justify their stance and included many Christian symbols in the Third Reich .



The völkisch movement was inherently hostile toward atheism: freethinkers clashed frequently with Nazis in the late 1920s and early 1930s. On taking power, Hitler banned freethought organizations (such as the German Freethinkers League) and launched an “anti-godless” movement. In a 1933 speech he declared: “We have... undertaken the fight against the atheistic movement, and that not merely with a few theoretical declarations: we have stamped it out.” This forthright hostility was far more straightforward than the Nazis’ complex, often contradictory stance toward traditional Christian faith.

Several of the founders and subsequent leadership of the Nazi Party had been associates — and very occasionally members — of the *Thule-Gesellschaft* (the Thule Society), which romanticized the Aryan race through theology and ritual. The Thule Society had been an offshoot of the Germanenorden. The racist-occult notions of Ariosophy were not uncommon within these groups; Rudolf von Sebottendorf and a certain Wilde gave two lectures on occultism for the Thule Society. In general, however, its lectures and excursions were devoted to such subjects as Germanic antiquity and antisemitism, and historically it is more notable for the role it played as a paramilitary group fighting against the Bavarian Soviet Republic.

Dietrich Eckart, a remote associate of the Thule Society (he gave a reading there once from his plays, on 30 May 1919) coached Hitler on his public speaking skills, and Hitler later dedicated *Mein Kampf* to him. However, Hitler himself has not been shown to have been a member of the Thule Society or even to have attended its meetings. The DAP initially received support from the group, but the Thulists were quickly sidelined because Hitler favoured a mass movement and denigrated the occult-conspiratorial approach.

Heinrich Himmler, by contrast, showed a strong interest in such matters, although as Steigmann-Gall points out, Hitler and many of his key associates attended Christian services.

Himmler's activities at the Wewelsburg, the Thule Society and several other remote connections of Nazism with the occult are commonly brought up in the modern mythology of Nazi occultism. This image of Nazism only vaguely corresponds to its historic reality.

The prevailing scholarly view since the Second World War is that Martin Luther’s 1543 treatise, *On the Jews and their Lies*, exercised a major and persistent influence on Germany’s attitude toward its Jewish citizens in the centuries between the Reformation and the Holocaust. The National Socialists displayed *On the Jews and their Lies* during Nuremberg rallies, and the city of Nuremberg presented a first edition to Julius Streicher, editor of the Nazi newspaper *Der Stürmer*, the newspaper describing it as the most radically antisemitic tract ever published. Against the majority view, theologian Johannes Wallmann writes that the treatise had no continuity of influence in Germany, and was in fact largely ignored during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

According to Daniel Goldhagen, Bishop Martin Sasse, a leading Protestant churchman, published a compendium of Martin Luther’s writings shortly after the Kristallnacht; Sasse applauded the burning of the synagogues and the coincidence of the day, writing in the introduction, “On November 10, 1938, on Luther’s birthday, the synagogues are burning in Germany.” The German people, he urged, ought to heed these words “of the greatest antisemite of his time, the warner of his people against the Jews.” Diarmaid MacCulloch argued that *On the Jews and Their Lies* was a “blueprint” for the Kristallnacht.

There was a Persecution of Jehovah's Witnesses in Nazi Germany as well as of members of some other small Christian communities. Those groups were forced







to wear a purple triangle in Nazi concentration camps.

## Anti-capitalist rhetoric

Nazi publications and speeches included anti-capitalist (especially anti-finance capitalist) rhetoric. Hitler attacked what he called “pluto-democracy,” which he claimed to be a Jewish conspiracy to favour democratic parties in order to keep capitalism intact. The “corporation” was attacked by orthodox Nazis as being the leading instrument of finance capitalism, with the role of Jews emphasized. The National Socialist party described itself as socialist, and, at the time, conservative opponents such as the Industrial Employers Association described it as “totalitarian, terrorist, conspiratorial, and socialist.”

The Nazi Party’s 1920 “Twenty-Five Point Programme” demanded:

...that the State shall make it its primary duty to provide a livelihood for its citizens... the abolition of all incomes unearned by work... the ruthless confiscation of all war profits... the nationalization of all businesses which have been formed into corporations... profit-sharing in large enterprises... extensive development of insurance for old-age... land reform suitable to our national requirements...

Nazi Party officials made several attempts in the 1920s to change some of the program or replace it entirely. In 1924, Gottfried Feder proposed a new 39-point program that kept some of the old planks, replaced others and added many completely new ones. Hitler did not mention any of the planks of the programme in his book, *Mein Kampf*, and he only mentioned it in passing as “the so-called programme of the movement”.

Hitler said in 1927, “We are socialists, we are enemies of today’s capitalistic economic system for the exploitation of the economically weak, with its unfair salaries, with its unseemly evaluation of a human being according to wealth and property instead of responsibility and performance.” However, Hitler wrote in 1930, “Our adopted term ‘Socialist’ has nothing to do with Marxian Socialism. Marxism is anti-property; true Socialism is not.” In a confidential 1931 interview, Hitler told the influential editor of a pro-business newspaper, “I want everyone to keep what he has earned subject to the principle that the good of the community takes priority over that of the individual. But the State should retain control; every owner should feel himself to be an agent of the State... The Third Reich will always retain the right to control property owners.” Party spokesman Joseph Goebbels claimed in 1932 that the Nazi Party was a “workers’ party” and “on the side of labor and against finance”. According to Friedrich Hayek, writing in 1944, “whatever may have been his reasons, Hitler thought it expedient to declare in one of his public speeches as late as February 1941 that ‘basically National Socialism and Marxism are the same.’” Privately, Hitler stated in 1942, “I absolutely insist on protecting private property... we must encourage private initiative”.

## Ideological roots

The ideological roots that became German National Socialism were based on numerous sources in European history, drawing especially from Romantic nineteenth century idealism, and from a biological reading of Friedrich Nietzsche’s thoughts on “breeding upwards” toward the goal of an *Übermensch* (“superhuman”). Hitler was an avid reader and received ideas that later influenced Nazism from traceable publications, such as those of the Germanenorden or the Thule society. He also adopted many populist ideas such as limiting profits, abolishing rents and generously increasing social benefits—but only for Germans.



The Nordic myth has been attributed to an inferiority complex. Phillip Wayne Powell claimed that the Nordic myth began to arise “in the fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries, a powerful surge of German patriotism was stimulated by the disdain of Italians for German cultural inferiority and barbarism, which led to a counterattempt by German humanists to laud German qualities.”

M. W. Fodor claimed in *The Nation* in 1936, “No race has suffered so much from an inferiority complex as has the German. National Socialism was a kind of Coué method of converting the inferiority complex, at least temporarily, into a feeling of superiority”.

## Romanticism

According to Bertrand Russell, Nazism would come from a different tradition than that of either Liberalism or Marxism. Thus, to understand values of Nazism, it would be necessary to explore this connection, without trivializing the movement as it was in its peak years in the 1930s and dismissing it as little more than racism.

Antisemitism was shown to be a handy tool for Nazis to gain support, mainly because of the popular Houston Stewart Chamberlain. Personal accounts by August Kubizek, Hitler’s childhood friend, have varied, offering ambiguous claims that antisemitism did and did not date back to Hitler’s youth. One reason is the higher Jewish community in Austria and Germany because Germany had been a haven for many Jews over the years, including influential families such as the Rothschilds, although World War I and the Dolchstosslegende ended that legacy. Anti-Judaism had already been widely transformed into antisemitism before 1914 because of the new Europe-wide post-Darwin theory of racism. Historians universally accept that Nazism’s mass acceptance depended upon nationalistic appeals and fear against “non-normal people” (which also could include xenophobia and antisemitism) and a patriotic flattery toward the wounded collective pride of defeated World War I veterans.

Many see strong connections to the values of Nazism and the anti-rationalist tradition of the romantic movement of the early nineteenth century in response to the Enlightenment. Strength, passion, frank declarations of feelings, and deep devotion to family and community were valued by the Nazis though first expressed by many Romantic artists, musicians, and writers. German romanticism in particular expressed these values. For instance, Hitler identified closely with the music of Richard Wagner, who harbored antisemitic views as the author of *Das Judenthum in der Musik*. Some claim that he was one of Hitler’s role models, a comment of Kubizek’s that is also disputed.

The idealization of tradition, folklore, classical thought, leadership (as exemplified by Frederick the Great), their rejection of the liberalism of the Weimar Republic, and calling the German state the “Third Reich” (which traces back to the medieval First Reich and the pre-Weimar Second Reich) has led many to regard the Nazis as reactionary.

## Ideological variants

Nazism as a doctrine is far from homogeneous, and can be divided into at least two sub-ideologies. During the 1920s and 1930s, there were two dominant Nazi factions; the followers of Otto Strasser and the followers of Adolf Hitler. The Strasserite faction eventually fell afoul of Hitler, when Otto Strasser was expelled from the party in 1930, and his attempt to create an oppositional left-block in the form of the Black Front failed. The remainder of the faction, which was to be



found mainly in the ranks of the SA, was purged in the Night of the Long Knives, which included the murder of Gregor Strasser, Otto's brother. Afterwards, the Hitlerite faction became dominant. In the post-World War II era, Strasserism has enjoyed something of a revival among many neo-Nazi groups.

## List of elements of the Nazi ideology

- The National Socialist Program
- The rejection of democracy, and consequently abolishing political parties, labour unions, and free press.
  - Führerprinzip (*Leader Principle*) as a total belief in the leader (responsibility up the ranks, and authority down the ranks)
- Extreme Nationalism
  - Anti- Bolshevism
  - Strong show of local culture
  - Social Darwinism
  - Defense of “ Blood and Soil” (German: *Blut und Boden*)
  - The Lebensraum policy of creation of more living space for Germans in the east
- Nazism and race, Racial policies of the Third Reich and Nazi eugenics:
  - Anti-Slavism
  - Antisemitism
  - The creation of a *Herrenrasse* (or *Herrenvolk*) (*Master Race* = by the Lebensborn (*Fountain of Life*; A department in the Third Reich)).
  - Aryan Supremacism; more specifically, ranking of individuals according to their race and racial purity, with the Nordic race favoured the most
- Limited freedom of religion (Point #24 in the National Socialist Program)
- Rejection of the modern art movement and an embrace of classical art
- Association with Fascism or Totalitarianism
- Animal welfare, see Animal welfare in Nazi Germany
- Environmentalism: In June 1935, the Reichsnaturschutzgesetz (Reich Nature Protection Law) was enacted. It was valid in West Germany till 1976. Some historians have either argued that this law was the symptom of an actual interest of the Nazi regime in the preservation of the natural world, or that it was not a Nazi law at all, but rather the nonideological expression of previous ideas. Others have contested these views, and claim that the Reichsnaturschutzgesetz reflected instead key elements of both progressive preservationism of the 1930s, such as the concepts of natural monuments and nature protection areas, and of Nazism, such as racialism and nationalism.
- Kraft durch Freude The well-being of the working classes.
- Public health ( Anti smoking campaigns, asbestos restrictions, occupational health and safety standards)

## Ideological competition

Nazism and communism emerged as two serious contenders for power in Germany after the First World War, particularly as the Weimar Republic became



increasingly unstable. What became the Nazi movement arose out of resistance to the Bolshevik-inspired insurgencies that occurred in Germany in the aftermath of the First World War. The Russian Revolution of 1917 caused a great deal of excitement and interest in the Leninist version of Marxism and caused many socialists to adopt revolutionary principles. The Spartacist uprising in Berlin and the Bavarian Soviet Republic in 1919 were both manifestations of this. The Freikorps, a loosely organized paramilitary group (essentially a militia of former World War I soldiers) was used to crush both these uprisings and many leaders of the Freikorps, including Ernst Röhm, later became leaders in the Nazi Party. After Mussolini's fascists took power in Italy in 1922, fascism presented itself as a realistic option for opposing communism, particularly given Mussolini's success in crushing the communist and anarchist movements that had destabilized Italy with a wave of strikes and factory occupations after the First World War. Fascist parties formed in numerous European countries.

Many historians, such as Ian Kershaw and Joachim Fest, argue that Hitler's Nazis were one of numerous nationalist and increasingly fascistic groups that existed in Germany and contended for leadership of the anti-communist movement and, eventually, of the German state. Further, they assert that fascism and its German variant, *National Socialism*, became the successful challengers to communism because they were able to both appeal to the establishment as a bulwark against Bolshevism and appeal to the working class base, particularly the growing underclass of unemployed and unemployable and growingly impoverished middle class elements who were becoming declassed (denounced as the *lumpenproletariat*). The Nazis' use of pro-labor rhetoric appealed to those disaffected with capitalism by promoting the limiting of profits, the abolishing of rents and the increasing of social benefits (only for Germans) while simultaneously presenting a political and economic model that divested "Soviet socialism" of elements that were dangerous to capitalism, such as the concept of class struggle, "the dictatorship of the proletariat" or worker control of the means of production. Thus, Nazism's populism, anti-communism and anti-capitalism helped it become more powerful and popular than traditional conservative parties, like the DNVP. For the above reasons, particularly the fact that Nazis and communists fought each other (often violently) during most of their existence, nazism and communism are commonly seen as opposite extremes on the political spectrum. Nevertheless, this view is not without its challengers. Several political theorists and economists, primarily those associated with the Austrian school, argue that nazism, Soviet communism and other totalitarian ideologies share a common underpinning in socialism and collectivism.

The simplicity of Nazi rhetoric, campaigns, and ideology also made its conservative allies underestimate its strength, and its ability to govern or even to last as a political party. Michael Mann defined fascism as a "transcendent and cleansing nation statism through paramilitarism", with "transcendent" meaning that the all classes were to be abolished in order for a new, organic and pure people: all classes are abolished by transition, all "others" (an estimated two-thirds of the German population alone).

### **Support of anti-communists for fascism and Nazism**

Various far right politicians and political parties in Europe welcomed the rise of fascism and the Nazis, out of an intense aversion towards communism. They saw Hitler as the savior of Western civilization and of capitalism against Bolshevism. During the late 1930s and the 1940s, the Nazis were supported by the Falange movement in Spain, and by political and military figures who formed the government of Vichy France. The Legion of French Volunteers against Bolshevism (LVF) and other anti-Soviet fighting formations formed.

### **Nazi economic policy**



Nazi economic practice concerned itself with immediate domestic issues and separately with ideological conceptions of international economics.

Domestic economic policy was narrowly concerned with four major goals to eliminate Germany's issues:

- Elimination of unemployment.
- Rapid and substantial rearmament.
- Protection against the resurgence of hyper-inflation
- Expansion of production of consumer goods to improve middle and lower-class living standards.

All of these policy goals were intended to address the perceived shortcomings of the Weimar Republic and to solidify domestic support for the party. In this, the party was successful. Between 1933 and 1936 the German Gross National Product ( GNP) increased by an average annual rate of 9.5%, and the rate for industry alone rose by 17.2%.

This expansion propelled the German economy out of a deep depression and into full employment in less than four years. Public consumption during the same period increased by 18.7%, while private consumption increased by 3.6% annually. According to the historian Richard Evans, prior to the outbreak of war the German "economy had recovered from the Depression faster than its counterparts in other countries. Germany's foreign debt had been stabilized, interest rates had fallen to half their 1932 level, the stock exchange had recovered from the Depression, the gross national product had risen by 81 per cent over the same period.... Inflation and unemployment had been conquered."

German marriages increased from about 511,000 in 1932 to 611,000 in 1936, while births rose from 921,000 births in 1932 to 1,280,000 in 1936. Suicides committed by young people under 20 dropped by 80% between 1933 and 1939.

Internationally, the Nazi Party believed that an international banking cabal was behind the global depression of the 1930s. Control of this cabal, which had grown to a position where it controlled both Europe and the United States, was identified with an elite and powerful group of Jews. Nevertheless, a number of people believed that this was part of an ongoing plot by the Jewish people, as a whole, to achieve global domination. The Protocols of the Elders of Zion, which began its circulation in Russia at the beginning of the 20th century, were said to have confirmed this, already showing "evidence" that the Bolshevik takeover in Russia was in accordance with one of the protocols. Broadly speaking, the existence of large international banking or merchant banking organizations was well known at this time. Many of these banking organizations were able to exert influence upon nation states by extension or withholding of credit. This influence is not limited to the small states that preceded the creation of the German Empire as a nation state in the 1870s, but is noted in most major histories of all European powers from the sixteenth century onward. Nevertheless, after the Great Depression, this libelous and unverified manuscript took on an important role in Nazi Germany, thus providing another link in the Nazis ideological motivation for the destruction of that group in the Holocaust.

The Nazis viewed private property rights as conditional upon the mode of use. If the property was not being used to further Nazi goals, it could be nationalized. Government takeovers and threats of takeovers were used to encourage compliance with government production plans, even if following these plans cost profits for companies. For example, the owner of the Junkers (aircraft) factory refused to follow the government's directives, whereupon the Nazis took over the plant, placed the owner Hugo Junkers under house arrest, then compensated him for his loss. Hitler extended state controls over prices, labor, materials, dividends and foreign trade, limiting competition and private ownership in attempt to direct all segments of economy towards "general welfare". From the 1930s state



ownership increased in both war and non-war sectors of economy.

Central planning of agriculture was a prominent feature. In order to tie farmers to the land, the selling of agricultural land was prohibited. Farm ownership was nominally private, but ownership in the sense of having discretion over operations and claims on residual income were taken away. This was achieved by granting monopoly rights to marketing boards to control production and prices through a quota system. Quotas were also set for industrial goods, including pig iron, steel, aluminium, magnesium, gunpowder, explosives, synthetic rubber, all kinds of fuel, and electricity. A compulsory cartel law was enacted in 1936 which allowed the Minister of Economics to make existing cartels compulsory and permanent and to force industries to form cartels where none existed, though these were eventually decreed out of existence by 1943 with the objective being to replace them with more authoritarian bodies.

In place of ordinary profit incentive to guide the economy, investment was guided through regulation to accord to the needs of the State. The profit incentive for business owners was retained, though greatly modified through various profit-fixing schemes: “Fixing of profits, not their suppression, was the official policy of the Nazi party.” However the function of profit in automatically guiding allocation of investment and unconsciously directing the course of the economy was replaced with economic planning by Nazi government agencies. Government financing eventually came to dominate the investment process, which the proportion of private securities issued falling from over half of the total in 1933 and 1934 to approximately 10 percent in 1935–1938. Heavy taxes on business profits limited self-financing of firms. The largest firms were mostly exempt from taxes on profits, however government control of these were extensive enough to leave “only the shell of private ownership.”

Taxes and subsidies were also used in order to direct the economy. Underlying economic policy was the use of terror as an incentive to agree and comply. Nazi language indicated death or concentration camp for any business owner who pursued his own self interest instead of the ends of the State.

It is often regarded that businesses were private property in name but not in substance. Chritoph Buchheim and Jonas Scherner dissent, saying that despite controls by the state firms still had significant freedom in planning their own production and investment activities, though they admit that the economy was state directed.

Many companies dealt with the Third Reich: Volkswagen was created by the German state and was heavily supported by the Nazis; Opel employed Jewish slave labour to run their industrial plants; Daimler-Benz used prisoners of war as slaves to run their industrial plants; Krupp made gas chambers; Bayer worked with the Nazis as a small part of the enormous IG Farben chemistry monopoly; and Hugo Boss designed the SS uniforms (and admitted to this in 1997). There has been some disagreement about whether IBM had dealt with the Nazis to create a cataloguing system, the Hollerith punch-card machines, which the Nazis used to file information on those who they killed. Some companies that dealt with the Third Reich claim to have not known the truth of what the Nazis were doing, and some foreign companies claimed to have lost control of their German branches when Hitler was in power.

## Nazism in popular culture

The term *Nazi* has become a generic term of abuse in popular culture, as have other Third Reich terms such as *Führer* (often spelled differently in English-speaking countries). Related terms (such as *fascist* or *Gestapo* or *Hitler*) are sometimes used to describe any people or behaviours that are viewed as thuggish, authoritarian, or extremist. Phrases such as *grammar Nazi*, *feminazi*, *open source Nazi*, and *parking enforcement Nazi*, are sometimes used in the United States.



These uses are offensive to some, as indicated by the controversy in the mainstream media over the *Seinfeld* “ Soup Nazi” episode. These types of terms are used frequently enough to inspire Godwin's Law.

Some people strongly associate the blackletter typefaces (e.g. Fraktur or Schwabacher) with Nazi propaganda (although the typeface is much older, and its usage was banned by the Nazi German government in 1941). In films such as the *Indiana Jones* series, Nazis are often portrayed as villains, whom the heroes battle without mercy. Video game website IGN declared Nazis to be the most memorable video game villains ever. The main antagonists in the manga *Hellsing* are vampiric Nazis.

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# Vietnam War

2008/9 Schools Wikipedia Selection. Related subjects: Military History and War

The **Vietnam War**, also known as the **Second Indochina War**, the **Vietnam Conflict**, and, in Vietnam, the **American War**, occurred from March 1959 to April 30, 1975. The war was fought between the communist Democratic Republic of Vietnam (North Vietnam) and its communist allies and the US-supported Republic of Vietnam (South Vietnam).

Throughout the conflict the less equipped and trained Vietcong fought a guerilla war and North Vietnamese soldiers fought a conventional war against US forces in the region, using the jungles of Vietnam to spring deadly ambushes whilst the United States used overwhelming firepower in artillery and aircraft to grind down offensives and potential Vietcong bases. In particular, the iconic Huey helicopters played a decisive role in air-lifting supplies and when later upgraded with rockets and machine guns took part in the heavy ground conflicts.

In 1965 the United States sent in troops to prevent the South Vietnamese government from collapsing. Ultimately, however, the United States failed to achieve its goal, and in 1975 Vietnam was reunified under Communist control; in 1976 it officially became the Socialist Republic of Vietnam. During the conflict, approximately 3 to 4 million Vietnamese on both sides were killed, in addition to another 1.5 to 2 million Lao and Cambodians who were drawn into the war.

## Terminology

Various names have been applied to the conflict, and these have shifted over time, although **Vietnam War** is the most commonly used title in English. It has been variously called the **Second Indochina War**, the **Vietnam Conflict**, the **Vietnam War**. In Vietnamese, the war is commonly known as *Chiến tranh Việt Nam* (The Vietnam War), or more officially as *Kháng chiến chống Mỹ* (Resistance War against America).

The main military organizations involved in the war were, on the side of the South, the U.S. military and the Army of the Republic of Vietnam (ARVN), and, on the side of the North, the Vietnam People's Army (VPA), also known as the North Vietnamese Army (NVA) or the People's Army of Vietnam (PAVN), and the communist guerrilla forces in the South named the National Front for the Liberation of South Vietnam (NLF), also known as the Viet Cong.

<http://cd3wd.com> [wikipedia-for-schools](http://wikipedia-for-schools) <http://gutenberg.org> page no: 264 of 307

### Vietnam War



Da Nang, Vietnam - A young Marine private waits on the beach during the Marine landing. - August 3, 1965

<b>Date</b>	1959 – April 30, 1975
<b>Location</b>	Southeast Asia





## Background to 1949

History of Vietnam

### Exit of the French, 1950–1954

In 1950, the Democratic Republic of Vietnam and the People's Republic of China (PRC) recognized each other diplomatically. The Soviet Union quickly followed suit. U.S. President Harry S. Truman countered by recognizing the French puppet government of Vietnam. Washington, seemingly ignorant of the long historical antipathy between Vietnam and China, feared that Hanoi was a pawn of the PRC and, by extension, Moscow. As historian and former Hanoi foreign minister Luu Doan Huynh has commented, “Vietnam a part of the Chinese expansionist game in Asia? For anyone who knows the history of Indochina, this is incomprehensible.” Nevertheless, Chinese support was very important to the Viet Minh's success, and China largely supported the Vietnamese Communists through the end of the war.

The outbreak of the Korean War in 1950 marked a decisive turning point. From the perspective of many in Washington, what had been a colonial war in Indochina was transformed into another example of communist expansionism directed by the Kremlin.

In 1950, the U.S. Military Assistance and Advisory Group (MAAG) arrived to screen French requests for aid, advise on strategy, and train Vietnamese soldiers. By 1954, the U.S. had supplied 300,000 small arms and spent one billion dollars in support of the French military effort. The Eisenhower administration was shouldering 80 percent of the cost of the war. The Viet Minh received crucial support from the Soviet Union and the PRC. Chinese support in the Border Campaign of 1950 allowed supplies to come from China into Vietnam. Throughout the conflict, U.S. intelligence estimates remained skeptical of French chances of success.

The Battle of Dien Bien Phu marked the end of French involvement in Indochina. The Viet Minh and their mercurial commander Vo Nguyen Giap handed the French a stunning military defeat. On May 7, 1954, the French Union garrison surrendered. At the Geneva Conference the French negotiated a ceasefire agreement with the Viet Minh. Independence was granted to Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam. As a U.S. Army study noted, France lost the war primarily because it “neglected to cultivate the loyalty and support of the Vietnamese people.” More than 400,000 civilians and soldiers had died during the nine year conflict.

Vietnam was temporarily partitioned at the 17th parallel, and under the terms of the Geneva Convention,

#### Result

- North Vietnamese Victory
- American withdrawal widely regarded as an American defeat.
- Invasion of South Vietnam and reunification of Vietnam under the rule of the Communist Party of Vietnam.
- Communist rule in Laos and rise to power of Cambodia's Khmer Rouge.

#### Territorial changes








Dissolution of South Vietnam and reunification of Vietnam

#### Belligerents





##### *anti-Communist forces*

-  South Vietnam
-  United States
-  South Korea
-  Australia
-  Philippines
-  New Zealand
-  Khmer Republic
-  Thailand
-  Kingdom of Laos

##### *Communist forces*

-  North Vietnam
-  Viet Cong
-  Khmer Rouge
-  Pathet Lao
-  People's Republic of China
-  Soviet Union
-  North Korea

#### Commanders

- |  |   |
|--|---|
|  Nguyen Van Thieu |  Ho Chi Minh |
|  Ngo Dinh Diem    |  Le Duan     |



civilians were to be given the opportunity to freely move between the two provisional states. Elections throughout the country were to be held, according to the Geneva accords, but never took place. Nearly one million northerners (mainly Catholics) fled south in “understandable terror” of Ho Chi Minh's new regime. It is estimated that as many as two million more would have left had they not been stopped by the Viet Minh. In the north, the Viet Minh established a socialist state—the Democratic Republic of Vietnam—and engaged in a land reform program in which the mass killing of perceived “class enemies” occurred. Ho Chi Minh later apologized. In the south a non-communist state was established under the Emperor Bao Dai, a former puppet of the French and the Japanese. Ngo Dinh Diem became his Prime Minister. In addition to the Catholics flowing south, up to 90,000 Viet Minh fighters went north for “regroupment” as envisioned by the Geneva Accords. However, in contravention of the Accords, the Viet Minh left roughly 5,000 to 10,000 cadres in South Vietnam as a “politico-military substructure within the object of its irredentism.”

## Diem era, 1955–1963

As dictated by the Geneva Conference of 1954, the partition of Vietnam was meant to be only temporary, pending national elections on July 20, 1956. Much as in Korea, the agreement stipulated that the two military zones were to be separated by a temporary demarcation line (known as the Demilitarized Zone or DMZ). The United States, alone among the great powers, refused to sign the Geneva agreement. The president of South Vietnam, Ngo Dinh Diem, declined to hold elections. This called into question the United States' commitment to democracy in the region, but also raised questions about the legitimacy of any election held in the communist-run North. President Dwight D. Eisenhower expressed U.S. fears when he wrote that, in 1954, “80 per cent of the population would have voted for the Communist Ho Chi Minh” over Emperor Bao Dai. However, this wide popularity was expressed before Ho's disastrous land reform program and a peasant revolt in Ho's home province which was bloodily suppressed.

The cornerstone of U.S. policy was the Domino Theory. This argued that if South Vietnam fell to communist forces, then all of South East Asia would follow. Popularized by the Eisenhower Administration, some argued that if communism spread unchecked, it would follow them home by first reaching Hawaii and follow to the West Coast of the United



President Dwight D. Eisenhower and Secretary of State John Foster Dulles greet President Ngo Dinh Diem in Washington.



The Geneva Conference, 1954

Dwight D. Eisenhower	Truong Chinh
John F. Kennedy	Nguyen Chi Thanh
Lyndon B. Johnson	Vo Nguyen Giap
Robert McNamara	Pham Hung
William Westmoreland	Van Tien Dung
Richard Nixon	Trần Văn Trà
Gerald Ford	Le Duc Tho
Creighton Abrams	Đồng Sỹ Nguyên
	Le Duc Anh

### Strength

~1,200,000 (1968)	~520,000 (1968)
South Vietnam:	North Vietnam:
~650,000	~340,000
United States: 553,000 (1968)	PRC: 170,000 (1969)
South Korea, New Zealand, Thailand,	Soviet Union: 3,000
Philippines: ~61,800	North Korea: 300
Australia: 7,000 (1969)	

### Casualties and losses

<b>South Vietnam</b> dead: ~250,000; wounded: ~1,170,000	<b>North Vietnam &amp; NLF</b> dead/missing: ~560,000; wounded: 600,000+
<b>US</b> dead: 58,209; 2,000 missing; wounded: 305,000	<b>P.R. China</b> dead: 1,446; wounded: 4,200br
<b>South Korea</b> dead: 4,900; wounded: 11,000	<b>Soviet Union</b> dead: unknown, less than two dozen USSR military deaths acknowledged.
<b>Australia</b> dead: 520; wounded: 2,400*	<b>Total dead: ~1,101,000</b> Total wounded: ~604,000+
<b>New Zealand</b> dead: 37; wounded: 187	
<b>Total dead: ~314,000</b> Total wounded:	



States. It was better, therefore, to fight communism in Asia, rather than on American soil.

## Rule

Ngo Dinh Diem was chosen by the U.S. to lead South Vietnam. A devout Roman Catholic, he was fervently anti-communist and was “untainted” by any connection to the French. He was one of the few prominent Vietnamese nationalists who could claim both attributes. Historian Luu Doan Huynh notes, however, that “Diem represented narrow and extremist nationalism coupled with autocracy and nepotism.”

The new American patrons were almost completely ignorant of Vietnamese culture. They knew little of the language or long history of the country. There was a tendency to assign American motives to Vietnamese actions, and Diem warned that it was an illusion to believe that blindly copying Western methods would solve Vietnamese problems.

In April and June 1955, Diem (against U.S. advice) cleared the decks of any political opposition by launching military operations against the Cao Dai religious sect, the Buddhist Hoa Hao, and the Binh Xuyen organized crime group (which was allied with members of the secret police and some military elements). Diem accused these groups of harboring Communist agents. As broad-based opposition to his harsh tactics mounted, Diem increasingly sought to blame the communists.

Beginning in the summer of 1955, he launched the “Denounce the Communists” campaign, during which communists and other anti-government elements were arrested, imprisoned, tortured, or executed. Opponents were labeled Viet Cong by the regime to degrade their nationalist credentials. During this period refugees moved across the demarcation line in both directions. Around 52,000 Vietnamese civilians moved from south to north. However a staggering 450,000 people fled north Vietnam to the south, in aircraft and ships provided by France and the U.S. CIA propaganda efforts increased the outflow with slogans such as “the Virgin Mary is going South.” The northern refugees were meant to give Diem a strong anti-communist constituency.

In a referendum on the future of the monarchy, Diem rigged the poll supervised by his brother Ngo Dinh Nhu and received “98.2 percent” of the vote. His American advisers had recommended a more modest winning margin of “60 to 70 percent.” Diem, however, viewed the election as a test of authority. On October 26, 1955, Diem declared the new Republic of Vietnam, with himself as president. The Republic of Vietnam was created largely because of the Eisenhower administration's desire for an anti-communist state in the region. Colonel Edward Lansdale, a CIA officer, became an important advisor to the new president.

As a wealthy Catholic, Diem was viewed by many ordinary Vietnamese as part of the old elite who had helped the French rule Vietnam. The majority of Vietnamese people were Buddhist, so his attack on the Buddhist community served only to deepen mistrust. Diem's human rights abuses increasingly alienated the population.

In May, Diem undertook a ten-day state visit to the United States. President Eisenhower pledged his continued support. A parade in New York City was held in his honour. Although Diem was openly praised, in private Secretary of State John Foster Dulles conceded that he had been selected because there were no

~1,490,000

**Vietnamese civilian dead: 2,000,000\***

**Cambodian civilian dead: ~700,000\***

**Laotian civilian dead: ~50,000\***

\* = approximations, see Casualties below  
For more information on casualties see Vietnam War casualties



better alternatives.

## Insurgency in the South, 1956–1960

In 1956 one of the leading communists in the south, Le Duan, returned to Hanoi to urge the Vietnam Workers' Party to take a firmer stand on the reunification of Vietnam under Communist leadership. But Hanoi (then in a severe economic crisis) hesitated to launch a full-scale military struggle. The northern Communists feared U.S. intervention and believed that conditions in South Vietnam were not yet ripe for a "people's revolution." However, in December 1956, Ho Chi Minh authorized the Viet Minh cadres still in South Vietnam to begin a low level insurgency. In North Vietnamese political theory, the action was a subset of "political struggle" called "armed propaganda," and consisted mostly of kidnappings and terrorist attacks.

Four hundred government officials were assassinated in 1957 alone, and the violence gradually increased. While the terror was originally aimed at local government officials, it soon broadened to include other symbols of the *status quo*, such as schoolteachers, health workers, and agricultural officials. One estimate says that by 1958, 20 percent of South Vietnam's village chiefs had been murdered by the insurgents. The insurgency sought to completely destroy government control in South Vietnam's rural villages and replace it with a shadow government. Finally, in January 1959, under pressure from southern cadres who were being targeted by Diem's secret police, the North's Central Committee issued a secret resolution authorizing an "armed struggle." This authorized the southern Viet Minh to begin large-scale operations against the South Vietnamese military. In response, Diem enacted tough new anti-communist laws. However, North Vietnam supplied troops and supplies in earnest, and the infiltration of men and weapons from the north began along the Ho Chi Minh Trail.

Observing the increasing unpopularity of the Diem regime, on December 12, 1960, Hanoi authorized the creation of the National Liberation Front as a front group for the Vietcong, the communist army in the South.

Successive American administrations, as Robert McNamara and others have noted, overestimated the control that Hanoi had over the NLF. Diem's paranoia, repression, and incompetence progressively angered large segments of the population of South Vietnam. Thus, many maintain that the origins of the anti-government violence were homegrown, rather than inspired by Hanoi. However, as historian Douglas Pike has pointed out, "today, no serious historian would defend the thesis that North Vietnam was not involved in the Vietnam war from the start.... To maintain this thesis today, one would be obliged to deal with the assertions of Northern involvement that have poured out of Hanoi since the end of the war."

## John F. Kennedy's Escalation of the War, 1960–1963

When John F. Kennedy won the 1960 U.S. presidential election, one major issue Kennedy raised was whether the Soviet space and missile programs had surpassed those of the U.S. As Kennedy took over, despite warnings from Eisenhower about Laos and Vietnam, Europe and Latin America "loomed larger than Asia on his sights." In his inaugural address, Kennedy made the ambitious pledge to "pay any price, bear any burden, meet any hardship, support any friend, oppose any foe, in order to assure the survival and success of liberty."

In June 1961, John F. Kennedy bitterly disagreed with Soviet premier Nikita Khrushchev when they met in Vienna over key U.S.-Soviet issues. Cold war strategists concluded Southeast Asia would be one of the testing grounds where Soviet forces would test the USA's containment policy—begun during the



Truman Administration and solidified by the stalemate resulting from the Korean War.

Although Kennedy stressed long-range missile parity with the Soviets, he was also interested in using special forces for counterinsurgency warfare in Third World countries threatened by communist insurgencies. Although they were originally intended for use behind front lines after a conventional invasion of Europe, Kennedy believed that the guerrilla tactics employed by special forces such as the Green Berets would be effective in a "brush fire" war in Vietnam. He saw British success in using such forces in Malaya as a strategic template.

The Kennedy administration remained essentially committed to the Cold War foreign policy inherited from the Truman and Eisenhower administrations. In 1961, Kennedy faced a three-part crisis—the failure of the Bay of Pigs invasion, the construction of the Berlin Wall, and a negotiated settlement between the pro-Western government of Laos and the Pathet Lao communist movement. These made Kennedy believe that another failure on the part of the United States to gain control and stop communist expansion would fatally damage U.S. credibility with its allies and his own reputation. Kennedy determined to "draw a line in the sand" and prevent a communist victory in Vietnam, saying, "Now we have a problem making our power credible and Vietnam looks like the place," to James Reston of the New York Times immediately after meeting Khrushchev in Vienna. Kennedy increased the number of U.S. military in Vietnam from 800 to 16,300.

In May 1961, Vice President Lyndon B. Johnson visited Saigon and enthusiastically declared Diem the "Winston Churchill of Asia." Asked why he had made the comment, Johnson replied, "Diem's the only boy we got out there." Johnson assured Diem of more aid in molding a fighting force that could resist the communists.

Kennedy's policy toward South Vietnam rested on the assumption that Diem and his forces must ultimately defeat the guerrillas on their own. He was against the deployment of American combat troops and observed that "to introduce U.S. forces in large numbers there today, while it might have an initially favorable military impact, would almost certainly lead to adverse political and, in the long run, adverse military consequences."



The quality of the South Vietnamese military, however, remained poor. Bad leadership, corruption, and political interference all played a part in emasculating the Army of the Republic of Vietnam (ARVN). The frequency of guerrilla attacks rose as the insurgency gathered steam. Hanoi's support for the NLF played a significant role. But South Vietnamese governmental incompetence was at the core of the crisis. Kennedy advisers Maxwell Taylor and Walt Rostow recommended that U.S. troops be sent to South Vietnam disguised as flood relief workers. Kennedy rejected the idea but increased military assistance yet again. In April 1962, John Kenneth Galbraith warned Kennedy of the "danger we shall replace the French as a colonial force in the area and bleed as the French did." By mid-1962, the number of U.S. military advisers in South Vietnam had risen from 700 to 12,000.

The Strategic Hamlet Program had been initiated in 1961. This joint U.S.-South Vietnamese program attempted to resettle the rural population into fortified camps. The aim was to isolate the population from the insurgents, provide education and health care, and strengthen the government's hold over the countryside. The Strategic Hamlets, however, were quickly infiltrated by the guerrillas. The peasants resented being uprooted from their ancestral villages. The government refused to undertake land reform, which left farmers paying high rents to a few wealthy landlords. Corruption dogged the program and intensified opposition. Government officials were targeted for assassination. The Strategic Hamlet Program collapsed two years later.

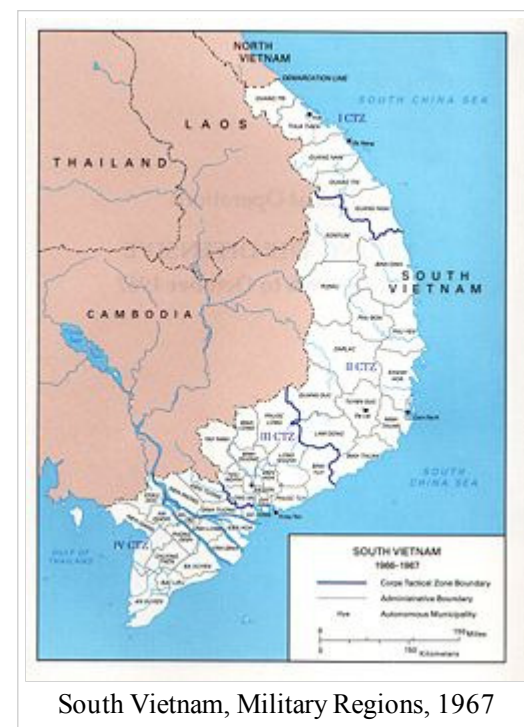
On July 23, 1962, fourteen nations, including the People's Republic of China, South Vietnam, the Soviet Union, North Vietnam and the United States, signed an agreement promising the neutrality of Laos.

## Coup and assassinations

Some policy-makers in Washington began to conclude that Diem was incapable of defeating the communists and might even make a deal with Ho Chi Minh. He seemed concerned only with fending off coups. As Robert F. Kennedy noted, "Diem wouldn't make even the slightest concessions. He was difficult to reason with ..." During the summer of 1963 U.S. officials began discussing the possibility of a regime change. The United States Department of State was generally in favour of encouraging a coup. The Pentagon and CIA were more alert to the destabilizing consequences of such an act and wanted to continue applying pressure for reforms.

Chief among the proposed changes was the removal of Diem's younger brother Ngo Dinh Nhu. Nhu controlled the secret police and was seen as the man behind the Buddhist repression. As Diem's most powerful adviser, Nhu had become a hated figure in South Vietnam. His continued influence was unacceptable to the Kennedy administration. Eventually, the administration concluded that Diem was unwilling to change.

The CIA was in contact with generals planning to remove Diem. They were told that the United States would support such a move. President Diem was overthrown and executed, along with his brother, on November 2, 1963. When he was informed, Maxwell Taylor remembered that Kennedy "rushed from the room with a look of shock and dismay on his face." He had not approved Diem's murder. The U.S. ambassador to South Vietnam, Henry Cabot Lodge, invited the coup leaders to the embassy and congratulated them. Ambassador Lodge informed Kennedy that "the prospects now are for a shorter war".



South Vietnam, Military Regions, 1967



Following the coup, chaos ensued. Hanoi took advantage of the situation and increased its support for the guerrillas. South Vietnam entered a period of extreme political instability, as one military government toppled another in quick succession. Increasingly, each new regime was viewed as a puppet of the Americans; whatever the failings of Diem, his credentials as a nationalist (as Robert McNamara later reflected) had been impeccable.

Kennedy increased the number of U.S. military advisers from 800 to 16,300 to cope with rising guerrilla activity. The advisers were embedded at every level of the South Vietnamese armed forces. They were, however, almost completely ignorant of the political nature of the insurgency. The insurgency was a political power struggle, in which military engagements were not the main goal. The Kennedy administration sought to refocus U.S. efforts on pacification and "winning over the hearts and minds" of the population. The military leadership in Washington, however, was hostile to any role for U.S. advisers other than conventional troop training. General Paul Harkins, the commander of U.S. forces in South Vietnam, confidently predicted victory by Christmas 1963. The CIA was less optimistic, however, warning that "the Viet Cong by and large retain de facto control of much of the countryside and have steadily increased the overall intensity of the effort".

In a conversation with Nobel Peace Prize winner and Canadian prime minister Lester B. Pearson, Kennedy sought his advice. "Get out," Pearson replied. "That's a stupid answer," shot back Kennedy. "Everyone knows that. The question is: How do we get out?" Kennedy was assassinated on November 22, 1963, just three weeks after Diem.

Kennedy had introduced helicopters to the war and created a joint U.S.-South Vietnamese Air Force, staffed with American pilots. He also sent in the Green Berets. He was succeeded by his vice president, Lyndon B. Johnson, who reaffirmed America's support of South Vietnam. By the end of the year Saigon had received \$500 million in military aid.

## **United States goes to war, 1963–1969**



A U.S. EB-66 Destroyer and four F-105 Thunderchiefs dropping bombs on North Vietnam

Lyndon Johnson, as he took over the presidency after the death of Kennedy, did not consider Vietnam a priority and was more concerned with his "Great Society" and progressive social programs. Johnson had a difficult time with American foreign policy makers, specifically Averill Harriman and Dean Acheson, who to Johnson's mind spoke a different language. Particularly heated was the relationship between the new president and national security advisor McGeorge Bundy. Shortly after the assassination of Kennedy, when Bundy called LBJ on the phone, LBJ responded:

"Goddammit, Bundy. I've told you that when I want you I'll call you."

On November 24, 1963, Johnson brought a small group together to talk with Henry Cabot Lodge, and the new president provided his support to help win the Vietnam war. But the pledge came at a time when Vietnam was deteriorating, especially in places like the Mekong Delta, because of the recent coup against Diem.

The military revolutionary council, meeting in lieu of a strong South Vietnamese leader, was made up of 12 members headed by General Minh—whom Stanley Karnow, a journalist on the ground, later recalled as "a model of lethargy." His regime was overthrown in January 1964 by General Nguyen Khanh. Lodge, frustrated by the end of year, cabled home about Minh: "Will he be strong enough to get on top of things?"

On August 2, 1964, the USS *Maddox*, on an intelligence mission along North Vietnam's coast, fired upon and damaged several torpedo boats that had been stalking it in the Gulf of Tonkin. A second attack was reported two days later on the USS *Turner Joy* and *Maddox* in the same area. The circumstances of the attack were murky. Lyndon Johnson commented to Undersecretary of State George Ball that "those sailors out there may have been shooting at flying fish." The second attack led to retaliatory air strikes, prompted Congress to approve the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, and gave the president power to conduct military operations in Southeast Asia without declaring war. In the same month, Johnson pledged that he was not "...committing American boys to fighting a war that I think ought to be fought by the boys of Asia to help protect their own land."

In 2005, however, an NSA declassified report revealed that there was no attack on 4 August. It had already been called into question long before this. "The Gulf of Tonkin incident," writes Louise Gerdes, "is an oft-cited example of the way in which Johnson misled the American people to gain support for his foreign policy in Vietnam." George C. Herring argues, however, that McNamara and the Pentagon "did not knowingly lie about the alleged attacks, but they were obviously in a mood to retaliate and they seem to have selected from the evidence available to them those parts that confirmed what they wanted to believe." Rising from 5,000 in 1959, there were now 100,000 guerrilla fighters in 1964. Some have argued that ten soldiers are needed to deal with every one insurgent. Thus, the total number of U.S. troops in 1964 needed to defeat the insurgents may have exceeded the entire strength of the United States Army.



An alleged NLF activist, captured during an attack on an American outpost near the Cambodian border, is interrogated.





The National Security Council recommended a three-stage escalation of the bombing of North Vietnam. On March 2, 1965, following an attack on a U.S. Marine barracks at Pleiku, Operation Flaming Dart and Operation Rolling Thunder commenced. The bombing campaign, which ultimately lasted three years, was intended to force North Vietnam to cease its support for the National Front for the Liberation of South Vietnam (NLF) by threatening to destroy North Vietnam's air defenses and industrial infrastructure. As well, it was aimed at bolstering the morale of the South Vietnamese. Between March 1965 and November 1968, "Rolling Thunder" deluged the north with a million tons of missiles, rockets and bombs. Bombing was not restricted to North Vietnam. Other aerial campaigns, such as Operation Commando Hunt, targeted different parts of the NLF and Vietnam People's Army (VPA) infrastructure. These included the Ho Chi Minh Trail, which ran through Laos and Cambodia. The objective of forcing North Vietnam to stop its support for the NLF, however, was never reached. As one officer noted "this is a political war and it calls for discriminate killing. The best weapon ... would be a knife ... The worst is an airplane." The Chief of Staff of the United States Air Force Curtis LeMay, however, had long advocated saturation bombing in Vietnam and wrote of the Communists that "we're going to bomb them back into the Stone Age".

## Escalation and ground war



Peasants suspected of being communists under detention of U.S. army, 1966

Escalation of the Vietnam War officially started on the morning of January 31, 1965, when orders were cut and issued to mobilize the 18th TAC Fighter Squadron from Okinawa to Danang air force base (AFB). A red alert alarm to scramble was sounded at Kadena AFB at 3:00 a.m. F-105s, pilots, and support were deployed from Okinawa and landed in Vietnam that afternoon to join up with other smaller units who had already arrived weeks earlier. Preparations were under way for the first step of Operation Flaming Dart. The mission of Operation Flaming Dart, to cross the Seventeenth Parallel into North Vietnam, had already been planned and was in place before the NLF attack on Pleiku airbase on February 6. On February 7, forty-nine F-105 Thunderchiefs flew out of Danang AFB to targets located in North Vietnam. From this day forward the war was no longer confined to South Vietnam. It took almost an hour to get all forty nine of the F-105's in the air. On that morning, the continuous loud roar of the F-105 engines going down the runway, one following another, was described by the ground crew as a "rolling thunder". At this time the Marines had not landed and Danang AFB was unprotected.

After several attacks upon them, it was decided that U.S. Air Force bases needed more protection. The South Vietnamese military seemed incapable of providing security. On March 8, 1965, 3,500 United States Marines were dispatched to South Vietnam. This marked the beginning of the American ground war. U.S. public opinion overwhelmingly supported the deployment. Public opinion, however, was based on the premise that Vietnam was part of a global struggle against communism. In a statement similar to that made to the French almost two decades earlier, Ho Chi Minh warned that if the Americans "want to make war for twenty years then we shall make war for twenty years. If they want to make peace, we shall make peace and invite them to afternoon tea." As former First Deputy Foreign Minister Tran Quang Co has noted, the primary goal of the war

was to reunify Vietnam and secure its independence. The policy of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam (DRV) was not to topple other non-communist governments in South East Asia.



A Marine from 1st Battalion, 3rd Marines, moves an alleged NLF activist to the rear during a search and clear operation held by the battalion 15 miles (24 km) west of Da Nang Air Base.



The Marines' assignment was defensive. The initial deployment of 3,500 in March was increased to nearly 200,000 by December. The U.S. military had long been schooled in offensive warfare. Regardless of political policies, U.S. commanders were institutionally and psychologically unsuited to a defensive mission. In May, Army of the Republic of Vietnam (ARVN) forces suffered heavy losses at the Battle of Binh Gia. They were again defeated in June, at the Battle of Dong Xoai. Desertion rates were increasing, and morale plummeted. General William Westmoreland informed Admiral Grant Sharp, commander of U.S. Pacific forces, that the situation was critical. He said, "I am convinced that U.S. troops with their energy, mobility, and firepower can successfully take the fight to the NLF [National Front for the Liberation of South Vietnam]." With this recommendation, Westmoreland was advocating an aggressive departure from America's defensive posture and the sidelining of the South Vietnamese. By ignoring ARVN units, the U.S. commitment became open-ended. Westmoreland outlined a three-point plan to win the war:

"Phase 1. Commitment of U.S. (and other free world) forces necessary to halt the losing trend by the end of 1965.

Phase 2. U.S. and allied forces mount major offensive actions to seize the initiative to destroy guerrilla and organized enemy forces. This phase would be concluded when the enemy had been worn down, thrown on the defensive, and driven back from major populated areas.

Phase 3. If the enemy persisted, a period of twelve to eighteen months following Phase 2 would be required for the final destruction of enemy forces remaining in remote base areas."

The plan was approved by Johnson and marked a profound departure from the previous administration's insistence that the government of South Vietnam was responsible for defeating the guerrillas. Westmoreland predicted victory by the end of 1967.

Johnson did not, however, communicate this change in strategy to the media. Instead he emphasized continuity. The change in U.S. policy depended on matching the North Vietnamese and the NLF in a contest of attrition and morale. The opponents were locked in a cycle of escalation. The idea that the government of South Vietnam could manage its own affairs was shelved.



U.S. soldiers searching a village for NLF



Members of U.S. Navy SEAL Team One move down the Bassac River in a Seal team Assault Boat (STAB) during operations along the river south of Saigon, November 1967.

Soon the NLF began to engage in small-unit guerrilla warfare, which allowed them to control the pace of the fighting.

It is widely held that the average U.S. serviceman was nineteen years old, as evidenced by the casual reference in a pop song (19 by Paul Hardcastle); the figure is cited by Lt. Col. Dave Grossman ret. of the Killology Research Group in his 1995 book *On Killing: The Psychological Cost of Learning to Kill in War and Society* (p. 265). However, it is disputed by the Vietnam Helicopter Flight Crew Network Website, which claims the average age of MOS 11B personnel was 22. This compares with twenty-six years of age for those who participated in World War II. Soldiers served a one year tour of duty. The average age of the US Military men who died in Vietnam was 22.8 years old. The one-year tour of duty deprived units of experienced leadership. As one observer noted "we were not in Vietnam for 10 years, but for one year 10 times." As a result, training programs were shortened. Some NCO's were referred to as " Shake 'N' Bake" to highlight their accelerated training. Unlike soldiers in World War II and Korea, there were no secure rear areas in which to get rest and relaxation (R'n'R). American troops were vulnerable to attack everywhere they went.



South Vietnam was inundated with manufactured goods. As Stanley Karnow writes, "the main PX, located in the Saigon suburb of Cholon, was only slightly smaller than the New York Bloomingdale's ..." The American buildup transformed the economy and had a profound impact on South Vietnamese society. A huge surge in corruption was witnessed. The country was also flooded with civilian specialists from every conceivable field to advise the South Vietnamese government and improve its performance.

Washington encouraged its SEATO allies to contribute troops. Australia, New Zealand, the Republic of Korea, Thailand, and the Philippines all agreed to send troops. Major allies, however, notably NATO nations, Canada and the United Kingdom, declined Washington's troop requests. The U.S. and its allies mounted complex operations, such as operations Masher, Attleboro, Cedar Falls, and Junction City. However, the communist insurgents remained elusive and demonstrated great tactical flexibility.

Meanwhile, the political situation in South Vietnam began to stabilize somewhat with the coming to power of Vice President Nguyen Cao Ky and President Nguyen Van Thieu in 1967. Thieu, mistrustful and indecisive, remained president until 1975. This ended a long series of military juntas that had begun with Diem's assassination. The relative calm allowed the ARVN to collaborate more effectively with its allies and become a better fighting force.

The Johnson administration employed a "policy of minimum candor" in its dealings with the media. Military information officers sought to manage media coverage by emphasizing stories which portrayed progress in the war. Over time, this policy damaged the public trust in official pronouncements. As the media's coverage of the war and that of the Pentagon diverged, a so-called credibility gap developed.

In October 1967 a large anti-war demonstration was held on the steps of the Pentagon. Some protesters were heard to chant, "Hey, hey, LBJ! How many kids did you kill today?" One reason for the increase in the opposition to the Vietnam War was larger draft quotas.

## Tet Offensive

Having lured General Westmoreland's forces into the hinterland at Khe Sanh in Quang Tri Province, in January 1968, the PVA and NLF broke the truce that had traditionally accompanied the Tet (Lunar New Year) holiday. They launched the surprise Tet Offensive in the hope of sparking a national uprising. Over 100 cities were attacked, with assaults on General Westmoreland's headquarters and the U.S. embassy in Saigon.

Although the U.S. and South Vietnamese were initially taken aback by the scale of the urban offensive, they responded quickly and effectively, decimating the ranks of the NLF. In the former capital city of Hue, the combined NLF and NVA troops captured the Imperial Citadel and much of the city, which led to the Battle of Hue. During the interim between the capture of the Citadel and end of the "Battle of Hue", the communist insurgent occupying forces massacred several thousand unarmed Hue civilians (estimates vary up to a high of 6000). After the war, North Vietnamese officials acknowledged that the Tet Offensive had, indeed, caused grave damage to NLF forces. But the offensive had another, unintended consequence.



The Ho Chi Minh Trail running through Laos, 1967



General Westmoreland had become the public face of the war. He was featured on the cover of *Time* magazine three times and was named 1965's Man of the Year. *Time* described him as "the sinewy personification of the American fighting man ... (who) directed the historic buildup, drew up the battle plans, and infused the ... men under him with his own idealistic view of U.S. aims and responsibilities."

In November 1967 Westmoreland spearheaded a public relations drive for the Johnson administration to bolster flagging public support. In a speech before the National Press Club he said that a point in the war had been reached "where the end comes into view." Thus, the public was shocked and confused when Westmoreland's predictions were trumped by Tet. The American media, which had been largely supportive of U.S. efforts, rounded on the Johnson administration for what had become an increasing credibility gap. Despite its military failure, the Tet Offensive became a political victory and ended the career of President Lyndon B. Johnson, who declined to run for re-election. Johnson's approval rating slumped from 48 to 36 percent. As James Witz noted, Tet "contradicted the claims of progress ... made by the Johnson administration and the military." The Tet Offensive was the turning point in America's involvement in the Vietnam War. It had a profound impact on domestic support for the conflict. The offensive constituted an intelligence failure on the scale of Pearl Harbour. Journalist Peter Arnett quoted an unnamed officer, saying of Ben Tre that "it became necessary to destroy the village in order to save it". Westmoreland became Chief of Staff of the Army in March, just as all resistance was finally subdued. The move was technically a promotion. However, his position had become untenable because of the offensive and because his request for 200,000 additional troops had been leaked to the media. Westmoreland was succeeded by his deputy Creighton Abrams, a commander less inclined to public media pronouncements.



Burial of unidentified Hue civilian victims of communists in 1968

On May 10, 1968, despite low expectations, peace talks began between the U.S. and the Democratic Republic of Vietnam. Negotiations stagnated for five months, until Johnson gave orders to halt the bombing of North Vietnam. The Democratic candidate, Vice President Hubert Humphrey, was running against Republican former vice president Richard Nixon. Through an intermediary, Nixon advised Saigon to refuse to participate in the talks until after elections, claiming that he would give them a better deal once elected. Thieu obliged, leaving almost no progress made by the time Johnson left office.

As historian Robert Dallek writes, "Lyndon Johnson's escalation of the war in Vietnam divided Americans into warring camps ... cost 30,000 American lives by the time he left office, (and) destroyed Johnson's presidency ..." His refusal to send more U.S. troops to Vietnam was Johnson's admission that the war was lost. As Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara noted, "the dangerous illusion of victory by the United States was therefore dead."

## Vietnamization, 1969–1973



NLF/NVA killed by U.S. air force personnel during an attack on the perimeter of Tan Son Nhut Air Base during the Tet Offensive





The invasion of Cambodia sparked nationwide U.S. protests. Four students were killed by National Guardsmen at Kent State University during a protest in Ohio, which provoked public outrage in the United States. The reaction to the incident by the Nixon administration was seen as callous and indifferent, providing additional impetus for the anti-war movement.

In 1971 the Pentagon Papers were leaked to *The New York Times*. The top-secret history of U.S. involvement in Vietnam, commissioned by the Department of Defense, detailed a long series of public deceptions. The Supreme Court ruled that its publication was legal.

The ARVN launched Operation Lam Son 719, aimed at cutting the Ho Chi Minh trail in Laos. The offensive was a clear violation of Laotian neutrality, which neither side respected in any event. Laos had long been the scene of a Secret War. After meeting resistance, ARVN forces retreated in a confused rout. They fled along roads littered with their own dead. When they ran out of fuel, soldiers abandoned their vehicles and attempted to barge their way on to American helicopters sent to evacuate the wounded. Many ARVN soldiers clung to helicopter skids in a desperate attempt to save themselves. U.S. aircraft had to destroy abandoned equipment, including tanks, to prevent them from falling into enemy hands. Half of the invading ARVN troops were either captured or killed. The operation was a fiasco and represented a clear failure of Vietnamization. As Karnow noted "the blunders were monumental ... The (South Vietnamese) government's top officers had been tutored by the Americans for ten or fifteen years, many at training schools in the United States, yet they had learned little."

In 1971 Australia and New Zealand withdrew their soldiers. The U.S. troop count was further reduced to 196,700, with a deadline to remove another 45,000 troops by February 1972. As peace protests spread across the United States, disillusionment grew in the ranks. Drug use increased, race relations grew tense and the number of soldiers disobeying officers rose. Fragging, or the murder of unpopular officers with fragmentation grenades, increased.

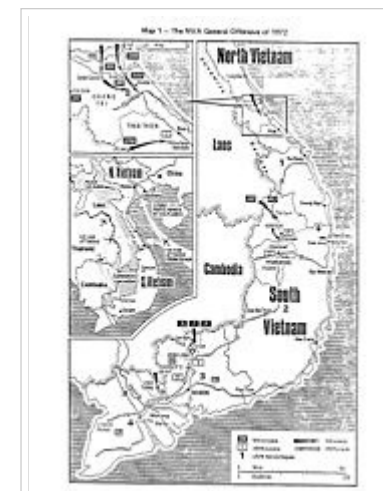


Victims of the My Lai Massacre



Vietnamization was again tested by the Easter Offensive of 1972, a massive conventional invasion of South Vietnam. The VPA and NLF quickly overran the northern provinces and in coordination with other forces attacked from Cambodia, threatening to cut the country in half. U.S. troop withdrawals continued. But American airpower came to the rescue with Operation Linebacker, and the offensive was halted. However, it became clear that without American airpower South Vietnam could not survive. The last remaining American ground troops were withdrawn in August. But a force of civilian and military advisers remained in place.

The war was the central issue of the 1972 presidential election. Nixon's opponent, George McGovern, campaigned on a platform of withdrawal from Vietnam. Nixon's National Security Adviser, Henry Kissinger, continued secret negotiations with North Vietnam's Le Duc Tho. In October 1972, they reached an agreement. However, South Vietnamese President Thieu demanded massive changes to the peace accord. When North Vietnam went public with the agreement's details, the Nixon administration claimed that the North was attempting to embarrass the President. The negotiations became deadlocked. Hanoi demanded new changes. To show his support for South Vietnam and force Hanoi back to the negotiating table, Nixon ordered Operation Linebacker II, a massive bombing of Hanoi and Haiphong. The offensive destroyed much of the remaining economic and industrial capacity of North Vietnam. Simultaneously Nixon pressured Thieu to accept the terms of the agreement, threatening to conclude a bilateral peace deal and cut off American aid. Popularly known as the Christmas Bombings, Operation Linebacker II provoked a fresh wave of anti-war demonstrations.



The Nguyen Hue Offensive, 1972, part of the Easter offensive

On January 15, 1973, Nixon announced the suspension of offensive action against North Vietnam. The Paris Peace Accords on "Ending the War and Restoring Peace in Vietnam" were signed on January 27, 1973, officially ending direct U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War. A cease-fire was declared across North and South Vietnam. U.S. POWs were released. The agreement guaranteed the territorial integrity of Vietnam and, like the Geneva Conference of 1954, called for national elections in the North and South. The Paris Peace Accords stipulated a sixty-day period for the total withdrawal of U.S. forces. "This article," noted Peter Church, "proved ... to be the only one of the Paris Agreements which was fully carried out."

## The end of the War, 1973-1975

Under Paris Peace Accord, between North Vietnamese Foreign Minister Lê Đức Thọ and U.S. Secretary of State Henry Kissinger, and reluctantly signed by South Vietnamese President Thiệu, U.S. military forces withdrew from South Vietnam and prisoners were exchanged. North Vietnam was allowed to continue supplying communist troops in the South, but only to the extent of replacing materials that were consumed. Later that year the Nobel Peace Prize was awarded to Kissinger and Thọ, but the Vietnamese negotiator declined it saying that a true peace did not yet exist.

The communist leaders had expected that the ceasefire terms would favour their side. But Saigon, bolstered by a surge of U.S. aid received just before the ceasefire went into effect, began to roll back the Vietcong. The communists responded with a new strategy hammered out in a series of meetings in Hanoi in March 1973, according to the memoirs of Trần Văn Trà. As the Vietcong's top commander, Trà participated in several of these meetings. With U.S. bombings suspended, work on the Ho Chi Minh Trail and other logistical structures could proceed unimpeded. Logistics would be upgraded until the North was in a position to launch a massive invasion of the South, projected for the 1975-76 dry season. Trà calculated that this date would be the Hanoi's last opportunity to strike



before Saigon's army could be fully trained. A three-thousand-mile long oil pipeline would be built from North Vietnam to Vietcong headquarters in Loc Ninh, about 75 miles northwest of Saigon.

Although McGovern himself was not elected U.S. president, the November 1972 election did return a Democratic majority to both houses of Congress under McGovern's "Come home America" campaign theme. On March 15, 1973, U.S. President Richard Nixon implied that the U.S. would intervene militarily if the communist side violated the ceasefire. Public and congressional reaction to Nixon's trial balloon was unfavorable and in April Nixon appointed Graham Martin as U.S. ambassador to Vietnam. Martin was a second stringer compared to previous U.S. ambassadors and his appointment was an early signal that Washington had given up on Vietnam. During his confirmation hearings in June 1973, Secretary of Defense James R. Schlesinger stated that he would recommend resumption of U.S. bombing in North Vietnam if North Vietnam launched a major offensive against South Vietnam. On June 4, 1973, the U.S. Senate passed the Case-Church Amendment to prohibit such intervention.

The oil price shock of October 1973 caused significant damage to the South Vietnamese economy. The Vietcong resumed offensive operations when dry season began and by January 1974 it had recaptured the territory it lost during the previous dry season. After two clashes that left 55 South Vietnamese soldiers dead, President Thiệu announced on January 4 that the war had restarted and that the Paris Peace Accord was no longer in effect. There had been over 25,000 South Vietnamese casualties during the ceasefire period.

Gerald Ford took over as U.S. president on August 9, 1974 after President Nixon resigned due to the Watergate scandal. At this time, Congress cut financial aid to South Vietnam from \$1 billion a year to \$700 million. The U.S. midterm elections in 1974 brought in a new Congress dominated by Democrats who were even more determined to confront the president on the war. Congress immediately voted in restrictions on funding and military activities to be phased in through 1975 and to culminate in a total cutoff of funding in 1976.

The success of the 1973-74 dry season offensive inspired Trà to return to Hanoi in October 1974 and plead for a larger offensive in the next dry season. This time, Trà could travel on a drivable highway with regular fueling stops, a vast change from the days when the Ho Chi Minh Trail was a dangerous mountain trek. Giáp, the North Vietnamese defense minister, was reluctant to approve Trà's plan. A larger offensive might provoke a U.S. reaction and interfere with the big push planned for 1976. Trà appealed over Giáp's head to party boss Lê Duẩn, who obtained Politburo approval for the operation.

Trà's plan called for a limited offensive from Cambodia into Phuoc Long Province. The strike was designed to solve local logistical problems, gauge the reaction of South Vietnamese forces, and determine whether the U.S. would return to the fray.

On December 13, 1974, North Vietnamese forces attacked Route 14 in Phuoc Long Province. Phuoc Binh, the provincial capital, fell on January 6, 1975. Ford desperately asked Congress for funds to assist and re-supply the South before it was overrun. Congress refused. The fall of Phuoc Binh and the lack of an American response left the South Vietnamese elite demoralized and corruption grew rampant.

The speed of this success led the Politburo to reassess its strategy. It was decided that operations in the Central Highlands would be turned over to General Văn Tiến Dũng and that Pleiku should be seized, if possible. Before he left for the South, Dũng was addressed by Lê Duẩn: "Never have we had military and political conditions so perfect or a strategic advantage as great as we have now."





By 1975 the South Vietnamese Army faced a well-organized, highly determined and well-funded North Vietnam. Much of the North's material and financial support came from the communist bloc. Within South Vietnam, there was increasing chaos. Their abandonment by the American military had compromised an economy dependent on U.S. financial support and the presence of a large number of U.S. troops. South Vietnam suffered from the global recession which followed the Arab oil embargo.

## Campaign 275

On March 10, 1975, General Dung launched Campaign 275, a limited offensive into the Central Highlands, supported by tanks and heavy artillery. The target was Ban Me Thuot, in Daklak Province. If the town could be taken, the provincial capital of Pleiku and the road to the coast would be exposed for a planned campaign in 1976. The ARVN proved incapable of resisting the onslaught, and its forces collapsed on March 11. Once again, Hanoi was surprised by the speed of their success. Dung now urged the Politburo to allow him to seize Pleiku immediately and then turn his attention to Kontum. He argued that with two months of good weather remaining until the onset of the monsoon, it would be irresponsible to not take advantage of the situation.

President Nguyen Van Thieu, a former general, was fearful that his forces would be cut off in the north by the attacking communists; Thieu ordered a retreat. The president declared this to be a "lighten the top and keep the bottom" strategy. But in what appeared to be a repeat of Operation Lam Son 719, the withdrawal soon turned into a bloody rout. While the bulk of ARVN forces attempted to flee, isolated units fought desperately. ARVN General Phu abandoned Pleiku and Kontum and retreated toward the coast, in what became known as the "column of tears". As the ARVN tried to disengage from the enemy, refugees mixed in with the line of retreat. The poor condition of roads and bridges, damaged by years of conflict and neglect, slowed Phu's column. As the North Vietnamese forces approached, panic set in. Often abandoned by their officers, the soldiers, and civilians, were shelled incessantly. The retreat degenerated into a desperate scramble for the coast. By April 1 the "column of tears" was all but annihilated. It marked one of the poorest examples of a strategic withdrawal in modern military history.

On March 20, Thieu reversed himself and ordered Hue, Vietnam's third-largest city, be held at all costs. Thieu's contradictory orders confused and demoralized his officer corps. As the North Vietnamese launched their attack, panic set in, and ARVN resistance withered. On March 22, the VPA opened the siege of Hue. Civilians flooded the airport and the docks hoping for any mode of escape. Some even swam out to sea to reach boats and barges anchored offshore. In the confusion, routed ARVN soldiers fired on civilians to make way for their retreat. On March 31, after a three-day battle, Hue fell. As resistance in Hue collapsed, North Vietnamese rockets rained down on Da Nang and its airport. By March 28, 35,000 VPA troops were poised to attack the suburbs. By March 30, 100,000 leaderless ARVN troops surrendered as the VPA marched victoriously through Da Nang. With the fall of the city, the defense of the Central Highlands and Northern provinces came to an end.

## Final North Vietnamese offensive

With the northern half of the country under their control, the Politburo ordered General Dung to launch the final offensive against Saigon. The operational plan for the Ho Chi Minh Campaign called for the capture of Saigon before May 1. Hanoi wished to avoid the coming monsoon and prevent any redeployment of



ARVN forces defending the capital. Northern forces, their morale boosted by their recent victories, rolled on, taking Nha Trang, Cam Ranh, and Da Lat.

On April 7, three North Vietnamese divisions attacked Xuan Loc, 40 miles (64 km) east of Saigon. The North Vietnamese met fierce resistance at Xuan Loc from the ARVN 18th Division. For two bloody weeks, severe fighting raged as the ARVN defenders made a last stand to try to block the North Vietnamese advance. By April 21, however, the exhausted garrison surrendered.

An embittered and tearful President Thieu resigned on the same day, declaring that the United States had betrayed South Vietnam. In a scathing attack on the US, he suggested U.S. Secretary of State Henry Kissinger had tricked him into signing the Paris peace agreement two years ago, promising military aid which then failed to materialise.

"At the time of the peace agreement the United States agreed to replace equipment on a one-by-one basis," he said. "But the United States did not keep its word. Is an American's word reliable these days?" He continued, "The United States did not keep its promise to help us fight for freedom and it was in the same fight that the United States lost 50,000 of its young men." He left for Taiwan on April 25, leaving control of the government in the hands of General Duong Van Minh. At the same time, North Vietnamese tanks had reached Bien Hoa and turned toward Saigon, brushing aside isolated ARVN units along the way.

By the end of April, the Army of the Republic of South Vietnam had collapsed on all fronts. Thousand of refugees streamed southward, ahead of the main communist onslaught. On April 27, 100,000 North Vietnamese troops encircled Saigon. The city was defended by about 30,000 ARVN troops. To hasten a collapse and foment panic, the VPA shelled the airport and forced its closure. With the air exit closed, large numbers of civilians found that they had no way out.

## Fall of Saigon

Chaos, unrest, and panic broke out as hysterical South Vietnamese officials and civilians scrambled to leave Saigon. Martial law was declared. American helicopters began evacuating South Vietnamese, U.S., and foreign nationals from various parts of the city and from the U.S. embassy compound. Operation Frequent Wind had been delayed until the last possible moment, because of U.S. Ambassador Graham Martin's belief that Saigon could be held and that a political settlement could be reached.

Schlesinger announced early in the morning of 29 April 1975 the evacuation from Saigon by helicopter of the last U.S. diplomatic, military, and civilian personnel. Frequent Wind was arguably the largest helicopter evacuation in history. It began on April 29, in an atmosphere of desperation, as hysterical crowds of Vietnamese vied for limited seats. Martin pleaded with Washington to dispatch \$700 million in emergency aid to bolster the regime and help it mobilize fresh military reserves. But American public opinion had soured on this conflict halfway around the world.

In the U.S., South Vietnam was perceived as doomed. President Gerald Ford gave a televised speech on April 23, declaring an end to the Vietnam War and all U.S. aid. Frequent Wind continued around the clock, as North Vietnamese tanks breached defenses on the outskirts of Saigon. The song "White Christmas" was broadcast as the final signal for withdrawal. In the early morning hours of April 30, the last U.S. Marines evacuated the embassy by helicopter, as civilians swamped the perimeter and poured into the grounds. Many of them had been employed by the Americans and were left to their fate.



On April 30, 1975, VPA troops overcame all resistance, quickly capturing key buildings and installations. A tank crashed through the gates of the Presidential Palace, and at 11:30 a.m. local time the NLF flag was raised above it. Thieu's successor, President Duong Van Minh, attempted to surrender, but VPA officers informed him that he had nothing left to surrender. Minh then issued his last command, ordering all South Vietnamese troops to lay down their arms.

The Communists had attained their goal: they had toppled the Saigon regime. But the cost of victory was high. In the past decade alone, one Vietnamese in every ten had been a casualty of war—nearly a million and a half killed, three million wounded. Vietnam had been a tormented land, and its ordeal was not over.

## Aftermath

### Effects on Southeast Asia

Phnom Penh, the capital of Cambodia, fell to the Khmer Rouge on April 17, 1975. The last official American military action in Southeast Asia occurred on May 15, 1975. Forty-one U.S. military personnel were killed when the Khmer Rouge seized a U.S. merchant ship, the SS *Mayagüez*. The episode became known as the Mayagüez incident.

The Pathet Lao overthrew the royalist government of Laos in December 1975. They established the Lao People's Democratic Republic.

Hundreds of thousands of South Vietnamese officials, particularly ARVN officers, were imprisoned in reeducation camps after the Communist takeover. Tens of thousands died and many fled the country after being released. Up to two million civilians left the country, and as many as half of these boat people perished at sea.

On July 2, 1976, the Socialist Republic of Vietnam was declared. After repeated border clashes in 1978, Vietnam invaded Democratic Kampuchea (Cambodia) and ousted the Khmer Rouge. As many as two million died during the Khmer Rouge genocide.

Vietnam began to repress its ethnic Chinese minority. Thousand fled and the exodus of the boat people began. In 1979, China invaded Vietnam and the two countries fought a brief border war, known as the Third Indochina War or the Sino-Vietnamese War.

### Effect on the United States



In the post-war, Americans struggled to absorb the lessons of the military intervention. As General Maxwell Taylor, one of the principal architects of the war, noted "first, we didn't know ourselves. We thought that we were going into another Korean war, but this was a different country. Secondly, we didn't know our South Vietnamese allies ... And we knew less about North Vietnam. Who was Ho Chi Minh? Nobody really knew. So, until we know the enemy and know our allies and know ourselves, we'd better keep out of this kind of dirty business. It's very dangerous."

In the decades since end of the conflict, discussions have ensued as to whether America's withdrawal was a political defeat rather than military defeat. Some have suggested that "the responsibility for the ultimate failure of this policy [America's withdrawal from Vietnam] lies not with the men who fought, but with those in Congress..." Alternatively, the official history of the United States Army noted that "tactics have often seemed to exist apart from larger issues, strategies, and objectives. Yet in Vietnam the Army experienced tactical success and strategic failure ... The ... Vietnam War(s) ... legacy may be the lesson that unique historical, political, cultural, and social factors always impinge on the military ... Success rests not only on military progress but on correctly analyzing the nature of the particular conflict, understanding the enemy's strategy, and assessing the strengths and weaknesses of allies. A new humility and a new sophistication may form the best parts of a complex heritage left to the Army by the long, bitter war in Vietnam." U.S. Secretary of State Henry Kissinger wrote in a secret memo to President Gerald Ford that "in terms of military tactics, we cannot help draw the conclusion that our armed forces are not suited to this kind of war. Even the Special Forces who had been designed for it could not prevail." Even Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara concluded that "the achievement of a military victory by U.S. forces in Vietnam was indeed a dangerous illusion."

Doubts surfaced as to the effectiveness of large-scale, sustained bombing. As Army Chief of Staff Harold K. Johnson noted, "if anything came out of Vietnam, it was that air power couldn't do the job. Even General William Westmoreland admitted that the bombing had been ineffective. As he remarked, "I still doubt that the North Vietnamese would have relented." The inability to bomb Hanoi to the bargaining table also illustrated another U.S. miscalculation. The North's leadership was composed of hardened communists who had been fighting for independence for thirty years. They had successfully defeated the French, and their tenacity as both nationalists and communists was formidable.

The withdrawal from Vietnam called into question U.S. Army doctrine. Marine Corps General Victor Krulak heavily criticised Westmoreland's attrition strategy, calling it "wasteful of American lives ... with small likelihood of a successful outcome." As well, doubts surfaced about the ability of the military to train foreign forces. The defeat also raised disturbing questions about the quality of the advice that was given to successive presidents by the Pentagon.

As the number of troops in Vietnam increased, the financial burden of the war grew. Some of the rarely mentioned consequences of the war were the budget cuts to President Johnson's Great Society programs. As defense spending and inflation grew, Johnson was forced to raise taxes. The Republicans, however, refused to vote for the increases unless a \$6 billion cut was made to the administration's social programs.

Almost 3 million Americans served in Vietnam. Between 1965 and 1973, the United States spent \$120 billion on the war (\$700 billion in 2007 dollars). This resulted in a large federal budget deficit. The war demonstrated that no power, not even a superpower, has unlimited strength and resources. But perhaps most significantly, the Vietnam War illustrated that political will, as much as material might, is a decisive factor in the outcome of conflicts.

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Vietnam War memorial in Little Saigon in Westminister, California



Vietnam War memorial in the new Chinatown in Houston, Texas



In 1977, United States President Jimmy Carter from the Democratic Party issued a pardon for nearly 10,000 draft dodgers.

## Other countries' involvement

### China

The People's Republic of China's involvement in the Vietnam War began in 1949, when the communists took over the country. The Communist Party of China provided material and technical support to the Vietnamese communists. In the summer of 1962, Mao Zedong agreed to supply Hanoi with 90,000 rifles and guns free of charge. After the launch of "Rolling Thunder", China sent anti-aircraft units and engineering battalions to North Vietnam to repair the damage caused by American bombing, rebuild roads and railroads, and to perform other engineering work. This freed North Vietnamese army units for combat in the South. Between 1965 and 1970, over 320,000 Chinese soldiers served in North Vietnam. The peak came in 1967, when 170,000 served there. Although Chinese assistance was accepted gladly, the North Vietnamese remained distrustful of their larger neighbour because of the historical antipathy between the two nations. China emerged as the principle backer of the Khmer Rouge. The People's Republic of China briefly launched an invasion of Vietnam in 1979 which is considered by most western experts to be a military failure. The two nations continued the border wars in the 1980s which China capturing many Vietnamese islands during the Battle of Hoang Sa and the Spratly Island Skirmish (1988).

### South Korea

On the anti-communist side, South Korea had the second-largest contingent of foreign troops in South Vietnam after the United States. South Korea dispatched its first troops in 1964. Large combat battalions began arriving a year later. South Korean troops developed a reputation for effectiveness. Koreans conducted counterinsurgency operations so well that American commanders felt that Korean AOR (area of responsibility) was the safest. This was further supported when Vietcong documents captured after the Tet Offensive warned their compatriots to never engage Koreans until full victory is certain.

Approximately 320,000 South Korean soldiers were sent to Vietnam. As with the United States, soldiers served one year. The maximum number of South Korean troops peaked at 50,000. More than 5,000 South Koreans were killed and 11,000 were injured in the war. All troops were withdrawn in 1973.

### Australia & New Zealand

Australia and New Zealand, both close allies of the United States and members of SEATO, sent ground troops to Vietnam. Both nations had gained experience in counterinsurgency and jungle warfare during the Malayan Emergency. Geographically close to Asia, their governments subscribed to the "Domino Theory" of communist expansion and felt that their national security would be threatened if communism spread further in Southeast Asia.

Australia began by sending advisers to Vietnam, the number of which rose steadily until 1965, when combat troops were committed. New Zealand began by sending a detachment of engineers and an artillery battery, and then started sending special forces and regular infantry. Australia's peak commitment was 7,672 combat troops, New Zealand's 552. Most of these soldiers served in the 1st Australian Task Force, a brigade group-type formation, which was based in what was



then Phuoc Tuy province, in the vicinity of present-day Ba Ria-Vung Tau Province.

Australia re-introduced conscription to expand its armed forces in the face of significant public opposition to the war.

Several Australian and New Zealand units were awarded U.S. unit citations for their service in South Vietnam, while the last Victoria Crosses—the highest award for bravery in the Commonwealth—awarded to members of the Australian armed forces were for actions in Vietnam.

## Philippines

Some 10,450 Filipino troops were dispatched to South Vietnam. They were primarily engaged in medical and other civilian pacification projects. These forces operated under the designation PHLCAAG or Philippines Civil Affairs Assistance Group.

## Thailand

Thai Army formations, including the "Queen's Cobra" battalion, saw action in South Vietnam between 1965 and 1971. Thai forces saw much more action in the covert war in Laos between 1964 and 1972, though Thai regular formations there were heavily outnumbered by the irregular "volunteers" of the CIA-sponsored Police Aerial Reconnaissance Units or PARU, who carried out reconnaissance activities on the western side of the Ho Chi Minh Trail.

## Soviet Union

The Soviet Union supplied North Vietnam with medical supplies, arms, tanks, planes, helicopters, artillery, anti-aircraft missiles and other military equipment. Soviet crews fired USSR-made surface-to-air missiles at the B-52 bombers which were the first raiders shot down over Hanoi. Fewer than a dozen Soviet citizens lost their lives in this conflict. Following the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, Russian officials acknowledged that the Soviet Union had stationed up to 3,000 troops in Vietnam during the war.

## North Korea

As a result of a decision of the Korean Workers' Party in October 1966, in early 1967, North Korea sent a fighter squadron to North Vietnam to back up the North Vietnamese 921st and 923rd fighter squadrons defending Hanoi. They stayed through 1968, and 200 pilots were reported to have served. In addition, at least two anti-aircraft artillery regiments were sent as well. North Korea also sent weapons, ammunition and two million sets of uniforms to their comrades in North Vietnam. Kim Il Sung is reported to have told his pilots to "fight in the war as if the Vietnamese sky were their own".

## Canada and the ICC

Canadian, Indian and Polish troops (respectively, representatives of NATO, non-aligned states, and the Warsaw Pact) formed the International Control Commission, which was supposed to monitor the 1954 ceasefire agreement. Canada also had citizens serving in Vietnam as part of the U.S. armed forces and

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harboured American deserters and draft dodgers during the conflict. Canada hosted 30,000–90,000 Americans seeking asylum.

## Other countries

Spain sent thirteen soldiers, including doctors.

Nicaragua and Paraguay also offered to send troops to Vietnam in support of the United States.

## Use of chemical defoliants

One of the most controversial aspects of the U.S. military effort in Southeast Asia was the widespread use of herbicides between 1961 and 1971. They were used to defoliate large parts of the countryside. These chemicals continue to change the landscape, cause diseases and birth defects, and poison the food chain.

Early in the American military effort it was decided that since the enemy were hiding their activities under triple-canopy jungle a useful first step might be to defoliate certain areas. This was especially true of growth surrounding bases (both large and small) in what became known as Operation Ranch Hand. Corporations like Dow Chemical and Monsanto were given the task of developing herbicides for this purpose. The defoliants, which were distributed in drums marked with colour-coded bands, included the " Rainbow Herbicides"— Agent Pink, Agent Green, Agent Purple, Agent Blue, Agent White, and, most famously, Agent Orange, which included dioxin as a byproduct of its manufacture. About 12 million gallons (45 000 000 L) of Agent Orange were sprayed over Southeast Asia during the American involvement. A prime area of Ranch Hand operations was in the Mekong Delta, where the U.S. Navy patrol boats were vulnerable to attack from the undergrowth at the water's edge.

In 1961 and 1962, the Kennedy administration authorized the use of chemicals to destroy rice crops. Between 1961 and 1967, the U.S. Air Force sprayed 20 million U.S. gallons (75 700 000 L) of concentrated herbicides over 6 million acres (24 000 km<sup>2</sup>) of crops and trees, affecting an estimated 13% of South Vietnam's land. A 1967 study by the Agronomy Section of the Japanese Science Council concluded that 3.8 million acres (15 000 km<sup>2</sup>) of foliage had been destroyed, possibly also leading to the deaths of 1,000 peasants and 13,000 head of livestock.

As of 2006, the Vietnamese government estimates that there are over 4,000,000 victims of dioxin poisoning in Vietnam, although the United States government denies any conclusive scientific links between Agent Orange and the Vietnamese victims of dioxin poisoning. In some areas of southern Vietnam dioxin levels remain at over 100 times the accepted international standard.

The U.S. Veterans Administration has listed prostate cancer, respiratory cancers, multiple myeloma, type II diabetes, Hodgkin's disease, non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, soft tissue sarcoma, chloracne, porphyria cutanea tarda, peripheral neuropathy, and spina bifida in children of veterans exposed to Agent Orange. Although there has been much discussion over whether the use of these defoliants constituted a violation of the laws of war, the defoliants were not considered weapons, since exposure to them



U.S. helicopter spraying chemical defoliants in the Mekong Delta, South Vietnam



did not lead to immediate death or incapacitation.

## Casualties

The number of military and civilian deaths from 1959 to 1975 is debated. Some reports fail to include the members of South Vietnamese forces killed in the final campaign, or the Royal Lao Armed Forces, thousands of Laotian and Thai irregulars, or Laotian civilians who all perished in the conflict. They do not include the tens of thousands of Cambodians killed during the civil war or the estimated one and one-half to two million that perished in the genocide that followed Khmer Rouge victory, or the fate of Laotian Royals and civilians after the Pathet Lao assumed complete power in Laos.

In 1995, the Vietnamese government reported that its military forces, including the NLF, suffered 1.1 million dead and 600,000 wounded during Hanoi's conflict with the United States. Civilian deaths were put at two million in the North and South, and economic reparations were expected. Hanoi concealed the figures during the war to avoid demoralizing the population.

## Popular culture

The Vietnam War has been featured heavily in television and films. The war also influenced a generation of musicians and songwriters. The band Country Joe and The Fish recorded "I-Feel-Like-I'm-Fixin'-To-Die Rag" in 1965, and it became one of the most influential anti-Vietnam protest anthems. The musical *Miss Saigon* focuses on the end of the war and its aftermath. In cinema, noted films that have shaped the popular conception of the war include *Apocalypse Now*, *Platoon*, *The Deer Hunter*, *Hamburger Hill*, *Full Metal Jacket*, *Good Morning, Vietnam*, *Born on the Fourth of July*, the *Rambo* films and *We Were Soldiers*. It serves as the setting for numerous video games, such as *Conflict: Vietnam*.

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# Weimar Republic

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Following World War I, the republic emerged from the German Revolution in November 1918. In 1919 a national assembly convened in the city of Weimar, where a new constitution for the German Reich was written, that was adopted on August 11. The first attempt to establish a liberal democracy in Germany failed with the ascent of Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party in 1930. Although technically the 1919 constitution was not invalidated until after World War II, the legal measures taken by the Nazi government in February and March 1933, commonly known as *Gleichschaltung*, destroyed the mechanisms of a true democracy. Therefore 1933 is usually seen as the end of the Weimar Republic and as the beginning of Hitler's so-called "Third Reich".

The name *Weimar Republic* was never used officially during its existence. Despite its political form, the new republic was still known as *Deutsches Reich* in German, rendered in a literal translation as *German Empire* but often called *German Reich* in English, due to confusion over the use of the term "empire" for a republic which had given up imperial ambitions and due to the word "reich" having other possible non-imperial translations. The common short form remained *Germany*. The term reich would regain its use as a term describing empire when the Nazis used it.

## History

### Controlled revolution: the establishment of the Republic (1918–1919)

From 1916 onwards, the 1871 German Empire had effectively been governed by the military headed by the *Oberste Heeresleitung* (OHL, Supreme Army Command) with the Chief of Staff Paul von Hindenburg. When it became apparent that World War I was lost, the OHL demanded that a civil government be installed in order to meet a key peace talk condition from United States President Woodrow Wilson. Any attempt to continue the war after Bulgaria had left the Central Powers would have only caused German territories to be militarily occupied by the victors. The new *Reichskanzler* Prince Max von Baden thus offered a cease-fire to U.S. President Wilson on October 3, 1918. On October 28, 1918, the 1871 constitution was finally amended to make the *Reich* a parliamentary republic, which the government had refused for half a century: the Chancellor was henceforth responsible to Parliament, the *Reichstag*, and no

<b><i>Deutsches Reich</i></b> <b>German Reich</b>	
← 	1919 – 1933  →
	
Flag	Coat of arms
<b>Anthem</b> Das Lied der Deutschen	



longer to the Kaiser.

The plan to transform Germany into a constitutional monarchy similar to Britain quickly became obsolete as the country slid into a state of near-total chaos. Germany was flooded with soldiers returning from the front, many of them wounded physically and psychologically. Violence was rampant, as the forces of the political right and left fought not only each other, but among themselves.










Rebellion broke out when on October 29, the military command, without consultation with the government, ordered the German High Seas Fleet to sortie. This was not only entirely hopeless from a military standpoint, but was also certain to bring the peace negotiations to a halt. The crews of two ships in Wilhelmshaven mutinied. When the military arrested about 1,000 seamen and had them transported to Kiel, the Wilhelmshaven mutiny turned into a general rebellion that quickly swept over most of Germany. Other seamen, soldiers and workers, in solidarity with the arrested, began electing worker and soldier councils (Arbeiter- und Soldatenräte) modelled after the soviets of the Russian Revolution of 1917, and seized military and civil powers in many cities. On November 7, the revolution had reached Munich, causing King Ludwig III of Bavaria to flee.

In contrast to Russia one year earlier, the councils were not controlled by communists. Most of their members were social democrats. Still, with the emergence of the Soviet Union, the rebellion caused great fear in the establishment down to the middle classes. The country seemed to be on the verge of a communist revolution.

At the time, the traditional political representation of the working class, the Social Democratic Party was divided: a faction that called for immediate peace negotiations and leaned towards a socialist system had founded the Independent Social Democratic Party (USPD) in 1917. In order not to lose their influence, the remaining Majority Social Democrats (MSPD), who supported the war efforts and a parliamentary system, decided to put themselves at the front of the movement, and on November 7, demanded that Kaiser Wilhelm II abdicate. When he refused, Prince Max of Baden simply announced that he had done so

### History of Germany



- Ancient times**
- Germanic peoples**
- Migration Period**
- Frankish Empire**
- Medieval times**
- East Francia**
- Kingdom of Germany**
-  **Holy Roman Empire**
-  East Colonisation
-  Sectionalism
- Building a nation**
-  **Confederation of the Rhine**
-  **German Confederation**
-  **German Revolutions of 1848**
-  **North German Confederation**
-  **Unification of Germany**
- The German Reich**
-  **German Empire**
-  World War I
-  **Weimar Republic**
-  **Nazi Germany**
-  World War II
- Post-war Germany since 1945**
-  **Occupation + Ostgebiete**



Germany during the Weimar period, with the Free State of Prussia (in blue) as the largest state

<b>Capital</b>	Berlin
<b>Language(s)</b>	German
<b>Government</b>	Republic
<b>President</b>	
- 1918-1925	Friedrich Ebert
- 1925-August 1934	Paul von Hindenburg
<b>Chancellor</b>	
- 1919	Philipp Scheidemann (first)
- 1933	Adolf Hitler (last)
<b>Legislature</b>	Reichstag
- State council	Reichsrat
<b>Historical era</b>	Interwar period
- Established	9 November 1918
- Hitler takes office	30 January 1933



and frantically attempted to establish a regency under another member of the House of Hohenzollern. On November 9, 1918, the *German Republic* was proclaimed by MSPD member Philipp Scheidemann at the *Reichstag* building in Berlin, to the fury of Friedrich Ebert, the leader of the MSPD, who still hoped to preserve the monarchy. Two hours later a *Free Socialist Republic* was proclaimed, 2 kilometers away, at the Berliner Stadtschloss. The proclamation was issued by Karl Liebknecht, co-leader (with Rosa Luxemburg) of the communist Spartacist League, which had allied itself with the USPD in 1917.

On November 9, in a legally questionable act, *Reichskanzler* Prince Max of Baden transferred his powers to Friedrich Ebert, who, shattered by the monarchy's fall, reluctantly accepted. It was apparent, however, that this act would not be sufficient to satisfy Liebknecht and his followers, so a day later, a coalition government called "Council of People's Commissioners" (*Rat der Volksbeauftragten*) was established, consisting of three MSPD and three USPD members. Led by Ebert for the MSPD and Hugo Haase for the USPD it ought to act as collective head of state. Although the new government was confirmed by the Berlin worker and soldier council, it was opposed by the Spartacist League. Ebert called for a National Congress of Councils, which took place from December 16 to December 20, 1918, and in which the MSPD had the majority. Ebert thus managed to enforce quick elections for a National Assembly to produce a constitution for a parliamentary system, marginalizing the movement that called for a socialist republic (see below).

On 11 November an Armistice was signed at Compiègne by German representatives. It effectively ended military operations between the Allies and Germany. It amounted to German demilitarization, without any concessions by the Allies; the naval blockade would continue until complete peace terms were agreed.

From November 1918 through January 1919, Germany was governed by the Council of People's Commissioners. It was extraordinarily active, and issued a large number of decrees. At the same time, its main activities were confined to certain spheres: the eight-hour workday, domestic labour reform, agricultural labour reform, right of civil-service associations, local municipality social welfare relief (split between Reich and States) and important national health insurance, re-instatement of demobilised workers, protection from arbitrary dismissal with appeal as a right, regulated wage agreement, and Universal suffrage from 20 years of age in all classes of elections — local and national. Occasionally the name "Die Deutsche Sozialdemokratische Republik" (The German Social-Democratic Republic) appeared in leaflets and on posters from this era, although this was never the official name of the country.

### The *Reichswehr* and the Revolution

To ensure that his fledgling government was able to maintain control over the country, Ebert made an uneasy pact with the OHL, now led by Ludendorff's successor General Wilhelm Groener. This Ebert-Groener pact stipulated that the government would not attempt to reform the Army so long as the army swore to protect the state. On the one hand, this agreement symbolised the acceptance of the new government by the military, assuaging concern among the middle

	Expulsion of Germans
	FR Germany +  GDR
	German reunification
	Present day Germany
	Federal Republic of Germany
<b>Topical</b>	
	Military history of Germany
	Territorial changes of Germany
	Timeline of German history
	History of the German language

- Reichstag fire	27 February 1933
- Enabling Act	March 23, 1933
<b>Area</b>	
- 1925	468,787 km <sup>2</sup> (181,000 sq mi)
<b>Population</b>	
- 1925 est.	62,411,000
Density	133.1 /km <sup>2</sup> (344.8 /sq mi)
<b>Currency</b>	Papiermark (1919-1923) Reichsmark (1924-1933)



classes; on the other hand, it was considered a betrayal of worker interests by the radical left wing, and infuriated the right wing who believed democracy to be weak. The new model *Reichswehr* armed forces, limited by the Treaty of Versailles to 100,000 army soldiers and 15,000 seamen, remained fully under the control of the German officer class despite its nominal re-organisation. As an independent and conservative group in Weimar, it wielded a large amount of influence over the fate of the republic.

This also marked one of several steps that caused the permanent split in the working class' political representation into the SPD and Communists. The eventual fate of the Weimar Republic derived significantly from the general political incapacity of the German labour movement. The several strands within the central mass of the socialist movement adhered more to sentimental loyalty to alliances arising from chance than to any recognition of political necessity. Combined action on the part of the socialists was impossible without action from the millions of workers who stood midway between the parliamentarians and the ultra-leftists who supported the workers councils. Confusion made acute the danger of extreme right and extreme left engaging in virulent conflict.

The split became final after Ebert called upon the OHL for troops to put down another Berlin army mutiny on November 23, 1918, in which soldiers had captured the city's garrison commander and closed off the *Reichskanzlei* where the Council of People's Commissioners was situated. The ensuing street fighting was brutal with several dead and injured on both sides. This caused the left wing to call for a split with the MSPD which, in their view, had joined with the Anti-Communist military to suppress the Revolution. The USPD thus left the Council of People's Commissioners after only seven weeks. In December, the split deepened when the Kommunistische Partei Deutschlands (KPD) was formed out of a number of radical left-wing groups, including the radical left wing of the USPD and the *Spartacist League* group.

In January, more armed attempts at establishing communism, known as the Spartacist uprising, by the Spartacist League and others in the streets of Berlin were put down by paramilitary *Freikorps* units consisting of volunteer soldiers. Bloody street fights culminated in the beating and shooting deaths of Rosa Luxemburg and Karl Liebknecht after their arrests on January 15. With the affirmation of Ebert, those responsible were not tried before a court martial, leading to lenient sentences, which made Ebert unpopular amongst the radical leftists.



Official postcard of the National Assembly.

The National Assembly elections took place January 19, 1919. In this time, the radical left-wing parties, including the USPD and KPD, were barely able to get themselves organized, leading to a solid majority of seats for the MSPD moderate forces. To avoid the ongoing fights in Berlin, the National Assembly convened in the city of Weimar, giving the future Republic its unofficial name. The Weimar Constitution created a republic under a semi-presidential system with the *Reichstag* elected by proportional representation. The Socialist and (Non-Socialist) Democratic parties obtained a solid 80 per cent of the vote.

During the debates in Weimar, fighting continued. A Soviet republic was declared in Munich, but was quickly put down by *Freikorps* and remnants of the regular army. The fall of the Munich Soviet Republic to these units, many of which were situated on the extreme right, resulted in the growth of far-right movements and organizations in Bavaria, including the Nazis, Organisation Consul, and societies of exiled Russian Monarchists. Sporadic fighting continued to flare up around the country.

In eastern provinces, forces loyal to Germany's fallen Monarchy fought the republic, while militias of Polish nationalists

fought for independence: Great Poland Uprising in Provinz Posen and three Silesian Uprisings in Upper Silesia.

### The socialist roots of Weimar

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The carefully thought-out social and political legislation introduced during the revolution was generally unappreciated by the German working-class. The two goals sought by the government, democratization and social protection of the working class, were never achieved. This has been attributed to a lack of pre-war political experience on the part of the Social Democrats. The government had little success in confronting the twin economic crises following the war.

The permanent economic crisis was a result of lost pre-war industrial exports, the loss of supplies in raw materials and food stuffs from Alsace-Lorraine, Polish districts and the colonies along with worsening debt balances and reparations payments. Military-industrial activity had almost ceased, although controlled demobilisation kept unemployment at around one million. The fact that the Allies continued to blockade Germany until after the Treaty of Versailles did not help matters, either.

The allies permitted only low import levels of goods that most Germans could not afford. After four years of war and famine, many German workers were exhausted, physically impaired and discouraged. Millions were disenchanted with capitalism and hoping for a new era. Meanwhile the currency devalued.

The German peace delegation in France signed the Treaty of Versailles accepting mass reductions of the German military, unrealistically heavy war reparations payments, and the controversial "War Guilt Clause". Adolf Hitler later blamed the republic and its democracy for the oppressive terms of this treaty, though most current historians disregard the "stab-in-the-back" myth Hitler advocated for his own personal political gain. *See also: French-German enmity.*

The Republic's first *Reichspräsident* ("Reich President"), Friedrich Ebert of the SPD, signed the new German constitution into law on August 11, 1919.

### The Early Years: Internal Conflict (1919–1923)



Germany after Versailles

Lost by Germany after World War I; Annexed by neighbouring countries  
 Lost by Germany after World War I; Administered by the League of Nations  
 Germany (1919-1935)



Members of the Epp Freikorps of Franz Ritter von Epp which participated in the battles against Communists in Munich and other parts of Bavaria.



1923-issue 50 million mark banknote. Worth approximately \$1 US when printed, this sum would have been worth approximately \$12 million, nine years earlier. The note was practically worthless a few weeks later due to continued inflation.



The Republic was under great pressure from both left and right-wing extremists. The radical left accused the ruling Social Democrats of having betrayed the ideals of the workers' movement by preventing a communist revolution. Right-wing extremists were opposed to any democratic system, preferring an authoritarian state like the 1871 Empire. To further undermine the Republic's credibility the extremists of the right (especially certain members of the former officer corps) also blamed an alleged conspiracy of Socialists and Jews for Germany's defeat in World War I (see *Dolchstoßlegende*).

For the next five years Germany's large cities suffered political violence between left-wing and right-wing groups, both of which committed violence and murder against innocent civilians and against each other, resulting in many deaths. The worst of the violence was between right-wing paramilitaries called the *Freikorps* and pro-Communist militias called the Red Guards, both of which admitted ex-soldiers into their ranks.

The first challenge to the Weimar Republic came when a group of communists and anarchists took over the Bavarian government in Munich and declared the creation of the Bavarian Soviet Republic. The communist rebel state was quickly put down one month later when *Freikorps* units were brought in to battle the leftist rebels.

The Kapp Putsch took place on March 13, 1920, involving a group of 5000 *Freikorps* troops who gained control of Berlin and installed Wolfgang Kapp (a right-wing journalist) as chancellor. The national government fled to Stuttgart and called for a general strike. While Kapp's vacillating nature did not help matters, the strike crippled Germany's ravaged economy and the Kapp government collapsed after only four days on March 17.

Inspired by the general strikes, a communist uprising began in the Ruhr region when 50,000 people formed a "Red Army" and took control of the province. The regular army and the *Freikorps* ended the uprising on their own authority. Other communist rebellions were put down in March 1921 in Saxony and Hamburg.

In 1922, Germany signed a treaty - the Treaty of Rapallo - with Russia, and disarmament was brought to a halt. Under the Treaty of Versailles Germany could only have 100,000 soldiers and no conscription, Naval forces reduced to 15,000 men, 12 destroyers, 6 battleships, and 6 cruisers, no submarines or aircraft. The Treaty with Russia worked in secret, as the treaty allowed Germany to train military personnel, and Russia gained the benefits of German military technology. This was against the Treaty of Versailles, but Russia had pulled out of World War I against the Germans due to the 1917 Russian Revolution and was looked down on by the League of Nations. Germany seized the chance to make an ally.

By 1923, the Republic claimed it could no longer afford the reparations payments required by the Versailles treaty, and the government defaulted on some payments. In response, French and Belgian troops occupied the Ruhr region, Germany's most productive industrial region at the time, taking control of most mining and manufacturing companies in January of 1923. Strikes were called, and passive resistance was encouraged. These strikes lasted eight months, further damaging the economy and increasing the expense of imports. The strike meant no goods were being produced. This infuriated the French, who began to kill and exile protestors in the region.

Since striking workers were paid benefits by the state, much additional currency was printed, fueling a period of hyperinflation. The 1920s German inflation



Inflation 1923–24: a woman feeds her tiled stove with money. At the time, burning money was less expensive than buying firewood.



started when Germany had no goods with which to trade. The government printed money to deal with the crisis; this allowed Germany to pay war loans and reparations with worthless marks and helped formerly great industrialists to pay back their own loans. This also led to pay raises for workers and for businessmen who wanted to profit from it. Circulation of money rocketed, and soon the Germans discovered their money was worthless. The value of the Papiermark had declined from 4.2 per US dollar at the outbreak of World War I to 1 million per dollar by August 1923. This gave the Republic's opponents something else to criticise it for. On 15 November 1923, a new currency, the Rentenmark, was introduced at the rate of 1 trillion (1,000,000,000,000) Papiermark for 1 Rentenmark. At that time, 1 U.S. dollar was equal to 4.2 Rentenmark. Reparation payments resumed, and the Ruhr was returned to Germany under the Locarno Pact, which defined a border between Germany, France and Belgium.

Further pressure from the right came in 1923 with the Beer Hall Putsch, also called the Munich Putsch, staged by Adolf Hitler in Munich. In 1920, the German Workers' Party had become the National Socialist German Workers' Party (NSDAP), nicknamed the Nazi Party, and would become a driving force in the collapse of Weimar. Hitler was named chairman of the party in July 1921. On November 8, 1923, the *Kampfbund*, in a pact with Erich Ludendorff, took over a meeting by Bavarian prime minister Gustav von Kahr at a beer hall in Munich. Ludendorff and Hitler declared a new government, planning to take control of Munich the following day. The 3,000 rebels were thwarted by 100 policemen. Hitler was arrested and sentenced to five years in prison, a minimum sentence for the charge and he served less than eight months before his release and even then in a comfortable cell. Following the failure of the Beer Hall Putsch, his imprisonment and subsequent release, Hitler focused on legal methods of gaining power.

### Stresemann's Golden Era (1923–1929)

Gustav Stresemann was *Reichskanzler* for a 100 days in 1923, and served as foreign minister from 1923-1929, a period of relative stability for the Weimar Republic when there were fewer uprisings and the beginnings of economic recovery.

As chancellor, Stresemann had to restore law and order in certain towns in Germany such as Spandau and Krustin, where the 'black reichswehr' (a section of the freikorps) held a mutiny. Saxony and Thuringia allowed KPD members into their governments, and a new nationalist leader ran Bavaria who called for Bavarian independence and told his army to disobey orders from Berlin. Stresemann persuaded Ebert to issue Article 48 to resolve the situation and brought the freikorps to settle the situation. However the use of violence against political activities led the SPD (Social Democratic Party) to remove themselves from his coalition which finally led to the ending of his chancellorship.

Stresemann's first move as foreign minister was to issue a new currency, the *Rentenmark*, to halt the extreme hyperinflation crippling German society and the economy. It was successful because Stresemann refused to issue more currency, the cause of the inflationary spiral. In addition the currency was based on land, and restored confidence into the economy. With this achieved, a permanent currency - the Reichsmark - was introduced in 1926. Hans Luther was also appointed as Finance minister who helped balance the budget by dismissing 700 000 public employees.

In 1924 the Dawes Plan was created, an agreement between American banks and the German government, in which the American banks lend money to Germany, to help them pay reparations. Another foreign achievement was the evacuation of the Ruhr in 1925, and in 1925 the Treaty of Berlin. This reinforced the Treaty of Rapallo in 1922, and improved relations between the USSR and Germany. Also in this year, Germany was admitted to the League Of Nations, which gave her a good international stance and the ability to veto legislation after Stresemann's insistence on entering as a permanent member. They also made





agreements over its western border, though nothing was fixed on the Eastern borders. However, this progress was funded by overseas loans, increasing the nation's debts, while overall trade decreased and unemployment rose. Stresemann's reforms did not relieve the underlying weaknesses of Weimar but gave the appearance of a stable democracy.

The 1920s saw a massive cultural revival in Germany. It was, arguably, the most innovative period of cultural change in Germany.

Innovative street theatre brought plays to the public, the cabaret scene and promiscuity became very popular. Women were americanised, wearing makeup, short hair, smoking and broke out of the tradition. Music was created with a practical purpose, such as Schoenbergs 'atonality' and there was a new type of architecture taught at 'Bauhaus' schools. Art reflected the new ideas of the time with artists such as Grosz being fined for defaming the military and blasphemy.

There was a lot of opposition to this Weimar culture shock, especially from conservatives. For instance, in 1930 Wilhelm Frick banned jazz performances and removed modern art from museums. As well as a new law being introduced to prevent teenagers from buying pulp fiction or pornography.

Despite the progress during these years, Stresemann was criticized by opponents for his policy of "fulfilment", or compliance with the terms of the Versailles Treaty, and by the German people after the invasion of the Ruhr, in which he agreed to pay the reparations set by the treaty in order for the French troops to evacuate.

In 1929, Stresemann's death marked the end of the "Golden Era" of the Weimar Republic. He died at the age of 51, four years after receiving the 1926 Nobel Peace Prize.

## The Republic crumbles and Hitler's support rises (1930–1932)

### Loss of credibility

The last years of the Weimar Republic were stamped by even more political instability than in the previous years and the administrations of Chancellors Brüning, Papen, Schleicher and Hitler (from 30 January to 23 March 1933) were all Presidentially appointed dictatorships. This meant they used the President's power to rule without consulting the Reichstag (German parliament). On March 29, 1930, the finance expert Heinrich Brüning had been appointed the successor of Chancellor Müller by Paul von Hindenburg after months of political lobbying by General Kurt von Schleicher on behalf of the military. The new government was expected to lead a political shift towards conservatism, based on the emergency powers granted to the *Reichspräsident* by the constitution, since it had no majority support in the *Reichstag*.

After an unpopular bill to reform the Reich's finances was left unsupported by the *Reichstag*, Hindenburg established the bill as an emergency decree based on Article 48 of the constitution. On July 18, 1930, the bill was again invalidated by a slim majority in the *Reichstag* with the support of the SPD, KPD, the (then small) NSDAP and DNVP. Immediately afterwards, Brüning submitted to the *Reichstag* the president's decree that it would be dissolved.

The Reichstag general elections on September 14, 1930 resulted in an enormous political shift: 18.3% of the vote went to the Nazis, five times the percentage compared to 1928. This increased legislative representation of the NSDAP had devastating consequences for the Republic. There was no longer a moderate



majority in the *Reichstag* even for a Great Coalition of moderate parties, and this encouraged the supporters of the Nazis to force their claim to power with increasing violence and terror. After 1930, the Republic slid more and more into a state of potential civil war.

From 1930 to 1932, Brüning attempted to reform the devastated state without a majority in Parliament, governing with the help of the President's emergency decrees. During that time, the Great Depression reached its low point. In line with liberal economic theory that less public spending would spur economic growth, Brüning drastically cut state expenditures, including in the social sector. He expected and accepted that the economic crisis would, for a while, deteriorate before things would improve. Among others, the *Reich* completely halted all public grants to the obligatory unemployment insurance (which had been introduced only in 1927), which resulted in higher contributions by the workers and fewer benefits for the unemployed. This was understandably an unpopular move on his part.

The economic downturn lasted until the second half of 1932, when there were first indications of a rebound. By this time though, the Weimar Republic had lost all credibility with the majority of Germans. While scholars greatly disagree about how Brüning's policy should be evaluated, it can safely be said that it contributed to the decline of the Republic. Whether there were alternatives at the time remains the subject of much debate.

The bulk of German capitalists and land-owners originally gave support to the conservative experiment: not from any personal liking for Brüning, but believing the conservatives would best serve their interests. As, however, the mass of the working class and also of the middle classes turned against Brüning, more of the great capitalists and landowners declared themselves in favour of his opponents - Hitler and Hugenberg. By late 1931 conservatism as a movement was dead, and the time was coming when Hindenburg and the Reichswehr would drop Brüning and come to terms with Hugenberg and Hitler. Hindenburg himself was no less a supporter of an anti-democratic counter-revolution represented by Hugenberg and Hitler.

On May 30, 1932, Brüning resigned after no longer having Hindenburg's support. Five weeks earlier, Hindenburg had been re-elected *Reichspräsident* with Brüning's active support, running against Hitler (the president was directly elected by the people while the *Reichskanzler* was not).

### **Franz von Papen calls for elections**

Hindenburg then appointed Franz von Papen as new *Reichskanzler*. Von Papen lifted the ban on the SA, imposed after the street riots, in an unsuccessful attempt to secure the backing of Hitler.



SPD election poster, 1932.  
 Translation: "Against Papen, Hitler, Thälmann; List 2, Social Democrats". The poster shows the Social Democrats crushing their three ideological enemies, Monarchism, Nazism and Communism.

Von Papen was closely associated with the industrialist and land-owning classes and pursued an extreme Conservative policy along Hindenburg's lines. He appointed as Reichswehr Minister Kurt von Schleicher and all of the members of the new cabinet were of the same political opinion as Hindenburg. This government was to be expected to assure itself of the co-operation of Hitler. Since the Republicans and Socialists were not yet ready to take action and the Conservatives had shot their political bolt, Hitler and Hindenburg were certain to achieve power.

### Elections of July 1932

Since most parties opposed the new government, von Papen had the *Reichstag* dissolved and called for new elections. The general elections on July 31, 1932 yielded major gains for the KPD and the Nazis, who won 37.2% of the vote, supplanting the Social Democrats as the largest party in the *Reichstag*.

July 1932 resulted in the question as to what part the now immense Nazi Party would play in the Government of the country. The Nazi party owed its huge increase to an influx of workers, unemployed, despairing peasants, and middle-class people. The millions of radical adherents at first forced the Party towards the Left. They wanted a renewed Germany and a new organisation of German society. The left of the Nazi party strove desperately against any drift into the train of such capitalist and feudal reactionaries. Therefore Hitler refused ministry under Papen, and demanded the chancellorship for himself, but was rejected by Hindenburg on August 13, 1932. There was still no majority in the *Reichstag* for any government; as a result, the Reichstag was dissolved and elections took place once more in the hope that a stable majority would result.

### November and 'Socialist General' Schleicher

The November 6, 1932 elections yielded 33.1% for the Nazis: it dropped 2 million voters. Franz von Papen stepped down, and was succeeded by General Kurt von Schleicher as *Reichskanzler* on December 3. Schleicher, a political army officer, had developed in an atmosphere of semi-obscurity and intrigue that encompassed the Republican military policy. He had for years been in the camp of those supporting the Conservative counter-revolution. Schleicher's bold and unsuccessful plan was to build a majority in the Reichstag by uniting the Trade Unionist left wings in the various parties, including that of the Nazis led by Gregor Strasser. This did not prove successful either.

In this brief Presidential Dictatorship entr'acte, Schleicher took the role of 'Socialist General', and entered into relations with the Christian Trade Unions, the Left Nazis, and even with the Social Democrats. Schleicher's plan was for a sort of Labour Government under his Generalship. It was an utterly un-workable idea as the Reichswehr officers were hardly prepared to follow Schleicher on this path, and the working class had a natural distrust of their future allies. Equally, Schleicher aroused hatred amongst the great capitalists and landowners by these plans. The SPD and KPD could have achieved success building on a Berlin transport strike.



Poster for the nationalist "Black-White-Red" coalition of DVNP leader Alfred Hugenberg, Franz von Papen and Franz Seldte.

Hitler learned from von Papen that the general had no authority to abolish the *Reichstag* parliament, whereas any majority of seats did. The cabinet (under a previous interpretation of Article 48) ruled without a sitting Reichstag, which could vote only for its own dissolution. Hitler also learned that all past crippling Nazi debts were to be relieved by German big business.

On January 22, Hitler's efforts to persuade Oskar von Hindenburg (the President's son) included threats to bring criminal charges over estate taxation irregularities at the President's Neudeck estate (although 5000 extra acres were soon allotted to Hindenburg's property). Out maneuvered by von Papen and Hitler on plans for the new cabinet, and having lost Hindenburg's confidence, Schleicher asked for new elections. On January 28 von Papen described Hitler to Paul von Hindenburg as only a minority part of an alternative, von Papen-arranged government. The four great political movements, the SPD, KPD, Centre, and the Nazis were in opposition.

On January 29 Hitler and von Papen thwarted a last-minute threat of an officially-sanctioned *Reichswehr* takeover, and on January 30, 1933 Hindenburg accepted the new Papen-Nationalist-Hitler coalition with the Nazis holding only three of eleven Cabinet seats. Later that day, the first cabinet meeting was attended by only two political parties, representing a minority in the Reichstag: The Nazis and the DNVP led by Alfred Hugenberg (196 + 52 seats). Eyeing the Catholic Centre Party's 70 (+ 20 BVP) seats, Hitler refused their leader's demands for constitutional "concessions" (amounting to protection) and planned for dissolution of the Reichstag.

Hindenburg, despite his misgivings about the Nazis' goals and about Hitler as a person, reluctantly agreed to Papen's theory that, with Nazi popular support on the wane, Hitler could now be controlled as chancellor. The date dubbed

*Machtergreifung* (seizure of power) by the Nazi propaganda is commonly seen as the beginning of Nazi Germany.

## Hitler's chancellorship and the death of the Weimar Republic (1933)

Hitler was sworn in as Chancellor on the morning of January 30, 1933 in what some observers later described as a brief and indifferent ceremony. By early February, a mere week after Hitler's assumption of the chancellorship, the government had begun to clamp down on the opposition. Meetings of the left-wing parties were banned, and even some of the moderate parties found their members threatened and assaulted. Measures with an appearance of legality suppressed the Communist Party in mid-February and included the plainly illegal arrests of *Reichstag* deputies.

### Reichstag Fire

The Reichstag Fire on February 27 was blamed by Hitler's government on the Communists, and Hitler used the ensuing state of emergency to obtain the assent of President von Hindenburg to issue the Reichstag Fire Decree the following day. The decree invoked Article 48 of the Weimar Constitution and suspended a number of constitutional protections of civil liberties, allowing the Nazi government to take swift action against political meetings, arresting and killing the Communists.



## Reichstag election of March 5

Hitler and the Nazis exploited the German state's broadcasting and aviation facilities in a massive attempt to sway the electorate, but this election — the last democratic election to take place until the end of the Third Reich twelve years later — yielded a scant majority of 16 seats for the coalition. At the Reichstag elections, which took place on 5 March, the NSDAP obtained seventeen million votes. The Communist, Socialist and Catholic Centre votes stood firm.

Hitler addressed disparate interest groups, stressing the necessity for a definitive solution to the perpetual instability of the Weimar Republic. He now blamed Germany's problems on the Communists, even threatening their lives on March 3. Former Chancellor Heinrich Brüning proclaimed that his Centre Party would resist any constitutional change and appealed to the President for an investigation of the Reichstag fire. Hitler's successful plan was to induce what remained of the now Communist-depleted Reichstag to grant him, and the Government, the authority to issue decrees with the force of law. The hitherto Presidential Dictatorship hereby was to give itself a new legal form.

On 15 March the first cabinet meeting was attended by the two coalition parties, representing a minority in the Reichstag: The Nazis and the DNVP led by Alfred Hugenberg (196 + 52 seats). According to the Nuremberg Trials this cabinet meeting's first order of business was how at last to achieve the complete counter-revolution by means of the constitutionally-allowed Enabling Act, requiring two-thirds parliamentary majority. This Act would, and did, bring Hitler and the NSDAP unfettered dictatorial powers.

### Hitler cabinet meeting in mid-March

At the meeting of the new cabinet on March 15, Hitler introduced the Enabling Act, which would have authorised the cabinet to enact legislation without the approval of the Reichstag. Meanwhile, the only remaining question for the Nazis was whether the Catholic Centre Party (*Zentrum*) would support the Enabling Act in the Reichstag, thereby providing the two-thirds majority required to ratify a law that amended the constitution. Hitler expressed his confidence to win over the Centre's votes. Hitler is recorded at the Nuremberg Trials as being sure of eventual Centre Party Germany capitulation and thus rejecting of the DNVP's suggestions to "balance" the majority through further arrests, this time of socialists. Hitler however assured his coalition partners that arrests would resume after the elections, and in fact some 26 SPD Socialists were physically removed. After meeting with Centre leader Monsignor Ludwig Kaas and other Centre Trade Union leaders daily, and denying them a substantial participation in the government, negotiation succeeded in respect of guarantees towards Catholic civil-servants and education issues.

At the last internal Centre meeting prior to the debate on the *Enabling Act*, Kaas expressed no preference or suggestion on the vote, but as a way of mollifying opposition by Centre members to the granting of further powers to Hitler, Kaas somehow arranged for a letter of constitutional guarantee from Hitler himself prior to his voting with the centre *en bloc* in favour of the Enabling Act. This guarantee was not ultimately given. Kaas, the party's chairman since 1928, had strong connections to the Vatican Secretary of State, later Pope Pius XII. In return for pledging his support for the act, Kaas would use his connections with the Vatican to set in train and draft the Holy See's long desired Reichskonkordat with Germany (only possible with the co-operation of the Nazis).

Ludwig Kaas is considered along with von Papen as being one of the two most important political figures in the creation of a National Socialist dictatorship.



## Enabling Act negotiations

On March 20 negotiation began between Hitler and Frick on one side and the Catholic Centre Party (*Zentrum*) leaders — Kaas, Stegerwald and Hackelsburger — on the other. The aim was to settle on conditions under which Center would vote in favour of the Enabling Act. Because of the Nazis' narrow majority in the *Reichstag*, Centre's support was necessary to receive the required two-thirds majority vote. On March 22, the negotiations concluded; Hitler promised to continue the existence of the German states, agreed not to use the new grant of power to change the constitution, and promised to retain *Zentrum* members in the civil service. Hitler also pledged to protect the Catholic confessional schools and to respect the concordats signed between the Holy See and Bavaria (1924), Prussia (1929) and Baden (1931). Hitler also agreed to mention these promises in his speech to the Reichstag before the vote on the Enabling Act.

## Ceremonial opening of the *Reichstag* in Potsdam on March 21

The ceremonial opening of the Reichstag on March 21 was held at the Garrison Church in Potsdam, a shrine of Prussianism, in the presence of many Junker landowners and representatives of the imperial military caste. This impressive and often emotional spectacle — orchestrated by Joseph Goebbels — aimed to link Hitler's government with Germany's imperial past and portray National Socialism as a guarantor of the nation's future. The ceremony helped convince the "old guard" Prussian military elite of Hitler's homage to their long tradition and, in turn, produced the relatively convincing view that Hitler's government had the support of Germany's traditional protector — the Army. Such support would publicly signal a return to conservatism to curb the problems affecting the Weimar Republic, and that stability might be at hand. In a cynical and politically adroit move, Hitler bowed in respectful humility before President and Field Marshal von Hindenburg.

## Passage of the Enabling Act by the *Reichstag* on March 23

The Reichstag Government convened on March 23, 1933, and in the midday opening, Hitler made a historic speech, appearing outwardly calm and conciliatory. It is most noticeable for its abrupt reversal of the Nazi Party's hardline stance against Christianity and particularly Catholicism. Hitler presented an appealing prospect of respect towards Christianity by paying tribute to the Christian faiths as "essential elements for safeguarding the soul of the German people". He promised to respect their rights and declared his government's "ambition is a peaceful accord between Church and State" and that he hoped "to improve our friendly relations with the Holy See." This speech aimed especially at the future recognition by the named Holy See and therefore to the votes of the Centre Party addressing many concerns Kaas had voiced during the previous talks. Kaas is considered to have had a hand therefore in the drafting of the speech. Kaas is also reported as voicing the Holy see's desire for Hitler as bulwark against atheistic Russian nihilism previously as early as May 1932.

In the debate prior to the vote on the Enabling Act, Hitler orchestrated the full political menace of his paramilitary forces like the storm troopers in the streets to intimidate reluctant Reichstag deputies into approving the Enabling Act. The Communists' 81 seats had been empty since the Reichstag Fire Decree and other lesser known procedural measures, thus excluding their anticipated "No" votes from the balloting. Otto Wels, the leader of the Social Democrats, whose seats were similarly depleted from 120 to below 100, was the only speaker to defend democracy and in a futile but brave effort to deny Hitler the two-thirds majority, he made a speech critical of the abandonment of democracy to dictatorship. At this Hitler could no longer restrain his wrath.

In his retort to Wels, Hitler abandoned earlier pretence at calm statesmanship and delivered a characteristic screaming diatribe, promising to exterminate all



Communists in Germany and threatening Wels' Social Democrats as well. Meanwhile Hitler's promised written guarantee to Monsignor Kaas was being typed up, it was asserted to Kaas, and thereby Kaas was persuaded to silently deliver the Centre bloc's votes for the Enabling Act anyway.

## Aftermath

The passing of the Enabling Act gave Hitler and his government sweeping powers to legislate without the Reichstag's approval, and to make foreign policy decisions and deviate from the constitution where they saw fit. Hitler would use these powers to remove all opposition to the dictatorship he wished to create. The decrees issued by Hitler's cabinet within succeeding weeks rapidly stripped Germans of their rights, removed all non-Nazi members of the Civil Service, and banned all other political parties and unions, ushering in the Third Reich.

The NSDAP movement had rapidly passed the power of the majority Nationalist Ministers to control. Unchecked by the police, the S.A indulged in acts of terrorism throughout Germany. Communists, Social Democrats, and the Centre were ousted from public life everywhere. The violent persecution of Jews began, and by the summer 1933 the NSDAP felt itself so invincible that it did away with all the other parties, as well as trades unions. The Nationalist Party was among those suppressed. The NSDAP ruled alone in Germany. The Reichswehr had, however, remained completely un-touched by all these occurrences. It was still the same State within a State that it had been in the Weimar Republic. Similarly, the private property of wealthy industrialists and landowners was untouched, whilst the administrative and judicial machinery was only very slightly tampered with.

## Reasons for the Weimar Republic's failure

The reasons for the Weimar Republic's collapse are the subject of continuing debate. It may have been doomed from the beginning since even moderates disliked it and extremists on both the left and right loathed it. Germany had no democratic traditions and Weimar democracy was widely seen as chaotic. And since Weimar politicians had been blamed for the "stab in the back" myth that was then widely believed in Germany as the real cause of the surrender of the German army in World War I, the popular legitimacy of the government was on shaky ground.

No single reason can explain the failure of the Weimar Republic. The most commonly asserted causes can be grouped into three categories: economic problems, institutional problems and the roles of specific individuals.

### Economic problems

The Weimar Republic had some of the most serious economic problems ever experienced by any Western democracy in history. Rampant hyperinflation, massive unemployment and a large drop in living standards were primary factors. In 1923-29 there was a short period of economic recovery, but the Great Depression of the 1930s led to a worldwide recession. Germany was particularly affected because it depended heavily on American loans. In 1932, about 5 million Germans were unemployed. Many blamed the Weimar Republic. This was made apparent when political parties on both right and left wanting to disband the Republic altogether made any democratic majority in Parliament impossible.

The Weimar Republic was severely affected by the Great Depression triggered by the Wall Street Crash of 1929. The crash and subsequent economic stagnation

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led to increased demands on Germany to repay the debts owed to the United States. As the Weimar Republic was very fragile in all of its existence, the depression proved to be devastating, and played a major role in the NSDAP's takeover.

The Treaty of Versailles was considered by most Germans to be a punishing and degrading document because it forced them to surrender resource-rich areas and pay massive amounts of compensation. These punitive reparations caused consternation and resentment, although the actual economic damage resulting from the Treaty of Versailles is difficult to determine. While the official reparations were considerable Germany ended up paying only a fraction of them. However, the reparations did damage Germany's economy by discouraging market loans, which forced the Weimar government to finance its deficit by printing more money, causing rampant hyperinflation. In addition, the rapid disintegration of Germany in 1919, due to the return of a disillusioned army, the rapid change from possible victory in 1918 to defeat in 1919, and the political chaos may have caused a psychological imprint on Germans that could lead to extreme nationalism, shown by Hitler.

Most historians agree that many industrial leaders identified the Weimar Republic with labour unions and with the Social Democrats, who had established the Versailles concessions of 1918/1919. Although some did see Hitler as a means to abolish the latter, the Republic was already unstable before any industry leaders were supporting Hitler. Even those who supported Hitler's appointment often did not want Nazism in its entirety and considered Hitler a temporary solution in their efforts to abolish the Republic. Industry support alone cannot explain Hitler's enthusiastic support by large segments of the population, including many workers who had turned away from the left.

## Institutional problems

It is widely agreed that the 1919 constitution had several weaknesses, making the eventual establishment of a dictatorship likely but it is unknown whether a different constitution could have prevented the Third Reich. However, the 1949 West German constitution (the *Grundgesetz*) is generally viewed as a strong response to these flaws.

- The institution of the *Reichspräsident* was frequently considered as an *Ersatzkaiser* ("substitute emperor"), an attempt to replace the Kaiser (who resigned and fled in 1918) with a similarly strong institution meant to diminish party politics. Article 48 of the constitution gave the President power to "take all necessary steps" if "public order and security are seriously disturbed or endangered". Although this was intended as an emergency clause, it was often used before 1933 to issue decrees without the support of Parliament (see above) and also made *Gleichschaltung* easier. For example, the Reichstag Fire Decree was issued on the basis of Article 48.
- The use of almost pure proportional representation meant any party with a small amount of support could gain entry into the *Reichstag*. This led to many small parties, some extremist, building political bases within the system (In 1949, four years after the *Second World War* the electoral law was changed and only parties with 5% or more of the total vote would be allowed to enter the Bundestag). Yet, it has to be noted that the Reichstag of the monarchy was fractioned to a similar degree although being elected by majority vote under a first-past-the-post system.
- The *Reichstag* could remove the *Reichskanzler* from office even if it was unable to agree on a successor. This "Motion of No Confidence" led to many chancellors in quick succession, adding to the Republic's instability (see Chancellor of Germany for a list). As a result, the 1949 *Grundgesetz* stipulates that a chancellor may only be voted down by Parliament if a successor is elected at the same time (see Constructive Vote of No Confidence).





- The constitution provided that in the event of the president's death or resignation, the *Reichskanzler* would assume that office (and crucially possess its powers) pending election of a new president. This allowed Hitler to easily unite the offices of *Reichskanzler* and *Reichspräsident* after Hindenburg's death in 1934. However, by this time the dictatorship was already firmly installed and this clause alone cannot be blamed for Nazism.

## Role of individuals

Some historians prefer to consider individuals and the decisions they made. This brings up the problematic question of what alternatives were available at the time and leads to speculation and hypothesis.

Brüning's economic policy from 1930-1932 has been the subject of much debate. It caused many Germans to identify the Republic with cuts in social spending and extremely liberal economics. Whether there were alternatives to this policy during Great Depression is an open question.

Paul von Hindenburg became *Reichspräsident* in 1925. He represented the older authoritarian 1871 Empire, and it is hard to label him as a democrat in support of the 1919 Republic, but he was never a Nazi. During his later years (at well over 80 years old), he was also senile. A president with solid democratic beliefs may not have allowed the Reichstag to be circumvented with the use of Article 48 decrees and might have avoided signing the Reichstag Fire Decree. Hindenburg waited one and a half days before he appointed Hitler as *Reichskanzler* on January 30, 1933, which indicates some hesitance. Some claim Nazism would have lost much public support if Hitler had not been named chancellor.

## Constituent states of Germany during the Weimar period

Prior to World War I, the German Empire consisted of 22 smaller monarchies, three city-states and the Imperial territory of Alsace-Lorraine. After the territorial losses of the Treaty of Versailles and the revolution of 1918, the remaining states continued as republics. The former Ernestine duchies continued briefly as republics before merging to form the state of Thuringia in 1920, except for Saxe-Coburg, which became part of Bavaria.





State	Capital
<b>Anhalt</b>	Dessau
 <b>Baden</b>	Karlsruhe
 <b>Bavaria (Bayern)</b>	Munich
<b>Brunswick (Braunschweig)</b>	Braunschweig
<b>Hesse (Hessen / Hessen-Darmstadt)</b>	Darmstadt
<b>Lippe</b>	Detmold
<b>Mecklenburg-Schwerin</b>	Schwerin
<b>Mecklenburg-Strelitz</b>	Neustrelitz
 <b>Oldenburg</b>	Oldenburg
 <b>Prussia (Preußen)</b>	Berlin
<b>Saxe-Coburg (Sachsen-Coburg) - to Bavaria in 1920</b>	Coburg
 <b>Saxony (Sachsen)</b>	Dresden
<b>Schaumburg-Lippe</b>	Bückeburg
 <b>Thuringia (Thüringen) - from 1920</b>	Weimar
 <b>Waldeck-Pyrmont - to Prussia in 1921/1929</b>	Arolsen
 <b>Württemberg</b>	Stuttgart

#### City-states

 <b>Bremen</b>
 <b>Hamburg</b>
 <b>Lübeck</b>

#### States merged to form Thuringia in 1920

<b>Reuss</b>	Gera
 <b>Saxe-Altenburg (Sachsen-Altenburg)</b>	Altenburg
<b>Saxe-Gotha (Sachsen-Gotha)</b>	Gotha
 <b>Saxe-Meiningen (Sachsen-Meiningen)</b>	Meiningen
<b>Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach (Sachsen-Weimar-Eisenach)</b>	Weimar
<b>Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt</b>	Rudolstadt
<b>Schwarzburg-Sondershausen</b>	Sondershausen



States of Germany (1925)

These states were gradually *de facto* abolished under the Nazi regime via the Gleichschaltung process, as the states were largely re-organised into Gaue. However, the city-state of Lübeck was formally incorporated into Prussia in 1937 following the Greater Hamburg Act - apparently motivated by Hitler's personal dislike for the city. Most of the remaining states were formally dissolved by the Allies at the end of World War II and ultimately re-organised into the



modern states of Germany.

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