



Uploaded to VFC Website

▶▶ ▶▶ **May 2013** ◀◀ ◀◀

This Document has been provided to you courtesy of Veterans-For-Change!

Feel free to pass to any veteran who might be able to use this information!

For thousands more files like this and hundreds of links to useful information, and hundreds of "Frequently Asked Questions, please go to:

[Veterans-For-Change](#)

*Veterans-For-Change is a 501(c)(3) Non-Profit Corporation
Tax ID #27-3820181*

If Veteran's don't help Veteran's, who will?

We appreciate all donations to continue to provide information and services to Veterans and their families.

https://www.paypal.com/cgi-bin/webscr?cmd=_s-xclick&hosted_button_id=WGT2M5UTB9A78

Note:

VFC is not liable for source information in this document, it is merely provided as a courtesy to our members.



World War II

World War II, or the **Second World War**^[1]

conflict lasting from 1939 to 1945 which involved organised into two opposing military alliances: history, with more than 100 million military participants placed their entire economic, effort, erasing the distinction between civilian civilians, including the Holocaust and the only in human history,^[2] with over seventy million casualties.



(often abbreviated **WWII** or **WW2**), was a global military most of the world's nations, including all great powers, the Allies and the Axis. It was the most widespread war in personnel mobilised. In a state of "total war," the major industrial, and scientific capabilities at the service of the war and military resources. Marked by significant action against use of nuclear weapons in warfare, it was the deadliest conflict

The start of the war is generally held to be September 1, 1939, with the invasion of Poland by Nazi Germany and subsequent declarations of war on Germany by France and most of the countries of the British Empire and Commonwealth. Many countries were already at war by this date, such as Ethiopia and Italy in the Second Italo-Abyssinian War and China and Japan in the Second Sino-Japanese War.^[3] Many that were not initially involved joined the war later in response to events such as the German invasion of the Soviet Union and the Japanese attacks on the U.S. Pacific Fleet at Pearl Harbor and on British overseas colonies, which triggered declarations of war on Japan by the United States, the British Commonwealth,^[4] and the Netherlands.^[5]

In 1945 the war ended in an Allied victory and a changed world. While the United Nations was established to foster international cooperation and prevent future conflicts, the Soviet Union and the United States emerged as two rival superpowers, setting the stage for the Cold War which lasted for the next 46 years. Meanwhile, the acceptance of the principle of self-determination accelerated decolonization movements in Asia and Africa, while Western Europe began moving toward economic recovery and increased political integration.

Chronology

See also: [Timeline of World War II](#)

The start of the war is generally held to be September 1, 1939 beginning with the German invasion of Poland; Britain and France declared war on Germany two days later. Other dates for the beginning of war include the Japanese invasion of Manchuria on September 13, 1931;^[6] the start of the Second Sino-Japanese War on July 7, 1937;^{[7][8]} or one of several other events.

Others follow A. J. P. Taylor, who held that there was a simultaneous Sino-Japanese War in East Asia, and a Second European War in Europe and her colonies. The two wars merged in 1941, becoming a single global conflict, at which point the war continued until 1945. This article uses the conventional dating.^[9]

The exact date of the war's end is not universally agreed upon. It has been suggested that the war ended at the armistice of August 14, 1945 ([V-J Day](#)), rather than the formal surrender of Japan (September 2, 1945); in some European histories, it ended on [V-E Day](#) (May 8, 1945). The [Treaty of Peace with Japan](#) was not signed until 1951.^[10]

Background

Main article: [Causes of World War II](#)

World War I radically altered the diplomatic and political situations in Eurasia and Africa with the defeat of the Central Powers, including Austria-Hungary, Germany, and the Ottoman Empire; and the Bolshevik seizure of power in Russia in 1917. Meanwhile the success of the Allied Entente powers including the United Kingdom, France, the United States, Italy, Yugoslavia, and Romania and

the creation of new states from the collapse of Austria-Hungary and the [Russian Empire](#) resulted in a major shift in the balance of power in Europe. In the [aftermath of the war](#) major unrest in Europe rose, especially irredentist and [revanchist](#) nationalism and [class conflict](#). Irredentism and revanchism was strong in Germany which was forced to accept significant territorial, colonial, and financial losses as part of the [Treaty of Versailles](#). Under the treaty Germany lost around 13 percent of its home territory and all of [its overseas colonies](#), while German annexation of other states was prohibited, massive reparations were imposed and limits were placed on the size and capability of Germany's armed forces.^[11] Meanwhile, the [Russian Civil War](#) had led to the creation of the [Soviet Union](#).

After Lenin's death in 1924, Stalin seized power in the USSR and repudiated the [New Economic Policy](#) favouring the Five Year Plans instead.^[12]

In the interwar period, domestic civil conflict occurred in Germany involving nationalists and reactionaries versus communists and moderate democratic political parties. A similar scenario occurred in Italy. Although Italy as an Entente ally made some territorial gains, Italian nationalists were angered that the terms of the [Treaty of London](#) upon which Italy had agreed to wage war on the Central Powers, were not fulfilled with the peace settlement. From 1922 to 1925, the [Italian Fascist](#) movement led by [Benito Mussolini](#) seized power in Italy with a nationalist, totalitarian, and class collaborationist agenda that abolished representative democracy, repressed political forces supporting class conflict or liberalism, and pursued an aggressive foreign policy aimed at forcefully forging Italy as a world power, and promising to create a "New Roman Empire."^[13] [Fascism](#) became internationally popular amongst people disillusioned with democratic government, liberalism, and class conflict. In Germany, the [Nazi Party](#) led by [Adolf Hitler](#) pursued establishing such a fascist government in Germany. With the onset of the [Great Depression](#), Nazi support rose and in 1933, Hitler was appointed Chancellor of Germany, and in the aftermath of the [Reichstag fire](#), Hitler created a totalitarian single-party state led by the Nazis.^[14]

The [Kuomintang](#) (KMT) party in [China](#) launched a unification campaign against regional warlords and nominally unified China in the mid-1920s, but was soon embroiled in a [civil war](#) against its former Chinese communist allies.^[15] In 1931, an increasingly militaristic [Japanese Empire](#), which had long sought influence in China^[16] as the first step of its right to rule Asia, used the [Mukden Incident](#) as justification to [invade Manchuria](#) and established the [puppet state](#) of [Manchukuo](#).^[17] Too weak to resist Japan, China appealed to the [League of Nations](#) for help. Japan withdrew from the League of Nations after being [condemned](#) for its incursion into Manchuria. The two nations then fought several minor conflicts, in [Shanghai](#), [Rehe](#) and [Hebei](#), until signing the [Tanggu Truce](#) in 1933. Thereafter, Chinese volunteer forces continued the resistance to Japanese aggression in [Manchuria](#), and [Chahar and Suiyuan](#).^[18]

[Adolf Hitler](#), after an [unsuccessful attempt to overthrow the German government](#) in 1923, became the Chancellor of Germany in 1933. He abolished [democracy](#), espousing a [radical, racially-motivated revision of the world order](#), and soon began a massive [rearmament campaign](#).^[19] Meanwhile, France, to secure its alliance, allowed Italy a free hand in Ethiopia, which Italy desired as a colonial possession. The situation was aggravated in early 1935 when the [Saarland](#) was legally reunited with Germany and Hitler repudiated the Treaty of Versailles, speeding up his rearmament programme and introducing [conscription](#).^[20]

Hoping to contain Germany, the United Kingdom, France and Italy formed the [Stresa Front](#). The Soviet Union, concerned due to [Germany's goals of capturing vast areas of eastern Europe](#), wrote a treaty of mutual assistance with France. Before taking effect though, the [Franco-Soviet pact](#) was required to go through the bureaucracy of the [League of Nations](#), which rendered it essentially toothless.^{[21][22]} However, in June 1935, the United Kingdom made an [independent naval agreement](#) with Germany, easing prior restrictions. The United States, concerned with events in Europe and Asia, passed the [Neutrality Act](#) in August.^[23] In October, Italy

invaded Ethiopia, with Germany the only major European nation supporting the invasion. Italy then revoked objections to Germany's goal of absorbing [Austria](#).^[24]

Hitler defied the Versailles and [Locarno](#) treaties by [remilitarizing](#) the [Rhineland](#) in March 1936. He received little response from other European powers.^[25] When the [Spanish Civil War](#) broke out in July, Hitler and Mussolini supported fascist Generalissimo [Francisco Franco's](#) nationalist forces in his civil war against the Soviet-supported [Spanish Republic](#). Both sides used the conflict to test new weapons and methods of warfare,^[26] and the nationalists won the war in early 1939. Mounting tensions led to several efforts to strengthen or consolidate power. In October 1936, Germany and Italy formed the Rome-Berlin Axis. A month later, Germany and Japan signed the [Anti-Comintern Pact](#), which Italy would join in the following year. In China, after the Xian Incident the Kuomintang and communist forces agreed on a ceasefire in order to present a united front to oppose Japan.^[27]

Pre-war events

Invasion of Ethiopia

Main article: [Second Italo–Abyssinian War](#)

The Second Italo–Abyssinian War was a brief [colonial war](#) that started in October 1935 and ended in May 1936. The war was fought between the [armed forces](#) of the [Kingdom of Italy](#) (*Regno d'Italia*) and the armed forces of the [Ethiopian Empire](#) (also known as [Abyssinia](#)). The war resulted in the [military occupation](#) of Ethiopia and its [annexation](#) into the newly created colony of [Italian East Africa](#) (*Africa Orientale Italiana*, or AOI); in addition, it exposed the weakness of the League of Nations as a force to preserve peace. Both Italy and Ethiopia were member nations, but the League did nothing when the former clearly violated the League's own [Article X](#).^[28]

Japanese invasion of China

Main article: [Second Sino-Japanese War](#)

In July 1937, Japan captured the former imperial capital of Beiping after instigating the [Marco Polo Bridge Incident](#), which culminated in the [Japanese](#) campaign to invade all of [China](#).^[29] The Soviets quickly signed a [non-aggression pact with China](#) to lend [materiel](#) support, effectively ending China's prior [cooperation with Germany](#). [Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek](#) deployed his [best army to defend Shanghai](#), but after 3 month of fighting [Shanghai](#) fell. The Japanese continue to push the Chinese forces back, capturing the capital Nanjing in December 1937 and committed the [Nanking Massacre](#).

In June 1938, Chinese forces stalled the Japanese advance by [flooding the Yellow River](#); although this manoeuvre bought time for the Chinese to prepare their defences at [Wuhan](#), the [city was taken](#) by October.^[30] However, Japanese military victories did not bring about the collapse of Chinese resistance that Japan had hoped to achieve, instead the Chinese government relocated to [Chongqing](#) to continue their resistance.^[31]

Japanese invasion of the USSR and Mongolia

See also: [Hokushin-ron](#), [Nanshin-ron](#), and [Soviet-Japanese Border War \(1939\)](#)

On July 29, 1938, the Japanese invaded the USSR and were checked at the [Battle of Lake Khasan](#). Although the battle was a Soviet victory, the Japanese dismissed it as an inconclusive draw, and on May 11, 1939 decided to move the Japanese-Mongolian border up to the Khalkin Gol River by force. Stalin replaced the former Soviet commander with [Georgy Zhukov](#) on [Semyon Timoshenko's](#) advice. Zhukov, along with reinforcements sent from [Moscow](#), checked the Japanese assault on [Mongolia](#) and handed the Japanese Kwangtung Army their first major defeat.^{[32][33]}

These clashes convinced the Japanese government that they should focus on conciliating the Soviet government to avoid interference in the war against China and instead turn their military attention southward, towards the US and European holdings in the Pacific. They also prevented the sacking of experienced Soviet military leaders such as Zhukov, who would later play a vital role in the [defence of Moscow](#).^[34]

European occupations and agreements

Further information: [Anschluss](#), [German occupation of Czechoslovakia](#), and Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact

In Europe, Germany and Italy were becoming bolder. In March 1938, Germany [annexed Austria](#), again provoking little response from other European powers.^[35] Encouraged, Hitler began pressing German claims on the [Sudetenland](#), an area of [Czechoslovakia](#) with a predominantly ethnic German population; France and Britain [conceded this territory](#) to him, against the wishes of the Czechoslovak government, in exchange for a promise of no further territorial demands.^[36] Soon after that, however, Germany and Italy forced Czechoslovakia to [cede additional territory to Hungary and Poland](#).^[37] In March 1939, [Germany invaded the remainder of Czechoslovakia](#) and subsequently split it into the German [Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia](#) and the pro-German [client state](#), the [Slovak Republic](#).^[38]

Alarmed, and with Hitler making further demands on [Danzig](#), France and Britain guaranteed their support for Polish independence; when [Italy conquered Albania](#) in April 1939, the same guarantee was extended to Romania and [Greece](#).^[39] Shortly after the Franco-British pledge to Poland, Germany and Italy formalised their own alliance with the [Pact of Steel](#).^[40]

In August 1939, Germany and the Soviet Union signed the [Molotov–Ribbentrop Pact](#),^[41] a non-aggression treaty with a secret protocol. The parties gave each other rights, “in the event of a territorial and political rearrangement,” to “spheres of influence” (western [Poland](#) and [Lithuania](#) for Germany, and [eastern Poland](#), [Finland](#), [Estonia](#), [Latvia](#) and [Bessarabia](#) for the USSR). It also raised the question of continuing Polish independence.^[42]

Course of the war

War breaks out in Europe

On September 1, 1939, Germany and Slovakia — a client state in 1939 — attacked Poland. France, Britain, and the countries of the [Commonwealth](#) declared war on Germany but provided little military support to Poland other than a [small French attack into the Saarland](#).^[43] On September 17, 1939, after signing an armistice with Japan, the Soviets launched their own invasion of Poland.^[44] By early October, Poland was divided among [Germany](#), the Soviet Union, [Lithuania](#) and [Slovakia](#), although Poland never officially surrendered and [continued the fight outside its borders](#).^[45] At the same time as the battle in Poland, Japan launched its [first attack against Changsha](#), a strategically important Chinese city, but was repulsed by late September.^[46]

Following the invasion of Poland and a [German-Soviet treaty governing Lithuania](#), the Soviet Union forced the [Baltic countries](#) to allow it to station Soviet troops in their countries under pacts of "mutual assistance."^{[47][48][49]} Finland rejected territorial demands and was invaded by the Soviet Union in November 1939.^[50] The [resulting conflict](#) ended in March 1940 with [Finnish concessions](#).^[51] France and the United Kingdom, treating the Soviet attack on Finland as tantamount to entering the war on the side of the Germans, responded to the Soviet invasion by supporting the USSR's expulsion from the League of Nations.^[49] In June 1940, the [Soviet Armed Forces](#) invaded and occupied the neutral Baltic States.^[48]

In Western Europe, British troops deployed to the Continent, but in a phase nicknamed the [Phoney War](#) by the British and "Sitzkrieg" (*sitting war*) by the Germans, neither side launched major operations against the other until April 1940.^[52] The Soviet Union and Germany entered a trade pact in February of 1940, pursuant to which the Soviets received German military and industrial equipment in exchange for supplying raw materials to Germany to help circumvent a British blockade.^[53] In April, [Germany invaded Denmark and Norway](#) to secure shipments of iron ore from Sweden, which the Allies would try to disrupt.^[54] [Denmark](#) immediately capitulated, and [despite Allied support, Norway](#) was conquered within two months.^[55] [British discontent over the Norwegian campaign](#) led to the replacement of Prime Minister [Neville Chamberlain](#) by [Winston Churchill](#) on May 10, 1940.^[56]

Axis advances

On that same day, Germany [invaded France, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg](#).^[57] The [Netherlands](#) and [Belgium](#) were overrun using [blitzkrieg](#) tactics in a few days and weeks, respectively.^[58] The French fortified [Maginot Line](#) was circumvented by a flanking movement through the thickly wooded [Ardennes](#) region,^[57] mistakenly perceived by French planners as an impenetrable natural barrier against armoured vehicles.^[59] British troops were forced to [evacuate the continent at Dunkirk](#), abandoning their heavy equipment by the end of the month. On June 10, [Italy invaded](#), declaring war on both France and the United Kingdom;^[60] twelve days later France surrendered and was soon divided into [German](#) and Italian occupation zones,^[61] and an unoccupied rump state under the Vichy Regime. On July 14, the British [attacked the French fleet in Algeria](#) to prevent its possible seizure by Germany.^[62]

With France neutralised, Germany began an air superiority campaign over Britain (the [Battle of Britain](#)) to prepare for an invasion.^[63] The campaign failed, and the invasion plans were cancelled by September. Using newly captured French ports, the German Navy [enjoyed success](#) against an over-extended [Royal Navy](#), using [U-boats](#) against British shipping in the [Atlantic](#).^[64] Italy began operations in the Mediterranean, initiating a [siege of Malta](#) in June, [conquering British Somaliland](#) in August, and [making an incursion into British-held Egypt](#) in September 1940. Japan increased its blockade of China in September by [seizing several bases](#) in the northern part of the now-isolated [French Indochina](#).^[65]

Throughout this period, the neutral United States took measures to assist China and the Western Allies. In November 1939, the American Neutrality Act was amended to allow '[Cash and carry](#)' purchases by the Allies.^[66] In 1940, following the German capture of [Paris](#), the size of the [United States Navy](#) was [significantly increased](#) and, after the Japanese incursion into Indochina, the United States [embargoed](#) iron, steel and mechanical parts against Japan.^[67] In September, the United States further agreed to a [trade of American destroyers for British bases](#).^[68] Still, a large majority of the American public continued to oppose any direct military intervention into the conflict well into 1941.^[69]

At the end of September 1940, the [Tripartite Pact](#) united Japan, Italy, and Germany to formalize the Axis Powers.^[70] The Tripartite Pact stipulated that any country, with the exception of the Soviet Union, not in the war which attacked any Axis Power would be forced to go to war against all three.^[71] During this time, the United States continued to support the United Kingdom and China by introducing the [Lend-Lease](#) policy authorizing the provision of war materiel and other items^[72] and creating a security zone spanning roughly half of the Atlantic Ocean where the [United States Navy](#) protected British convoys.^[73] As a result, Germany and

the United States found themselves engaged in sustained naval warfare in the North and Central Atlantic by October 1941, even though the United States remained officially neutral. ^{[74][75]}

The Axis expanded in November 1940 when [Hungary](#), Slovakia, and Romania joined the Tripartite Pact. ^[76] These countries participated in the subsequent [invasion of the USSR](#), with Romania making the [largest contribution](#) to recapture [territory ceded to the USSR](#) and pursue its leader [Ion Antonescu's](#) desire to combat communism. ^[77] In October 1940, [Italy invaded Greece](#) but within days was repulsed and pushed back into Albania, where a stalemate soon occurred. ^[78] In December 1940, British Commonwealth forces began counter-offensives against [Italian forces in Egypt](#) and [Italian East Africa](#). ^[79] By early 1941, with Italian forces having been pushed back into Libya by the Commonwealth, Churchill ordered a [dispatch of troops from Africa to bolster the Greeks](#). ^[80]

The [Italian Navy](#) also suffered significant defeats, with the Royal Navy putting three Italian battleships out of commission by [carrier attack at Taranto](#), and neutralising several more warships at [Cape Matapan](#). ^[81]

The Germans soon intervened to assist Italy. Hitler sent German forces to Libya in February, and by the end of March they had launched an offensive against the diminished Commonwealth forces. ^[82] In under a month, Commonwealth forces were pushed back into Egypt with the exception of the [besieged port of Tobruk](#). ^[83] The Commonwealth [attempted to dislodge Axis forces in May](#) and [again in June](#), but failed on both occasions. ^[84] In early April, following [Bulgaria's](#) signing of the Tripartite Pact, the Germans intervened in the Balkans [by invading Greece](#) and [Yugoslavia following a coup](#); here too they made rapid progress, eventually forcing the Allies to evacuate after Germany [conquered the Greek island of Crete](#) by the end of May. ^[85]

The Allies did have some successes during this time. In the [Middle East](#), Commonwealth forces first [quashed a coup in Iraq](#) which had been supported by German aircraft from bases within Vichy-controlled Syria, ^[86] then, with the assistance of the Free French, [invaded Syria and Lebanon](#) to prevent further such occurrences. ^[87] In the Atlantic, the British scored a much-needed public morale boost by [sinking the German flagship Bismarck](#). ^[88] Perhaps most importantly, during the Battle of Britain the [Royal Air Force](#) had successfully resisted the Luftwaffe's assault, and on May 11, 1941, Hitler called off the bombing campaign. ^[89]

In Asia, despite several offensives by both sides, the war between China and Japan was stalemated by 1940. In order to increase pressure on China by blocking supply routes, and to better position Japanese forces in the event of a war with the Western powers, Japan had [seized military control of southern Indochina](#). ^[90] In August of that year, [Chinese communists](#) launched an [offensive in Central China](#); in retaliation, Japan instituted harsh measures (the [Three Alls Policy](#)) in occupied areas to reduce human and material resources for the communists. ^[91] Continued antipathy between Chinese communist and nationalist forces [culminated in armed clashes in January 1941](#), effectively ending their co-operation. ^[92] With the situation in Europe and Asia relatively stable, Germany, Japan, and the Soviet Union made preparations. With the Soviets wary of mounting tensions with Germany and the Japanese planning to take advantage of the European War by seizing resource-rich European possessions in Southeast Asia, the two powers signed the [Soviet–Japanese Neutrality Pact](#) in April 1941. ^[93] By contrast, the Germans were steadily making preparations for an attack on the Soviet Union, amassing forces on the Soviet border. ^[94]

The war becomes global

On June 22, 1941, Germany, along with other European Axis members and Finland, invaded the Soviet Union in [Operation Barbarossa](#). The primary targets of this surprise offensive ^[95] were the [Baltic region](#), [Moscow](#), and [Ukraine](#), with an [ultimate goal](#) of ending the 1941 campaign near the Arkhangelsk-Astrakhan line, connecting the Caspian and [White Seas](#). Hitler's objectives were to eliminate the Soviet Union as a military power, exterminate [Communism](#), generate [Lebensraum](#) ("living space") ^[96] by [dispossessing the native population](#) ^[97] and guarantee access to the strategic resources needed to defeat Germany's remaining rivals. ^[98]

Although the [Red Army](#) was preparing for strategic [counter-offensives](#) before the war, ^[99] [Barbarossa](#) forced the [Soviet supreme command](#) to adopt a [strategic defence](#). During the summer, the Axis made significant gains into Soviet territory, inflicting immense losses in both personnel and materiel. By the middle of August, however, the German [Army High Command](#) decided to [suspend the offensive](#) of a considerably depleted [Army Group Centre](#), and to divert the Second Panzer Group to reinforce troops advancing toward central Ukraine and Leningrad. ^[100] The [Kiev offensive](#) was overwhelmingly successful, resulting in encirclement and elimination of four Soviet armies, and made further advance into Crimea and industrially developed Eastern Ukraine (the [First Battle of Kharkov](#)) possible. ^[101]

The diversion of three quarters of the Axis troops and the majority of their air forces from France and the central Mediterranean to the [Eastern Front](#) ^{[102][103]} prompted the United Kingdom to reconsider its grand strategy. ^[104] In July, the UK and the Soviet Union formed a [military alliance against Germany](#) ^[105] and [jointly invaded Iran](#) shortly afterwards to secure the [Persian Corridor](#) and Iran's oilfields. ^[106] In August, the United Kingdom and the United States jointly issued the [Atlantic Charter](#). ^[107]

By October, when Axis operational objectives in Ukraine and the Baltic region were achieved, with only the sieges of [Leningrad](#) ^[108] and [Sevastopol](#) continuing, ^[109] a major [offensive against Moscow](#) had been renewed. After two months of fierce battles, the German army almost reached the outer suburbs of Moscow, where the exhausted troops ^[110] were forced to suspend their offensive. ^[111] Large territorial gains were made by Axis forces, but their campaign had failed to achieve its main objectives: two key cities remained in Soviet hands, the Soviet [capability to resist](#) was not broken, and the Soviet Union retained a considerable part of its military potential. The [blitzkrieg phase](#) of the war in Europe had ended. ^[112]

By early December, freshly mobilised [reserves](#) ^[113] allowed the Soviets to achieve numerical parity with Axis troops. ^[114] This, as well as [intelligence data](#) that established a minimal number of Soviet troops in the East sufficient to prevent any attack by the Japanese [Kwantung Army](#), ^[115] allowed the Soviets to begin a [massive counter-offensive](#) that started on December 5 along a 1,000 kilometres (620 mi) front and pushed German troops 100–250 kilometres (62–160 mi) west. ^[116]

German successes in Europe encouraged Japan to increase pressure on European governments in south-east Asia. The Dutch government agreed to provide Japan oil supplies from the [Dutch East Indies](#), while refusing to hand over political control of the colonies. [Vichy France](#), by contrast, agreed to a Japanese occupation of [French Indochina](#). ^[117] The United States, United Kingdom, and other Western governments reacted to the seizure of Indochina with a freeze on Japanese assets, while the United States (which supplied 80 percent of Japan's oil ^[118]) responded by placing a complete oil embargo. ^[119] The seizure meant Japan was essentially forced to choose between abandoning its ambitions in Asia and the prosecution of the war against China, or

seizing the natural resources it needed by force; the Japanese military did not consider the former an option, and many officers considered the oil embargo an unspoken declaration of war. [120]

Japan planned to rapidly seize European colonies in Asia to create a large defensive perimeter stretching into the Central Pacific; the Japanese would then be free to exploit the resources of Southeast Asia while exhausting the over-stretched Allies by fighting a defensive war [121]. To prevent American intervention while securing the perimeter it was further planned to neutralise the [United States Pacific Fleet](#) from the outset. [122]

On December 7 (December 8 in Asian time zones), 1941, Japan attacked British and American holdings with near-simultaneous offensives against Southeast Asia and the Central Pacific. [123] These included an [attack on the American fleet at Pearl Harbor](#) and [landings in Thailand and Malaya](#). [123]

These attacks prompted the United States, [United Kingdom](#), [Australia](#), [4] other Western Allies, [5] and China (already fighting the Second Sino-Japanese War), to formally declare war on Japan. Germany and the other members of the Tripartite Pact responded by declaring war on the United States. In January, the United States, United Kingdom, Soviet Union, China, and 22 smaller or exiled governments issued the [Declaration by United Nations](#), which affirmed the [Atlantic Charter](#). [124] The Soviet Union did not adhere to the declaration; it maintained a neutrality agreement with Japan, [125][126] and exempted itself from the principle of self-determination. [107]

Meanwhile, by the end of April 1942, Japan had almost fully conquered Burma, [Malaya](#), the Dutch East Indies, [Singapore](#), [127] and [Rabaul](#), inflicting severe losses on Allied troops and taking a large number of prisoners. Despite a stubborn resistance in [Corregidor](#), the Philippines was eventually captured in May 1942, forcing the government of the Philippine Commonwealth into exile. [128]

Japanese forces also achieved naval victories in the [South China Sea](#), [Java Sea](#) and [Indian Ocean](#), [129] and bombed the Allied naval base at [Darwin](#), [Australia](#). The only real Allied success against Japan was a Chinese [victory at Changsha](#) in early January 1942. [130] These easy victories over unprepared opponents left Japan overconfident, as well as overextended. [131]

Germany retained the initiative as well. Exploiting dubious American naval command decisions, the [German navy ravaged Allied shipping](#) off the American Atlantic coast. [132] Despite considerable losses, European Axis members stopped a major Soviet offensive in Central and Southern Russia, keeping most territorial gains they achieved during the previous year. [133] In North Africa, the Germans launched an offensive in January, pushing the British back to positions at the Gazala Line by early February, [134] followed by a temporary lull in combat which Germany used to prepare for their upcoming offensives. [135]

Axis advance stalls

In early May 1942, Japan initiated operations to [capture Port Moresby](#) by amphibious assault and thus sever communications and supply lines between the United States and Australia. The Allies, however, [intercepted and turned back Japanese naval forces](#), successfully preventing the invasion. [136] Japan's next plan, motivated by the earlier [bombing on Tokyo](#), was to seize [Midway Atoll](#) and lure American carriers into battle to be eliminated; as a diversion, Japan would also send forces to [occupy the Aleutian Islands](#). [137] In early June, Japan put its operations into action but the Americans, having broken [Japanese naval codes](#) in late May, were fully aware of the plans and force dispositions and used this knowledge to [achieve a decisive victory](#) over the [Imperial Japanese Navy](#). [138]

With its capacity for aggressive action greatly diminished as a result of the Midway battle, Japan chose to focus on a belated attempt to capture [Port Moresby](#) by an [overland campaign](#) in the [Territory of Papua](#).^[139] The Americans planned a counter-attack against Japanese positions in the southern [Solomon Islands](#), primarily [Guadalcanal](#), as a first step towards capturing [Rabaul](#), the main Japanese base in Southeast Asia.^[140] Both plans started in July, but by mid-September, [the battle for Guadalcanal](#) took priority for the Japanese, and troops in New Guinea were ordered to withdraw from the Port Moresby area to the [northern part of the island](#), where they faced Australian and United States troops in the Battle of Buna-Gona.^[141] Guadalcanal soon became a focal point for both sides with heavy commitments of troops and ships in the battle for Guadalcanal. By the start of 1943, the Japanese were defeated on the island and [withdrew their troops](#).^[142] In Burma, Commonwealth forces mounted two operations. The first, an offensive into the Arakan region in late 1942, went disastrously, forcing a retreat back to India by May 1943.^[143] The second was the insertion of irregular forces behind Japanese front-lines in February which, by the end of April, had achieved dubious results.^[144]

On Germany's [eastern front](#), the Axis defeated Soviet offensives in the [Kerch Peninsula](#) and at [Kharkov](#)^[145] and then launched their main [summer offensive](#) against southern Russia in June 1942, to seize the oilfields of the Caucasus and occupy [Kuban steppe](#), while maintaining positions on the northern and central areas of the front. The Germans split the [Army Group South](#) into two groups: [Army Group A](#) struck lower [Don River](#) while [Army Group B](#) struck south-east to the Caucasus, towards [Volga River](#).^[146] The Soviets decided to make their stand at Stalingrad, which was in the path of the advancing German armies. By mid-November the Germans had [nearly taken Stalingrad](#) in bitter [street fighting](#) when the Soviets began their second winter counter-offensive, starting with an [encirclement of German forces at Stalingrad](#)^[147] and an assault on the [Rzhev salient near Moscow](#), though the latter failed disastrously.^[148] By early February 1943, the German Army had taken tremendous losses; German troops at Stalingrad had been forced to surrender^[149] and the front-line had been pushed back beyond its position before the summer offensive. In mid-February, after the Soviet push had tapered off, the Germans launched another [attack on Kharkov](#), creating a [salient](#) in their front line around the Russian city of [Kursk](#).^[150]

By November 1941, Commonwealth forces had launched a counter-offensive, [Operation Crusader](#), in North Africa, and reclaimed all the gains the Germans and Italians had made.^[151] In the West, concerns the Japanese might utilize bases in Vichy-held [Madagascar](#) caused the British to [invade the island](#) in early May 1942.^[152] This success was offset soon after by an Axis [offensive in Libya](#) which pushed the Allies back into Egypt until Axis forces were [stopped at El Alamein](#).^[153] On the Continent, raids of Allied [commandos](#) on strategic targets, culminating in the disastrous [Dieppe Raid](#),^[154] demonstrated the Western Allies' inability to launch an invasion of continental Europe without much better preparation, equipment, and operational security.^[155]

In August 1942, the Allies succeeded in repelling a [second attack against El Alamein](#) and, at a high cost, managed to [deliver desperately needed supplies to the besieged Malta](#).^[156] A few months later, the Allies [commenced an attack of their own](#) in Egypt, dislodging the Axis forces and beginning a drive west across Libya.^[157] This attack was followed up shortly after by an [Anglo-American invasion of French North Africa](#), which resulted in the region joining the Allies.^[158] Hitler responded to the French colony's defection by ordering the [occupation of Vichy France](#);^[158] although Vichy forces did not resist this violation of the armistice, they

managed to [scuttle their fleet](#) to prevent its capture by German forces.^[159] The now pincer Axis forces in Africa withdrew into [Tunisia](#), which was [conquered by the Allies](#) in May 1943.^[160]

Allies gain momentum

Following the Guadalcanal Campaign, the Allies initiated several operations against Japan in the Pacific. In May 1943, Allied forces were sent to [eliminate Japanese forces from the Aleutians](#),^[161] and soon after began major operations to [isolate Rabaul by capturing surrounding islands](#), and to [breach the Japanese Central Pacific perimeter at the Gilbert and Marshall Islands](#).^[162] By the end of March 1944, the Allies had completed both of these objectives, and additionally [neutralised the major Japanese base at Truk in the Caroline Islands](#). In April, the Allies then launched an operation to [retake Western New Guinea](#).^[163]

In the Soviet Union, both the Germans and the Soviets spent the spring and early summer of 1943 making preparations for large offensives in Central Russia. On July 4, 1943, Germany [attacked Soviet forces around the Kursk Bulge](#). Within a week, German forces had exhausted themselves against the Soviets' deeply echeloned and well-constructed defences^{[164][165]} and, for the first time in the war, Hitler cancelled the operation before it had achieved tactical or operational success.^[166] This decision was partially affected by the Western Allies' [invasion of Sicily](#) launched on July 9 which, combined with previous Italian failures, resulted in the ousting and arrest of Mussolini later that month.^[167] On July 12, 1943, the Soviets launched their own [counter-offensives](#), thereby dispelling any hopes of the German Army for victory or even stalemate in the east. The Soviet victory at Kursk was one of the decisive turning points of the war, giving the Soviet Union the initiative on the Eastern Front.^{[168][169]} The Germans attempted to stabilise their eastern front along the hastily fortified [Panther-Wotan line](#), however, the Soviets broke through it at [Smolensk](#) and by the [Lower Dnieper Offensives](#).^[170]

In early September 1943, the Western Allies [invaded the Italian mainland](#), following an [Italian armistice with the Allies](#).^[171] Germany responded by disarming Italian forces, seizing military control of Italian areas,^[172] and creating a series of defensive lines.^[173]

German special forces then [rescued Mussolini](#), who then soon established a new client state in German occupied Italy named the [Italian Social Republic](#).^[174] The Western Allies fought through several lines until reaching the [main German defensive line](#) in mid-November.^[175]

German operations in the Atlantic also suffered. By [May 1943](#), as [Allied counter-measures became increasingly effective](#), the resulting sizable German submarine losses forced a temporary halt of the German Atlantic naval campaign.^[176] In November 1943,

[Franklin D. Roosevelt](#) and Winston Churchill met with [Chiang Kai-shek in Cairo](#)^[177] and then with Joseph Stalin [in Tehran](#).^[178]

The former conference determined the post-war return of Japanese territory,^[177] while the latter included agreement that the

Western Allies would invade Europe in 1944 and that the Soviet Union would declare war on Japan within three months of Germany's defeat.^[178]

In January 1944, the Allies launched a [series of attacks in Italy against the line at Monte Cassino](#) and attempted to outflank it with [landings at Anzio](#).^[179] By the end of January, a major [Soviet offensive expelled German forces from the Leningrad region](#),^[180]

ending the longest and [most lethal siege in history](#). The following Soviet offensive was [halted on the pre-war Estonian border](#) by the German [Army Group North](#) aided by [Estonians](#) hoping to [re-establish national independence](#). This delay slowed subsequent Soviet operations in the [Baltic Sea](#) region.^[181] By late May 1944, the Soviets had [liberated Crimea](#), largely expelled Axis forces from

Ukraine, and made [incursions into Romania](#), which were repulsed by the Axis troops.^[182] The Allied offensives in Italy had succeeded and, at the expense of allowing several German divisions to retreat, on June 4 [Rome](#) was captured.^[183]

The Allies experienced mixed fortunes in mainland Asia. In March 1944, the Japanese launched the first of two invasions, [an operation against British positions in Assam, India](#),^[184] and soon besieged Commonwealth positions at [Imphal](#) and [Kohima](#).^[185] In May 1944, British forces mounted a counter-offensive that drove Japanese troops back to Burma,^[185] and Chinese forces that had invaded northern Burma in late 1943 besieged Japanese troops in [Myitkyina](#).^[186] The [second Japanese invasion](#) attempted to destroy China's main fighting forces, secure railways between Japanese-held territory and capture Allied airfields.^[187] By June, the Japanese had conquered the province of [Henan](#) and begun a [renewed attack against Changsha](#) in the [Hunan](#) province.^[188]

Allies close in

On June 6, 1944 (known as D-Day), the Western Allies [invaded northern France](#) and, after reassigning several Allied divisions from Italy, [southern France](#).^[189] These landings were successful, and led to the defeat of the [German Army units](#) in France. Paris was [liberated](#) by the [local resistance](#) assisted by the Free French forces on August 25^[190] and the Western Allies continued to [push back German forces](#) in Western Europe during the latter part of the year. An attempt to advance into northern Germany spear-headed by [a major airborne operation](#) in the Netherlands was not successful.^[191] The Allies also continued their advance in Italy until they ran into the [last major German defensive line](#).

On June 22, the Soviets launched a strategic offensive in Belarus (known as "[Operation Bagration](#)") that resulted in the almost complete destruction of the German Army Group Centre.^[192] Soon after that, another Soviet strategic offensive forced German troops from Western Ukraine and Eastern Poland. The successful advance of Soviet troops prompted [resistance forces in Poland](#) to [initiate several uprisings](#), though the largest of these, in [Warsaw](#), as well as a [Slovak Uprising](#) in the south, were not assisted by the Soviets and were put down by German forces.^[193] The Red Army's strategic offensive in eastern Romania cut off and destroyed the [considerable German troops there](#) and triggered [a successful coup d'état in Romania](#) and [in Bulgaria](#), followed by those countries' shift to the Allied side.^[194]

In September 1944, Soviet [Red Army](#) troops advanced into Yugoslavia and forced the rapid withdrawal of the German Army Groups [E](#) and [F](#) in [Greece, Albania](#) and Yugoslavia to rescue them from being cut off.^[195] By this point, [Communist-led partisans](#) under Marshal [Josip Broz Tito](#) controlled much of the territory of Yugoslavia and were engaged in delaying efforts against the German forces further south. In northern [Serbia](#), the [Red Army](#), with limited support from Bulgarian forces, assisted the partisans in a joint [liberation of the capital city of Belgrade](#) on October 20. A few days later, the Soviets launched a [massive assault](#) against [German-occupied](#) Hungary that lasted until the fall of Budapest in February 1945.^[196] In contrast with impressive Soviet victories in the Balkans, the [bitter Finnish resistance](#) to the [Soviet offensive](#) in the [Karelian Isthmus](#) denied the Soviets occupation of Finland and led to the signing of [Soviet-Finnish armistice](#) on relatively mild conditions,^{[197][198]} with a subsequent [shift to the Allied side](#) by Finland.

By the start of July, Commonwealth forces in Southeast Asia had repelled the Japanese sieges in Assam, pushing the Japanese back to the [Chindwin River](#)^[199] while the Chinese captured Myitkyina. In China, the Japanese were having greater successes, having finally captured Changsha in mid-June and the city of [Hengyang](#) by early August.^[200] Soon after, they further invaded the province

of Guangxi, winning major engagements against Chinese forces at Guilin and Liuzhou by the end of November [201] and successfully linking up their forces in China and Indochina by the middle of December. [202]

In the Pacific, American forces continued to press back the Japanese perimeter. In mid-June 1944 they began their [offensive against the Mariana and Palau islands](#), scoring a decisive victory against Japanese forces in the [Philippine Sea](#) within a few days. These defeats led to the resignation of Japanese Prime Minister [Tōjō](#) and provided the United States with air bases to launch intensive heavy bomber attacks on the Japanese home islands. In late October, American forces [invaded the Filipino island of Leyte](#); soon after, Allied naval forces scored another large victory during the [Battle of Leyte Gulf](#), one of the largest naval battles in history. [203]

Axis collapse, Allied victory

On December 16, 1944, Germany attempted its last desperate measure for success on the Western Front by marshalling German reserves to launch [a massive counter-offensive in the Ardennes](#) to attempt to split the Western Allies, encircle large portions of Western Allied troops and capture their primary supply port at [Antwerp](#) in order to prompt a political settlement. [204] By January, the offensive had been repulsed with no strategic objectives fulfilled. [204] In Italy, the Western Allies remained stalemated at the German defensive line. In mid-January 1945, the Soviets attacked in Poland, pushing from the Vistula to the Oder river in Germany, and [overran East Prussia](#). [205] On February 4, U.S., British, and Soviet leaders [met in Yalta](#). They agreed on the occupation of post-war Germany, [206] and when the Soviet Union would join the war against Japan. [207]

In February, the Soviets [invaded Silesia](#) and [Pomerania](#), while Western Allied forces entered Western Germany and closed to the [Rhine](#) river. In March, the Western Allies crossed the Rhine [north](#) and [south](#) of the [Ruhr](#), [encircling a large number of German troops](#), [208] while the Soviets advanced to [Vienna](#). In early April, the Western Allies finally [pushed forward in Italy](#) and swept across Western Germany, while Soviet forces [stormed Berlin](#) in late April; [the two forces linked up on Elbe river](#) on April 25. On April 30, 1945, the [Reichstag](#) was captured, signalling the military defeat of Third Reich. [209]

Several changes in leadership occurred during this period. On April 12, U.S. President Roosevelt died and was succeeded by Harry Truman. Benito Mussolini was killed by [Italian partisans](#) on April 28. [210] Two days later, [Hitler committed suicide](#), and was succeeded by [Grand Admiral Karl Dönitz](#). [211]

German forces surrendered in Italy on April 29 and [in Western Europe on May 7](#). [212] On the Eastern Front, Germany surrendered to the Soviets on May 8. A German Army Group Centre [resisted in Prague](#) until May 11. [213] In the Pacific theatre, American forces accompanied by the forces of the Philippine Commonwealth advanced in the Philippines, [clearing Leyte](#) by the end of April 1945. They [landed on Luzon](#) in January 1945 and [seized Manila](#) in March, leaving it in ruins. Fighting continued on Luzon, [Mindanao](#) and other islands of the Philippines until the end of the war. [214] In May, Australian troops [landed on Borneo](#), overrunning the oilfields there. British, American and Chinese forces defeated the Japanese in northern Burma in March, and the British pushed on to reach Rangoon by May 3. [215]

American forces also moved toward Japan, taking [Iwo Jima](#) by March, and [Okinawa](#) by the end of June. [216] American bombers [destroyed Japanese cities](#), and American submarines [cut off](#) Japanese imports. [217]

On July 11, the Allied leaders [met in Potsdam, Germany](#). They [confirmed earlier agreements](#) about Germany, [218] and reiterated the demand for unconditional surrender of all Japanese forces by Japan, specifically stating that "the alternative for Japan is prompt and utter destruction". [219] During this conference the [United Kingdom held its general election](#), and [Clement Attlee](#) replaced Churchill as Prime Minister. [220] When Japan continued to reject the Potsdam terms, the United States [dropped atomic bombs](#) on

the Japanese cities of [Hiroshima](#) and Nagasaki in early August. Between the two bombs, the Soviets, pursuant to the Yalta agreement, invaded Japanese-held Manchuria, and quickly defeated the [Kwantung Army](#), which was the primary Japanese fighting force. ^{[221][222]} The Red Army also captured [Sakhalin](#) Island and the Kurile Islands. On August 15, 1945 [Japan surrendered](#), with the [surrender documents](#) finally signed aboard the deck of the American battleship [USS Missouri](#) on September 2, 1945, ending the war. ^[212]

Aftermath

Main article: [Aftermath of World War II](#)

In an effort to maintain international peace, ^[223] the Allies formed the [United Nations](#), which officially came into existence on October 24, 1945, ^[224] and adopted The [Universal Declaration of Human Rights](#) in 1948, as a common standard of achievement for all member nations. ^[225]

The alliance between the Western Allies and the Soviet Union had begun to deteriorate even before the war was over, ^[226] and the powers each quickly established their own spheres of influence. ^[227] In Europe, the continent was essentially divided between

Western and Soviet spheres by the [Iron Curtain](#) which ran through and partitioned Allied occupied Germany and occupied Austria. The Soviet Union created the [Eastern Bloc](#) by directly annexing several countries it occupied as Soviet Socialist Republics that were originally effectively ceded to it by Germany in the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact, such as Eastern [Poland](#), ^[228] the three Baltic countries, ^{[229][230]} part of eastern Finland ^[231] and northeastern Romania. ^{[232][233]}

Other states that the Soviets occupied at the end of the war were converted into [Soviet Satellite](#) states, such as the [People's Republic of Poland](#), the [People's Republic of Hungary](#), ^[234] the [Czechoslovak Socialist Republic](#), ^[235] the People's Republic of Romania, the People's Republic of Albania, ^[236] and later [East Germany](#) from the Soviet zone of German occupation. ^[237]

In Asia, the United States [occupied Japan](#) and [administrated Japan's former islands in the Western Pacific](#), while the Soviets annexed [Sakhalin](#) and the [Kuril Islands](#); the former [Japanese-governed Korea](#) was [divided and occupied between the two powers](#). Mounting tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union soon evolved into the formation of the American-led [NATO](#) and the Soviet-led [Warsaw Pact](#) military alliances and the start of the [Cold War](#) between them. ^[238]

Soon after the end of World War II, conflict flared again in many parts of the world. In China, nationalist and communist forces quickly resumed their [civil war](#). Communist forces were eventually victorious and established the [People's Republic of China](#) on the mainland, while nationalist forces ended up retreating to [Taiwan](#). In Greece, [civil war broke out](#) between Anglo-American supported royalist forces and [communist forces](#), with the royalist forces victorious.

Soon after these conflicts ended, [North Korea invaded South Korea](#), ^[239] which was backed by the United Nations, ^[240] while [North Korea](#) was backed by the Soviet Union and China. The war resulted in essentially a stalemate and ceasefire, after which North Korean leader Kim Il Sung created a highly centralised and brutal [dictatorship](#), according himself unlimited power and generating a formidable [cult of personality](#). ^{[241][242]}

Following the end of the war, a rapid period of [decolonization](#) also took place within the holdings of the various European colonial powers. ^[243] These primarily occurred due to shifts in ideology, the economic exhaustion from the war and increased demand by indigenous people for self-determination. For the most part, these transitions happened relatively peacefully, though notable exceptions occurred in countries such as [Indochina](#), Madagascar, [Indonesia](#) and [Algeria](#). ^[244] In many regions, divisions, usually for

ethnic or religious reasons, occurred following European withdrawal.^[245] This was seen prominently in the [Mandate of Palestine](#), leading to the creation of [Israel](#), and in [India, resulting in the creation](#) of the Dominion of India and the [Dominion of Pakistan](#). Economic recovery following the war was varied in differing parts of the world, though in general it was quite positive. In Europe, [West Germany recovered quickly](#) and doubled production from its pre-war levels by the 1950s.^[246] Italy came out of the war in poor economic condition,^[247] but by 1950s, the Italian economy was marked by stability and high growth.^[248] The United Kingdom was in a state of economic ruin after the war,^[249] and continued to experience relative economic decline for decades to follow.^[250] France rebounded quickly, and enjoyed rapid economic growth and modernisation.^[251] The Soviet Union also experienced a rapid increase in production in the immediate post-war era.^[252] In Asia, Japan experienced [incredibly rapid](#) economic growth, becoming one of the most powerful economies in the world by the 1980s.^[253] China, following the conclusion of its civil war, was essentially a bankrupt nation.^[254] By 1953, economic restoration seemed fairly successful as production had resumed pre-war levels.^[254] This growth rate mostly persisted, though it was briefly interrupted by the disastrous [Great Leap Forward](#) economic experiment. At the end of the war, the United States produced roughly half of the world's industrial output; by the early 1970s though, this dominance had lessened significantly.^[255]

Impact

Casualties and war crimes

Main articles: [World War II casualties](#) and War crimes during World War II

Estimates for the total casualties of the war vary, due to the fact that many deaths went unrecorded. Most suggest that some 60 million people died in the war, including about [20 million soldiers](#) and 40 million civilians.^{[256][257][258]} Many civilians died because of [disease, starvation, massacres, bombing](#) and deliberate [genocide](#). The Soviet Union lost around 27 million people during the war, almost half of all World War II deaths.^[259]

Of the total deaths in World War II, approximately 85 percent were on the Allied side (mostly Soviet and Chinese) and 15 percent were on the Axis side. One estimate is that 12 million civilians died in Nazi concentration camps,^[260] 1.5 million by bombs, 7 million in Europe from other causes, and 7.5 million in China from other causes.^[261]

Many of these deaths were a result of genocidal actions committed in Axis-occupied territories and other war crimes [committed by German](#) as well as [Japanese forces](#). The most notorious of German atrocities was [The Holocaust](#), the systematic genocide of Jews in territories controlled by Germany and its allies.

The Nazis also targeted other groups, including the [Roma](#) (targeted in the [Porajmos](#)), Slavs, and gay men, exterminating an estimated five million additional people.^[262] The targets of the Axis-aligned Croatian [Ustaše](#) regime were mostly [Serbs](#).^[263]

The most well-known Japanese atrocity was the [Nanking Massacre](#), in which several hundred thousand Chinese civilians were raped and murdered.^[264] The Japanese military murdered from nearly 3 million to over 10 million civilians, mostly Chinese.^[265]

Mitsuyoshi Himeta reported 2.7 million casualties occurred during the [Sankō Sakusen](#). General [Yasuji Okamura](#) implemented the policy in Heipei and Shantung.^[266]

The Axis forces employed limited [biological](#) and [chemical weapons](#). The Italians used mustard gas during their conquest of Abyssinia, ^[267] while the Japanese Imperial Army used a variety of such weapons during their invasion and occupation of China (see [Unit 731](#)) ^{[268][269]} and in early conflicts against the Soviets. ^[270] Both the Germans and Japanese tested such weapons against civilians ^[271] and, in some cases, on [prisoners of war](#). ^[272] While many of the Axis's acts [were brought to trial](#) in the world's first international tribunals, ^[273] [incidents caused by the Allies](#) were not. Examples of such Allied actions include [population transfer in the Soviet Union](#), the Soviet forced labour camps ([Gulag](#)), ^[274] [Japanese American internment](#) in the United States, the [Operation Keelhaul](#), ^[275] [expulsion of Germans after World War II](#), [mass rape of German women by Soviet Red Army](#), the [Soviet massacre of Polish citizens](#) and the mass-bombing of civilian areas in enemy territory, including [Tokyo](#) and most notably at Dresden. ^[276] Large numbers of famine deaths can also be partially attributed to the war, such as the [Bengal famine of 1943](#) and the [Vietnamese famine of 1944–45](#). ^[277]

Concentration camps and slave work

Further information: [The Holocaust](#), [Consequences of German Nazism](#), [Japanese war crimes](#), and [Allied war crimes during World War II](#)

The Nazis were responsible for The Holocaust, the killing of approximately six million Jews (overwhelmingly [Ashkenazim](#)), as well as two million [ethnic Poles](#) and four million others who were deemed "[unworthy of life](#)" (including the [disabled](#) and [mentally ill](#), [Soviet POWs](#), homosexuals, Freemasons, [Jehovah's Witnesses](#), and the Roma) as part of a programme of deliberate extermination. About 12 million, most of whom were [Eastern Europeans](#), were employed in the German war economy as [as forced labourers](#). ^[278]

In addition to Nazi concentration camps, the Soviet [gulags \(labour camps\)](#) led to the death of citizens of occupied countries such as Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia, as well as German [prisoners of war](#) (POWs) and even Soviet citizens who had been or were thought to be supporters of the Nazis. ^[279] Sixty percent of [Soviet POWs of the Germans](#) died during the war. ^[280] [Richard Overy](#) gives the number of 5.7 million Soviet POWs. Of those, 57 percent died or were killed, a total of 3.6 million. ^[281] Some of the survivors were treated as traitors upon their return to the USSR (see [Order No. 270](#)).

Japanese [prisoner-of-war camps](#), many of which were used as labour camps, also had high death rates. The [International Military Tribunal for the Far East](#) found the death rate of Western prisoners was 27.1 percent (for American POWs, 37 percent), ^[282] seven times that of POWs under the Germans and Italians. ^[283] The death rate among Chinese POWs was much larger; a directive ratified on August 5, 1937 by [Hirohito](#) declared that the Chinese were no longer protected under international law. ^[284] While 37,583 prisoners from the UK, 28,500 from the Netherlands, and 14,473 from United States were released after the [surrender of Japan](#), the number for the Chinese was only 56. ^[285]

According to historian Zhifen Ju, at least five million Chinese civilians from northern China and Manchukuo were enslaved between 1935 and 1941 by the [East Asia Development Board](#), or *Kōain*, for work in mines and war industries. After 1942, the number reached 10 million. ^[286] The U.S. Library of Congress estimates that in Java, between 4 and 10 million [romusha](#) (Japanese: "manual laborers"), were forced to work by the Japanese military. About 270,000 of these Javanese laborers were sent to other Japanese-held areas in South East Asia, and only 52,000 were repatriated to Java. ^[287]

On February 19, 1942, Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066, interning thousands of Japanese, Italians, German Americans, and some emigrants from Hawaii who fled after the bombing of [Pearl Harbor](#) for the duration of the war. The U.S. and Canadian

governments interned 150,000 Japanese-Americans,^{[288][289]} as well as nearly 11,000 German and Italian residents of the U.S.^[288] [Allied use of involuntary labor](#) occurred mainly in the East, such as in Poland,^[290] but more than a million were also put to work in the West. In Hungary's case, [Hungarians were forced to work for the Soviet Union](#) until 1955.^[291]

Home fronts and production

Main articles: [Military production during World War II](#) and [Home front during World War II](#)

In Europe, before the outbreak of the war, the Allies had significant advantages in both population and economics. In 1938, the Western Allies (United Kingdom, France, Poland and British Dominions) had a 30 percent larger population and a 30 percent higher [gross domestic product](#) than the European Axis (Germany and Italy); if colonies are included, it then gives the Allies more than a 5:1 advantage in population and nearly 2:1 advantage in GDP.^[292] In Asia at the same time, China had roughly six times the population of Japan, but only an 89 percent higher GDP; this is reduced to three times the population and only a 38 percent higher GDP if Japanese colonies are included.^[292]

Though the Allies' economic and population advantages were largely mitigated during the initial rapid blitzkrieg attacks of Germany and Japan, they became the decisive factor by 1942, after the United States and Soviet Union joined the Allies, as the war largely settled into one of attrition.^[293] While the Allies' ability to out-produce the Axis is often attributed to the Allies having more access to natural resources, other factors, such as Germany and Japan's reluctance to employ women in the labour force,^{[294][295]} [Allied strategic bombing](#),^{[296][297]} and Germany's late shift to a [war economy](#)^[298] contributed significantly. Additionally, neither Germany nor Japan planned to fight a protracted war, and were not equipped to do so.^{[299][300]} To improve their production, Germany and Japan used millions of slave labourers;^[301] [Germany used](#) about 12 million people, mostly from [Eastern Europe](#),^[278] while [Japan pressed](#) more than 18 million people in [Far East Asia](#).^{[286][287]}

Occupation

Main articles: [Collaboration during World War II](#), [Resistance during World War II](#), and [German-occupied Europe](#)

In Europe, occupation came under two very different forms. In Western, Northern and Central Europe (France, Norway, Denmark, the Low Countries, and the [annexed portions of Czechoslovakia](#)) Germany established economic policies through which it collected roughly 69.5 billion [reichmarks](#) (27.8 billion US Dollars) by the end of the war; this figure does not include the [sizable plunder](#) of industrial products, military equipment, raw materials and other goods.^[302] Thus, the income from occupied nations was over 40 percent of the income Germany collected from taxation, a figure which increased to nearly 40 percent of total German income as the war went on.^[303]

In the East, the much hoped for bounties of *Lebensraum* were never attained as fluctuating front-lines and Soviet [scorched earth](#) policies denied resources to the German invaders.^[304] Unlike in the West, the [Nazi racial policy](#) encouraged excessive brutality against what it considered to be the "inferior people" of Slavic descent; most German advances were thus followed by [mass executions](#).^[305] Although [resistance groups](#) did form in most occupied territories, they did not significantly hamper German operations in either the East^[306] or the West^[307] until late 1943.

In Asia, Japan termed nations under its occupation as being part of the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere, essentially a Japanese [hegemony](#) which it claimed was for purposes of liberating colonised peoples.^[308] Although Japanese forces were originally welcomed as liberators from European domination in many territories, their excessive brutality turned local public opinions

against them within weeks.^[309] During Japan's initial conquest it captured 4 million barrels of oil ($\sim 5 \times 10^5$ tonnes) left behind by retreating Allied forces, and by 1943 was able to get production in the Dutch East Indies up to 50 million barrels ($\sim 6.8 \times 10^6$ t), 76 percent of its 1940 output rate.^[309]

Advances in technology and warfare

Main article: [Technology during World War II](#)

During the war, aircraft continued their roles of reconnaissance, [fighters](#), [bombers](#) and ground-support from World War I, though each area was advanced considerably. Two important additional roles for aircraft were those of the [airlift](#), the capability to quickly move high-priority supplies, equipment and personnel, albeit in limited quantities;^[310] and of [strategic bombing](#), the targeted use of bombs against civilian areas in the hopes of hampering enemy industry and morale.^[311] [Anti-aircraft weaponry](#) also continued to advance, including key defences such as [radar](#) and greatly improved anti-aircraft artillery, such as the German 88 mm gun. [Jet aircraft](#) saw their first limited operational use during World War II, and though their late introduction and limited numbers meant that they had no real impact during the war itself, the few which saw active service pioneered a mass-shift to their usage following the war.^[312]

At sea, while advances were made in almost all aspects of naval warfare, the two primary areas of development were focused around aircraft carriers and submarines. Although at the start of the war [aeronautical](#) warfare had relatively little success, actions at Taranto, Pearl Harbor, the South China Sea and the Coral Sea soon established the carrier as the dominant capital ship in place of the battleship.^{[313][314][315]} In the Atlantic, [escort carriers](#) proved to be a vital part of Allied convoys, increasing the effective protection radius dramatically and helping to close the [Mid-Atlantic gap](#).^[316] Beyond their increased effectiveness, carriers were also more economical than battleships due to the relatively low cost of aircraft^[317] and their not requiring to be as heavily armoured.^[318] Submarines, which had proved to be an effective weapon during the First World War^[319] were anticipated by all sides to be important in the second. The British focused development on [anti-submarine weaponry](#) and tactics, such as [sonar](#) and convoys, while Germany focused on improving its offensive capability, with designs such as the [Type VII submarine](#) and [Wolf pack](#) tactics.^[320]

Gradually, continually improving Allied technologies such as the [Leigh light](#), [hedgehog](#), [squid](#), and homing torpedoes proved victorious.

Land warfare changed drastically from the static front lines predominating in World War I to become much more fluid and mobile. An important change was the concept of [combined arms](#) warfare, wherein tight coordination was sought between the various elements of military forces; the [tank](#), which had been used predominantly for infantry support in the First World War, had evolved into the primary weapon of these forces during the second.^[321] In the late 1930s, tank design was considerably more advanced in all areas than it had been during World War I,^[322] and [advances continued throughout the war](#) in increasing speed, armour and firepower.

At the start of the war, most armies considered the tank to be the best weapon against itself, and developed special-purpose tanks to that effect.^[323] This line of thinking was all but negated by the poor performance of the relatively light early tank armaments against armour, and German doctrine of avoiding tank-versus-tank combat; the latter factor, along with Germany's use of combined arms, were among the key elements of their highly successful blitzkrieg tactics across Poland and France.^[321] Many means of [destroying tanks](#), including [indirect artillery](#), anti-tank guns (both towed and [self-propelled](#)), [mines](#), short-ranged infantry antitank weapons, and other tanks were utilised.^[323] Even with large-scale mechanisation of the various armies, the infantry remained the backbone of all forces,^[324] and throughout the war, most infantry equipment was similar to that utilised in World War I.^[325]

The United States became the first country to arm its soldiers with a [semi-automatic rifle](#), in this case the M-1 Garand. Some of the primary advances though, were the widespread incorporation of portable [machine guns](#), a notable example being the German MG42, and various [submachine guns](#) which were well suited to close-quarters combat in urban and jungle settings. ^[325] The [assault rifle](#), a late war development which incorporated many of the best features of the [rifle](#) and submachine gun, became the standard postwar infantry weapon for nearly all armed forces. ^{[326][327]}

In terms of communications, most of the major belligerents attempted to solve the problems of complexity and security presented by using large [codebooks](#) for [cryptography](#) with the creation of various [ciphering](#) machines, the most well known being the German [Enigma machine](#). ^{[328][329]} SIGINT (*signals intelligence*) was the countering process of decryption, with the notable examples being the British ULTRA and the Allied breaking of [Japanese naval codes](#). ^[329] Another important aspect of [military intelligence](#) was the use of [deception](#) operations, which the Allies successfully used on several occasions to great effect, such as operations [Mincemeat](#) and [Bodyguard](#). ^{[329][330]} Other important technological and engineering feats achieved during, or as a result of, the war include the world's first programmable [computers](#) ([Z3](#), [Colossus](#), and [ENIAC](#)), [guided missiles](#) and modern rockets, the [Manhattan Project](#)'s development of [nuclear weapons](#), the development of [artificial harbours](#) and [oil pipelines under the English Channel](#). ^[331]

See also

Main article: [Outline of World War II](#)

World War II

[Atlas of the World Battle Fronts](#)

[Battles \(list\)](#)

[Effects of World War II](#)

[List of World War II military operations](#)

[Declaration of war by the United Kingdom](#)

[Declaration of war by the United States](#)

[World War II in contemporary culture](#)

[World War I](#)

Documentaries

[The World at War](#) (1974), a 26-part [Thames Television](#) series that covers most aspects of World War II from many points of view. It includes interviews with many key figures including [Karl Dönitz](#), [Albert Speer](#), and [Anthony Eden](#).

[Battlefield \(documentary series\)](#), a television documentary series initially issued in 1994–1995 that explores many of the most important battles fought during the Second World War.

Notes

1. ^ "War Machines". *Time*. June 12, 1939. <http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,762392,00.html>. Retrieved 2009-11-15. "Official military histories in Commonwealth and Western nations refer to the conflict as the Second World War (e.g. C.P. Stacey's *Official History of the Canadian Army in the Second World War*), while the United States' official histories refer to the conflict as World War II, spoken "World War Two". English translations of the official histories of other nations also tend to resolve into English as Second World War, for example *Zweiter Weltkrieg* in German. Non-English-language use typically translates to Second World War, for instance the Spanish *Segunda Guerra mundial* and the French *Seconde Guerre mondiale*. "Official" usage of these terms is giving way to popular usage and the two terms are becoming interchangeable even in formal military history. The term "Second World War" was originally coined in the 1920s. In 1928, US Secretary of State [Frank B. Kellogg](#) advocated his treaty "for the renunciation of war" (known as the Kellogg-Briand Pact) as being a "practical guarantee against a second world war". The term came into widespread use as soon as the war began in 1939"
2. ^ Sommerville, Donald (December 14, 2008). *The Complete Illustrated History of World War Two: An Authoritative Account of the Deadliest Conflict in Human History with Analysis of Decisive Encounters and Landmark Engagements*. Lorenz Books. p. 5. ISBN 0754818985.
3. ^ Nikolay, Starikov. "When Did WWII Start?". russianthought.com.
http://russianthought.com/starikov_when_did_world_war_ii_start.html. Retrieved 2010-02-03.
4. ^ ^a ^b "Australia Declares War on Japan". [ibiblio](http://www.ibiblio.org/pha/timeline/411209awp.html). <http://www.ibiblio.org/pha/timeline/411209awp.html>. Retrieved 2009-10-03.
5. ^ ^a ^b "The Kingdom of The Netherlands Declares War with Japan". [ibiblio](http://www.ibiblio.org/pha/policy/1941/411208c.html). 2007.
<http://www.ibiblio.org/pha/policy/1941/411208c.html>. Retrieved 2009-10-03.
6. ^ [Bradley, James](#); [Powers, Ron](#) (2000). *Flags of Our Fathers*. Bantam. p. 58. ISBN 0553111337.
7. ^ [Chickering, Roger](#) (2006) (Google books). *A World at Total War: Global Conflict and the Politics of Destruction, 1937–1945*. Cambridge University Press. p. 64. ISBN 0 275 98710 8.
http://books.google.ca/books?id=evVPoSqrG4C&dq=A+World+at+Total+War:+Global+Conflict+and+the+Politics+of+Destruction,+1937%E2%80%931945&printsec=frontcover&source=bn&hl=en&ei=WXb_SvHIDszOIAeL0cGZCw&sa=X&oi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=4&ved=0CBAQ6AEwAw#v=onepage&q=A%20World%20at%20Total%20War%3A%20Global%20Conflict%20and%20the%20Politics%20of%20Destruction%2C%201937%E2%80%931945&f=false. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
8. ^ [Fiscus, James W](#) (2007) (Google books). *Critical Perspectives on World War II*. Rosen Publishing Group. p. 44. ISBN 1404200657.
http://books.google.ca/books?id=6MTcnkLFDZAC&dq=Critical+Perspectives+on+World+War+II&printsec=frontcover&source=bl&ots=_Lj9g6GuNK&sig=AqmZRT4gPZ8V1WShPfyAEP1r9c4&hl=en&ei=x3f_SsFt1O2UB6-H6ZYL&sa=X&oi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=1&ved=0CAgQ6AEwAA#v=onepage&q=&f=false. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
9. ^ Among other starting dates sometimes used for World War II are the 1935 Italian invasion of Abyssinia; (Ben-Horin, Eliahu (1943). *The Middle East: Crossroads of History*. W. W. Norton & Co. p. 169; [Taylor, A. J. P](#) (1979). *How Wars Begin*. Hamilton. p. 124. ISBN 0241100178; Yisreelit, Hevrah Mizrahit (1965). *Asian and African Studies*, p. 191). For 1941 see (Taylor, A. J. P (1961). *The Origins of the Second World War*. Hamilton. p. vii; Kellogg, William O (2003). *American History the Easy Way*. Barron's Educational Series. p. 236 ISBN 0764119737). There also exists the viewpoint that both World War I and World War II are part of the same "[European Civil War](#)" or "[Second Thirty Years War](#)". (Canfora, Luciano; Jones, Simon (2006). *Democracy in Europe: A History of an Ideology*. Wiley-Blackwell. p. 155. ISBN

1405111313; Prin, Gwyn (2002). *The Heart of War: On Power, Conflict and Obligation in the Twenty-First Century*. Routledge. p. 11. ISBN 0415369606).

10. ^ Masaya, Shiraishi (1990). *Japanese relations with Vietnam, 1951–1987*. SEAP Publications. p. 4. ISBN 0877271224.
11. ^ Kantowicz 1999, p. 149
12. ^ Davies 2008, p. 134–140
13. ^ Shaw 2000, p. 35
14. ^ Bullock 1962, p. 265
15. ^ Preston 1998, p. 104
16. ^ Myers 1987, p. 458
17. ^ Smith 2004, p. 28
18. ^ Coogan, Anthony (July 1993). "The Volunteer Armies of Northeast China". *History Today* **43**.
<http://www.questia.com/googleScholar.qst?docId=5000186948>. Retrieved 2009-11-14. "Although some Chinese troops in the Northeast managed to retreat south, others were trapped by the advancing Japanese Army and were faced with the choice of resistance in defiance of orders, or surrender. A few commanders submitted, receiving high office in the puppet government, but others took up arms against the invader. The forces they commanded were the first of the volunteer armies".
19. ^ Brody 1999, p. 4
20. ^ Zalampas 1989, p. 62
21. ^ Record 2005, p. 50
22. ^ Mandelbaum 1988, p. 96
23. ^ Schmitz, David F (2001). *The First Wise Man*. Rowman & Littlefield. p. 124. ISBN 0842026320.
24. ^ Kitson 2001, p. 231
25. ^ Adamthwaite 1992, p. 52
26. ^ Graham 2005, p. 110
27. ^ Busky 2002, p. 10
28. ^ Barker, A. J (1971). *The Rape of Ethiopia 1936*. Ballantine Books. pp. 131–2. ISBN 0345024621.
29. ^ Fairbank, John King; Feuerwerker, Albert; Twitchett, Denis Crispin (1986). *The Cambridge history of China*. Cambridge University Press. pp. 547–551. ISBN 0521243386.
30. ^ Fairbank, John King; Feuerwerker, Albert; Twitchett, Denis Crispin (1986). *The Cambridge history of China*. Cambridge University Press. p. 566. ISBN 0521243386.
31. ^ Taylor, Jay (2009). *The Generalissimo: Chiang Kai-shek and the struggle for modern China*. Harvard University Press. pp. 150–152. ISBN 9780674033382.
32. ^ Coox, Alvin D. (1990). *Nomonhan: Japan Against Russia, 1939*. Stanford University Press. p. 189. ISBN 0804718350.
33. ^ Sella, Amnon (October 1983). "Khalkhin-Gol: The Forgotten War". *Journal of Contemporary History* **18** (4): 651–87.
34. ^ Chaney, Otto Preston (1996). *Zhukov*. University of Oklahoma Press. p. 76. ISBN 0806128070.
35. ^ Collier, Martin; Pedley, Philip (2000). *Germany 1919–45*. Heinemann. p. 144. ISBN 0435327216.
36. ^ Kershaw 2001, p. 121–2
37. ^ Kershaw 2001, p. 157
38. ^ Davies 2008, p. 143–4

39. ^ Lowe, Cedric James; Marzari, F (2002). *Italian Foreign Policy 1870–1940*. Taylor & Francis. p. 330. ISBN 0415273722.
40. ^ Dear, I. C. B.; Foot, M. R. D, eds (2002). "Pact of Steel". *Oxford Companion to World War II*. Oxford University Press. p. 674. ISBN 0198604467.
41. ^ Shore, Zachary (2003). *What Hitler Knew: The Battle for Information in Nazi Foreign Policy*. Oxford University Press US. p. 108. ISBN 0195154592.
42. ^ Dear, I. C. B.; Foot, M. R. D, eds (2002). "Nazi-Soviet Pact". Oxford University Press. p. 608. ISBN 0198604467.
43. ^ May, Ernest R (2000) (Google books). *Strange Victory: Hitler's Conquest of France*. I.B.Tauris. p. 93. ISBN 1850433291. <http://books.google.ca/books?id=ArNzWonLNj8C&printsec=frontcover&dq=Strange+Victory:+Hitler%27s+Conquest+of+France#v=onepage&q=&f=false>. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
44. ^ Zaloga, Steven J.; Gerrard, Howard (2002) (Google books). *Poland 1939: The Birth of Blitzkrieg*. Osprey Publishing. p. 83. ISBN 1841764086. <http://books.google.ca/books?id=oQeAKAjIEwMC&printsec=frontcover&dq=poland+1939:+The+Birth+of+Blitzkrieg#v=onepage&q=&f=false>. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
45. ^ Hempel, Andrew (2003) (Google books). *Poland in World War II: An Illustrated Military History*. Hippocrene Books. p. 24. ISBN 078181004. http://books.google.ca/books?id=9SmbqqQfp1gC&dq=Poland+in+World+War+II:+An+Illustrated+Military+History'&printsec=frontcover&source=bl&ots=bOE2JdSV_q&sig=vX6dtwlwm-kC3DxacS2Be7CxWmw&hl=en&ei=oaX_SpLFDtKPIAfHxYmGCw&sa=X&oi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=3&ved=0CA8Q6AEwAg#v=onepage&q=&f=false. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
46. ^ Jowett & Andrew 2002, p. 14
47. ^ Smith, David J. (2002) (Google books). *The Baltic States: Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania*. Routledge. 1st edition. p. 24. ISBN 0415285801. <http://books.google.ca/books?id=YaYbzQQN97EC&pg=PA142&ots=WQ41SPS6cH&dq=The%20Baltic%20States%3A%20Estonia%2C%20Latvia%20and%20Lithuania&pg=PA142#v=onepage&q=&f=false>. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
48. ^ ^a ^b Bilinsky, Yaroslav (1999) (Google books). *Endgame in NATO's Enlargement: The Baltic States and Ukraine*. Greenwood Publishing Group. p. 9. ISBN 0275963632. <http://books.google.ca/books?id=pbocXztNVsUC&pg=PR3&ots=80XJZasLzB&dq=Endgame%20in%20NATO's%20Enlargement%3A%20The%20Baltic%20States%20and%20Ukraine%7C&pg=PR3#v=onepage&q=&f=false>. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
49. ^ ^a ^b Murray & Millett 2001, p. 55–56
50. ^ Spring, D. W (April 1986). "The Soviet Decision for War against Finland, 30 November 1939". *Europe-Asia Studies* **38** (2): 207–226. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/151203>.
51. ^ Hanhimäki, Jussi M (1997) (Google books). *Containing Coexistence: America, Russia, and the "Finnish Solution"*. Kent State University Press. p. 12. ISBN 0873385586. <http://books.google.ca/books?id=OWfudYWUOt0C&pg=PP1&ots=5-P5P9hAN5&dq=Containing%20Coexistence%3A%20America%2C%20Russia%2C%20and%20the%20%22Finnish%20Solution&pg=PP1#v=onepage&q=&f=false>. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
52. ^ Weinberg 1995, p. 95 & 121
53. ^ Shirer, William L (1990). *The Rise and Fall of the Third Reich: A History of Nazi Germany*. Simon and Schuster. pp. 668–9. ISBN 0671728687.

54. ^ Murray & Millett 2001, p. 57–63
55. ^ Commager, Henry Steele (2004) (Google books). *The Story of the Second World War*. Brassey's. p. 9. ISBN 1574887416. <http://books.google.ca/books?id=H2nUNdqobOkC&pg=PP1&ots=1hPRAZIRRj&dq=The%20Story%20of%20the%20Second%20World%20War&pg=PP1#v=onepage&q=&f=false>. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
56. ^ Reynolds, David (April 27, 2006) (Google books). *From World War to Cold War: Churchill, Roosevelt, and the International History of the 1940s*. Oxford University Press, USA. p. 76. ISBN 0199284113. http://books.google.ca/books?id=Qk_xKD62G7cC&pg=PP1&dq=From%20World%20War%20to%20Cold%20War%3A%20Churchill%2C%20Roosevelt%2C%20and%20the%20International%20History%20of%20the%201940s&pg=PP1#v=onepage&q=&f=false. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
57. ^ ^a ^b Crawford, Keith; Foster, Stuart J (2007) (Google books). *War, nation, memory: international perspectives on World War II in school history textbooks*. Information Age Publishing. p. 68. ISBN 159311852X. http://books.google.ca/books?id=zw-O7t_6GJQC&pg=PP1&ots=zVuSXt3Hb8&dq=War%2C%20nation%2C%20memory%3A%20international%20perspectives%20on%20World%20War%20II%20in%20school%20history%20textbooks&pg=PP1#v=onepage&q=&f=false. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
58. ^ Shirer, William L (1990). *The Rise and Fall of the Third Reich: A History of Nazi Germany*. Simon and Schuster. pp. 721–3. ISBN 0671728687.
59. ^ Regan, Geoffrey (2000). *The Brassey's book of military blunders*. Brassey's. p. 152. ISBN 157488252X.
60. ^ Kennedy, David M (1999) (Questia books). *Freedom from Fear: The American People in Depression and War, 1929–1945*. Oxford University Press. p. 439. ISBN 0195038347. <http://www.questia.com/PM.qst?a=o&d=52284041>. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
61. ^ Klaus, Autbert (2001). *Germany and the Second World War Volume 2: Germany's Initial Conquests in Europe*. Oxford University Press. p. 311. ISBN 0198228880. <http://books.google.ca/books?id=Z5p4tGO7-VkC&pg=PA1&dq=Germany%20and%20the%20Second%20World%20War%20Volume%202%3A%20Germany's%20Initial%20Conquests%20in%20Europe&pg=PA1#v=onepage&q=&f=false>. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
62. ^ Brown, David (2004). *The Road to Oran: Anglo-French Naval Relations, September 1939 – July 1940*. Taylor & Francis. p. xxx. ISBN 0714654612.
63. ^ Kelly, Nigel; Rees, Rosemary; Shuter, Jane (1998). *Twentieth Century World*. Heinemann. p. 38. ISBN 0435309838.
64. ^ Goldstein, Margaret J (2004). *World War II*. Twenty-First Century Books. p. 35. ISBN 0822501392.
65. ^ Mercado, Stephen C (2003). *The Shadow Warriors of Nakano: A History of the Imperial Japanese Army's Elite Intelligence School*. Brassey's. p. 109. ISBN 1574885383.
66. ^ Brown, Robert J. (2004). *Manipulating the Ether: The Power of Broadcast Radio in Thirties America*. McFarland. p. 91. ISBN 0786420669.
67. ^ Morison, Samuel Eliot (2002). *History of United States Naval Operations in World War II*. University of Illinois Press. p. 60. ISBN 0252070658.
68. ^ Maingot, Anthony P. (1994). *The United States and the Caribbean: Challenges of an Asymmetrical Relationship*. Westview Press. p. 52. ISBN 0813322413.
69. ^ Cantril, Hadley (September 1940). "America Faces the War: A Study in Public Opinion". *The Public Opinion Quarterly* 4 (3): 390.

70. ^ Weinberg 1995, p. 182
71. ^ Bilhartz, Terry D.; Elliott, Alan C. (2007). *Currents in American History: A Brief History of the United States*. M.E. Sharpe. p. 179. ISBN 9780765618214.
72. ^ Murray & Millett 2001, p. 165
73. ^ Knell, Hermann (2003). *To Destroy a City: Strategic Bombing and Its Human Consequences in World War II*. Da Capo. p. 205. ISBN 0306811693.
74. ^ Murray & Millett 2001, p. 233–245
75. ^ Schoenherr, Steven (October 1, 2005). "Undeclared Naval War in the Atlantic 1941". History Department at the University of San Diego. <http://history.sandiego.edu/gen/ww2Timeline/Prelude18.html>. Retrieved 2010-02-15.
76. ^ Dear, I. C. B.; Foot, M. R. D, eds (2002). "Tripartite Pact". *Oxford Companion to World War II*. Oxford University Press. p. 877. ISBN 0198604467.
77. ^ Deletant, Dennis (2002). "Romania". in Dear, I. C. B.; Foot, M. R. D. *Oxford Companion to World War II*. pp. 745–46. ISBN 0198604467.
78. ^ Clogg, Richard (1992). *A Concise History of Greece*. Cambridge University Press. p. 118. ISBN 0521808723.
79. ^ Andrew, Stephen (2001). *The Italian Army 1940–45 (2): Africa 1940–43*. Osprey Publishing. pp. 9–10. ISBN 1855328658.
80. ^ Brown, David (2002). *The Royal Navy and the Mediterranean*. Routledge. pp. 64–65. ISBN 0714652059.
81. ^ Jackson, Ashley (2006). *The British Empire and the Second World War*. Continuum International Publishing Group. p. 106. ISBN 1852854170.
82. ^ Laurier, Jim (2001). *Tobruk 1941: Rommel's opening move*. Osprey Publishing. pp. 7–8. ISBN 1841760927.
83. ^ Murray & Millett 2001, p. 263–67
84. ^ Macksey, Kenneth (1997). *Rommel: battles and campaigns*. Da Capo Press. pp. 61–63. ISBN 0306807866.
85. ^ Weinberg 1995, p. 229
86. ^ Watson, William E (2003). *Tricolor and Crescent: France and the Islamic World*. Greenwood Publishing Group. p. 80. ISBN 0275974707.
87. ^ Jackson, Ashley (2006). *The British Empire and the Second World War*. Continuum International Publishing Group. p. 154. ISBN 1852854170.
88. ^ Stewart, Vance (2002). *Three Against One: Churchill, Roosevelt, Stalin Vs Adolph Hitler*. Sunstone Press. p. 159. ISBN 0865343772.
89. ^ "The London Blitz, 1940". *Eyewitness to History*. Ibis Communications. 2001. <http://www.eyewitnesstohistory.com/blitz.htm>. Retrieved 2008-03-11.
90. ^ United States. Air Force Logistics Management Agency (2004). *AFLMA Year in Review*. DIANE Publishing. p. 33. ISBN 1428993886.
91. ^ Joes, Anthony James (2004). *Resisting Rebellion: The History And Politics of Counterinsurgency*. University Press of Kentucky. p. 224. ISBN 0813123399.
92. ^ Fairbank, John King; Goldman, Merle (1994). *China: A New History*. Harvard University Press. p. 320. ISBN 0674116739.
93. ^ Garver, John W (1988). *Chinese-Soviet Relations, 1937–1945: The Diplomacy of Chinese Nationalism*. Oxford University Press. p. 114. ISBN 0195054326.
94. ^ Weinberg 1995, p. 195

95. ^ Sella, Amnon (July 1978). ""Barbarossa": Surprise Attack and Communication". *Journal of Contemporary History* **13** (3): 555–83.
96. ^ Kershaw, Ian (2007). *Fateful Choices*. Allen Lane. pp. 66–69. ISBN 0713997125.
97. ^ Steinberg, Jonathan (June 1995). "The Third Reich Reflected: German Civil Administration in the Occupied Soviet Union, 1941–4". *The English Historical Review* **110** (437): 620–51.
98. ^ Hauner, Milan (January 1978). "Did Hitler Want a World Dominion?". *Journal of Contemporary History* **13** (1): 15–32.
99. ^ Roberts, Cynthia A (December 1995). "Planning for War: The Red Army and the Catastrophe of 1941". *Europe-Asia Studies* **47** (8): 1293–26.
100. ^ Wilt, Alan F. (December 1981). "Hitler's Late Summer Pause in 1941". *Military Affairs* **45** (4): 187–91.
101. ^ Erickson, John (2003). *The Road to Stalingrad*. Cassell Military. pp. 114–137. ISBN 0304365416.
102. ^ Glantz 2001, p. 9
103. ^ "Hitler Can Be Beaten". New York Times. August 5, 1941. pp. C18.
<http://select.nytimes.com/gst/abstract.html?res=F20C16FA3C5E1A7A93C7A91783D85F458485F9>. Retrieved 2010-02-17.
104. ^ Farrell, Brian P (October 1993). "Yes, Prime Minister: Barbarossa, Whipcord, and the Basis of British Grand Strategy, Autumn 1941". *The Journal of Military History* **57** (4): 599–625.
105. ^ Pravda, Alex; Duncan, Peter J. S (1990). *Soviet-British Relations Since the 1970s*. Cambridge University Press. p. 29. ISBN 0521374944.
106. ^ Bueno de Mesquita, Bruce; Smith, Alastair; Siverson, Randolph M.; Morrow, James D (2005). *The Logic of Political Survival*. MIT Press. p. 425. ISBN 0262524406.
107. ^ ^a ^b Louis, William Roger (1998). *More Adventures with Britannia: Personalities, Politics and Culture in Britain*. University of Texas Press. p. 223. ISBN 029274708X.
108. ^ Kleinfeld, Gerald R (October 1983). "Hitler's Strike for Tikhvin". *Military Affairs* **47** (3): 122–28.
109. ^ Shukman, Harold (2001). *Stalin's Generals*. Phoenix Press. p. 113. ISBN 1842125133.
110. ^ Glantz 2001, p. 26, "By 1 November [the Wehrmacht] had lost fully 20% of its committed strength (686,000 men), up to 2/3 of its ½-million motor vehicles, and 65 percent of its tanks. The German Army High Command (OKH) rated its 136 divisions as equivalent to 83 full-strength divisions."
111. ^ Reinhardt, Klaus; Keenan, Karl B (1992). *Moscow-The Turning Point: The Failure of Hitler's Strategy in the Winter of 1941–42*. Berg. p. 227. ISBN 0854966951.
112. ^ Milward, A.S. (1964). "The End of the Blitzkrieg". *The Economic History Review* **16** (3): 499–518.
113. ^ Rotundo, Louis (January 1986). "The Creation of Soviet Reserves and the 1941 Campaign". *Military Affairs* **50** (1): 21–8.
114. ^ Glantz 2001, p. 26
115. ^ Garthoff, Raymond L (October 1969). "The Soviet Manchurian Campaign, August 1945". *Military Affairs* **33** (2): 312.
116. ^ Welch, David (1999). *Modern European History, 1871–2000: A Documentary Reader*. Routledge. p. 102. ISBN 041521582X.
117. ^ Weinberg, Gerhard L (2005). *A World At Arms*. Cambridge University Press. p. 248. ISBN 0521618266.
118. ^ Anderson, Irvine H., Jr. (May 1975). "De Facto Embargo on Oil to Japan: A Bureaucratic Reflex". *The Pacific Historical Review* **44** (2): 201.

119. ^ Peattie, Mark R.; Evans, David C. (1997). *Kaigun: Strategy, Tactics, and Technology in the Imperial Japanese Navy*. Naval Institute Press. p. 456. ISBN 0870211927.
120. ^ Lightbody, Bradley (2004). *The Second World War: Ambitions to Nemesis*. Routledge. p. 125. ISBN 0415224047.
121. ^ Weinberg, Gerhard L (2005). *A World At Arms*. Cambridge University Press. p. 310. ISBN 0521618266.
122. ^ Morgan, Patrick M (1983). *Strategic Military Surprise: Incentives and Opportunities*. Transaction Publishers. p. 51. ISBN 0878559124.
123. ^ ^{a b} Wohlstetter, Roberta (1962). *Pearl Harbor: Warning and Decision*. Stanford University Press. pp. 341–43. ISBN 080470598.
124. ^ Mingst, Karen A.; Karns, Margaret P (2007). *United Nations in the Twenty-First Century*. Westview Press. p. 22. ISBN 0813343461.
125. ^ Dunn, Dennis J (1998). *Caught Between Roosevelt & Stalin: America's Ambassadors to Moscow*. The University Press of Kentucky. p. 157. ISBN 0813120233.
126. ^ According to Ernest May (May, Ernest (1955). "The United States, the Soviet Union and the Far Eastern War". *The Pacific Historical Review* 24 (2): 156.) Churchill stated: "Russian declaration of war on Japan would be greatly to our advantage, provided, but only provided, that Russians are confident that will not impair their Western Front".
127. ^ Klam, Julie (2002). *The Rise of Japan and Pearl Harbor*. Black Rabbit Books. p. 27. ISBN 1583401881.
128. ^ Lewis, Morton. "XXIX. Japanese Plans and American Defenses". in Greenfield, Kent Roberts. *The Fall of the Philippines*. U.S. Government Printing Office. p. 529. Library of Congress Catalogue Card Number: 53-63678. http://www.history.army.mil/books/wwii/5-2/5-2_29.htm. (Table 11).
129. ^ Hill, J. R.; Ranft, Bryan (2002). *The Oxford Illustrated History of the Royal Navy*. Oxford University Press. p. 362. ISBN 0198605277.
130. ^ Hsiung 1992, p. 158
131. ^ Perez, Louis G. (June 1, 1998) (Google Books). *The history of Japan*. Greenwood Publishing Group. p. 145. ISBN 0313302960. <http://books.google.ca/books?id=ahYF-A3oylkC&pg=PA145>. Retrieved 2009-11-12.
132. ^ Gooch, John (1990). *Decisive Campaigns of the Second World War*. Routledge. p. 52. ISBN 0714633690.
133. ^ Glantz 2001, p. 31
134. ^ Molinari, Andrea (2007). *Desert Raiders: Axis and Allied Special Forces 1940–43*. Osprey Publishing. p. 91. ISBN 1846030064.
135. ^ Mitcham, Samuel W.; Mitcham, Samuel W. Jr (1982). *Rommel's Desert War: The Life and Death of the Afrika Korps*. Stein & Day. p. 31. ISBN 9780811734134.
136. ^ Maddox, Robert James (1992). *The United States and World War II*. Westview Press. pp. 111–12. ISBN 0813304369.
137. ^ Salecker, Gene Eric (2001). *Fortress Against the Sun: The B-17 Flying Fortress in the Pacific*. Da Capo Press. p. 186. ISBN 1580970494.
138. ^ Ropp, Theodore (1962). *War in the Modern World*. Macmillan Publishing Company. p. 368. ISBN 0801864453.
139. ^ Weinberg 1995, p. 339
140. ^ Gilbert, Adrian (2003). *The Encyclopedia of Warfare: From Earliest Times to the Present Day*. Globe Pequot. p. 259. ISBN 1592280277.
141. ^ Swain, Bruce (2001). *A Chronology of Australian Armed Forces at War 1939–45*. Allen & Unwin. p. 197. ISBN 1865083526.

142. ^ Hane, Mikiso (2001). *Modern Japan: A Historical Survey*. Westview Press. p. 340. ISBN 0813337569.
143. ^ Marston, Daniel (2005). *The Pacific War Companion: From Pearl Harbor to Hiroshima*. Osprey Publishing. p. 111. ISBN 1841768820.
144. ^ Brayley, Martin J (2002). *The British Army, 1939–45: The Far East*. Osprey Publishing. p. 9. ISBN 1841762385.
145. ^ Read, Anthony (2004). *The Devil's Disciples: Hitler's Inner Circle*. W. W. Norton & Company. p. 764. ISBN 0393048004.
146. ^ Davies, Norman (2006). *Europe at War 1939–1945: No Simple Victory*. Macmillan. p. 100. ISBN 0333692853.
147. ^ Badsey, Stephen (2000). *The Hutchinson Atlas of World War II Battle Plans: Before and After*. Taylor & Francis. pp. 235–36. ISBN 1579582656.
148. ^ Black, Jeremy (2003). *World War Two: A Military History*. Routledge. p. 119. ISBN 0415305349.
149. ^ Gilbert, Sir Martin (2004). *The Second World War: A Complete History*. Macmillan. pp. 397–400. ISBN 0805076239.
150. ^ Shukman, Harold (2001). *Stalin's Generals*. Phoenix Press. p. 142. ISBN 1842125133.
151. ^ Gannon, James (2002). *Stealing Secrets, Telling Lies: How Spies and Codebreakers Helped Shape the Twentieth Century*. Brassey's. p. 76. ISBN 1574884735.
152. ^ Paxton, Robert O (1972). *Vichy France: Old Guard and New Order, 1940–1944*. Knopf. p. 313. ISBN 0394473604.
153. ^ Rich, Norman (1992). *Hitler's War Aims: Ideology, the Nazi State, and the Course of Expansion*. Norton. p. 178. ISBN 0393008029.
154. ^ Penrose, Jane (2004). *The D-Day Companion*. Osprey Publishing. p. 129. ISBN 1841767794.
155. ^ Neillands, Robin (2005). *The Dieppe Raid: The Story of the Disastrous 1942 Expedition*. Indiana University Press. ISBN 0253347815.
156. ^ Thomas, David Arthur (1988). *A Companion to the Royal Navy*. Harrap. p. 265. ISBN 0245545727.
157. ^ Thomas, Nigel; Andrew, Stephen (1998). *German Army 1939–1945 (2): North Africa & Balkans*. Osprey Publishing. p. 8. ISBN 185532640X.
158. ^ ^a ^b Ross, Steven T (1997). *American War Plans, 1941–1945: The Test of Battle*. Frank Cass & Co. p. 38. ISBN 0714646342.
159. ^ Bonner, Kit; Bonner, Carolyn (2001). *Warship Boneyards*. MBI Publishing Company. p. 24. ISBN 0760308705.
160. ^ Collier, Paul (2003). *The Second World War (4): The Mediterranean 1940–1945*. Osprey Publishing. p. 11. ISBN 1841765392.
161. ^ Thompson, John Herd; Randall, Stephen J (1994). *Canada and the United States: Ambivalent Allies*. University of Georgia Press. p. 164. ISBN 0820324035.
162. ^ Kennedy, David M (1999). *Freedom from Fear: The American People in Depression and War, 1929–1945*. Oxford University Press. p. 610. ISBN 0195038347.
163. ^ Rottman, Gordon L (2002). *World War II Pacific Island Guide: A Geo-Military Study*. Greenwood Publishing Group. p. 228. ISBN 0313313954.
164. ^ Glantz, David M. (September 1986). "Soviet Defensive Tactics at Kursk, July 1943". *CSI Report No. 11.*. Combined Arms Research Library. <http://web.archive.org/web/20080306082607/http://www-cgsc.army.mil/carl/resources/csi/glantz2/glantz2.asp>. Retrieved 2010-02-17.
165. ^ Glantz, David M (1989). *Soviet military deception in the Second World War*. Routledge. pp. 149–59. ISBN 9780714633473.
166. ^ Kershaw, Ian (2001). *Hitler, 1936–1945: Nemesis*. W. W. Norton & Company. p. 592. ISBN 0393322521.

167. ^ O'Reilly, Charles T (2001). *Forgotten Battles: Italy's War of Liberation, 1943–1945*. Lexington Books. p. 32. ISBN 0739101951.
168. ^ O'Reilly, Charles T (2001). *Forgotten Battles: Italy's War of Liberation, 1943–1945*. Lexington Books. p. 35. ISBN 0739101951.
169. ^ Healy, Mark (1992). *Kursk 1943: The tide turns in the East*. Osprey Publishing. p. 90. ISBN 1855322110.
170. ^ Glantz 2001
171. ^ McGowen, Tom (2002). *Assault From The Sea: Amphibious Invasions in the Twentieth Century*. Twenty-First Century Books. pp. 43–44. ISBN 0761318119.
172. ^ Lamb, Richard (1996). *War in Italy, 1943–1945: A Brutal Story*. Da Capo Press. pp. 154–55. ISBN 0306806886.
173. ^ Hart, Stephen; Hart, Russell; Hughes, Matthew (2000). *The German Soldier in World War II*. MBI Publishing Company. p. 151. ISBN 0760308462.
174. ^ Blinkhorn, Martin (1984). *Mussolini and Fascist Italy*. Methuen & Co. p. 52. ISBN 0415102316.
175. ^ Read, Anthony; Fisher, David (1992). *The Fall of Berlin*. Hutchinson. p. 129. ISBN 0091753376.
176. ^ Read, Anthony (2004). *The Devil's Disciples: Hitler's Inner Circle*. W. W. Norton & Company. p. 804. ISBN 0393048004.
177. ^ ^a ^b Iriye, Akira (1981). *Power and culture: the Japanese-American war, 1941–1945*. Harvard University Press. p. 154. ISBN 0674695828.
178. ^ ^a ^b Polley, Martin (2000). *A-Z of modern Europe since 1789*. Taylor & Francis. p. 148. ISBN 041518598X.
179. ^ Weinberg 1995, p. 660–661
180. ^ Glantz, David M (2001). *The siege of Leningrad, 1941–1944: 900 days of terror*. Zenith Imprint. pp. 166–69. ISBN 0760309418.
181. ^ Glantz, David M (2002). *The Battle for Leningrad: 1941–1944*. Lawrence: University Press of Kansas. ISBN 0700612084.
182. ^ Chubarov, Alexander (2001). *Russia's Bitter Path to Modernity: A History of the Soviet and Post-Soviet Eras*. Continuum International Publishing Group. p. 122. ISBN 0826413501.
183. ^ Havighurst, Alfred F (1962). *Britain in Transition: The Twentieth Century*. The University of Chicago Press. p. 344. ISBN 0226319717.
184. ^ Lightbody, Bradley (2004). *The Second World War: Ambitions to Nemesis*. Routledge. p. 224. ISBN 0415224047.
185. ^ ^a ^b Zeiler, Thomas W (2004). *Unconditional Defeat: Japan, America, and the End of World War II*. Scholarly Resources. p. 60. ISBN 0842029915.
186. ^ Craven, Wesley Frank; Cate, James Lea (1953). *The Army Air Forces in World War II, Volume Five — The Pacific, Matterhorn to Nagasaki*. Chicago University Press. p. 207.
187. ^ Hsiung, James Chieh; Levine, Steven I (1992). *China's Bitter Victory: The War with Japan, 1937–1945*. M.E. Sharpe. p. 163. ISBN 156324246X.
188. ^ Coble, Parks M (2003). *Chinese Capitalists in Japan's New Order: The Occupied Lower Yangzi, 1937–1945*. University of California Press. p. 85. ISBN 0520232682.
189. ^ Weinberg 1995, p. 695
190. ^ Badsey, Stephen (1990). *Normandy 1944: Allied Landings and Breakout*. Osprey Publishing. p. 91. ISBN 0850459214.
191. ^ Dear, I. C. B.; Foot, M. R. D, eds (2002). "Market-Garden". *Oxford Companion to World War II*. Oxford University Press. p. 877. ISBN 0198604467.

192. ^ The operation "was the most calamitous defeat of all the German armed forces in World War II" (Zaloga, Steven J (1996). *Bagration 1944: The destruction of Army Group Centre*. Osprey Publishing. p. 7. ISBN 1855324784.)
193. ^ Berend, Ivan T. (1999). *Central and Eastern Europe, 1944–1993: Detour from the Periphery to the Periphery*. Cambridge University Press. p. 8. ISBN 0521550661.
194. ^ "Armistice Negotiations and Soviet Occupation". US Library of Congress. <http://countrystudies.us/romania/23.htm>. Retrieved 2009-11-14. "The coup speeded the Red Army's advance, and the Soviet Union later awarded Michael the Order of Victory for his personal courage in overthrowing Antonescu and putting an end to Romania's war against the Allies. Western historians uniformly point out that the Communists played only a supporting role in the coup; postwar Romanian historians, however, ascribe to the Communists the decisive role in Antonescu's overthrow"
195. ^ Hastings, Max; Paul Henry, Collier (2004). *The Second World War: a world in flames*. Osprey Publishing. pp. 223–4. ISBN 1841768308.
196. ^ Wiest, Andrew A; Barbier, M. K (2002). *Strategy and Tactics Infantry Warfare*. Zenith Imprint. pp. 65–6. ISBN 0760314012.
197. ^ Wiktor, Christian L (1998). *Multilateral Treaty Calendar – 1648–1995*. Kluwer Law International. p. 426. ISBN 9041105840.
198. ^ Newton, Steven H (1995). *Retreat from Leningrad : Army Group North, 1944/1945*. Atglen, Philadelphia: Schiffer Books. ISBN 0887408060.
199. ^ Marston, Daniel (2005). *The Pacific War Companion: From Pearl Harbor to Hiroshima*. Osprey Publishing. p. 120. ISBN 1841768820.
200. ^ Jowett & Andrew 2002, p. 8
201. ^ Howard, Joshua H (2004). *Workers at War: Labor in China's Arsenals, 1937–1953*. Stanford University Press. p. 140. ISBN 0804748969.
202. ^ Drea, Edward J (2003). *In the Service of the Emperor: Essays on the Imperial Japanese Army*. University of Nebraska Press. p. 54. ISBN 0803266383.
203. ^ Cook, Chris; Bewes, Diccon (1997). *What Happened Where: A Guide to Places and Events in Twentieth-Century History*. UCL Press. p. 305. ISBN 1857285328.
204. ^ ^{a b} Parker, Danny S (2004). *Battle of the Bulge: Hitler's Ardennes Offensive, 1944–1945*. Da Capo Press. pp. xiii–xiv, 6–8, 68–70 & 329–330. ISBN 0306813912.
205. ^ Glantz 2001, p. 85
206. ^ Solsten, Eric (1999). *Germany: A Country Study*. DIANE Publishing. pp. 76–7. ISBN 0788181793.
207. ^ United States Dept. of State (1967). *The China White Paper, August 1949*. Stanford University Press. p. 113. ISBN 0804706085.
208. ^ Buchanan, Tom (2006). *Europe's troubled peace, 1945–2000*. Wiley-Blackwell. p. 21. ISBN 0631221638.
209. ^ Shepardson, Donald E (January 1998). "The Fall of Berlin and the Rise of a Myth". *The Journal of Military History* **62** (1): 135–154.
210. ^ O'Reilly, Charles T (2001). *Forgotten Battles: Italy's War of Liberation, 1943–1945*. Lexington Books. p. 244. ISBN 0739101951.
211. ^ Kershaw 2001, p. 823
212. ^ ^{a b} Donnelly, Mark (1999). *Britain in the Second World War*. Routledge. p. xiv. ISBN 0415174252.

213. ^ Glantz, David M. (1995). *When Titans Clashed: How the Red Army Stopped Hitler*. Lawrence, Kansas: University Press of Kansas. p. 34. ISBN 0700608990.
214. ^ Chant, Christopher (1986). *The Encyclopedia of Codenames of World War II*. Routledge & Kegan Paul. p. 118. ISBN 0710207182.
215. ^ Drea, Edward J (2003). *In the Service of the Emperor: Essays on the Imperial Japanese Army*. University of Nebraska Press. p. 57. ISBN 0803266383.
216. ^ Jowett & Andrew 2002, p. 6
217. ^ Poirier, Michel Thomas (October 20, 1999). "Results of the German and American Submarine Campaigns of World War II". U.S. Navy. <http://www.navy.mil/navydata/cno/n87/history/wwii-campaigns.html>. Retrieved 2008-04-13.
218. ^ Williams, Andrew J (2006). *Liberalism and War: The Victors and the Vanquished*. Routledge. p. 90. ISBN 0415359805.
219. ^ Miscamble, Wilson D (2007). *From Roosevelt to Truman: Potsdam, Hiroshima, and the Cold War*. Cambridge University Press. p. 201. ISBN 0521862442.
220. ^ Miscamble, Wilson D (2007). *From Roosevelt to Truman: Potsdam, Hiroshima, and the Cold War*. Cambridge University Press. pp. 203–4. ISBN 0521862442.
221. ^ Glantz, David M (2005), "August Storm: The Soviet Strategic Offensive in Manchuria", *Leavenworth Papers* (Combined Arms Research Library), OCLC 78918907, <http://web.archive.org/web/20080302130751/http://www-cgsc.army.mil/carl/resources/csi/glantz3/glantz3.asp>, retrieved 2010-01-25
222. ^ Pape, Robert A (Autumn 1993). "Why Japan Surrendered". *International Security* **18** (2): 154–201.
223. ^ Yoder, Amos (1997). *The Evolution of the United Nations System*. Taylor & Francis. p. 39. ISBN 1560325461.
224. ^ "History of the UN". United Nations. <http://www.un.org/aboutun/history.htm>. Retrieved 2010-01-25.
225. ^ "The Universal Declaration of Human Rights". United Nations. <http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/>. Retrieved 2009-11-14.
 "Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status. Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty"
226. ^ Kantowicz, Edward R (2000). *Coming Apart, Coming Together*. Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing. p. 6. ISBN 0802844561.
227. ^ Trachtenberg, Marc (1999). *A Constructed Peace: The Making of the European Settlement, 1945–1963*. Princeton University Press. p. 33. ISBN 0691002738.
228. ^ Roberts, Geoffrey (2006). *Stalin's Wars: From World War to Cold War, 1939–1953*. Yale University Press. p. 43. ISBN 0300112041.
229. ^ Wettig, Gerhard (2008). *Stalin and the Cold War in Europe*. Rowman & Littlefield. pp. 20–21. ISBN 0742555429.
230. ^ Senn, Alfred Erich (2007). *Lithuania 1940: revolution from above*. Rodopi. ISBN 9789042022256.
231. ^ Kennedy-Pipe, Caroline (1995). *Stalin's Cold War*. Manchester University Press. ISBN 0719042011.
232. ^ Roberts, Geoffrey (2006). *Stalin's Wars: From World War to Cold War, 1939–1953*. Yale University Press. p. 55. ISBN 0300112041.
233. ^ Shirer, William L. (1990), *The Rise and Fall of the Third Reich: A History of Nazi Germany*, Simon and Schuster, p. 794, ISBN 0671728687

234. ^ Granville, Johanna (2004). *The First Domino: International Decision Making during the Hungarian Crisis of 1956*. Texas A&M University Press. ISBN 1585442984.
235. ^ Grenville, John Ashley Soames (2005). *A History of the World from the 20th to the 21st Century*. Routledge. pp. 370–71. ISBN 0415289548.
236. ^ Cook, Bernard A (2001). *Europe Since 1945: An Encyclopedia*. Taylor & Francis. p. 17. ISBN 0815340575.
237. ^ Wettig, Gerhard (2008). *Stalin and the Cold War in Europe*. Rowman & Littlefield. pp. 96–100. ISBN 0742555429.
238. ^ Leffler, Melvyn P.; Painter, David S (1994). *Origins of the Cold War: An International History*. Routledge. p. 318. ISBN 0415341094.
239. ^ Stokesbury, James L (1990). *A Short History of the Korean War*. New York: Harper Perennial. p. 14. ISBN 0688095135.
240. ^ Fehrenbach, T. R (2001). *This Kind of War: The Classic Korean War History*. Brassey's. p. 305. ISBN 1574883348.
241. ^ Oberdorfer, Don (2001). *The Two Koreas: A Contemporary History*. Basic Books. pp. 10–11. ISBN 0465051626.
242. ^ No, Kum-Sok; Osterholm, J. Roger (1996). *A MiG-15 to Freedom: Memoir of the Wartime North Korean Defector who First Delivered the Secret Fighter Jet to the Americans in 1953*. McFarland. ISBN 0786402105.
243. ^ Betts, Raymond F. (2004). *Decolonization*. Routledge. pp. 21–24. ISBN 041531820.
244. ^ Conteh-Morgan, Earl (2004). *Collective Political Violence: An Introduction to the Theories and Cases of Violent Conflicts*. Routledge. p. 30. ISBN 0415947448.
245. ^ Vess, Deborah (2001). "Chapter 7, The impact on colonialism: the Middle East, Africa, and Asia in crisis following World War II" (Google books). *AP World History: The Best Preparation for the AP World History Exam*. Research & Education Association. p. 564. ISBN 0738601284. <http://books.google.ca/books?id=1dOLbfnYWwvC&pg=RA2-PA564>. Retrieved 2010-01-22.
246. ^ Dornbusch, Rüdiger; Nölling, Wilhelm; Layard, P. Richard G (1993). *Postwar Economic Reconstruction and Lessons for the East Today*. Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press. p. 29. ISBN 0262041367.
247. ^ Bull, Martin J.; Newell, James (2005). *Italian Politics: Adjustment Under Duress*. Polity. p. 20. ISBN 0745612997.
248. ^ Bull, Martin J.; Newell, James (2005). *Italian Politics: Adjustment Under Duress*. Polity. p. 21. ISBN 0745612997.
249. ^ Dornbusch, Rüdiger; Nölling, Wilhelm; Layard, P. Richard G (1993). *Postwar Economic Reconstruction and Lessons for the East Today*. Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press. p. 117. ISBN 0262041367.
250. ^ Emadi-Coffin, Barbara (2002). *Rethinking International Organization: Deregulation and Global Governance*. Routledge. p. 64. ISBN 0415195403.
251. ^ Harrop, Martin (1992). *Power and Policy in Liberal Democracies*. Cambridge University Press. p. 23. ISBN 0521345790.
252. ^ Smith, Alan (1993). *Russia And the World Economy: Problems of Integration*. Routledge. p. 32. ISBN 0415089247.
253. ^ Harrop, Martin (1992). *Power and Policy in Liberal Democracies*. Cambridge University Press. p. 49. ISBN 0521345790.
254. ^ ^a ^b Harper, Damian (2007). *China*. Lonely Planet. p. 51. ISBN 1740599152.
255. ^ Kunkel, John (2003). *America's Trade Policy Towards Japan: Demanding Results*. Routledge. p. 33. ISBN 0415298326.
256. ^ O'Brien, Prof. Joseph V. "World War II: Combatants and Casualties (1937— 1945)". *Obee's History Page*. John Jay College of Criminal Justice. <http://web.jjay.cuny.edu/~jobrien/reference/ob62.html>. Retrieved 2007-04-20.
257. ^ White, Matthew. "Source List and Detailed Death Tolls for the Twentieth Century Hemoclysm". *Historical Atlas of the Twentieth Century*. Matthew White's Homepage. <http://users.erols.com/mwhite28/warstat1.htm#Second>. Retrieved 2007-04-20.

258. ^ "World War II Fatalities". [secondworldwar.co.uk](http://www.secondworldwar.co.uk/casualty.html). <http://www.secondworldwar.co.uk/casualty.html>. Retrieved 2007-04-20.
259. ^ "Leaders mourn Soviet wartime dead". *BBC News*. May 9, 2005. <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/europe/4530565.stm>. Retrieved 2009-12-07.
260. ^ Florida Center for Instructional Technology (2005). "Victims". *A Teacher's Guide to the Holocaust*. [University of South Florida](http://fcit.usf.edu/Holocaust/people/victims.htm). <http://fcit.usf.edu/Holocaust/people/victims.htm>. Retrieved 2008-02-02.
261. ^ Winter, J. M (2002). "Demography of the War". in Dear, I. C. B.; Foot, M. R. D. *Oxford Companion to World War II*. [Oxford University Press](http://www.oxfordup.com). p. 290. ISBN 0198604467.
262. ^ Todd, Allan (2001). *The Modern World*. Oxford University Press. p. 121. ISBN 0199134251.
263. ^ "Jasenovac". [jewishvirtuallibrary.org](http://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/Holocaust/Jasenovac.html). American-Israeli Cooperative Enterprise. <http://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/Holocaust/Jasenovac.html>. Retrieved 2010-01-25.
264. ^ Chang, Iris (1997). *The Rape of Nanking: The Forgotten Holocaust of World War II*. BasicBooks. p. 102. ISBN 0465068359.
265. ^ Rummell, R. J. "Statistics". *Freedom, Democide, War*. The University of Hawaii System. <http://www.hawaii.edu/powerkills/SOD.CHAP3.HTM>. Retrieved 2010-01-25.
266. ^ Linzey, Sharon Ph.D. J.D (2000). "Southern Kurdistan: Building the Culture of Life" (pdf). Kurdish National Congress of North America. p. 5. http://www.kncna.org/docs/pdf_files/SharonLinzeyKNC2009.pdf. Retrieved 2009-11-14.
267. ^ Tucker, Spencer C.; Roberts, Priscilla Mary Roberts (2004). *Encyclopedia of World War II: A Political, Social, and Military History*. ABC-CLIO. p. 319. ISBN 1576079996.
268. ^ Gold, Hal (1996). *Unit 731 testimony*. Tuttle. pp. 75–7. ISBN 0804835659.
269. ^ Tucker, Spencer C.; Roberts, Priscilla Mary Roberts (2004). *Encyclopedia of World War II: A Political, Social, and Military History*. ABC-CLIO. p. 320. ISBN 1576079996.
270. ^ Harris (2002). *Factories of Death: Japanese Biological Warfare, 1932–1945, and the American Cover-up*. Routledge. p. 74. ISBN 0415932149.
271. ^ Sabella, Robert; Li, Fei Fei; Liu, David (2002). *Nanking 1937: Memory and Healing*. M.E. Sharpe. p. 69. ISBN 0765608162.
272. ^ "Japan tested chemical weapons on Aussie POW: new evidence". The Japan Times Online. July 27, 2004. <http://search.japantimes.co.jp/member/nn20040727a9.html>. Retrieved 2010-01-25.
273. ^ Aksar, Yusuf (2004). *Implementing International Humanitarian Law: From the Ad Hoc Tribunals to a Permanent International Criminal Court*. [Routledge](http://www.routledge.com). p. 45. ISBN 0714684708.
274. ^ Applebaum, Anne (2003). *Gulag: A History*. Doubleday. ISBN 9780767900560.
275. ^ Hornberger, Jacob (April 1995). "Repatriation—The Dark Side of World War II". The Future of Freedom Foundation. <http://www.fff.org/freedom/0495a.asp>. Retrieved 2010-01-25.
276. ^ Harding, Luke (October 22, 2003). "Germany's forgotten victims". [guardian.co.uk](http://www.guardian.co.uk). Guardian News and Media. <http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2003/oct/22/worlddispatch.germany>. Retrieved 2010-01-21.
277. ^ Koh, David (August 21, 2008). "Vietnam needs to remember famine of 1945". The Straits Times (Singapore). <http://mailman.anu.edu.au/pipermail/hepr-vn/2008-August/000188.html>. Retrieved 2010-01-25.
278. ^ ^a ^b Marek, Michael (October 27, 2005). "Final Compensation Pending for Former Nazi Forced Laborers". [dw-world.de](http://www.dw-world.de). Deutsche Welle. Archived from the original on 2010-01-19. <http://www.webcitation.org/5mtTTntBR>. Retrieved 2010-01-19.
279. ^ Applebaum, Anne (October 16, 2003). "Gulag: Understanding the Magnitude of What Happened". *Heritage Foundation*. <http://www.heritage.org/Research/RussiaandEurasia/HL-800.cfm>. Retrieved 2010-01-19.

280. ^ North, Jonathan (January 2006). "Soviet Prisoners of War: Forgotten Nazi Victims of World War II". *HistoryNet.com*. Weider History Group. Archived from the original on 2010-01-19. <http://www.webcitation.org/5mtUpwcaB>. Retrieved 2010-01-19.
281. ^ Overy, Richard (2004). *The Dictators: Hitler's Germany, Stalin's Russia*. W. W. Norton & Company. pp. 568–69. ISBN 0393020304.
282. ^ "Japanese Atrocities in the Philippines". *American Experience: the Bataan Rescue*. PBS Online. Archived from the original on 2010-01-19. <http://www.webcitation.org/5mtVNGYHW>. Retrieved 2010-01-18.
283. ^ Tanaka, Yuki (1996). *Hidden Horrors: Japanese War Crimes in World War II*. Westview Press. pp. 2–3. ISBN 0813327180.
284. ^ Fujiwara, Akira (1995). "Nitchû Sensô ni Okeru Horyo Gyakusatsu" (in Japanese). *Kikan Sensô Sekinin Kenkyû* **9**: 22.
285. ^ Bix, Herbert (2001). *Hirohito and the Making of Modern Japan*. HarperCollins. p. 360. ISBN 0060931302.
286. ^ ^a ^b Ju, Zhifen (June 2002). "Japan's atrocities of conscripting and abusing north China draughtees after the outbreak of the Pacific war". *Joint Study of the Sino-Japanese War: Minutes of the June 2002 Conference*. Harvard University Faculty of Arts and Sciences. <http://www.fas.harvard.edu/~asiatr/sino-japanese/session6.htm>. Retrieved 2010-02-18.
287. ^ ^a ^b "Indonesia: World War II and the Struggle For Independence, 1942–50; The Japanese Occupation, 1942–45". Library of Congress. 1992. [http://lcweb2.loc.gov/cgi-bin/query/r?frd/cstdy:@field\(DOCID+id0029\)](http://lcweb2.loc.gov/cgi-bin/query/r?frd/cstdy:@field(DOCID+id0029)). Retrieved 2007-02-09.
288. ^ ^a ^b "Concentration camps and slave work". Vets Home. Archived from the original on 2010-01-19. <http://www.webcitation.org/5mtX2kt9s>. Retrieved 2009-11-12.
289. ^ Department of Labour of Canada. (January 24, 1947). *Report on the Re-establishment of Japanese in Canada, 1944–1946*. Office of the Prime Minister. p. 23. ISBN 0405112661.
290. ^ Prowe, Diethelm (November 2007). "Review of Mausbach, Wilfried, Zwischen Morgenthau und Marshall: Das wirtschaftspolitische Deutschlandkonzept der USA 1944–1947". H-Net Review. Archived from the original on 2010-01-19. <http://www.webcitation.org/5mtXej9t7>.
291. ^ Stark, Tamás. "'Malenki Robot' – Hungarian Forced Labourers in the Soviet Union (1944–1955)" (pdf). *Minorities Research*. http://www.epa.hu/00400/00463/00007/pdf/155_stark.pdf. Retrieved 2010-01-22.
292. ^ ^a ^b Harrison, Mark (2000). *The Economics of World War II: Six Great Powers in International Comparison*. Cambridge University Press. p. 3. ISBN 0521785030.
293. ^ Harrison, Mark (2000). *The Economics of World War II: Six Great Powers in International Comparison*. Cambridge University Press. p. 2. ISBN 0521785030.
294. ^ Hughes, Matthew; Mann, Chris (2000). *Inside Hitler's Germany: Life Under the Third Reich*. Potomac Books Inc. p. 148. ISBN 1574882813.
295. ^ Bernstein, Gail Lee (1991). *Recreating Japanese Women, 1600–1945*. University of California Press. p. 267. ISBN 9780520070172.
296. ^ Hughes, Matthew; Mann, Chris (2000). *Inside Hitler's Germany: Life Under the Third Reich*. Potomac Books Inc. p. 151. ISBN 1574882813.
297. ^ Griffith, Charles (1999). *The Quest: Haywood Hansell and American Strategic Bombing in World War II*. DIANE Publishing. p. 203. ISBN 1585660698.
298. ^ Overy, R.J (1995). *War and Economy in the Third Reich*. Oxford University Press, USA. p. 26. ISBN 0198205996.
299. ^ Lindberg, Michael; Daniel, Todd (2001). *Brown-, Green- and Blue-Water Fleets: the Influence of Geography on Naval Warfare, 1861 to the Present*. Praeger. p. 126. ISBN 0275964868.

300. ^ Cox, Sebastian (1998). *The Strategic Air War Against Germany, 1939–1945*. Frank Cass Publishers. p. 84. ISBN 0714647225.
301. ^ Unidas, Naciones (2005). *World Economic And Social Survey 2004: International Migration*. United Nations Pubns. p. 23. ISBN 9211091470.
302. ^ Liberman, Peter (1998). *Does Conquest Pay?: The Exploitation of Occupied Industrial Societies*. Princeton University Press. p. 42. ISBN 0691002428.
303. ^ Milward, Alan S (1979). *War, Economy, and Society, 1939–1945*. University of California Press. p. 138. ISBN 0520039424.
304. ^ Milward, Alan S (1979). *War, Economy, and Society, 1939–1945*. University of California Press. p. 148. ISBN 0520039424.
305. ^ Perrie, Maureen; Lieven, D. C. B; Suny, Ronald Grigor (2007). *The Cambridge History of Russia*. Cambridge University Press. p. 232. ISBN 0521861942.
306. ^ Hill, Alexander (2005). *The War Behind The Eastern Front: The Soviet Partisan Movement In North-West Russia 1941–1944*. Routledge. p. 5. ISBN 0714657115.
307. ^ Christofferson, Thomas R; Christofferson, Michael S (2006). *France During World War II: From Defeat to Liberation*. Fordham University Press. p. 156. ISBN 9780823225637.
308. ^ Ikeo, Aiko (1997). *Economic Development in Twentieth Century East Asia: The International Context*. Routledge. p. 107. ISBN 0415149002.
309. ^ ^{a b} Boog, Horst; Rahn, Werner; Stumpf, Reinhard; Wegner, Bernd (2001). *Militärgeschichtliches Forschungsamt Germany and the Second World War — Volume VI: The Global War*. Oxford: Clarendon Press. p. 266. ISBN 0198828880.
310. ^ Tucker, Spencer C.; Roberts, Priscilla Mary Roberts (2004). *Encyclopedia of World War II: A Political, Social, and Military History*. ABC-CLIO. p. 76. ISBN 1576079996.
311. ^ Levine, Alan J. (1992). *The Strategic Bombing of Germany, 1940–1945*. Greenwood Press. p. 217. ISBN 0275943194.
312. ^ Sauvain, Philip (2005). *Key Themes of the Twentieth Century: Teacher's Guide*. Wiley-Blackwell. p. 128. ISBN 1405132183.
313. ^ Tucker, Spencer C.; Roberts, Priscilla Mary Roberts (2004). *Encyclopedia of World War II: A Political, Social, and Military History*. ABC-CLIO. p. 163. ISBN 1576079996.
314. ^ Bishop, Chris; Chant, Chris (2004). *Aircraft Carriers: The World's Greatest Naval Vessels and Their Aircraft*. Silverdale Books. p. 7. ISBN 1845090799.
315. ^ Chenoweth, H. Avery; Nihart, Brooke (2005). *Semper Fi: The Definitive Illustrated History of the U.S. Marines*. Main Street. p. 180. ISBN 1402730993.
316. ^ Sumner, Ian; Baker, Alix (2001). *The Royal Navy 1939–45*. Osprey Publishing. p. 25. ISBN 1841761958.
317. ^ Hearn, Chester G. (2007). *Carriers in Combat: The Air War at Sea*. Stackpole Books. p. 14. ISBN 081173398X.
318. ^ Gardiner, Robert; Brown, David K (2004). *The Eclipse of the Big Gun: The Warship 1906–1945*. Conway. p. 52. ISBN 0851779530.
319. ^ Rydill, Louis (1995). *Concepts in Submarine Design*. Cambridge University Press. p. 15. ISBN 052155926X.
320. ^ Rydill, Louis (1995). *Concepts in Submarine Design*. Cambridge University Press. p. 16. ISBN 052155926X.
321. ^ ^{a b} Tucker, Spencer C.; Roberts, Priscilla Mary Roberts (2004). *Encyclopedia of World War II: A Political, Social, and Military History*. ABC-CLIO. p. 125. ISBN 1576079996.
322. ^ Dupuy, Trevor Nevitt (1982). *The Evolution of Weapons and Warfare*. Jane's Information Group. p. 231. ISBN 0710601239.

323. ^{a b} Tucker, Spencer C.; Roberts, Priscilla Mary Roberts (2004). *Encyclopedia of World War II: A Political, Social, and Military History*. ABC-CLIO. p. 108. ISBN 1576079996.
324. ^a Tucker, Spencer C.; Roberts, Priscilla Mary Roberts (2004). *Encyclopedia of World War II: A Political, Social, and Military History*. ABC-CLIO. p. 734. ISBN 1576079996.
325. ^{a b} Cowley, Robert; Parker, Geoffrey (2001). *The Reader's Companion to Military History*. Houghton Mifflin Harcourt. p. 221. ISBN 0618127429.
326. ^a "Infantry Weapons Of World War 2". Grey Falcon (Black Sun).
<http://greyfalcon.us/Infantry%20Weapons%20Of%20World%20War%202.htm>. Retrieved 2009-11-14. "These all-purpose guns were developed and used by the German army in the 2nd half of World War 2 as a result of studies which showed that the ordinary rifle's long range is much longer than needed, since the soldiers almost always fired at enemies closer than half of its effective range. The assault rifle is a balanced compromise between the rifle and the sub-machine gun, having sufficient range and accuracy to be used as a rifle, combined with the rapid-rate automatic firepower of the sub machine gun. Thanks to these combined advantages, assault rifles such as the American M-16 and the Russian AK-47 are the basic weapon of the modern soldier"
327. ^a Sprague, Oliver; Griffiths, Hugh (2006). "The AK-47: the worlds favourite killing machine" (pdf). Amnesty International. p. 1.
<http://www.amnesty.org/en/library/asset/ACT30/011/2006/en/11079910-d422-11dd-8743-d305bea2b2c7/act300112006en.pdf>. Retrieved 2009-11-14.
328. ^a Ratcliff, Rebecca Ann (2006). *Delusions of Intelligence: Enigma, Ultra and the End of Secure Ciphers*. Cambridge University Press. p. 11. ISBN 0521855225.
329. ^{a b c} Schoenherr, Steven (2007). "Code Breaking in World War II". History Department at the University of San Diego.
<http://history.sandiego.edu/gen/ww2timeline/espionage.html>. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
330. ^a Rowe, Neil C.; Rothstein, Hy. "Deception for Defense of Information Systems: Analogies from Conventional Warfare". *Departments of Computer Science and Defense Analysis U.S. Naval Postgraduate School*. Air University.
<http://www.au.af.mil/au/awc/awcgate/nps/mildec.htm>. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
331. ^a "Konrad Zuse (1910–1995)". Istituto Dalle Molle di Studi sull'Intelligenza Artificiale. <http://www.idsia.ch/~juergen/zuse.html>. Retrieved 2009-11-14. "Konrad Zuse builds Z1, world's first programme-controlled computer. Despite certain mechanical engineering problems it had all the basic ingredients of modern machines, using the binary system and today's standard separation of storage and control. Zuse's 1936 patent application (Z23139/GMD Nr. 005/021) also suggests a von Neumann architecture (re-invented in 1945) with programme and data modifiable in storage"

References

- Adamthwaite, Anthony P (1992). *The Making of the Second World War*. New York: Routledge. ISBN 0415907160.
- Brody, J Kenneth (1999). *The Avoidable War: Pierre Laval and the Politics of Reality, 1935–1936*. Transaction Publishers. p. 4. ISBN 0765806223.
- Bullock, A. (1962), *Hitler: A Study in Tyranny*, Penguin Books, ISBN 0140135642
- Busky, Donald F (2002). *Communism in History and Theory: Asia, Africa, and the Americas*. Praeger Publishers. ISBN 0275977331.
- Davies, Norman (2008), *No Simple Victory: World War II in Europe, 1939–1945*, Penguin Group, ISBN 0143114093
- Glantz, David M. (2001), *The Soviet - German War 1941–45 Myths and Realities: A Survey Essay*,
<http://www.strom.clemson.edu/publications/sg-war41-45.pdf>
- Graham, Helen (2005). *The Spanish Civil War: A Very Short Introduction*. Oxford University Press, USA. ISBN 0192803778.
- Hsiung, James Chieh (1992), *China's Bitter Victory: The War with Japan, 1937–1945*, M.E. Sharpe, ISBN 156324246X
- Jowett, Philip S.; Andrew, Stephen (2002), *The Japanese Army, 1931–45*, Osprey Publishing, ISBN 1841763535
- Kantowicz, Edward R (1999). *The rage of nations*. Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing. ISBN 0802844553.
- Kershaw, Ian (2001), *Hitler, 1936–1945: Nemesis*, W. W. Norton & Company, ISBN 0393322521
- Kitson, Alison (2001). *Germany 1858–1990: Hope, Terror, and Revival*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. ISBN 9780199134175.
- Mandelbaum, Michael (1988). *The Fate of Nations: The Search for National Security in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries*. Cambridge University Press. p. 96. ISBN 052135790X.
- Murray, Williamson; Millett, Allan Reed (2001), *A War to Be Won: Fighting the Second World War*, Harvard University Press, ISBN 0674006801
- Preston, Peter (1998). *Pacific Asia in the global system: an introduction*, Wiley-Blackwell. Oxford: Blackwell. p. 104. ISBN 0631202382.
- Myers, Ramon; Peattie, Mark (1987). *The Japanese Colonial Empire, 1895–1945*. Princeton University Press. ISBN 0691102228.
- Record, Jeffery (2005) (pdf). *Appeasement Reconsidered: Investigating the Mythology of the 1930s*. DIANE Publishing. p. 50. ISBN 1584872160. <http://www.strategicstudiesinstitute.army.mil/pdffiles/PUB622.pdf>. Retrieved 2009-11-15.
- Shaw, Anthony (2000). *World War II Day by Day*. MBI Publishing Company. ISBN 0760309396.
- Smith, Winston; Steadman, Ralph (2004). *All Riot on the Western Front, Volume 3*. Last Gasp. ISBN 0867196165.
- Weinberg, Gerhard L. (1995), *A World at Arms: A Global History of World War II*, Cambridge University Press, ISBN 0521558794
- Zalampas, Michael (1989). *Adolf Hitler and the Third Reich in American magazines, 1923–1939*. Bowling Green University Popular Press. ISBN 0879724625.

External links

General

Deutsche Welle special section on World War II created by one of Germany's public broadcasters on World War II and the world 60 years after.

World War II Propaganda Leaflet Archive

Radio news from 1938 to 1945

The Art of War Online Exhibition at the UK National Archive

Online documents

World War II Military Situation Maps. Library of Congress