[illegible]s further enhanced by their control over the [ad]ministration of the church and by their as[so]ciation with the flourishing monasteries. [A]mong the novel offices of the well-organized [pr]ovince was that of viscount, a ducal official [wi]th military, financial, and judicial powers in [lo]cal areas.

[T]his strength in the duchy enabled Duke Wil[lia]m II, known to history as William I the [C]onqu[eror], to undertake the conquest of En[gl]and [in 106]6. On William's death, control of [Norman]dy and England was disputed among [hi]s so[ns, unt]il the two areas were reunited un[de]r Henry I of England in 1106. After Henry's [de]ath in 1135, Normandy was won by Geof[fr]ey Plantagenet, count of Anjou and husband [o]f Henry's daughter Matilda, and from him [pa]ssed into the Angevin Empire inherited by [H]enry II of England in the mid-12th century. [T]he political development of Normandy con[ti]nued under the Angevins: the jury system [w]as introduced; collection of taxes was cen[tr]alized; and *baillis* were appointed to oversee [th]e viscounts.

As the centre of Angevin power on the Con[ti]nent, Normandy became a primary objective [o]f the rival Capetian kings of France. It was [c]onquered by the Capetians from John of En[gl]and (1202–04). The wealth of Normandy [w]as considerable, and its bureaucratic meth[o]ds influenced Capetian government. French [r]ule brought little change in the political cus[to]ms of the Normans, whose privileges (con[se]nt to taxes) were affirmed by the Charte aux [N]ormands of 1315.

[T]he *gouvernement* of Normandy in 1789

During the Hundred Years' War (1337 to [1]453), Normandy was twice invaded by the [E]nglish and was under their control from [1]420 until French reconquest in 1450.

In the 16th century Protestantism made sub[s]tantial gains in Normandy, and the province [w]as torn by wars between the Catholics and [H]uguenots (1562–63 and 1574–76). The 17th [c]entury witnessed the growth of royal power [i]n Normandy: the Charte was allowed to [la]pse, and the provincial assembly was abol[is]hed in 1666. The province was divided into [t]he *généralités* of Rouen, Caen, and Alençon. After its division into *départements* in 1790, [N]ormandy was the centre of a major political [ev]ent of the French Revolution: the federalist [r]evolt against Parisian domination in the sum[m]er of 1793.

Its name occurs in the history of World War II as the site of the Allied invasion of Ger[m]an-occupied France in June of 1944.

Normandy, the most prevalent breed of cattle in France developed for both milk and meat production.

Normandy Invasion, also known as OPERATION OVERLORD, name given to the Allied invasion of Europe on June 6, 1944. As the trend of World War II began to swing in favour of the Allies, Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower was charged with the task of forming the largest invasion fleet in history. While plans were being formed in England, Field Marshal Erwin Rommel was building his "Atlantic Wall" on the coastline of France.

After being delayed 24 hours by the worst channel weather in 25 years, the invasion began on D-Day with units of the U.S. 82nd and 101st Airborne divisions landing near the town of Saint-Mère-Église, while British commando units captured key bridges and knocked out Nazi communications. In the morning, the assault troops of the combined Allied armies, including the French, Canadian, British, and the United States landed at five beaches along the Normandy coast code named Utah, Omaha, Gold, Juno, and Sword. While four beaches were taken early, Omaha turned out to be the stiffest test, being nicknamed "Bloody Omaha." By nightfall, sizable beacheads were in control on all five landing areas and the final campaign to defeat Germany was under way.

Norman Empire: *see* Angevin Empire.

Norman French, the divergent dialect of the French language spoken by the Normans of early medieval times—especially that dialect as spoken by the Normans who invaded England in 1066.

Normanichthyidae, family of mail-cheeked fish of the order Scorpaeniformes.

Normans, originally NORTMANNI, also NORTHMEN, a term used generally in medieval western Europe to denote the barbarian heathen pirates (Vikings) from Scandinavia, who between about 800 and 1050 pillaged or occupied many coastal areas. More particularly, and in modern usage, it refers to those Vikings who settled in what later became the duchy of Normandy in northern France. Late in the 9th century a number of Scandinavians, probably Danes, had secured a foothold on the lower Seine River. In about 911 this group, under a leader, Hrólfr (Rollo), himself probably a Norwegian, gained from the Frankish king Charles III the Simple, formal recognition of their occupation of a north coast area bounded to the east, south, and west by the rivers Bresle, Epte, and Dives (the so-called Treaty of Saint-Clair-sur-Epte). By 933 they had extended their control westward over the Bessin, Avranchin, and Cotentin.

Adopting Christianity and the French language, the Normans nevertheless retained many typically Viking traits, remaining savage and unbridled and never contributing substantially to the arts. Bands from Normandy achieved the conquest (early 11th century) of southern Italy and Sicily; in the mid-11th century William, duke of Normandy, conquered England, and the Normans spread thence to Wales, Scotland, and Ireland.

With a genius for adaptation, and usually producing strong rulers, they systematized feudalism, employing it to the benefit of central authority. They developed cavalry warfare and excelled in castle building. They contributed notably to the growth of medieval governmental institutions and by their [al]liances with [illegible] the 11th century [illegible] of [illegible]

climate of political anarchy they provided good and firm government, both in church and state.

Normanskill Shale Formation, Middle Ordovician (Champlainian) dark shale unit found in eastern New York, Vermont, and Massachusetts (the Ordovician Period began about 500,000,000 years ago and lasted about 70,000,000 years). The Normanskill Shale Formation was named by R. Ruedemann in 1901 for exposures that he studied in the region of the Normans Kill, a tributary of the Hudson River, near Albany, N.Y. The formation consists of about 300 metres (1,000 feet) of blue to gray, sandy shales with many bands of black, pyrite-bearing shales that contain a rich graptolite (class of extinct colonial marine animals) fauna. The Normanskill Formation is a northward extension of a dark-shale depositional environment that existed during Champlainian time all the way from Alabama to New York. The dark shales represent the fine muds that were eroded from an Appalachian landmass during Champlainian time and deposited near the shore; limestones were simultaneously deposited farther to the west.

Norman style, Romanesque architectural style developed in Normandy and England between the 11th and 12th centuries and the time of the general adoption of Gothic (*see* Gothic art) architecture in both countries. Since it was only shortly before the Norman

[illegible]

private corporations should be paid in whatever currency was legal tender notwithstanding provisions in the bonds that they should be paid in gold. The resolution declared that these provisions for gold payment obstructed "the power of Congress to regulate the value of the money of the United States." Following the signing of the resolution the President ordered that all gold coin and all gold certificates should be surrendered by their owners in exchange for other forms of currency, with penalties for disobedience. The constitutionality of the resolution was disputed and the issue was taken to the Supreme Court. That court held that Congress had power to invalidate the gold clause in private bonds but that the invalidation in government bonds was unconstitutional.

The resolution changed the policy of the government laid down after the free-silver presidential campaign of 1896 when Congress provided that all national currency should be redeemable in specie, that is, in gold. There was no question about the payment of Government bonds in gold. The gold content of the dollar had been the same for about a hundred years. The same Congress which repealed the gold clause in bonds authorized the President to reduce the gold content of the dollar by not more than 50 per cent. In accordance with this authority he reduced it a fraction more than 40 per cent.

JUNE SIXTH

D-DAY

On June 6, 1944, the greatest amphibious force in history, composed of American, British, Canadian and Allied troops, landed in Normandy, starting the final campaign against Germany in World War II which led to her unconditional surrender on May 8, 1945. Thousands of troops from an armada of warships and parachutes covered a stretch of more than a hundred miles of beaches from Le Havre to Cherbourg. The main landings were made in the Bay of Cherbourg, at Bernieres, north of Caen, and near Le Havre on the Seine estuary. The first forty-nine days were passed in securing and enlarging the beachhead, prior to the smashing offensives which later swept across France to the Westwall and on to Berlin, the whole operation of the invasion being an extraordinary and spectacular military feat.

The first report of the long-awaited event reached the United States through the German news agency Transocean, in a broadcast announcing that the Allies were landing at Havre and a naval battle was in progress in the English Channel. There was no Allied confirmation, but the New York *Times* of June 6 departed from its usual conservative format with a three-line, eight-column display of "scareheads" repeating the Transocean broadcast. The national radio networks stood by to confirm the

report, all programs, even those sponsoring the highest-paid comedians and other performers, being subject to interruption without warning. Throughout America people talked of little else, in the homes, on the street, in stores, and in offices, where business was disrupted by the day-long suspense. Led by President Roosevelt over the radio at ten that evening, the entire country joined in a solemn prayer for the success of the invasion. General Dwight D. Eisenhower's communique from London was the first official announcement and gave the brief facts of the landings with no details, but it was greeted with a triumphant burst of sirens and whistles, and a general public demonstration. The Liberty Bell in Philadelphia was rung six times, and the New York *Times* of June 7 again displayed scareheads proclaiming that Hitler's seawall had been breached and the invaders were fighting inland while the Nazis expected still further landings.

More than four thousand ships, exclusive of smaller landing craft, participated in the tremendous undertaking, and the largest airborne force ever employed was landed with remarkably low losses. Radar was used by the Allies to counterfeit the approach of ships and planes at false locations and the Germans were thus confused, the actual landings taking them completely by surprise. Allied short wave radio stations in the United States, England, North Africa and Italy were coordinated early on the morning of June 6 for an unprecedented propaganda campaign directed at Germany and the occupied countries. At the hour of invasion the broadcasting facilities were linked together in an international chain to insure a maximum audience for General Eisenhower's statement to the people of Western Europe. Subsequently transmissions were made in twenty-two languages on a twenty-four-hour basis.

In comparison with the D-Day invasion, Philip of Spain's armada, which struck terror to the hearts of Elizabethan Englishmen before its destruction by a providential storm, was a puny force. The operation by which the continent of Europe was successfully invaded in the teeth of a formidable and strongly entrenched enemy will probably remain unique in the annals of history for a long time to come.

JUNE SEVENTH

BOONE DAY

The Kentucky State Historical Society has for many years celebrated June 7, the anniversary of the day when Daniel Boone "first saw the beautiful level of Kentucky" in 1769. He had been preceded by Dr. Thomas Walker (see Kentucky Statehood Day, June 1). He entered the state by the Cumberland Gap which Dr. Walker had named for the Duke of Cumberland.

The AMERICAN BOOK OF DAYS

A COMPENDIUM OF INFORMATION ABOUT HOLIDAYS, FESTIVALS, NOTABLE ANNIVERSARIES AND CHRISTIAN AND JEWISH HOLY DAYS WITH NOTES ON OTHER AMERICAN ANNIVERSARIES WORTHY OF REMEMBRANCE

By
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MEMBER OF THE HISTORICAL SOCIETY OF PENNSYLVANIA

Revised by
HELEN DOUGLAS COMPTON

As it is the commendation of a good huntsman to find game in a wild wood, so it is no imputation if he hath not caught all.—Plato

THE H. W. WILSON COMPANY
NEW YORK - - - NINETEEN HUNDRED FORTY - EIGHT

Enc Am. V. 29

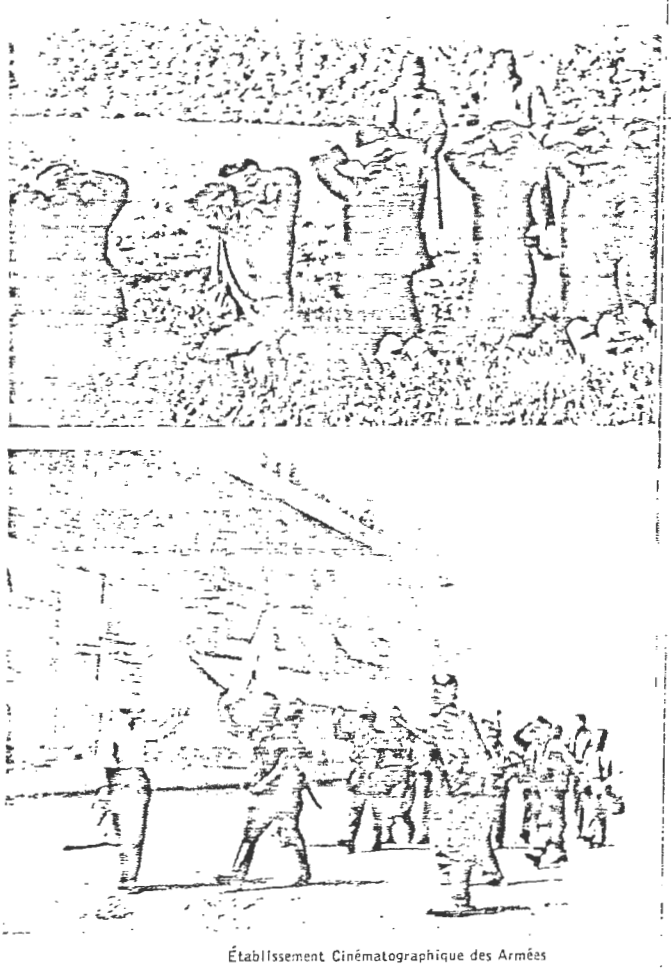
the 1st Corps, across Sword Beach near Lion-sur-Mer. The 6th Airborne Division was to drop northeast of Caen near the mouth of the Orne River to protect the British flank.

The troops making the amphibious landings were to be carried by naval transports to positions 11 miles offshore in the American zone and 7 miles offshore in the British zone. The troops then were to board LCVP's (landing craft, vehicle and personnel) and LCA's (landing craft, assault), each craft carrying about 30 men. The small craft were to go in abreast in waves and touch down at regular intervals along the length of the assault beaches. Following them were to be larger craft carrying heavy weapons, guns, tanks, and engineer equipment. Finally, LST's (landing ships, tank) were to nose onto the beaches and disgorge additional men, equipment, and supplies. Naval fire-support plans emphasized neutralizing enemy positions rather than destroying them. The air forces planned to maintain an umbrella of fighter planes to protect the ground and naval units from German air attacks and also to provide air bombardment to help the ground forces overcome obstacles impeding their progress ashore.

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

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

French Resistance.—Contributing toward the disruption of the railroads and highways in France were the efforts of the French resistance movement that had [illegible]



Établissement Cinématographique des Armées

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

mate the autonomous resistance groups. The culmination of its efforts was the formation of a National Resistance Council, which met for the first time in Paris on May 27, 1943, under the presidency of Jean Moulin. Representing not only the main resistance groups but also the principal political parties, the council recognized de Gaulle and his London headquarters as trustees of the French nation, responsible for founding eventually a French government based on democratic principles. De Gaulle's personal representative, Moulin, became the political leader of the resistance, and the National Resistance Council created an underground army organized on a regional basis. In the following month the Gestapo smashed the organization by making wholesale arrests. Moulin died under torture, and the leadership was decimated. The result was the decentralization of the resistance and its concentration on sabotage and paramilitary action.

Beginning in November 1940, the Special Operations Executive (SOE), a British [illegible]

[illegible] the SOE parachuted 17 radio operators and [illegible] other agents into France.

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

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

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

German Forces.—On the German side, Adolf Hitler exercised direct control over military operations. He was the supreme commander in chief of the armed forces (Wehrmacht). His staff was the High Command of the Armed Forces (*Oberkommando der Wehrmacht* or OKW), headed by Field Marshal Wilhelm Keitel. Under OKW, in theory, were the Air Force High Command (*Oberkommando der Luftwaffe* or OKL), headed [illegible] and the Army [illegible] Germany (*Oberkommando des Heeres* or OKH), headed by Hitler. In actuality, OKH directed the Russian campaign, while OKW was responsible for western Europe.

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

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

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

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

than that due his formal command authority.

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

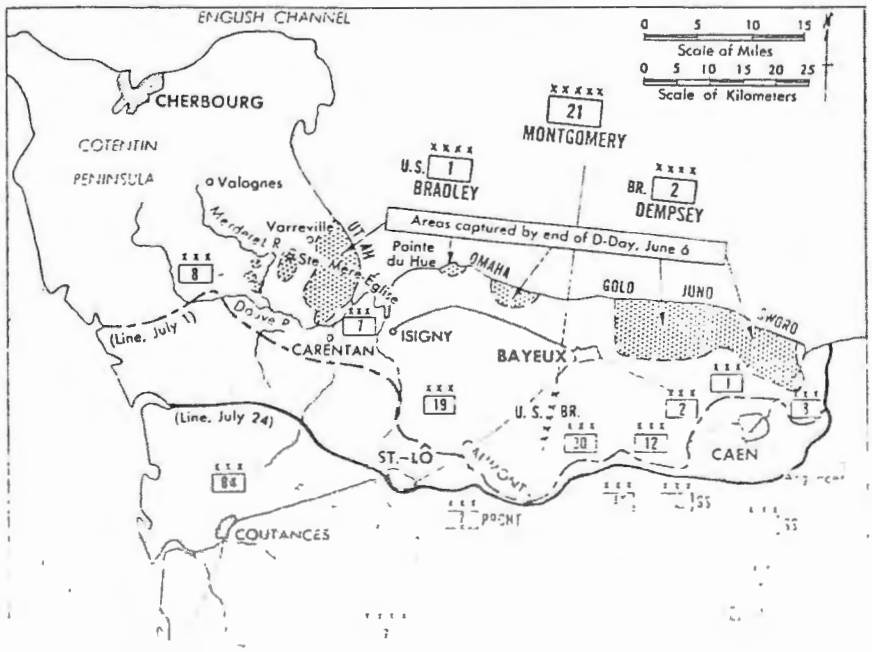
By the time of the invasion a new weapon was ready to be put into operation. This was the air missile called the V-1, for *Vergeltungswaffe* (vengeance weapon). From the Pas-de-Calais area the Germans would begin on June 13 to [illegible] these flying bombs against England and [illegible]lian population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

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

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

INVASION AND CAMPAIGN FOR NORMANDY

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



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

Robert Capa—Magnum

the light of the moon would again have been propitious. In one of the most momentous decisions of the war he decided to proceed despite the unfavorable weather conditions. Meanwhile, the invasion troops had moved to concentration areas in the United Kingdom. There they received special equipment and waterproofed their vehicles. Then they marched to marshaling areas close to the embarkation points, where the troops received additional supplies, maps, and final briefings. About 60,000 men and 6,800 vehicles were scheduled to go ashore on D-day at Omaha Beach and equal numbers at Utah. On D plus 1 and 2, an additional total of 43,500 troops and 6,000 vehicles were scheduled to go ashore at both beaches. Roughly equal numbers were to land on the British beaches. Altogether in the United Kingdom, General Eisenhower had a force of 2,876,000 men, including 45 divisions.

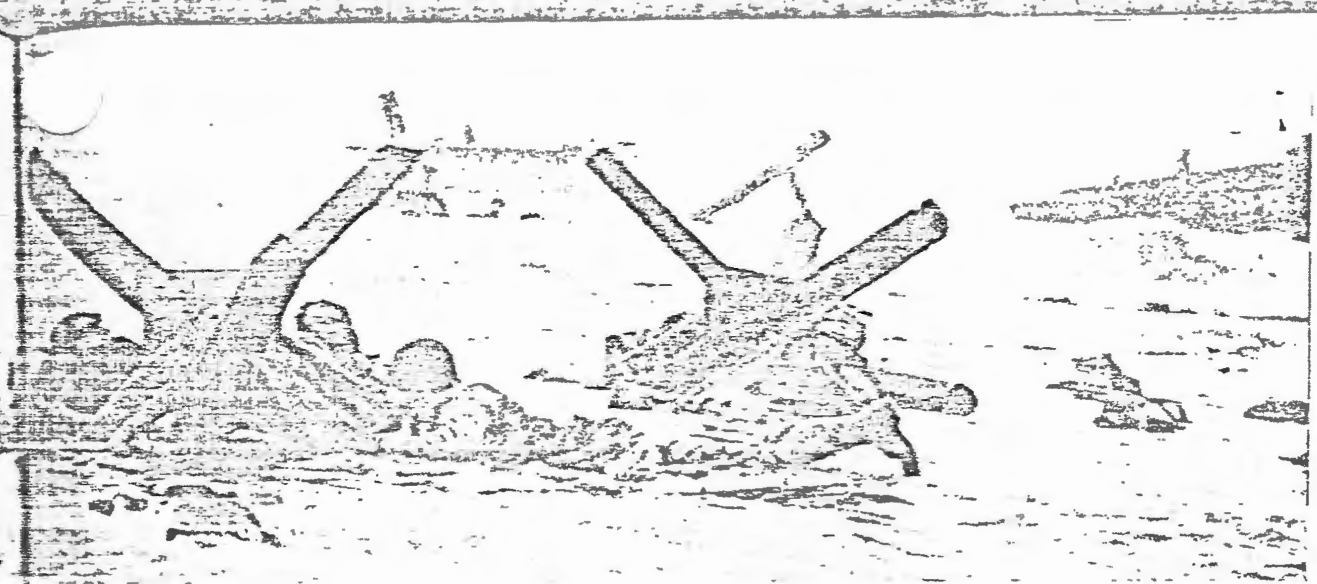
Some 5,000 ships and craft made up the invasion fleet. During the night of June 5, despite a gusty wind blowing at a rate of 15 to 20 knots and churning up waves in mid-Channel as high as five and six feet, the invasion fleet took assigned places in the transport areas off the coast of France in the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

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

At 6:30 A.M., H-hour for the United States beaches, American troops touched down on Omaha and Utah beaches. At Utah the 4th Division under the 7th Corps had little difficulty getting ashore against intermittent artillery shelling. The beach area was cleared in three hours, and the follow-up troops and supplies began to come ashore with little trouble. About 23,000 men landed that day. At Omaha, where the 1st Division of the 5th Corps assaulted with two regiments abreast, high seas, early morning mist, smoke, dust, and a lateral current scattered men and units badly. German fire was exceptionally strong, and many wounded Americans were drowned in the rising tide. In a daring operation two Ranger battalions took out large coastal guns at Pointe du Hoe after scaling cliffs with rope ladders, but after the first three hours of the invasion it appeared for a while that the Omaha invaders had been stopped on the beach. The presence of an elite German infantry division that for three months had escaped Allied intelligence accounted in large measure for the difficulties of the 5th Corps. Only through improvisation and courageous personal leadership were the troops at last able to get off the beach and onto the cliffs beyond. Even then the infantry had very few heavy weapons and no supporting artillery. The beach was congested with disabled and burning vehicles, and the beachhead was a strip of land less than 2 miles deep. Nevertheless, as night fell, 34,000 men were ashore.

Troops of the British Second Army meanwhile began to land at 7:20 A.M. On Gold Beach the advance elements of the 50th Division were pinned down at first by German fire, but gradually they worked their way around the resistance and pushed rapidly inland. By the end of the day they had advanced about 5 miles. The Canadian 3d Division on Juno Beach met even stiffer resistance, but once clear of the beaches the Canadians moved rapidly and by the end of the day had reached the Caen-Bayeux highway. The British 3d Division on the left also met intense opposition on Sword Beach, but by the end of the day linked up with the 6th Airborne Division.

Despite the immense problems at Omaha Beach, the Allies by the end of D-day had established apparently solid footholds on the Continent. Casualties everywhere, including bloody Omaha, were lighter than expected. They were lightest of all at Utah Beach (less than 200), though the airborne divisions behind the beach lost 2,499 men, including 338 known dead and 1,257 missing. At Omaha the Americans lost approximately 2,000 men. British and Canadian casualties were about 4,000.



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

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

Meanwhile, Eisenhower ordered Bradley's First Army to give priority to the task of linking the two American beachheads and of making contact with the British. In compliance with this order the 1st Division pushed eastward to gain contact with the British on June 8, the 29th Division took Isigny on June 9, and the 101st Airborne Division captured Carentan on June 12. With Carentan in hand and the beachheads [illegible]ined, the 7th Corps turned its attention to Cherbourg. Halting further expansion inland of Maj. Gen. (later Gen.) Leonard T. Gerow's 5th Corps, which had taken Caumont and was near the road center and departmental capital of St.-Lô, Bradley on June 13 placed the bulk of the [illegible]oming resources at the disposal of Maj. Gen. [illegible]ter Gen.) J. Lawton Collins' 7th Corps. Dur[illegible] the night of June 17, the 7th Corps cut the [illegible]in Peninsula and [illegible] off Cherbourg [illegible] German [illegible]. Two days later [illegible] began [illegible] toward the [illegible] with [illegible]. Organized resistance [illegible]

Gen.) Troy H. Middleton's 8th Corps also arrived and took control of the forces at the base of the Cotentin Peninsula on June 15. The British had meanwhile captured Bayeux and expanded and enlarged their beachhead, but Caen, a D-day objective, remained out of reach.

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

By July 1, three weeks after the initial landings, the first phase of the invasion came to an end. Almost 1,000,000 men, more than 500,000 tons of supplies, and 177,000 vehicles had been landed in the American and British zones. A total of 27 Allied divisions had arrived on the Continent, and more were about to come. The German's golden opportunity to smash the invasion by decisive counterattack before the Allies were firmly established had passed. German failure to react in strength was attributable to the condition of the French railroads and to unrelenting air attacks that enabled German divisions to reach the battle zone only with utmost difficulty and after serious delays. Units arrived piecemeal, often lacking essential weapons and short of fuel and ammunition. Continuing pressure of Allied attacks then forced German commanders to commit [illegible]

[illegible] from command [illegible] commander in [illegible] the west with [illegible] Marshal Hans [illegible] von Kluge. Rommel, though discouraged, remained. The strategy enunciated by Hitler for the western front was essentially negative: hold fast until miracle weapons might turn the course of the war.

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

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

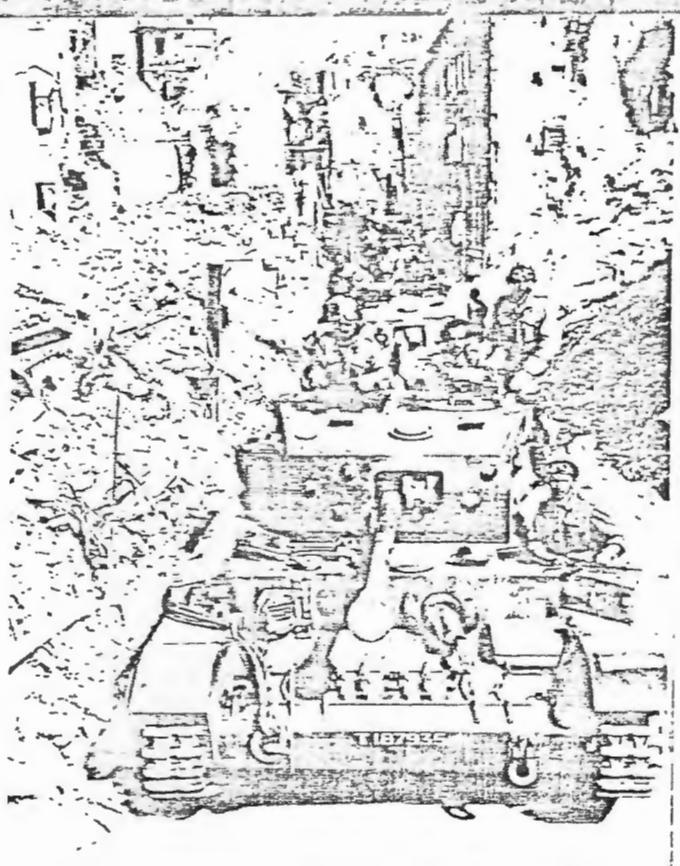
Rommel had on July 17 been eliminated from the battle when an Allied plane strafed his staff car and forced it into a ditch. Suffering a brain concussion, he was taken to a hospital. Kluge assumed his place, commanding both the theater headquarters and Army Group B. Three days later, on July 20, a conspiracy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

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

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

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

Breakout into Brittany.—Middleton's 8th Corps, now under the Third Army, turned west from Avranches and entered Brittany. One armored division drove to Rennes and then to Lorient, another armored division drove to Brest, and an infantry division moved to St.-Malo. The entrance of American troops into Brittany chased mans into the port cities, as well as St.- and Nantes, which Hitler had desig-



Wide World

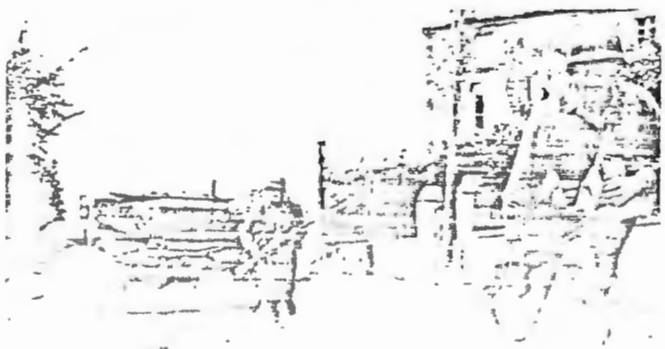
Armored units of the Canadian First Army advance toward Falaise in August 1944 to form the northern arm of an Allied trap for the German Seventh Army.

tember 18. Meanwhile, headquarters of the United States Ninth Army, under Lt. Gen. William H. Simpson, had been committed in Brittany in order to provide control over operations that were increasingly farther behind the main front.

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

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

Etablissement Cinématographique des Armées



[illegible] the port [illegible] they [illegible] decided not to [illegible] constructing the port complex at [illegible], the project code named Chastity, [illegible] by that time Brittany was far removed from the main stage of operations. Early in August, the main Allied armies had swept eastward from Avranches.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

INVASION IN THE SOUTH AND DRIVE TO THE EAST

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

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

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

The success of the Allied invasion was spectacular. On the first day alone, 86,000 men, [illegible] vehicles, and 46,000 tons of supplies were ashore. In [illegible] few days the United States [illegible] from the beaches and [illegible] north [illegible] Route Napoléon [illegible] le [illegible] [illegible]

ended on August 28. On the same day troops of the 6th Corps seized Montélimar, 75 miles up the valley of the Rhone River, but were too late to trap German columns withdrawing from southwestern France. In two weeks the Allies nevertheless had opened two major ports and had taken 57,000 prisoners at a cost of only 4,000 French and 2,700 American casualties. American and French columns soon were matching the sweeping advances in northern France. French resistance forces swarming from the mountains aided the drive materially. As Lyon fell on September 3, the Allied forces turned northeastward toward the Belfort gap. On September 11, patrols from the southern force met patrols of Eisenhower's northern force near Dijon. Four days later, the troops in the south, organized now as the Sixth Army Group under the command of General Devers and composed of the United States Seventh and French First armies, came under General Eisenhower's command.

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

Pursuit Toward the German Frontier.—In the meantime, the main Allied armies in the north, having captured Paris and jumped the Seine on August 25, continued to pursue the Germans across northern France and Belgium toward the German border. In preinvasion planning, General Eisenhower had decided to advance against Germany on a broad front. He planned to make his main effort in the north through Belgium, passing Montgomery's Twenty-first Army Group to the north of the barrier of the forested Ardennes region of Belgium and Luxembourg along the most direct route to the Ruhr industrial area, the vast collection of coal mines and factories which was the main source of German industrial strength. Bradley's Twelfth Army Group was to advance south of the Ardennes through a lesser industrial area, the Saar. Yet as the extent of the German defeat became apparent, Eisenhower yielded to persistent demands from Montgomery to strengthen the forces in the north. Leaving Patton's Third Army to advance alone south of the Ardennes, he ordered Bradley to send Hodges' First Army north of the barrier alongside the British flank. This, Eisenhower reasoned, would speed Montgomery's capture of ports along the Channel, including the great port of Antwerp (Antwerpen). Another big port was essential to continued advance into Germany, for Brest, Cherbourg, and even Le Havre soon would be far behind the front. As General Crerar's Canadian First Army invested the minor Channel ports, Montgomery's troops dashed into Brussels (Bruxelles) on September 3 and the next day seized Antwerp. In the process British and Canadians overran the V-1 launching sites which had been [illegible]

Enc Am

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DE GAULLE, də gōl', **Charles** (1890–1970), president of France, who was the leader of the Free French movement during World War II and the chief architect of the Fifth Republic.

Charles André Joseph Marie de Gaulle was born in Lille, France, on Nov. 22, 1890, the son of a teacher of philosophy and literature at a Jesuit college. From early childhood he took a keen interest in reading. Fascinated by history, he formed an almost mystical conception of service to France.

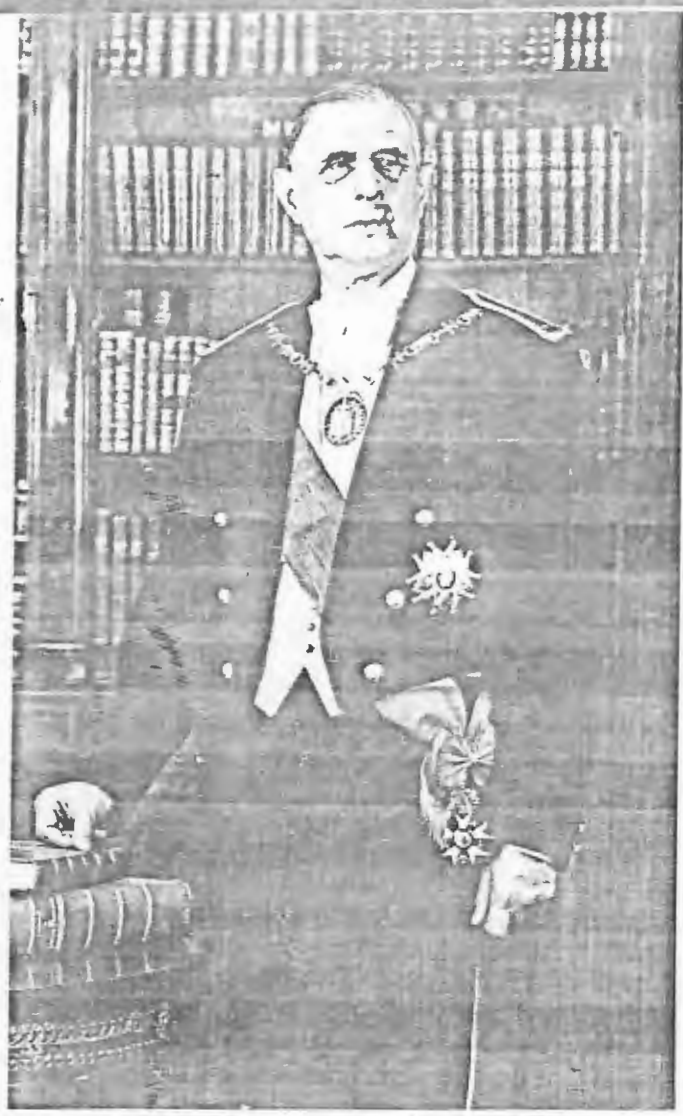
De Gaulle graduated from the École Militaire of Saint-Cyr in 1912 and joined an infantry regiment. In World War I he was wounded and captured at Douaumont in the Battle of Verdun in March 1916. As a war prisoner, he wrote his first book, published in 1924, *La discorde chez l'ennemi*. After the armistice he served on the staff of Gen. Maxime Weygand's military mission to Poland and then taught military history at Saint-Cyr. He served on Marshal Henri Philippe Pétain's staff, then with the French army occupying the Rhineland, and later in Lebanon.

In the 1930's de Gaulle wrote various books and articles on military subjects that marked him as a gifted writer and an imaginative thinker. In 1931 he published *Le fil de l'épée* (Eng. tr., *The Edge of the Sword,* 1960), an analysis of military and political leadership. He also published *Vers l'armée de métier* (1934; Eng. tr., *The Army of the Future,* 1941) and *La France et son armée* (1938; Eng. tr., *France and Her Army,* 1945). He urged the creation of a mechanized army with special armored divisions manned by a corps of professional specialist soldiers. Armored mobility and air power, he argued, would provide better defenses than fixed fortifications such as the Maginot Line. His theories were rejected by the military and by left-wing leaders who saw professional armies as a potentially dangerous political weapon.

Free French Leader. At the outbreak of World War II, de Gaulle was a colonel commanding a tank regiment in Alsace. In May 1940, at the time of the German offensive, he was promoted to brigadier general and placed in charge of the hastily formed 4th Armored Division, which helped check the German advances under desperate conditions. On June 6, 1940, Premier Paul Reynaud, who for many years had championed de Gaulle's ideas in the Chamber of Deputies, appointed him undersecretary of state for war. De Gaulle was one of the few in the cabinet to resist surrender and to propose that the government withdraw if necessary to North Africa to continue the struggle. When Marshal Pétain, who was committed to an armistice with the Germans, became premier, de Gaulle left for London. On June 18 he broadcast the first of his appeals to his compatriots to continue the struggle.

He soon became the very symbol of the entire Resistance, even though the exiled armed forces at his disposal were few in number. He impressed upon British Prime Minister Winston Churchill the significance of the movement but did not succeed in impressing the highly skeptical leaders in Washington—including President Franklin D. Roosevelt, who thought of him as a potential dictator and as an obstacle to U. S. relations with the Vichy regime. In July 1940 a French court martial sentenced de Gaulle to death for treason.

From 1942 on, de Gaulle's Free (or Fighting) French movement gained in power and influence, winning over the French colonies in West Africa, and establishing close ties with the underground Resistance movement in France itself. De Gaulle reiterated his intention to allow the French people to decide their political destiny after liberation and won the backing of many of the former republican political leaders.



DALMAS, FROM PIX

DE GAULLE presents a regal figure in dress uniform with the ribbon and stars of the French Legion of Honor.

In November 1942, when American and British expeditionary forces landed in North Africa, they persuaded Adm. Jean François Darlan, head of the Vichy armed forces and Marshal Pétain's representative in North Africa, to order a cease-fire, in return for which Darlan was named high commissioner for French North Africa. De Gaulle and many segments of the British and American press denounced the step. After Darlan's assassination a month later, the Allies named Gen. Henri Giraud as high commissioner. Seeing his opportunity, de Gaulle moved his headquarters to Algiers in May 1943. He organized the French Committee of National Liberation, with himself and General Giraud as cochairmen, and soon eased out the less adroit Giraud.

By 1944, de Gaulle was widely recognized as political leader of the Resistance movement. In June 1944 he transformed the Committee of National Liberation into a provisional government

FRENCH EMBASSY PRESS AND INFORMATION DIVISION

GENERAL DE GAULLE triumphantly enters Paris after its liberation by the Allies on August 25, 1944.

of the French republic. Although he was not permitted to land on D-Day, he arrived on French soil a week later on June 14 and on August 25 he entered Paris in triumph.

Head of the Provisional Government. After the war, de Gaulle was unanimously elected president of the provisional government in October 1945. Representing the newly restored political parties and the Resistance groups, his provisional government carried out the spirit of the Resistance programs, instituting a number of far-reaching economic reforms, including the nationalization of various industries and the inauguration of plans for economic modernization. The country could not agree on a new constitution, however, and two successive constituent assemblies had to be elected.

While the constitution was still being debated, President de Gaulle grew impatient with the role played by the political parties and with the subordination of the executive branch to the legislature. He had already let it be known that he favored a constitution that would provide for a strong executive and a stable government. In January 1946 he resigned precipitously.

Retirement and Recall. De Gaulle disapproved of the constitution of the Fourth Republic, adopted in October 1946, and he returned to his country home at Colombey-les-Deux-Églises to write his war memoirs. He made a renewed political effort in 1947 by organizing the Rassemblement du Peuple Français (Rally of the French People), a national coalition "above parties," which the left viewed as an authoritarian threat to democratic institutions. The organization had little success, and de Gaulle again withdrew from politics in May 1953 to complete the three volumes of his brilliant war memoirs: *L'appel* (1954; Eng. tr., *The Call to Honor*, 1955), *L'unité* (1956; Eng. tr., *Unity*, 1959), and *Le salut* (1959; Eng. tr., *Salvation*, 1960).

Meanwhile the Fourth Republic, despite economic prosperity, met military disaster in Indochina in 1954 and then faced an insoluble colonial war in Algeria, which began that same year. In the grave crisis that broke out in the spring of 1958, army leaders and European settlers in Algeria staged a mass demonstration in Algiers on May 13, directed against any attempt in Paris to form a government that would make concessions to the Algerian nationalists. Civil war threatened in the continuing crisis, and political leaders of various persuasions turned to de Gaulle as the one person who could avert disaster. On June 1, 1958, the National Assembly named de Gaulle premier and granted him wide emergency powers, including the right to prepare a new constitution to be submitted to a popular referendum. In September 1958 the new constitution, providing for a presidential system, was overwhelmingly adopted by 83% of the electorate.

President of the Fifth Republic. Legislative elections in November 1958 assured a majority for the new Gaullist party (the Union for the New Republic) and other supporters of de Gaulle, and in December 1958 he was elected president of the Fifth Republic by a 78% vote of the electoral college. He was inaugurated in January 1959. Michel Debré became the first premier of the Fifth Republic, but the President retained the decisive voice in all matters involving foreign affairs, national defense, and even key domestic policies. The President also had the power under the constitution to rule by decree in the event of emergency and to dissolve the legislature and hold new elections.

The new government adopted important financial and economic measures to combat inflation and to protect the industrial expansion already under way. It devalued the franc and (for psychological reasons) issued a new franc worth 100 old francs. Modernization plans and state investment in key sectors of the economy were continued. By the 1960's the French economy was experiencing unprecedented rates of growth and remarkable stability.

In international affairs President de Gaulle asserted France's independence of all outside control, calling for policies that would make France and Europe independent of the two superpowers, the United States and the USSR. He refused to admit Britain into his European scheme and blocked Britain's effort to join the European Economic Community (Common Market). In 1960, France showed its strength by successfully exploding its first atomic bomb.

Algerian Settlement. The Algerian War continued after 1958. Abandoning the hope of reconciling Algeria to integration with France, de Gaulle unexpectedly began to speak of independence. The groups that had helped bring him to power with the thought that his views on French grandeur would guarantee the retention of Algeria turned against him in open revolt, and in February 1960 and in April 1961 he had to use emergency powers to put down risings by the European settlers and the military in Algeria. The Secret Army Organization (OAS) resorted to terrorism in Paris and to attempts on his life.

WIDE WORLD

AS FRENCH PRESIDENT, de Gaulle greets Algerians on an inspection tour of their country in 1959. By 1962 he had managed to settle the war that had been raging there for seven years.

In 1962, de Gaulle arranged a cease-fire with the Algerian National Liberation Front, and Algerian independence was approved in a popular referendum in France in April. It was widely conceded even by critics hostile to de Gaulle that he had succeeded in ending a crisis that no other French political leader had been able to resolve. By the early 1960's all other French colonies in Africa had also been granted independence.

Fluctuations in Popularity. In September 1962, de Gaulle's strong-minded domestic rule alienated many in parliament. He proposed that the constitution be amended to permit election of president of the republic by direct popular vote. However, instead of submitting the proposed amendment to the National Assembly first, as the constitution provided, he insisted on putting it directly to the people in a referendum. When the Assembly passed a motion of censure, de Gaulle promptly dissolved it and held new elections. The referendum supported the de Gaulle amendment. The elections in November also resulted in increased strength for the Gaullists. In April 1962, after the Algerian settlement, Michel Debré submitted his resignation as premier and was replaced by Georges Pompidou.

In 1965, de Gaulle was reelected president for a second 7-year term, and he was inaugurated in January 1966, but with a marked decline in prestige. During the election campaign the hitherto muted criticism of his administration burst forth. Despite economic and technological growth, political stability, and a strong foreign policy, resentment was expressed at de Gaulle's excessive nationalism and at the failure of the government to cope with inflation and other economic problems. In the election de Gaulle received only a 44.6% plurality, and a runoff was necessary. He was then elected by a 55% vote.

In the legislative elections of March 1967 the Gaullist coalition won only a narrow victory despite de Gaulle's personal appeal. Political protests and massive economic strikes began, including demonstrations by farmers, and the government had to seek special powers to deal with the slowdown of the economy. Meanwhile the President continued his assertive foreign policy, forcing NATO forces to leave French soil, continuing pose British entry into the Common Market, mning the American war in Vietnam, stirup extremist separatist sentiments in Quebec, nd tending to support the Arabs in their war ith Israel.

Triumph in Adversity—1968. In the spring of 1968 the Gaullist regime faced a stern test. Massive student demonstrations and street fighting in Paris, in which the students occupied the Sorbonne for weeks, sparked a series of gigantic labor strikes—the greatest strike wave in French history—that paralyzed the economy. More than 8 million workers were on strike, over one third of the nation's labor force. The students agitated for reform of the nation's educational system, expansion of educational facilities, and a voice in decision making. The workers demanded a more equitable share in an economy that had been expanding dramatically since the 1950's but was suffering from severe inflation. De Gaulle at first planned a series of reforms to placate the students and labor and to ask backing for his reforms in a referendum. Premier Pompidou, whose government narrowly survived an attempt to censure it in parliament, advised against such a referendum and persuaded the President to dissolve parliament and hold new general elections.

In the election of June 1968, de Gaulle, effectively using the threat of a Communist takeover and gaining the support of many Frenchmen who were frightened by the student excesses, won a landslide victory for his regime. The Gaullist party, the Union for the New Republic, won 358 of the 487 seats, the first time in republican history that any party had won an absolute majority in the legislature. Despite Premier Pompidou's share in the Gaullist victory, the President startled the French people by replacing him with Maurice Couve de Murville in July 1968.

The keynote for the new phase of the Gaullist regime was the building of a "society of participation." Distinct from both capitalism and communism, the new society was pledged to give labor and students a share in the making of decisions that affected their lives and to assure workingmen a share in the profits of industry.

In 1969, de Gaulle submitted proposed constitutional reforms, which would have transformed the Senate into an advisory body and given extended powers to regional councils. When his proposals were defeated, de Gaulle resigned the presidency on April 28 and retired to his home in Colombey-les-Deux-Églises. There he worked on his memoirs, a legendary figure in his own time, until his death on Nov. 9, 1970.

JOEL COLTON, *Duke University*

Further Reading: Lacouture, Jean, *De Gaulle*, tr. by Francis K. Price (New York 1966); Schoenbrun, David, *The Three Lives of Charles de Gaulle* (New York 1966); Viorst, Milton, *Hostile Allies: FDR and Charles de Gaulle* (New York 1965); Werth, Alexander, *De Gaulle: A Political Biography* (New York 1966).

Enc Am - v. 29

and Tunisia.
June 20 loyal Air Force makes first shuttle-bombing raid between England and North Africa.
June 22—United States Eighth Air Force makes its first large-scale daylight raid on Ruhr area.
July 5—Germans launch offensive against Kursk salient.
July 9—Allied forces invade Sicily; German Kursk offensive is checked.
July 12—Russians open major offensive against Orel salient.
July 22—United States Seventh Army takes Palermo, Sicily; Soviet offensive spreads across entire front.
July 24—United States Eighth Air Force makes its first raid on Norway.
Aug. 1—Mass, low-level American air raid is made on Ploeşti, Rumania.
Aug. 5—Russians capture Orel and Belgorod.
Aug. 17—American and British forces converge at Messina, Sicily; United States Eighth Air Force raids Schweinfurt and Regensburg; Royal Air Force attacks German V-weapons experimental center at Peenemünde.
Aug. 23—Germans evacuate Kharkov; Russians attack heavily on Mius River front.
Sept. 3—British Eighth Army forces, crossing from Sicily, land on Italian coast; Italian government signs secret armistice (effective Sept. 8).
Sept. 8—Italian armistice is announced; Italian Fleet and aircraft surrender to Allies.
Sept. 9—British amphibious assault seizes Taranto; Allied forces land at Salerno.
Sept. 11—German counterattacks begin in Salerno area.
Sept. 13—German counterattacks seriously threaten Salerno beachhead.
Sept. 14—German Salerno attacks are contained.
Sept. 17—Germans begin fighting withdrawal from Salerno front; Russians take Bryansk.
Sept. 18–19—Allies occupy Sardinia, following German evacuation.
Sept. 24—Germans evacuate Smolensk and Roslavl.
Oct. 1—Allied forces enter Naples.
Oct. 4—Germans seize Kos, site of only Allied air base in Aegean Sea; Allied forces gain control of Corsica.
Oct. 6—United States Fifth Army reaches Volturno River in Italy.
Oct. 12–13—United States Fifth Army carries out assault crossing of Volturno River.
Oct. 14—United States Eighth Air Force raids Schweinfurt ball-bearing plants.
Nov. 1—Soviet offensive against the Crimea makes progress.
Nov. 5—United States Fifth Army begins assault against Winter Line in Italy.
Nov. 6—Germans evacuate Kiev.
Nov. 12—Russians capture Zhitomir.
Nov. 14—Germans launch counterattack in Zhitomir area (recapture city Nov. 19).
Nov. 15—Attack on Winter Line is halted for regrouping.
Nov. 20—British Eighth Army attacks on Sangro River front in Italy.
Nov. 26—Germans evacuate Gomel.
Dec. 1—United States Fifth Army attacks Winter Line in Liri Valley.
Dec. 2—Luftwaffe makes effective raid on Bari, Italy.
Dec. 14—Russians begin winter offensive.
Dec. 16—Germans evacuate San Pietro Infine, key point in Winter Line.
Dec. 24—United States Eighth Air Force makes major effort against German secret weapon sites.

1944

Jan. 5—Final phase of Winter Line offensive begins in Italy.
Jan. 15—Operations against Winter Line are successfully concluded; Russians launch major surprise offensive on Leningrad front.
Jan. 16—Eisenhower assumes post as supreme commander of Allied Expeditionary Force.
Jan. 22—Allies begin landing at Anzio, Italy; Germans halt Russians around Vitebsk, though Russians continue gains elsewhere.
Jan. 23—Americans are repulsed in attempt to force Rapido River in Italy.
Feb. 3—German counteroffensive against Anzio beachhead begins during night; Allies on main Italian battlefront stall in front of Cassino.
Feb. 6—Soviet offensive in the Ukraine makes great progress near Nikopol.
Feb. 18—Anzio beachhead is under extreme pressure.
Feb. 19—Allied counterattack checks German Anzio offensive.
March 4—German forces around Anzio beachhead go over to the defensive; first American air raid is made on Berlin.
March 13—Soviet troops force Dnieper River and take Kherson.
March 15—Allies make third assault on Cassino. Russians break through German defenses along Bug River.
March 30—Royal Air Force bombing raid on Nürnberg suffers extremely heavy losses.
April 10—Russians recover Odessa.
April 15—Soviet offensive into Poland captures Tarnopol.
May 9—Russians recapture Sevastopol; United States Eighth Air Force begins attacks on German airfields in northern France.
May 11—Allies launch major offensive against Gustav Line in drive for Rome.
May 12—United States Eighth Air Force attacks oil plants in central Germany.
May 13—French Expeditionary Corps penetrates Gustav Line.
May 18—Allies capture Cassino.
May 21—Allied fighter aircraft begin operations against enemy railroads in France and Germany.
May 23—Allied forces in Anzio beachhead begin breakout offensive.
May 30—Loading of Allied assault forces for Operation Overlord is begun.
June 2—United States Fifteenth Air Force begins shuttle bombing between Italian and Soviet bases.
June 3—Combat loading of troops for Operation Overlord is completed.
June 4—Allied forces enter Rome; D-day for Operation Overlord is postponed from June 5 to June 6.
June 6—Operation Overlord begins; Allies land on coast of Normandy.
June 8—American and British beachheads establish contact.
June 9—Russians launch offensive against Finns on Karelian Isthmus.
June 12—Allies capture Carentan in Normandy.
June 17—French force lands on Elba.
June 27—Americans capture Cherbourg.
July 3—United States First Army attacks southward from beachhead (battle of the hedgerows).
July 8—British enter Caen.
July 13—Russians capture Vilnyus.
July 18—United States First Army captures St.-Lô; Soviet offensive is checked at Augustów, but still advances elsewhere.
July 19—United States Fifth Army captures Leghorn.
July 21—Soviet offensive crosses Bug River.
July 25—United States First Army launches major breakout offensive (Operation Cobra).
Aug. 1—United States Twelfth Army Group becomes operational in France; Polish underground forces revolt as Soviet advance nears Warsaw.
Aug. 4—Allied forces in Italy halt along Arno River to regroup for offensive against Gothic Line.
Aug. 7—United States Third Army reaches Brest; Germans launch major counterattack near Mortain; Soviet offensive is generally checked.
Aug. 10—Having halted German Mortain counteroffensive, United States First Army resumes advance.
Aug. 13—Allied forces begin closing Falaise-Argentan pocket.
Aug. 15—United States Seventh Army lands in southern France (Operation Dragoon).
Aug. 16—United States Third Army captures Orléans.
Aug. 19—French underground forces begin Paris uprising.
Aug. 20—Falaise-Argentan pocket is completely closed; United States Third Army crosses Seine near Mantes-Gassicourt; Russians open offensive against Rumania.
Aug. 23—Rumania surrenders unconditionally.
Aug. 25—Allied forces enter Paris; attack on Gothic Line begins in Italy.
Aug. 28—French complete capture of Toulon-Marseille area.
Sept. 1—Gasoline shortage halts United States Third Army; Germans begin withdrawal from Greek mainland and adjacent islands.
Sept. 4—British enter Antwerp; truce is established between the USSR and Finland.
Sept. 6—United States Third Army attacks Moselle River line.
Sept. 7—United States Third Army begins attacks on Metz.
Sept. 9—The USSR grants Bulgaria an armistice.
Sept. 10—Decision is reached to postpone opening Antwerp's port until effort (Operation Market-Garden) has been made to secure a Rhine crossing; United States Third Army begins large-scale Moselle crossing; United States First Army captures city of Luxembourg.
Sept. 11—Patrols from Overlord and Dragoon forces establish contact near Dijon.
Sept. 12—German garrison of Le Havre surrenders; United States First Army reaches West Wall.
Sept. 13—Shuttle bombing between Western and Soviet bases is discontinued.
Sept. 14—United States First Army reaches suburbs of Aachen; United States Third Army surrounds Nancy; Russians capture Warsaw suburb of Praga, and begin offensive in Estonia and Latvia; United States Fifth Army is repulsed in attacks on Gothic Line in Italy.

1 The first and great commandment is, Don't let them scare you. *Ib.*

2 This will remain the land of the free only so long as it is the home of the brave. *Ib.*

3 What makes Western civilization worth saving is the freedom of the mind, now under heavy attack from the primitives . . . who have persisted among us. If we have not the courage to defend that faith, it won't matter much whether we are saved or not. *Ib. 6*

Charles André Joseph Marie de Gaulle
1890–1970

4 The sword is the axis of the world, and grandeur is indivisible.
Le Fil de l'Épée [1934]

5 The perfection preached in the Gospels never yet built up an empire. Every man of action has a strong dose of egotism, pride, hardness, and cunning. But all those things will be forgiven him, indeed, they will be regarded as high qualities, if he can make of them the means to achieve great ends. *Ib.*

6 Nothing great will ever be achieved without great men, and men are great only if they are determined to be so. *Ib.*

7 France has lost a battle. But France has not lost the war.
Broadcast from London to the French people after the fall of France [June 18, 1940]

8 Since those whose duty it was to hold the sword of France have let it fall, I have picked up its broken point.
Radio address [July 13, 1940]

9 If I live, I will fight, wherever I must, as long as I must, until the enemy is defeated and the national stain washed clean.
Les Mémoires de Guerre, vol. I [1954]

10 France cannot be France without greatness. *Ib.*

11 I always thought I was Jeanne d'Arc and Bonaparte. How little one knows oneself.
Reply to speaker who compared him to Robespierre. From Figaro Littéraire [1958]

Dwight David Eisenhower
1890–1969

12 People of Western Europe: A landing was made this morning on the coast of France by troops of the Allied Expeditionary Force. This landing is part of the concerted United Nations plan for the liberation of Europe, made in conjunction with our great Russian allies. . . . I call upon all who love freedom to stand with us now. Together we shall achieve victory.
Broadcast on D-Day [June 6, 1944]

13 Humility must always be the portion of any man who receives acclaim earned in the blood of his followers and the sacrifices of his friends.
Address at Guildhall, London [July 12, 1945]

14 Nothing is easy in war. Mistakes are always paid for in casualties and troops are quick to sense any blunder made by their commanders.
Infantry School Quarterly [April 1953]

15 This conjunction of an immense military establishment and a large arms industry is new in the American experience. . . . We recognize the imperative need for this development. Yet we must not fail to comprehend its grave implications. . . . In the councils of government, we must guard against the acquisition of unwarranted influence, whether sought or unsought, by the military-industrial complex. The potential for the disastrous rise of misplaced power exists and will persist.
Farewell Radio and Television Address to the American People [January 17, 1961]

Sir Alan Patrick Herbert
1890–1971

16 Holy Deadlock.[1]
Title of novel [1934] satirizing the paradoxes of British divorce law

17 The Common Law of England has been laboriously built upon a mythical figure—the figure of "The Reasonable Man."
Uncommon Law [1935], p. 1

18 The critical period in matrimony is breakfast-time. *Ib. p. 98*

[1] Monagony—the state of being married to one person. —Brooks Beck [1963]

UNITED STATES ARMY IN WORLD WAR II

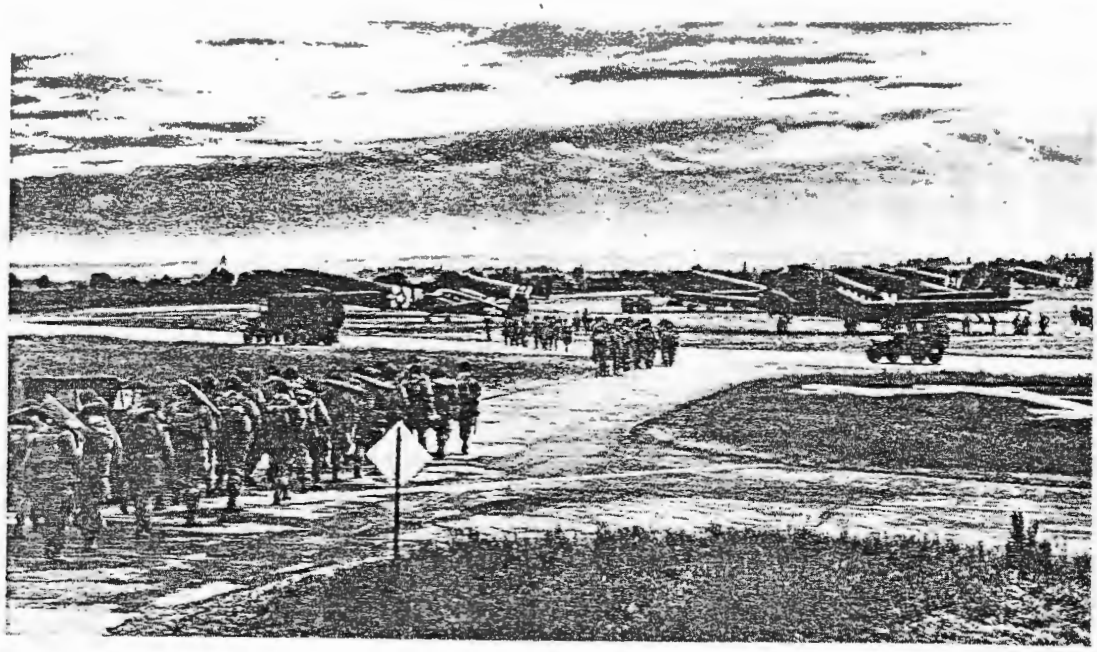
The European Theater of Operations

CROSS-CHANNEL ATTACK

by

Gordon A. Harrison

OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF MILITARY HISTORY
UNITED STATES ARMY
WASHINGTON, D.C., 1951



PARACHUTE TROOPS *marching onto airfield on evening of 5 June.*

formation got through to corps and army as to what was happening.[25]

By the revised VII Corps field order of 28 May both U.S. airborne divisions were to land in the eastern half of the peninsula between Ste. Mère-Eglise and Carentan, establishing a beachhead from which the corps would push west and north to the capture of Cherbourg. The six parachute regiments of the two divisions, which together with organic supporting units numbered over 13,000 men, were loaded in 822 transport planes at nine airfields in England. They began taking off before midnight to fly routes calculated to bring the first serials in from the west side of the Cotentin Peninsula and over the designated drop zones between 0115 and 0130. The main flights were preceded by pathfinder planes that were to land paratroopers to mark the drop zones. Glider reinforcements would be brought in at dawn and again at dusk on landing zones that the paratroopers were expected to have cleared of the enemy. The whole airborne operation was by far the largest and most hazardous ever undertaken, and thousands of American lives depended on its success.[26]

[25] See First Army G–3 Jnl.

[26] Allied airborne operations required 1,087 transport aircraft including lift for the pathfinders but excluding aircraft used to tow gliders. See AEAF Memo, Operation "NEPTUNE," Employment of British and American Airborne Forces, 27 May 44. SHAEF G–3 file 24533/Ops (Future Operations). Pathfinders of the 101st Airborne Division began dropping at 0015; the first serial of combat troops was scheduled to drop at 0119. See Leonard Rapport and Arthur Norwood, Jr., *Rendezvous with Destiny* (Washington, 1948), pp. 73, 94.

Records of airborne operations in the Cotentin are very sketchy; those of the 101st Airborne Division in particular are all but useless. The narrative following is based on a set of comprehensive interviews

WORLD WAR II · TIME-LIFE BOOKS · ALEXANDRIA, VIRGINIA

BY DOUGLAS BOTTING
AND THE EDITORS OF TIME-LIFE BOOKS

THE SECOND FRONT

mid-Channel minefield. The fleet was protected against German U-boats and torpedo boats by Navy and Air Force patrols and by a day-and-night umbrella of fighter planes. The ships took up their final order of battle as the sun began to dip in the sky. By 8 p.m. the leading minesweepers were off the Normandy coast at Cap Barfleur. At 10 p.m. the crewmen could pick out houses on the dark shore. Not a single German gun had been fired.

That afternoon, as the seaborne armada built up at its assembly point, the men of the Allied airborne forces spent their final hours in England in compulsory rest. Their last letter home had been written, their last briefing attended, their last check made, their parachutes fitted, their heavy equipment loaded on the planes and gliders that were to take them to Normandy to open the Second Front. Late in the afternoon, in sealed camps all over southern England, they lined up for their last hot meal. Then the paratroopers, British and American alike, loaded themselves up with 85 to 100 pounds of gear to meet every imaginable contingency.

As the evening light began to fade, nearly 20,000 men of the British 6th Airborne Division and the U.S. 82nd and 101st Airborne Divisions were driven out to 22 scattered airfields, where almost 1,200 transport aircraft (mainly C-47 Dakotas) and more than 700 gliders were assembled for the greatest airborne assault in history. General Eisenhower drove out to watch some units of the 101st prepare to take off from their base near Newbury. Ike's old friend and aide, Captain Harry Butcher, later wrote: "We saw hundreds of paratroopers, with blackened and grotesque faces, packing up for the big hop and jump. Ike wandered through them, stepping over packs, guns, and a variety of equipment such as only paratroops can devise, chinning with this and that one." Going the rounds at other airfields, British Air Marshal Leigh-Mallory found the troops "grim and not frightfully gay," but he had no doubt of their determination to do the job. Last-minute prayer services were held at every base.

Between 10 p.m. and midnight on June 5, paratroopers at English airfields stubbed out their cigarettes, drained their mugs of coffee or tea and took their seats in the aircraft. "Now the whole field is shaking with the roar of motors," wrote Private First Class David K. Webster of the American 506th Parachute Infantry. "Our tail swings around. We wheel about and head up the runway. My legs are weak and my throat is dry and I can only talk in a stuttering whisper. With a soft rush we leave the ground."

Transport planes, bombers and gliders began to fill the night sky, their red and green navigation lights blinking fitfully. An American paratrooper peered out the open door of his transport; "I could hardly see the sky for the planes," he said later "—there just was not room for more." For hours the stream of aircraft droned above the darkened towns and fields of southern England, and sleeping people were awakened by the throaty rumble of the mighty air armada as it passed overhead.

Aboard the leading British planes flew the pathfinders who would mark the way for the main airborne forces. In addition to the normal heavy load, each man carried a 60-pound kit bag attached to his leg containing lights and beacons with which to define the glider landing zones (LZs) and paratroopers' drop zones (DZs). The pathfinders were scheduled to drop at 15 minutes past midnight. At the same time, the first British combat forces, in six gliders, would go into action. These were five platoons of the 2nd Battalion Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire Light Infantry (known as "the Ox and Bucks") and a company of Royal Engineers. They had been assigned the task of capturing the bridges of the Caen Canal and Orne River, which guarded the eastern flank of the invasion beachhead.

The gliders carrying the Ox and Bucks ran into gusty wind on reaching the English Channel, and they began to pitch and yaw on the ends of their towropes. They were flying through ragged clouds, and at times the pilots could see nothing but the taillights of the towplanes and the rain spattering on the cockpit windows. But occasionally the clouds parted to reveal a scudding full moon and, far below, the dark, stormy Channel, flecked with the white arrowhead wakes of innumerable ships. The seaborne armies were right on schedule for their landings, to begin at 6:30.

Soon after midnight, the British pathfinders and glider troops saw below them the white, curving shore of France and two ribbons of water mirrored in the moonlight—the Orne River and the Caen Canal. At 12:18 a.m. the six aircraft carrying the pathfinders came over their targets beyond the east bank of the Orne. The first planeload of paratroopers jumped into space. At the same time, 5,000 feet above the

A HISTORY OF THE AIRBORNE

Albert Gareth Alderton

Submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts
in the Faculty of History
Amherst College

January 1951

clouds once over the western coast of the peninsula, a blind dive to about four hundred feet or to what seemed treetop level to get under them, streams of many colored tracer bullets from German machine guns, and evasive action by the pilot so violent that it was impossible to stand up without holding on to the anchor line (the cable running head-high down the ship to which the parachute-opening static lines are hitched). A plane to our left caught fire and veered off burning. Our pilot - to his great credit - levelled off, slowed down, and gave us the green light and emergency bell. This loud bell was barely audible to any of us standing near the door.

In the D-day landings 1,662 aircraft and 512 gliders of the United States IX Troop Carrier Command and 733 aircraft and 355 gliders of the 38th and 46th Groups of the Royal Air Force participated. While the Americans used C-47's and Waco gliders exclusively, the British were hampered by an assortment of gliders and aircraft, including converted bombers. Most of their men landed in the large twenty-three passenger Horsas while the Hamilcars brought in stores and tanks, the latter for the first time.[1]

On the British flank two glider raids, similar to early German "coups de main," preceded the three main landings

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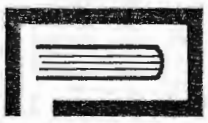
1. Shugg and DeWeerd, op. cit., pp. 290-292.

OUT of the BLUE

U.S. Army Airborne Operations in World War II

by James A. Huston



Purdue University Studies
West Lafayette, Indiana
1972

approximately 17,400 paratroopers and gliderborne troops had been landed in Normandy; C-47 transport aircraft had flown 1,672 sorties, with a loss of 43 airplanes, and a total of 517 gliders participated in the effort, and by D plus 6, approximately 90 percent of the glider pilots involved had been returned to Great Britain or had been reported safe elsewhere.[38] Landing losses to aircraft and personnel amounted to less than 10 percent rather than the 75 to 80 percent which Leigh-Mallory had predicted.

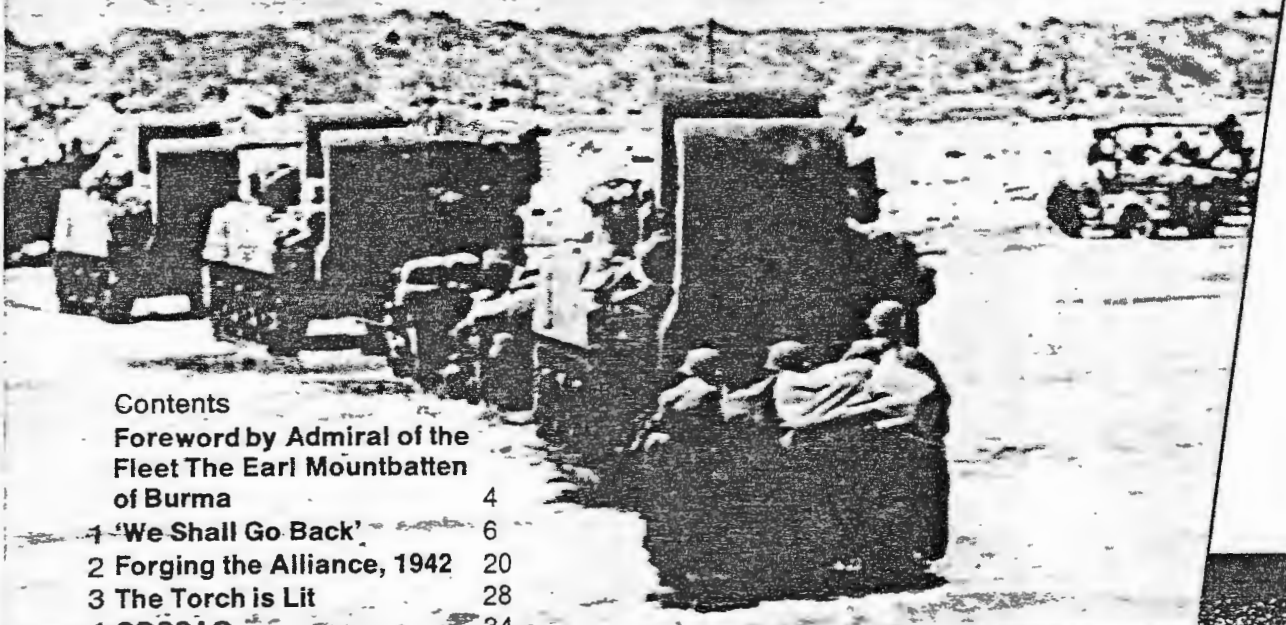
Airborne forces fought continuously for thirty-three days in a ground role until they were relieved on 8 July.

For the skeptical perhaps the Normandy operation was a convincing demonstration that the employment of airborne troops on a large scale was a feasible undertaking. But for airborne enthusiasts it doubtless was a disappointment. True, the airborne units had taken their major objectives, but divisions had not been able to function as such before twenty-four to forty-eight hours after landing. Leaders could see a need for more effective joint training and planning. Colonel Bidwell, who participated in the operation as an official War Department observer, reported:

> In accordance with decision made in March, 1944, all airborne troops were used during this operation directly to assist the inland progress of the beach landing assault troops. To accomplish this, the airborne troops were called upon to land in the midst of a well-organized defensive position. Transports and gliders were under practically continuous fire and broke formation. Airborne units were badly scattered and intermingled on landing. The majority of the men had no opportunity to secure their heavy arms and equipment. In spite of all this, the operation was a success. It succeeded, however, only because the airborne troops slugged it out with the defenders and had no thought other than to achieve eventual victory. Two reinforced U.S. airborne divisions (82d and 101st), reorganized for this particular operation, and one reinforced British airborne division (6th) were committed.[39]

On the basis of this operation Colonel Bidwell recommended that the airborne division be retained as a special organization, but that the table of organization be revised to provide for two parachute regiments and one glider regiment in each case until a division should be earmarked for a theater, when it should be reorganized according to the wishes of the theater commander. A shortcoming in the operation had been the lack of direct support combat aviation. Communications for air support requests had not been effective, and this was a particularly serious matter for airborne divisions inasmuch as they could not depend upon mass artillery support during the first hours of an operation. He urged that a study be made of direct air support. Again recommendations were for troop carrier aircraft to be equipped with self-sealing gasoline tanks and some

Designed by Paul Watkins
Picture Research by
Jonathan Moore and Judy Harkison
Maps by Richard Natkiel



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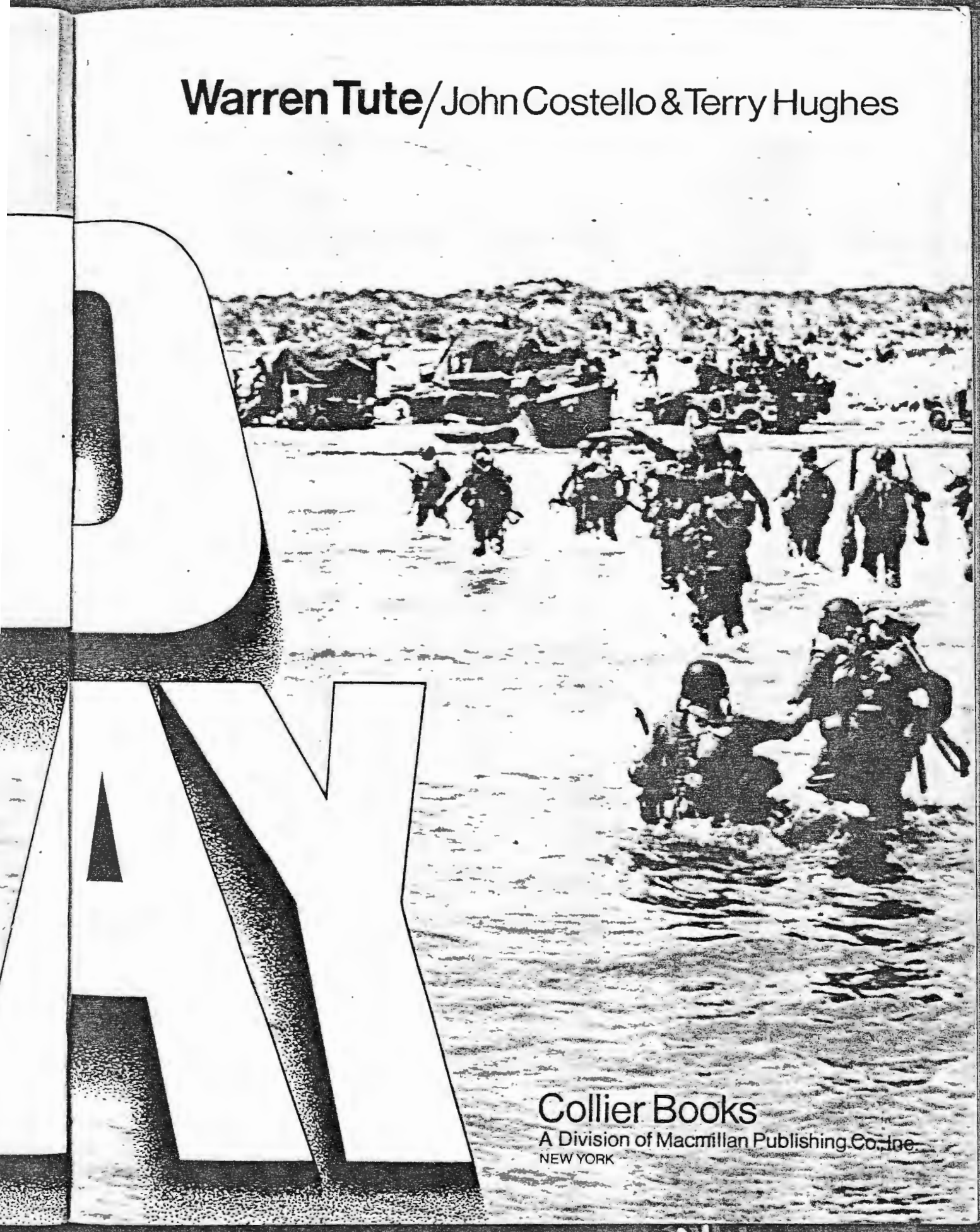
Warren Tute/John Costello & Terry Hughes



Collier Books
A Division of Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.
NEW YORK

Assault from the Sky

The assault on Hitler's fortress would begin with the largest airborne operation in history. Pre-invasion training was intensive

Below left: Many of the paratroops were to be landed by glider. Here a British unit of the Red Berets prepares for a training exercise

Right: Mass parachute drops were rehearsed over Salisbury Plain in daylight. Later, the 'real thing' would take place at night

Below right: Airborne forces 20,000 strong would be ferried to France in 1,400 transport aircraft and 3,500 gliders. Loaded up with heavy equipment, paratroops make the best of the confined space

This figure is wrong

ATLAS OF THE SECOND WORLD WAR

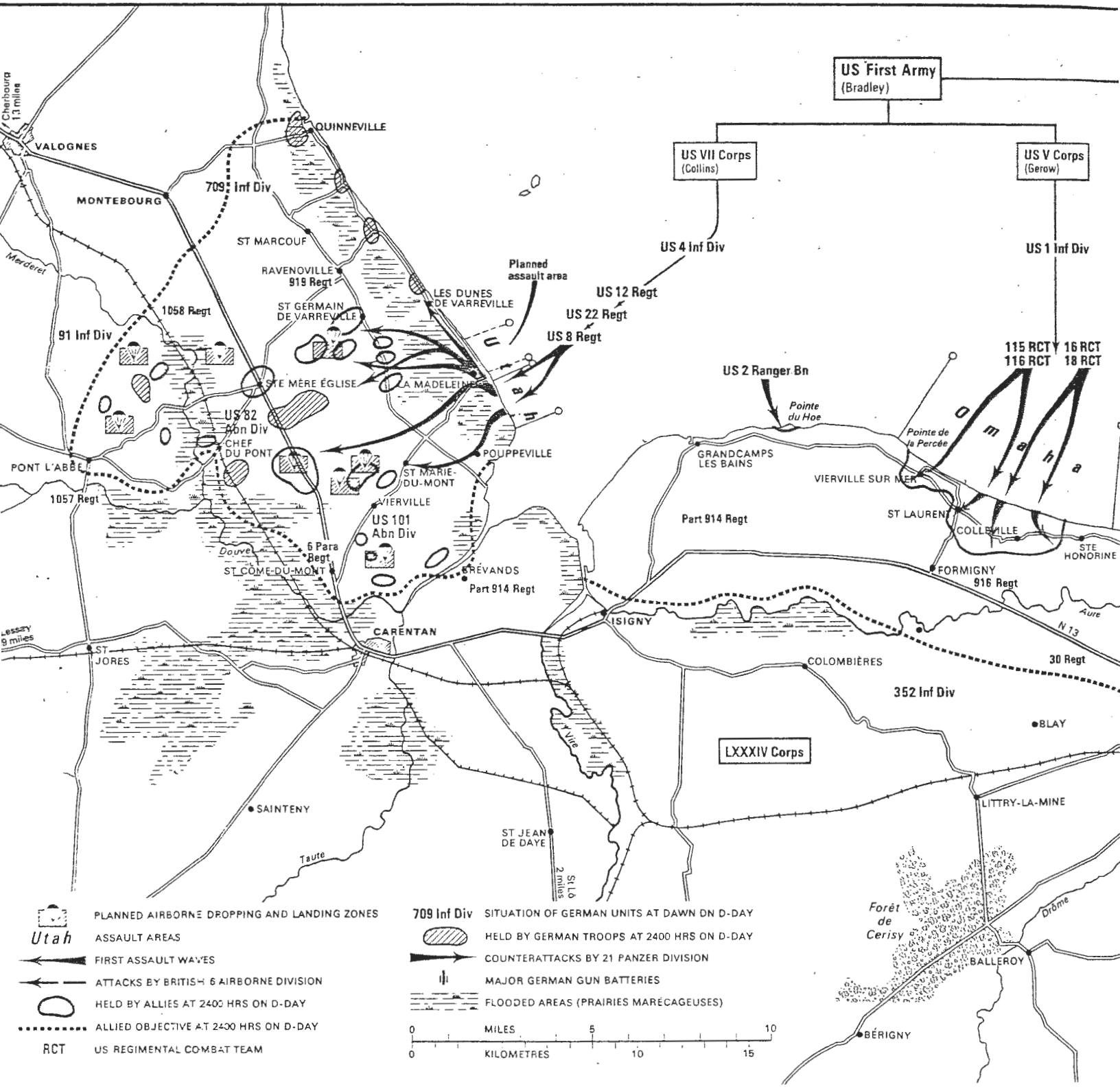
EDITED BY BRIGADIER PETER YOUNG
CARTOGRAPHY BY RICHARD NATKIEL

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS NEW YORK

D-DAY

June 1944 opened with cold weather and high winds, a serious matter to the Allied planners. There were only a few days in each month on which the optimum conditions of moon and tide for the landings occurred, and the first week of June formed such a period. Command of the Overlord operation had been assumed by General Eisenhower earlier in the year, and the landing forces themselves were commanded by General Montgomery. The naval forces were commanded by Admiral Ramsay, and the air forces by Air Marshal Leigh Mallory.

Taking advantage of a break in the weather the landings went ahead on 6 June. Some 4,000 ships carried 176,000 troops and their material; 600 warships escorted the force; and 2,500 bombers and 7,000 fighter-bombers 'softened-up' the beaches and combed the skies. At 0200 hours the American and British airborne forces were dropped or landed on their targets. Tactical surprise was complete, and both airborne forces were able to consolidate a position. At 0314 hours the aircraft bombardment of the beaches began, augmented at 0550 hours by the guns of the 600 escorting warships. At 0630 hours the first waves went ashore (see map). In the west the US First Army tackled Utah beach



MEMORANDUM

THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

Kim Holien
DOD - Historical
272-0314

May 27, 1982

TO: Mari

FROM: Julie

RE: D-Day Information

*Casualties on D-day: (includes dead, wounded, missing)

American	6603
Canadian	946
British	3000
	10547

*Troops that landed on D-day: (6 a.m. to midnight)

American	70,500 (57,000 by land, 13,000 by air)
Brit., incl. Canadian	83,115
	153,615

*Americans buried in French soil:

WWI	30,084
WWII	30,425
TOTAL:	60,509

*American Battle Monuments in France:

WWII: Normandy Cemetery (9,386 Americans buried)
Brittany Cemetery (4,410)
Lorraine (10,489)
etc.

Col Ryan
272-0537
Am Battle Monuments Commission

*Quote: to come.....

Ships
5000 troops

Planes
10,000 fighters - 7000
bombers 2500
troop transports - 500

65 miles of beachfront
60-70

517
355
872 gliders
1200
2072

1400 @ 1200
700 3500

Polish Cult. Ctr.

MEMORANDUM

THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

Craig Dooge Lot 0314
287-5108

Kim
1249
1200

D-Day Casualties

Am - 6,603
Can - 946
Brit - 3,000

26
1,928
3,184
1,465

Kim Holien
DOD - Historical
272-0314

Am — 70,500 landed airborne & on beaches — (13,000)
6AM - Midnight
Brit & Can - 83,115

60,000 American lives - Normandy

Am Battle Monuments Commission
Col. Ryan
272-0537

WW I / WW II } 60,509 TOTAL

WWI 30,084
WWII 30,425

WWI
Brest - (Naval)
Flanders field
Somme

WWII
- Pointe Du Hoc
Normandy Beach
Normandy Cemetary
9,386

Lorraine
10,489

Cemetary Britany
4,410

Ipinal
5,255

Rhone
861

View

Kim -
Casualties
means
wounded & dead?

MEMORANDUM

D Day - Role of French

THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

But still it was only a relative handful of brave men and women who were sabotaging Nazi-run munition factories, tying up German troops, cutting communication lines, and supplying the Allies with quantities of info on the enemy.

What counts is that thousands did go underground and join the fight despite the terrible risk, causing Hitler no end of trouble, and unquestionably hastening the day of Allied victory.

American Heritage Picture History of World War II
David G. McCullough
P. 464

Very good, Mari! DB

(Maseng/AB)
May 27, 1982
3:00 p.m.

TAPING: D-DAY MESSAGE FOR FRENCH TELEVISION
JUNE 6, 1982

I bring to France ~~this month~~ greetings and best wishes from the American people. ~~We are resolved to continue to work for~~ I carry ~~their hopes~~ for continued Western unity to secure a prosperous and lasting peace. I have come to express ~~their~~ our commitment to policies that will renew economic growth.

But today touches French and American memories in a special way. It brings to mind thoughts quite apart from the pressing issues being discussed at the Economic Summit in Versailles. On this day 38 years ago, ~~we were~~ our two peoples were united in an epic ~~struggle against~~ were battling to regain their foothold tyranny.

In 1944, as World War II raged, the Allies ~~had been pushed~~ fought on from the Continent. The French Resistance ~~was fighting~~ valiantly -- disrupting communications and sabotaging supply lines -- but the Nazi's held Europe in a stranglehold and Field Marshal Rommel was building his Atlantic Wall along France's coast.

Late the night of June 5, as fog enshrouded the Normandy coastline, ~~more than~~ ten thousand planes took off from English fields to drop soldiers by parachute behind enemy lines. By the early hours of June 6, the massive Allied armada -- ~~nearly 3,000~~ more than 2500 five thousand ships -- had begun to move across the cold and choppy water of the English Channel. D-Day had begun.

The code names Omaha, Utah, Gold, Juno and Sword are now indelibly etched in history by the blood spilled on that 100-mile stretch of beach. More than 150,000 Allied troops stormed Normandy that day and by nightfall had established beachheads at each of the five invasion points. The toll was high: more than 10,500 of our young men were either dead, wounded or missing. Endless rows of simple white crosses mark their seacoast graves, the rusty helmets still buried in the sand, and the ships and tanks still lying off the shore are testaments to their sacrifices.

By the end of World War II, more than 60,000 Americans had been buried in France. Today we remember them, honor them and pray for them. But we also remember what they gave us.

D-Day was a success -- and the Allies had breached Hitler's seawall. They swept into Europe, liberating towns and cities and countrysides until the Axis powers were finally crushed. We remember D-Day because the French, British, Canadians and Americans fought shoulder to shoulder for democracy and freedom, and won.

During the war a gallant French leader, Charles de Gaulle, inspired his countrymen, organizing and leading their resistance. He entered Paris in triumph, liberating that city at the head of a column of Allied troops -- a victory made possible by the heroes of Normandy.

"Nothing great will ever be achieved without great men, and men are great only if they are determined to be so," de Gaulle

said. Ours was a great alliance of free people determined to remain so. I believe it still is.

The freedom we enjoy today was secured by great men at a very high cost. Today let us remember their courage, and pray for the guidance and strength to do what we must so that no generation is ever asked to make so great a sacrifice again.

Thank you very much.

May 26, 1982

TO: Mari

FROM: Julie

RE: French TV: D-Day Taping

General guidelines from NSC:

Make it a "bell-ringer"; an RR piece. No specifics on policy e.g. arms control. Historical look back, with the present lesson being that of prevention of any such tragedy again. This achieved through deterrence. Stress our continued commitment to the defense of Europe. Note that it is really a selfless desire for peace (ours) -- e.g. after WWII we rec'd no new territory . . .

Before you scream, take a look at attached remarks. We can use the standard lines about "4 wars in my lifetime...", and bleeding lives into the soil. Really, just standard RR material -- if we give him the basics, he'll take it from there if he wants.

MEMORANDUM

Dennis

THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

Bell-ringer

, 4 wars

US is here because we don't want another D-day

deterrence — continue — commitment

Present Lesson

Eloquence about

blood shed

Reca no new territory

Our only goal - more peaceful

Present

deterrence

Shaun McManus

Eric Rosenburger

Dan Morris

(Maseng/AB)
May 28, 1982
5:30 p.m.

TAPING: D-DAY MESSAGE FOR FRENCH TELEVISION
JUNE 6, 1982

I bring to France greetings and best wishes from the American people. I carry their hopes for continued Western unity to secure a prosperous and lasting peace and I have come to express our commitment to policies that will renew economic growth.

But today touches French and American memories in a special way. It brings to mind thoughts quite apart from the pressing issues being discussed at the Economic Summit in Versailles. On this day 38 years ago, our two peoples were united in an epic struggle against tyranny.

In 1944, as World War II raged, the Allies were battling to regain their foothold on the Continent. The French Resistance fought valiantly on -- disrupting communications and sabotaging supply lines -- but the Nazi's held Europe in a stranglehold and Field Marshal Rommel was building his Atlantic Wall along France's coast.

Late the night of June 5, as fog enshrouded the Normandy coastline, over two thousand planes took off from English fields to drop soldiers by parachute behind enemy lines. By the early hours of June 6, the massive Allied armada -- five thousand ships -- had begun to move across the cold and choppy water of the English Channel. D-Day had begun.

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By the end of World War II, more than 60,000 Americans had been buried in France. Today we remember them, honor them and pray for them. But we also remember what they gave us.

D-Day was a success -- and the Allies had breached Hitler's seawall. They swept into Europe, liberating towns and cities and countrysides until the Axis powers were finally crushed. We remember D-Day because the French, British, Canadians and Americans fought shoulder to shoulder for democracy and freedom and won.

During the war a gallant French leader, Charles de Gaulle, inspired his countrymen, organizing and leading the Free French forces. He entered Paris in triumph, liberating that city at the head of a column of Allied troops -- a victory made possible by the heroes of Normandy.

"Nothing great will ever be achieved without great men, and men are great only if they are determined to be so," de Gaulle said. Ours was a great alliance of free people determined to remain so. I believe it still is.

The invasion of Normandy was the second time this century Americans fought in France to free it from an aggressor. We are pledged to do so again if we must.

The freedom we enjoy today was secured by great men and at great cost. Today let us remember their courage, and pray for the guidance and strength to do what we must so that no generation is ever asked to make so great a sacrifice again.

Thank you very much.

(Maseng/AB)
May 28, 1982
4:30 p.m.

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During the war a gallant French leader, Charles de Gaulle, inspired his countrymen, organizing and leading their ~~resistance~~ free French forces. He entered Paris in triumph, liberating that city at the head of a column of Allied troops -- a victory made possible by the heroes of Normandy.

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11:30 a.m.

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(Maseng)
May 27, 1982
3:00 p.m.

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During the war a gallant French leader by the name of Charles de Gaulle inspired his countrymen, organizing and leading their resistance. He eventually rode into Paris in triumph, liberating that city at the head of a column of Allied troops -- a victory made possible by the heroes on the Normandy beaches.

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said. Ours was a great alliance of free people determined to remain so. I believe it still is.

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Thank you very much.

Julie (Mail)

THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

Quotes Other events

MEMORANDUM 5/25/82

TO: ARAM BAKSHIAN/MARK GOODE *****

FROM: FJR for GREGORY J. NEWELL

SUBJ: APPROVED PRESIDENTIAL ACTIVITY

PLEASE IMPLEMENT THE FOLLOWING AND NOTIFY AND CLEAR ALL PARTICIPANTS. THE BRIEFING PAPER AND REMARKS SHOULD BE SUBMITTED TO RICHARD DARMAN BY 3 P.M. OF THE PRECEDING DAY.

1944

MEETING: Taping for French D-Day Special

Jan x7730

DATE: May 31, 1982

TIME: 3:30 pm

DURATION: 10 minutes — 5 min remarks

LOCATION: Library

REMARKS REQUIRED: Yes

MEDIA COVERAGE:

REMARKS REQUIRED

FIRST LADY PARTICIPATION: No

***** Coordinate with William Clark

cc:
A. Bakshian
M. Brandon
R. Darman
R. DeProspero
K. Duberstein
D. Fischer
C. Fuller
E. Hickey
M. McManus
E. Rollins
C. Tyson
C. Romero
B. Shaddix
L. Speakes
S. Studdert
WHCA Audio/Visual
WHCA Operations
R. Williamson
N. Wormser
A. Wrobleski
W. Clark
M. Wheeler

~~LIMITED OFFICIAL USE~~

INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION AGENCY

INCOMING TELEGRAM

PAGE 01

037552 ICA331
21/1739Z

ACTION OFFICE D-03
INFO TCO-01 DSO-02 DIS-01 EU-03 C-02 /012 A2 1

O 211736Z MAY 82
FM AMEMBASSY PARIS
TO RUEHIA/USICA WASHDC IMMEDIATE 2517
INFO RUEADWW/WHITE HOUSE IMMEDIATE
BT
~~LIMITED OFFICIAL USE~~ PARIS 18019

USICA FOR EU/TASK FORCE/ ALISON GRABELL,
BRD/TVF FOR DEVINEY
WHITE HOUSE FOR MORT ALLIN

E.O. 12065 N/A
SUBJECT: PRESIDENT'S DECLARATION FOR FRENCH TELEVISION (FR-3) ---.---UN

REF.: (A) PARIS 17119 LOU; (B) USICA 26124 LOU; (C) PARIS 17858 LOU; (D) GRABELL-MCMAHON TELCONS, MAY 21, 1982

June May 1

1. FR-3 IS PLEASED AT SUGGESTION OF AGENCY-PRODUCED CASSETTE. THEY WILL MAKE ARRANGEMENTS THIS END TO HAVE IT TRANSCODED INTO SECAM. OBVIOUSLY, THE MORE LEAD TIME THEY CAN HAVE, THE BETTER. JUNE 1 FILMING WOULD SEEM TO BE THE OUTSIDE LIMIT IF CASSETTE IS TO ARRIVE HERE IN TIME FOR PROCESSING.

FR-3 = French TV-3 June 6

2. QUESTIONS PROPOSED BY FR-3 ARE THOSE ALREADY SENT REFTEL (A) PARA 2. THEY MIGHT BE RESTATED AS: (1) WHAT IS SINGIFICANCE OF D-DAY TO AMERICANS? (2) WHAT IS NATURE OF U.S. COMMITMENT TO DEFENSE OF EUROPE TODAY?

3. PLEASE ADVISE WHEN DATE IS FIRM, AND METHOD AND DATE FOR SHIPMENT OF CASSETTE. GIVEN LARGE NUMBER OF OFFICIAL TRAVELLERS TO PARIS FROM WASHINGTON DURING THIS PERIOD, PERHAPS A HAND CARRY COULD BE ARRANGED. HEDGES
BT
#8019

June 6

Mon 5/14/06

~~LIMITED OFFICIAL USE~~

NORMANDY

OMAHA BEACH:

The most difficult of the 5 Normandy beachheads (Utah, Omaha, Gold, Juno and Sword), was established here at the base of towering German-controlled cliffs at 6:30 AM on the morning of June 6, 1944, with the landing of the first American infantry division. Of 32 landing craft, only five made the beach. Sixteen of nineteen bulldozers were knocked out by German artillery, and 2,000 were killed. The Pointe du Hoc, the only point on the beach to be left in its 1944 state (with barbed wire, block houses, and two-ton bomb craters), is one of the most gripping reminders of the effort and sacrifice that liberation entailed.

NORMANDY AMERICAN CEMETERY:

The cemetery is situated on a cliff overlooking Omaha Beach and the channel just east of St. Laurent-Sur-Mer, north of Colleville, and 10 miles northwest of Bayeux. It contains 9,386 graves of U.S. service personnel. It is one of 14 permanent American World War II military cemeteries constructed on foreign soil by the American Battle Monuments Commission.

Centered in the open arc of the memorial facing toward the graves area is a 22-ft. bronze statue, "The Spirit of American Youth Rising from the Waves", on a rectangular pedestal of granite from Ploumanach, in Brittany. The sculptor was Donald De Lue, of Leonardo, New Jersey. It was cast in Milan, Italy by the Battaglia Foundry. Encircling the pedestal of the statue on the floor in bronze letters is the inscription "Mine eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord."

PORT-EN-BESSIN:

This small seaside resort lies hidden in a hollow of cliffs. The harbor is enclosed by two granite jetties. French fishing boats set out for the waters off the south coast of England and their catch is auctioned off three mornings a week. The original Hotel de la Marine was destroyed during the war and rebuilt in 1952.

Enc. Am - v.8

DAYTONA BEACH RESORT AREA

DAYTONA BEACH, with miles of hard white sand, has been the scene of automobile speed trials since 1903.

DAYTON, dāt'ən, a city in southwestern Tennessee, the seat of Rhea county, is 38 miles (61 km) northeast of Chattanooga. Strawberries, peaches, corn, wheat, and vegetables are raised in the area. Dayton has a grain elevator, creameries, food-freezing plants, and flour and feed mills. Hosiery and underwear, building block, gas stoves, crates and baskets, and fertilizer are manufactured in the city.

William Jennings Bryan University, a 4-year coeducational college, founded in 1930, is in Dayton. The city was the scene of the "monkey" trial (July 1925), in which John T. Scopes, a biology teacher, was convicted of breaking a state law prohibiting teachings contrary to the Biblical story of creation (see SCOPES CASE).

Dayton received its city charter in 1895. Government is by commission. Population: 4,361.

DAYTON, University of, dāt'ən, a Roman Catholic coeducational university located in Dayton, Ohio. Founded in 1850 by members of the Catholic Society of Mary, it was first named St. Mary's School for Boys. It was incorporated in 1878 and began college-level instruction in 1882, adopting its present name in 1920.

The university comprises a college of arts and sciences, schools of education, engineering, and business administration, and a graduate school, which coordinates M. A. programs offered by 13 of the university's 40 departments. A technical institute with 2-year and 4-year courses is related to the school of engineering.

The university is situated on three campuses covering nearly 300 acres. Its enrollment grew from a total of about 2,400 students in 1950 to more than 10,000 in the late 1960's. Its faculty numbers in excess of 500.

ELMER C. LACKNER, *University of Dayton*

DAYTONA BEACH, da-tō'nə, is a city in east Florida, in Volusia county, 90 miles (145 km) southeast of Jacksonville. It is situated on the Atlantic Ocean and the Halifax River, a tidewater lagoon that parallels the ocean. The river is part of the Atlantic Intracoastal Waterway and has dock facilities and yacht basins.

Daytona Beach is a year-round resort and convention city. Its famous beach of hard white sand, 23 miles (37 km) long and 500 feet (152 meters) wide at low tide, has been used for automobile speed trials since 1903. The entire length of the beach now is open to the public for driving and recreation. The Daytona International Speedway, a 2½-mile (4-km) auto racing track, is the scene of many speed-testing events for sports cars, stock cars, and motorcycles. Other amusement areas include Oceanfront Park, with a large stadium and band shell; City Island Park, a greyhound racing track; and a jai alai fronton.

Besides tourism, the city's principal industries are boatbuilding, citrus fruit processing, and varied light manufacturing, which includes divisions of major electronics firms.

Music festivals with world-renowned artists are featured at Peabody Auditorium in winter and summer series. Daytona Beach is the summer home of the London Symphony Orchestra. It also is the site of Bethune-Cookman College, Daytona Beach Junior College, and the Embry Riddle Aeronautical Institute.

The city was incorporated in 1876 as Daytona in honor of Mathias Day, who had bought land on the site for a settlement in 1870. Daytona, Seabreeze, and Daytona Beach were incorporated as Daytona Beach in 1926. Government is by commission and manager. Population: 45,327.

DAVID KANTOR
Director of Libraries, Volusia County, Fla.

DAZA, dä'sä, **Hilarión** (1840–1894), Bolivian general and dictator. He was born Hilarión Grosolé in Sucre, Bolivia. In 1876, Daza seized the presidency from Tomás Frías and assumed dictatorial powers, holding a firm grip over the government and the press. In 1878, by levying higher taxes, he violated existing agreements with Chilean concessionaires, who were profitably extracting nitrate from the Atacama Desert on the Bolivian Pacific coast. Chile sent armed forces into the Atacama, initiating the War of the Pacific (q.v.) in 1879. Daza's combined Bolivian-Peruvian troops were forced to retreat, and Daza was overthrown in 1880.

Peruvian forces continued to fight, but Bolivia lost its coastal territory to Chile. In 1894, Daza returned to Bolivia from exile. He was killed by a mob on Feb. 28, 1894, at Vaicha.

HELEN MILLER BAILEY
East Los Angeles College

D'AZEGLIO, Marquess. See AZEGLIO, MARQUESS D'.

D-DAY is the date for a planned action. Generally used in a military context, the term enables planners to establish sequential priorities for activities before and after an operation's starting date, which may be unknown, may be designated but secret, or may be subject to change. For example, when an invasion is contemplated, the date for beginning the action is called D-day; planners can then schedule an air bombardment for D minus 1 (D–1), the day before the tar-

get date, and the commitment of additional troops on D plus 1 (D + 1), the day after. Preparations for a complicated operation are keyed to an established schedule requiring certain acts by D – 90, others by D – 60. In the same way, follow-up activities and desired or expected events may be scheduled for D + 10, D + 30.

For most Americans, "D-Day" means June 6, 1944, when Allied forces under Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower, after crossing the English Channel, landed on the Normandy coast of France.

H-hour designates a specific time for a planned action, such as the landing of the first troops. M-day usually means "mobilization day," the date for certain planned actions to take place in a specified sequence in the event of possible enemy activity.

MARTIN BLUMENSON
Author of "The Duel for France"

DDT is an insecticide that acts as a nerve poison, paralyzing the insect. It is used to control insects on all types of food and forage crops and to kill disease-carrying insects, such as the mosquitoes that carry malaria. DDT is a residual poison that retains its effectiveness in a sprayed area for weeks.

DDT is toxic to man and other animals. It accumulates in the bodies of animals that eat food contaminated with the substance. The chemical nature of DDT is changed very little by animal metabolism, soil microorganisms, or sunlight. Because of the potential danger to man and because of widespread damage to fish and other forms of aquatic life and to birds, the use of DDT has been drastically curtailed or banned in parts of the United States and in some European countries. A total ban on DDT presents many difficulties because DDT and related chlorinated hydrocarbons, which are equally dangerous, have been important means of insect control.

DDT, which stands for dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane, is manufactured from chlorobenzene and chloral; it is a colorless, odorless solid that is insoluble in water but soluble in many organic solvents, such as acetone, ether, benzene, and carbon tetrachloride. The formula for DDT is $(ClC_6H_4)_2CHCCl_3$.

The chemical was first prepared by Othmar Zeidler, a German chemist, in 1874. Its action as an insecticide was not recognized until 1939, when the Swiss scientist Paul Hermann Müller discovered its effectiveness. Müller won the 1948 Nobel Prize in physiology or medicine for this discovery.

The effectiveness of DDT has decreased in recent years because some insects have developed a resistance to it. However, certain chlorinated hydrocarbons are now used together with DDT, and they seem to have an activating influence that partly restores its effectiveness.

OTTO W. NITZ
Stout State University, Menomonie, Wis.

DEACON, dē'kən, in most Christian churches, a ministerial office distinct from that of priest or pastor. The origin of the office is usually traced to the appointment of the seven, including St. Stephen, by the Apostles in Jerusalem (Acts 6:1ff). Early evidence is also found in the Pauline churches (Philippians 1:1; I Timothy 3:8ff). The later development was determined by the pattern of a threefold ministry: bishop, presbyter (priest), deacon. Deacons were ordained and assisted the bishop in his liturgical functions, in charitable work, and in administration.

In the Roman Catholic Church and the churches of the Anglican Communion (including the Episcopal Church) today the diaconate is often no more than a preparatory stage for the priesthood. The Second Vatican Council recommended the revival of a permanent diaconate, and similar tendencies are visible in the Anglican Communion. Methodist deacons are ordained clergymen who perform all pastoral duties except the administration of the Lord's Supper. In churches of Calvinistic background, deacons are part of the essential structure of the ministry. Presbyterian boards of deacons are responsible for the management of the temporal affairs of a congregation. In Congregational and Baptist churches, deacons distribute the elements at Communion, administer charities, and form the pastor's advisory council. In many European churches, especially the Lutheran, a permanent diaconate was revived through the founding of diaconal institutes, which train deacons for full-time social service. The Eastern Orthodox churches require a deacon in each local congregation to assist the priest in liturgical functions.

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DEACONESS, dē'kə-nəs, a woman engaged in a special ministry in the Christian church. The early history of the office and its relation to other groups such as "widows" and "virgins" remain obscure (Romans 16:1; I Timothy 3:11; 5:9ff; Pliny, Epistle 10:97). Deaconesses are mentioned more often after the close of the 3d century. Their primary function apparently was in the baptism of women, which in the early church was done by immersion and would have been inappropriate for deacons to perform. They also cared for the needy and sick. Deaconesses had lay status and were not allowed to marry.

The office declined in the East from the 8th century on. In the West, where it seems to have been less prominent, it is not mentioned after the 11th century. Since then, various sisterhoods have taken over the characteristic social functions of the ancient office.

The modern revival of Protestant orders of deaconesses goes back to the founding, in 1836, of a community of deaconesses at Kaiserswerth, Germany, by Pastor Theodor Fliedner. Impressed by Mennonite practices, he trained women for Christian service in hospitals and in social work. His school soon served as a model for similar institutions in Germany and other countries, including the United States. The Anglican Church endorsed a limited revival of the office in 1871. Methodism officially recognized deaconesses as part of the church structure in 1888. Today deaconesses carry out charitable duties in many denominations, either through independent orders or in connection with a local parish or with the general social program of their church.

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DEAD RECKONING is the computation of the position of a ship or an airplane without use of celestial sightings. Position is computed instead from the position last determined, the compass course followed, the rate of movement, the estimated drift from course, and the time elapsed. See also Navigation.

(PARVIN)

MRS. REAGAN: NORMANDY CEREMONY
JUNE 6, 1982

--I am deeply honored to be here in Normandy on this very moving and emotional day. As I flew over the peaceful Normandy countryside this morning, it was hard to imagine that 38 years ago there was not calm, but violence. Sadly, many of those who fought soon found calm in the rows of crosses and Stars of David that stretch before us. Today we honor those whose sacrifice is as lasting as the stone of this Memorial.

--Although the official ceremony is here, I can't help but think of the private remembrances and tears of those at home who've lost a loved one on the beach below us. A mother who lost a son, a wife who lost a husband, a child who lost a father--their tender moments today are a personal memorial to the individual heroes of Normandy.

--We, on the other hand, can honor these heroes by speaking of what their courage accomplished for freedom. A few days ago in America we celebrated Memorial Day, a day when we honor those who've died for our country. After my husband attended a ceremony at Arlington--our national cemetary, the newspapers carried a picture of him wiping a tear from his eye. That tear was an entire nation's tear really, one that all Americans felt.

For it was a tear of gratitude, respect, and, yes, regret that young men have had to give their lives to protect the values we hold dear.

--If my husband were here today, he would tell you how deeply he feels the responsibilities of peace and freedom. He would tell you how we can best ensure that other young men on other beaches and other fields will not have to die. And I think he would tell you of his ideas for nuclear peace. Certainly he would speak of Normandy's message to all who love liberty.

--Thirty eight years ago today, General Eisenhower also had a message, a message to the soldiers who were about to come ashore. He said to them, "The eyes of the world are upon you. The hopes and prayers of liberty-loving people everywhere march with you." Well, to the boys who rest beneath the crosses and stars on this peaceful cliff, those words still hold true. To the gallant young men who gave their lives here, let me say the eyes of the world are still upon you. And the hopes and prayers and hearts of liberty-loving people are with you now and forever.