sentenced to life imprisonment. Baldur von Schirach and Albert Speer were sentenced to 20 years imprisonment, Konstantin von Neurath to 15 years, Admiral Karl Doenitz to 10. Hjalmar Schacht, Franz von Papen, and Hans Fritsche were acquitted. Ten of the convicted war criminals were hanged (October 15, 1946); Goering committed suicide by swallowing poison 2 hours before scheduled to be hanged.


**Berlin Blockade, 1948–1949**

1948, March–June. Soviet Harassment of Western Powers in Berlin. This began when the Soviet delegation walked out of the Allied Control Council (March 20). Soon thereafter, the Soviets began interference and harassment of American and British access to Berlin from West Germany (April 1). The Soviet representative walked out (June 16) of the Kommandatura (4-power military commission in Berlin), virtually cutting off the Soviet military command in Berlin from the 3 western powers.

1948, June 22. Beginning of the Blockade. Soviet occupation authorities halted all railroad traffic between Berlin and the west. There was less than 1 month’s food supply for the 2 million inhabitants of the western sectors of Berlin. U.S. General Lucius D. Clay, commanding U.S. occupation forces in Germany, urged that the Western Allied garrisons stay put, and that Berlin be supplied by air. His recommendations were upheld.

1948–1949, June 26–September 30. Operation “Vittles.” Immediate mobilization of all Western Allied military aircraft available began, while Clay rallied Berlin civilian help to expand the 2 available airfields. (A third was soon built.) Air Lift Task Force (Provisional), commanded by U.S. Major General William H. Tunner and composed mainly of U.S. planes and pilots, with smaller increments of British and French air forces, accomplished the most extraordinary military peacetime effort in history. Running on split-second schedule, through all sorts of weather, and harassed from time to time by “buzzing” of Soviet fighter planes, 277,264 flights were made, lifting a total of 2,343,315 tons of food and coal. The record day’s lift was on Easter Sunday, April 16, 1949, when 1,398 flights brought 12,940 tons into Berlin. The operation cost the lives of 75 American and British airmen, including a collision when a Soviet pilot, bedeviling a passenger-loaded British plane, misjudged his distance and brought both aircraft down in the crash.

1948, July 26. Western Powers Halt All Trade with East Germany. This was retaliation for the blockade.

1949, May 12. Soviets End Blockade. Soviet authorities, conceding defeat, officially lifted the blockade, but the air supply operation continued until September 30.

1949, April 14. End of the Nuremberg War Crimes Trials.

1949, September 7. The Federal Republic of Germany Established. Its capital was at Bonn. Dr. Konrad Adenauer was elected chancellor (September 15). The U.S., Britain, and France guaranteed the defense of West Germany (September 19) and ended their military government (September 21).

1949–1965. Intermittent Berlin Incidents. The U.S.S.R. and the East German Communist regime frequently tested Western Allied will and determination, and attempted to erode the occupation and access rights of the Western Allies to Berlin.

1952, March 1. Britain Returns Heligoland to West Germany.

1953, March. Allied-Soviet Air Incidents. An American plane was shot down over the U.S. zone (March 10), and a British bomber was shot down over the British zone (March 12). The U.S. ordered 25 of its latest Sabrejets to Germany, to counter the threat, while secret conciliation talks began between Britain and Russia (March 31) which later were attended by France and the U.S.

1954, October 23. Rearmament of Germany within NATO. The NATO Council admitted Germany to NATO. Next day, France specifically recognized the sovereignty of West Germany.


1961, July. Renewed Berlin Crisis. Prime Minister Nikita Khrushchev, renewing de-
mands for Allied withdrawal from Berlin, announced suspension of planned troop reduction and an increase in the Soviet military budget (July 8). Britain, France, and the U.S. rejected Khrushchev's terms for the settlement of the Berlin and German questions (July 17). President Kennedy directed a build-up of U.S. military strength and mobilized 4 National Guard divisions (see p. 1272).


SCANDINAVIAN STATES

All Scandinavian states were preoccupied during the period with the question of national security against Communist infiltration or outright aggression. While Denmark, Norway, and Iceland became members of NATO, Sweden maintained a strict—though western-oriented—neutrality. Finland—which clearly demonstrated an equally pro-western orientation—also maintained a neutral status, but was forced by geography and power realities to maintain closer relations with the U.S.S.R.

AUSTRIA

After 10 years of Allied occupation marked by inability of the Big Four to agree on a peace treaty, the nation regained its independence by a treaty signed at Vienna by the U.S., U.K., France, and U.S.S.R. (May 15, 1955), restoring Austria's frontiers existing January 1, 1938. Under the treaty a small army and air force (about 60,000 strong) were permitted. The treaty requirement for neutrality was confirmed by Austria's official proclamation of permanent neutrality (act of October 26, 1955).

ITALY

1946, May 9. Abdication of King Victor Emmanuel III. He abdicated in favor of his son, Humbert II.

1946, June 2. Italian People Vote to End the Monarchy. The Italian government declared Italy a republic (June 2). After some outbreaks of violence between royalists and republicans, King Humbert left the country (June 13).

1946, July 29. Peace Conference Opens in Paris. Treaties were negotiated between the World War II victors and Italy, Hungary, Bulgaria, Rumania, and Finland. These allied peace treaties were eventually signed in Paris (February 10, 1947).

1947, September 16. Crisis at Trieste. A Yugoslav military force, menacing Trieste, was deterred by the deployment of an American battalion for combat. Tension remained high; incidents, including occasional small-arms fire, were frequent.


1953, October 8–December 5. De Facto Settlement at Trieste. Britain and the U.S. announced that they would withdraw their occupation forces (4,000 U.S. and 3,000 British) and return Zone A of Trieste to Italy. After an increase of tension between Italy and Yugoslavia, the 2 nations agreed to withdraw their troops from the border (December 5). An agreement was later signed between them (October 5, 1954).


SPAIN

1949, August 4. Spain's Application for Marshall Plan Aid Rejected. The U.S. Senate refused to include such aid in the Marshall Plan appropriations.

1953, September 26. Ten-Year Defense Agreement with U.S. This gave the U.S. rights to Spanish naval and air bases in return for economic and military aid.
EASTERN EUROPE

SOVIET BLOC AND WARSAW PACT NATIONS

1947, July. Communist Nations Reject the Marshall Plan. Although Poland and Czechoslovakia initially indicated an interest in joining in the Marshall Plan, they later rejected the offer, obviously under Soviet pressure, as did the other East European nations: Hungary, Rumania, Albania, Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, and Finland.

1947, October 5. Establishment of the Cominform. At a meeting in Moscow of the Communist parties of 9 European nations, a new Communist International, the Cominform, was established.

1955, May 14. The Warsaw Pact. The Soviet Union and its satellites—Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, East Germany, and Albania—signed a treaty of mutual friendship and defense at Warsaw. Yugoslavia refused to join. This nominally mutual-defense treaty was the Communist bloc's answer to NATO and the remilitarization of West Germany. This actually caused no changes in the relationship between Soviet and satellite forces.

SOVIET UNION

Despite near-catastrophic losses of man power, materials, and production facilities, at the close of World War II the U.S.S.R. was without question the second great power in a bipolar world. Soviet armies occupied all of Eastern Europe, much of Central Europe, northern Iran, Manchuria, and northern Korea. While the Western Allies demobilized their armies as quickly as possible after the war, Soviet military forces were maintained close to their wartime strength. At the same time, the Soviets were increasingly truculent in and out of the U.N., refused to carry out postwar agreements for the liberation of Eastern Europe, and were obviously determined to extend Soviet power and influence in any direction at any opportunity. This threatening and aggressive attitude was combined with the Soviet-directed efforts of international Communism to take advantage of postwar chaos and dislocation to gain control of the governments of many nations in Europe and Asia.

It soon became evident that the combination of Soviet threats of external aggression and of internal subversion by indigenous Communists was creating pressures that few of the war-weakened nations in the world could withstand by their own individual efforts. Subservient Communist satellite governments were established throughout East Europe. Britain's sudden and unexpected decline caused the U.S. to undertake economic and military measures to assist nations threatened by Soviet Communist aggression (Truman Doctrine, Marshall Plan). This U.S. response to Soviet moves, with the aim of blocking Soviet expansion, triggered the so-called Cold War.

Thwarted by American counteraction—initially supported by the American monopoly of nuclear weapons and long-range bombardment capability—the U.S.S.R. devoted itself to unceasing efforts to improve and modernize its military capability in an effort to offset and, if possible, surpass that of the U.S. The result was unexpectedly early Soviet detonation of atomic and hydrogen bombs. Again the potentially more powerful U.S. slowly reacted to meet the armament challenge and Soviet-inspired aggression of North Korea against South Korea (see p. 1208). As a result, despite rapid modernization and sophistication of its weapons and armed forces, by the end of the period the Soviet Union had failed to achieve its aim of military parity or superiority over the U.S. (save possibly in the fields of rocket power and space exploration). Nevertheless, its substantial capability in nuclear weapons, and possession of long-range missiles to deliver such weapons, had brought
the U.S.S.R. to a position of nuclear stalemate with the U.S., and permitted con-

In the development of its nuclear capability, the U.S.S.R. had obviously come
to understand the unprecedented destructive power of nuclear weapons, and appar-
ently realized that an all-out nuclear exchange would result in the virtual destruc-
tion of the U.S.S.R. This, combined with serious ideological and nationalistic differ-
ces with increasingly powerful Communist China, had led to some diminution in
the intensity of the Cold War (particularly after the Cuban missile crisis), though
there was no evidence of any change in basic Soviet Communist objectives. The un-
declared conflict continued at lower levels, and in different forms, as Communist
agents fomented and carried on low-intensity “wars of national liberation” where-
ever the opportunity presented itself around the world. The principal military events
of the period were:

1945, August 14. Treaty with China. (See p. 1255.)
1945–1946. Intervention in Azerbaijan. (See p. 1243.) This was the real beginning of
the Cold War.
1945–1947. Soviet Bloc Established. De-

1947, March 4. Norway Rejects Soviet De-

1947, July 7. Russia Rejects the Marshall

1948, April 6. Treaty with Finland. A 10-

1948–1949. Berlin Blockade. (See p. 1228.)
1948, June. Dispute with Yugoslavia.

1949, September 23. Russia Explodes Its

succeeded by a triumvirate of Georgi

1953, June 16–17. Suppression of Uprising


1955, May 14. Establishment of the Warsaw

1956, February 14–25. De-Stalinization. At

1956, June 6. Bulganin Demands Reduction

1956, June 6. Bulganin Demands Reduction

1956, June 28. Unrest in Poland. (See p. 1233.)

1956, July 10. Charges of U.S. Military Air-
craft Violation in Korea. A complaint

1956, October 23–November 4. Hungarian
Revolt Suppressed by Soviet Forces. (See below.)

1957, October 4. Soviet Space Triumph. Soviet artificial satellite, Sputnik I, made the first successful penetration of space. It established Soviet pre-eminence in space exploration, which was being challenged, and perhaps overtaken, at the end of the period by belated American efforts to catch up. It also evidenced a Soviet military pre-eminence in long-range rocketry, and particularly in the power of its rocket boosters.

1958, March 27. Khrushchev Seizes Control. Ousting Bulganin as premier, he became virtual dictator.


1960, May. Khrushchev Wrecks Summit Conference. (See p. 1272.)


1961, August 12–13. The Berlin Wall. (See p. 1229.)

1961, December 9. Soviet Superbombs. At the close of the Soviet Union's post-moratorium test series (see p. 1223), Khrushchev publicly boasted that the Soviet Union had nuclear bombs more powerful than 100 megatons. American analysis of fallout seemed to substantiate the claim.

1962, October 17. Khrushchev Reveals Soviet-Sino Rift. During the 22nd Soviet Communist Party Congress in Moscow, Khrushchev revealed the existence of a Soviet-Sino ideological rift, mainly by attacking Albania, ideological ally of Communist China.

1962, October–November. Cuban Missile Crisis. (See p. 1272.)

1963, July 25. Limited Nuclear Test Ban Treaty. (See p. 1223.)

1964, October 12. First Multimanned Space Flight. The Soviet Union orbited a spacecraft, carrying 3 men, for 16 orbits.

1964, October 14–15. Khrushchev Deposed as Soviet Leader. He was replaced by Leonid I. Brezhnev and Aleksei N. Kosygin.

HUNGARY

Despite overwhelming anti-Communist popular sentiment, a Communist satellite government was installed with the assistance and protection of Soviet occupation forces (1945–1947). Communist control was unchallenged until a wave of unrest swept over Eastern Europe in 1956, following Khrushchev’s de-Stalinization speech (see p. 1231).

1947, May 30. Communist Coup. The government of Premier Ferenc Nagy was overthrown.

1956, July 18–22. Shake-up in Communist Government. This was evidence of serious internal unrest in the party and the nation.

1956, October 23. Outbreak of Popular Revolt against Communism. This followed security police attempts to suppress a popular demonstration in Budapest. Soviet occupation forces fired on demonstrators (October 24–25). Revolutionary Councils sprang up throughout the country. The Communist government was toppled in a surprising constitutional parliamentary upheaval (October 25). Erstwhile moderate Communist Imre Nagy established a pro-western government. Erno Gero, ousted party secretary, called for Soviet troops. Fighting involving Hungarian Communist forces and Soviet troops spread across the country.


1956, November 1–4. Soviet Suppression of Revolt. By a combination of treachery and surprise, Soviet forces—with some 200,000 troops and 2,500 tanks and armored cars—surrounded Budapest. Nagy
appealed for U.N. aid. The Soviets attacked, captured Nagy and his government (November 4), and swept through Budapest despite the valiant resistance of Hungarian troops and civilians. Approximately 25,000 Hungarians and 7,000 Russians were killed. One unfortunate aspect of the debacle was the stimulus of American broadcasting programs that led the patriots to believe that the U.S. would come to their aid.

1956, November 5–30. Unrest and Flight. Resistance and strikes persisted despite ruthless Soviet suppression. By the end of the month over 100,000 refugees had fled to the West.

POLAND

A Communist people's republic since 1947, when Stalin's repudiation of the free election promised at the Potsdam Conference brought a Communist puppet government into being, under the protection of Soviet occupation forces, Poland was an uneasy satellite of the U.S.S.R. during the period. Persecution of the Catholic Church and imprisonment—until 1956—of Stefan Cardinal Wyszynski added to the tension between the Polish people and their government.

1949. Russian Commands Army. Soviet Marshal Konstantin Rokossovski was appointed Minister of Defense and Commander in Chief of the Polish army.

1950, June 7. Frontier Agreement with East Germany. The Oder-Neisse line was accepted as the official boundary.

1956, June 28–29. Workers' Revolt in Poznan. This was suppressed by Russian troops and brought death to over 50, injury to hundreds more, and imprisonment of more than 1,000 persons. Unrest in Poland continued and tension mounted between people and Soviet occupation army.

1956, October. Wladyslaw Gomulka Becomes Premier. The moderate Polish Communist leader was released from jail and restored to party leadership. This reduced tension and unrest, brought amelioration of conditions, and slackening of Soviet restrictions. Gomulka defied Khrushchev's warnings that democratization was too rapid. Cardinal Wyszynski was released; cultural and financial relations with the West were initiated. Soviet Marshal Rokossovski was dismissed as Polish defense minister.

1956, November 18. Agreement with U.S.S.R. Poland was given greater independence.


EAST GERMANY

1949, October 7. Establishment of German Democratic Republic. Otto Grotewohl was established as Chancellor of this new Soviet satellite.

1953, June 16–17. Anticommunist Riots in East Berlin and East Germany. These were suppressed by the Soviet Army.

1953, August 23. Soviet Moves to Strengthen Ties with East Germany. This included release of war prisoners, lowering of occupation costs, and an intensive propaganda campaign. The U.S.S.R. returned to East Germany 30 factories which had been seized as reparations after World War II (December 31). It was announced that all reparations were ended, and that further occupation costs would be limited to 5 per cent of East Germany's national income.

1954, March 26. U.S.S.R. Announces East German Sovereignty. Soviet troops were to remain only for security functions and for the fulfillment of Soviet obligations under the Potsdam Agreement.

1955, January 10. Defections to West. The West German Refugee Ministry reported that 184,198 persons had left East Germany for the West in 1954.


1964, January–March. Air Incidents. Soviet aircraft shot down an unarmed U.S. reconnaissance plane (March 10) and an Air Force jet training plane which by mistake flew over East Germany (January 28). Both the U.S. and the U.S.S.R. protested.
CZECHOSLOVAKIA

President Eduard Beneš was forced to accept an ultimatum of Premier Klement Gottwald, putting Communists in charge of all branches of the government except the Foreign Ministry, where Jan Masaryk remained Foreign Minister, but all his aides were Communists.

1948, March 10. Death of Jan Masaryk.
The Communist government announced this was suicide. There is little doubt that he was murdered by the Communists.

YUGOSLAVIA

1946, March 24. Capture of General Draja Mikhailovich. He was tried and executed by a firing squad in Belgrade (July 17). (See p. 1074.)

1946-1948. Intervention in Greece. Yugoslavia supported the rebels in the Greek Civil War (see below).

1948, June 28. Yugoslav-Soviet Rift. The Cominform denounced Marshal Tito and the Yugoslav Communist party for putting national interests above party interests. Tito and the Yugoslav Communist party, insisting that they were still Communists, also insisted that they were Yugoslav Communists and not Russian satellites. This marked the end of Yugoslavia’s role as a Soviet satellite and the beginning of completely independent existence, although under President Tito the nation remained definitely, although individualistically, Communist.

1949, August-September. Yugoslav-Soviet Crisis. Each nation accused the other of preparing for war, and Russia denounced the 1945 treaty of friendship and mutual assistance with Yugoslavia (September 29).

1953, June 1. Political Commissars Abolished in the Armed Forces. This was announced by Marshal Tito personally.


1956, November 11. Renewed Difficulties with U.S.S.R. This resulted from a Tito speech at a party meeting.


The U.S. confirmed that it was granting military aid to Yugoslavia, to include 130 jet fighter planes, and the training of Yugoslav fighter pilots in the United States.

ALBANIA

1946, October 22. Corfu Channel Incident.
Two British destroyers were damaged by Albanian mines in the Corfu Channel, with 40 men killed or missing. (Earlier in the year, Albanian shore batteries had fired at British and Greek warships in the channel.) Britain cleared the mines from the channel, under naval protection, despite Albanian protests to the U.N. (November 12–13). The U.S.S.R. vetoed a Security Council resolution blaming Albania for the damage (March 25, 1947). In subsequent litigation before the Court of International Justice, Albania was found at fault (April 9, 1949).

1961, December 19. Diplomatic Relations with U.S.S.R. Broken. This was a protest against de-Stalinization. Albania became the first European satellite of Communist China.

MEDITERRANEAN AND SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE

GREECE

1944, December 3–January 11, 1945. Guerrilla Warfare. Communist resistance groups attempted to overthrow the re-established legal government of Greece, then under the protection of British occupation forces. British troops suppressed the uprisings and established an uneasy truce between the rival factions.

1945, September 1. Monarchy Restored.
The Greek people voted to return King George II to the throne.

1946, May–1949, October. Greek Civil War.
Communist rebels under General “Markos” Vafiades, with support from Albania, Yugoslavia, and Bulgaria, seized control of major northern border regions, while fighting flared throughout the nation. The Greek government received some support from Britain at the outset, but was barely
able to maintain control of major cities and some portions of the countryside. Fighting was particularly intensive in the Vardar Valley.

1946, December 10. U.N. Begins Investigation. The Security Council began an investigation into Greek charges that Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, and Albania were supporting guerrilla forces on Greece's northern frontier. The Balkans Investigating Committee reported to the Security Council (May 23, 1947) that Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, and Albania had violated the U.N. Charter by aiding guerrilla uprisings in Greece.

1947, March 12. Truman Doctrine. Britain, close to economic collapse, was forced to suspend its assistance to Greece. President Truman announced American determination to assist Greece and Turkey against internal and external Communist threats. This resulted in extensive economic aid and provision of military equipment to the strife-torn nation. An American military advisory group trained the Greek Army in employment of U.S. military equipment, and also rendered combat advice. The Greek Army slowly regained the initiative, and suppressed the revolt throughout all of Greece (1947) save in the northern border regions, where rebels obtained direct assistance from the neighboring Soviet satellites.

1948, January 1. Relief of Konitsa. Greek government troops relieved Konitsa, long under rebel siege, driving the defeated guerrilla forces into Albania. A subsequent rebel effort to capture Konitsa was repulsed (January 25).

1948, June 19. Greek Army Offensive Begins. Greek efforts to capture the rebel stronghold of Vafiades were partially successful. Intensive fighting continued for several months in the Mt. Grammos region.

1948, November 27. U.N. Condemns Greece's Neighbors. The General Assembly condemned Albania, Bulgaria, and Yugoslavia for continuing to give assistance to the Greek guerrillas. In fact, however, Yugoslav assistance had declined rapidly after her expulsion from the Cominform (see p. 1234). This greatly facilitated the task of government troops.

1949, General Markos Replaced. Markos Vafiades was replaced as commander of the Greek guerrillas by John Ioannides.

1949, June 25. U.N. Charges against Bulgaria. The U.N. Special Committee on the Balkans accused Bulgaria of permitting Greek guerrillas to establish fortifications within Bulgaria from which to fire on Greek troops in Greek territory.

1949, August 28. Greek Troops Clear Mt. Grammos. The principal rebel resistance in Greece was broken by a government assault which captured the northern ridge of Mt. Grammos.


1951, September 20. Greece Joins NATO.

1954, August 9. Treaty with Turkey and Yugoslavia. This was a 20-year treaty for military assistance and political cooperation, and marked a remarkable rapprochement among old enemies.

1955–1965. Strained Relations with Turkey. This was due to the Cyprus issue (see p. 1236).

1955–1959. Strained Relations with Britain. This was due to Cyprus (see p. 1236).

TURKEY

1945–1947. Tension between Turkey and U.S.S.R. The Soviets unsuccessfully used diplomatic pressure and threats of force to gain concessions from Turkey in the Straits area and in Turkish Caucasus regions.

1946, August 12. Soviet Demands Dardanelles Rights. The U.S.S.R. demanded joint control of military bases along the Dardanelles, and proposed to Turkey that only Black Sea countries share in the administration of the Turkish Straits. Turkey rejected the Soviet demands (October 18).


1950, September 20. Korean War. Turkey sent a major contingent (initially 4,500 men, later increased to about 8,000) to join the U.N. forces in Korea.

1951, September 20. Turkey Joins NATO.

1955–1965. Strained Relations with Greece over Cyprus. (See p. 1236.)

and Izmir as a result of troubles between the Greek and Turkish inhabitants in Cyprus and anti-Turkish demonstrations in Greece.

1963, January 21. Nuclear Weapons Agreement with U.S. Turkey accepted U.S. offers to station Polaris missiles submarines in the Mediterranean Sea to replace Jupiter missiles stationed on Turkish soil. (Italy simultaneously agreed to the withdrawal of Jupiter missiles from Italian soil.)

CYPRUS

For more than 70 years Cyprus was a British dependency or colony. The population of this east-Mediterranean island is about 80 per cent Greek and nearly 20 per cent Turkish. Long before World War II, there was a strong sentiment among the Greek population for enosis, or union with Greece. This was bitterly opposed by the Turkish minority, who believed that if under Greek control they would be deprived of the rights they enjoyed under British rule.

1952–1959. Guerrilla Warfare. Greek agitation for enosis was translated into terrorism directed against the Turkish minority, and guerrilla warfare combined with terrorism waged against the British occupation forces. Principal guerrilla leader was a Greek war hero, Colonel Grivas. Complete support to the enosis movement was given by Greek Orthodox Archbishop Makarios, who was exiled by the British.

1959, March 13. Cease-Fire in Cyprus. This followed an agreement between the British government and the Greek and Turkish communities on Cyprus, with the approval of Greece and Turkey (February 19). An independent republic of Cyprus was to be established, in which the rights of the Turkish minority would be clearly and constitutionally protected. Britain was to retain military bases on the island.

1959, December 14. Makarios Elected First President of Cyprus.


1963, December 21. Outbreak of Conflict. As a result of Makarios' efforts to reform the constitution and thus reduce the rights of the Turkish minority, armed clashes between Greeks and Turks spread throughout the island. Britain sent reinforcements to attempt to restore order, but widespread fighting continued.

1964, January–February. Unsuccessful Mediation. British and American efforts to establish an international peace-keeping force, under NATO or the U.N., were all rejected by Makarios, who meanwhile was building up his military forces.

1964, March 4. U.N. Intervention. After an impasse had been reached in U.N. discussion, the Security Council authorized Secretary General U Thant to establish a peace force and to appoint a mediator.


1964, August 7–9. Turkish Air Attacks. Following Greek Cypriot attacks on Turkish Cypriot villages, Turkish planes attacked Greek Cypriot positions. With Greece and Turkey close to war, the U.N. was able to get agreement of the Turkish and Cypriot governments to a cease-fire.

1964–1965. Stalemate. No solution to the impasse appeared to be in sight at the end of the period.

THE MIDDLE EAST

Unrest permeated the entire area, due to a unique combination of powerful and emotional forces: Cold War pressures, manifested in all parts of the world, particularly intense in this region due to its strategic geographic location and the untold wealth of vast oil reserves; aspirations of new nations breaking away from western
colonialism; and the particularly virulent and irreconcilable strife between Israel and the Arab world. Least affected by these swirling tides within the region were the 2 non-Arab Moslem states of the region, Iran and Turkey.

THE ARAB LEAGUE

The Arab League was established shortly before the end of World War II (March 22, 1945) by the governments of Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Syria, and Yemen. The principal purpose was to prevent the British mandate in Palestine from becoming a separate and independent Jewish state. Later the League was joined by Algeria, Kuwait, Libya, Morocco, the Sudan, and Tunisia. Cairo has been the headquarters for the Secretary General of the League.


1948-1949. War with Israel. (See p. 1238.)


1954, June 11. Egypt and Saudi Arabia Reject Baghdad Pact. Under the terms of the Arab League Collective Security Pact, Egypt and Saudi Arabia agreed to pool defenses and military resources, rejecting western plans for a Middle East Defense Treaty against Communism (see below).

1956, March 3–11. Egypt, Syria, and Saudi Arabia Plan United Defense. Plans for combined action against Israel were agreed on by the heads of state at Cairo. King Hussein of Jordan refused to give up British subsidy.

1964, January 13–17. Arab League Conference. Leaders of the 13 Arab League nations met in Cairo and agreed to set up a joint military command for possible action against Israel.

CENTRAL TREATY ORGANIZATION OF THE MIDDLE EAST

The Central Treaty Organization of the Middle East is a successor organization to the Middle East Treaty Organization, or Baghdad Pact, established (1955) as a result of initiatives begun by the United States (1954).

1954, April 2. Turkey-Pakistan Treaty. Signing a 5-year mutual-defense pact, the 2 nations invited neighboring nations, particularly Iraq and Iran, to join.


1955, November 21. First Meeting of the Baghdad Pact. Representatives of Iran, Iraq, Pakistan, Turkey, and Great Britain met in Baghdad to establish the Middle East Treaty Organization (METO). The U.S. did not join, but sent official observers to the meeting.

1956, April 19. U.S. Partial Participation. At a meeting in Teheran, the U.S. agreed to establish a permanent liaison office, and to help support the permanent METO secretariat.

1959, March 5. U.S. Treaties with the "Northern Tier." The U.S. signed separate defense treaties with Iran, Turkey, and Pakistan, in Ankara, to assure the nations of the Baghdad Pact that the U.S. would come to their support in need of any Communist aggression.

1959, October 7. Reorganization of the Alliance. In view of the withdrawal of Iraq (see p. 1242), the remaining members—Britain, Turkey, Pakistan, and Iran—changed its name to Central Treaty Organization (CENTO).

PALESTINE AND ISRAEL

1945–1948. Guerrilla Warfare in Palestine. This bitter and bloody struggle was waged mainly by Jewish Zionists against the Arab
population and against British occupation forces, in their efforts to achieve an independent Jewish nation. U.N. efforts to solve rival aspirations of Jews and Arabs proved futile.

1947, November 29. U.N. Decision to Partition Palestine. The General Assembly approved a plan presented to it by a special committee to partition Palestine into separate Jewish and Arab states effective October 1, 1948. The Arab states refused to accept the decision, and announced their determination to fight if necessary.

1948, May 14. Independence of Israel. Britain surrendered her mandate over Palestine and withdrew her armed forces. The Israeli nation, immediately recognized by the U.S., was at once attacked and invaded by troops of Egypt, Iraq, Lebanon, Syria, and Transjordan (or Jordan).

Arab-Israeli War, May 14, 1948–January 5, 1949

The entire Jewish nation, which had systematically and efficiently prepared itself for war prior to its official existence, immediately rose in arms. The 3 major invasion forces (Egyptian, Syrian, and Jordanian) were halted, and those of Egypt and Syria were hurled back beyond the original frontiers of Palestine. The more formidable British-trained Arab Legion of Jordan fought the Jews on more or less even terms, with a stalemate ensuing after the bitter struggle for Jerusalem, part of which was held by each side. By the end of the year, Israel had established her frontiers by force of arms over virtually all of the terrain which had been allotted her before the war by the U.N., and in addition held most of western Galilee and the modern portion of Jerusalem. Jordan had seized practically all of the eastern Arabian portion of Palestine, adjacent to the Jordan River. Arab refugees from the Israeli-held portions of Palestine flocked mostly to Jordan and Egypt, where they were kept for years in refugee camps near the Israel frontier, a source of continuing friction and bitterness between the Arab world and Israel. The principal events of the war were:

1948, May 18. Battle for Jerusalem Begins. Israeli troops and those of the Jordan Arab Legion began a prolonged struggle for the ancient capital of Palestine. The Israeli garrison of the Old City of Jerusalem surrendered to the Arab Legion after a siege of 11 days (May 28). The Arab Legion was simultaneously repulsed from modern Jerusalem, but isolated the Israelis from Tel Aviv.


1948, May 22. Egyptian Troops Enter Bethlehem.

1948, June 11. Temporary Truce. Israel and the 7 states of the Arab League agreed to a 4-week cease-fire and truce.

1948, June 20. First U.N. Police Force. The U.N. Secretary General sent 49 uniformed U.N. guards, the first international police force, from New York to Israel.

1948, July 8. Fighting Renewed. Arab spearheads struck for Tel Aviv, while Israeli troops attempted to relieve isolated Jerusalem.

1948, July 13. Israeli Victories. The Israelis drove off Arab threats to Tel Aviv and reopened communications with the garrison of modern Jerusalem. A cease-fire was agreed in Jerusalem with the Jordanians (July 16).


1948, July 18. New Cease-Fire with the Arab League.

1948, August 15. Renewal of Fighting.

1948, September 17. Assassination of Bernadotte. He was killed by Jewish terrorists opposed to U.N. mediation.


1949, January–July. Peace Talks on Rhodes. In prolonged peace negotiations, cease-fire and armistice agreements were signed between Israel and the principal neighboring
Arab states; discussions with Egypt (beginning January 13) resulted in the first armistice (February 23). Agreements followed with Jordan (April 3) and with Syria (July 20). The state of war between Israel and her Arab neighbors continued, despite the cease-fire agreements.

1950, May 19. Egypt Closes Suez Canal to Israel. Israeli ships and Israeli commerce were banned.

1953–1956. Intermittent Frontier Clashes. Both sides appear to have been responsible for these various small and large outbreaks along the entire length of Israel's frontiers. However, the initiative appears in most cases to have been with the Arabs.

Sinai Campaign, October 29–November, 1956

Preparations for Arab invasion by Egypt, Syria, and Jordan, under command of Major General Abdal Hakim Amer, Egyptian Defense Minister, became ominous (October 25) as Egyptian troops concentrated in the Sinai peninsula.

1956, October 29. Israel Strikes First. Hastily mobilized Israeli forces, commanded by General Moshe Dayan, plunged into the Sinai. Efficient mechanized columns scattered 4 Egyptian divisions in dismal, headlong rout. At cost of 180 men killed, the Israeli invasion pushed toward the Suez Canal, halting only 30 miles away when France and Britain gave both Egypt and Israel a 12-hour ultimatum to end hostilities (October 30), and then intervened (see p. 1240). U.N. denunciation of Israel, Britain, and France followed. Egyptian losses reported by Israel were 7,000 prisoners and an estimated 3,000 dead. Practically all the Egyptian equipment and matériel (worth $50 million) in the Sinai fell into Israeli hands.

1956, November 15. U.N. Intervention. (See p. 1222.) A curtain of U.N. troops moved into the Sinai between the adversaries. The Israeli invaders slowly retired to the Negev (March 1957), only after U.S. assurances of rights to use the Gulf of Aqaba as an international waterway. A U.N. unit occupied Sharm el Sheikh, overlooking the gulf entrance, which had been captured by the Israelis.

1956–1965. Continuing Tension. Frontier skirmishing continued along Israel's frontiers, with the economic boycott of the Arab League continuing, and growing threat of war over water rights in the Jordan River system. The Arab states, particularly Egypt, were already building up strength in hopes of revenge, obtaining plentiful Soviet equipment.

1962, September 26. U.S. Assistance to Israel. The State Department announced that the United States had agreed to sell defensive missiles to Israel in order to restore the threatened balance of power in the Middle East.
rising under the leadership of General Mohammed Naguib, his right-hand man being Colonel Gamal Abdal Nasser.

1953, June 18. Egypt Proclaimed a Republic. Naguib became first president and premier.

1954, February 25—November 14. Naguib-Nasser Struggle for Control. After considerable internal maneuvering, Naguib was finally ousted and replaced by Nasser (November 14).

1953, September 27. Agreement with Czechoslovakia. Nasser announced a commercial agreement to exchange Egyptian cotton for armaments. He stated that western nations had refused Egyptian requests for arms and that Israel was buying French warplanes.


1956, June 13. Britain Completes Withdrawal from Egypt. This ended 74 years of British military occupation in Egypt.

1956, June 18. Soviet Renews Offer to Finance Aswan Dam. This time the U.S.S.R. agreed to furnish about $1.0 billion at 2 per cent interest. President Nasser began to reopen bargaining with the U.S., Britain, and IRDB to get better terms.

1956, July 19. U.S. Withdraws Offer to Finance Aswan Dam. Disgusted by Egyptian anti-U.S. propaganda and negotiations with the U.S.S.R., Secretary Dulles withdrew the offer; Britain supported the U.S. action.

1956, July 26. Nationalization of Suez Canal. Egypt seized control of the canal from the private (primarily British) Suez Canal Corporation, announcing its nationalization. Hot debate in and out of the U.N. followed; France and Britain particularly considered the action as a threat to world peace. The U.S. was gravely concerned and began negotiations to achieve international control. The Communist bloc supported the Egyptian seizure. Nasser turned down western proposals and began to operate the canal (September 14).

1956, October 31. Franco-British Intervention. Following Israel's assault in the Sinai, France and Britain issued an ultimatum calling on Israel and Egypt to cease fire in 12 hours. Israel accepted subject to Egyptian acceptance (October 30). Egypt rejected the ultimatum. Franco-British air forces began bombardment of Egyptian air bases.

1956, November 5—7. Franco-British Invasion of Canal Zone. British paratroops, flown by helicopter from Cyprus, made vertical combat landings at Port Said while Franco-British warships bombarded the port and landed troops in an amphibious assault. One day of street fighting brought the port into the attackers' hands, and the advance continued along the canal. Egyptian resistance concentrated on the sinking of stone-laden barges and other vessels in the canal itself, completely blocking it. Immediate U.N. reaction followed, with the U.S. and U.S.S.R. for once in agreement. A cease-fire demand was reluctantly obeyed by France and Britain (November 7). By this time the northern half of the canal, from Port Said to Ismailia, had fallen into the invaders' hands. Allied losses were 33 dead and 129 wounded; Egyptian losses are unknown. Following U.N. pressure and unilateral U.S. efforts, the Franco-British forces evacuated Egyptian territory (November 19—December 22).

COMMENT. While U.S. denunciation of this bilateral assault, and the threats of the U.S.S.R. to use missiles against Britain and France and to furnish a "volunteer" army for the relief of Egypt, both played dominant roles in causing France and Britain to withdraw, a very practical military reason also underlay the decision. What might have become a fait accompli, had the operation been properly prepared, became a disastrous fumble when, due to inadequate warning and preparation, 5 inactive days elapsed between the initial air bombings and the amphibious assault. World opinion had time to react. The net result was a strengthening of Nasser's domination in Egypt and his affiliation with the U.S.S.R., and a weakening of accord amongst NATO members.

1957, March 7. Suez Canal Reopens. U.N. salvage crews took only 69 days to clear hulks from the channel, sunk there by Egyptians during the crisis.
1958, February 1. Union with Syria. The United Arab Republic was established with Yemen as another partner. This was Nasser's next move to dominate the Middle East by a powerful Arab state. Anti-Egyptian opposition in Syria broke up the short-lived partnership (September 30, 1961), but Nasser's Egypt continued as the United Arab Republic.

1961–1965. Involvement in Yemen. Breaking relations with the monarchical government of Yemen (December 26, 1961), Egypt began subversive support of a republican movement, followed by active military support of the republican government against the Imam (see below). Egyptian losses were heavy; the experience was frustrating and costly to Egypt.

YEMEN

1948, February 19. Revolt. King Hamid was overthrown and replaced by Imam Ahmed.


1956, April 3. Claim to Britain's Aden Protectorate. The nebulous boundary line became theater of a sporadic war continuing to the end of the period.

1957–1962. Communist Arms Provided to Yemen. This was through negotiations with the U.S.S.R. and later with Red China. The U.S.S.R. began extensive port construction at Hodeiya (Port Ahmed).

1961, December 26. U.A.R. Breaks Relations with Yemen. (See above.)


1962, September 27. Proclamation of "Free Yemen Republic." The rebel government, supported by the U.A.R., was also recognized by Communist-bloc nations (September 29). Heading the rebels was Colonel Abdullah al-Sallal (proclaimed president, October 31).

1962–1965. Civil War. The rebel government was assisted by the U.A.R. Egyptian troops entered the country to assist the rebels. With Egyptian forces waxing to some 35,000 strength by the end of the period, Yemen became a battleground for pro- and anti-Communist Arabs. Saudi Arabia provided active military support to the monarchical faction, while British forces resisted a republican Yemenite invasion of Aden.

LEBANON

1945–1956. Precarious Existence. The republic strove to maintain independent status despite the coaxing and threats of its neighbors to force its participation in the Pan-Arab movement. There was constant friction with Syria.


1958, April 14–July 14. Insurrection. This was inspired by the U.A.R. Fighting spread to the streets of Beirut (June 14). U.N. observers, with Dag Hammarskjöld, secretary general, arrived.

1958, July 14. Lebanese Appeal for Help*. President Camille Chamoun appealed to the U.S., Britain, and France, urging troop aid to seal the Syrian border as the revolution in Iraq (see p. 1242) set the Middle East afame and stimulated renewed unrest in Lebanon.


SYRIA

This was a period of constant unrest and inner turmoil in Syria, with frequent revolts, mutinies, and coups d'état, and equally constant border friction and skirmishing with Israel along the upper Jordan River and Sea of Galilee. Briefly, Syria was joined in a pan-Arab national union with Egypt (February 1, 1958–September 30, 1961; see above).
IRAQ

Internal affairs in Iraq were chaotic throughout the period. The central government (in its various manifestations) was more or less constantly at war with the Kurdish minority in the northwestern mountain region. Principal military events of the period were:

1946, April. Uprising in Kurdistan. The Kurd rebellion had not been suppressed by the close of the period.
1948–1949. Arab-Israeli War. (See p. 1238.)
1958, December. Iraq-Soviet Agreement Verified. U.S. sources determined that Premier Kassim had accepted Soviet arms and had entered into a working agreement with the U.S.S.R.
1959, March 8–9. Revolt Suppressed. This was an attempt by a group of officers in Masul.
1959, March 24. Iraq Withdraws from the Baghdad Pact. Soon after this, Iraq abrogated her agreements with the U.S. and refused further U.S. military aid (June).
1961, December 27. Britain Supports Kuwait. Britain dispatched naval reinforcements to the Persian Gulf to deter Kassim’s threatened annexation of Kuwait (December 24).
1963, February 8. Revolt. Kassim was deposed and executed; his estranged partner in the 1958 revolt, Abdul Salam Arif, became the new president.
1963, November 18. Military Coup. The government was overthrown; President Arif, who had been a figurehead, seized control and pledged support to Nasser of Egypt.

JORDAN

1946, March 22. Independence of Transjordan. This former League of Nations mandate was granted independence by Britain. Emir Abdullah became the first king.
1948–1949. Arab-Israeli War. Transjordan, due mainly to its British-trained Arab Legion, was the only Arab state to perform creditably against the Jewish Army of Israel (see p. 1238).
1949, June 2. Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan Established. This change of name was a step in the process of annexation of Arab Palestine (April 24, 1950), occupied by the Arab Legion during the Arab-Israeli War. This annexation was strongly protested by most other Arab League states.
1951, July 20. Assassination of Abdullah. Murder of this moderate ruler by an Arab extremist was applauded in many other Arab countries. They feared that he was moving to an accommodation with Israel. He was briefly succeeded by his eccentric son, Emir Tallal (September 5).
1952, May 2. Accession of King Hussein. This young king (only 17 when he came to the throne) proved himself a wise, tough, durable ruler, who maintained control over his volatile nation (with the help and support of his Arab Legion), despite continued and overt efforts of Nasser and most other Arab League leaders to have him overthrown or assassinated (1955–1962). By the end of the period, Hussein and Nasser, however, had temporarily resolved their differences and were at least nominally in accord on their strong anti-Israel policies.
1956, March 2. Dismissal of Glubb. British Lieutenant General John Bagot Glubb, commander of the British-subsidized Arab Legion, was dismissed by Hussein for failure to prepare for an Israeli attack. Upon
IRAN

A Communist-inspired revolt by the Tudeh party broke out. Efforts of the government to repress it were hampered by Soviet troops still in Iran. Prime Minister Qavam protested to the U.N. Security Council (January 19, 1946). The firm stand of the U.S. government in support of Iran brought withdrawal of Soviet troops (May 6), and the rebellion was later put down (December 6–11).

1946, September 15–October 7. Rebellion in

his return to Britain, Glubb was knighted (March 9).

1958, July 17–October 29. British Support to Hussein. Following the revolt in Iraq, and as combined U.A.R. and Communist pressure and threats against Hussein and Jordan mounted, British paratroops landed in Jordan, at Hussein’s request, shortly after the landings of U.S. forces in Lebanon (see p. 1241). This strong Anglo-American co-operation restored comparative stability to the Middle East.

1952. Saudi Forces Invade the Buraimi Oasis. This territory was also claimed by the Sultan of Muscat and Oman. A clash with British interests in that area ended with the ousting of the invaders (October 26, 1955) by British-led troops of Muscat and Oman.

SAUDI ARABIA

Involved like all the other nations in the Middle East in pan-Arab, anti-Jewish movements, Saudi Arabia, one of the great oil centers of the area, could be considered as at least partly amenable in policy to the Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO), which operated the fields and was the sole source of financial revenue. The death (November 9, 1953) of King Ibn Saud, a firm supporter of the West, momentarily loosed its ties with the Free World. His sons, Saud Ibn Aziz (1953–1965) and Faisal (who deposed his brother in 1965), continued, however, in attempts to maintain at least neutrality in the Cold War.

1956. Military Alliance with Egypt and Yemen. (See p. 1237.)
1957–1962. Friction with U.A.R. This brought about closer ties between Saudi Arabia and Jordan (see above).
1962–1965. Saudi Arabian Support of Royalists in Yemen. (See p. 1241.) This intensified friction with the U.A.R.

SOUTHERN ARABIA

Britain retained a shaky hegemony over the southern and southeastern regions of Arabia, from Aden to the Persian Gulf. British troops were involved in frontier fighting between Yemen and the Aden Protectorate, in suppressing internal disorders in Aden, and on the southeastern fringes of the Arabian Desert in desultory warfare between the Sultanate of Muscat and Oman and Saudi Arabia, centering around the disputed Buraimi Oasis. British troops also helped the Sultan of Muscat and Oman suppress a serious revolt (July–August, 1957).

IRAN

At the close of World War II, the U.S., British, and Soviet governments agreed to withdraw their forces from Iranian territory. The withdrawals were to be completed by March 2, 1946.

A Communist-inspired revolt by the Tudeh party broke out. Efforts of the government to repress it were hampered by Soviet troops still in Iran. Prime Minister Qavam protested to the U.N. Security
Southern Iran. This was settled by agree­
ment between government and rebellious
tribesmen.
1951, April 29. Nationalization of Oil Indus­
try. Mohammed Mossadegh, new Ira­
nian premier, ordered nationalization of
the oil industry. Violent repercussions in
Britain and the U.S. followed, and oil
production virtually ceased.
The pro-Communist dictatorial prime
minister was ousted and imprisoned by a
crap supported by Shah Mohammed Riza
Pahlavi, who became virtual prime minis­
ter himself.
1954, August 5. Iranian Oil Production Re­
newed. European and American oil in­
terests agreed to operate the former An­
glo-Iranian oil plant on a new royalty
basis.
1237.)

SOUTH ASIA

BRITISH INDIA

The post-World War II events in South Asia were shaped almost entirely by
the division of the Indian subcontinent on religious lines at the time Britain relin­
quished her colonial Empire of India in 1947: the essentially Hindu Dominion of
India and the essentially Moslem Dominion of Pakistan, the latter being divided
into 2 separate portions, about 1,000 miles apart, separated by Hindu India. Strife
and bloodshed occurred across the country during the year before partition, and
intensified immediately upon independence and partition. The principal events
were:

1946–1947. Violence and Unrest Sweep In­
dia. With Britain clearly preparing
to give independence, violence flared inter­
mittently across all of India between Hin­
dus and Moslems. The fighting was par­
ticularly intense and bloody in the Punjab,
almost equally divided between Moham­
medan and Hindu inhabitants. During one
4-month period (July–October, 1946), the
British government announced that 5,018
persons had been killed and 18,320 injured
in the Hindu-Moslem rioting. The toll was
even heavier in the early months of 1947.
1947, August 14. Independence of India and
Pakistan. India and Pakistan both re­
ceived their independence simultaneously,
and both became dominions within the
British Commonwealth of Nations. Riot­
ing, violence, and death increased through­
out both nations, and particularly in the
Punjab. Mobs of religious majorities in
both nations began to terrorize, rob, and
murder the minority groups, most of whom
took refuge beyond the partition frontier.
After about 6 weeks of slaughter, relative
peace returned, mostly because the per­
secuted minorities had been wiped out or
chased away. No reliable statistics exist,
but it is probable that close to a million
people were massacred, while 10–15 mil­
lion people were forced to flee from their
homes.

KASHMIR DISPUTE,
1947–1965

1947, October. Moslem Uprising in Kash­
mir. The decision of the Hindu Raja of
Kashmir to have his state join India (Oc­
tober 26) precipitated an uprising of the
predominantly Moslem population, who
wished to join Pakistan. Indian troops
were flown into Kashmir to quell the
uprising (October 27). Intensive fighting
broke out between air and ground forces
of the Indian government and the rebel­
lious Moslems (October 28–30).
1947, November–1949, December. Unde­
clared War in Kashmir. Pakisti troopers
crossed the border into Kashmir to assist
the Moslem rebels, precipitating an unde­
clared war between India and Pakistan.
1948, February 8. Pathan Uprising in Kash­
mir. This was suppressed by Indian
troops.
1949, January 1. Cease-Fire. U.N. mediation brought about an uneasy truce along the fighting front in Kashmir, ending 14 months of warfare.

1949–1954. Intermittent Negotiations Between India and Pakistan. No firm agreements were reached.

1953, August 20. Plebiscite Agreement. Mohammed Ali, prime minister of Kashmir, and Jawaharlal Nehru, prime minister of India, agreed to a plebiscite to settle the dispute over the state of Jammu in Kashmir. India later withdrew its agreement and imprisoned Mohammed Ali.


1954, October 4. Pakistan White Paper. This declared that negotiations with India had failed and asked the Security Council to settle the problem.


1959, February 25. U.S. Arms Aid Accepted by Pakistan, Rejected by India. President Eisenhower reported that Pakistan would receive arms aid from the U.S. to strengthen the defensive capabilities of the Middle East. India refused American aid, and Prime Minister Nehru demanded the withdrawal of U.S. members of the Cease-Fire Commission in Kashmir.


1965. Renewed Hostilities. (See below.) No settlement was in sight at the end of the period.

INDIA, 1947–1965


1948, September 15–17. Indian Occupation of Hyderabad. After the Nizam of Hyderabad had refused to join the Dominion of India, Indian troops invaded and forced unconditional surrender.


1950. Medical Unit to Korea. This was in support of the U.N. war effort (see p. 1220).


1954, April 29. Nonaggression Treaty with Communist China. This was de facto recognition of the Chinese seizure of Tibet (see p. 1260).

1954, July–August. India-Pakistan Dispute over Indus Valley Water. The dispute was settled by mediation by the International Reconstruction and Development Bank (August 5).

1954, July 22–1955, August 15. Border Clashes around Goa. Indian nationalists attempted to seize parts of the Portuguese possession, but were ejected by Portuguese troops (July–August, 1954). After further violence around Goa (August 1955), India broke off diplomatic relations with Portugal.

1959, April 3. Arrival of the Dalai Lama in India. He was seeking refuge from Chinese persecution of Tibetans (see p. 1260).

1959, August 28. Border Dispute with China. Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru reported Chinese violations of India’s frontiers with Tibet and China in the Longju and Ladakh areas.

1960, June 10. Himalayan Border Clash. India claimed Chinese troops were occupying Indian territory.

1961, March 14. Troops to the Congo. India sent troops to join the U.N. effort in the Congo (see p. 1265). The Indians were airlifted by U.S. cargo planes.

1961, December 18. Seizure of Goa. India seized the Portuguese enclaves of Goa, Damao, and Diu, which had been Portuguese possessions for four and a half centuries. There was little opposition.

Hostilities with China, October–November, 1962

1962, October 20. Chinese Invasion. Chinese troops in massive surprise attacks defeated Indian frontier forces in Jammu and in the northeastern frontier region, on fronts 1,000 miles apart. The eastern drive, in particular, was spectacularly successful, and all Indian resistance north of the Brahmaputra Valley was overrun.

1962, November 21. Chinese Unilateral Cease-Fire. Having gained all of the border regions they had claimed, the Chinese
suddenly declared a unilateral cease-fire and withdrew to lines which would assure their retention of these regions. Nehru rejected the Chinese terms for settling the dispute, but since the defeated Indians had no desire to renew the war, informal truce prevailed along the Himalayan frontiers at the end of the period.

1962–1965. Military Reform. India, receiving considerable military assistance from the U.S. and from other Commonwealth nations, attempted to revitalize her armed forces and remedy the many defects disclosed in the disastrous war with China.

Hostilities with Pakistan, May–September, 1965

1965, April–May. Undeclared War in the Rann of Kutch. A frontier dispute with Pakistan, in a desolate region where the frontier had not been clearly defined, broke into full-scale hostilities for approximately 2 weeks. The Pakistanis seem to have had slightly the better of the struggle before monsoon rains ended operations.


1965, September 1–25. Major Hostilities. In retaliation for the Indian raid, Pakistan initiated a major invasion across the cease-fire line in Kashmir (September 1). Both sides undertook minor air raids against nearby Punjab cities, as well as against Karachi and New Delhi. Indian troops launched a major attack against Lahore (September 6). The attacks on both sides soon bogged down. In large-scale armored battles, Indian units achieved marginal success over Pakistani tanks. On balance, however, a stalemate resulted.

1965, September 8. Communist China Threatens India. In the face of quiet but determined American and British diplomacy, China failed to carry out threatened actions against Indian border positions in the Himalayas.

1965, September 27. U.N. Cease-Fire Demands Honored. After accepting, then ignoring, an earlier U.N. demand (September 22), both sides agreed to abide by a Security Council cease-fire and began withdrawal to lines held on August 5. A new U.N. India-Pakistan Observation Mission (independent of the U.N. Observer Group in Kashmir) was established (September 25), and 75 observers from 8 nations came to the Punjab to supervise the cease-fire.

PAKISTAN

The military history of Pakistan during this period has been essentially that of her continuing friction with India. There have also been sporadic border disputes with Afghanistan. Pakistan is a member of the Central Treaty Organization (see p. 1237) and Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (see p. 1247).

1947, August 14. Independence. Viscount Mountbatten turned over the government of Pakistan to Mohammed Ali Jinnah in a ceremony in Karachi, as rioting, violence, and death spread through the Punjab and elsewhere along the border regions of India and Pakistan (see p. 1244).

1948, January 8. Unrest and Rioting in Karachi. A result of popular dissatisfaction with the government, the economic and political unrest generally increased during the following 10 years.

1954, May 19. U.S. Military Aid. Agreement between the U.S. and Pakistan for America to provide military supplies and technical assistance. Pakistan agreed to use the aid only for defense and participation in U.N. collective-security arrangements; In-
dia, however, proclaimed bitterly that this was giving Pakistan assistance for possible war with India.

1955, September 19. Pakistan Joins Baghdad Pact. (See p. 1237.)


1958, October 7–27. Bloodless Coup d'État. Acting through President Iskander Mirza, General Ayub Khan dismissed the government, annulled the constitution, and established a "benign martial law." He immediately began sweeping economic and political reforms, re-establishing stability. Mirza soon resigned (October 27). Ayub Khan was elected president under a new constitution (February 17, 1960).

1965, May–September. Hostilities with India. (See p. 1246.)

AFGHANISTAN


1956, August–October. Soviet Military Aid. The U.S.S.R. provided guns, ammunition, and airplanes.

NEPAL

1961, March–December. Civil War. The revolt was suppressed.

SOUTHEAST ASIA

The area became the eastern battleground for the warring ideologies—Communism vs. the Free World. The Communists, checked at least temporarily by the armistice in Korea, shifted their efforts to support existing, indigenous struggles already under way in Indochina, Malaya, and Indonesia. After the collapse of French colonial rule in Indochina (1954; see below), the U.S. took the lead in sponsoring an anti-Communist regional organization to prevent further Communist gains in the area.

SOUTHEAST ASIA TREATY ORGANIZATION (SEATO)

This treaty was established as part of the American effort to create a group of mutual-security pacts around the world after the 1954 Geneva Conference (see below). The 8 members were Australia, France, New Zealand, Pakistan, the Philippines, Thailand, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The treaty was set up for the purpose of providing for collective defense and economic co-operation in Southeast Asia, and to protect the weak nations of the region against aggression. Theoretically patterned after NATO, SEATO has been relatively helpless and ineffective, due to 3 major factors: lack of widespread support among Southeast Asian nations fearful of angering Communist China; skillful Communist subversion, diplomacy, and "agitprop"; and French foot-dragging.

1954, September 8. Manila Treaty. The defense treaty for Southeast Asia was signed in Manila by representatives of the participating governments. This followed diplomatic initiatives by the ANZUS nations (Australia, New Zealand, and the U.S., beginning June 30).


1964, April 15. SEATO Supports South Vietnam. The Ministerial Council of SEATO, meeting in Manila, issued a declaration of support of South Vietnam military efforts against the Viet Cong guerrillas. France abstained.
1945–1946. Guerrilla Warfare. British troops were forced to wage a sporadic guerrilla warfare against armed dissidents, most of whom were bandits, throughout Burma.


1947, July 19. Assassination of General Aung San. The premier of Burma, the nation’s war hero, and 5 members of his cabinet were assassinated by intruders during a cabinet meeting in Rangoon. The assassins were apprehended, tried, and executed (December 30).


1948, March. Outbreak of Communist Revolt. This began in south-central Burma, mainly in the Irrawaddy Delta.

1948, August. Outbreak of Karen Revolt. The objective was to achieve an autonomous Karen state. At first successful, the Karens, in somewhat reluctant co-operation with the Communists, gained control of much of south-central Burma. They proclaimed their independence (June 14, 1949), with capital at Toungoo.

1949, January–February. Karen Rebels at Outskirts of Rangoon. They cut the Rangoon-Mandalay railroad and were within artillery range of parts of the area within Rangoon city limits.


1950, May 19. Government Forces Capture Prome. This was the main Communist center of south-central Burma.


1953, April 23. U.N. Calls for Withdrawal of Chinese Nationalists. These were Chinese Nationalist refugee troops who were defying Burmese government authority in the northeastern portions of Burma, where they had withdrawn after the defeat of the National Government in China. Burma had complained to the U.N. (1950). The refugees refused to withdraw and the National Government of China refused to recognize them. However, after considerable U.S. pressure, some 2,000 of these Chinese Nationalist guerrillas were evacuated from Burma to Formosa (November). Early next year, 6,400 guerrillas and dependents were evacuated to Formosa (May). It was estimated, however, that at least 6,000 remained in the jungle region.

1956, July 31. Border Dispute with Communist China. Chinese troops seized 1,000 square miles of territory in northeast Burma.

1958, September 26. Military Coup. Deterioration of government control and a threatened Communist coup led General Ne Win to seize control of the government. He restored civil rule after national elections (February 6, 1960), after signing a nonaggression treaty with Communist China (January 28).


THAILAND

Despite considerable political turbulence, leading to several coups d’état and the murder of a king, Thailand as a nation has remained relatively stable, more
so than any other in the region. It has been steadfastly anti-Communist, and is a member of SEATO (see p. 1247). As the period ended, Thailand was giving substantial assistance, including base rights, to the U.S. effort in Vietnam.

1946, May 26–30. Franco-Thai Frontier Dispute. After clashes along the Mekong River, Thailand appealed to the U.N. Security Council to halt French aggression, but France insisted that the so-called military activity was simply pursuit by Chinese troops of bandits from the Siamese side of the river that had been raiding east of the river.

1946, June 9. King Ananda Dies Under Suspicious Circumstances. He was succeeded by his brother, Phumiphon.


1951, June 29–July 1. Naval Revolt Suppressed.

1951, November 29. Military Uprising Suppressed. In the confusion, however, a political coup forced Pibul to amend the constitution.


1249

INDOCHINA, 1945–1954

By the close of World War II, the guerrilla forces of Vietnamese nationalists and Communists, combined in an organization known as the Viet Minh, under the over-all political leadership of Communist Ho Chi Minh and the military leadership of initially nationalist guerrilla leader Vo Nguyen Giap, had gained control of much of the jungle region of north Vietnam. This success had been achieved with the largely unwitting assistance of the Chinese National Government and of the U.S., both happy to receive assistance from the Vietnamese against Japan, and both willing to see France eliminated from Indochina, but neither fully realizing the international Communist ties of Ho. The Viet Minh declared their independence when Japan collapsed at the close of the war but the French, through their own efforts, and with some British assistance, moved immediately to re-establish their colonial rule over the area. The resultant conflict touched off the most prolonged warfare of the entire period since World War II.

1945, September 2. Vietnam Republic Proclaimed by Ho Chi Minh.

1946, March 6. France Recognizes Independence of Vietnam. This was only as a free state within the Indochinese Federation and the French Union. Meanwhile, French military strength built up rapidly. French-imposed limitations on independence proving unacceptable to the Viet Minh, guerrilla warfare broke out, mostly in northern Vietnam, later in the year.

1947, January–February. Siege of Huế. After a siege of several weeks, French troops relieved the besieged garrison of Huế, driving off the Viet Minh guerrillas and surrounding the ancient capital of the country.

1950, January. Viet Minh Recognized by Communist China and the U.S.S.R. Increasing military assistance was given to the Viet Minh guerrillas by China. Viet Minh troops received intensive training in southern China. American military aid to French Vietnam increased with the intensity of guerrilla warfare.

1950, October. French Setbacks. Well-trained, well-equipped Viet Minh troops, operating partly from China and partly from the jungled highlands of northern Vietnam, mounted a major assault against
the French cordon of defenses in northern Tonkin, covering the Chinese border. French troops were badly defeated at Fort Caobang, near Langson (October 9). This, combined with increased activity by the Communist Pathet Lao insurgents in Laos (see p. 1252), forced the French to abandon most of northern Vietnam (October 21) and to establish a fortified perimeter around the Red River Delta in the north (December). The situation in southern and central Vietnam was not much better, with much of the Mekong Delta in Communist hands.

1950, December. De Lattre de Tassigny to Command. France sent her leading soldier to try to restore the situation. He soon re-established French morale, regained the initiative, and reoccupied most of the areas lost in late 1950.

1950, December 23. Vietnam Sovereign within French Union. A treaty was signed at Saigon.

1951-1953. Continued Guerrilla Warfare. This was combined with anti-French terrorism in the major cities. Despite De Lattre's military successes, French control could be asserted only where major French forces were stationed.

1952, September. De Lattre Relieved. Seriously ill, he returned to France via the U.S., where he pleaded for more aid. He died a few months later.

1953, January-February. Intensified French Operations. In the biggest naval operation of the war, French troops (now under General Raoul Salan) seized Quinhon, a rebel base, and destroyed several Viet Minh war factories concealed in the jungles of south Vietnam.


1953, August-October. Negotiations between France and Cambodia. France gave the government of King Norodom Sihanouk almost complete military, political, and economic sovereignty, although France retained operational control of some military forces in eastern Cambodia for purposes of prosecuting the war against the Viet Minh.

1953, October-1954, April. Intensified Viet Minh Operations. French premier Joseph Laniel said his government would accept "any honorable" solution to the war in Indochina, and was not trying to force the Viet Minh to unconditional surrender (November 12).

1953, November 20-1954, May 7. Siege of Dienbienphu. General Navarre, hoping to decoy the Communists into one large pocket and then crush them, permitted Brigadier General Christian de la Croix de Castries, with some 15,000 men—French regulars, Foreign Legion, and indigenous troops—to fortify and hold the village and an airstrip, situated 220 miles west of Hanoi and near the Laotian border. General Giap, with 4 divisions of Chinese-trained Viet Minh troops, surrounded Dienbienphu with 2 divisions while the remainder of his force sealed it off and swept into Laos. Against the French artillery—24 105-mm. and 4 155-mm. howitzers—Giap assembled the overwhelming fire power of over 200 guns, including antiaircraft artillery and rocket launchers. A trickle of supply by air from Hanoi, little enough when the defenders still held the air field, ceased with its capture (March 27). Attempts at air drop failed; the Viet Minh antiaircraft artillery was too good. Of 420 French aircraft available for this purpose, 62 were shot down and 107 others damaged. One by one the outlying strong points of the Dienbienphu defense complex fell to a combination of mining, well-directed artillery fire, and direct assault. A final assault overran the starving defenders as their last ammunition was expended (May 7). Only 73 of the 15,094-man garrison escaped. Some 10,000—half of them wounded—were captured; the remainder were dead. Viet Minh losses were estimated at 25,000.

COMMENT. The fall of Dienbienphu virtually ended French control over Indochina. At the same time, it proved the fallacy of cordon defense in jungle warfare, particularly when the opponents are well trained, armed, and supplied. French military thought in this instance was still clinging to methods used against guerrillas in North Africa and, in 1882-1883, in this very area. (See p. 864;
the French garrison of Tuyen-Quang successfully resisted besiegement by "Black Flag" indigenous guerrillas from November 23, 1884, to February 28, 1885. But the "Black Flags," while fanatically brave, had neither discipline nor resources, and were unable to hold up the French relief column advancing from Hanoi, only 50 miles away.

1954, April 26–July 21. Geneva Conference. The Conference on Far Eastern Affairs of 19 nations (including Communist China) resulted in an agreement for a cease-fire and divided Tonkin and Annam into North (Communist) and South (anti-Communist) Vietnam as independent nations divided at the 17th parallel of North Latitude. Cambodia, which had proclaimed its independence of France (November 9, 1953), and Laos, its independence proclaimed (July 19, 1949), were both recognized as neutral independent states. The United States accepted the agreements, but refused to sign them, and reserved the right to take whatever action was necessary in the event that the agreements were breached. France withdrew her troops from Indochina, but continued military direction and instruction in South Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia, while the U.S. assumed the chore of providing military equipment and instruction as well as economic aid.


VIETNAM, 1954–1965


1955, January 20. U.S. Military Aid. The U.S., France, and Vietnam agreed to reorganize the Vietnamese Army with 100,000 active troops and 150,000 reserves. The U.S. was to send a training mission to operate under the direction of General Paul Ely, new French commander in Indochina.

1955, October 26. Republic Proclaimed. Diem was inaugurated president.

1956–1964. Continuous Insurrection. This was sponsored by the Communist bloc, despite efforts of the government to control rebellious factions (Viet Cong) supported by troops and equipment from North Vietnam in turn aided and supported by Communist China. U.S. efforts to strengthen the Vietnamese military force consistently increased, without retrieving the situation.

1960, November 4. Military Revolt against Diem. This was suppressed.

1961, October 11. U.S. Assistance Pledged. The U.S. agreed to support the government of South Vietnam against attacks by Communist Viet Cong guerrillas. General Maxwell D. Taylor was sent to Vietnam by President John F. Kennedy to determine the most effective means of help. President Kennedy sent a personal message to President Diem with a pledge to continue assistance (October 26).


1962, February 8. U.S. Military Assistance Command Established. The purpose was to demonstrate U.S. determination to prevent a Communist takeover.

1963, November 1–2. Military Coup d'État. The government of President Diem was overthrown; he and his brother were killed. A provisional government was established under former Vice-President Nguyen Ngoc Tho, and was recognized by the U.S. Actual control was under a military junta led by Major General Duong Van Minh.

1964, January 30. Military Coup d'État. The government was overthrown by Major General Nguyen Khanh.

1964, August 2–4. Action in the Gulf of Tonkin. Three North Vietnamese PT boats attacked a U.S. destroyer. The PT boats were repelled and damaged or sunk by the destroyer and U.S. planes. A similar incident occurred 2 days later (August 4).

1964, August 5. U.S. Air Strikes against North Vietnam. American carrier-based strikes against naval bases were ordered by President Johnson in retaliation for the PT-boat attacks.

1964, August 7. Gulf of Tonkin Resolution. Congress approved a resolution giving President Lyndon B. Johnson authority to take "all necessary measures to repel any armed attack" against U.S. armed forces. It also authorized him to take "all neces-
sary steps, including the use of armed forces,” to help any nation requesting aid “in defense of its freedom” under the Southeast Asia Collective Defense Treaty.

1964, August-September. Political Turmoil. The government of General Khanh survived riots and demonstrations, but only by promising to give early control to a civilian government and suppressing an attempted military revolt (September 13).

1964, November 4. Civilian Regime Installed. General Khanh resigned as Tran Van Huong became premier.


1965, January 27. Khanh Deposed. After a complicated series of moves, in which civilian Phan Huy Quat was installed as premier, with Khanh retaining behind-the-scenes control, the Armed Forces Council voted to oust Khanh as council chairman and armed forces commander. Quat remained premier.

1965, March 8. U.S. Combat Forces Arrive. A U.S. Marine brigade was committed to Vietnam to guard U.S. air installations, both to assure better security of the main U.S. air base at Danang and to release Vietnam forces for offensive activity against the Viet Cong. By midsummer, U.S. ground combat forces had increased to about 25,000, with another 50,000 American military personnel (including Air Force combat units) stationed in Vietnam performing other support and advisory roles. By the end of the year the total American strength in Vietnam was close to 190,000. Greater U.S. involvement was expected. By the end of the period total U.S. casualties since 1961 were 1,484 killed and 7,337 wounded.

1965, June 12-19. Bloodless Government Upheaval. Premier Quat resigned as a result of religious turmoil involving Buddhists and Catholics. The military took over and elected Air Vice-Marshal Nguyen Cao Ky (age 36) as premier. This was the eighth government since the overthrow of Diem (November, 1963).

LAOS

Its independence proclaimed (July 19, 1949), and recognized as a neutral nation by the Geneva Conference (see p. 1251), Laos nevertheless became the center of a maelstrom of Communist-inspired outbreaks by the indigenous Pathet Lao, supported by both the U.S.S.R. and Communist China. U.S. support of the Royal Laotian Army (July 9, 1955) was temporarily suspended (October, 1960) as the country seethed in a 3-cornered conflict—rightist forces under General Phoumi Nosavan, neutralist troops under Premier Prince Souvanna Phouma, and the Communist Pathet Lao under Souvanna’s half-brother, Prince Souphanouvong.

The Plaine des Jarres area in north-central Laos was the arena for most of the fighting, an endless series of inconclusive clashes. Stepped-up assaults by the Pathet Lao brought a concentration of 5,000 U.S. troops into Thailand (May 19, 1962) to protect that nation’s border. This force was withdrawn (July 30), its mission accomplished. U.S. military advisers to the Laotian Army were withdrawn by October 7. During 1962, Laotian territory became a convenient communications channel for North Vietnamese troops infiltrating South Vietnam in support of the Viet Cong. On May 17, 1964, the U.S. instituted a continuous aerial reconnaissance sweep of Laos by jet planes. The principal events were:

1953, October 22. Independence of Laos. France and Laos signed a treaty giving the state full independence and sovereignty within the French Union.


1961, March 23. U.S. Warnings. President Kennedy announced that the U.S. would not stand idly by and permit Laos to be taken over by advancing externally supported pro-Communist rebel forces. A previous warning had been made without effect by the Eisenhower administration (December 31).


1962, May 12. U.S. Troop Deployments. As a result of Pathet Lao violation of the 1961 cease-fire agreement and the overrun of most of northern Laos, President Kennedy ordered a task force of the U.S. Seventh Fleet to move toward the Indochina peninsula. He then ordered 4,000 more U.S. troops to Thailand (where some 1,000 U.S. troops were already stationed, May 15).


1962, October 5. Withdrawal of U.S. Military Advisers. This was in compliance with the Geneva Agreement. There were approximately 800 U.S. advisers and technicians withdrawn.

1963, April. Renewed Conflict. Major fighting between neutral and Pathet Lao forces stopped after 3 weeks by a cease-fire agreement. Small-scale warfare continued.

CAMBODIA

After its recognition by the Geneva Conference (see p. 1251) as a “neutral” state, Cambodia was in continual friction with her neighbors and with the U.S. as the country veered ever more strongly toward the Communist bloc under its head of state (and ex-king) Prince Norodom Sihanouk. Norodom accepted military aid from the Communist bloc, while placing restrictive conditions upon the reception of U.S. aid. Early (February 18, 1956) he renounced the protection of SEATO. Border clashes with South Vietnam were frequent; free movement through Cambodia of Viet Cong guerrillas was apparently permitted or condoned. Relations with Thailand were equally bad throughout the period.

1953, June 14. King Norodom Sihanouk into Voluntary Exile. He went to Thailand to promote his fight for complete independence from the French Union.


MALAYSIA

1948, February 1. Federation of Malaya Established. This comprised British colonies on the Malay Peninsula.

1948, February–May. Communist Revolt Begins. This was mainly among the predominantly Chinese element of the population.


1952, February 7. British Offensive Begins. General Sir Gerald Templer, High Commissioner and commander of government forces in the Federation, instituted a concerted, well-planned anti-insurgency cam-
paign. Some 45,000 troops—regulars and special local forces—began warfare against the rebels, combat and psychological.

1954, February 8. Communist High Command Withdraws. British authorities in Kuala Lumpur announced that the Communist party’s high command in Malaya had moved to Sumatra. While this was a victory for Britain in their 6-year war, it was also an indication of an attempt to establish a Communist Indonesian front.

1957, August 31. Federation Becomes a Constitutional Monarchy. It remained within the Commonwealth. By this time, the revolt had been suppressed for all practical purposes, though a few pockets of resistance remained in remote jungle areas.

1960, July 31. Emergency Officially Ended. The government announced that the crushing of revolt was completed. Total casualties: Communist rebels, 6,705 killed, 1,286 wounded, 2,696 surrendered; government troops, 2,384 killed, 2,400 wounded.

1962, December 8. Revolt in Borneo. This Indonesian-supported rebellion was quickly suppressed.

1963, September 16. Federation of Malaysia Proclaimed. This included Singapore, Sabah, and Sarawak added to the Federation of Malaya. The new state, a Free World bastion against Communist aggression and encroachments in Southeast Asia, at once became target for attack by Communist-oriented Indonesia (see p. 1255). British military support bolstered the Malaysian defense against interior terrorism and Indonesian raids.

1964, May 3. Sukarno Announces Intent to Crush Malaysia. As the period ended, sporadic fighting continued (see below).

1964, July 22. U.S. Pledges Support for Malaysia. This was to bolster the new nation against Indonesian threats.

INDONESIA

1945, August 17. Independence of Republic of Indonesia. This was declared by Achmed Sukarno and Mohammed Hatta after the collapse of Japan, in an effort to forestall Dutch reoccupation.

1945, September 29. British and Dutch Troops Arrive in Batavia. They began to disarm and repatriate Japanese forces, and to re-establish Dutch control over Netherlands East Indies.

1945, October 14. Hostilities Begin. The Indonesian People’s Army declared war against occupying British and Dutch forces.


1945, November 29. Fall of Surabaya. British troops captured the rebel capital after an intensive battle with Indonesian nationalists.

1946, November 13. Cheribon Agreement. The Dutch recognized the Indonesian Republic (Java, Sumatra, and Madura) and U.S. of Indonesia—to include Borneo, Celebes, Sunda, and Molucca Islands—all under the Netherlands Crown. Clashes with the Dutch continued.


1948, December 19. Dutch Airborne Troops Capture Jogjakarta. This was the capital of the Indonesian rebels. The Dutch soon gained effective control of the entire island of Java (December 25).


1949, November 2. The Netherlands Grants Full Sovereignty.

1950, August 15. Republic of Indonesia Is Proclaimed.


1955, April 18–27. Bandung Conference. Delegates from 29 Asian and African nations met at Bandung, and announced their aims as elimination of colonialism, independence and self-determination for all peoples, and membership for all nations in the U.N.

1957–1963. Indonesian Harassment against West New Guinea. The Indonesians claimed that this territory (called by them
West Irian) should be given to them by the Dutch.

1962, January-August. Sporadic Hostilities. Indonesian torpedo boats off the coast of Dutch New Guinea were attacked by Netherlands forces (January 16). Soon afterward, a guerrilla campaign on Netherlands New Guinea was started by Sukarno (February 20).


1962, December. Indonesian-sponsored Revolt in Brunei. The insurgency was suppressed by British troops.

1963, September 15. Harassment of Malaysia Begins. Following proclamation of the Federation of Malaysia, Sukarno refused to recognize the new federation, saying “we will fight and destroy it.” Continual diplomatic and guerrilla harassment followed, with frequent infiltrations of Indonesian guerrillas into Malaysian territory (see p. 1254).

1965, October 1. Communist Coup Effort. The Indonesian Army defeated the Communist effort, and a wave of anti-Communist, anti-Chinese violence swept the islands. Control was seized by Army General Suharto. The powers of Sukarno were sharply reduced by the army.

PHILIPPINES


1946–1954. Hukbalahap Rebellion. This Communist-led peasant party, dominating central Luzon, conducted civil war against government troops for nearly a decade before being subdued. Primary responsibility for success of the antiguerrilla operations was that of Ramon Magsaysay, minister of defense.


1954. The Philippines Join SEATO. (See p 1247.)

EAST ASIA

CHINA (NATIONAL REPUBLIC)

The civil war between the National Government (of the Kuomintang party) and the Chinese Communist party, which began in 1926, and which was only partially interrupted by the war against Japan, burst into even fiercer flames at the time of the Japanese surrender. Chiang Kai-shek’s National Government, decisively defeated, withdrew from the mainland to Formosa (1949), where with U.S. support it defiantly continued to claim to be the legal government of China, now ruled from Peking by Mao Tse-tung. The principal events were:

1945, August 14. Treaty with U.S.S.R. This pledged friendship and alliance between Soviet Russia and Chiang Kai-shek’s Nationalist Government (see p. 1231). The Manchurian Railway and the port of Dairen were to be held in joint ownership for 30 years. Port Arthur was to become a Soviet-Chinese naval base and the independence of Outer Mongolia recognized.

1945, August. Renewed Chinese Civil War. Chinese Communist forces moved to take over as much of the Japanese-occupied areas as possible, ignoring Chiang’s orders to halt. To permit Nationalist compliance with agreed Allied terms of Japanese surrender, and to forestall Communist takeover of all North China, General Albert C. Wedemeyer, still Chiang’s Chief of Staff, provided American sea and air lift (August–October) to move Nationalist forces to Central and North China. By mid-October about 500,000 Nationalist troops had been so moved.

1945, August 28. American-Sponsored Na-
tionalist-Communist Negotiations. After persuading Chiang to issue an invitation, U.S. Ambassador Patrick J. Hurley personally escorted Mao to Chungking for a peace conference. After nearly two months, this broke down, when Nationalists discovered that a large Communist force under General Lin Piao was quietly moving into southwest Manchuria.

1945, September 30. Arrival of U.S. Marines. To prevent an expected clash of Nationalist and Communist forces, the U.S. First Marine Division and other units were landed in eastern Hopei and Shantung. This force soon grew to about 53,000 men. They occupied Peiping, Tientsin, and coastal areas of both provinces.

1945, November 15. Nationalist Offensive in Southwest Manchuria. Nationalist requests to move troops into Manchuria by sea through the Liaotung Peninsula were rejected by Soviets, who occupied the region under agreed Allied terms for Japanese surrender. Nationalist troops were landed at Chinwangtao, in the area held by U.S. Marines. They attacked across the Great Wall into regions held by Communists, outside the Russian zone of occupation. The well-trained, well-equipped Nationalists pushed aside the Communists and soon held the region as far as Chin-chow (November 26).


1945, December 5. Hurley Accuses Foreign Service Officers. Disappointed by failure of his negotiation efforts, Hurley had resigned (November 26). He now charged that his failure had been largely due to obstructive efforts of pro-Communist American Foreign Service officers.

1945, December 14. Marshall as Mediator. U.S. General of the Army George C. Marshall, recently retired as U.S. Army Chief of Staff, was sent to China as personal representative of President Truman, with mission of mediating the dispute.

1946, January 14. Truce in China. Achieved as a result of Marshall’s mediation. Despite frequent violations, and nonapplication in Manchuria, this truce remained in effect in most of China for nearly six months.

1946, February 25. Nationalist-Communist Accord. National Government and Communist representatives, meeting with General Marshall and other U.S. mediators, agreed to unify the Chinese armed forces into one national army with 50 Nationalist and 10 Communist divisions. This agreement broke down within a few weeks.

Operations in Manchuria, 1946–1948

1946, March 1. Soviet Forces Begin Withdrawal from Manchuria. Chinese Communist troops, scattered about the countryside, moved toward the cities, as Nationalist troops advanced up the main roads and railroads from the southwest. The Soviets had completely dismantled all Japanese-built factories and industrial facilities, and moved the equipment to Siberia. Vast stores of captured Japanese military equipment, however, were left behind by the Russians where they could be seized by the Chinese Communists, enough to equip the entire Chinese Communist Army.

1946, March 10–15. Battle for Mukden (Shenyang). The day following the Russian withdrawal from the city, a battle broke out for control. The Nationalists were successful; they pushed northward.


1946, April 14–18. First Battle of Ch’angch’un. A Nationalist contingent of 4,000, airlifted into Ch’angch’un, was driven out by numerically superior Communists.

1946, April 16–May 20. Second Battle of Szeping. The Nationalist New First Army, 70,000 veterans of the Burma Campaigns under Sun Li-jen, drove out 110,000 well-entrenched Communists, who claimed they had been attacked by American planes. The Nationalists immediately pushed north toward Ch’angch’un.

1946, April 25–28. Communists Seize Harbin and Tsitsihar. The National Government made no effort to seize these northern cities as the Russians completed their withdrawal from Manchuria (May 3).

1946, May 22. Communists Evacuate Ch’angch’un. Nationalist troops seized the city
and continued their northward drive against ineffectual resistance.

1946, June 1. Crossing the Sungari. The Nationalists continued their drive toward Harbin, as Communist resistance stiffened.


1946, June–December. Stalemate in Manchuria. During the truce the Communists had strengthened their defenses south of Harbin; the Nationalist advance was stalled. The Nationalists, now over 200,000 strong, held the principal centers of southern and central Manchuria, a bridgehead north of the Sungari, and controlled the railroads. The drain of garrisoning these areas precluded assembling and supporting forces large enough to continue the drive toward Harbin. The Communists, who had recruited the disbanded Manchukuan army, had a strength of over 500,000 and held the countryside, but were unable to mount effective attacks against the Nationalists. After cessation of U.S. military assistance (see p. 1258), Nationalist forces in Manchuria went completely on the defensive, to conserve supplies and to permit Nationalist offensives elsewhere in China (see below).

1947, January–March. Communist Sungari River Probes. General Lin Piao, commanding Communist forces in Manchuria, launched three offensives across the Sungari, southwest of the Nationalist bridgehead. All were repulsed.

1947, May–June. Sungari River Offensive. Some 270,000 Communists converged on Ch’angch’un, Kirin, and Szeping. All three cities were isolated, and supplied by air. The Nationalists evacuated their bridgehead. Two Nationalist armies were rushed north from Liaotung.

1947, June–July. Third Battle of Szeping. The Communists briefly occupied the rail center (June 16), but were finally repulsed. A lull followed, as both sides prepared for further action (July–August).

1947, September 20. Communists Begin Liaosi Corridor Offensive. The purpose was to cut off Mukden from overland communications to North China. Counteroffensive by Nationalist field commander in Manchuria, Cheng Tung-kuo, finally secured the corridor (October 10).


1948, September 12. Renewed Liaosi Corridor Offensive. The Communists seized the corridor, repulsing all Nationalist efforts to reopen the line of communications to the south. Chiang flew to Peking to assume command. Finding the situation in Manchuria to be hopeless, he ordered the garrisons to withdraw, fighting their way south. Ch’angch’un was evacuated (October 21).

1948, October 27–30. Battle of Mukden-Chinchow. Retreating Nationalist columns, 3 armies, were struck by a massive Communist counteroffensive. All were killed, captured, or dispersed. The Nationalist commander, General Liao Yuehsiang, competent Burma veteran, was killed.

1948, November 1. Fall of Mukden. The small remaining Nationalist garrison surrendered. By the end of the year the Communists held all of Manchuria. The Nationalists had lost 300,000 of their best troops.

Operations in North and Central China, 1946–1949


1946, May 5. Hostilities at Hankow. This was one of many breakdowns in the cease-fire established in January (see p. 1256).

July–November. Nationalist North China Offensive. Claiming the provocation of frequent Communist truce violations, Chiang ordered a major offensive to seize North China, hoping to prevent Communists from entrenching themselves. The offensive was highly successful. The Nationalists recovered most of Kiangsu, reopened
the Tsinan-Tsingtao railway in Shantung, occupied Jehol and much of Hopeh. The Communists undertook minor counteroffensives, winning temporary successes along the Lung-Hai Railway (Sian-Kaifeng-Hsuchow) and in north Shansi.

1946, July 29. U.S. Halts Military Equipment Assistance. General Marshall, annoyed by the Nationalist offensive, and under strong Communist propaganda attack for U.S. assistance to the Nationalists, ordered an embargo of all U.S. military assistance to both sides. This actually only affected the U.S.-equipped armies of the National Government. Chiang ordered units in Manchuria to go on the defensive, but continued the North China offensive in belief he could win before supplies ran out. This U.S. action had serious psychological as well as practical effects on the National military situation.

1946, September. U.S. Marines Begin Withdrawal. This was interpreted by many Chinese as further evidence of U.S. abandonment of the National Government.

1946, November 8. Chiang Orders Nationalist Cease-fire. He informed General Marshall that he was willing to resume negotiations. Nationalist overtures and U.S. mediation efforts were rejected by the Communists.

1947, January 6. Failure of the Marshall Mission. At Marshall’s request, he was recalled by President Truman. Marshall left China, criticizing both sides (January 7). Remaining U.S. Marines in North China (about 12,000) were ordered to withdraw, save for one regiment left in Tientsin under terms of 1901 Boxer Protocol.

1947, January–December. Nationalists on the Defensive. They held the towns and main railroads. Elsewhere the Communists seized the initiative, save for one continuing Nationalist offensive in Shensi.

1947, March 19. Nationalists Capture Yenan. The Nationalist offensive in Shensi captured the Communist capital; Mao Tsetung was forced to flee. Elsewhere the Communists held the initiative, and Mao refused to call back any troops from more important theaters of the war to defend his capital.

1947, October. Communist Offensives. Coordinated with offensives in Manchuria, Liu Po-ch'eng’s Central Plains Army and Chen Yi’s East China Field Army were active in the area between the Yangtze River and the Lung-Hai Railway and in Shantung. Chen Yi’s forces cut the railroad line north of Kaifeng, cutting the main line of communications of Nationalist armies in North China.


1948, May–September. Communist Offensives in Yellow River Valley. Armies of Chen and Liu steadily reduced Nationalist holdings north of Yellow River. This offensive culminated in the Battle of Tsinan (September 14–24), in which 80,000 Nationalist troops defected or were captured.

1948–1949, November–January. Battle of the Hwai Hai. Under over-all command of Chen Yi, his army and Liu Po-ch'eng's attacked the Nationalist Seventh and Second Army groups, deployed along the Lung-Hai Railway generally east of Kaifeng. About 500,000 troops were involved on each side. While the East China Field Army pinned down the Seventh Army Group, between Hsuchow and the sea, the Central Plains Field Army smashed into and through the flank of the Second Army Group, west of Hsuchow toward the Hwai River. Efforts of the Seventh and Second Army Groups to retreat to the Hwai were blocked. Much of the Second Army Group broke through, but the Seventh Army Group was destroyed. Total Nationalist casualties exceeded 250,000 men; among those killed were the commanders of both Nationalist Army groups.


1949, January 22. Fall of Peking. Nationalist General Fu-Tso-yi surrendered to the Communists after a long siege. Mao Tsetung soon thereafter moved the Communist capital to Peking from Yenan.

1949, February. Evacuation of Last U.S. Troop Contingent. Withdrawal of the U.S. 3d Marine Regiment from Tientsin was considered by both sides to indicate American abandonment of the National Government.

1949, April 1. Nationalist Peace Effort. Li Tsung-jen sent a delegation to Peking to seek Communist agreement to a division
of China at the Yangtze. The Communists rejected this, insisting upon Nationalist surrender.

1949, April 20. Communists Cross the Yangtze River. Liu Po-Ch’eng’s redesignated Second Field Army and Chen Yi’s Third Field Army crossed on a broad front between Nanking and Wuhan. During the crossing two British warships on the Yangtze were attacked and severely damaged by Communist artillery. As Communist troops approached Nanking, the movement of the National Government capital to Canton (begun January 19) was completed.

1949, April 22. Fall of Nanking. This was followed by the capture of Hsuchow (April 26), Wuhan (May 17), Nanchang (May 23), and Shanghai (May 27). Two other important beleaguered cities north of the Yangtze also surrendered: Taiyuan (April 24) and Sian (May 20).

1949, May-December. Nationalist Collapse. Many Nationalist commanders and troop units defected to the Communists. As the Communist armies approached Canton (October), the capital was shifted to Chungking.

1949, August 5. U.S. White Paper. This State Department document, criticizing the Nationalist Government, formally announced cutoff of all further military aid.


1949, November 30. Fall of Chungking. Chiang established a new capital at Ch’engtu.

1949, December 7. Withdrawal to Formosa. Chiang’s government and all his remaining troops successfully completed withdrawal from the mainland as Communist columns approached Ch’engtu. Nationalist troops retained offshore islands of Quemoy, Tachen, and Matsu.

1950. National Government Reforms. Following institution of social and political reforms of the sort promised while the government was still on the mainland, the U.S. resumed economic and military assistance.

1950, June 25. Chiang Offers Military Assistance to U.N. in Korea. Favorably considered by General MacArthur, the offer was turned down by President Truman, who (June 27) ordered the U.S. Seventh Fleet to prevent either Red Chinese attack on Formosa or Nationalist assault against the mainland.


1952, February 1. U.S.S.R. Censured by U.N. General Assembly. A resolution was approved charging Russia with obstructing the efforts of the National Government of China to retain control of Manchuria following Japan’s surrender, and giving military assistance to the Chinese Communists.

1953, February 2. Chiang “Unfettered.” President Eisenhower declared that the Seventh Fleet would no longer “serve as a defensive arm of Communist China.”

1954, August 17. Communist Threats against Formosa. President Eisenhower said that the Seventh Fleet would go to the defense of Formosa if the Chinese Communists should attempt to invade.

1954, September 3. Heavy Bombardment of Quemoy. Increased activity threatened an invasion of Formosa, and the Seventh Fleet moved to take up positions to defend it.

1954, December 2. Mutual Defense Treaty with the United States. Fear of further involvement of the U.S. in Asian war led to new restrictions on Nationalist China, whose territorial limits were described in the treaty (signed March 3, 1955) as “Formosa and the Pescadores.” Communist bombardment of Quemoy and Matsu continued.

1955, January. Tachen Islands Threatened. Intense Chinese Communist pressure against the islands by airplane raids and small-craft raids. The U.S. Seventh Fleet helped to evacuate 25,000 military and 17,000 civilians from the islands (February 6–11). Meanwhile, President Eisenhower asked Congress for emergency powers to permit U.S. armed forces to protect Formosa and the Pescadores islands, and to assist the National Government in defending the islands (January 24).


1958, August 23. Blockade of Quemoy by Communist Artillery. Continuous bom-
bardment interrupted supply to the islands for both garrison and civilian population. Strenuous effort of Seventh Fleet, convoying supply by water and air, defeated the Red plan (September). The blockade fire gradually died down (October), dwindling to almost nothing (June, 1958).


1962–1965. Civil War Continues. Undiminished tension between Formosa and the mainland, with sporadic guerrilla operations by the Nationalists harassing the Red mainland littoral.

COMMUNIST CHINA (PEOPLE’S REPUBLIC), 1949–1965

1949, September 21. People's Republic Proclaimed at Peking. Mao Tse-tung was named chairman of the Central People’s Government; Chou En-lai, premier. Immediate recognition was granted by the U.S.S.R. and its satellites, also by India, Burma, and Ceylon. Great Britain soon recognized the new state (January 6, 1950).

1950, February 15. Treaty of Friendship and Alliance with U.S.S.R.


1950, October 7. Invasion of Tibet. (See below.)

1950, October 26. Intervention in Korean War. (See p. 1213.)


1959, August 29. Indian Border Violated by Chinese Troops. (See p. 1245.)


1960, June 3. Anti-Chinese Revolt in Tibet. (See below.)


1962, October 20–November 21. India-China Border War. (See p. 1245.) Before the fighting ended, some 3,213 Indian soldiers and 800 Indian civilians had been made prisoner; total casualties are unknown. Prisoners were later returned (April, 1963).


1964, October 16. China Explodes Its First Atomic Bomb. She became the world’s fifth nuclear power.

TIBET

1949, November 24. Communist “Liberation” of Tibet Urged. This was a radio appeal from Peking by the Panchen Lama—refugee rival of Tibet’s nominal ruler, the Dalai Lama. The Chinese Communist government soon announced its intention of doing just this (January 1, 1950).

1950, October. Chinese Communist Invasion. A large Chinese force swept across the frontiers despite a Tibetan appeal to the U.N. (November 10), soon overrunning the entire country. The Dalai Lama was permitted to remain as a figurehead ruler in Lhasa. Widespread revolt continued despite fierce Communist repressive measures (1950–1954).

1954, Spring and Summer. Widespread Revolt. This was suppressed by Chinese Communist troops. Most of the 40,000 rebels were killed or executed.


1959, March 10–27. Rebellion. This was suppressed by Chinese Communist troops. The Dalai Lama fled from Lhasa to India, where political asylum was afforded. He formally accused Communist China of genocide and suppression of human rights, asserting that 65,000 Tibetans had been killed in the revolt, 10,000 young people and children deported to China, and 5 million Chinese moved into Tibet in a resettlement project.

Resistance was sporadic, weak, and relatively ineffective.

KOREA

1945, December 27. Moscow Declaration. The U.S., Soviet, British, and French foreign ministers announced the establishment of a U.S.-Soviet Joint Commission for the purpose of unifying Korea in accordance with the terms of the Cairo Agreement (see p. 1208).


1949, June 29. Withdrawal of U.S. Occupation Forces Completed. (See p. 1209.)

1951-1954. Japan Begins Limited Rearmament. Despite apparently sincere devotion to the war-renunciation clause of the constitution, it became apparent to Japan that internal and external security required military forces. With U.S. encouragement, Japan began to develop small “self-defense forces.”

AFRICA

Before World War II, Africa, the second largest continent in land area, included but one truly independent nation: tiny, unimportant Liberia. The Union of South Africa, in fact independent, as a dominion was a part of the British Empire. Egypt, nominally independent, was actually under British protection and influence. Ethiopia, which had been truly independent, had recently been conquered by Italy (see p. 1040). In the 20 years after World War II, complete independence was achieved by all nations and regions of Africa, save for a few insignificant Spanish coastal colonies and the large Portuguese colonies of Angola and Mozambique. This achievement of independence, however, did not in the slightest halt the working of the forces of nationalism (and related anticolonialism) in the independent
nations or in the few remaining colonial areas. Revolution, new nationalism, new and indigenous imperialism, Communist subversion (of two varieties, one directed from Moscow and the other from Peking), racial antagonisms, and sweeping technological change kept most of Africa in constant turbulence for the entire period. There were internal and external military actions and hostilities of one sort or another in practically every nation and colonial region of the continent. Only the most important will be noted here.

NORTH AFRICA

Tunisia


1955, June 3. Full Internal Autonomy Granted by France. This was effective September 1.

1956, March 17. Independence. All former treaties and conventions were abrogated.

Habib Bourguiba was chosen premier (March 25). France retained several military bases.


1958, February–June. Clashes with France. These were sporadic border incidents, mostly French punitive action in response to Tunisia-based operations of Algerian nationalists.


1962, June. French Evacuation Completed. Air-base rights were retained by France.

Morocco


1953, August 15–20. French-Inspired Uprising. Tribal leaders in Marrakesh rose against the sultan, under the influence of pro-French leader Thami Al-Glaoui. The sultan was deposed and sent into exile by the French.


1955, August 19–November 5. Intensified Guerrilla Hostilities. French efforts to suppress the risings of Berber tribes and the terrorism in the countryside and in the cities were not very successful.

1955, November 5. France Agrees to Independence. Mohammed V was restored to power.

1956, March 2. Protectorate Status Ceases. France and Morocco by mutual agreement terminated the Treaty of Fez (March 30, 1912). Spain relinquished her protectorate over Spanish Morocco (April 17), and the international status of the Tangier zone later ended (October 29).

1957–1964. Foreign Troops and Bases Withdrawn. Morocco called for evacuation of foreign troops. The last of a large complex of U.S. air bases was returned in 1964; French and Spanish forces had been previously withdrawn. As the period ended, the enclave of Spanish Sahara still remained in statu quo.


1963, October 13–30. Border War with Algeria. Large-scale hostilities broke out along a disputed frontier area in the Atlas Mountains–Sahara Desert region after prolonged tension and a number of incidents. A cease-fire was arranged through the mediation of Emperor Haile Selassie of Ethiopia and President Modibo Keita of Mali.

Algeria

1945–1954. Autonomy Demanded. The first clash (May 8, 1959) between nationalists and French caused the death of 88 French and more than 1,000 Algerians.

1954–1962. Open Rebellion. The FLN (Front de Libération Nationale, organized
1951) started organized warfare, which was to continue until freedom had been attained. Use of Tunisian bases by the FLN strained French relations with Tunisia (see p. 1262). The insurrection drew nearly one-half of the entire French Army into Algeria, with resulting casualties of 10,200 French soldiers and some 70,000 Algerian insurgents killed.

1958, May 13. French Officer Uprising. Brigadier General Jacques Massu established a Committee of Public Safety, protesting against political leadership in the war. This started the chain of political events in France that brought de Gaulle to power (see p. 1227).

1958, June 1. De Gaulle Offers Self-Determination by Referendum. This was opposed by the pieds noirs (Algerians of French descent). Rioting and terrorism were manipulated by the "Secret Army" (or OAS, an extremist group organized by pieds noirs and French military men). De Gaulle visited Algeria and demanded dissolution of the Committee of Public Safety, restoring French government control in Algeria.

1960, January 22–February 1. Uprising of French Rightists in Algiers. They were opposed to de Gaulle's policy of self-determination for Algeria. This was suppressed by loyal French troops under General Maurice Challe.


1962, March 7–18. Cease-Fire. Evian negotiations brought a cease-fire between Moslem nationalists (FLN) and French Army. Ahmed Ben Bella was chosen as premier.

1962–1965. Continuing Internal Unrest. There was widespread opposition to Ben Bella’s relatively inefficient and dictatorial government, closely aligned with the U.S.S.R. and with the U.A.R. There were several mutinies, revolts, and uprisings around the country.

1963, October. Border War with Morocco. (See p. 1262.)

1965, June 19. Overthrow of Ben Bella. Control of the nation was seized in a near-bloodless coup d’état by the army commander, Communist-trained Colonel Houari Boumedienne, a hero of the revolution against France.

Libya


1953, July 29. Treaty with Britain. This gave Britain 20-year rights to maintain military establishments in Libya, in return for which Britain was to pay Libya £1 million a year for 5 years for economic development and £2.75 million a year to aid in balancing the Libyan budget.

1954, September 9. Agreement with the U.S. An agreement was signed in Benghazi, giving the United States use of air bases in Libya in return for payment of $5 million in 1954, $2 million yearly for 20 years.

Sudan


1955, August 16. British and Egyptian Withdrawal Demanded. The parliament of Sudan asked Britain and Egypt to evacuate their troops from the Sudan in 90 days. Britain with 900 troops and Egypt with 500 agreed to be out by November 12.

1956, January 1. Independent Republic Proclaimed.

1958, November 17. Military Coup. Control of the government of Sudan was seized by Lieutenant General Abraham Abboud.

1963, October. Outbreak of Rebellion. Regional and ethnic groups were still in revolt at the end of the period.
Ethiopia

1952, September 11. Union with Eritrea. Eritrea and Ethiopia were united in a federation.


1960, December 13–17. Military Revolt. During the absence of Emperor Haile Sellassie, members of the Imperial Guard seized control of Addis Ababa and proclaimed Crown Prince Asfa-Wossen the new emperor. Loyal troops suppressed the rebellion. The emperor pardoned his son, who had apparently acted under duress.

1964. Frontier Warfare with Somalia. (See p. 1265.)

Kenya

1945–1952. Unrest and Violence. This British crown colony became a hotbed of revolution. A secret native organization—the Mau Mau—began a campaign of dissidence which finally erupted in an appalling area-wide blood bath, white colonists and native negroes alike, men, women, and children, being murdered under conditions of terror and treachery.

MAU MAU REVOLT


1953, January–May. British Military Measures. Major military and punitive measures were initiated. Leading Kikuyu tribe nationalist leaders, known or suspected to have connections with the Mau Mau Society, were arrested, tried, and convicted, including a 7-year prison sentence for Jomo Kenyatta (October 20). Central Kenya was sealed off from the rest of the country, and a separate East African command comprising Kenya, Uganda, and Tanganyika was set up under General Sir George Erskine.

1953, June 15. British Victory in the Aberdare Forest. More than 125 Mau Mau were killed, bringing the total of terrorists killed since October to approximately 1,000. Meanwhile, the colonial government undertook measures to improve housing conditions in Nairobi, and soon afterward dropped leaflets over known Mau Mau strongholds promising lenient treatment to all who surrendered and who were not guilty of murder or serious crimes.


1955, September 2. Britain Begins to Reduce Forces. Since October, 1952, almost 10,000 terrorists had been killed, 1,538 had surrendered, and over 24,000 had been captured or were held as suspects. The campaign against the remaining scattered dissidents continued into early 1956.

1961, August 14. Kenyatta Released from Prison. He immediately became leader of the principal political independence party and began negotiations with the British for independence.

1963, March. Frontier Clashes with Somalia. Somali claims to frontier regions of northern Kenya led to border hostilities. Somalia broke relations with Britain (March 14).

1963, June 1. Kenyatta Prime Minister of Kenya.


1964, January. Unrest and Violence. Communist-inspired violence spread from Zanzibar and Tanganyika (see p. 1265.)

1964, January 25. British Troops Restore Order in Kenya. British intervention was requested by Kenyatta to suppress Communist-inspired native uprisings. The period ended with the nation threatened by internal turmoil and external war.

Somalia

1960, July 1. Independence of Somalia. Italian and British Somaliland were combined as a single state. Somalia almost immediately claimed substantial regions of Ethiopia and Kenya, where Somali populations had been placed by arbitrary colonial frontiers.
1960, August 14. Border Clashes along Ethiopian Frontier. (See p. 1264.)
1964, February 8. Renewed Ethiopian-Somalian Hostilities. Despite a truce resulting from mediation of the Organization of African States, frontier warfare was continuing at the end of the period.

Tanganyika, Zanzibar, and Tanzania

1964, January 12. Zanzibar Rebellion. The government was overthrown by African nationalist rebels, some of whom had been trained in Communist China. Nationalist unrest, stirred up by Communists, spread to nearby mainland nations; widespread mutinies resulted.
1964, April 26. Establishment of Tanzania. This resulted from the merger of Tanganyika and Zanzibar.

Malagasy Republic (Madagascar)

1947–1948. Revolt against France. A nationalist uprising, centering on the east coast, was suppressed by French troops after much bloodshed.
1960, June 25. Independence. The Malagasy Republic elected to remain a member of the French community (see p. 1227).

WEST AND CENTRAL AFRICA

Republic of the Congo

1960, June 30. Belgium Grants Independence to the Congo. The first president, Joseph Kasavubu, appointed leftist Patrice Lumumba as premier. The new republic was unprepared for independence and chaos followed; soldiers and civilians rioted, looted, raped, and murdered. The white population fled the country, taking their expertise with them and adding further to the chaos. Central control disappeared from remote provinces. A few pockets of order were kept by some 10,000 Belgian troops remaining in the Congo, mostly in Katanga, where they were protecting the extensive manufacturing complex created by Belgium to process Katanga’s great natural wealth.
1960, July 11. Katanga Proclaims Independence. Moise Tshombe, leader of Katanga, refused Lumumba’s demands to submit to central control and to oust Belgian troops; he proclaimed secession of Katanga from the Congo and requested more Belgian military assistance to meet threatened Congo invasion. Lumumba appealed to the U.N. for military assistance in suppressing the Katanga revolt.
1960, July 14. International Crisis. The U.N. Security Council approved establishment of a U.N. security force by Secretary General Dag Hammarskjöld to restore order in the Congo (see p. 1222). The first contingent (from Tunisia) reached Leopoldville the next day, as Khrushchev was threatening military intervention on behalf of Lumumba. Eventual strength of the force was 20,000 men.
1960, July 22. U.N. Demands Belgian Troop Withdrawal. The Belgians complied partially (July 31), save for a few local security detachments and a garrison in Katanga remaining at Tshombe’s request.
1960, August 12. Katanga Crisis. Hammarskjöld and 240 Swedish U.N. troops arrived at the Elisabethville airport in Katanga. He repeated earlier demands that all Belgian troops be withdrawn and replaced by U.N. troops. Tshombe refused to permit the U.N. force entry into Elisabethville and threatened to use force if necessary. Erratic Lumumba denounced Hammarskjöld for using white troops, for conniving with Tshombe, and for not placing U.N. forces under his command.
1960, August 24. Revolt in Kasai. Lumumba sent a military force to Kasai to suppress revolt of Buluba chief Albert Kalonji. Results were inconclusive.
1960, September 14. Lumumba Overthrown. Colonel Joseph Mobutu, Army Chief of
Staff, seized control. Kasavubu named Joseph Ileo as premier. Lumumba, at first arrested, then fled to east-central Congo.

Following Soviet representative Valentin A. Zorin’s bitter denunciation of Hammarskjöld’s policies and action in the Congo, the U.N. overwhelmingly voted its confidence in the Secretary General.

1960, October–November. Widespread Violence and Disorders. These were largely the responsibility of undisciplined Congo troops; there were some clashes with U.N. troops.


1960, December 14. Stanleyville Revolt. Antoine Gizenga, who had been Lumumba’s vice-premier, proclaimed himself premier and established a pro-Communist government in Stanleyville. His adherents began to expand their control over much of east-central Congo.

1961, February 9. Lumumba Murdered. Kasavubu ordered Lumumba transferred to a “more secure” prison in Katanga (January 17). Soon afterward, under circumstances not clear, Lumumba was murdered. Tshombe has been accused, probably correctly, of responsibility.

1961, February 21. Katanga Mobilization. This was ordered by Tshombe in response to U.N. threats to force integration of Katanga with the Congo.


1961, March 12. Proclamation of a New Congo Federation. This was a reorganization of the government, proclaimed at a meeting in Tananarive, Malagasy, of President Kasavubu, Premier Ileo, and all regional leaders except Gizenga.

1961, April 17. Congo-U.N. Agreement. This document, signed by Congolese President Joseph Kasavubu, authorized the U.N. to use force if necessary to prevent civil war in the Congo.

1961, April 26–June 2. Tshombe Arrested. Following a “unity” conference in Leopoldville, Tshombe was seized and detained by the Congo government. After promising to bring Katanga into the Congo, he was released by Mobutu. Tshombe thereupon repudiated his agreements made under duress.

1961, August 1. New Government. The re-convened Congo parliament elected Cyrille Adoula as premier; Gizenga was named vice-premier.


1961, September 13–21. Hostilities in Katanga. U.N. forces, attempting to seize control of Elizabethville, were unsuccessful; they lost face while Tshombe and his army gained prestige. Tragically, Hammarskjöld, flying in to bring about a cease-fire, was killed in a plane crash near Ndola, Northern Rhodesia (September 18).

1961, November. Congolese Invasion of Katanga Repulsed. Congolese forces were repelled by the Katanga Army.

1961, December 18. U.N. Capture of Elizabethville. This led to an agreement between Tshombe and Premier Adoula to restore the unity of the Congo (December 21). Tshombe again failed to comply and retained autonomy.

1962, January. Renewed Stanleyville Revolt. Gizenga again attempted an uprising from Stanleyville, but his troops were defeated by Congo Army troops; he was dismissed from the government by Adoula.

1962, December 29–1963, January 15. U.N. Offensive in Katanga. Operations against Elizabethville were begun in response to Katangese provocations, and with the objective of ending Katanga’s secession from the Congo. Katanga forces were completely defeated, and Tshombe forced to flee. After accepting the integration of his province with the central government (January 15), he went into exile.

1963–1964. Steady Reduction of U.N. Forces. This was largely because of lack of funds to support them. Unrest and revolt continued throughout the country, particularly in the northeastern region.


1964, July 9. Moise Tshombe Named Pre-
This was obviously a last desperate effort to achieve stability in the Congo. Returning from exile, he immediately began a campaign of combined conciliation and threat of force with the various rebel groups. He also strengthened the Congo Army by bringing in white mercenary troops and officers to help train it. Further training assistance was given by a U.S. military-aid mission. Tshombe, considered a traitor to Africans (even by many moderate African leaders) because of his history in Katanga and his more recent recruiting of white troops, was bitterly denounced throughout Africa, and particularly in Communist-bloc states.

1964, August 30. Congolese Army Retakes Albertville. This had been in rebel hands for 2 months.

1964, September–October. Rebel Gains in East-Central Congo. The alarming increase in strength was largely due to assistance from Communists, and from the U.A.R., through Sudan and Uganda.

1964, November. Congo Army Prepares Offensive against Stanleyville. The rebels then seized some 2,000 white hostages and threatened massacre if Congolese troops approached the rebel capital.

1964, November 25–27. Belgian-U.S. Intervention. A surprise airborne landing by a Belgian paratroop battalion, flown by U.S. air units from Belgium via Ascension Island, seized Stanleyville and rescued some 1,650 white hostages. Violent outrages from the Communist bloc and from anti-Tshombe Africans led to the overly quick withdrawal of the Belgian troops and American planes. As a result, other planned rescue missions were abandoned, and several hundred white hostages were brutally massacred.

1964–1965. Trend Toward Stability. Despite occasional setbacks, the area of control by the central government gradually expanded. By the end of the period, for the first time in its brief, stormy history, there appeared to be the possibility of some stability in the Congo.

West Africa


later submitted to Congress a specific plan for the merger of the Army and Navy and a new Air Force in a Department of National Defense (June 15, 1946). With changes this was approved by Congress after a year's debate, and President Truman signed the law unifying the armed services within a National Military Establishment (July 26, 1947) and appointed Secretary of the Navy James Forrestal as the first Secretary of Defense.

1948, March 27. Key West Agreement. Publication of an agreement between the 3 armed services to resolve disputes regarding their respective roles and missions in the national defense of the U.S.

1948, August 23. Newport Agreement; New Roles and Missions. At a meeting at Newport, R.I., Secretary of Defense Forrestal and the Joint Chiefs of Staff agreed on further revision of the roles and missions of the armed forces.

1949, June 3-August 25. B-36 Controversy. This began with accusations and rumors in the press (by Navy adherents in an interservice controversy) that the B-36 bomber had been chosen as the principal Air Force weapon for personal and political reasons. Secretary of Defense Louis Johnson and Secretary of the Air Force Stuart Symington were anonymously accused of having personal-gain motives in the decision. After a 2-month investigation, the House Armed Services Committee cleared top-ranking government officials and Air Force officers of “charges and insinuations that collusion, fraud, corruption, influence, or favoritism played any part whatsoever in the procurement of the B-36 bomber.”

1949, August 2. Military Reorganization. Congress approved military recommendations suggested by the Hoover Committee and by Secretary of Defense Forrestal (December, 1948). The National Military Establishment was renamed the Department of Defense with increased powers for the Secretary of Defense. The Departments of Army, Navy, and Air Force were reduced from cabinet to departmental rank, and a Chairman was provided for the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

1949, October 3-27. “Revolts of the Admirals.” This was a continuation of the B-36 controversy. Senior Navy officers publicly and privately charged that the Army and Air Force were trying to destroy naval aviation in order to reduce Navy influence in the military establishment. The Chief of Naval Operations, Admiral Louis Denfeld, and Admiral Arthur Radford, Commander in Chief of the Pacific Fleet, wrote strong letters criticizing unification of the armed forces. In a subsequent Navy Department investigation, it was ascertained that the instigator of this controversy was Captain John G. Crommelin, U.S.N. During a House Armed Services Committee investigation, Admiral Radford attacked the B-36 and the concept of nuclear war as advocated by the Air Force. In subsequent testimony before the House Armed Services Committee, Admiral Denfeld accused the other services of not accepting the Navy “in full partnership.” General Clifton B. Cates, Commandant of the Marine Corps, personally attacked Secretary of Defense Johnson and the Chiefs of Staff of the Army and Air Force (October 16). Army Chief of Staff General Omar Bradley, in testifying before the committee, declared that the Navy admirals were “fancy Dans” “in open rebellion” against civilian authority. Following an investigation, Navy Secretary Francis P. Matthews recommended that Truman relieve Admiral Denfeld as Chief of Naval Operations; this effectively ended the revolt (October 27).

1949, October 29. Controversy on Air Force Build-up. President Truman impounded more than $600 million earmarked by Congress for a 58-group Air Force; he instructed Secretary of Defense Johnson not to build more than 48 groups.

1949, December 7. Secretary of Defense Johnson “Cuts Fat.” He announced that by more efficient operation the 1949–1950 budget of $15.7 billion had been cut to $13.0 billion for 1950 without reducing preparedness. Most military men believed preparedness was dangerously impaired, an opinion seemingly corroborated by early results in Korea (see p. 1210).

1953, April 3. Military Reorganization Plan. President Eisenhower proposed to give civilian officials in the Defense Department more control. The plan was approved by Congress (June 27).

1955, January 17. Defense Budget Controversy. The national defense budget of
$34 billion included $15.6 billion for the Air Force, $9.7 billion for the Navy, and $8.85 billion for the Army. General Matthew B. Ridgway, Army Chief of Staff, subsequently testified before the House Armed Services Committee that this budget, and planned cuts in Army armed forces, jeopardized the safety and security of the U.S.

1956, May 18. Outbreak of “Colonels’ Revolt.” Newspaper publication of “leaked” Army and Air Force staff papers revealed bitter interservice rivalry, with Army jealousy and suspicion of the Air Force particularly outspoken in a paper challenging Air Force doctrine that national security lay mainly in air power. Newspapers, remembering the “Revolt of the Admirals” (see p. 1268), noted that the Army papers had been prepared by a small staff group composed primarily of colonels. Secretary of Defense Charles E. Wilson called a special press conference of the Joint Chiefs of Staff to try to demonstrate interservice solidarity (May 21). The Army officers involved were reprimanded and ordered away from the Pentagon.

1956, November 26. Army Roles and Missions Curtailed. Secretary Wilson gave the Air Force control of all missiles with a range of more than 200 miles. He also severely restricted the Army’s planned aviation program.

1958, April 16. Eisenhower Plans Major Defense Reorganization. His objectives were (1) to stop “unworthy and sometimes costly [interservice] bickering”; (2) assure “clear-cut civilian responsibility, unified strategic planning and direction and completely unified commands”; (3) stop “inefficiency and needless duplication”; and (4) assure “safety and solvency.” Although the plan was slightly changed by Congress (July), the President achieved essentially what he wanted: (a) substantial strengthening of the position and authority of the Secretary of Defense in relation to the service departments; (b) a limited general staff type organization for the Joint Staff, capable of more efficient and more comprehensive service to the Joint Chiefs of Staff; and (c) service elements in unified commands were removed from the command jurisdiction of the service secretaries and chiefs of staff.

**Weapons and Forces**

1946, April 4. Horse Cavalry Abolished. Remaining cavalry units and individuals were merged with armored forces as the cavalry disappeared as a separate armed service.

1946, July 1-25. Bikini Nuclear Tests. First peacetime weapons tests in history were carried out at Bikini Atoll in the Marshall Islands in the Pacific.

1946, December 16. Establishment of Unified Overseas Commands. This was ordered by President Truman on the advice of the Joint Chiefs of Staff.


1948, June 19. New Selective Service Act. Conscription was reinstated by Congress.


1950, June 25. Korean War Begins. (See p. 1208.)

1950, June 30. Partial Mobilization; Selective Service Extended. President Truman signed a bill extending the Selective Service Act until July 9, 1951. The measure also authorized the President to call the National Guard and Organized Reserves for 21 months of active service.

1952, March 4. Universal Military Training. The House of Representatives defeated a proposed bill for universal military training, based upon recommendations of an advisory commission report to President Truman (June 1, 1947) and of former Army Chief of Staff Eisenhower (February 15, 1948).

1952, November. First Hydrogen Weapon. The U.S. exploded a thermonuclear weapon at Eniwetok. President Truman had broken an AEC controversy earlier by ordering the development (January 31, 1950).

1953, December 19. Emphasis on Air Power. President Eisenhower and the National Security Council supported plans for the Department of Defense to emphasize air power and continental defenses by increasing Air Force strength and budget, de-
creasing the Navy and Marine Corps by 15 per cent, and decreasing the Army by one-third. The next budget request (January 21, 1954) provided for an Army budget of $10.198 billion, Navy $10.493 billion, and Air Force $16.209 billion. Later General Ridgway, in a magazine article, denied President Eisenhower’s statement that the JCS had approved Army cuts (January, 1956).

1954, September 30. First Atomic-Powered Submarine. The U.S.S. Nautilus was commissioned.

1956, February 12. Army Opposes Force Levels. Chief of Staff General M. D. Taylor said that 19 authorized divisions were inadequate; 27 or 28 were required to back up U.S. international commitments.

1956, December. End of an Era. The Army announced deactivation of the last mule unit (December 1) and the end of carrier pigeons in the Signal Corps (December 4).

1958, January 31. First U.S. Satellite. Designed and developed by the U.S. Army, this was “Explorer I.” Later, after several more successful launchings, the Army Ballistic Missile Agency was transferred to the newly created National Aeronautics and Space Administration, taking the Army out of space exploration (October 21, 1959).

1958, March 8. Deactivation of Last U.S. Battleship. This was the U.S.S. Wisconsin.


1958, May 20. Strategic Army Corps Established. The Pentagon announced that 4 combat-ready divisions, comprising (with supporting troops) 150,000 men, were being combined into a force capable of action at short notice “to meet or reinforce any initial emergency requirements throughout the world.”

1959, December 30. First Operational Polaris Nuclear Submarine. U.S.S. George Washington was commissioned.


1960, July 20. First Successful Polaris Firing. This was from the submerged nuclear submarine U.S.S. George Washington.

1960, September 24. Launching of U.S.S. Enterprise. This was the largest ship ever built and the world’s first nuclear-powered aircraft carrier.


1961, May 5. First U.S. Manned Space Flight. This was a suborbital flight made by Navy Commander Alan B. Shepard, Jr., launched from Cape Canaveral, Fla., and landed safely in the Atlantic after reaching an altitude of 116.5 miles.

1962, January 3. Army Increase. President Kennedy announced an increase from 14 to 16 divisions. The Army soon thereafter (February 23) announced an increase in the size of the Strategic Army Corps from 3 to 8 divisions, and that its strength had gone from 90,000 to 160,000 men since the beginning of the Berlin crisis, 6 months earlier.

1962, May 6. First Polaris Nuclear Warhead Test. The missile was fired from the nuclear submarine U.S.S. Ethan Allen and exploded in the Christmas Island testing area.


1963, October 22-24. Operation Big Lift. Fifteen thousand men in a U.S. division were airlifted 5,600 miles in 63 hours and 20 minutes from the U.S. to West Germany.

**U.S. Defense Policy in the Cold War**

1946, March 5. Churchill Speech at Fulton, Mo. In an address at Westminster College, Churchill advocated a fraternal association between the U.S. and Great Britain to deter Soviet aggression. He coined the expression “Iron Curtain.”

*Specific crisis incidents, such as Soviet shooting down of unarmed planes, are omitted unless they had policy significance.*

1947, March 12. Truman Doctrine. This proposed economic and military aid to nations threatened by Communist aggression. Specifically, President Truman asked Congress for $400 million to give economic and political aid to Greece and Turkey, both seriously threatened by the possibility of Soviet aggression and both further endangered by Britain's recent decision to withdraw forces from Greece. This was approved by Congress (May 15) and signed by the President (May 22).

1947, June 5. Marshall Plan. In a speech at Harvard, Secretary of State Marshall suggested American economic assistance to help Europe recover and to gain the strength necessary to avoid internal subversion and external aggression.


1949, July 21. North Atlantic Treaty Ratified. This was signed by President Truman (July 25) after Senate ratification. The treaty went into effect after ratification by all 12 signatories (August 24).

1949, August 5. State Department White Paper on China. (See p. 1259.) Secretary of State Dean Acheson blamed Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek for the defeats of the National Government. Dr. Wellington Koo, Chinese Ambassador to the U.S., acknowledged that China might have made some errors, but insisted that mistakes were not confined to his country (August 7).

1950, January 5. No U.S. Military Aid or Interference on Formosa. President Truman announced that economic aid would continue.

1950, December 8. Truman Confers with British Prime Minister Attlee. Attlee had come to Washington to convey British hopes that the atomic bomb would not be used first by the United States in the Korean War. President Truman stated that he hoped that world conditions would never call for the use of the atomic bomb. They agreed to support the U.N. in attempts to achieve a free and independent Korea.

1950, December 16. Truman Proclaims State of National Emergency. This was to facilitate prosecution of the war in Korea.

1951, May 1. Publication of Wedemeyer Report. This controversial report on China and Korea had been submitted to President Truman, on September 9, 1947, by retiring General Albert C. Wedemeyer. It had been partially described in the State Department's White Paper on China (August 5, 1949).

1951, May–June. Senate Investigates Relief of General MacArthur. (See p. 1216.)

1952, July 13. Military Aid to Yugoslavia Approved. (See also p. 1234.)

1952, August 4. ANZUS Pact. The U.S., Australia, and New Zealand established a Pacific Council. At the first meeting in Washington, the ANZUS Council pledged to guard against the threat of Communism and maintain peace in the Pacific (September 9–10, 1953).

1954, March 8. President Eisenhower’s Report on the Mutual Security Act. The U.S. had shipped $7.7 billion of arms and other military equipment to allies since October, 1949, and about $3.8 billion in 1953. Almost $6 billion had gone to Western European nations alone, who themselves had spent over $35 billion to build up NATO defenses, of which $11.5 billion had been spent in 1953. Since 1949, military aid to Greece and Turkey totaled $761 million; Far East aid totaled $1.18 billion.

1954, March 16. Presidential Authority under NATO and Rio Treaties. Secretary of State John Foster Dulles said the President had authority to order instant retaliation without consulting Congress in the event of an attack against the U.S., its western European allies, or the Western Hemisphere.

1954, May 7. U.S. Rejects Russian Application to NATO. Britain and France had been consulted prior to the rejection.

Concept. Secretary of State Dulles announced that the President and the National Security Council had taken a basic decision "to depend primarily upon a great capacity to retaliate instantly [against aggression anywhere] by means and at places of our choosing."

1956, October 28. Eisenhower Warns Israel. He warned against taking any "forceful initiative in the Middle East." When Israel attacked Egypt the following day (see p. 1239) and Britain and France subsequently became involved at Suez (see p. 1240), Eisenhower forcefully opposed their "aggressions" directly and in the U.N.

1957, March 9. "Eisenhower Doctrine." The President signed bills authorizing him to use armed forces in Middle East if necessary.


1960, January 19. No Missile Gap. Defense Secretary Thomas S. Gates told the Senate Armed Services Committee that previously announced Pentagon estimates of a "missile gap," or "deterrent gap," were based on evaluation of Soviet production potentiality, rather than actual Soviet production. He later (March 16) told the Senate Preparedness Subcommittee that the U.S. had, and would maintain, a nuclear destructive power "several times" greater than that of the U.S.S.R.

1960, May 7. U-2 Reconnaissance Plane Shot Down over Russia. Khrushchev made the announcement to the Supreme Soviet that the plane had been shot down from an altitude of 65,000 feet near Sverdlovsk.

1960, May 17. Summit Conference Collapses in Paris. Khrushchev, angrily denouncing American spying by the U-2 plane over Russia, broke up the meeting. President Eisenhower later reported on TV to the people on the U-2 incident and the failure of the summit conference (May 25).


1960, July 14. U.S. Reaffirms Monroe Doc-
Cuba that would not be lifted until all offensive weapons were dismantled and removed from Cuba under U.N. supervision. He declared that the launching of any nuclear missile from Cuba against any Western Hemisphere nation would be considered an attack on the U.S. “requiring a full retaliatory response upon the Soviet Union.” U.S. forces were placed on alert, and preparations were begun to invade Cuba if necessary.


1962, October 23. Soviet Alert. Alerting its armed forces, the Soviet government challenged the U.S. right to quarantine its shipments to Cuba. U.S. invasion preparations continued.

1962, October 24–29. Secret U.S.-Soviet Negotiations. Prime Minister Khrushchev backed down after an exchange of letters with President Kennedy. He agreed to halt construction of bases in Cuba, to dismantle and remove Soviet missiles there under U.N. supervision. In turn Kennedy agreed to lift the quarantine when the U.N. had taken the necessary measures, and pledged that the U.S. would not invade Cuba.

1962, November 2. Quarantine Lifted. President Kennedy reported to the nation that the Soviet missile bases were being dismantled, and “progress is now being made for the restoration of peace in the Caribbean.” The U.S. Defense Department later announced that the U.S.S.R. had begun withdrawal of its jet bombers from Cuba, as pledged by Khrushchev (December 3). In response to congressional criticism, Secretary of Defense Robert S. McNamara proved by photographs that offensive weapons had been fully removed from Cuba (February 6, 1963).

1963, January 7. Crisis Ends. The U.S. and U.S.S.R. reported to U.N. Secretary General Thant that the crisis was ended.

1963, May 9. Russians Remain in Cuba. The Defense Department estimated that 17,500 Russians were still in Cuba, including 5,000 combat troops.

1963, August 30. Opening of the “Hot Line.” Direct communications were provided between White House and Kremlin.


1965, April. Intervention in the Dominican Republic. (See p. 1275.)

CANADA


1954, May 13. St. Lawrence Seaway Approved by U.S. President Eisenhower signed legislation authorizing the U.S. to join Canada in constructing the Seaway. This was later dedicated by Queen Elizabeth and President Eisenhower (June 26, 1959).


1958, May 19. NORAD Established. (See p. 1270.)

1963, May 11. U.S. Nuclear Warheads to Canada. Canada accepted U.S. nuclear warheads for missiles installed on Canadian soil and used by Canadian NATO forces.


LATIN AMERICA

ORGANIZATION OF AMERICAN STATES

1947, September 2. Treaty of Rio de Janeiro. The Inter-American Defense Treaty, transforming the old Pan American Union into the Organization of American States, was signed by all nations of the Western Hemisphere except Canada. This was ratified by the U.S. Senate (December 8) and became effective when
ratified by the fourteenth nation, Costa Rica (December 3, 1948).

1948, April 26. Charter for the Organization of American States. This was established at a conference in Bogotá.

1954, March 1–28. Caracas Resolution. The Tenth Inter-American Conference of Foreign Ministers, at Caracas, adopted a resolution declaring that control of the political institutions of any American state by the Communist movement, an extension of the political system of a Continental power outside the Western Hemisphere, would be a threat to the peace of America.

1959, August 12–18. Emergency OAS Session. This was called to ease tension in the Caribbean area, which had been raised by Cuban threats of invasion or infiltration.


CARIBBEAN REGION

Cuba


1953, July 26–27. Uprising in Santiago and Bayamo Suppressed. An effort by Fidel Castro to seize a government armory was defeated; Castro and his brother Raúl were captured and imprisoned.

1956, April 29. Rebellion Suppressed. The uprising occurred at Matanzas.

1956, December 2. Cuba Claims Castro Killed. Castro, who had been released from prison, went to Mexico and led an insurgent group landing in Oriente Province (November 30), was defeated and presumed (erroneously) to have been killed. Actually he and his followers fled to safety in the Sierra Maestra Mountains.

1957–1958. Insurrection. Revolutionaries under Fidel Castro carried out a successful guerrilla campaign from the Sierra Maestra Mountains of Oriente Province, gaining increasing popular support. Castro took the offensive and moved out of the mountains (October, 1958).

1959, January 1. Castro Victorious. Batista fled the country as the revolutionaries swept through the country and seized Havana (January 8).


1960, November 1. Castro Rebuffed. President Eisenhower, in response to Castro’s threats against Guantánamo, said the U.S. would “take whatever steps are necessary to defend” the base.


1961, April 15–20. Bay of Pigs Incident. An attempted invasion of Cuba by approximately 1,400 anti-Castro Cuban revolutionaries clandestinely supported by the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency, who did not receive the air naval support from U.S. forces which they had been promised, was defeated by Castro forces. This failure was a serious blow to American prestige.

1961, May 1. Castro Proclams Cuba a Socialist Nation. Secretary of State Dean Rusk next day said that Cuba had become a full-fledged member of the Communist bloc.


1962, September–December. Missile Crisis. (See p. 1272.)


Haiti

1946, January 11. Military Coup d'État. President Élie Lescot was overthrown. The military junta selected Dumarsais Estimé as president (August 16).

1950, April. Military Coup. Estimé was ousted and replaced by Colonel Paul Magloire (October 23).

1956–1958. Chaos in Haiti. Magloire was forced to resign (December 13, 1956) and François Duvalier was elected president (September 22, 1957). By ruthless repression he restored order (July, 1958).

1959, August 12–18. Emergency session of the Organization of American States was called to ease tensions in the Caribbean area.

1959, August 13. Cuban Invasion. The invading force of 30 armed men was crushed.

**Dominican Republic**

1949, June 20–21. Revolt Suppressed.
1959, June 23. Cuban Invasion. Cuban-supported invasion of the Dominican Republic by 86 men was crushed by forces of dictator Leonidas Trujillo.
1961, May 30. Assassination of Trujillo. This ended the repressive dictatorial regime which had lasted for 31 years.
1963, April 27–30. Dispute with Haiti. This resulted from a raid by Haitian police into the Dominican embassy in Port au Prince. The OAS mediated the dispute.
1963, September 25. Military Coup d'État. The leftist government of President Juan Bosch was overthrown by military leaders. Later the government was returned to civilian control (October).
1965, April 24–25. Military Coup d'État. The civilian triumvirate was overthrown. A bloody civil war broke out, which was halted only by U.S. armed intervention (April 28). Within a week, 19,000 American troops were in the Dominican Republic.

**Nicaragua**

1948–1955. Disputes with Costa Rica (see below).
1956, September 21. Assassination of President Somoza. His son, Luis, was elected by Congress to complete his term.

**Costa Rica**

1948, April 13–20. Revolution. The dictatorial government of President Teodoro Picado was overthrown by rebels led by Colonel José Figueres.
1948, December 12. Invasion by Armed Rebels from Nicaragua. This was repelled; strained relations with Nicaragua resulted.
1955, January 11. Invasion and Rebellion Suppressed. President José Figueres again accused Nicaragua of aggression and asked the OAS Council for aid. An OAS committee set up as a result of this complaint reported (February 17) that the rebels were mostly Costa Ricans who had been based in Nicaragua, and called for conciliation of the dispute between the 2 nations.

**El Salvador**

1948, December 12. Military Revolt. President Castaneda Castro was overthrown, and replaced by a revolutionary junta.
1960, October. Military Coup.

**Honduras**

SOUTH AMERICA

Guiana
1953, October 9. British Intervention. The left-wing government of Prime Minister Cheddi Jagan was ousted by British troops to prevent a Communist takeover.

Brazil
1954, August 24. Suicide of President Getúlio Vargas. Apparently as a result of military plans to foil his attempt to re-establish a dictatorship.
1964, March 31. Military Revolution. President Joao Goulart was deposed and a military dictatorship was established.

Venezuela
1945, October 18. Military Revolt.
1948, November 24. Bloodless Coup d'état. Colonel Carlos Delgado Chalbaud seized control. He was later assassinated (November 13, 1950) and replaced by Germán Suárez Flámerich.
1951, October 13. Revolt Suppressed.
1958, January 1–23. Revolt. President Marcos Pérez Jiménez suppressed the first revolutionary actions, but was ousted by a military junta in a renewed revolt (January 21–23).
1963, November. Castro Plot Discovered. Cuban agents and large quantities of arms were captured by government troops.

Colombia
1945–1965. Endemic Civil War Continues. (See p. 1050.)
1948, April 9–10. Uprising in Bogotá. This revolt, embarrassing to the government because it occurred during a meeting of the Inter-American Conference, was suppressed.
1953, June 13. Military Coup d'État. President Laurceno Gomez was overthrown by the military under Lieutenant General Gustavo Rojas Pinilla.

Ecuador
1947, August 24. Military Coup d'État. President Velasco Ibarra was overthrown in a bloodless revolt by Colonel Carlos Mancheno.
1947, September 1–3. Successful Counter-revolution. Mancheno was overthrown and replaced by Carlos Arosemena.
1951–1955. Dispute with Peru. This was due to disputed frontier locations in an area which had been in dispute for over a century. There were intermittent border clashes and arguments before the International Court of Justice.

Argentina
1948, March 4. Agreement with Chile against Britain. The 2 nations agreed on joint defense of their rights in the Antarctic and the Falkland Islands against British claims and occupation.
1951, September 28. Revolt Suppressed. President Juan Perón blamed the military revolt, suppressed by loyal troops, on the activities of former U.S. Ambassador Spruille Braden. A state of virtual martial law was declared which gave Perón dictatorial powers.
1955, June–September. Violence, Disorders, Unrest. Minor military and civilian revolts were ruthlessly suppressed by the Perón regime. Perón was excommunicated by the Catholic Church for suppressing Catholic schools and imprisoning priests.
1955, September 16–19. Perón Overthrown. As disorders spread, Perón declared a state of siege (September 11). The armed forces then rose in a brief revolt. Perón fled. A junta under Major General Eduardo Leonardi took control.
1955, November 13. Military Revolt. Leonardi, accused of being "fascist," was overthrown and replaced by Major General Pedro Aramburu.
1956, June 10–14. Peronist Revolt Suppressed. Later Peronist plots were discovered and smashed (August 15, November 22).

1962, March 29. Military Coup d'État. President Arturo Frondizi was ousted by the armed forces.

1962, December 11–12. Military Revolt. This was suppressed by loyal troops.

**Paraguay**

1947, March 30–August 20. Civil War. Efforts by former President Rafael Franco to seize control were defeated by the government of President General Higinio Morínigo.

1948–1949. Chaos. After the retirement of Morínigo the nation had 5 presidents in 5 months.

1954, May 5. Army Revolt. President Frederico Chaves was deposed. General Alfredo Stroessner, commander of the armed forces, later was installed as president (August 15).

1959–1960. Rebel Invasions. About 1,000 rebels, based in Argentina, invaded and were crushed (December, 1959). President Stroessner blamed the action on Cuba. Six smaller invasions were also crushed (1960).

**Bolivia**

1946, July 17–21. Popular Revolution. President Gualberto Villaroel was overthrown and killed. He was succeeded by a liberal government.

1949, May–September. Unrest and Rebellion in the Tin Mines. Suppressed by the army, but left the nation on the verge of bankruptcy.


1952, April 8–11. Revolution. The junta was overthrown by a popular revolt under Hernán Siles Zuazo. Doctor Victor Paz Estenssoro was proclaimed president (April 16).


**Peru**

1948, October 27–29. Military Revolt. The government of President José Bustamante was overthrown by a military junta under General Manuel Odria.

1951–1955. Disputes with Ecuador. (See p. 1276.)

1956, February 16–25. Revolt at Iquillas. The military uprising collapsed when all army units failed to join.

1962, July 18. Military Coup d'État. President Manuel Prado Ugarteche was overthrown. A military junta took over, under the leadership of General Ricardo Perez Godoy.

1964–1965. Communist Revolt. A very minor state of revolt was maintained by Castroite Communist agents in remote Andes regions.
### Nations Achieving Independence Since World War II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Former Status</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>Not a member</td>
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<tr>
<td>N. Korea</td>
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<td>Nov. 9, 1953</td>
<td>Associated state of French Union</td>
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<td>N. Vietnam</td>
<td>Jul. 21, 1954</td>
<td>Associated state of French Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>S. Vietnam</td>
<td>Jul. 21, 1954</td>
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<td>Austria</td>
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<td>Mali</td>
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<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>Jun. 20, 1960</td>
<td>Autonomous republic (France)</td>
<td>Sept. 28, 1960</td>
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* Disbanded in 1961. Egypt retains title of U.A.R.