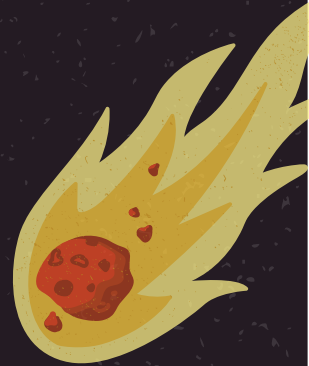




YDMUN'25



Study Guide

North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)

Korean War

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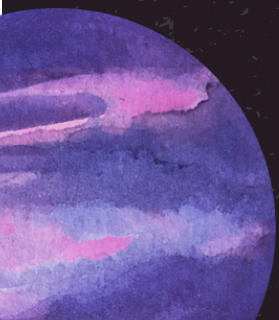
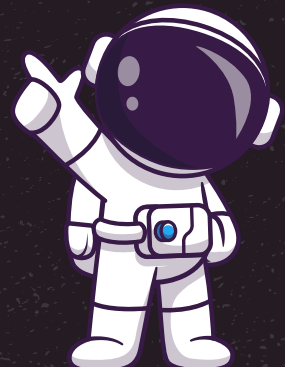


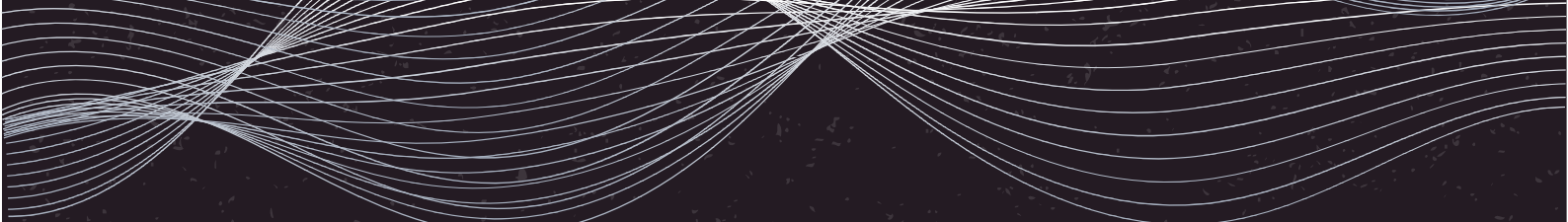




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1. LETTER FROM SECRETARY GENERAL

Dear Esteemed Delegates, Chairs, and Attendees,

It is with great honor and immense excitement that I welcome you all to the second edition of YDMUN! After the success of our inaugural conference, my team and I have been working tirelessly to ensure that this year's edition surpasses expectations and delivers an unforgettable MUN experience.

At YDMUN, our mission is not just to organize another Model United Nations conference, but to ignite a passion for diplomacy, debate, and leadership. We believe MUN should be more than just formal debates—it should be an inspiring journey that leaves every delegate with new perspectives, stronger confidence, and a deep appreciation for the art of negotiation. This is why my team and I are committed to crafting a conference that makes people “fall in love with MUN” whether it's your first time stepping into committee or you're a seasoned delegate.

This year, YDMUN is proud to present eight diverse and engaging committees: 1 General Assembly committees, 4 Special committees, and 3 crisis committees.

Each committee has been carefully designed to challenge, engage, and inspire. Whether you find yourself negotiating in the halls of the United Nations, making tough calls in a historical crisis, or shaping policies in a semi-crisis setting, every moment at YDMUN will be an opportunity to grow as a diplomat and leader.

But beyond the debates, YDMUN is about the people. It is about the connections you will make, the friendships you will build, and the lessons you will carry beyond the conference. My team and I are dedicated to ensuring that every participant walks away with an experience that is not only intellectually enriching but also deeply memorable.

As we embark on this exciting journey together, I encourage you all to speak up, stand out, and make it count. Push boundaries, challenge ideas, and above all, enjoy the process. This is your stage to showcase your diplomacy, strategy, and leadership—make the most of it!

On behalf of my entire YDMUN team, I cannot wait to welcome you all to what promises to be an inspiring and extraordinary edition of our conference.

Let's make YDMUN not just a conference, but an experience to remember!

Sincerely,
Menna Eraslan
Secretary General

2. LETTER FROM UNDER SECRETARY GENERAL

Hello dear ambassadors, my name is Ömer Olgun and I will be your Under-Secretary General in YDMUN'25. Before everything i would like to start by introducing myself. I am currently studying at Akif inan Anatolian Religious High School as a 10th grader. I have 30+ mun experiences and 10 of them are NATO experiences. From this you probably can understand that I am a little obsessed with NATO committees. Dear ambassadors, in my opinion this agenda is the easiest and the most fun agenda of all H-NATO history since i've been a delegate of this same agenda and committee once. Probably most won't even read this but I will just go over the procedure of Historical-NATO. In this committee you will not only focus on debates and discussions, you will write something called "Directives". Throughout the sessions you will have crises that you will need to solve and the only way to solve these crises is writing directives. To write directives you will give an unmoderated caucus. In NATO committees you mostly write committee and joint directives and in some muns usgs dont allow you to write anything but committee directive. That's not what I will do. In my committee you will be allowed to write all types of directives, anytime you want. You might be confused about directives but don't worry we will explain everything in the committee. Hope it will be a great conference for all of us, see you there.

Sincerely,
Ömer Olgun

3. INTRODUCTION TO THE COMMITTEE

After the end of World War II in 1945, Korea, which had been a Japanese colony for 35 years, was divided by the Soviet Union and the US into two occupation zones at the 38th parallel, with plans for a future independent state. Due to political disagreements and influence from their backers, the zones formed their governments in 1948. The DPRK was led by Kim Il Sung in Pyongyang, and the ROK by Syngman Rhee in Seoul; both claimed to be the sole legitimate government of all of Korea and engaged in limited battles. On 25 June 1950, the Korean People's Army (KPA), equipped and trained by the Soviets, launched an invasion of the south. In the absence of the Soviet Union, the UN Security Council denounced the attack and recommended countries repel the invasion. UN forces comprised 21 countries, with the US providing around 90% of military personnel.



3.1 Key Terms

Ambassador: An ambassador is a high-ranking diplomat who represents their country abroad, maintaining relations, negotiating agreements, and protecting national interests. They engage in diplomacy, assist citizens, and promote cultural and economic ties while reporting on developments in the host country. Throughout the committee you will be called Ambassadors rather than Delegates.

GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade): An international agreement that took place in 1947 to boost free trade through the reduction of tariffs, whose principles have an indirect bearing on postwar global economic stability.

DMZ (Demilitarized Zone): The heavily militarized border, established after the Armistice of the Korean War in 1953, divides North and South Korea along the 38th parallel.

The Marshall Plan: A U.S. initiative post-WWII to rebuild Europe economically and politically and to strengthen allies in the Cold War.

KPA (Korean People's Army): The North Korean army that initiated the first invasion of South Korea back in June of 1950.

CPVA (Chinese People's Volunteer Army): Chinese military forces that intervened in the Korean War in late 1950 to aid North Korea.

CCP (Chinese Communist Party): The ruling party of China under Mao Zedong during the Korean War; supported North Korea.

ROKA (Republic of Korea Army): The South Korean military forces were heavily supported by the United Nations Command during the war.
Far East Air Forces

(FEAF): The U.S. air command in the Pacific that is responsible for aerial operations in the Korean War.

KMT (Kuomintang): The nationalist party of China that retreated to Taiwan after losing the Chinese Civil War to the CCP.

Tributary State: A state subordinate to a more powerful neighboring state. Proxy War: A conflict where opposing powers support different sides but do not engage directly

4.NATO

4.1 WHAT IS NATO

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization is an intergovernmental transnational military alliance of 32 member states. Established in the aftermath of World War II, the organization implements the North Atlantic Treaty, signed in Washington D.C, on 4 April 1949. NATO is a collective security system: its independent member states agree to defend each other against attacks by third parties.

4.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF NATO



The North Atlantic Treaty Organization was created in 1949 by the United States, Canada, and several Western European nations to provide collective security against the Soviet Union. The United Kingdom and France signed the Treaty of Dunkirk and the United States set out the Truman Doctrine, the former to defend against

a potential German attack and the latter to counter Soviet expansion. The Treaty of Dunkirk was expanded in 1948 with the Treaty of Brussels to add the three Benelux countries (Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg) and commit them to collective defense against an armed attack for fifty years. The Truman Doctrine expanded in the same year, with support being pledged to oppose the communist rebellions in Greece and Czechoslovakia, as well as Soviet demands from Turkey. In 1949, the NATO defensive pact was signed by twelve countries on both sides of the North Atlantic – the five Brussels signatories, the United States, Canada, Italy, Portugal, Norway, Denmark, and Iceland. Greece and Turkey joined in 1952, West Germany joined in 1955, Spain joined in 1982, Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland joined in 1999, Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia, and Slovenia joined in 2004, Albania and Croatia joined in 2009, Montenegro joined in 2017, North Macedonia joined in 2020, Finland joined in 2023, and Sweden joined in 2024.

4.3 MAIN PURPOSE OF NATO

NATO is a defensive Alliance. Its main purpose is to ensure the security and defense of the territories and populations of the Allied countries against any threat. On a political level, NATO promotes democratic values and enables members to consult and cooperate on defense and security-related issues to solve problems, build trust and, in the long run, prevent conflict. On a military level, NATO is committed to the peaceful resolution of disputes. If diplomatic efforts fail, it has the military power to undertake crisis-management operations. These are carried out under the collective defense clause of NATO's founding treaty - Article 5 of the Washington Treaty - or under a United Nations mandate, alone or in cooperation with other countries and international organisations

4.4 NATO BODIES

NATO International Staff:



The International Staff (IS) is an advisory and administrative body situated mainly at NATO Headquarters in Brussels. It is headed by the NATO Secretary General, and its role is to provide advice, guidance and administrative support to the national delegations at NATO Headquarters and to support the North Atlantic Council (Council or NAC) – NATO's top political decision-making body.



NATO International Military Staff:

The International Military Staff (IMS) is the executive body of the Military Committee (MC), NATO's senior military authority. It is headed by a Director General and its role is to provide strategic and military advice and staff support for the Military Committee, which advises the North Atlantic Council on military aspects of policy, operations and transformation within the Alliance. The IMS also ensures that NATO decisions and policies on military matters are implemented by the appropriate NATO military bodies.



Allied Command Operations (ACO):

Allied Command Operations (ACO), one of NATO's two strategic military commands, is responsible for the planning and execution of all Alliance operations. The overall command of operations at the strategic level is exercised by the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR). ACO consists of a number of permanently established headquarters with a specific role located across the Alliance. The strategic headquarters is called Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) and is situated in Mons, Belgium.

Allied Command Transformation(ACT):

The second strategic military command, Allied Command Transformation (ACT), is headed by the Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT) and is headquartered in Norfolk, Virginia, USA. Its mission is to contribute to preserving the peace, security and territorial integrity of Alliance member states by leading the warfare development of military structures, forces, capabilities and doctrines. Their work includes expert evaluation of trends and future threats, capability development, education, exercises, and the implementation of lessons learned to improve the readiness and credibility of NATO's posture.



NATO Communications and Information Agency(NCIA):

The NATO Communications and Information Agency (NCIA) delivers advanced Command, Control, Communications, Computers, Intelligence, Surveillance and Reconnaissance technology and communications capabilities in support of Alliance decision-makers and missions. This includes addressing new threats and challenges such as cyber and missile defence. The agency is headed by the General Manager and is headquartered in Brussels, Belgium, with more than 30 locations worldwide.



NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA):

The NATO Support and Procurement Agency (NSPA) brings together NATO's logistics and procurement support activities in a single organisation, providing integrated multinational support solutions for NATO Allies and partners. Its main mission is to provide responsive, effective and



cost-efficient logistics support services for systems and operations. The agency is headed by the General Manager and is headquartered in Capellen, Luxembourg, with operational centres in France, Hungary and Italy.

Defence Innovation Accelerator for the North Atlantic (DIANA):

The Defence Innovation Accelerator for the North Atlantic (DIANA) is a NATO body that works with leading researchers and entrepreneurs across NATO, helping them to develop technologies to keep NATO populations safe and secure. With dozens of accelerator sites and test centres across the Alliance, DIANA brings together universities, industry and governments to work with start-ups and other innovators to solve critical defence and security challenges. DIANA is headquartered in London, United Kingdom, with a regional hub in Tallinn, Estonia. It will soon be opening a regional office in Halifax, Canada.



5. OVERVIEW OF THE COUNTRIES INVOLVED IN THE KOREAN WAR

Countries Supporting South Korea/Capitalism

BELGIUM

Economy: Because of the limited extent of its war damage, estimated at only 8 percent of the national wealth, and the implementation of a vigorous government policy, Belgium experienced a remarkable economic resurgence in the early postwar years. Monetary reform kept inflation under control, and liberalization of the domestic economy quickly returned the market mechanisms to the centre of the industrial, agricultural, and commercial activities. In the climate of recovery, social legislation won the support of both unions and employers.

NATO: Belgium was a founding member of NATO in 1949, and took action to collectively prevent Soviet Expansion. Belgium's role in NATO, showed its importance in Western Europe since it served as an ally alongside the U.S. and Western European countries in the Cold War.



Geographical Advantage: Belgium is situated in the west of Europe, bordered to the north by the Netherlands, to the east by Germany and the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg and to the south and the west by *France*. Although its surface area of 30,688 km² makes it a small country, its location has made it the economic and urban nerve centre of Europe.

Military Power: The harsh lessons of World War II made collective security a priority for Belgian foreign policy. In March 1948 Belgium signed the Treaty of Brussels, and then joined NATO in 1948. However the integration of the armed forces into NATO did not begin until after the Korean War, to which Belgium (in cooperation with Luxembourg) sent a detachment known as the Belgian Volunteer Corps for Korea.

CANADA

Economy: The economy had prospered because of the war, and in Alberta, there was an economic boom due to the discovery of new oil fields in 1947. Spending on consumer goods increased during the post-war period while car ownership steadily rose, with two-thirds of households owning a car (and 10% owning two or more) by 1960.

NATO: Canada, a founding member of NATO, was one of the first countries to propose the idea of a transatlantic defensive alliance.

Working closely with their American and European colleagues, Canadian negotiators helped write the 14 articles of the North Atlantic Treaty. From the beginning, Canada emphasised that NATO needed to be more than just a



military pact, it needed to promote political, economic and cultural bonds between its members. Since signing the North Atlantic Treaty, Canada has participated fully in NATO activities, including stationing troops in Europe for the duration of the Cold War. Ultimately, Canada has worked to expand the definition of security at NATO, pushing for greater emphasis on civilian aspects of security while also contributing to the Alliance's military capabilities. This retrospective covers Canada's contribution to and role within NATO throughout the Cold War period.

Geographical Advantage: Canada's geographical significance in the Korean War was tied to its strategic position within the broader context of international alliances, particularly as a member of both the United Nations and NATO. While Canada was geographically distant from the Korean Peninsula, its location and role in global geopolitics contributed to its involvement in the conflict. Canada, with its extensive transportation infrastructure, contributed to supply chains for the Korean War, especially through its shipping ports on both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. These

ports facilitated the movement of supplies to Asia and served as essential nodes in the broader logistics network.

Military Power: Canada's military power underwent significant changes as the country shifted its focus from a wartime footing to a peacetime role in a new geopolitical landscape. With the end of World War II and the beginning of the Cold War, Canada faced new challenges and responsibilities as a member of key international organizations such as the United Nations (UN) and NATO.

DENMARK

Economy: After World War II Denmark took part in the increasingly close international cooperation, joining OEEC/OECD, IMF, GATT/WTO, and from 1972 the European Economic Community, later European Union.

Foreign trade increased

heavily relative to GDP. The economic role of the public sector increased considerably, and the country was increasingly transformed from an industrial country to a country dominated by production of services. The years 1958–73 were an unprecedented high-growth period.

NATO: In 1949, turning its back on decades of strict neutrality, the Danish Folketing (the Danish Parliament) voted largely in support of NATO membership. Throughout the Cold War, the tradition of neutrality occasionally permeated the country's defence and foreign policies and sometimes manifested itself during discussions within the Alliance.

However, this former neutral power of approximately four million inhabitants at the time had a vital role to play and, later in the post-Cold



War period, it proved to be one of the Alliance's most reliable and active members.

Geographical Advantage: Denmark's strategic location in Europe between the North and Baltic sea acted as a vital role in military and economic transportation. Also, its proximity to The Soviet Union gave it an important role in monitoring and responding to potential threats in the Cold War.

Military Power: Denmark, although a small nation, contributed to the UN forces and NATO throughout the war by sending troops, other resources, and medical personnel in particular, a hospital ship, Ms Jutlandia, was sent which treated both wounded UN soldiers and Korean civilians.

FRANCE

World War II: II had left much of France's infrastructure, industry, and agriculture in ruins. In the immediate post-war years, France struggled with high inflation and a devalued currency. The French franc had lost significant value during the war and was devalued further in the early post-war years. The 1950s marked a period of significant economic growth, a period of strong economic expansion in France and Western Europe. France saw industrial growth, higher living standards, and technological modernization.

NATO: France was one of the 12 founding members of NATO when it was established in 1949. France was a key founding member, contributing strategically to the alliance's defense structure in Europe. Despite some tensions and France's desire for greater autonomy, its role in NATO helped shape the Cold War military and



diplomatic landscape. While France was committed to the alliance and its role within NATO, the country's position on NATO in the 1950s was often marked by a degree of skepticism, especially regarding the dominance of the United States within the alliance and France's own security and strategic autonomy.

Geographical Advantage: France's geographical location in Western Europe meant that it was a key player in the broader strategy to contain communism and prevent its spread to other parts of the world, including Asia.

Military Power: France's contribution was relatively modest in size, it was crucial in supporting the UN's collective defense efforts, and it helped reinforce France's position as an important global player during the Cold War. French forces primarily consisted of infantry and artillery units. The French also provided logistical support, including transport, supplies, and medical assistance, to sustain the UN efforts in Korea.

GREECE

During World War II, Greece's infrastructure, including transportation networks, factories, and agricultural production, was severely damaged. The Axis occupation had depleted Greece's resources, and the war left many areas of the country devastated. Greece faced a severe inflation crisis. The value of the drachma, Greece's currency, collapsed, leading to hyperinflation. Prices skyrocketed, and the currency lost most of its value, which destabilized the economy and harmed the purchasing power of the population.

NATO: In the 1950s, Greece's relationship with NATO was characterized by strong alignment, both politically and militarily, due to mutual concerns over security, particularly the perceived threat from the Soviet



Union during the Cold War. Greece joined NATO in 1952, which marked the beginning of a more formalized relationship between the two. The relationship evolved within the context of Greece's post-war recovery and its geopolitical importance in the Cold War. In 1952, Greece, alongside Turkey, became a member of NATO. This was a major step for both countries, as they sought protection against the perceived Soviet threat. The accession strengthened NATO's presence in the Mediterranean and reinforced the Western alliance.

Geographical Advantage: While Greece was geographically distant from the Korean War, it still had some strategic geographical advantages in the broader context of the Cold War that influenced its involvement and support for the UN coalition. Greece's geographic position played a part in its broader geopolitical role during this period.

Military Power: In the 1950s, Greece was in the process of rebuilding its military capabilities after the devastation of World War II and the Greek Civil War, which had left the country economically and militarily weakened. Greece's military contribution to the Korean War was significant for its size relative to its capabilities, although it was not one of the major combatants.

ICELAND

Economy: Iceland was still recovering from the impacts of World War II and had faced challenges throughout the 1930s and 1940s, including the Great Depression and German occupation during the war. Despite these challenges, Iceland experienced significant economic transformations in the decades following 1949, driven by various domestic and external factors, including the country's relationship with NATO, the United States, and participation in the Cold War era.

NATO: Iceland's relationship with NATO in 1949 and after was a crucial aspect of its post-World War II foreign policy and defense strategy. Despite its small size and limited military capabilities, Iceland played a significant strategic role in the Cold War due to its geographical location in the North Atlantic.



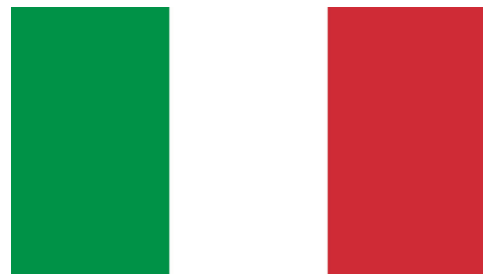
Geographical Advantage: Iceland's geographical location in the North Atlantic was strategically important during the Cold War and had broader implications for NATO's operations, including the Korean conflict. Iceland's location between North America and Europe in the North Atlantic made it a crucial hub for controlling key sea routes. In the context of the Korean War, securing these routes was vital for NATO and the United States to maintain supply lines to Asia and Europe. Iceland helped ensure the safety of maritime traffic across the Atlantic, including ships carrying troops, weapons, and supplies to support the conflict in Korea.

Military Power: Iceland's military power during the Korean War was virtually nonexistent in terms of conventional military forces, as Iceland did not have a standing army. Iceland, even during the Korean War, did not have a military force. The country had long maintained a policy of neutrality, and after gaining independence from Denmark in 1944, it did not develop a traditional military. Iceland's government, however, recognized the need for defense cooperation with stronger powers, especially in the context of the Cold War and the Korean War.

ITALY

Economy: Italy in 1949 was recovering from the devastating effects of World War II. The war had left the country with significant economic challenges, including widespread destruction of infrastructure, a crippled industrial base, and a severe decline in agriculture. The economy was also dealing with the challenges of political instability and the aftermath of fascist rule under Benito Mussolini, which ended in 1943. Italy was beginning to stabilize economically after 1949, but challenges such as inflation and high public debt persisted. Unemployment also remained an issue, particularly in the southern regions, where industrialization was still lagging. By 1950, Italy was beginning to shift from an agrarian economy to one more focused on industrialization. Key industries, including automobiles, machinery, and chemicals, began to grow, supported by both foreign aid and domestic efforts.

NATO: Italy is one of the founding members of NATO and Italy's position as a founding member of NATO played a crucial role in shaping its security policy, economic recovery, and strategic importance in Europe. By joining NATO, Italy committed itself to collective defense as outlined in Article 5 of the NATO Treaty, which asserts that an attack on one member is considered an attack on all. This commitment was particularly important given Italy's fears of potential Soviet expansion into Southern Europe during the Cold War.



Geographical Advantage: Italy's geographical location provided several strategic advantages during the Korean War, even though Italy was not directly involved in the fighting. Its position in Southern Europe was vital for NATO's global operations and its defense strategy during the Cold War, including the Korean War. While Italy did not directly participate with combat forces in Korea, it supported NATO's broader strategic efforts. Italy is centrally located in the Mediterranean Sea, which is a critical passage between Europe, Africa, and Asia. During the Korean War, this

location was key for NATO's logistics, as it provided vital routes for shipping supplies, military reinforcements, and equipment between Europe and Asia.

Military Power: Italy's military involvement in the Korean War was relatively limited compared to other NATO countries. While Italy did not directly contribute large military forces to combat, it supported NATO's effort in Korea by providing logistical and medical assistance. Italy allowed its military infrastructure, including ports and airfields, to be used for the transportation of troops and supplies to the Korean Peninsula. Italian medical personnel and field hospitals were deployed to support the United Nations Command (UNCOM) and NATO's efforts in Korea.

LUXEMBOURG

Economic Recovery: In the 1950s, Luxembourg was in a period of post-World War II recovery. The war had heavily impacted the country's economy, but by the 1950s, Luxembourg was making progress through a combination of industrialization, financial services, and integration into European economic structures. Luxembourg's economy began recovering quickly in the post-war period due to the rebuilding of its steel industry, which had been a cornerstone of its economy before the war.

NATO: Luxembourg was one of the founding members of NATO. In 1950, Luxembourg's relationship with NATO was a foundational aspect of its foreign policy. As a small country in the heart of Europe, Luxembourg understood the importance of collective security and was committed to the NATO alliance. Luxembourg's membership in NATO provided the country with military



security guarantees, contributing to its integration into the broader Western security structure during the early Cold War period. Although Luxembourg did not have a large military force, its political, diplomatic, and economic support for NATO was vital for the collective defense of Western Europe during the escalating tensions of the Cold War.

Geographical Advantage: Luxembourg's geographical location did not directly provide significant strategic military advantages in the context of the Korean War. The war was fought primarily in the Korean Peninsula, far from Luxembourg's borders in Western Europe. However, Luxembourg's geographical position did offer several indirect advantages in the broader geopolitical and military context of the Cold War and NATO's defense strategy, particularly in terms of its role within the Western alliance.

Military Power: During the Korean War, Luxembourg's military power was extremely limited. Luxembourg's role in the Korean War was not defined by direct military intervention, but rather by its participation in the broader NATO framework and its political and economic support for the Western effort.

NETHERLANDS

Economy: In 1949, the Netherlands was emerging from the devastation of World War II, which had left the country's economy severely damaged. The period following the war was marked by a combination of reconstruction, economic recovery, and integration into broader international economic and political frameworks. The Netherlands experienced significant economic transformation during the late 1940s and 1950s, driven by both domestic and international factors.

NATO: The Netherlands was one of the 12 founding members of NATO. In the 1950s, the relationship



between NATO and the Netherlands was one of active cooperation and mutual commitment to the defense of Western Europe. The Netherlands, as a founding member of NATO, contributed militarily, diplomatically, and economically to the alliance's efforts to deter Soviet expansion and maintain stability in Europe during the Cold War. While the Netherlands did not play a major direct role in the Korean War, it supported NATO's broader objectives and reinforced the collective defense strategy. The 1950s were crucial years in establishing NATO as the cornerstone of Western defense, and the Netherlands was an important part of that effort, both through military participation and by promoting European integration alongside NATO membership.

Geographical Advantage: While the Netherlands did not have direct military involvement in the Korean War, its geographical location in Western Europe did provide several indirect strategic advantages in the broader Cold War context. The Netherlands' geographic advantages played an important role within NATO, which was deeply involved in the Korean War through its member states, and in the context of European defense and security. The Netherlands' location along the North Sea coast and its control of key ports like Rotterdam (one of the largest ports in the world) gave NATO access to vital shipping lanes for both military and commercial goods. These routes were crucial for transporting supplies, reinforcements, and logistics for NATO members engaged in global conflicts like the Korean War.

Military Power: While the military power of the Netherlands in the Korean War was not as large or as heavily involved as that of major powers. The country made a significant contribution to the UN effort through its infantry battalion, naval support, and logistical assistance. The Netherlands' participation in the Korean War highlighted the country's role in multinational defense efforts, and its involvement in the conflict, while modest, was a key part of the Western coalition's broader strategy during the Cold War.

NORWAY

Economy: After World War II Norway was recovering from the devastation. By the early 1950s, Norway's economy had grown steadily, with industrial production and exports increasing. Key sectors such as fishing, shipping, and hydropower saw growth, and the country's industrial base expanded. The country's economic contributions to NATO, particularly through shipping and logistical support, were significant. The war also placed some strain on Norway's economy, but the country's participation in both military and economic terms reflected its alignment with the Western bloc during the Cold War.

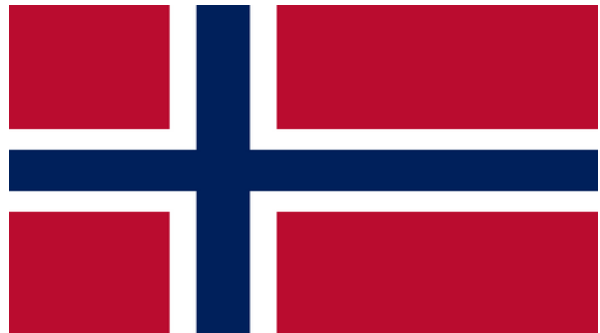
NATO: Norway joined NATO as one of the 12 founding members in 1949, marking a decisive shift in its security policy after World War II. The decision to join NATO was driven by the country's desire to counter the growing threat of the Soviet

Union and its communist influence in Eastern Europe. Throughout the 1950s, Norway's involvement in NATO was also shaped by the broader Cold War dynamics.

Norway faced the dilemma of balancing its need for security

through NATO membership with concerns about its neutrality and the risk of becoming a frontline target in the event of a Soviet attack.

Despite this, Norway consistently supported NATO's collective defense framework and remained committed to the alliance, understanding that its security could only be assured through cooperation with other Western powers.



Geographical Advantage: Norway's geographical advantages in the context of the Korean War were primarily strategic, although they were not directly linked to combat operations in Korea itself. However, Norway's

position within the broader Cold War defense structure and its membership in NATO provided several indirect advantages to the UN forces during the conflict. While Norway's geographical advantages were not directly tied to the Korean War in terms of combat operations, the country's strategic location in Northern Europe, its importance in NATO's defense posture, and its role as a key logistical hub provided significant indirect support for the conflict.

Military Power: Norway's military engagement in the Korean War was in line with its broader foreign policy of supporting collective security through NATO and contributing to international peacekeeping efforts. Norway's military power in the Korean War extended to logistical support and humanitarian contributions. Norwegian forces helped with the transportation of supplies, medical care, and field support for UN operations in Korea.

PORTUGAL

Economy: In the 1950s, Portugal was an economically modest country in Southern Europe, emerging from the aftermath of World War II with significant challenges but also some notable growth. The country's economic state was shaped by its authoritarian regime, led by António de Oliveira Salazar, which had been in power since 1932, as well as by its political isolation during much of the period. Portugal's economy was primarily agrarian, but it also benefited from certain external factors, including economic aid and trade, especially from its relationship with Western Europe and its involvement in NATO.

NATO: In the 1950s, Portugal had a key role in NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), serving as an important member of the Western defense alliance during the Cold War. Portugal's relationship with NATO in the 1950s was primarily driven by the strategic importance of its



geographic location and the policies of the Estado Novo regime under António de Oliveira Salazar. Despite Portugal's authoritarian political system and its relatively isolated economic position in Europe, the country was an active and strategic participant in NATO during the Cold War. Portugal was a critical member of NATO, with its geographical location and military infrastructure, especially the Azores Air Base playing a vital role in the alliance's defense strategy in the North Atlantic and Europe.

Geographical Advantage: Portugal's geographical advantages in the context of the Korean War were indirect, as the country was not directly involved in combat operations on the Korean Peninsula. However, Portugal's strategic position in Europe and its role within the NATO alliance during the Cold War meant that its geographical location had significant relevance to the broader Western defense strategy during the conflict. Although Portugal did not directly participate in the Korean War itself, its geographical advantages within the broader context of NATO and its strategic positioning in Europe and the Atlantic Ocean were crucial. The Azores Islands, in particular, played a vital role in supporting NATO's military operations and logistical supply chains. Portugal's contribution to the Cold War defense network, through its membership in NATO and the use of its bases and maritime routes, helped support the UN's efforts during the Korean War by facilitating the transport of materials, personnel, and equipment, as well as contributing to the overall global defense strategy against Soviet expansion.

Military Power: Portugal's military power during the Korean War was largely limited to its role as a strategic partner within NATO. While it did not send combat forces to Korea, Portugal's geographical position, particularly its control over the Azores Islands, provided NATO with critical logistical support and air/naval bases for global operations. Portugal's military was focused primarily on protecting its overseas colonies in Africa, which prevented it from engaging directly in the Korean conflict. Nonetheless, Portugal contributed to NATO's collective

defense and global military efforts, which indirectly supported the broader objectives of the United Nations and the West during the Cold War.

TÜRKİYE

Economy: In the 1950s, the Turkish government emphasized the liberal economic policies, encouraged private capital and foreign capital to invest in the industrial sector, and established the Turkish industrial development bank to provide loans to private entrepreneurs who invested in industry. In 1954, the Turkish government promulgated the Foreign Investment Act (Act no. 6224), offering many preferential conditions to foreign investors, opening up the domestic market and attracting foreign investors. With investors from the US, West Germany, France and Italy following suit, the modern industrial sector is the preferred investment for foreign investors. After 1950 the country suffered economic disruptions about once a decade; the most serious crisis occurred in the late 1970s. In each case, an industry-led period of rapid expansion, marked by a sharp increase in imports, resulted in a balance of payments crisis.

NATO: As the Cold War gradually polarised international relations, putting the United States and the Soviet Union at loggerheads, Türkiye saw its membership of NATO both as a security guarantee and a way of reinforcing its Western identity. Seeking NATO membership was as much a political move as it was a military one. For NATO, Türkiye's capacity to provide land and sea bases, its strong military forces and its



strategic importance on the south eastern flank of the Alliance, meant that the country would be a solid ally in the region. The Montreux Convention, signed on 20 July 1936, set the rules governing the passage of vessels of war through the Straits. Türkiye has implemented the Convention in full transparency and impartiality since then. It was in Lisbon, Portugal, at the ninth meeting of the North Atlantic Council on 20 February 1952 that Türkiye was formally welcomed as one of NATO's first two new members, alongside Greece; two days prior, Türkiye had signed its Instruments of Accession.

Geographical Advantage: Turkey's geographical position at the crossroads of Europe and Asia played a significant role in its involvement in the Korean War. Positioned as a buffer between the Soviet Union and the Mediterranean, Turkey's location was strategically important during the Cold War, especially as the West sought to contain communist expansion. As a NATO member and a key ally of the United States, Turkey was committed to supporting collective security efforts, which led to its participation in the Korean War. Turkey sent approximately 15,000 troops to fight alongside United Nations forces, demonstrating its commitment to the global effort to resist communist aggression. Turkish troops fought in key battles, such as the Battle of Kunu-ri, earning a reputation for their bravery and effectiveness. Turkey's participation strengthened its ties with NATO and the West, while also asserting its role in maintaining regional and global stability. By contributing to the war under the United Nations banner, Turkey not only supported international peacekeeping but also enhanced its strategic importance within the Cold War power dynamics, solidifying its position as a critical member of NATO.

Military Power: Turkey was one of the 22 countries that contributed manpower to the United Nations in support of South Korea and one of the 16 countries that deployed military personnel to help in the fight against North Korea, which had precipitated the conflict by invading South Korea with support from the Soviet Union and the People's Republic of China. The brigade's first 5,000 Turkish troops arrived on 19 October 1950,

shortly after the outbreak of hostilities in June of that year, and remained in varying strengths until the summer of 1954. Attached to the 25th Infantry Division of the United States, the Turkish Brigade was the only military formation of its size to have been permanently attached to an American military division for the duration of the Korean War.

Turkey's United Nations troops took part in several engagements of the conflict; the Turkish Brigade is most notable for its involvement in the Battle of Wawon, where its fierce resistance proved to be decisive in delaying the advance of the Chinese military, which had entered as a direct combatant after the North Korean military was effectively destroyed upon being expelled from South Korean territory by the United Nations military coalition. For its efforts, the Turkish Brigade was honoured with Unit Citations from South Korea and the United States, subsequently developing a reputation for its fighting ability, stubborn defense, mission commitment, and bravery.

UNITED KINGDOM

Economy: International finance was a troublesome issue, as Britain had used up all its reserves and had to borrow large sums from the United States and from the International Monetary Fund. The U.S. provided a loan of \$3.75 billion (US\$57 billion in 2017) at a low 2% interest rate; Canada loaned an additional US\$1.19 billion (US\$16 billion in 2017). Starting in 1948, the United States provided grants of \$3.3 billion (about US\$33 billion in 2017). These funds came through the Marshall Plan and did not have to be repaid, however they carried the proviso that Britain modernise the management of its major corporations. The aid permitted Britain to provide consumption at tolerable levels despite the austerity. About 40 percent of the dollars went for food, drink and tobacco from the U.S. and 40 per cent on raw materials. The remainder went mostly for machinery and oil.

By 1950, the Korean War caused a new heavy drain on the Treasury for military expenses. This caused a bitter split inside the Labour party. The Conservatives made austerity a major issue in the general election of 1950. Labour lost most of its large majority. The swing was 3.6% against it and it lost 78 seats, leaving Attlee with a slim majority in the House. However, a year later Labour lost the general election of 1951 despite polling more votes than in the 1945 election, and indeed more votes than the Conservative Party.

NATO: The British public was quasi unanimous in its support for NATO membership in 1949. Like many countries, it had been heavily afflicted by the two World Wars and faced multiple challenges in 1945. The prospect of being part of an alliance was seen as an opportunity to protect each other, collectively, from future adversaries. The United Kingdom continued to be a strong supporter of NATO throughout the Cold War and never doubted the value of belonging to a collective defence organisation. This support manifested itself in its policies, its willingness to participate in Alliance activities and its steadfast commitment, even during more testing times like the Suez Crisis.



Being an island and an Empire with colonies spread across the globe, the United Kingdom's defences were heavily reliant on a traditional maritime strategy. The control of the seas was essential in protecting its territories and securing alliances with other powers. However, the two World Wars introduced a greater need for land forces. In the immediate post-war period, the United Kingdom had to maintain troops in West Germany and face the unrest in its colonies and protectorates. And there were still more challenges to come even when the country and its economy had been devastated by the Second World War and was still functioning on wartime ration books (they were suspended in 1954). In 1946, in Missouri, United States, Sir Winston Churchill (British Prime Minister from 1940 to 1945

and from 1951 to 1955) famously stated in his speech, “From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic, an iron curtain has descended across the Continent.” This marked the beginning of what was going to be a long Cold War.

Geographical Advantage: Located off the northwest coast of Europe as an island, the UK had a vital influence in naval and air power in the defense of western Europe and the Atlantic which was beneficial during the Cold War. This influence of naval and air power acted as a staging ground for NATO operations. The UK's role as a maritime power allowed it to project influence from across the globe. Also, the British Empire's global reach benefitted the war in numerous ways such as military bases, supply routes, and staging grounds for deployment, especially in regions close to Korea like Malaya, Hong Kong, and Singapore. These locations allowed British forces to maintain support from far away.

Military Power: By the end of the year, many of the troops were back home in the UK. But a UK that looked very different from the one they'd left when they sailed. As these men and women approached the Clyde or the Mersey or the Thames, they were full of emotions and questions. Will my girlfriend or boyfriend still be waiting? Has my town been changed much by bombing? Will I find a job? Rationing was still in place, and would continue in some way until 1954. In 1944, unemployment was at a historically low level, but with thousands of men and women returning to the workforce from the services, soldiers were worried they might get squeezed out. The process of demobilization - demob – involved the gift of a suit from the government, the promise of the right to your old job back, and a lump sum payment of £83.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Economy: The period from the end of World War II to the early 1970s was one of the greatest eras of economic expansion in world history. In the US, Gross Domestic Product increased from \$228 billion in 1945 to just under \$1.7 trillion in 1975. By 1975, the US economy represented some 35% of the entire world industrial output, and the US economy was over 3

times larger than that of Japan, the next largest economy. The expansion was interrupted in the United States by five recessions (1948–49, 1953–54, 1957–58, 1960–61, and 1969–70).

\$200 billion in war bonds matured, and the G.I. Bill financed a well-educated workforce. The middle class swelled, as did GDP and productivity. The US underwent its own golden age of economic growth. This growth was distributed fairly evenly across the economic classes, which some attribute to the strength of labor unions in this period—labor union membership peaked during the 1950s. Much of the growth came from the movement of low-income farm workers into better-paying jobs in the towns and cities—a process largely completed by 1960.

NATO: After World War II, the global political and military landscape underwent significant changes, leading to the formation of key alliances, including NATO, which the United States played a pivotal role in establishing. The devastation of the war and the rise of the Soviet Union as a superpower prompted Western countries to seek collective security to counter Soviet expansion and the spread of communism in Europe. NATO was formed in 1949 as a collective defense organization, with the U.S. providing significant leadership and military power. This marked the beginning of a new era of U.S. involvement in European security, ensuring that the continent remained free from Soviet control.

The Korean War (1950-1953) was a critical early test of this post-World War II security framework. When North Korea, backed by the Soviet Union and China, invaded South Korea, the U.S. led a United Nations-backed coalition to defend the South. The war was seen as a key battle in the broader context of the Cold War, as it represented the ideological struggle between communism and democracy. NATO itself was not directly involved in the Korean War, but the conflict underscored the necessity of collective



defense and highlighted the importance of U.S. military leadership in global security. The Korean War's outcome, with the establishment of a demilitarized zone and the preservation of South Korea's independence, reinforced the U.S. commitment to containing communism and solidified the role of American military power in maintaining global stability during the Cold War.

Geographical Advantage: During the Korean War (1950–1953), the United States benefited from significant geographical advantages that enhanced its military effectiveness. One of the primary advantages was access to strategic bases in the Pacific, particularly in Japan and Okinawa, which allowed the U.S. to rapidly deploy troops, equipment, and supplies to the Korean Peninsula. Control of the seas by the U.S. Navy provided secure supply lines and air support from aircraft carriers, enabling continuous operations without dependence on local infrastructure. Air superiority was another critical factor, with American forces launching missions from bases in Japan and Guam, giving them a decisive edge over North Korean and later Chinese forces. Additionally, the proximity of South Korea to U.S. allies in the region, like Japan and the Philippines, facilitated logistical support. The mountainous terrain of Korea presented challenges but also offered defensive advantages, particularly during the defense of the Pusan Perimeter. Finally, the successful amphibious landing at Inchon, which capitalized on Korea's coastal geography, was a turning point in the war. Together, these geographical factors enabled the United States to effectively project power and sustain its military operations, significantly influencing the course of the conflict.

Military Power: The military history of the United States in Korea began after the defeat of Japan by the Allied Powers in World War II. This brought an end to 35 years of Japanese occupation of the Korean peninsula and led to the peninsula being divided into two zones; a northern zone occupied by the Soviet Union and a southern zone occupied by the United States. After negotiations on reunification, the latter became the Republic of Korea or South Korea in August 1948 while the former became the Democratic People's Republic of Korea or North Korea in September 1948. In June 1949, after the establishment of the Republic of Korea, the

U.S. military completely withdrew from the Korean Peninsula. In 1950, a North Korean invasion began the Korean War, which saw extensive U.S.-led U.N. intervention in support of the South, while the North received support from China and from the Soviet Union. The United States entered the war led by president Harry S. Truman, and ended the war led by Dwight D. Eisenhower, who took over from Truman in January 1953. The war was a major issue in the November 1952 presidential election, and aided Eisenhower's victory.

6. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE CONFLICT

6.1 1882 Korean-United States Treaty

A Treaty of Peace, Amity, Commerce and Navigation, also known as the Shufeldt Treaty, was negotiated between representatives of the United States and Korea in 1882.

The treaty was written in English and Hanja, with the final draft being accepted at Chemulpo (present day Incheon) near the Korean capital of Hanseong (now Seoul) in April and May 1884. It was Korea's first treaty with a western nation. After the United States assented to the Taft–Katsura agreement, the intervention clause was effectively nullified. In 1876, Korea established a trade treaty with Japan after Japanese ships approached Ganghwado and, following the Ganghwa Island incident, threatened to open fire on the Korean capital city. Treaty negotiations with the U.S. and with several European countries were made possible by the completion of this initial Japanese overture. Negotiations with Qing were a significant feature of the process which resulted in this treaty. The Chinese played a significant role in the treaty negotiation, although Korea was an independent country at the time, which was explicitly mentioned in the treaty. The United States and Korea negotiated and approved a 14 article treaty. The treaty established mutual friendship and mutual assistance in

case of attack; and the treaty also addressed such specific matters as extraterritorial rights for U.S. citizens in Korea and most favored nation trade. Joseon sent a diplomatic mission to the U.S. in 1883, marking the first ever such official visit to North America by Koreans. The U.S. treaty established a template which was explicitly modeled in treaties with European nations — Germany in 1883, Russia and Italy in 1884, France in 1886, and others as well. The treaty remained in effect even until the U.S. recognized 'Article 2' in the Treaty of Portsmouth of 1905, which eventually cleared the way for Japan's takeover of Korea in 1910.

6.2 First Sino-Japanese War

The First Sino-Japanese War (25 July 1894 – 17 April 1895), or the First China–Japan War, was a conflict between the Qing dynasty of China and the Empire of Japan primarily over influence in Korea. In Chinese it is commonly known as the Jiawu War. After more than six months of unbroken successes by Japanese land and naval forces and the loss of the ports of Lüshunkou (Port Arthur) and Weihaiwei, the Qing government sued for peace in February 1895 and signed the unequal Treaty of Shimonoseki two months later, ending the war.

In the late 19th century, Korea remained one of China's tributary states, while Japan viewed it as a target of imperial expansion. In June 1894, the Qing government, at the request of the Korean emperor Gojong, sent 2,800 troops to aid in suppressing the Donghak Peasant Revolution. The Japanese considered this a violation of the 1885 Convention of Tientsin, and sent an expeditionary force of 8,000 troops, which landed at Incheon. This army moved to Seoul, seized the Korean emperor, and set up a pro-Japanese government on 23 July 1894 in the occupation of Gyeongbokgung. The Qing government decided to withdraw its troops, but rejected recognition of the pro-Japanese government, which had granted the Imperial Japanese Army the right to





expel the Chinese Huai Army from Korea. About 3,000 Chinese troops still remained in Korea, and could be supplied only by sea; on 25 July, the Japanese Navy won the Battle of Pungdo and sank the steamer *Kowshing*, which was carrying 1,200 Qing reinforcements. A

declaration of war followed on 1 August. Following the Battle of Pyongyang on 15 September, the Chinese troops retreated to Manchuria, allowing the Japanese to take over Korea. Two days later, the Beiyang Fleet suffered a decisive defeat at the Battle of the Yalu River, with its surviving ships retreating to Port Arthur. In October 1894, the Japanese Army invaded Manchuria, and captured Port Arthur on 21 November. Japan next captured Weihaiwei on the Shandong Peninsula on 12 February 1895. This gave them control over the approaches to Beijing, and the Qing court began negotiations with Japan in early March. The war concluded with the Treaty of Shimonoseki on 17 April, which required China to pay a massive indemnity and to cede the island of Taiwan to Japan. Japan also gained a predominant position in Korea. The war demonstrated the failure of the Qing dynasty's attempts to modernise its military and fend off threats to its sovereignty, especially when compared with Japan's successful Meiji Restoration. For the first time, regional dominance in East Asia shifted from China to Japan; the prestige of the Qing dynasty, along with the classical tradition in China, suffered a major blow. The loss of Korea as a tributary state sparked an unprecedented public outcry. Within China, the defeat was a catalyst for a series of political upheavals led by Sun Yat-sen and Kang Youwei, culminating in the 1911 Revolution and ultimate end of dynastic rule in China.

6.3 Chinese Civil War

The Chinese Civil War was fought between the Kuomintang-led government of the Republic of China and the forces of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP), with armed conflict continuing intermittently

from 1 August 1927 until Communist victory resulted in their total control over mainland China on 7 December 1949. The war is generally divided into two phases with an interlude: from August 1927 to 1937, the First United Front alliance of the KMT and CCP collapsed during the Northern Expedition, and the Nationalists controlled most of China. From 1937 to 1945, hostilities were mostly put on hold the Second United Front fought the Japanese invasion of China with eventual



as

help from the Allies of World War II, although armed clashes between the groups remained common. Exacerbating the divisions within China further was the formation of the Wang Jingwei regime, a Japan-sponsored puppet government led by Wang Jingwei, which was established to nominally govern the regions of China that came under Japanese occupation. The civil war resumed as soon as it became apparent that Japanese defeat was imminent, with the communists gaining the upper hand in the second phase of the war from 1945 to 1949, generally referred to as the Chinese Communist Revolution. The Communists gained control of mainland China and proclaimed the People's Republic of China in 1949, forcing the leadership of the Republic of China to retreat to the island of Taiwan. Starting in the 1950s, a lasting political and military stand-off between the two sides of the Taiwan Strait has ensued, with the ROC in Taiwan and the PRC on the mainland both claiming to be the legitimate government of all China. After the Second Taiwan Strait Crisis, both tacitly ceased to engage in open conflict in 1979; however, no armistice or peace treaty has ever been signed.

6.3.1 The Establishment of the People's Republic of China

The two-decade struggle for China between the Nationalists and the Communists reached its conclusion in 1949. The year began with a

Nationalist appeal to the “Big Four” (the United States, the United Kingdom, France, and the Soviet Union) to mediate a settlement with the Communists. The United States, which had for so long supported the Nationalist cause, immediately replied that such an effort would not serve any useful purpose. On January 14 Mao declared his willingness to negotiate on the following terms: punishment of “war criminals,” abrogation of the 1946 constitution, abolition of the existing form of government, reorganization of Nationalist armies, confiscation of “bureaucratic” capital from Nationalist Party elites and functionaries, land reform, abrogation of “treasonous” treaties, and establishment of a democratic coalition government

without the participation of “reactionary” (Nationalist) elements.

Meanwhile, the Communist advance continued, and Tientsin (Tianjin) fell on January 15, 1949. Chiang announced his resignation as president of China on January 21, and Nationalist leadership passed to



Gen. Li Tsung-jen (Li Zongren). On January 22, Li accepted Mao’s eight conditions as a basis for peace negotiations, and Nationalist forces began their withdrawal from Peking (Beijing). With the fall of Peking, the Communist drive on the Nationalist capital of Nanking could begin in earnest. Following a meeting with a preliminary peace delegation from Nanking, Mao, now in Peking, agreed on February 9 to call an official peace conference within a month. On February 20 Li flew to Canton (Guangzhou), the newly designated Nationalist capital, in an effort to rally the various Nationalist contingents behind his peace efforts. Premier Ho Ying-chin (He Yingqin) designated Gen. Chang Chih-Chung (Zhang Zhizhong) as head of the Nationalist peace delegation, while the Communists selected Zhou Enlai to head their mission. Talks were scheduled to begin on April 1 in Peking, a timetable that gave the Communists sufficient time to regroup their forces along the Yangtze and near Nanking. From April 2 to April 12 the delegates exchanged views informally over three fundamental Communist demands: Communist

armies must be allowed to cross the Yangtze to help reorganize Nationalist troops; an interim government with Mao as chairman and Li as one of the vice-chairmen must be established; the Chiang, Soong, Kung, and Chen families must be punished. Formal negotiations opened on April 13, and within three days Mao's peace program had expanded to 24 items, with the crossing of the Yangtze by Communist armies and the elimination of the national government as the key issues. On April 17 the Communists gave the Nationalists three days to respond. Li's government formally rejected Mao's peace draft on April 19, and within hours the Communists had launched an all-out offensive. The fall of Nanking on April 24 marked the beginning of the disintegration of the Nationalist government. In rapid succession, the Communists captured Hankow (Hankou) on May 17, Tsingtao (Qingdao) on May 25, and Shanghai on June 2. To consolidate Nationalist forces, a supreme council was created at Canton with Chiang Kai-shek as chairman, Li Tsung-jen as deputy, and Yen Hsi-shan (Yan Xishan) as premier. In July the Communists launched offensives into South China and the northwest. The vital commercial center of Changsha fell on August 5, the port of Foochow (Fuzhou) on August 17, and the northwestern fortress city of Lanchow (Lanzhou) on August 28. It was clear that the end was rapidly approaching for the Nationalist cause on the mainland. From his capital at Peking, Mao proclaimed the establishment of the People's Republic of China on October 1, 1949. Within days the Soviet Union and the communist bloc recognized it as the legitimate government of China, and by year's end several other countries had followed suit. On October 10 the Nationalist government officially informed foreign diplomats that it was relocating its capital again, this time to Chungking (Chongqing). The Communists took Canton on October 15 and Amoy (Xiamen) on October 17. By this time, the Communists had penetrated the southwest, and the Nationalists abandoned Kweiyang (Guiyang), about 200 miles (320 km) south of Chungking, on November 13. On November 20 Li flew to Hong Kong, and on December 5 he traveled to the United States for medical treatment. On November 24 the Nationalists designated Chengtu (Chengdu) as the seat of a much-reduced national government. Chungking fell on November 30, and on December 8 the national capital was moved to Taipei, Formosa.

(Taiwan). After the Communists took Nanning in far southern China on December 6, one of the last remaining Nationalist armies in the field, under Gen. Pai Chung-hsi, disintegrated and fled to Hainan and French Indochina. By December 10, when Chiang left the mainland for Formosa, the exodus of people, goods, and institutions was largely complete. Assets of the Nationalist air force had begun relocating to the island as early as August 1948, and they were soon followed by the navy and the government's gold reserves. The remaining pockets of Nationalist control eroded as generals and provincial governors in Sinkiang (Xinjiang), Yunnan, and Sikang (Xikang) switched their allegiances to the Communists in early December 1949. By the end of 1949, virtually all of mainland China was under Communist control. The cost of the war was enormous. Official Communist figures counted some 1.5 million dead and wounded among the People's Liberation Army. Some 600,000 Nationalists troops were killed in combat, while roughly three times that many defected to the Communists. Nearly 7 million Nationalist troops were captured during four years of combat. Approximately 5 million civilians died as a result of combat, famine, and disease.

6.4 Division of Korea Post-WWII

The division of Korea de facto began on 2 September 1945, when Japan signed the surrender document, thus ending the Pacific Theater of World War II. It was officially divided with the establishment of the two Koreas in 1948. During World War II, the Allied leaders had already been considering the question of Korea's future following Japan's eventual surrender in the war. The leaders reached an understanding that Korea would be liberated from Japan but would be placed under an international trusteeship until the Koreans would be deemed ready for self-rule. In the last days of the war, the United States proposed dividing the Korean peninsula into two occupation zones (a U.S. and Soviet one) with the 38th parallel as the dividing line. The Soviets accepted their proposal and agreed to divide Korea, which led to the declaration of General Order No.

1. It was understood that this division was only a temporary arrangement until the trusteeship could be implemented. In December 1945, the Moscow Conference of Foreign Ministers resulted in an agreement on a five-year, four-power Korean trusteeship. However, with the onset of the Cold War and other factors both international and domestic, including Korean opposition to the trusteeship, negotiations between the United States and the Soviet Union over the next two years regarding the implementation of the trusteeship failed, thus effectively nullifying the only agreed-upon framework for the re-establishment of an independent and unified Korean state. With this, the Korean question was referred to the United Nations. In 1948, after the UN failed to produce an outcome acceptable to the Soviet Union, UN-supervised elections were held in the US-occupied south only. Syngman Rhee won the election, while Kim Il Sung consolidated his position as the leader of Soviet-occupied northern Korea. This led to the establishment of the Republic of Korea in southern Korea on 15 August 1948, promptly followed by the establishment of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea in northern Korea on 9 September 1948. The United States supported the South, the Soviet Union supported the North, and each government claimed sovereignty over the whole Korean peninsula.

Close up of the Korean Demilitarized Zone that surrounds the Military Demarcation Line



6.4.1 The Importance of the 38th Parallel

The 38th parallel north is a circle of latitude that is 38 degrees north of the Earth's equatorial plane. It crosses Europe, the Mediterranean Sea, Asia, the Pacific Ocean, North America, and the Atlantic Ocean. The 38th parallel north formed the border between North and South Korea prior to the Korean War. At this latitude, the Sun is visible for 14 hours, 48 minutes during the summer solstice and 9 hours, 32 minutes during the winter solstice.

When Japan surrendered in August 1945, the 38th parallel was established as the boundary between Soviet and American occupation zones. This parallel divided the Korean peninsula roughly in the middle. In 1948, this parallel became the boundary between the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (North Korea) and the Republic of Korea (South Korea), both of which claim to be the government of the whole of Korea. On 25 June 1950, after a series of cross-border raids and gunfire from both the Northern and the Southern sides, the North Korean Army crossed the 38th parallel and invaded South Korea. This sparked United Nations Security Council Resolution 82 which called for the North to return its troops to behind the 38th parallel, commencing the Korean War with United Nations troops (mostly American) helping South Korean troops to defend South Korea. After the Armistice agreement was signed on July 27, 1953, a new line was established to separate North Korea and South Korea. This Military Demarcation Line is surrounded by a Demilitarized Zone. The demarcation line crosses the 38th parallel, from the southwest to the northeast.

6.5 Cold War Tensions

The Cold War was a period of global geopolitical rivalry between the United States (US) and the Soviet Union (USSR) and their respective allies, the capitalist Western Bloc and communist Eastern Bloc, which lasted from 1947 until the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991. The term *cold war* is used because there was no direct fighting between the two superpowers, though each supported opposing sides in regional conflicts known as proxy wars. In addition to the struggle for ideological and economic influence and an arms race in both conventional and nuclear weapons, the Cold War was expressed through technological rivalries such as the Space Race, espionage, propaganda campaigns, embargoes, and sports diplomacy.

6.5.1 Role of the UN in the Early Cold War

One of the more significant examples of the implementation of containment was the United Nations US-led intervention in the Korean War. In June 1950, after years of mutual hostilities, Kim Il Sung's North Korean People's Army invaded South Korea. Stalin had been reluctant to support the invasion but ultimately sent advisers. To Stalin's surprise, the United Nations Security Council backed the defense of South Korea, although the Soviets were then boycotting meetings in protest of the fact that Taiwan (Republic of China), not the People's Republic of China, held a permanent seat on the council. A UN force of sixteen countries faced North Korea, although 40 percent of troops were South Korean, and about 50 percent were from the United States. The US initially seemed to follow containment, only pushing back North Korea across the 38th Parallel and restoring South Korea's sovereignty while allowing North Korea's survival as a state. However, the success of the Inchon landing inspired the US/UN forces to pursue a rollback strategy instead and to overthrow communist North Korea, thereby allowing nationwide elections under U.N. auspices. General Douglas MacArthur then advanced into North Korea. The Chinese, fearful of a possible US invasion, sent in a large army and pushed the U.N. forces back below the 38th parallel. The episode was used to

support the wisdom of the containment doctrine as opposed to rollback. The Communists were later pushed to roughly around the original border, with minimal changes. Among other effects, the Korean War galvanised NATO to develop a military structure. The Korean Armistice Agreement was approved in July 1953.

7. PHASES OF THE WAR

JANUARY 12, 1950

On January 12, 1950, U.S. Secretary of State Dean Acheson delivered a speech at the National Press Club, outlining America's strategic defense perimeter in the Pacific. He stated that this perimeter ran through the Aleutian Islands, Japan, the Ryukyu Islands, and the Philippines, notably excluding South Korea and Taiwan. While Acheson did not explicitly state that the U.S. would abandon these regions, his omission was interpreted by North Korea and its allies as a lack of U.S. commitment to defend South Korea. This perception encouraged North Korean leader Kim Il Sung to push for an invasion, which he had long sought approval for from Soviet leader Joseph Stalin. The speech, combined with ongoing U.S. military budget constraints and an emphasis on European security over Asian affairs, played a crucial role in shaping North Korea's decision to attack South Korea on June 25, 1950, marking the start of the Korean War.

JANUARY 17, 1950

On January 17, 1950, just days after U.S. Secretary of State Dean Acheson's speech on the Pacific defense perimeter, North Korean leader Kim Il Sung intensified efforts to secure Soviet approval for an invasion of South Korea. Following Acheson's omission of South Korea from the U.S. defense perimeter on January 12, Kim saw an opportunity to push his case further with Joseph Stalin. Around this time, North Korean forces were actively preparing for military action, bolstering their army with

Soviet-supplied weapons and training. Meanwhile, South Korea, under Syngman Rhee, struggled with political instability and limited military resources. The geopolitical climate in January 1950 increasingly pointed toward war, as the Soviet Union and China grew more open to supporting Kim's ambitions, believing the U.S. might not intervene.

JUNE 25, 1950

On June 25, 1950, the Korean War began when North Korean forces, backed by the Soviet Union and China, launched a full-scale invasion of South Korea by crossing the 38th parallel. The attack, led by Kim Il Sung, aimed to reunify Korea under communist rule. The invasion caught South Korea and its allies off guard, as North Korean troops swiftly advanced southward, capturing Seoul within days. In response, the United Nations Security Council, led by the United States, condemned the attack and authorized military intervention. This led to a rapid deployment of U.S. and allied forces under General Douglas MacArthur, marking the start of a brutal three-year conflict that would devastate the Korean Peninsula.

JUNE 27-28, 1950

On 27 June, Rhee evacuated Seoul with some of the government. At 02:00 on 28 June the ROK blew up the Hangang Bridge across the Han River in an attempt to stop the KPA. The bridge was detonated while 4,000 refugees were crossing it, and hundreds were killed. Destroying the bridge trapped many ROK units north of the river. In spite of such desperate measures, Seoul fell that same day. Some South Korean National Assembly Men remained in Seoul when it fell, and 48 subsequently pledged allegiance to the North.

On 28 June, Rhee ordered the massacre of suspected political opponents in his own country. In five days, the ROK, which had 95,000 troops on 25 June, was down to less than 22,000 troops. In early July, when US forces

arrived, what was left of the ROK was placed under US operational command of the United Nations Command.

5 JULY, 1950

On 5 July 1950, Task Force Smith attacked the KPA at Osan but without weapons capable of destroying KPA tanks. The KPA defeated the US, with 180 American casualties. The KPA progressed southwards, pushing back US forces at Pyeongtaek, Chonan, and Chochiwon, forcing the 24th Division's retreat to Taejeon, which the KPA captured in the Battle of Taejon. The 24th Division suffered 3,602 dead and wounded and 2,962 captured, including its commander, Major General William F. Dean.

September 12, 1950

North Korean troops reach their farthest point of advance. Although thousands of UN troops have arrived to reinforce South Korea, months of fighting have reduced the area under their control to a 5,000-square-mile rectangle centered on the critical southeastern port of Pusan. By the time the North Korean invasion force reaches the "Pusan Perimeter," its strength has been nearly cut in half and it is almost entirely lacking in armor.

September 15, 1950

X Corps, a force led by the U.S. Maj. Gen. Edward M. Almond, stages an audacious amphibious landing at Inch'ŏn, some 150 miles behind enemy lines. The plan, conceived by UN commander Gen. Douglas MacArthur, is an unqualified success; 10 days later Seoul is liberated.

OCTOBER 25, 1950

Having destroyed the bulk of the North Korean army, UN troops have pressed on into North Korea and are now approaching the Yalu River. Chinese People's Volunteers Force (CPVF) troops under veteran commander Gen. Peng Dehuai cross into North Korea and inflict serious

losses on the lead units of the UN advance. The sudden appearance of Chinese forces sends the main body of UN forces reeling back to the south bank of the Ch'ŏngch'ŏn River.

December 6, 1950

The U.S. Marines at the Chosin Reservoir begin their “attack in a different direction” as they engage in a fighting retreat to the port of Hŭngnam. Two entire Chinese armies have been tasked with the destruction of the 1st Marine Division. They succeed in driving the American force from North Korean territory but pay an enormous price: as many as 80,000 Chinese troops are killed or wounded, and the CPVF Ninth Army Group is rendered combat-ineffective for months. “Frozen Chosin” became one of the most-storied episodes in the U.S. Marine Corps history.

January 4, 1951

Chinese and North Korean forces recapture Seoul.

March 14, 1951

Seoul changes hands for the fourth time when UN forces once again liberate the South Korean capital. The city has been devastated by fighting, and its population has been reduced to a fraction of its prewar size.

April 11, 1951

U.S. Pres. Harry S. Truman relieves MacArthur of command for insubordination and his unwillingness to prosecute a limited war. He is succeeded as UN commander by Lieut. Gen. Matthew Ridgway.

April 25, 1951

Vastly outnumbered UN forces check the Chinese advance on Seoul at the Battles of Kapyong and the Imjin River. Two Commonwealth battalions—the 2nd Battalion of the Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry Regiment and the 3rd Battalion of the Royal Australian Regiment—rebuff an entire Chinese division at Kapyong, and 4,000 men of the British 29th Brigade stage a successful delaying action against nearly 30,000 troops of the Chinese 63rd Army at the Imjin River. Some 650 men of the 1st Battalion, the Gloucestershire Regiment (the “Glorious Glosters”), engage in a Thermopylae-like stand against more than 10,000 Chinese infantry at Imjin. Although the overwhelming majority of the Glosters are killed or captured, their sacrifice allows UN forces to consolidate their lines around the South Korean capital.

July 10, 1951

Truce talks between the UN and the communists begin at Kaesŏng. The negotiations do not mark an end to the war, however; the fighting continues for two more years. In October the peace talks relocate to the village of P'anmunjŏm.

July 27, 1953

Mark W. Clark for the UN Command, Peng Dehuai for the Chinese, and Kim Il-Sung for North Korea conclude an armistice ending hostilities. A demilitarized zone is created that roughly follows the prewar border along the 38th parallel. South Korean Pres. Syngman Rhee announces his

acceptance of the agreement, but no representative of South Korea ever signs the document

7.2 The UN and US Response

On 27 September, MacArthur received secret National Security Council Memorandum 81/1 from Truman reminding him operations north of the 38th parallel were authorized only if "at the time of such operation there was no entry into North Korea by major Soviet or Chinese Communist forces, no announcements of intended entry, nor a threat to counter our operations militarily". On 29 September, MacArthur restored the government of the Republic of Korea under Syngman Rhee. The Joint Chiefs of Staff on 27 September sent MacArthur a comprehensive directive: it stated the primary goal was the destruction of the KPA, with unification of the Peninsula under Rhee as a secondary objective "if possible" the Joint Chiefs added this objective was dependent on whether the Chinese and Soviets would intervene, and was subject to changing conditions.

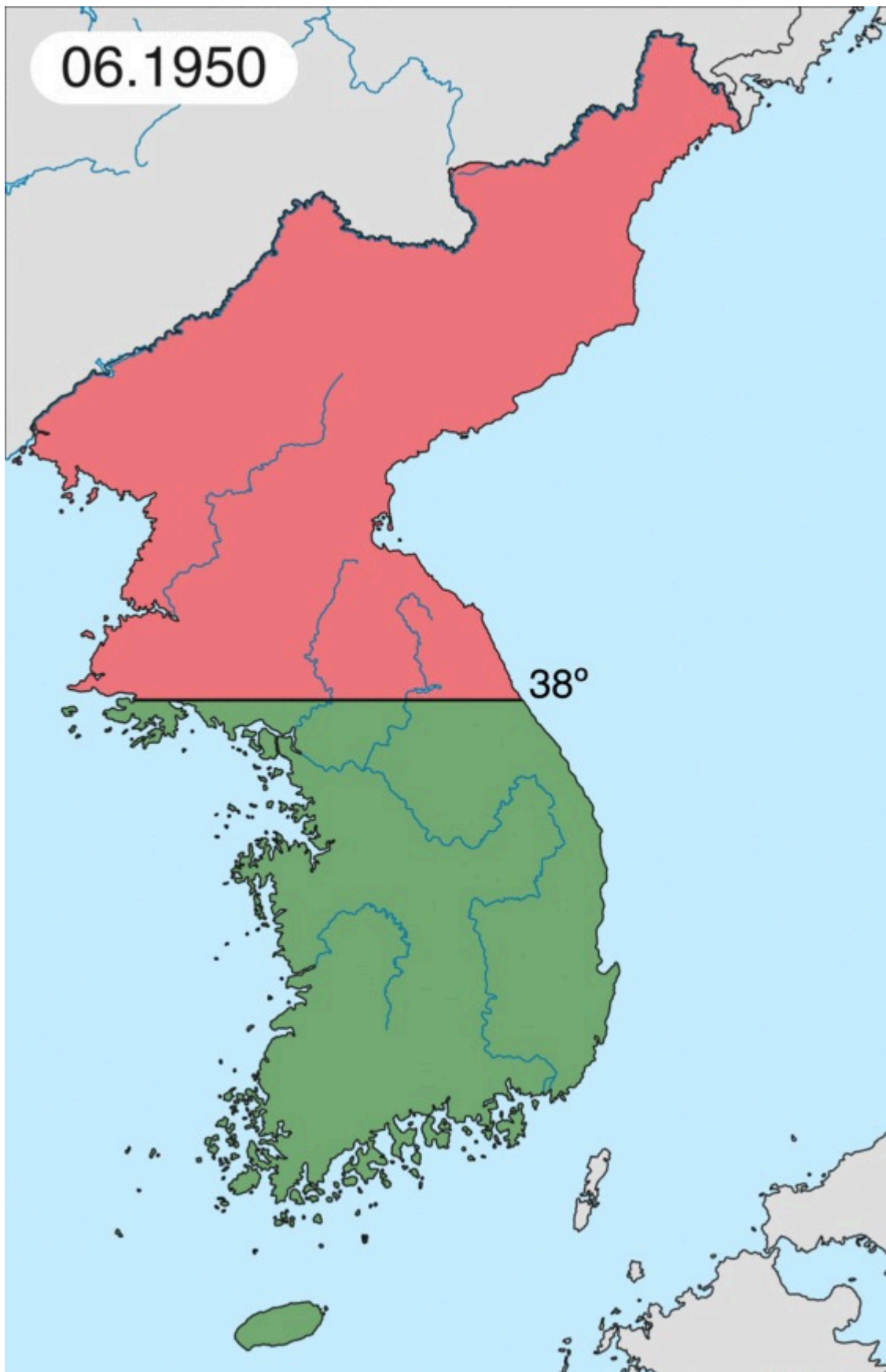
On 30 September, Zhou warned the US that China was prepared to intervene if the US crossed the 38th parallel. Zhou attempted to advise KPA commanders on how to conduct a general withdrawal by using the same tactics that allowed Chinese Communist forces to escape Nationalist encirclement campaigns in the 1930s, but KPA commanders did not use these tactics effectively. Bruce Cumings argues, however, that the KPA's rapid withdrawal was strategic, with troops melting into the mountains from where they could launch guerrilla raids on the UN forces spread out on the coasts.

By 1 October, the UN Command had driven the KPA past the 38th parallel, and RoK forces pursued the KPA northwards. MacArthur demanded the KPA's unconditional surrender. On 7 October, with UN authorization, the UN Command forces followed the ROK forces northwards. The Eighth US Army drove up western Korea and captured

Pyongyang on 19 October. On 20 October, the US 187th Airborne Regiment made their first of their two combat jumps during the war at Sunchon and Sukchon. The mission was to cut the road north going to China, preventing North Korean leaders from escaping Pyongyang, and to rescue US prisoners of war. At month's end, UN forces held 135,000 KPA prisoners of war. As they neared the Sino-Korean border, the UN forces in the west were divided from those in the east by 80–161 km (50–100 mi) of mountainous terrain. In addition to the 135,000 captured, the KPA had suffered some 200,000 soldiers killed or wounded, for a total of 335,000 casualties since the end of June 1950, and lost 313 tanks. A mere 25,000 KPA regulars retreated across the 38th parallel, as their military had collapsed. The UN forces on the peninsula numbered 229,722 combat troops (including 125,126 Americans and 82,786 South Koreans), 119,559 rear area troops, and 36,667 US Air Force personnel. MacArthur believed it necessary to extend the war into China to destroy depots supplying the North Korean effort. Truman disagreed and ordered caution at the Sino-Korean border.

06.1950

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