

Chapter 1

Setting the Stage

In the five and a half years following D-Day, the mission of U.S. troops in Europe had come almost full circle. From total war it had moved through demobilization and peacetime occupation to combat readiness as part of an international defense against Soviet expansionism and intimidation. In the process, the U.S. Army in Europe had begun planning and reorganizing for that new role, but in 1950, the troops and support facilities necessary to carry out the mission were lacking. The existing command structure in Europe, the European Command (EUCOM), was a product of the postwar occupation and unprepared to direct a theater of war. Perhaps most significantly, the absence of an established logistical system to support a build-up of U.S. forces made the American commitment to help defend Western Europe an empty promise at best. It seemed clear that if U.S. policy in Europe was to be credible, it would be necessary to reinforce U.S. forces there to a point where they could present a realistic counterweight to the threat posed by the Soviet Army.

Germany in 1950

Although American soldiers also manned garrisons in Austria and Trieste, the center of the U.S. Army's presence in Europe was Germany. As 1950 began, the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union occupied those portions of Germany that they had inherited when they had divided the defeated nation into four zones of occupation in 1945. The U.S. Zone covered the southern third of the country and

consisted of the German states of Hesse, Bavaria, and Baden Wurttemberg, along with a smaller region surrounding the northern ports of Bremen and Bremerhaven on the North Sea. The British sector comprised the northwestern portion of Germany, and included the states of Hamburg, Schleswig-Holstein, Lower Saxony, and North Rhine-Westphalia. In the westernmost part of Germany, French forces occupied a smaller section that the Allies had carved out of the original American and British zones. It contained two barely contiguous regions that met at a single point along the Rhine River near Baden-Baden and included portions of Baden-Wurttemberg, Rhineland-Palatinate, and the Saarland. The Soviets claimed as their responsibility almost all of eastern Germany. Their occupation zone included the former German states of Thuringia, Saxony, Saxony-Anhalt, Brandenburg, and Mecklenburg-Vorpommern. The four Allied powers had also divided the German capital of Berlin into four sectors. The portion controlled by the Soviet Union came to be called East Berlin, while the sectors controlled by the Western allies became West Berlin. Thus split, the city sat like an island in a Communist sea, one hundred miles east of the line that divided Soviet occupied Germany from the Western zones.

From the North Sea to Austria, and from France to the Elbe River, the three Western zones collectively covered an area of roughly 95,750 square miles. The population of 50.8 million included more than 8 million refugees or expellees, who had migrated or had been forced out of homes to the east. Topographically, the northern coastal plain was quite flat and, in the east, extended southward almost 120 miles. Further west and throughout the central region the terrain was dotted with foothills and forests. In the southernmost areas, those that included the American-controlled states

of Bavaria and Baden Wurttemberg, the elevation rose steadily and the rolling hills increased, culminating in the Bavarian Alps in the south and the Black Forest in the southwest. Most of the region's major rivers, including the Rhine, Weser, and Elbe flowed from south to north, emptying into the North Sea. The Danube, however, flowed generally eastward from its source in the Black Forest, draining much of southern Germany and emptying eventually into the Black Sea.¹

Less than five years after its surrender in 1945, the Western portion of occupied Germany was on its way to full political sovereignty. On 8 April 1949, the United States, Great Britain, and France signed an agreement merging their three zones and allowing the formation of a German-elected government. Referred to as the Occupation Statute, the agreement assigned to the new body all governmental powers except those designed to preserve the rights of the Western allies to keep and maintain troops in their assigned areas, to assume control in the event of an emergency, and to enforce the terms of the surrender. In accordance with the terms of surrender, the Allies had disbanded all German armed forces, leaving only local police and a small border patrol force. The agreement ended the period of military government in Germany and turned the remaining administrative responsibilities of occupation over to the Office of the U.S. High Commissioner for Germany (HICOG). This office consisted of eight major subdivisions that monitored and assisted the developing German government in the areas of economic affairs, political affairs, general counsel, military security, labor affairs, intelligence, public affairs, and administration. The first high commissioner, John J. McCloy, assumed his post in May 1949. Four months later, in September, the first

¹ Richard F. Nyrop, ed., *Federal Republic of Germany: A Country Study* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1983), pp. 61–70.

freely elected German parliament since 1933 opened its first session in Bonn and established the German Federal Republic, or West Germany.²

By 1950, West Germany had begun to recover from the effects of Allied bombing, invasion, and occupation after World War II. Although its population had suffered painful food shortages during the initial years of the occupation, the recovery of many of the nation's family owned farms had restored agricultural production to near prewar levels, and Western assistance made up much of the shortfall. Postwar inspections revealed that German industry had not been destroyed to the extent that earlier bomb damage assessment had estimated. After five years, much of Germany's coal and steel production had begun to recover, while other industries stood poised to begin a decade-long expansion that historians and economists would label the West German Miracle. Observers in HICOG noted that the economy was still in a period of readjustment, required by the loss of resources and markets in the east. By the end of 1950, however, currency reform, and the introduction of the common deutsche mark (DM) across West Germany and West Berlin, seemed to be the necessary catalyst, and German industry began to approach prewar levels.³

For the most part, the Germans themselves were still somewhat ambivalent regarding their position in the developing rift between the former Allies. Even though the economy was beginning to pick up steam many still chafed at the limitations and restrictions placed on them by occupation rule. A steady stream of refugees from the

² Oliver J. Frederiksen, *The American Military Occupation of Germany, 1945–1953* (Darmstadt, Germany: HQ, United States Army, Europe [USAREUR], 1953), p. 148; Harold Zink, *The United States in Germany, 1944–1955* (New York: D. Van Nostrand, 1957), p. 305.

³ Zink, *The United States in Germany*, pp. 260, 293–303; McCloy's Statement on Western European Integration, 19 Mar 1950, Entry 6, Rcds of the European Command, Record Group (RG) 549, National Archives, College Park, Md. (NACP).

East provided ample evidence that life under Communist rule was no better than their own, and quite possibly worse. Still, for most Germans, the eventual reunification of their divided nation was of far greater importance than the larger East-West conflict.⁴

The Emerging Threat and the Move Toward Collective Security

Almost as soon as the surrender documents had been signed in Europe, the ties that bound the Soviet Union to the Western allies began to disintegrate. Resistance from the United States and Western Europe to Soviet demands for reparations from Germany created friction between the former allies. Meanwhile, political pressure from the Soviet Union, reinforced by the presence of its victorious armies in the heart of Europe, drew Albania, Bulgaria, Rumania, Eastern Germany, Poland, Hungary, and, eventually, Czechoslovakia under Soviet domination.⁵ In February 1946, a lengthy telegram from the deputy head of the U.S. Mission in Moscow, George F. Kennan, to the State Department provided a firsthand description of Soviet expansionism and warned that the West must act to contain it.⁶ Increasing Communist influence in France and Italy coupled with an active insurgency in Greece further fueled Western suspicions of Soviet intentions and, in March 1947, prompted President Harry S. Truman to declare a policy of American military and economic support for nations battling against

⁴ Melvyn P. Leffler, *A Preponderance of Power: National Security, the Truman Administration, and the Cold War* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1992), pp. 322–23. Detailed discussions of postwar Germany are included in Tony Judt, *Postwar: A History of Europe Since 1945* (New York: Penguin, 2005); Keith Lowe, *Savage Continent: Europe in the Aftermath of World War II* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 2012); Mark Trachtenberg, *A Constructed Peace: The Making of the European Settlement, 1945–1953* (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1999).

⁵Hastings Lionel Ismay, *NATO: The First Five Years, 1949–1954* (Utrecht, The Netherlands: Bosch-Utrecht, 1954), p. 5.

⁶ Walter Isaacson and Evan Thomas, *The Wise Men: Six Friends and the World They Made* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1986), pp. 352–53.

Communist expansionism. In June of that same year, the Kremlin refused to cooperate with a plan by U.S. Secretary of State George C. Marshall for European recovery, forbade East European countries from participating, and launched a campaign in the western press condemning the program.⁷

Tensions between the former allies came to a head in June 1948. They failed to agree on economic policies for occupied Germany, and the Western allies introduced, in their zones, currency reforms that replaced the reichsmark with a new deutsche mark.⁸ When the allies began to issue the new currency in the western sectors of Berlin, the Soviets responded by increasing restrictions on road, rail, and barge traffic into the city until, by 24 June, they had cut off all Western ground access to Berlin.⁹ During the next 15 months, American and British pilots flew 2,343,301 tons of food, coal, and other essential supplies into the blockaded city. Although the Soviets officially lifted the blockade in May, the allies continued the airlift through the end of September 1949 to ensure that a suitable stockpile was in place.¹⁰

The growing Soviet pressure on Berlin and the larger sense of threat it instilled throughout Germany added momentum to an ongoing re-evaluation of the U.S. position in Western Europe. As part of a review of U.S. foreign policy in 1948, Kennan, the

⁷ Leffler, *A Preponderance of Power*, pp. 184–85, 194.

⁸ Frederiksen, *The American Military Occupation of Germany*, p. 147.

⁹ Min, HQ, European Command (EUCOM), Deputy Commander in Chief's Weekly Staff Conference, 22, 29 Jun 1948, Entry 211, USAREUR General Correspondence, 1947–1951, RG 549, NACP.

¹⁰ Frederiksen, *The American Military Occupation of Germany*, p. 147. Varying interpretations of the early stages of the Cold War can be found in Carolyn Eisenberg, *Drawing the Line: The American Decision to Divide Germany, 1944–1949* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996); John L. Gaddis, *Strategies of Containment: A Critical Appraisal of Postwar American National Security Policy* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1982); idem, *We Now Know: Rethinking Cold War History* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1997).

director of the State Department's Policy Planning Staff, had ventured that some form of political, military, and economic union in Western Europe would be necessary if those nations were to hold their own against Communist interference and encroachment.¹¹ Planning was, in fact, well underway by then. It came to fruition in March 1948, with the signing of the Treaty of Brussels. The signatories—the United Kingdom, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg—resolved to work together to promote European economic recovery and took the first steps toward establishing a program for their mutual security. Initial achievements included an integration of air defenses and the creation of a joint command structure known as the Western Union Defense Organization. On 30 April 1948, the defense ministers and military chiefs of staff of the five Treaty of Brussels countries began a series of meetings to study their military equipment needs and to determine what supplementary aid they could request from the United States. Beginning in July, American and Canadian defense leaders attended the meetings in a nonmember status.¹²

The following year, 1949, proved to be decisive in fully engaging the United States in the security interests of Western Europe. After nearly twelve months of preliminary talks, on 4 April 1949, twelve Western nations including the United States signed the North Atlantic Treaty, which established the basis for an integrated defense of Western Europe. Under the terms of Article 5 of the treaty, all parties agreed that they would consider an attack against any one or more of them as an attack against all.

¹¹Rpt, Review of Current Trends U.S. Foreign Policy, 24 Feb 1948, in *Foreign Relations of the United States, 1948*, vol. 1, *General; The United Nations* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1976), pt. 2, pp. 510–29.

¹²Ismay, *NATO*, p. 9; Lawrence S. Kaplan, *NATO 1948: The Birth of the Transatlantic Alliance* (New York: Rowman and Littlefield, 2007), pp. 49–70.

Furthermore, in the event of such an attack, each nation pledged to render assistance, including the use of military force. In a departure from its historical position of nonalignment, the United States entered the alliance, committing its armed forces to the defense of foreign soil prior to an actual declaration of war. Despite concerns that the pact threatened the nation's traditional abstention from foreign entanglements, the U.S. Senate ratified the treaty on 21 July.¹³

In a further expression of the American commitment, on 6 October, President Truman signed the Mutual Defense Assistance Act of 1949, which authorized the allocation of \$1 billion to NATO members for the purchase of equipment, materials, and services that would strengthen their capabilities for individual or collective defense. Congressional leaders debating the aid package tied it directly to European acceptance of a coordinated defense plan under a single unified command. Those in opposition to the bill argued that the European nations had not yet shown that they would be willing to make such a commitment. Despite these misgivings, early in December 1949 NATO's twelve member nations met in Paris and gave unanimous approval to plans for an integrated defense of the North Atlantic area.¹⁴

¹³ Ismay, *NATO*, pp. 10–14; Kenneth W. Condit, *History of the Joint Chiefs of Staff*, vol. II, *The Joint Chiefs of Staff and National Policy, 1947–1949* (Washington, D.C.: Office of the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, 1996), pp. 200–204. The formation of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization is covered at length in Dean Acheson, *Present at the Creation: My Years in the State Department* (New York: Norton, 1969); Richard J. Barnet, *The Alliance: America—Europe—Japan, Makers of the Postwar World* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1983); Alfred Grosser, *The Western Alliance: European-American Relations Since 1945* (New York: Random House, 1982).

¹⁴ Steven L. Rearden, *History of the Office of the Secretary of Defense*, vol. 1, *The Formative Years: 1947–1950* (Washington, D.C.: Office of the Secretary of Defense, 1984), pp. 504–08; Clayton Knowles, “Unifying of Europe to Fight Demanded as Arms Aid Price,” *New York Times*, 1 Aug 1949; “West Nations Approve Defense Plan,” *Stars and Stripes*, 2 Dec 1949.

The European Command in 1950

The major U.S. military headquarters in Europe in 1950 was the European Command, located in Heidelberg, Germany, and commanded by Army General Thomas T. Handy. Its varied responsibilities included the coordination of administrative and logistical support to its component commands, the preparation and coordination of emergency and evacuation plans for U.S. forces in Europe, and the coordination and review of budget requests and priorities. Although designated as a unified command by the Joint Chiefs of Staff in 1947, the headquarters was manned almost exclusively by Army personnel. On 1 January 1950, the three service components of the command—United States Army, Europe (USAREUR); United States Air Force, Europe (USAFE); and United States Naval Force, Germany (USNAVFORGER)—represented a total of 103,038 assigned or attached military personnel.¹⁵

Also located in Heidelberg, USAREUR began 1950 as a fully operational headquarters responsible for the administration, support, and control of most U.S. Army units in the theater. Its major subordinate units included the U.S. Constabulary, headquartered at Vaihingen, Germany, ten miles northwest of Stuttgart; the 1st Infantry Division, headquartered at Bad Tolz, twenty miles south of Munich; and the various military posts that provided administrative and logistical support to American occupation troops throughout the U.S. Zone. In all, the command numbered about eighty-three thousand soldiers. Although it functioned as a separate headquarters, USAREUR

¹⁵ Annual Hist Rpt, 1 Jan–31 Dec 1950, HQ, EUCOM, pp. 31–33, 68; Annual Hist Rpt, 1 Jan–31 Dec 1950, HQ, USAREUR, pp. 8–10. Both in Historians files, CMH.

remained closely associated with EUCOM throughout most of 1950. As in previous years, many personnel played dual roles within staff divisions of both organizations.¹⁶

In addition to Germany, U.S. Army forces performed postwar duties in other conquered nations of Europe. Almost fifteen thousand soldiers assigned to U.S. Forces, Austria, continued to perform occupation duties there. Another contingent of five thousand, identified as Trieste United States Troops (TRUST), helped to provide security in that city, which was located on the Italian Adriatic coast and had been divided between U.S. and British occupation forces on one side and the Yugoslav Army on the other. Although neither command belonged to EUCOM, reporting instead directly to the Joint Chiefs of Staff, both relied on the command for administrative and logistical support.

As the last remaining U.S. Army division serving with the occupation forces in Germany, the 1st Infantry Division had dispersed throughout the U.S. Zone and Berlin. In 1947, EUCOM initiated efforts to reassemble the majority of the division to serve as a theater reserve. The command relieved division personnel from most of their occupation duties and directed the division commander, Maj. Gen. Frank W. Milburn, to begin a program of tactical training and improved combat readiness. By 1950, however, most of its subordinate units remained scattered across the U.S. Zone while USAREUR and EUCOM leaders searched for suitable locations to consolidate them.¹⁷

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ Min, HQ, EUCOM, Monthly Conference of Commander in Chief with Major Commanders and Deputy Military Governor, 26 Mar 1947; Min, HQ, EUCOM, Deputy Commander in Chief's Weekly Staff Conference, 15 Apr 1947; Rpt, HQ, U.S. Forces, European Theater, 5 Mar 1947, G-3 Monthly Report. All in Entry 211, USAREUR General Correspondence, 1947-1951, RG 549, NACP. Reorganization of Tactical Forces: V-E Day to 1 January 1949, Historical Division, EUCOM, 1950, Historians files, U.S. Army Center of Military History (CMH), Washington, D.C.

At the same time, Army leaders in Europe also took steps to realign the U.S. Constabulary. Upon its activation in July 1946, the Constabulary's mission had been to maintain general military and civil security, to assist the military government in carrying out its objectives, and to control the borders of the U.S. Zone of occupation. Constabulary troops also helped train a new German police force that handled most cases dealing with German civilians. At its peak the Constabulary consisted of thirty-two thousand men, organized into three brigades, nine regiments, and twenty-seven squadrons. Each squadron consisted of five troops, three mechanized with M5 or M8 armored cars and two motorized with jeeps. Additionally, each regiment had a light tank company equipped with M24 tanks, a section of nine liaison-type airplanes, a horse platoon of thirty mounted men for work in difficult terrain, and a motorcycle platoon for highway patrols. Headquarters and service troops provided administrative and maintenance support for each regiment. Constabulary units maintained an active patrol system and cooperated closely with German local and border police throughout the U.S. Zone.¹⁸ Separate constabulary squadrons operated in Berlin and Austria but were not part of the U.S. Constabulary proper.

By the end of 1948, German police had assumed responsibility for most security duties in the U.S. Zone and EUCOM ordered U.S. forces to begin reorganizing into a more tactical posture. On 20 December, the Constabulary completed a transformation into a more combat-ready force by reorganizing its 2d, 6th, and 14th Regiments into

¹⁸ Frederiksen, *The American Military Occupation of Germany*, p. 69; Earl F. Ziemke, *The U.S. Army in the Occupation of Germany, 1944–1946*, Army Historical Series (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Army Center of Military History, 2003), p. 341; Kendall D. Gott, *Mobility, Vigilance, and Justice: The U.S. Army Constabulary in Germany, 1946–1953*, Global War on Terrorism Occasional Paper 11 (Fort Leavenworth, Kans.: Combat Studies Institute Press, 2005), pp. 11–13.

armored cavalry regiments. The new units received shipments of light and heavy tanks and other new equipment, while an increased emphasis on recruiting in the United States helped to provide the additional manpower they required. At the same time, the command inactivated two other squadrons, the 15th and 37th, to provide personnel for two new field artillery battalions, the 70th and 74th.¹⁹

Beginning in 1947 for elements of the 1st Infantry Division and in 1948 for the three new armored cavalry regiments of the Constabulary, EUCOM conducted a tactical training program designed to return the units to an acceptable level of combat readiness. During the winter of 1948–1949, every battalion spent two weeks in cold weather training at Grafenwohr, an old German Army training area about forty miles northwest of Nuremberg. Exercise NORMAL in the summer of 1948 and Exercise HARVEST in September 1949 provided the units with an opportunity to demonstrate their combat proficiency. While observers noted that the participants exhibited excellent mobility and a sound grasp of tactical fundamentals, they pointed out that much still remained to be done. In particular, General Handy noted that many of the World War II vintage vehicles and weapons could not stand up to the strain of the maneuvers.²⁰

Over the next year, additional exercises led EUCOM's leaders to believe that the command was well trained by peacetime standards, but they acknowledged that it was

¹⁹ Min, HQ, EUCOM, Deputy Commander in Chief's Weekly Staff Conference, 13 Apr 1948, Entry 211, USAREUR General Correspondence, 1947–1951, RG 549, NACP; *Reorganization of Tactical Forces: V-E Day to 1 January 1949*, Occupation Forces in Europe Series, EUCOM Historical Division, 1950, Archives files, CMH.

²⁰ Frederiksen, *The American Military Occupation of Germany*, pp. 174–75; "U.S. Maneuvers in Europe Go Back to Exercise NORMAL in 1948," *Stars and Stripes*, European Edition, 14 Sep 1950; Interv, Lt Col Edward M. Kopff Jr. with General Thomas T. Handy, former Commanding General (CG), EUCOM, 1974, p. 20, Senior Officer Oral History Program, U.S. Army Military History Institute (MHI), Carlisle Barracks, Pa.

difficult to apply a single set of measures to such evaluations. During Exercise RAINBOW, conducted between 11 and 18 September 1950, the command once again tested its major combat units in a series of combat exercises. The enemy, portrayed by the 2d Armored Cavalry Regiment, attacked across the eastern border of the U.S. Zone on the morning of 11 September. Friendly forces, consisting of the 1st Infantry Division, the 14th Armored Cavalry Regiment, and other elements of the Constabulary, withdrew to predetermined positions, conducted defensive operations, and launched a counteroffensive on 13 September. Assisted by simulated allied reinforcements, the defenders completed their operations by 18 September, attaining all objectives and driving the aggressor back across the border. On the basis of their performance during Exercise RAINBOW, the EUCOM deputy chief of staff for operations, Brig. Gen. Edward T. Williams, estimated that Army elements within the command had an operational readiness of 85 percent but would need an additional three months of intensive training for them to be fully ready for combat.²¹

Other efforts to restore the 1st Infantry Division and the Constabulary to higher levels of combat readiness were also beginning to pay off. One of the most significant developments was the progressive build-up to desired overstrengths of the major tactical units in the European Command. By the end of May 1950, the 1st Infantry Division was at 96.5 percent of its total personnel authorization while the Constabulary

²¹ Annual Hist Rpt, 1 Jan-31 Dec 1950, HQ, EUCOM, p. 88; Omer Anderson, "Forces Proved Mobility in Exercise RAINBOW," *Stars and Stripes*, European Edition, 1 Oct 1950.

was at 97 percent. By mid-August, both organizations exceeded 100 percent of their authorized strengths.²²

Despite the progress that EUCOM made, other impediments to combat readiness remained. As the number of troops assigned to EUCOM continued to rise, so too did the number of military dependents. Army leaders acknowledged the value to soldier morale of having families accompany deploying soldiers, but also recognized the numerous challenges that would be associated with an increased civilian community. In several cases, a shortage of troop housing prevented the command from consolidating its tactical units. Because many units were still dispersed in occupation locations, they lacked ranges and local training areas where they could develop tactical skills on a daily basis. The only large-scale maneuver area available for training units of battalion size or larger was the former German Army site at Grafenwohr. The force in Europe also lacked any semblance of a logistical base capable of supporting a wartime theater. Most of the maintenance, supply, ordnance, and other service units needed to support the combat elements were not available. Perhaps most important, almost all of EUCOM's supplies and reinforcements came into the theater through the German port of Bremerhaven on the North Sea. The line of support linking the port and the command's deployed units ran parallel to the border between the allied and Soviet zones in Germany and within easy reach of any potential Soviet advance.²³

Perceptions of a Rising Threat

²² Annual Hist Rpt, 1 Jan-31 Dec 1950, HQ, EUCOM, pp. 70–71; Annual Hist Rpt, 1 Jan-31 Dec, 1950, HQ, USAREUR, p. 105.

²³ Annual Hist Rpt, 1 Jan-31 Dec, 1950, HQ, EUCOM, pp. 88, 111–15.

By the beginning of 1950, events had conspired to convince many military and political leaders in the United States that conflict with the Soviet Union was imminent. In September 1949, U.S. scientists picked up traces of radioactivity over the Pacific that indicated the Soviets had exploded their own atomic device. Although U.S. intelligence agencies had long reported that the Soviets were on the verge of such an achievement, to many U.S. officials, the loss of the American atomic monopoly was shocking. The victory of Mao Zedong's forces in China in October 1949 reinforced fears that communism was still on the march worldwide. The fall of China seemed to expose Japan, India, and all of Southeast Asia to a similar fate. The Communist victory in China also gave rise to finger-pointing and recriminations in American politics. Disclosures that Soviet spies Alger Hiss and Klaus Fuchs had penetrated the State Department and the atomic laboratories at Los Alamos prompted Senator Joseph McCarthy, a Republican from Wisconsin, to begin a well-publicized hunt for Communists within the State Department and the Truman administration.²⁴

Despite these diversions, U.S. strategic planners firmly kept their eyes on the Soviet Union as a potential foe. In December 1949, the Joint Chiefs of Staff had approved Joint Outline Emergency War Plan OFFTACKLE, a revision to the previous plan, HALFMOON, to reflect the strategic changes in Europe brought about by the NATO alliance. According to OFFTACKLE, in the event of war with the Soviet Union, the United States would safeguard the western hemisphere and its own mobilization base, conduct a strategic defensive in the Far East, and wage a strategic offensive in Western

²⁴ Walter S. Poole, *History of the Joint Chiefs of Staff*, vol. IV, *The Joint Chiefs of Staff and National Policy, 1950–1952* (Washington, D.C.: Office of the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, 1998), p. 3; Leffler, *A Preponderance of Power*, pp. 341–44.

Eurasia. In Europe, allied forces would defend essential areas along the periphery, pulling back to a line along the Pyrenees if they did not have to evacuate the continent altogether. The allies would conduct a sustained strategic air offensive from the United Kingdom, and whatever bases they could hold in southern Italy, the Mediterranean, or North Africa. This air-sea offensive would destroy the vital elements of Soviet war-making capacity, defend base areas and lines of communication, provide aid to allied nations, and clear the way for an eventual counteroffensive and, if necessary, return to the European continent.²⁵

The outbreak of war in Korea in June 1950 served to underscore a sense of urgency and imminent threat to Western Europe that had been growing since the Soviet imposition of the Berlin blockade in 1948. Although the North Korean invasion seemed to be a logical extension of the Communist victory in China, the Joint Chiefs considered the conflict in Asia to be a war against the wrong enemy. The action, however, provided an indication that the Soviets were no longer constrained from military action by the Western monopoly on atomic weapons. Analysts noted similarities between the situation in Korea and that in Germany, raising concerns that the next blow would fall in Europe. As with Korea, Germany had been divided into two parts, one of which was a Soviet satellite with aggressive intentions. Soviet armed forces in East Germany greatly outnumbered U.S. and NATO forces in Western Europe—forces that were only just beginning to mobilize. Nonetheless, for EUCOM, the immediate effect of the conflict,

²⁵ Poole, *History of the Joint Chiefs of Staff*, vol. IV, pp. 83–84.

with its pressing requirements for manpower and logistics, was to postpone reinforcements and to delay shipments of new equipment.²⁶

The concerns expressed by the Joint Chiefs were reinforced by U.S. intelligence reports. The newly established Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) observed that the Soviet Union's treatment of the Korean situation most likely reflected a belief that the Soviet bloc had reached a military and political position superior to that of the West. In view of the recent Soviet atomic test, CIA analysts believed that Moscow intended to exploit the end of the Western atomic monopoly, relying on its superiority in conventional forces to intimidate rather than to negotiate, therefore eschewing general war but increasing the tempo of pressure and agitation on Germany in order to feed a war scare throughout Europe.²⁷ Other reports described an expansion of East German paramilitary forces and predicted that those units would soon constitute both a potential threat to West Germany and an even more immediate threat to West Berlin. These forces already included thirty-five thousand "alert police" assigned to field units of battalion-type organization that included infantry, artillery, tank, signal, and engineer components. Although the East German military headquarters had enough Soviet tanks and heavy artillery for training but too little for operational purposes, the reports insisted that the Soviets could remedy such deficiencies easily from stocks already in East Germany. The reports concluded that the rapid increase in East German military capabilities raised more and more of a possibility that the Soviets would wield them as

²⁶ Annual Hist Rpt, 1 Jan-31 Dec 1950, HQ, EUCOM, p. 1; Omar N. Bradley and Clay Blair, *A General's Life* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1983), p. 582. European reactions to the North Korean invasion are described in Edward Fursdon, *The European Defense Community: A History* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1980).

²⁷National Intelligence Estimate, Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), Probable Soviet Moves to Exploit the Present Situation, 11 Dec 1950, CIA Freedom of Information Act Electronic Reading Room, copy in Historians files, CMH.

instruments of policy toward all of Germany. Their value as a psychological threat, moreover, seemed every bit as important as their actual military potential.²⁸

With the threat in Europe growing and U.S. forces struggling to hold their lines in Korea, President Truman announced on 10 September 1950 that he had approved substantial increases in the strength of U.S. forces in Europe. Although the timing and nature of these increases required coordination with NATO allies and the approval of Congress, the president's announcement reinforced the U.S. commitment to the defense of Europe and spurred the effort to increase the American presence on the continent.²⁹

Truman's decision elicited a response from the Army in Europe as well. On 17 September, with the understanding that additional troops would soon be coming his way, the EUCOM commander, General Handy, requested authority from the Department of the Army to activate a field army headquarters within the command. He argued that the early experiences of U.S. forces in Korea indicated the need for a command and control element at that level. The new headquarters would oversee a self-contained force that could readily be transferred to allied operational command in case of an emergency. All Army units with tactical missions, including combat, combat support, and service support elements, would be assigned to the field army. In response to General Handy's request, on 24 November the Department of the Army reactivated

²⁸ Min, HQ, EUCOM, Commander in Chief's Weekly Staff Conference Notes, 3 Jan 1950, Entry 211, USAREUR General Correspondence, 1947–1951, RG 549, NACP; CIA, Probable Developments in Eastern Germany by the End of 1951, 28 Sep 1950, CIA Freedom of Information Act Electronic Reading Room, copy in Historians files, CMH.

²⁹ Ltr, Louis Johnson, Secretary of Defense, and Dean Acheson, Secretary of State, to President Harry S. Truman, 8 Sep 1950, Proquest and National Security Archive, Digital National Security Archives (hereafter cited as Digital National Security Archive), copy in Historians files, CMH; "Truman OK's Substantial Rise of American Forces in Europe," *Stars and Stripes*, European Edition, 10 Sep 1950.

the U.S. Seventh Army and placed it under the command of Lt. Gen. Manton S. Eddy. At that time, EUCOM placed the 1st Infantry Division and all remaining elements of the U.S. Constabulary under Seventh Army command and inactivated the Constabulary headquarters. On 2 December, the Army reassigned all military posts previously under USAREUR control to EUCOM headquarters. With that action completed, the command made plans to discontinue Headquarters, USAREUR. Meanwhile, the Seventh Army established its headquarters at Stuttgart and began to prepare for its new mission.³⁰

³⁰Annual Hist Rpt, 1 Jan-31 Dec 1950, HQ, EUCOM, pp. 37–38, 43; Memo, Dep Ch of Staff for Opns, EUCOM, for EUCOM Staff, 4 Oct 1950, sub: Organization of a Field Army Headquarters, Entry 2052, USAREUR G3 Operations General Correspondence, RG 549, NACP; Min, HQ, EUCOM, Minutes of Press Conference Held by Lt Gen Manton S. Eddy, 19 Aug 1950, Entry 6, USAREUR, RG 549, NACP; “7th Army Revived; Eddy CG; Constab Hq Inactivated,” *Stars and Stripes*, European Edition, 25 Nov 1950.