

Key Topics of the Cold War

Expert Topic:

You are becoming an expert in this topic through working with your group to break down the information. You have two key objectives for organizing your information:

- a) Gather the key information (can you identify and describe the topic?)
- b) Understand the impact on / significance to Canada (can you describe the significance?)

Use the space below to jot down any information you gather as you read and interpret the information provided. You may highlight and write on the information as well.

Now, you need to break down the information to:

a) the key points

b) significance to Canada

Topic	Identify	Significance to Canada

Topics that should be covered: Korean War, Suez Canal Crisis, Cuban Missile Crisis, Bomarc Wars, Avro Arrow, Vietnam

1) Korean War

The Korean War began 25 June 1950, when North Korean armed forces invaded South Korea. The war's combat phase lasted until an armistice was signed 27 July 1953.

The Korean War began 25 June 1950, when North Korean armed forces invaded South Korea. The war's combat phase lasted until an armistice was signed 27 July 1953. As part of a United Nations (UN) force consisting of 16 countries, 26,791 Canadian military personnel served in the Korean War, during both the combat phase and as peacekeepers afterward. The last Canadian soldiers left Korea in 1957. After the two world wars, Korea remains Canada's third-bloodiest overseas conflict, taking the lives of 516 Canadians and wounding more than 1,200. The two Koreas remain technically at war today.

Korean Peninsula Divided

Late in the Second World War, the Japanese-held Korean peninsula was liberated by both Soviet and American armed forces. Soviet troops occupied the country north of the 38th parallel, with the Americans to the south. After the war, the Soviets, Americans, and their Korean supporters could not agree on the country's government. The United Nations Temporary Commission on Korea, which included Canadian members, oversaw elections in May 1948, but the Soviets forbid these elections in the north. The pro-West Republic of Korea (ROK) was then founded in the south and not long after, the communist Democratic People's Republic of Korea was declared in the north. Both governments sought to unify all of Korea and civil war broke out in the country in the late 1940s.

Meanwhile, in late 1949, the Chinese Civil War ended with the establishment of the communist People's Republic of China. Communist Chinese and Soviet leaders believed that North Korea could unify Korea by force, without Western interference. The communists were emboldened by the American decision to limit assistance to the non-communist nationalist Chinese regime on

the island of Formosa (Taiwan). In late June 1950, with Chinese and Soviet-supplied weapons and equipment, the North Korean Army invaded the ROK.

United Nations Intervenes

The United States led the decision to help the ROK through the UN. The UN General Assembly was dominated by Western countries. Since the Soviets were boycotting the Security Council because of the UN's refusal to include the new communist Chinese regime as one of its five permanent members, the Soviets could not exercise a veto. The Security Council thus condemned North Korean aggression and called on UN members "to render every assistance" to the ROK. On 28 June 1950 Lester B. Pearson, Canada's Secretary of State for External Affairs, encouraged a Canadian response through the UN, and under US military leadership. In the government's view, Canada would fight for the UN and the principle of collective security.

Canada's Military Commitments

Initially, Canada contributed three Royal Canadian Navy destroyers (HMCS *Athabaskan*, HMCS *Cayuga*, and HMCS *Sioux*) and a Royal Canadian Air Force transport squadron, No. 426 "Thunderbird" Squadron. American, UN, and domestic pressure then led to Prime Minister Louis St. Laurent's announcement on 7 August 1950 of a Canadian Army Special Force (CASF) — later named the 25th Canadian Infantry Brigade Group — to expand the country's UN contributions to Korea.

War's Early Phases

At first it appeared that the war would be short-lived as, under US General Douglas MacArthur, UN forces drove the North Koreans back, first to the 38th parallel, then to Korea's border with China. However, by the end of October 1950 thousands of Chinese army "volunteers" crossed the Yalu River into North Korea, driving the UN forces back south.

Canadian Military Participation

In November 1950, the Canadian Army brigade's 2nd Battalion, Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry Regiment, was sent overseas and landed in Korea in December. In May 1951, the rest of the Canadian brigade arrived. For the army, the Korean War became largely a "war of patrols" in rough, mountainous terrain, but infantry, tank, and artillery units were also involved in heavy fighting at the battles of Kapyong (22-25 April 1951), Hill 355, also known as Kowang-San, (22-25 November 1951 and 22-24 October 1952), and Hill 187 (2-3 May 1953), among many other actions. Eight Canadian warships took turns in Korean waters protecting UN aircraft carriers, busting enemy trains along the coasts, and helping other onshore operations. The air force's transport planes ferried people and materials across the Pacific Ocean, while 22 Canadian pilots flew jet aircraft with the United States Air Force in Korea.

End of the War and Aftermath

After several months of movement by both sides, in mid-1951 the front lines became static near the 38th parallel. Until the war ended the fighting took place along these lines, mostly consisting of patrols and raids against hilltop trench positions across the area in-between UN and enemy lines, known as "No Man's Land." During the two years that followed the 1953 armistice, Canadians continued to serve in Korea; many were troops who guarded and patrolled the ROK's side of the Demilitarized Zone (DMZ), which continues to separate the two Koreas. All Canadian armed forces personnel who served in Korea from 1950 to 1957 are considered Korean War veterans.

2) Suez Crisis

The 1956 Suez Crisis was a military and political confrontation in Egypt that threatened to divide the United States and Great Britain, potentially harming the Western military alliance that had won the Second World War. Lester B. Pearson, who later became prime minister of Canada, won a Nobel Peace Prize for using the world's first, large-scale United Nations peacekeeping force to de-escalate the situation.

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Egypt Seizes Canal

The Suez Canal directly links the Mediterranean Sea to the Red Sea. It was built by Egyptian workers under the French and British-owned Suez Canal Company, and opened in 1869. The company was seized and nationalized by Egyptian President Gamal Abdel Nasser on 26 July 1956. The move worried Western governments, as the canal was a vital route for oil travelling to Britain. If Egypt blocked the flow of oil, Nasser could badly damage the British economy.

The Egyptian seizure came during the Cold War, further ratcheting up the tensions. Egypt's stated reason for the nationalization of the canal was to use the shipping tolls to finance construction of the Aswan Dam — which promised to control flooding on the Nile, and provide hydroelectricity as well as other means of industrializing the country. Nasser continued to operate the canal as usual, but Britain, France and their regional ally Israel began plotting a military response. Nasser, meanwhile, obtained military arms from the Soviet Union.

Bombing the Canal

When diplomacy failed to produce a solution, France, Britain and Israel secretly plotted to attack, without informing the US, Canada and other NATO allies. Israeli forces advanced on 29 October to within 42 kilometers of the canal. Britain and France ordered both Israel and Egypt to withdraw from the Canal Zone (a move pre-planned with Israel). Nasser did not retreat. On 31 October, Britain and France began bombing the Canal Zone.

The US, not wanting a war, had urged Britain to seek peace. British aggression in Egypt caused the biggest rift between these important allies in the 20th century.

Canada Becomes Peacemaker

Publicly, the Canadian government's role was that of conciliator. Privately, however, Ottawa strongly objected to the military action out of concern that it was dividing the Commonwealth, damaging relations with the US, and risking a wider war.

Pearson was Canada's secretary of state for external affairs (foreign minister) and headed Canada's delegation to the UN. He had played an important role in the creation of the state of Israel in 1947. He spent the summer and fall of 1956 working toward a diplomatic solution to the Suez Crisis. When that failed, and the bombing began, Pearson changed tactics.

Working with colleagues at the UN, he developed the idea for the UN's first, large-scale peacekeeping force. At that time, UN military observers were already being used to monitor cease-fire agreements in Kashmir and Palestine, but a more robust and armoured peacekeeping force had not been tried before.

Addressing the UN General Assembly in New York, in the midst of the Suez Crisis, Pearson made his case for a "peace and police force," saying: "Peace is far more than ceasing to fire."

On 4 November, 57 UN states voted in favour of the idea and 19 abstained; no country voted against the peacekeeping mission. The following day, however, British and French paratroops ignored the vote and landed in the Canal Zone.

The US continued to pressure British Prime Minister Sir Anthony Eden to find a peaceful resolution. A cease-fire was arranged, beginning on 6 November, and UN peacekeepers later entered the canal area. Pearson's solution allowed Britain, France and Israel to withdraw their forces without giving the appearance of having been defeated. A United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) under the command of Canadian General E.L.M. Burns, and including a Canadian supply and logistics contingent, was in place by late November.

Pearson Wins the Nobel Peace Prize

Pearson won the 1957 Nobel Peace Prize for his initiative in Egypt. In his acceptance speech, he highlighted Canada's important role in the breakthrough.

“I realise also that I share this honour with many friends and colleagues who have worked with me for the promotion of peace and good understanding between peoples. I am grateful for the opportunities I have been given to participate in that work as a representative of my country, Canada, whose people have, I think, shown their devotion to peace.”

Some in Canada and Britain objected to Ottawa's perceived lack of support for Britain. In the 1957 Canadian election, Pearson's Liberals, under the leadership of Prime Minister Louis St-Laurent, faced accusations that they had betrayed Britain — still regarded by many Canadians as the Mother Country. Pearson defended his position as the best way to stop the fighting before it spread. The hostile view of some Canadians towards their country's role in the Suez Crisis is thought to have played a part in the Liberal government's defeat in the national election.

Pearson, however, would go on to become prime minister six years later in 1963. And his role in creating the UN's first modern peacekeeping force pointed the way to the future; UN-sponsored

peacekeeping missions would become the proud centrepiece of Canada's military and diplomatic activities around the world for decades to come.

3) Cuban Missile Crisis

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Missiles Discovered

The Cuban Missile Crisis began on 15 October 1962, at the height of the Cold War, when an American spy plane took photographs of ballistic missiles, belonging to the Soviet Union, being installed in Cuba. The missiles, designed to deliver nuclear warheads, were capable of hitting targets anywhere in the United States or Canada.

U.S. President John F. Kennedy and his advisors secretly discussed what to do about this unexpected threat for a week. After rejecting calls from his military to launch air strikes against the missile sites, Kennedy mounted an immediate naval blockade of Cuba. He announced the crisis, and the blockade, in a televised address to the American public on 22 October, threatening further action if the missile sites were not dismantled.

Canada Hesitates

Like other NATO leaders, Prime Minister John Diefenbaker was personally informed by Kennedy of the U.S. plan, shortly before the televised broadcast. The two leaders did not get along well at the best of times. On the phone with Kennedy, Diefenbaker was sceptical about the Soviet Union's intentions. He asked to see further proof of what was taking place on the ground

in Cuba. Diefenbaker urged Kennedy to send a team of United Nations inspectors to Cuba to verify what the Soviets were doing there.

The main issue for the Canadian government was whether to comply with an American request to move Canadian forces to a higher alert status known as "DEFCON-3." Diefenbaker was reluctant. Not only did he dislike Kennedy, he was angry that the U.S. hadn't consulted Canada earlier in the crisis. He and Canada's Foreign Minister, Secretary of State for External Affairs Howard Green, were also wary of falling quickly into line with U.S. wishes.

The Canadian government was also concerned that placing its military on alert might provoke the Soviet Union.

"DEFCON-3"

In spite of these concerns and delays, National Defence Minister Douglas Harkness allowed Canadian units to quietly raise their readiness alert level to "DEFCON-3." Formal authorization, however, was delayed while the Cabinet debated the matter over the next two days. Harkness argued that the nature of the crisis, combined with existing international defence arrangements, made the alert necessary (Canada was a member, along with the U.S., of both NATO and NORAD).

About half of Canada's ministers remained undecided on the issue. But as Soviet ships approached the quarantine zone later in the week – and other NATO members announced their support for the blockade – Harkness' position gained support. On 24 October the Diefenbaker government authorized the "DEFCON-3" alert. Canadian ships and aircraft also participated in patrols at this time to locate Soviet submarines in the North Atlantic.

Canada's hesitant response reflected in part the desire of the government to preserve the independence of Canadian foreign policy, and to maintain a balanced posture in crisis conditions. The delay, however, was widely criticized in Canada, and contributed to a growing perception of indecisiveness in the Diefenbaker government.

It also made worse already difficult relations with the Kennedy administration, and fuelled controversy and confusion in Canada – underway since the 1960 debate on Bomarc missiles – over Canadian policy on nuclear weapons.

Crisis Defused

The Cuban Missile Crisis continued for 13 tense days, at which time the world's two atomic superpowers came uncomfortably close to nuclear war. The stand-off was resolved with the help of United Nations diplomats. It ended on 28 October, when Soviet Premier Nikita Khrushchev agreed to dismantle and remove the Soviet missiles, in return for Kennedy's promise not to invade Cuba.

4) Bomarc Missile Crisis

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Secret Nuclear Warheads

In the fall of 1958 Prime Minister John Diefenbaker's Conservative government announced an agreement with the US to deploy two squadrons of the American ramjet-powered "Bomarc" anti-aircraft missile in Canada. This controversial defence decision was one of many flowing from the 1957 North American Air Defence (NORAD) agreement with the US.

It was argued by some that the surface-to-air guided missile, with a range of 640 km, would be an effective replacement for the manned interceptor Avro Arrow, which the Diefenbaker government had scrapped. The missiles would theoretically intercept any Soviet attacks on North America before they reached the industrial heartland of Canada.

Fifty-six missiles were deployed at North Bay, Ontario, and La Macaza, Québec, under the ultimate control of the commander-in-chief of NORAD.

The Canadian government did not make it clear that the version to be acquired, the Bomarc-B, was to be fitted with nuclear warheads. When this became known in 1960 it gave rise to a dispute as to whether Canada should adopt nuclear weapons. It led to anti-nuclear protests throughout the country.

Warheads Arrive

In the end the government did not accept nuclear warheads for the Bomarcs, a reluctance which contributed to poor Canadian-American relations in this period.

The Conservative government was divided over the issue. Its Cabinet failed to make a firm decision on whether Canada should honour its NORAD obligations and house the nuclear missiles, or maintain Canada's opposition to the spread of nuclear weapons.

The Liberal Opposition said that it supported the NORAD obligations and would accept the nuclear warheads.

The Conservatives lost the 1963 election, in part over the Bomarc issue. The Liberals returned to power under Prime Minister Lester Pearson and decided to accept nuclear warheads for Canadian nuclear-capable forces. The Bomarc warheads were delivered to their sites on 31 December 1963.

Canada Signs Treaty

In 1969 Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau's new Liberal government announced that Canada would withdraw its armed forces from their nuclear roles.

His government signed the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty, which took force in 1970. As part of this process the Bomarc missile was phased out of service by 1971.

5) Avro Arrow

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Avro Arrow (CF-105), an advanced, supersonic, twin-engined, all-weather interceptor jet aircraft developed by A.V. Roe of Canada from 1949 until the government's controversial cancellation of the project in 1959. Encouraged by A.V. Roe's success in developing the Avro CF-100 Canuck and recognizing the need for an aircraft to counter the threat of Soviet bombers over the demanding Canadian North, enthusiastic RCAF officers, defence scientists and defence-industry officials had persuaded the Liberal government by December 1953 to authorize two prototype airframes in anticipation of a production run of up to 600 aircraft costing \$2 million apiece.

Canada was also forced to develop the Arrow's engine and fire-control and missile systems, and estimated costs rose to \$12.5 million per aircraft. Test flights indicated that with the proper engines the plane could well be the world's fastest and most advanced interceptor. However, doubts mounted as the government's order shrank to 100 and unit costs rose. In October 1958, to cut costs, the new Conservative government terminated Canadian fire-control and missile development, and renewed efforts to sell the aircraft to the US, just when the US was promoting Bomarc missiles and the USSR's launch of an ICBM missile was raising doubts about the priority of the Soviet bomber threat.

After export efforts again failed, the project was cancelled on 20 February 1959. A.V. Roe bitterly fired 14,000 employees; the government ordered all plans and prototypes destroyed; and many Canadians bemoaned the devastation of Canada's aircraft industry, the resulting flight of scientists and engineers to the US, and Canada's renewed dependence on the US for interceptor aircraft.

Avro Arrow: "There Never Was an Arrow"

The story of the Arrow had its origins in the Cold War and the growing spectre of Soviet bombers invading our northern skies.

Friday 20 February 1959 is known as "Black Friday" in Canada's aviation community. On that day, Prime Minister John Diefenbaker rose in the House of Commons and terminated the A.V. Roe *Arrow*, the world's most advanced military aircraft.

Only a year earlier, the atmosphere was quite different. At Malton, just outside Toronto, the legendary test pilot Jan Zurokowski eased himself through the clamshell canopy of a brand-new aircraft as sleek as its name. Even with borrowed engines, the aircraft was swiftly airborne. A sense of pride swept through the nation. Canadians clearly had "the right stuff."

The story of the *Arrow* had its origins in the Cold War and the growing spectre of Soviet bombers invading our northern skies.

Flush from its success in supplying the air force with the Canadian built CF-100, the Royal Canadian Air Force (RCAF) laid out a set of ambitious specs for a "supersonic all-weather interceptor aircraft." Demanding an aircraft that would fly faster, higher and farther and carry the most advanced missile system, the RCAF dreamed of a plane that was not even on the drawing boards of any nation in the world. With its CF-100 well into production, its Jetliner prototype turning heads as only the second jet airliner in the world, and even a "flying saucer" on its drawing boards, A.V. Roe felt up to the task.

The first Arrow took only 28 months from the first drawings until roll-out on 4 October 1957. It might have caused more of a stir if it had not been the very same day that the Russians launched Sputnik.

While testing of the airframe was underway, A.V. Roe was also at work on the Iroquois engines that would drive the Arrow well beyond the speed of sound. Using titanium and high temperature

alloys, the engineers skipped a whole generation of jet engine development. Powerful enough to drive the ocean liner Queen Mary, the engine was first tested 24 June 1956.

The weapons system proved the project's Achilles' heel. The RCAF's insistence on weapons and guidance systems that didn't exist pushed the cost of the Arrow into an impossible range.

In 1957 A.V. Roe was still riding high, with some 50,000 employees, though the Jetliner had failed to find a buyer and had flown for the last time in November 1956. In June 1957 John Diefenbaker turfed the Liberals out and became prime minister. He had long had a suspicious eye on A.V. Roe, the darling of the Liberal government. When the British military declared that interceptors were obsolete, he was jubilant. "There is no purpose in manufacturing horse collars when horses no longer exist," he said.

On 27 August 1957, the prediction seemed confirmed as the Soviets launched the first ICBM. That same month, Minister of Defence George Pearkes met the American Secretary of Defence, who trashed the Arrow and told him that the Americans would be glad to sell Canada "proven" aircraft at cheaper prices." Rumours spread that the Arrow was doomed.

On 17 September 1958, after numerous evasions, Prime Minister John Diefenbaker relented and granted a hearing to Crawford Gordon, Jr., the president of A.V. Roe. Gordon stormed into the room "incoherent, like a person demented," an aid reported. He pounded the prime minister's desk and demanded that his beloved Arrow not be scrapped. Diefenbaker threatened to have him thrown out. Gordon knew in his heart that the Arrow would fly no more.

When Gordon heard Diefenbaker's announcement, he went straight to the loudspeaker at A.V. Roe. "Notice of termination," he said, "There will be no work for you." Some 14,000 lost their jobs overnight. The company was ordered to destroy the eight prototypes — only a nose section of No. 206 survives. "We will now lose the cream of our skilled aircraft technicians to the United States," said Dennis McDermott of the UAW. "History will prove this to be one of the most colossal blunders made by a prime minister in the history of Canada."

The conventional, and no doubt sensible, historical view is that Diefenbaker made the right decision. The Arrow was getting too expensive, though the fault was as much with the RCAF as with the company. But historical events have more than simple economic or policy implications. The death of the Arrow and A.V. Roe was a symbolic set back, not only for arrowhead enthusiasts in love with the technology, or for the thousands of highly skilled Canadians thrown out of work (many moved to the US where they were eagerly taken up by NASA).

Diefenbaker's government rushed to buy American Bomarc missiles, which turned out to be useless without nuclear warheads, and then to purchase American Voodoo interceptors that the air staff had judged inferior years before. For many Canadians, the cancellation of the Arrow was a mortal blow to part of the national dream and confirmation that our leaders did not have the courage or the vision to forge a coherent defence policy independent of the United States.

6) Vietnam War

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French Colonialism vs Nationalism

The Vietnam War had its roots in the French colonial conquest of Indochina in the mid-19th century and in the nationalist movements that arose to oppose it. At the end of the Second World War, on 2 September 1945, nationalist leader Ho Chi Minh proclaimed the Democratic Republic of Viet-Nam an independent country. He named the northern city of Hanoi its capital. The French attempt to re-conquer Vietnam met with defeat in the valley of Dien Bien Phu on 2 May 1954.

The July Geneva Agreements provided for a cease-fire and a provisional military demarcation line at the 17th parallel, pending nationwide elections for reunification in July 1956. France withdrew. Western efforts to divide the country permanently by creating a Vietnamese republic in Saigon, coupled with the US refusal to hold the promised elections, led to rebellion, massive US military intervention and the ensuing civil war. While the US and its allies supported the South as a means of preventing the spread of communism in southeast Asia, China and its allies backed the communist North.

US War Costs Mount

The US tripled its military presence in the country in 1961 and 1962, but failed to defeat the North, which regarded the US as a colonial aggressor akin to France.

The failure of US policy became apparent in February 1968 when 525,000 American soldiers were unable to stop the insurgents' Tet Offensive; it would take two more assaults, the third lasting six weeks, before US and South Vietnamese forces were able to stop the offensive and retake lost territory.

In January 1973 the Paris Peace Accords were signed, upholding the unity and territorial integrity of Vietnam. It also provided for the orderly withdrawal of US troops, the release of 200,000 civilian detainees and Prisoners of War, and the organization of free and democratic elections in South Vietnam. The refusal to implement these last conditions provoked an armed insurrection and on 30 April 1975 the capital of the South, Saigon, fell to Northern forces. The city was renamed Ho Chi Minh City. The US withdrew from Vietnam.

The cost of the war was staggering: 1.7 million dead, three million wounded and maimed, and 13 million refugees. The US dropped 7 million tons of bombs, 75 million litres of jungle-defoliating herbicide and lost 10,000 helicopters and warplanes. Some 56,000 US soldiers were killed and another 303,000 were wounded. The direct cost of the war was \$140 billion; indirect costs are estimated at \$900 billion.

Canada's Partisan Role

During the years 1954 to 1975 Canada served on two international truce commissions and provided medical supplies and technical assistance. Canadian diplomats were involved in negotiations between Washington and Hanoi and successive Canadian governments, both Liberal and Conservative, maintained that Ottawa was an impartial and objective peacekeeper, an innocent and helpful bystander negotiating for peace and administering aid to victims of the war. However, Cabinet papers, confidential stenographic minutes of the truce commissions as well as top-secret American government cables revealed Canada to be a willing ally of US counterinsurgency efforts.

Canada's record on the truce commissions was a partisan one, rooted in the presumption of Hanoi's guilt and Saigon's innocence and designed to discredit North Vietnam while exonerating

South Vietnam from its obligations to uphold the Geneva Agreements. Canadian delegates engaged in espionage for the US Central Intelligence Agency and aided the covert introduction of American arms and personnel into South Vietnam while they spotted for US bombers over North Vietnam.

Canadian commissioners shielded the US chemical defoliant program from public inquiry, parlayed American threats of expanded war to Hanoi, and penned the reports legitimating both the rupture of the Geneva Agreements and the US air war over North Vietnam. Ottawa would later assert that these actions were necessary to counterbalance the activities of the Eastern bloc countries with whom they shared membership on the truce commissions.

Canada Helps the South

Canadian aid during the war went only to South Vietnam. It totalled \$29 million from 1950–75 and was routed through the Colombo Plan and the Canadian Red Cross. Although humanitarian in appearance, Canadian assistance was an integral part of the Free World Assistance Program, co-ordinated by the US Department of State with the International Security Office of the Pentagon as the point of contact.

In the field, Canadian capital assistance was regulated by the US-RVN Health Defense Agreement and administered by the International Military Assistance Force Office in Saigon. On a number of occasions, Ottawa stopped the shipment of medical relief to civilian victims of the war in North Vietnam

War Boom in Canada

At home, 500 Canadian firms sold \$2.5 billion of war materiel (ammunition, napalm, aircraft engines and explosives) to the Pentagon. Another \$10 billion in food, beverages, berets and boots for the troops was exported to the US, as well as nickel, copper, lead, brass and oil for shell casings, wiring, plate armour and military transport.

In Canada unemployment fell to record low levels of 3.9 per cent, the gross domestic product rose by 6 per cent yearly, and capital expenditure expanded exponentially in manufacturing and mining as US firms invested more than \$3 billion in Canada to offset shrinking domestic capacity as a result of the war.

Agent Orange and Draft Dodgers

The herbicide "Agent Orange" was tested for use in Vietnam at Canadian Forces Base Gagetown, New Brunswick. US bomber pilots also practised carpet-bombing runs over Suffield, Alberta, and North Battleford, Saskatchewan, before their tours of duty in southeast Asia. And the results of the only successful peace initiative to Hanoi — by Canadian diplomat Chester Ronning — would be kept from public knowledge in order not to harm official US-Canadian relations.

Ten thousand young Canadian men fought in the US armed forces in the war. At the same time 20,000 American draft-dodgers and 12,000 army deserters found refuge in Canada from military service in Vietnam.

Refugees

The end of the war sparked a massive movement of refugees out of South Vietnam. Canada admitted more than 5,600 Vietnamese in 1975 and 1976, as well as more than 50,000 additional refugees from among a second wave of migrants known as the "boat people" — who fled the country via dangerous sea voyages to Hong Kong and elsewhere starting in 1979.