The United States and Castro's Cuba 1950s-1970s The Paterson Collection



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Publisher's Note

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About the Editor

Born in Oregon City, Oregon, and graduated from the University of New Hampshire (B.A., 1963) and the University of California, Berkeley (M.A., 1964; Ph.D., 1968), Thomas G. Paterson taught history at the University of Connecticut for thirty years before his retirement to emeritus status in 1997. He is the author of Soviet-American Confrontation: Postwar Reconstruction and the Origins of the Cold War (1973), Meeting the Communist Threat: Truman to Reagan (1988), On Every Front: The Making and Unmaking of the Cold War (1992), Contesting Castro: The United States and the Triumph of the Cuban Revolution (1994), American Foreign Relations: A History (with J. Garry Clifford and Kenneth J. Hagan, 1994), America Ascendant: U.S. Foreign Relations since 1939 (with J. Garry Clifford, 1995), and A People and a Nation: A History of the United States (with Mary Beth Norton et al., 1998).

Paterson also has edited books of original essays: Cold War Critics: Alternatives to American Foreign Policy in the Truman Years (1971), Kennedy's Quest for Victory: American Foreign Policy, 1961-1963 (1989), Explaining the History of American Foreign Relations (with Michael J. Hogan, 1991), and Encyclopedia of U.S. Foreign Relations (with Bruce Jentleson, 1997). His other edited work include Containment and the Cold War: American Foreign Policy since, 1945 (1973), American Imperialism and Anti-Imperialism (1973), The Origins of the Cold War (1991), Imperial Surge: The United States Abroad: The 1890s-Early 1900s (with Stephen G. Rabe, 1992), and Major Problems in American Foreign Relations (with Dennis Merrill, 1994).

Paterson's articles have appeared in the Journal of American History, American Historical Review, Diplomatic History, and The History Teacher, among many others, and he has served on the editorial boards of the Journal of American History and Diplomatic History. He is also series editor for Houghton Mifflin's Major Problems in American History.

He has been president of the Society for Historians of American Foreign Relations, directed National Endowment for the Humanities Summer Seminars for College Teachers, and served as a consultant on documentary films on such subjects as the Cold War, Cuban Missile Crisis, Marshall Plan, and U.S.-Cuba relations. He has won several research awards, including fellowships from the Guggenheim Foundation, the National Endowment for the Humanities, and the Institute for the Study of World Politics. His television and radio appearances have included ABC "News Nightline" and "Monitor Radio."

A frequent speaker in the United States, Paterson also has lectured or conducted research in Canada, China, Colombia, Cuba (1985 and 1994), Great Britain, New Zealand, Puerto Rico, Russia, and Venezuela. His scholarly work has been translated into Spanish, Italian, Danish, Chinese, and Japanese.

Introduction

The Cuban Rebellion against the Batista Regime: The 1950s

Fidel Castro began to claim major attention in Cuba and the United States on July 26, 1952, when he led an unsuccessful attack against the Cuban Army's Moncada Barracks. Released from prison under a general amnesty in mid-1955, Castro and other dissidents organized the 26th of July Movement (M-26-7) and went into exile in Mexico, vowing to overthrow the unpopular dictatorship of Fulgencio Batista. After seizing power in a March 1952 coup, Batista developed friendly relations with the United States, which supplied his regime with military arms and advisers and helped train his feared secret police.

During the 1950s, as Batista jailed and killed his critics and corrupted institutions to amass considerable personal wealth, U.S. companies invested in the island, especially in hotels, electric and telephone businesses, and consumer goods. Such investments grew to some one billion dollars. U.S. government decisions on the amount ("quota") of Cuban sugar that could enter the United States diminished Cuba's economic independence. U.S. cultural influences could be measured in the popularity of baseball and the use of English. North American tourists flocked to the Caribbean isle, whose beautiful beaches became legendary, along with unsavory mobsters such as Meyer Lansky, who ran ostentatious hotel casinos and seedy brothels.

These symbols of the debasement of the Cuban identity and of Cuba's dependency on its giant North American neighbor nurtured a fervent nationalism, which had actually been building since 1898, when the United States replaced Spain as the hegemonic power in Cuba, and

since 1903, when the Platt Amendment gave the United States the right to intervene in Cuban affairs. Strong anti-Batista and anti-U.S. opinion undergirded the Cuban rebellion that Castro led after he landed by yacht on the eastern shore of the island in December 1956 with rebel compatriots from Mexico. While in exile, Castro had visited the United States to raise money and to found 26th of July Movement clubs, which the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) began to monitor.

From the yacht Granma's expedition until early January 1959, when Batista fled the island and the guerrilla warrior's came out of the mountains to claim victory, officials of the Dwight D. Eisenhower Administration struggled to define a winning strategy to defend the sizable U.S. interests on the island, including the U.S. naval base at Guantánamo Bay. The rebels seized and burned North American-owned properties, propagandized their cause in the U.S. press (especially after New York Times journalist Herbert Matthews began in February 1957 to publicize the insurgency), kidnapped U.S. civilians and military personnel (July 1958), hijacked aircraft, issued critical anti-Yankee declarations while clandestinely meeting with and receiving aid from U.S. officials, and relentlessly hurled defeat at Batista's U.S.-armed but demoralized army. During the rebellion, moreover, the urban underground assassinated Batista officials and detonated bombs.

U.S. State Department officers William A. Wieland, Roy R. Rubottom, Jr., Christian A. Herter, John Foster Dulles, and others often found themselves stymied by Batista's repressive policies, a shortage of alternative leaders to both Batista and Castro, and the 26th of July Movement's successful military campaign in the Sierra Maestra Mountains of Oriente Province. Utilizing the pro-

Batista Ambassadors Arthur Gardner and Earl E. T. Smith (both political appointees) and officials in the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), FBI, U.S. Information Service (USIS), and military missions, the United States backed Batista against the rebellion. The United States extended Export-Import Bank loans, bedecked his generals with medals, prosecuted the anti-Batista exile and former President of Cuba Carlos Prío Socarrás, and intercepted rebel arms cargoes.

The Eisenhower Administration also tried to persuade Batista to reform. One method to press him was to stop arms shipments in March 1958. To no avail. Batista found other weapons sources, and he continued to suspend constitutional guarantees and to silence his critics. U.S. hopes for the failure of the rebellion rose in April, when a M-26-7-backed general strike fizzled. But, in November 1958, Batista further undercut his legitimacy by conducting a fraudulent election that frustrated U.S. officials and convinced them that Batista should be asked to leave in order to prevent a Castro triumph. Throughout the turmoil, Ambassador Smith, echoing Batista's assertions, claimed that Castro and the insurgents had Communist links. In the Cold War atmosphere of the times, U.S. officials studiously investigated such accusations but never established a case for Communist ties.

In December, unable to reform the illegitimate regime or to ease out the rapidly faltering and self-destructive Batista, and adamantly opposed to Fidel Castro, the U.S. government activated the CIA and the Eisenhower-emissary William D. Pawley to launch several "third force" conspiracies to block Castro's ascension to power. When these plots failed, yet the young rebel leader heard about them, U.S.-Cuba relations at the start of the Castro era soured.

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The Eisenhower Administration's Opposition to the Cuban Revolution, 1959-1961

In early 1959, U.S. officials watched warily as Fidel Castro became Cuba's preeminent, immensely popular leader and began to outline the elements of the Cuban Revolution. The Eisenhower Administration grew alarmed by the execution of batistianos after showy trials, by Castro's blistering anti-U.S. diatribes, by the postponement of elections, by Cuban calls for revolution throughout Latin America, and by hints that Cuba might follow a neutralist course in the Cold War. U.S. leaders hoped that so-called moderates would emerge to challenge the fidelistas, to temper the revolutionary zeal. The new U.S. ambassador to Havana, Philip W. Bonsal, a Spanish-speaking career Foreign Service Officer with considerable experience in Latin American affairs, presented his credentials on March 2. Two days later the Cuban government intervened the Cuban Telephone Company, a U.S.owned firm.

Throughout 1959 relations between Havana and Washington grew more acrimonious as Cuba deliberately challenged U.S. hegemony and the United States just as deliberately sought to guarantee the large U.S. presence on the island. One sign of trouble was that Castro seldom met with Bonsal. When Castro visited the United States in April 1959 under the auspices of the American Society of Newspaper Editors, President Eisenhower would not meet with him. But other U.S. leaders did, thinking that Cuba's dire economic straits would compel Castro to ask for U.S. foreign aid. He resolutely refused to ask. In May a new agrarian reform law further undercut North American economic interests through its program to expropriate land. In June, the Cuban government seized three U.S.-owned cattle

ranches in Camagüey Province, the first of many seizures. U.S. government officials and business executives demanded adequate compensation. U.S. officials, thinking that Cuba was so economically dependent on the United States that it would have to moderate its revolutionary course, described Castro as mentally unbalanced when he did not. In October, Cuba imposed higher taxes on the U.S.-government-owned Nicaro nickel plant, which the United States decided to sell.

In November the Eisenhower government began to work with anti-Castro groups within Cuba to oust Castro, because, as Assistant Secretary of State Rubottom told Ambassador Bonsal, the United States could not "do business" with his regime. Throughout fall 1959 the Cuban government charged U.S. complicity in permitting counterrevolutionaries to attack Cuba, including an October 21 plane incident over Havana.

In January 1960, the United States protested that Cuba was seizing U.S. properties without due process. On March 4 the French freighter La Coubre, loaded with munitions, exploded in Havana harbor. Castro angrily blamed the United States. That month, Eisenhower ordered the CIA to train Cuban exiles for an invasion of their homeland. This decision came shortly after a visit to Cuba by Soviet Deputy Premier Anastas Mikoyan and the signing of a Soviet-Cuba trade treaty. The CIA hatched assassination plots against Castro and staged hit-and-run sabotage attacks along the Cuban coast. Discussion mounted in the United States about gaining leverage over Castro by reducing Cuba's sugar quota. U.S. diplomats and politicians speculated that communism was gaining ground in Cuba.

A major crisis erupted in mid-1960 after U.S.-petroleum companies operating on the island refused to process Soviet crude oil. On June 29 and July 1, Cuba seized Texaco and Esso properties; on July 3 the U.S. Congress authorized the president to reduce the import quota on Cuban sugar; three days later Cuba passed a law permitting the nationalization of all U.S.-owned property; that same day, July 6, Eisenhower drastically cut Cuba's sugar quota. Cuban leaders claimed that the Soviet Union would defend the island against U.S. aggression.

Washington issued reports blaming the deterioration of relations on the Cubans and rallied support for its anti-Castro stance in the Organization of American States (OAS) at its San José, Costa Rica, meeting of late August. On October 19, Washington banned exports to Cuba. In the fall presidential campaign, Democratic candidate John F. Kennedy charged that Vice President Richard M. Nixon, running as the Republican candidate, had let Cuba go Communist. On December 16, Eisenhower set the quota for Cuban sugar at zero.

On January 3, 1961, before President-elect John F. Kennedy took office, the Eisenhower Administration broke diplomatic relations with Cuba after Castro demanded a reduction in the size of the U.S. Embassy staff because, he charged, the embassy harbored spies who collaborated with counterrevolutionaries. The administration also announced that travel to Cuba by U.S. citizens required special U.S.-government permission.

Throughout these early years of the Cuban Revolution, a large Cuban emigration to the United States spurred creation of a U.S. Cuban relief program. Many of the new arrivals took up residence in southern Florida to form a vocal anti-Castro political lobby made up of dozens of exile groups.

The Kennedy Administration, Bay of Pigs Invasion, and Cuban Missile Crisis, 1961-1963

John F. Kennedy advanced the Eisenhower effort to isolate and overthrow Fidel Castro and his revolutionary government. In March, Kennedy set the Cuban sugar quota at zero for 1961. He helped organize a government-in-exile under the leadership of José Miró Cardona. The new president also authorized an attack against Cuba by the CIA-trained exiles, all the while insisting that the U.S. hand be concealed.

The operation began April 15 with air attacks; then, on April 17, came an invasion by some 1,400 commandos at the Bay of Pigs. The invaders met resistance from Castro's militia and aircraft, equipment failed, and no sympathetic insurrection occurred, despite CIA predictions to the contrary. More than 1,100 brigade commandos were captured and imprisoned. Kennedy appointed General Maxwell Taylor to conduct a study to find out what went wrong. After Castro said in May that he would exchange the Bay of Pigs prisoners for tractors, a Tractors-for-Freedom Committee formed to raise money for a trade. The administration supported the controversial venture but the two sides could not agree, and the prisoners languished in Cuban prisons until late December 1962.

After the Bay of Pigs setback, Kennedy launched a multi-pronged campaign to bring down Castro and his government. The CIA designed new assassination plots, some using mobsters. Under Operation Mongoose, initiated in November 1961, CIA agents covertly cooperated with anti-Castro groups to raid and destroy oil facilities and other targets on the island. Under the leadership of Attorney General Robert F. Kennedy and Brigadier General Edward

Lansdale, director of Operation Mongoose, U.S. agencies drafted contingency plans for military action against Cuba. The U.S. Army began to create an all-Cuban unit, whose members expected to invade the island. Anticipating another invasion, Cuba ordered more Soviet weapons. In December Castro declared himself a "Marxist-Leninist."

In January 1962, the United States engineered the eviction of Cuba from the Organization of American States. In February, the administration tightened the economic blockade against Cuba by banning imports of most Cuban products; in essence, a total embargo on trade with Cuba went into place. Washington also began to press its allies, especially those in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, to halt their trading with Cuba. In the spring, U.S. military maneuvers in the Caribbean heightened tensions.

Unbeknownest to U.S. officials, Cuban and Soviet leaders, citing defense, signed an agreement in Moscow in July 1962 to place on the island nuclear-tipped Soviet missiles that could strike the United States. As Soviet weapons of various kinds flowed to Cuba and partisan Republicans hammered the administration for tolerating the military build-up in Cuba, President Kennedy warned on September 4 that if offensive ground-to-ground missiles were ever introduced into Cuba, a grave crisis would follow. Cuba and the Soviet Union publicly rebutted that they had a right to defend the island and the Cuban Revolution against repeated U.S. assaults.

On October 14, a U-2 aircraft operated by the CIA took photographs which revealed medium-range missile sites in Cuba. On October 16, after seeing the spy plane's photographs and learning from the CIA that the missiles could reach as far as Dallas and Washington, D.C., and that 95 million Americans were within this zone, President

Kennedy assembled a special advisory committee, the Executive Committee (ExComm), a mix of current highlevel officials such as Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara, Secretary of State Dean Rusk, and Chairman of the Joints Chiefs of Staff Maxwell Taylor, and former policymakers such as Dean Acheson. These advisers did not know that Kennedy was taping their discussions.

For several days, ExComm secretly debated how to satisfy the president's insistence on the removal of the missiles. The committee considered several options: air strikes, invasion, blockade, diplomatic negotiations, a swap for U.S. Jupiter missiles in Turkey, and a combination of these alternatives. On October 18, President Kennedy met with Soviet Minister Andrei Gromyko in the White House, but chose not to tell him about the U.S. discovery of the missiles. During the next few days, Kennedy decided not to begin negotiations with either Cuba or the Soviet Union, fearing that the Soviets would drag them out; he decided that air strikes would not be completely effective, possibly leaving some missiles in place to be fired at the United States; and he decided against a military invasion because of the expected high casualty rate and possible Soviet retaliatory action. In the end, Kennedy endorsed an option that gained favor every day in ExComm discussions: a naval blockade or "quarantine" to stop further Soviet military shipments and to force Khrushchev to retreat in the face of superior U.S. power in the region.

On October 22, Kennedy announced in a special radio and television address that the United States was placing a quarantine around Cuba to force out the "offensive" missiles. U.S. vessels began to patrol the Caribbean and troops were readied in the southern United States for a possible assault should the Soviets not back down. Fidel Castro

and Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev blasted the quarantine as a violation of international law and declared the missiles "defensive." Khrushchev sent letters to Kennedy on October 23 and 24; Kennedy answered on the 25th that he was holding the Soviets responsible for the crisis. Late on October 26, Khrushchev wrote privately to Kennedy proposing to remove the missiles if the United States pledged not to invade Cuba. That evening, Kennedy sent his brother Robert to meet with Soviet Ambassador Anatoly Dobrynin to try to resolve the crisis.

On October 27, Khrushchev asked for more: a swap of the American missiles in Turkey for the Soviet missiles in Cuba. That day, the crisis escalated: a U-2 plane was shot down over Cuba and an Alaska-based U.S. spy plane strayed into Soviet territory, almost starting a dogfight with Soviet jets. Kennedy decided to strike a deal. In another meeting with Dobrynin, on the 27th, Robert Kennedy urged swift Soviet action to withdraw the missiles or face U.S. military action and promised that the Jupiter missiles would be withdrawn from Turkey, although no public announcement of the deal over the missiles in Turkey would be made. The United States would also pledge not to invade Cuba. On October 28, Khrushchev accepted these terms. (During the crisis, some U.S. officials, such as W. Averell Harriman, advised a broader settlement that would include the denuclearization of Latin America and Soviet and American promises not to place nuclear weapons in any nation other than in nuclear powers.)

The missiles departed Cuba against Cuban wishes, which were strongly stated to anyone who would listen, including the Secretary General of the United Nations, U Thant, who visited Cuba October 30-31. The Cuban government rejected proposals for an international system of

inspection to verify removal of the missiles. On November 2, to placate angry Cubans who resented the fact that the Soviets had not consulted them during the crisis, Mikoyan arrived in Cuba for discussions. On November 19, after negotiations with U.S. officials, the Soviets finally agreed to pull out the IL-28 bombers they had also placed in Cuba. On November 20, Kennedy told a press conference that he was lifting the quarantine. He also issued a hedged no-invasion pledge and declared that the United States would not end its policies designed to isolate Cuba. On December 29, in Miami's Orange Bowl, Kennedy met the recently released Bay of Pigs prisoners at a rally in which the president promised that the brigade's banner would fly over a free Havana. The prisoners had been released from Cuban jails on December 23-24 under an agreement arranged by James B. Donovan, a lawyer for the Cuban Families Committee. The agreement provided for their release in exchange for shipments of food and medicine to Cuba.

U.S. covert operations directed against Cuba continued in early 1963 with new hit-and-run raids, sabotage, and assassination schemes. Several violent incidents occurred in the waters between Cuba and the United States, and in Cuban ports, where Soviet ships were often the targets. The Kennedy Administration began to reconsider its sabotage program, uncertain about the effectiveness of the attacks by exile groups, many of them managed by the CIA. In early April, Kennedy ordered restrictions on unauthorized exile activities. On April 24, Lisa Howard of ABC television interviewed Fidel Castro, who said in the broadcast that U.S. actions had forced Cuba to rely on the Soviet Union as an ally but that better relations with the United States might be possible.

On April 27, 1963, Castro departed on a trip to the Soviet Union—a journey U.S. officials watched very closely. Before Castro returned to Cuba on June 3, he had repaired some of the damage done to Cuban-Soviet relations by the missile crisis; for one, the two countries signed a new trade pact. Castro's blistering verbal attacks on the United States when he was in the Soviet Union angered U.S. officials, who soon approved a new sabotage campaign.

In June of 1963, a group of U.S. students traveled to Cuba via Czechoslovakia in defiance of the U.S. travel ban. Their passports were seized when they returned to the United States. In July, the United States further tightened the economic embargo under the 1917 Trading with the Enemy Act and continued to press allies to isolate Cuba economically. In the fall, William Attwood of the U.S. delegation to the United Nations made contact with Cuban diplomats who seemed interested in reducing Cuba-U.S. tensions. President Kennedy gave Attwood permission to explore the possibility of talks. In early October, Hurricane Flora tore across the eastern part of the island, inflicting heavy damage and further hampering Cuba's economic development. The question of disaster relief was debated in the United States, and some private supplies were sent to the island On November 22, John F. Kennedy died from assassination, sparking speculation that, among other possible suspects, either Cuban-government agents or anti-Castro Cuban exiles had murdered the president.

The Johnson Administration and Cuba, 1963-1969

In his first week in office, the new president, Lyndon B. Johnson, learned that an arms cache had been discovered in Venezuela, which charged that Cuba had stored the

weapons to overthrow the Venezuelan government. Once again the issue of Cuban subversion in Latin America flared up. After U.S. officials briefed the president on Cuban affairs, Johnson decided to suspend Attwood's contact with the Cubans at the United Nations. Increasingly, Johnson's attention and U.S. resources shifted to Southeast Asia, where the Vietnam War would become an Americanized war.

But Cuba-U.S. relations continued to spawn crises. In January of 1964, the United States protested a British sale of buses to Cuba. The following month, on February 2, U.S. ships seized four Cuban fishing vessels that the United States claimed were within U.S. waters. Thirty-eight Cubans were arrested. Four days later, Cuba stopped the flow of water into the U.S. naval base at Guantánamo. The United States retaliated by firing Cuban citizens who worked at the base, offering refuge to those people who decided to stay at the facility. A war of words ensued between Havana and Washington. Late in the month, after the conviction of the fishing boat captains and payment of fines by the Cuban government, the fishermen were released. Most returned to the island. The U.S. Navy devised alternative water supplies for the base.

In March 1964, the chair of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, J. William Fulbright, judged the economic embargo a failure and urged acceptance of the Havana regime, no matter how distasteful. Rejecting such advice, the Johnson Administration, in May, announced that the sale of food and medicine to Cuba required an export license. Throughout the year, saboteurs hit the island. On July 26, the OAS voted to ban all trade and diplomatic relations with Cuba. Mexico once again opposed the United States, but much of Latin America endorsed the isolation

policy. After intense U.S. lobbying, Japan and Western Europe also trimmed their trade with Cuba.

The years 1965-1969 saw little change in U.S.-Cuba relations, with the United States determined to eliminate the Castro government so that it could not become a model for Latin America and Cuba determined to defend its sovereignty. The economic embargo and travel restrictions remained in place. Diplomatic relations remained broken. Cubans continued to emigrate to the United States. Raids still punished the Cuban infrastructure. U.S. suspicions of Cuban subversion in the hemisphere flourished, as did worries that Cuba was forming bonds with Third World critics of the United States, including North Vietnam. In April 1965, U.S. troops invaded the Dominican Republic to undermine what U.S. officials claimed was a radical movement that might result in "another Cuba." In late September, Fidel Castro announced that Cubans who wanted to leave Cuba could do so at a designated port. The following month, thousands of Cubans left by boat for the United States. On November 6, Cuba and the United States signed an agreement to airlift other emigrating Cubans to the United States.

In 1965 Ernesto "Che" Guevara spent several months in Africa, and the following year he went to Bolivia to help organize a rebellion. Speculations abounded about his whereabouts and intentions and about Cuban plots to spread communism. The July 1967 meeting of the Organization of Latin American Solidarity, held in Havana, intensified such concerns. In Bolivia, Guevara's October 1967 capture, with the CIA's assistance, and his death captured headlines. But, as the Vietnam War escalated, Cuban issues tended to recede from sustained public attention.

Limited Accommodation and Renewed Hostility: The 1970s

The new Nixon Administration engaged in a Cuban crisis in fall 1970, when photographs from a U-2 overflight of the island suggested that the Soviets were building a submarine base at Cienfuegos. Washington chastised Havana and Moscow, which denied any such undertaking. The crisis passed quickly. In the 1970s, especially as the United States began to withdraw from Vietnam, U.S. policies toward Cuba came under increased public scrutiny and criticism. Castro still remained in power, his internal opponents having been largely quieted. Soviet aid helped the Cubans survive the U.S. policy of isolation. Latin American and Western European governments edged toward easing relations with Cuba, as when Chile restored relations with Cuba in 1970, followed by Barbados, Jamaica, and others in 1972. In May 1973, Argentina restored relations with Cuba.

In a time of détente with the Soviet Union, President Richard M. Nixon and National Security Affairs Adviser and Secretary of State Henry Kissinger entertained a change in Cuba policy. In February 1973, Cuba and the United States signed an antihijacking treaty to discourage terrorism in the airways. During 1974-1975, U.S. officials met secretly with Cuban diplomats to explore ways to improve relations, but this initiative came to naught when Cuban soldiers helped radicals come to power in Angola. In early 1975, Senator Edward Kennedy of Massachusetts introduced a bill to lift the embargo to Cuba. Like so many others over the years, this bill failed to pass. In summer of that year, the investigating committee headed by Senator Frank Church of Idaho heard former CIA officials testify that they had worked with crime syndicate leaders to assassinate Castro in the 1960s. The United States, in July 1975, voted

with the majority in the OAS to end economic and diplomatic sanctions against Cuba.

In March 1977, Carter Administration officials began to discuss with Cuban counterparts the possibility of normalizing relations. The following month, Senators George McGovern and James Abourezk of South Dakota traveled to Cuba. As with other U.S. politicians who would visit the island thereafter, they met with senior Cuban officials. Also in April, to clarify fishing rights in the waters between Cuba and the United States, the two nations signed an agreement. Senator Church traveled to Cuba and met with Fidel Castro in August. In September, the United States and Cuba opened limited diplomatic relations by establishing "interests sections" in each other's capitals to handle consular matters such as immigration. President Jimmy Carter also lifted the ban on travel to Cuba.

This period of accommodation did not last long. Charges were soon hurled at Cuba that Castro was aiding the leftist Sandinistas in Nicaragua and backing an insurgency in El Salvador. Secret, high-level talks in 1979-1980 failed to advance steps toward normalization of relations. The 1970s ended and the 1980s began with new crises over Soviet military forces in Cuba and emigration.

The election of the extremely anti-Communist Ronald Reagan as president in 1980 led to the reestablishment of the hardline policy of isolation. Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, except for a few relaxed moments, U.S. economic and travel restrictions tightened and Cuban resistance stiffened. Even after the Cold War ended in the late 1980s and the Soviet Union collapsed in the early 1990s, Cuba remained a hotly debated political issue in the United States and a contentious point between the United States and its allies, who protested U.S. trade sanctions. Cubans

continued to emigrate to the United States, where many supported anti-Castro groups, including the most prominent, the Cuban-American National Foundation. As the twenty-first century neared and Fidel Castro still ruled the island, Cuba-U.S. relations seemed stuck in the past.

T.G.P.

Scope and Content

Professor Thomas G. Paterson collected these documents during his more than twenty-five years of research and writing on U.S.-Cuba relations in the Cold War period, including his 1994 book, Contesting Castro: The United States and the Triumph of the Cuban Revolution. From archives and libraries throughout the United States and from abroad, these declassified records, primarily in English, provide a year-by-year, month-by-month, and sometimes day-by-day account of the diplomatic, economic, military, and cultural relationship between two nations of unequal power in the era of Fidel Castro.

The collection includes extensive official records (memoranda, letters, telegrams, diary entries, intelligence and military reports, transcripts and minutes of meetings, speeches, and other policymaker-generated materials) from presidential libraries and government archives. Especially useful in following events are the weekly reports from the U.S. Embassy in Havana, Cuba, to the U.S. Department of State (these documents are located at the beginning of the collection).*

The domestic politics surrounding the controversial U.S.-Cuba relationship are detailed in the papers of U.S. politicians, especially senators, and of interest groups and publicists in labor unions, the business community, pro-Castro organizations, and anti-Castro exile committees. The

^{*}Some of the U.S. documents in the Paterson collection have been published in the Department of State's Foreign Relations of the United States (FRUS) series, but the great majority have not been published because this series prints only a small percentage of the government's archival holdings. The Havana Embassy's weekly reports, for example, have not been published in FRUS. Because the FRUS volumes contain some documents not in the Paterson Collection, use of both should give researchers substantial documentation.

media's handling of U.S.-Cuba relations is covered through journalists' personal papers and reports. In this collection, moreover, public opinion is registered in constituent mail received by politicians and the White House, and in data collected by pollsters. The place of U.S. business in the Cuban economy, nationalization of U.S. company properties, and subsequent claims for compensation are found in documents prepared by corporations and U.S. government agencies.

Paterson filed numerous Freedom of Information Act requests to gain the declassification of documents held by the Central Intelligence Agency, Federal Bureau of Investigation, Department of State, and other U.S. government agencies. Also, using the Mandatory Review process at U.S. presidential libraries, he obtained the declassification of other high-level documents. These records are found throughout the collection.

Also included in the Paterson Collection are some oral history interviews of participants in the events of the 1950s-1970s, and Paterson's records from interviews with various people in the U.S.-Cuba story and Paterson's handwritten notes of documents from some archives.

Among other types of records in this collection are chronologies, biographical sketches of key leaders, trade and export control statistics, *The Cuban Report* published by the Cuban Student Directorate (an anti-Castro exile group), and accounts of trips to Cuba by government officials, politicians, journalists, and others.

Documents and notes in the Paterson Collection from records in the archives of Cuba, Great Britain, and Canada and in the archives of the United Nations Organization provide international perspectives. Particularly noteworthy for comparative purposes are the

annual reports for the late 1950s and early 1960s by the British and Canadian ambassadors to Havana and the U.N. Secretary General's accounts of his meetings with Fidel Castro and others during the Cuban missile crisis.

Among the papers and records at U.S. government archives and presidential libraries represented in the collection are:

Central Intelligence Agency Records, Washington, DC Dwight D. Eisenhower Library, Abilene, KS

Robert Cutler Papers

Joseph M. Dodge Papers

John Foster Dulles Papers

Dwight D. Eisenhower Papers

Post-Presidential Papers

White House Central File

White House Office Records

Ann Whitman File

Milton S. Eisenhower Papers

Gordon Gray Papers

James C. Hagerty Papers

Christian A. Herter Papers

C. D. Jackson Papers

Robert E. Merriam Records

Gerald D. Morgan Records

Oral Histories

Don Paarlberg Papers

Federal Archives and Records Center, Laguna Niguel, CA Richard M. Nixon Papers, Pre-Presidential Papers

Federal Bureau of Investigation Records, Washington, DC

Jules Dubois File

Errol Flynn File

Samuel Giancana File

Internal Security, Cuba File

William D. Pawley File

Gerald R. Ford Library, Ann Arbor, MI

Gerald R. Ford Papers

Vice Presidential File

White House Central File

White House Staff File

Ron Nessen Papers

Herbert Hoover Presidential Library, West Branch, IA

Bourke Hickenlooper Papers

Herbert Hoover Papers

Lyndon B. Johnson Library, Austin, TX

Administrative History of the Department of State

George Ball Papers

Lyndon B. Johnson Papers

National Security File

John F. Kennedy Library, Boston, MA

Robert H. Estabrook Papers

John F. Kennedy Papers

National Security File

Pre-Presidential Papers, Senate Files

Presidential Recordings

President's Office File

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Robert F. Kennedy Papers

* Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr., Papers

Theodore Sorensen Papers

Library of Congress, Washington, DC

W. Averell Harriman Papers

Eric Sevareid Papers

Lawrence E. Spivak Papers

National Archives of the United States, Washington, DC Department of the Army, Army Staff, Assistant

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Record Group 349

National Defense University, Washington, DC Maxwell D. Taylor Papers

National War College, Washington, DC Research Papers

Naval Historical Center, Washington Navy Yard,

Washington, DC

Chief of Naval Operations/Admiral Burke Files "Historical Record of the U.S. Naval Mission to Cuba"

Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, Hyde Park, NY Adolf A. Berle Papers

Eleanor Roosevelt Papers

Harry S. Thuman Library, Independence, MO

Merwin L. Bohan Papers

Harry S. Truman Papers

Post-Presidential Papers

Among the papers and records at foreign archives represented in the collection are:

National Archives of Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada Department of External Affairs Records, Record Group 25

> Department of Industry, Trade and Commerce Records, Record Group 20

Department of National Defence, Record Group 24
National Archives of Cuba, Havana, Cuba
Public Record Office, London, Great Britain
Foreign Office Correspondence (FO 371)

United Nations Archives, New York, NY

Among other papers and records represented in the collection are:

Bella Abzug Papers, Columbia University Library, New York, NY

Dean Acheson Papers, Yale University Library, New Haven, CT

George Aiken Papers, University of Vermont Library, Burlington, VT

American Society of Travel Agents Archives, Washington, DC

Americans for Democratic Action Papers, State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison, WI

Howard H. Baker Papers, University of Tennessee Library, Knoxville, TN

Hanson Baldwin Papers, Yale University Library, New Haven, CT

Bangor Punta Corporation Files, Greenwich, CT

Bank of America Archives, San Francisco, CA

Alan Bible Papers, University of Nevada at Reno Library, Reno, NV

William D. Bishop Papers (sent to Paterson by Bishop)

Chester Bowles Papers, Yale University Library, New Haven, CT

Spruille Braden Papers, Columbia University Library, New York, NY

Braga Brothers Collection, University of Florida Library, Gainesville, FL

Raul Chibás Collection, Hoover Institution Archives, Stanford, CA

Frank Church Papers, Boise State University Library, Boise, ID

Citizens Committee for a Free Cuba, Inc., Papers, Hoover Institution Archives, Stanford, CA

John Sherman Cooper Papers, University of Kentucky Library, Lexington, KY

Norris Cotton Papers, University of New Hampshire Library, Durham, NH

Council on Foreign Relations Archives, New York, NY

Cuban Collection, Andrew St. George Papers, Yale University Library, New Haven, CT

Thomas B. Curtis Files (sent to Paterson by Curtis)

James B. Donovan Papers, Hoover Institution Archives, Stanford, CA

Theodore Draper Papers, Hoover Institution Archives, Stanford, CA

John Foster Dulles Papers, Princeton University Library, Princeton, NJ

Allen J. Ellender Papers, Nicholls State University Library, Thibodaux, LA

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Foreign Affairs Oral History Program, Lauinger Library, Georgetown University, Washington, DC

- J. William Fulbright Papers, University of Arkansas Library, Fayetteville, AK
- Clarence M. Hansen Papers (sent to Paterson by Hansen)
- Robert C. Hill Papers, Hoover Institution Archives, Stanford, CA
- Jacob K. Javits Papers, State University of New York, Stony Brook, Library, Stony Brook, NY
- Benjamin E. Jordan Papers (sent to Paterson by Jordan)
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 - Marvin Liebman Associates Papers, Hoover Institution Archives, Stanford, CA
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 - Walter Lippmann Papers, Yale University Library, New Haven, CT
 - Herbert L. Matthews Papers, Columbia University Library, New York, NY
- John J. McCloy Papers, Robert Frost Library, Amherst College, Amherst, MA
- Lee Metcalf Papers, Montana Historical Society,
 Helena, MT
- Wayne L. Morse Papers, University of Oregon Library, Eugene, OR
- Karl E. Mundt Papers, Dakota State College, Madison, SD
- National Security Archive, Washington, DC Gaylord Nelson Papers. State Historical Society
- Gaylord Nelson Papers, State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison, WI
- Pan American World Airways, Inc., Records, New York, NY

- William D. Pawley Papers, George C. Marshall Research Library, Lexington, VA
- Charles O. Porter Papers, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR
- E. Barrett Prettyman, Jr. Papers (provided to Paterson by Prettyman)
- Winston L. Prouty Papers, University of Vermont Library, Burlington, VT
- Walter P. Reuther Collection, Archives of Labor and Urban Affairs, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI
- Rockefeller Foundation Archives, Rockefeller Archive Center, North Tarrytown, NY
- Roper Center, University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT
- Richard Rovere Papers, State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison, WI
- Richard B. Russell Papers, University of Georgia Library, Athens, GA
- William W. Scranton Papers, Pennsylvania State University Library, University Park, PA
- Sears Roebuck Company Files, Chicago, IL
- Sherwin Williams Company Archives, Cleveland, OH
- George A. Smathers Papers, University of Florida Library, Gainesville, FL
- Adlai E. Stevenson Papers, Princeton University Library, Princeton, NJ
- United Automobile Workers Papers, Archives of Labor and Urban Affairs, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI
- United States Beet Sugar Association Records,
 Washington, DC
- United States Naval Institute, Interviews, Annapolis, MD
- Tracy S. Voorhees Papers, Rutgers University Library, New Brunswick, NJ

- Arthur I. Waskow Papers, State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison, WI
- Alexander Wiley Papers, State Historical Society of Wisconsin, Madison, WI
- Milton R. Young Papers, University of North Dakota Library, Grand Forks, ND

Organization and Source Citations

The documents in this collection are largely arranged in chronological order. Folders are titled by month and year, and within folders the documents are sorted by day. Some topical folders are included throughout this chronological organization and their titles indicate contents. Several topical folders begin the collection because their contents cover broad periods or subjects that do not fit easily into a year-by-year structure. Documents that bear no precise date but whose text suggests a date are located at the end of appropriate folders.

Each document is labeled with a citation, often by hand and in abbreviated form, to indicate its original source or location in an archive or library.

Among the abbreviations and acronyms in the citations for sources of documents are:

ACSI Assistant Chief of Staff for Intelligence (U.S. Army) ADA Americans for Democratic Action ASTA American Society of Travel Agents AWF Ann Whitman File Boise State University Library BSUL BYU Brigham Young University CIA Gentral Intelligence Agency (U.S.) DDE Dwight D. Eisenhower DDEL Dwight D. Eisenhower Papers DS Department of State (U.S.) DSBDepartment of State Bulletin DSR Department of State Records (U.S.) DEPT Department or Dept Federal Bureau of Investigation (U.S.) FBI

FBIS Foreign Broadcast Information Service (U.S.) Franklin D. Roosevelt Library FDRL FO Foreign Office FOIA Freedom of Information Act (documents declassified) FS Foreign Service Despatch (U.S.) Desp. ISL Indiana State Library JFK John F. Kennedy 1 JFKL John F. Kennedy Library L Library LBJ Lyndon B. Johnson LBJL Lyndon B. Johnson Library LC Library of Congress LIB Library or Lib Montana Historical Society MHS NA National Archives NDU National Defense University (U.S.) NSC National Security Council (U.S.) NSF National Security File OH Oral History OSANSA Office of Special Assistant for National Security Affairs POF President's Office File PP Papers Public Public Papers of the Presidents Papers PRO Public Record Office RG Record Group RFK Robert F. Kennedy SHSW State Historical Society of Wisconsin SUNY State University of New York

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U University

UAW United Automobile Workers

UN United Nations

UND University of North Dakota

UNH University of New Hampshire

UOL University of Oregon

USBSAUnited States Beet Sugar Association

UT United Technologies Corporation

Vol Volume

VP Vice President or Vice Presidential

WHO White House Office

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	0748	"U.S. Trade with Cuba, 1960-1963" U.S.
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	0761	Efforts to Restrict Trade Between American
		Allies and Cuba, 1962-1965
	0861	John Crimmins Oral History (on the 1960s)
	0951	Office of Coordinator of Cuban Affairs in
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	0957	Malcolm Moos Interview with Dwight D.
	0974	Eisenhower, Nov 8, 1966 (on Cuba) CIA "Plots to Assassinate Fidel Castro"
		(Report of 1967)
	1118	CBS Reports: "The CIA's Secret Army"
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	1156	Cuban Military Status: Data from Institute
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	0936	CIA, "Castro's Subversive Capabilities," Nov 9, 1962
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	0200	Export Control Reports, 1966		
	0217	U.SCuba, 1967 (misc.)		
	0364	Export Control Reports, 1967		
	0376	Cuban Subversion in Venezuela and the		
		OAS, 1967		
	0400	U.SCuba, 1968 (misc.)		
	0522	Export Control Reports, 1968		
	0536	Export Control Reports, 1969		
	0556	U.ŜCuba, 1969 (misc.)		
	0607	U.SCuba, 1970 (misc.)		
	0690	Export Control Reports, 1970		
	0706	U.ŜCuba, 1971 (misc.)		
	0811	Export Control Reports, 1971		
	» 0829			
	0940	Congressional Conference on U.SCuba		
		Relations, Senate Building,		
79		Washington, DC, Apr 1972		
	1026	Export Control Reports, 1972		
	1045	*		
	1063	U.SCuba, 1974 (misc.)		
	1092	and the same of th		

Roll	Fran	ne
No.	No.	Contents
2 **	1174 1193 1231 1257	U.SCuba, 1976 (misc.) Sen. Frank Church's Trip to Cuba Aug 1977
22	0002 0057 0184	U.SCuba, 1978 (misc.)
	0208	The following folders should have appeared on Roll 6.
	0240	Cuba, Mar 1958
	0458	Herter Telephone Calls, Mar 12-Apr 7, 1958 (Box 11, Herter Papers, DDFI)
	0487 0514	Eisenhower Telephone Calls, Mar 13-31, 1958, Whitman File, Box 34, DDE Diary Series, DDE Papers, DDEL Dulles Telephone Calls, Mar 18-Apr 1, 1958 (Boxes 8,12,13, Dulles Papers, DDEL)
	0602	Cuba, Apr 1958

