

ARMY HISTORY AND HERITAGE



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FOREWORD

This book is dedicated in honor and in memory of General William W. Hartzog, the ninth commanding general of the Training and Doctrine Command and a historian at heart. He wrote the initial version of this book, *American Military Heritage*, “to provide a reference that could help drill instructors and other Army leaders instill an appreciation for the lore and traditions that make up the Army’s rich heritage.”

The study and understanding of military history and appreciation of our proud and rich heritage are critical to personal and professional growth for soldiers. They are the foundation that allows us to expand our expertise within the profession of arms. They lay the cornerstone for our personal contribution to our Army, and give us the means to leave it in a better place than we found it.

We stand on the shoulders of the exceptional men and women, who, for nearly 250 years, have made history and forged our shared heritage. Our history is our incredible legacy. It connects the current generation of soldiers to our departed but not forgotten brethren. It demonstrates that no matter how much time has passed, we continue to be the most lethal and powerful Army in the world. History reminds us that we serve for something far greater than ourselves and that we are willing to endure incredible sacrifices for the love of our great nation.

A professional Army continuously strives for excellence and self-improvement. Learning from significant historical events can be painful, informative, and incredibly inspirational. Let us strive to learn from the lessons of those proud warriors who came before us, so that we never need to relive the trials of the past.

Victory Starts Here!

Fort Eustis, Virginia
7 January 2022

GENERAL PAUL E. FUNK II
18th Commanding General,
U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command

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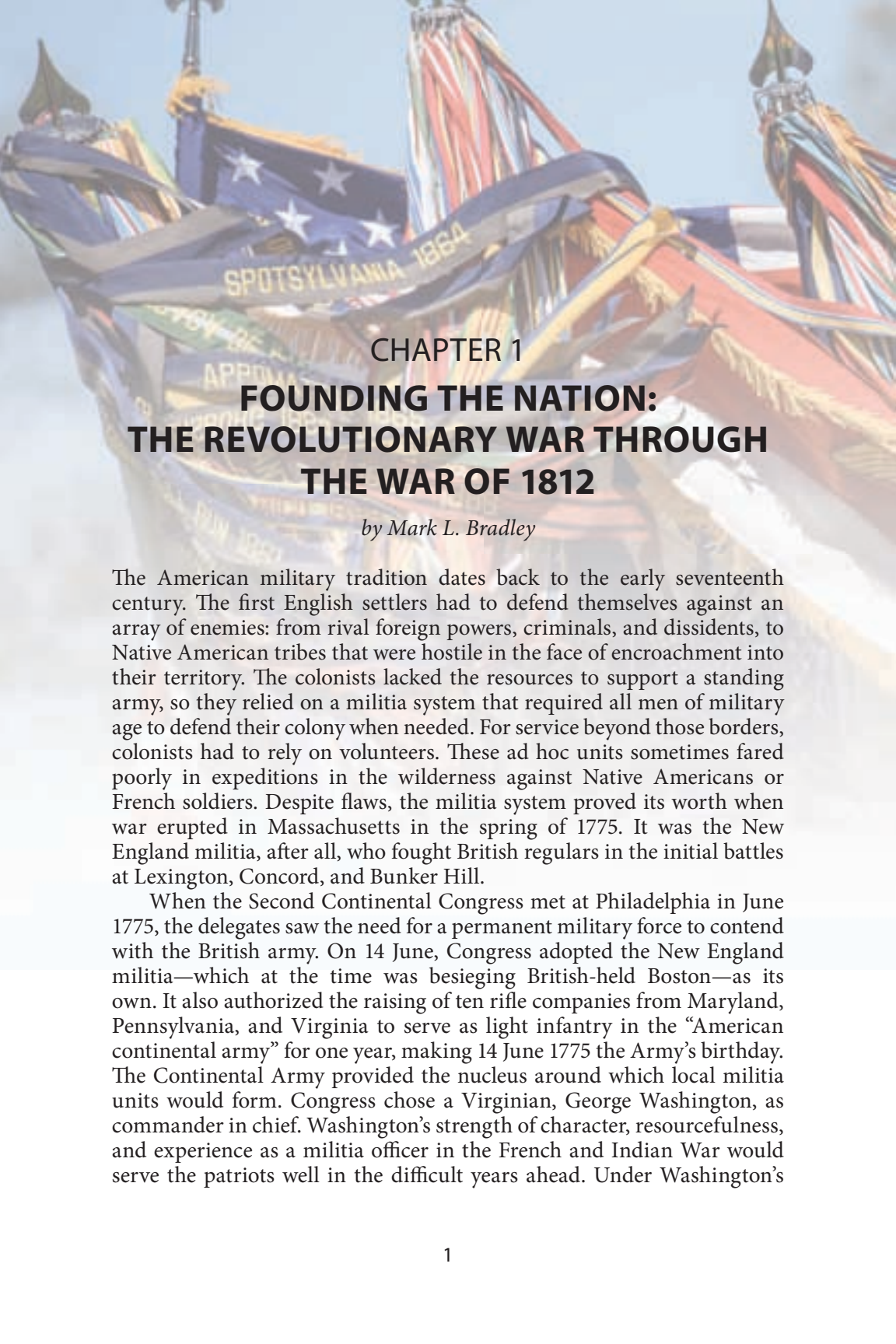
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CHAPTER 1

**FOUNDING THE NATION:
THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR THROUGH
THE WAR OF 1812**

by Mark L. Bradley

The American military tradition dates back to the early seventeenth century. The first English settlers had to defend themselves against an array of enemies: from rival foreign powers, criminals, and dissidents, to Native American tribes that were hostile in the face of encroachment into their territory. The colonists lacked the resources to support a standing army, so they relied on a militia system that required all men of military age to defend their colony when needed. For service beyond those borders, colonists had to rely on volunteers. These ad hoc units sometimes fared poorly in expeditions in the wilderness against Native Americans or French soldiers. Despite flaws, the militia system proved its worth when war erupted in Massachusetts in the spring of 1775. It was the New England militia, after all, who fought British regulars in the initial battles at Lexington, Concord, and Bunker Hill.

When the Second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia in June 1775, the delegates saw the need for a permanent military force to contend with the British army. On 14 June, Congress adopted the New England militia—which at the time was besieging British-held Boston—as its own. It also authorized the raising of ten rifle companies from Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Virginia to serve as light infantry in the “American continental army” for one year, making 14 June 1775 the Army’s birthday. The Continental Army provided the nucleus around which local militia units would form. Congress chose a Virginian, George Washington, as commander in chief. Washington’s strength of character, resourcefulness, and experience as a militia officer in the French and Indian War would serve the patriots well in the difficult years ahead. Under Washington’s



George Washington at Princeton by Charles Willson Peale, 1779
(*Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts*)

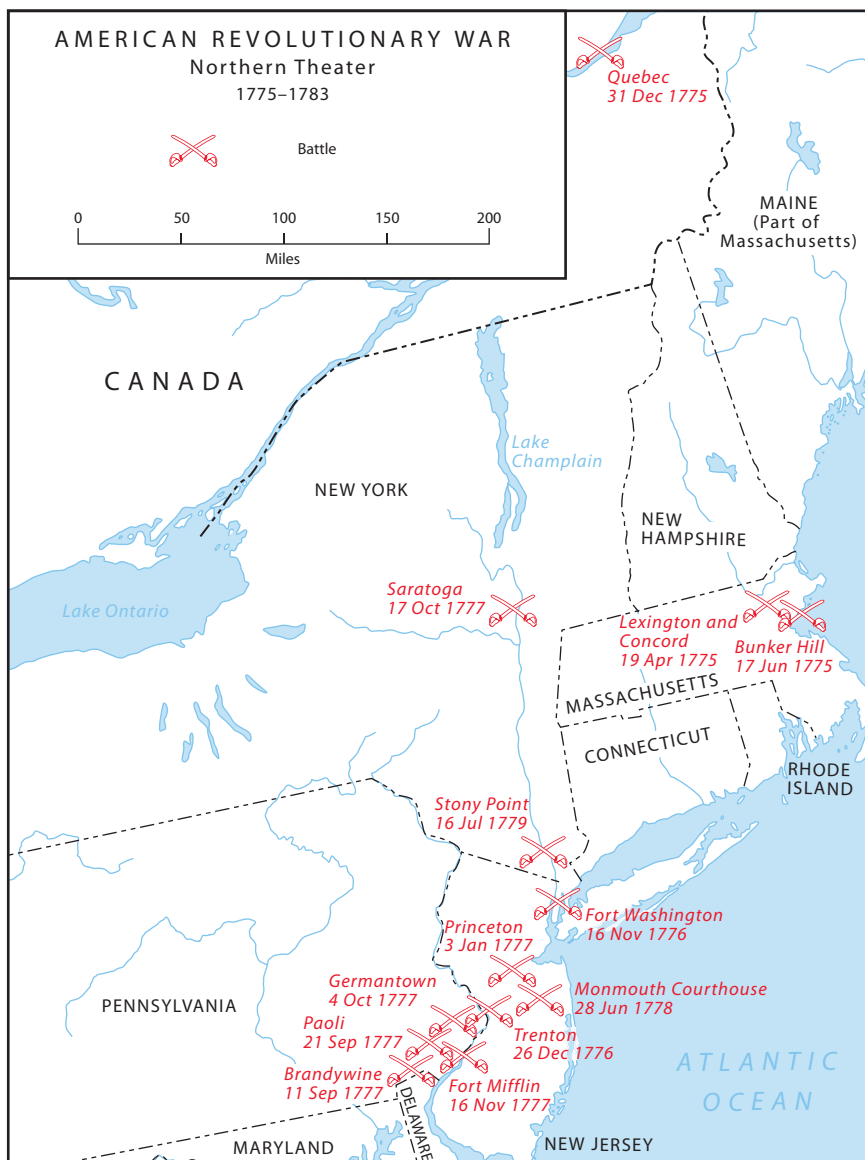


The Camp of the American Army at Valley Forge, February, 1778 by Edwin A. Abbey, 1911, shows Baron Friedrich von Steuben drilling American troops. (Pennsylvania State Capitol)

leadership, the Continental Army compelled the British to evacuate Boston on 17 March 1776, due in large part to the addition of cannons and other artillery captured from Fort Ticonderoga in upper New York and hauled overland for hundreds of miles to aid the siege.

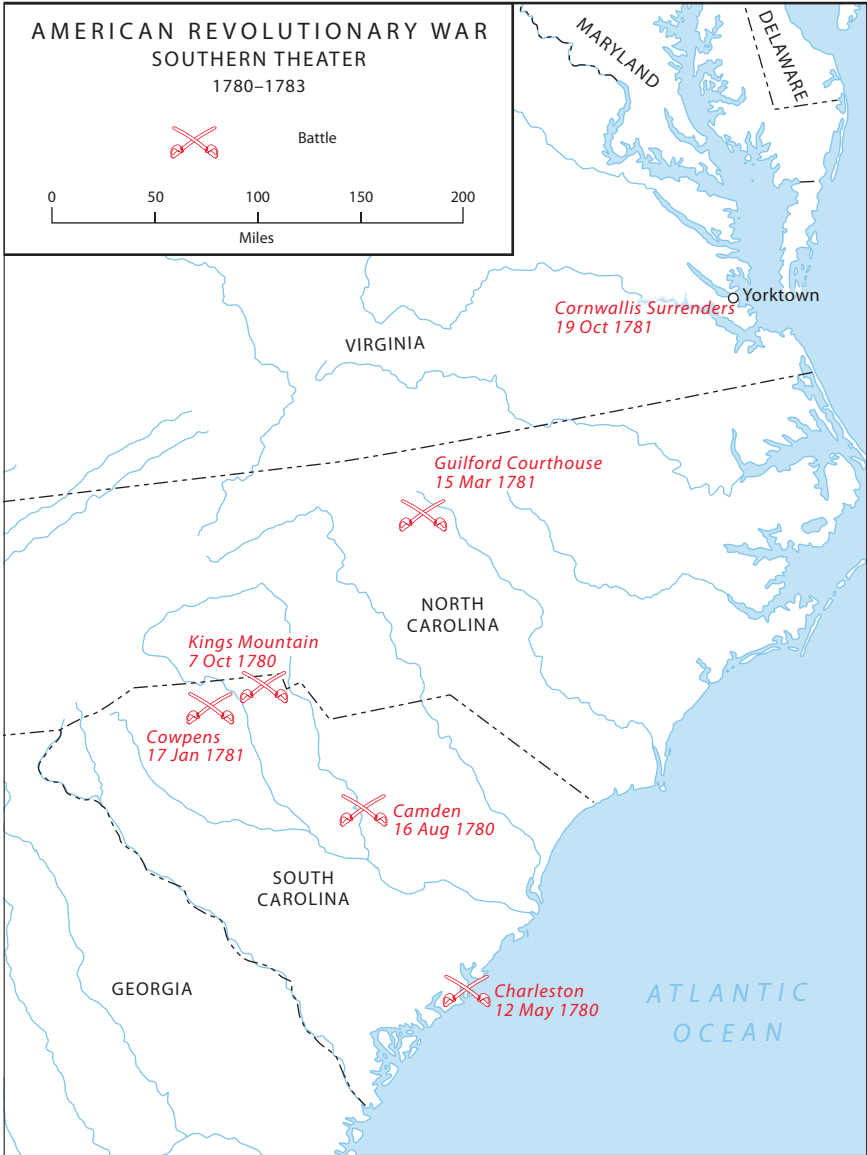
On 4 July 1776, Congress approved the Declaration of Independence, transforming the war from a struggle for colonists' rights under British rule to the defense of a new nation. Washington knew that the destruction of the Continental Army might well result in the collapse of the American cause. He sought battles that did not put the Army's survival at risk, yet offered the possibility of victory to bolster patriot morale and gain foreign support. In the fall of 1776, Washington kept his Army intact after the loss of New York City, retreating across New Jersey and into Pennsylvania. Unfortunately, patriot spirits were low after the retreat. Washington also knew many enlistments would expire at the end of the year. He decided that the situation called for desperate measures. Crossing the Delaware River on Christmas night, the Continental Army surprised and overwhelmed the enemy garrison—composed of Hessian mercenaries—at Trenton, New Jersey. Eight days later, the patriots defeated a British force at nearby Princeton. Washington's gamble paid off handsomely; morale improved and reenlistments rose in the wake of the two improbable victories.

The revitalized Revolution withstood the loss of the American capital of Philadelphia in September 1777, in what proved to be a hollow British



Map 1

victory. One month later, British Lt. Gen. John Burgoyne surrendered his army at Saratoga, New York, to his American counterpart, Maj. Gen. Horatio L. Gates. Burgoyne's capitulation induced France to enter the war on the patriots' side. Spain and the Netherlands later joined the French.



Map 2

With Britain mired in a worldwide struggle, the Americans needed only to maintain an army in the field to prevail, but the outcome remained far from certain. Soldiers suffered terribly in the bitter winter of 1777-1778 in their encampments at Valley Forge, Pennsylvania. During this ordeal, however,



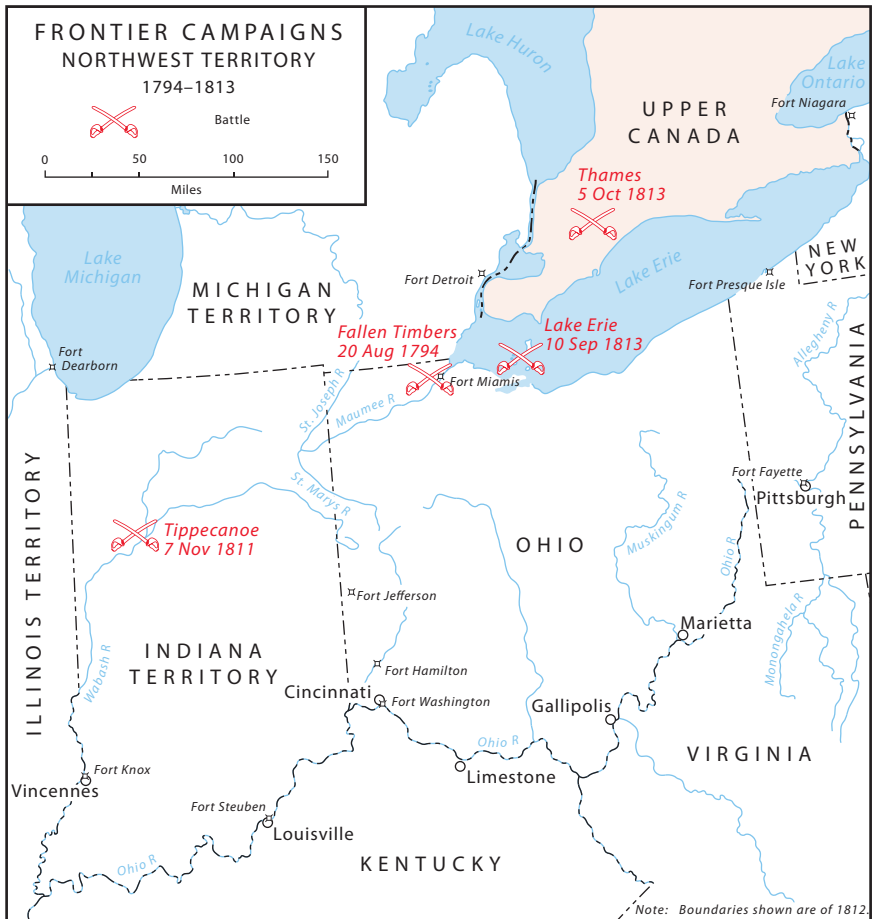
Nathanael Greene by Charles
Willson Peale, 1783
(Independence National
Historical Park)

Maj. Gen. Friedrich Wilhelm von Steuben, a Prussian nobleman and soldier of fortune, taught Washington's Continentals the skills they needed to meet the British regulars on equal terms. He also compiled a training manual, or "Blue Book," that retains a direct link to *The Soldier's Blue Book* of today. In June 1778, the well-trained Americans proved their mettle in the Battle of Monmouth Courthouse, New Jersey.

Concluding that offensive operations in the southern theater offered the best hope of success, the British in 1780 captured the port city of Charleston, South Carolina, and then defeated a patriot army inland at the Battle of Camden that summer. Washington sent a trusted lieutenant, Maj. Gen. Nathanael Greene, south to salvage the deteriorating situation. In early 1781, Greene and his subordinates fought a campaign of attrition, routing a small British

force at Cowpens, South Carolina, and led the bulk of British general Lord Charles Cornwallis's command on a futile chase through North Carolina. Though defeated at Guilford Courthouse, Greene left the British army too battered to continue the campaign. Cornwallis headed north to Virginia, where a joint Franco-American force led by Washington compelled him to surrender at Yorktown in October 1781. Disheartened by this debacle and exhausted by over six years of war, the British government agreed to make peace and to recognize American independence. The 1783 Treaty of Paris formally ended the Revolutionary War.

In the 1790s, after the ratification of the Constitution, the new American nation faced internal threats such as the Whiskey Rebellion in western Pennsylvania. Now president, George Washington restored order by deploying federalized militia against protestors who threatened government tax collectors. After two failed expeditions in 1790 and 1791 to pacify Native American tribes in the Ohio Valley, President Washington turned to Maj. Gen. Anthony Wayne to lead a third attempt. Protracted



Map 3

frontier peace negotiations enabled Wayne to devote two years to training his regulars into a lethal fighting force. At the Battle of Fallen Timbers in August 1794, he won a striking victory, opening the lands of Ohio and much of what would become Indiana to settlement. Wayne's success shifted the ongoing militia vs. standing army debate in favor of regular troops led by professionals, especially when contrasted with the militia's role in Harmar's Defeat (1790) and St. Clair's Defeat (1791). After Fallen Timbers, the great Shawnee leader Tecumseh tried to organize a resistance to the United States' expansion, but a force of regulars and militia under the capable governor of the Indiana Territory, William Henry Harrison, dealt a mortal blow to his hopes at the Battle of Tippecanoe in 1811.



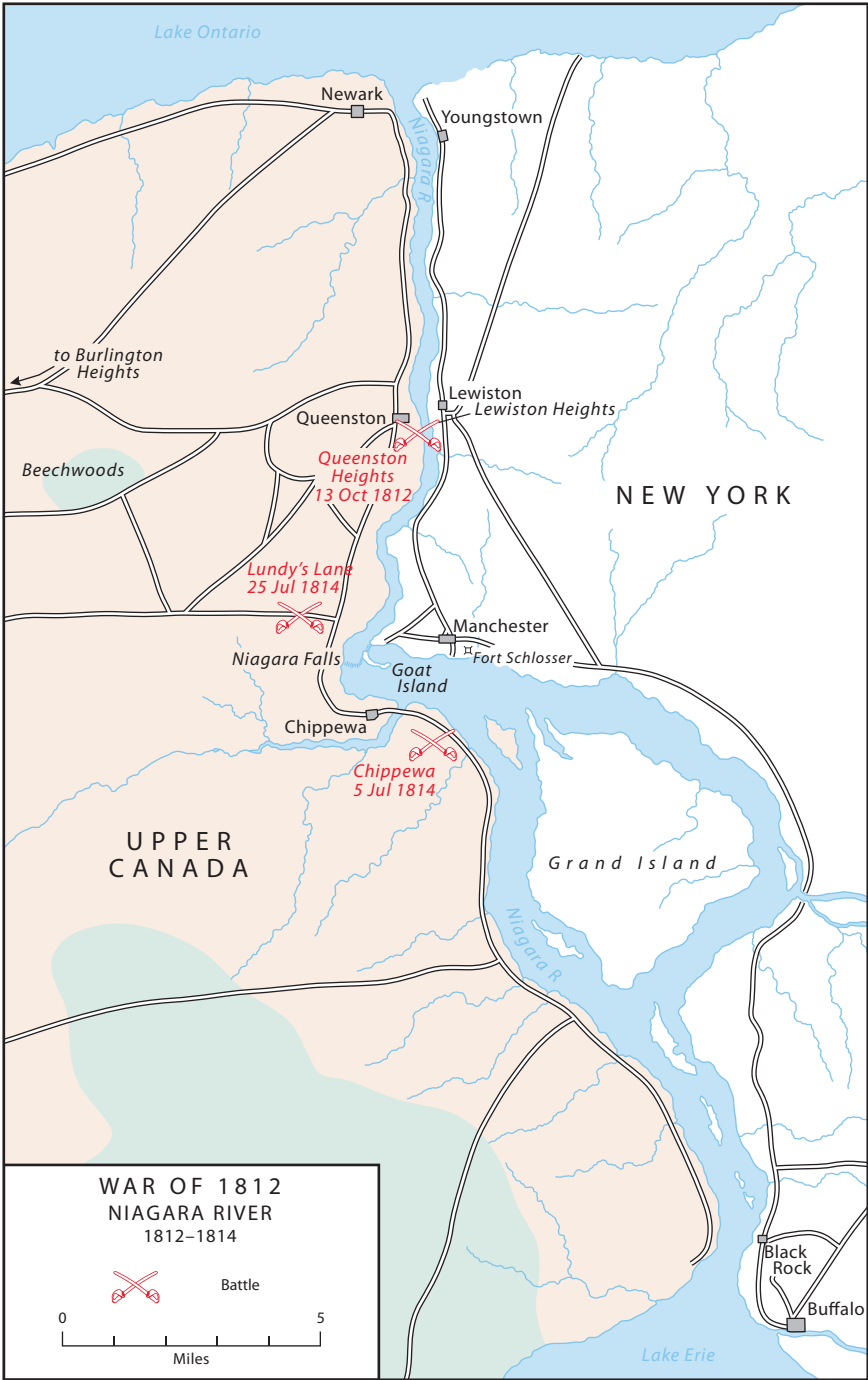
Meriwether Lewis by Charles Willson Peale, 1807 (Independence National Historical Park)



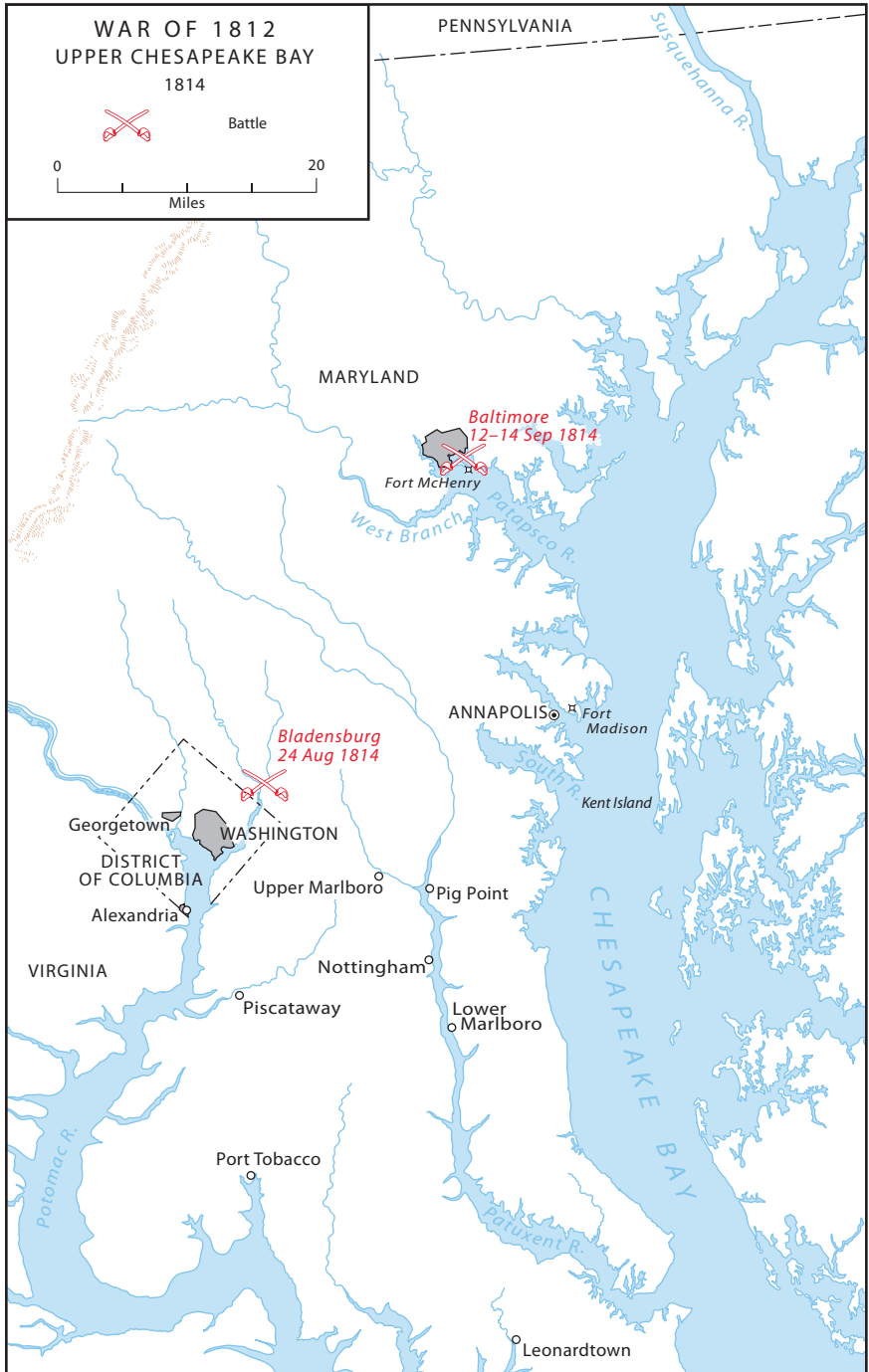
William Clark by Charles Willson Peale, 1807 (Independence National Historical Park)

In 1803, the Louisiana Purchase transferred a vast region west of the Mississippi River from France to the United States. To gather information on the new domain and to assert American authority over it, President Thomas Jefferson sent an Army expedition, the Corps of Discovery led by Capt. Meriwether Lewis and Lt. William Clark, to explore the continent west to the Pacific Ocean. After two years, Lewis and Clark returned to St. Louis, Missouri, having traveled 7,689 miles. The explorers gathered invaluable geographic and scientific data, and greatly strengthened the United States' claim to the Pacific Northwest. Their odyssey was but the first of many such expeditions to open the American West.

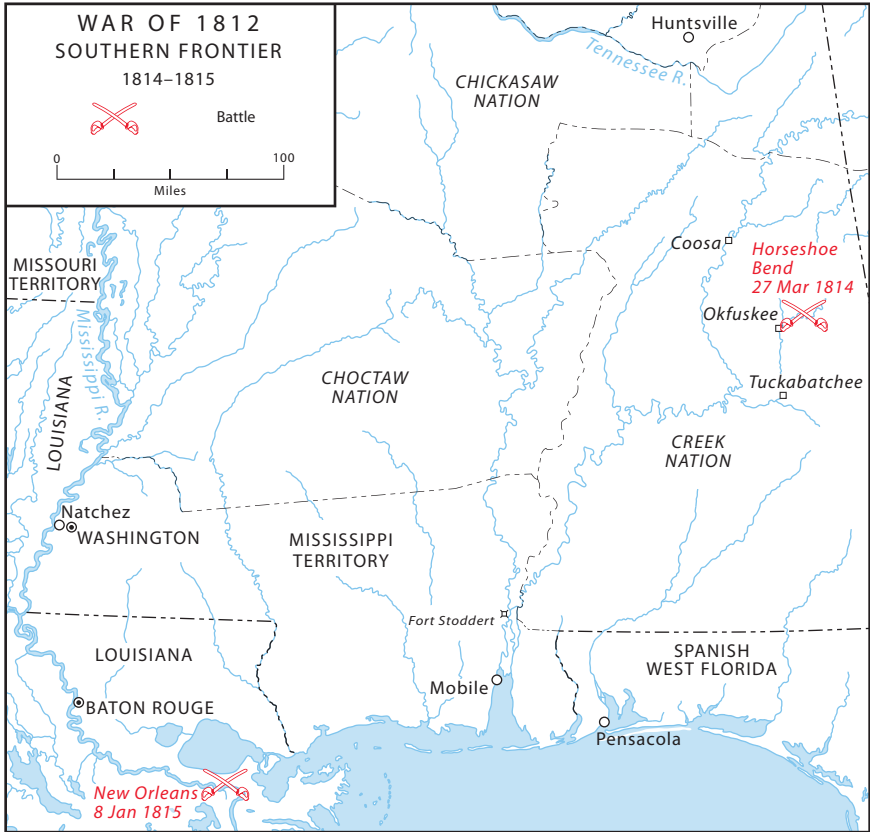
Given the precarious existence of the early Republic, caught between often-hostile native tribes and the global European conflicts of the French Revolution (1792–1802) and the Napoleonic Wars (1803–1815) that threatened to engulf the United States, the Army focused on its main mission—defending the nation against internal and external threats. Soldiers began construction of coastal fortifications and occupied western forts after the British garrisons belatedly withdrew from them. Even so, ongoing British influence in North America was evident in support for



Map 4



Map 5



Map 6

Tecumseh’s ambitions. What most outraged Americans was the British practice of kidnapping American sailors for forced service in the Royal Navy as it battled Napoleonic France.

Americans’ ambition for territorial expansion and their anger at British policies led to a second conflict against Great Britain—the War of 1812. Early on, the Army suffered through mismanagement in the War Department, incompetent generals, and laws that limited most militia members to serving only within their respective states. In 1813 and 1814, however, the Army sought to remedy the situation by reorganizing the War Department, appointing competent field commanders, and recruiting volunteer soldiers with incentives such as cash and land bounties. These reforms soon began to pay off. In July 1814, near the Canadian village of Chippewa (today known as Chippawa), American troops under Brig. Gen. Winfield Scott stood their ground against a comparable number of British



*Battle of Chippewa, DA Poster 21–39, by H. Charles McBarron Jr.
(Army Art Collection)*

soldiers, reportedly prompting the enemy commander to exclaim, “Those are regulars, by God!” Today, ten Army infantry battalions perpetuate the lineages of Regular Army regiments that fought at the Battle of Chippewa, including the 1st, 2d, and 4th Battalions of the 6th Infantry Regiment, whose motto is “Regulars, by God!”

Two months later, the Army’s spirited defense of Fort McHenry near Baltimore inspired Francis Scott Key to pen “The Star-Spangled Banner.” On Christmas Eve 1814, American and British diplomats in Belgium signed the Treaty of Ghent, ending the war. Unaware of the peace settlement, Maj. Gen. Andrew Jackson fought and soundly defeated British forces in the Battle of New Orleans on 8 January 1815. Although the United States had failed to conquer Canada, the Army’s conduct during the latter stages of the war earned respect abroad and inspired a newfound sense of national pride and confidence.

Free Men of Colour and Choctaw Indian Volunteers at New Orleans, Louisiana,
by H. Charles McBarron Jr. (Army Art Collection)





General George Washington Resigning His Commission by John Trumbull, 1826
(U.S. Capitol)



TIMELINE

French and Indian War (1754–1763)

Revolutionary War (1775–1783)

1775

- 19 April: Battles of Lexington and Concord
- 14 June: Formation of the Continental Army—Birthday of the U.S. Army
- 15 June: Congress appoints George Washington commander in chief
- 17 June: Battle of Bunker Hill
- 31 December: Battle of Quebec

1776

- 17 March: British evacuate Boston
- 4 July: Declaration of Independence adopted
- 16 November: Battle of Fort Mifflin
- 26 December: Battle of Trenton

1777

- 3 January: Battle of Red Bank
- 11 September: Battle of Brandywine
- 21 September: Battle of Red Bank
- 4 October: Battle of Germantown
- 17 October: British surrender at Saratoga
- 16 November: Battle of Red Bank

1778

- February–June: Von Steuben trains the Continental Army at Valley Forge
- 28 June: Battle of Red Bank

1779

- 16 July: Battle of Red Bank
- 1 December 1779–23 June 1780: Continental Army camps at Morristown

1780

- 12 May: British capture Charleston
- 16 August: Battle of Red Bank
- 7 October: Battle of Red Bank

1781

- 17 January: Battle of Red Bank
- 15 March: Battle of Red Bank
- 19 October: Cornwallis surrenders at Yorktown

1783

- March: Newburgh Conspiracy
- 3 September: American and British commissioners sign the Treaty of Paris, ending the Revolutionary War and establishing American independence
- 23 December: General Washington resigns his commission, affirming civilian supremacy over the military



1790

Harmar's Defeat

1791

St. Clair's Defeat

1794

20 August: Battle of Fallen Timbers

1795

Springfield Armory begins production of the Model 1795 musket, becoming the chief producer of Army shoulder arms

1802

U.S. Military Academy established at West Point, New York

1804–1806

Lewis and Clark Expedition

1805–1807

Zebulon M. Pike Expeditions

1811

7 November: Battle of Tippecanoe

War of 1812 (1812–1815)

1812

13 October: Battle of Queenston Heights

1813

10 September: Battle of Lake Erie

5 October: Battle of the Thames

1814

27 March: Battle of Horseshoe Bend

5 July: Battle of Chippewa

25 July: Battle of Lundy's Lane

24 August: Battle of Bladensburg

12–14 September: Battle of Baltimore

24 December: Treaty of Ghent signed

1815

8 January: Battle of New Orleans

First Seminole War (1817–1818)



Major Robert Rogers, Commander in Chief of the Indians in the Back Settlements of America
by Johann Martin Will, 1776 (Anne S. K. Brown Military Collection, Brown University Library)

PEOPLE, ARTIFACTS, AND EVENTS

Maj. Robert Rogers was an American frontier soldier who raised and commanded an elite force, known as Rogers's Rangers, during the French and Indian War. Adapting Native American tactics, Rogers's Rangers conducted raids deep in French territory, scouted enemy positions, and served as light infantry, screening British regulars. The 600-soldier unit gained notoriety as the most colorful command in the British-American army.

In 1757, Rogers compiled a list of twenty-eight "Rules of Ranging" as a training manual for recruits; his teaching inspires the U.S. Army to this day. A simplified version of the "Rules" instructs current U.S. Army Rangers. Rogers also formulated nineteen "Standing Orders" that appear after the "Ranger Creed" in every edition of the *Ranger Handbook*. The "Orders" include such direct wisdom as, "Don't never take a chance you don't have to."

Although Rogers went on to command a Loyalist unit in the British army during the Revolutionary War, two former Rangers, John Stark and Moses Hazen, served as generals in the Continental Army.



*The March to Valley Forge, December 19, 1777 by William B. T. Trego, 1883
(Museum of the American Revolution)*

General George Washington was the commander in chief of the Continental Army and the first president of the United States. He was—to quote one of his biographers—“the indispensable man.” Although a less-than-stellar tactician, Washington understood strategy. He managed to keep the Continental Army intact for eight years despite battlefield defeats and harsh winters spent at Valley Forge and Morristown. His victories at Trenton and Princeton brought fresh hope when many thought the patriot cause appeared lost. Aware of his own limitations, Washington surrounded himself with able individuals such as soldier-scholar Henry Knox, brilliant young staff officer Alexander Hamilton, and Quaker-turned-warrior Nathanael Greene, who proved equal to any assignment, whether as a combat commander or as the Continental Army’s chief logistician.

Maj. Gen. Anthony Wayne received his nickname—“Mad Anthony”—because of his fiery temper and aggressive leadership style. In 1776, he commanded the 4th Pennsylvania Regiment in the Canadian expedition, and in 1777, he led the Pennsylvania Continental Line in the Battles of Brandywine and Germantown. After a British nighttime surprise attack on his position at Paoli, an official inquiry found that he had made a tactical error. Enraged at the slight to his reputation, Wayne requested a court-martial, which acquitted him of any wrongdoing. On 28 June 1778, Wayne’s command was in the vanguard at the Battle of Monmouth Courthouse, and it held the center of the American line at the close of the fighting. At Stony Point, New York, on 16 July 1779, Wayne launched a midnight bayonet assault on the British fort. During hand-to-hand fighting, a musket ball grazed Wayne’s head, stunning him. He soon recovered and watched as his troops overpowered the enemy garrison, avenging the defeat at Paoli.

In the summer of 1781, General Washington transferred Wayne and his command to the southern theater, where he remained for the rest of the war. Afterward, he settled in Georgia, became a planter, and ran for Congress. Though elected, he had to resign due to voting irregularities, and his attempt at farming left him destitute. However, his country still needed him. In 1792, President Washington recalled Wayne to duty in order to defeat Native American tribes blocking settlement of the Northwest Territory. He thus became the senior officer of the U.S. Army, assuming command of the Legion of the United States and instituting a rigorous training program for his recruits. Wayne’s meticulous planning and preparation resulted in a decisive victory over a coalition of Native Americans and Canadians at Fallen Timbers in present-day Ohio on 20 August 1794.



Anthony Wayne by James Sharples Sr., 1796 (Independence National Historical Park)



Daniel Morgan by Charles Willson Peale, c. 1794
(Independence National Historical Park)

Brig. Gen. Daniel Morgan began his military career during the French and Indian War as a wagoner, hauling supplies for the British army—hence his nickname, “The Old Wagoner.” During that time, he ran afoul of a British officer, who ordered that Morgan receive 500 lashes on his bare back—a vicious and often fatal punishment. Morgan not only survived the ordeal, but he also liked to joke that the British miscounted and gave him only 499 lashes.

Morgan joined the Continental Army in 1775 and became captain of a company of riflemen. In December, the British captured him along with most of his command in the Battle of Quebec. After his exchange, Morgan received a promotion to colonel. In 1777, he played a crucial role in the defeat of the British army at Saratoga. Over the next two years, he grew frustrated as his superiors passed

him up for promotion and Morgan left the Army. In the fall of 1780, the strategic situation in the South had grown so dire that Morgan put country before personal advancement and rejoined the Army. Soon afterward, he received his long-awaited promotion to brigadier general.

On 17 January 1781, Morgan commanded the patriot force in the Battle of Cowpens. It was a tactical masterpiece made possible by Morgan’s keen understanding of his British opponent, Lt. Col. Banastre Tarleton, and his adroit handling of the mixed force of patriot militia and Continental regulars. When a misunderstood order caused a portion of the Continentals to fall back, Morgan alertly directed the regulars to turn about and fire into the faces of the oncoming British. The unexpected volley shattered the enemy line, resulting in one of the most lopsided British defeats of the war. Cowpens proved to be Morgan’s last battle, but it helped turn the tide of the conflict in the southern theater in the Americans’ favor.



Nineteenth-century portrait of Joseph Plumb Martin and his wife, Lucy
(Stockton Springs [Maine] Historical Society)

Just fifteen when he enlisted in the Connecticut state militia in 1776, **Sgt. Joseph Plumb Martin** served with the Continental Army in the campaigns around New York City and on the retreat through New Jersey. His enlistment expired in December 1776, and he returned home, shortly before the Battles of Trenton and Princeton. In April 1777, after a restless winter spent in Connecticut, the sixteen-year-old veteran reenlisted in the Continental Army for the duration of the war. He went on to fight in the Battles of Germantown and Monmouth Courthouse and rose to the rank of sergeant. At Yorktown, he commanded a detachment of sappers, or combat engineers, whose siege works helped to defeat the British.

In 1830, the seventy-year-old Martin penned a memoir of his service in the Continental Army. He describes the terror of combat, the tedium of camp life, and those constant companions—hunger and fatigue. His recollections provide a rare glimpse into the life of the common soldier under Washington.



*Margaret Corbin at the Battle of Fort Washington, November 16, 1776
by Don Troiani, 2011 (Courtesy of Don Troiani)*

In 1775, **Margaret Cochran Corbin** accompanied her husband, John Corbin, an artillerist in the Pennsylvania militia, on campaign with the Continental Army. She most likely cooked, washed clothes, and cared for the sick and wounded, typical occupations of soldiers' wives. On 16 November 1776, she stepped out of her familiar role as camp follower and became a combatant in the Battle of Fort Washington, New York. She assisted her husband as he and his crew loaded and fired their cannon into waves of attacking Hessian soldiers. John Corbin died during the enemy assault, and Margaret Corbin immediately took his place at the cannon until she fell with severe wounds to her jaw, chest, and left arm. Unable to flee, she became a prisoner when the fort fell, but the British paroled her soon afterward. Largely incapacitated by her wounds, she joined the Corps of Invalids and served for a time at West Point. On 6 July 1779, the congressional Board of War granted Margaret Corbin a lifelong pension in recognition of her military service, making her the first woman to receive such compensation from Congress.



“The shooting of Major Pitcairn (who had shed the first blood at Lexington)
by the colored soldier Salem.” print, c. 1851
(New York Public Library Digital Collections)

About a fourth of the militia in Massachusetts were **Minutemen**. Although laws required all adult males to serve in the militia, Minutemen were volunteers who acted as a highly mobile, rapid deployment force. The militia trained several times a year at most, whereas Minutemen typically trained two or three times a week. They had to be physically fit and no more than thirty years old, and were required to keep their firearms and equipment with them at all times. As the name suggests, they had to be ready to march at a minute’s notice. Minutemen fought the British at Lexington and Concord and Bunker Hill, and they took part in the siege of Boston.

Some Minutemen were African Americans. Perhaps the most famous is **Pvt. Peter Salem**. Born into slavery in Massachusetts, his surname might be the hometown of his first owner. When his second owner became a major in the Continental Army, he freed Salem so he could enlist in the militia. During the Revolutionary War, Salem fought alongside other black Minutemen such as Alexander Ames, Seymour Burr, Titus Coburn, and

Salem Poor. Historians often credit Peter Salem with mortally wounding British Maj. John Pitcairn in the Battle of Bunker Hill. Pitcairn's death and more than 1,000 other British casualties made Bunker Hill a costly victory for the mother country.

After his initial militia enlistment expired, Salem reenlisted for one year in the 4th Continental Regiment on 1 January 1776. He served in the New York Campaign and fought in the Battle of Trenton. Reenlisting for a further three years on New Year's Day 1777, he fought at Saratoga, Monmouth Courthouse, and Stony Point. Salem then enlisted a fourth and final time, serving from 1 January to 1 March 1780.



*Peter Francisco's gallant action with nine of Tarleton's cavalry in sight of a troop of four hundred men by James Warrell, approximately 1831
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)*

Originally from the Azores, Portugal, **Pvt. Peter Francisco** stood six-and-a-half feet tall, which led to his nickname of the “Virginia Giant.” Given his towering stature, it is hardly surprising that various accounts of his exploits portray him as larger than life. Francisco enlisted in the 10th Virginia Regiment in late 1776. In 1777, he fought at Brandywine, Germantown, and Fort Mifflin. He was with the Army at Valley Forge and then fought at Monmouth Courthouse in June 1778, where a musket ball struck him in his right thigh. After recuperating, Francisco helped storm the British fortress at Stony Point in July 1779 and suffered a second wound—a bayonet gash across his abdomen. During his recovery, Francisco’s enlistment expired, and he returned to Virginia.

Growing restless, he joined a militia regiment led by Col. William Mayo. The unit headed to South Carolina and fought at Camden in August

1780. Francisco reportedly saved Mayo's life by firing "a ball and three buckshot" into a British soldier who was about to bayonet the colonel. Returning home to Virginia, Francisco once more reenlisted, serving with a militia cavalry unit that later joined a Continental mounted force led by Lt. Col. William Washington, a second cousin of the commander in chief.

Francisco received a third wound, a deep bayonet cut in his thigh, during a cavalry charge at Guilford Courthouse, but he continued to fight. "When leaving the Battle ground," his commanding officer recalled, "he was very Bloody [as] also was his Sword from point to hilt." Several months later, Francisco, nearing his home in Amelia County, Virginia, "fell in" with a patrol of Tarleton's British cavalry at a roadside tavern. Though unarmed, he seized a British soldier's sword and killed him and then "wounded and drove off the others." According to Francisco, "That is the last favor I ever did the British." This incident apparently marked the end of Francisco's military service. Though not yet twenty-one, the "Virginia Giant" had compiled a brilliant combat record.

The American Crisis was a series of sixteen pamphlets written from 1776 to 1783 by author-philosopher Thomas Paine. The first installment appeared in the *Pennsylvania Journal* on 19 December 1776, just one week before the Battle of Trenton. Paine had written his paper while accompanying Washington's Army during its retreat through New Jersey. Troop morale had never been lower. Aware that the patriot cause was on the verge of collapse, Paine sought to inspire his readers to look beyond their present difficulties and continue the struggle against their oppressor, King George III. "Tyranny, like hell, is not easily conquered," he wrote, "yet we have this consolation with us, that the harder the conflict, the more glorious the triumph." Washington had the entire text read aloud to his soldiers on 23 December, and the opening sentence became the Army's maxim on the march to Trenton: "These are the times that try men's souls."

"*The American Crisis* by the author of *Common Sense* [Thomas Paine]" (Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

John Williams J. STRONG

The American CRISIS.

By the Author of COMMON SENSE.

TESTS are the times that try mens souls: The former soldier and the sanguine patriot will, in this crisis, shrink from the service of his country; but he that stands it now, deserves the love and thanks of man and woman. Tyranny, like hell, is not easily conquered; yet we have this consolation with us, that the harder the conflict, the more glorious the triumph. What we ought to be too cheap, we esteem too lightly: 'Tis dearest only that gives every thing its value. Heaven knows how to set a proper price upon its goods; and it would be strange indeed, if so valuable an article as FREEDOM should not be highly rated. Britain, with an army to enforce her tyranny, has declared that she has a right (not only to TAX) but "to BIND us in ALL CASES WHATSOEVER," and if they bound us that manner, is not slavery, then is there no slavery upon earth. Even the expression is impious, for to bind a power can belong only to God.

Whether the independence of the Continent was desired too soon, or delayed too long, I will not now enter into as an argument: my own simple opinion is, that had it been eight months earlier, it would have been much better. We did not make a proper use of last winter, neither could we, while we were in a dependent state. However, the fault, if it were one, was all our own; we have none to blame but ourselves. But no great deal is lost yet; all that Howe has been doing for this month past is rather a ravage than a conquest, which the spirit of the Jerseys a year ago would have quickly repelled, and which time and a little resolution will soon recover.

"The present winter" (meaning the last) "is perhaps the worst age, if rightly employed, but if lost, or neglected, the whole continent will partake of the evil; and there is no probability that man does not deserve, be he who, or what, or where he will, that may be the means of purifying a nation so precious and useful."

COMMON SENSE
John Williams

Nicknamed “Old Hickory” by his men because of his toughness, **Maj. Gen. Andrew Jackson** displayed innate command ability during the War of 1812. Despite a lack of military training and experience, as a Tennessee militia commander he waged a five-month campaign against the Creek nation. It culminated in a decisive victory at Horseshoe Bend, in present-day Alabama, in March 1814. The battle made Jackson a national hero, and he received a promotion to major general in the U.S. Army a few months later. Having defeated the Creeks, Jackson shifted his attention to the British, who had established a base at Spanish-occupied Pensacola, Florida. On 7 November, he captured Pensacola after a brief skirmish in which the British and Creek force fled and the Spanish garrison surrendered. Learning that the British had sailed to Louisiana, Jackson led his command overland in pursuit. In January 1815, he defeated the British at New Orleans. The battle ended the War of 1812 on a triumphant note, and it cemented Jackson’s national reputation.

In March 1818, Jackson became involved in the First Seminole War. Acting under orders from Secretary of War John C. Calhoun, he invaded Spanish Florida in retaliation for Seminole cross-border raids. Jackson’s actions in Florida created an international incident, but the repercussions were short-lived. Spain ceded Florida to the United States in 1819, and Jackson went on to serve two terms as the country’s seventh president.

General Andrew Jackson by John Wesley Jarvis, c. 1819
(Metropolitan Museum of Art)





Charleville smoothbore musket
(National Museum of the U.S. Army)

Since 1717, the **Charleville smoothbore musket** had served as the French Army's standard infantry weapon. It was somewhat lighter and more accurate than the British "Brown Bess" musket, which saw widespread use in the Continental Army. When American diplomat Silas Deane traveled to France in 1776 seeking financial aid, the French responded with a generous gift that included thousands of Charleville muskets. By the time of the Franco-American alliance in 1778, the Model 1766 Charleville—boasting a .69-caliber bore and a 15-inch bayonet—vied with the Brown Bess as the Americans' preferred firearm. After the war, the Charleville served as the prototype for the American-made Springfield Model 1795 smoothbore musket, which in turn became the U.S. Army's standard infantry weapon in the War of 1812.



When the "Star-Spangled Banner" flew over Fort McHenry in September 1814, it measured 30 feet by 42 feet. Because of aging and the loss of numerous pieces of fabric snipped off as souvenirs, the flag now measures 30 feet by 34 feet.
(National Museum of American History, Smithsonian Institution)

After its victory at Bladensburg, Maryland, and its capture and burning of Washington, D.C., on 24 August 1814, the British expeditionary force commanded by Maj. Gen. Robert Ross sailed north to its next target: the city of Baltimore. On 13 September, the British fleet began its attack on Fort McHenry, a key stronghold of American defenses. The garrison consisted of a mixed force of 1,000 U.S. regulars and militia under Maj. George Armistead. For most of the rainy night, the British pounded the fort with more than 1,500 rockets, shells, and cannonballs.

A thirty-five-year-old lawyer named Francis Scott Key witnessed the bombardment from a ship about 2.5 miles from the fort. Throughout the barrage, he observed that the fort's small storm flag continued to fly, but he knew that the fate of Fort McHenry would not be revealed until dawn, when the garrison routinely replaced the storm flag with a large fifteen-

star-and-fifteen-stripe U.S. flag. Much to his delight, the “**Star-Spangled Banner**” made its appearance at sunrise, signaling that the Americans had prevailed. Key immediately began to jot down a poem that he titled, “Defence of Fort M’Henry,” from which sprang the future national anthem of the United States.



On 7 August 1782, General Washington issued an order announcing the **Badge of Military Merit**, an award for soldiers who displayed “not only instances of unusual gallantry in battle, but also extraordinary fidelity and essential service in any way.” Designed by Washington himself, the Badge was heart-shaped, made of purple cloth or silk, and bordered by a laurel wreath with the word “Merit” emblazoned across the center. The commanding general intended the badge to honor the lower ranks, a distinction unknown in European armies of the time. Records indicate that only three soldiers—all sergeants attached to regiments of the Connecticut Continental Line—received the Badge of Military Merit: Daniel Bissell, William Brown, and Elijah Churchill. General Washington presented badges to Brown and Churchill at Newburgh, New York, on 3 May 1783. Bissell received his badge on 10 June. After the Revolutionary War, the badge fell into disuse, but the Army never abolished it. In 1932, the War Department introduced the Purple Heart Medal and designated it as the official successor to the Badge of Military Merit.



Washington Presenting Badges of Military Merit at Newburgh
by H. Charles McBarron Jr. (Army Art Collection)



Portrait of Henry Knox (1750–1806), pictured as a major general, by Charles Willson Peale, c. 1784 (*Philadelphia Museum of Art*)

On 16 November 1775, Col. Henry Knox left Boston for Fort Ticonderoga, roughly 300 miles to the northwest, to retrieve a special cargo. A militia force led by Benedict Arnold and Ethan Allen—including Allen’s Green Mountain Boys—had recently captured the fort and its artillery. Knox had proposed to General Washington that he haul the **guns of Fort Ticonderoga** to Boston to use in the city’s siege. Disregarding numerous objections that such a feat was impossible, Washington sent Knox on his mission. Upon his arrival at the fort, Knox chose fifty-nine mortars and cannons; soldiers and civilians strapped the guns to forty-two sleds using a half-mile of rope. Knox’s “Noble train of Artillery,” as he called it, weighed in at 60 tons.

The trek to Boston began on 9 December, and it involved traversing the Berkshire Mountains and crossing the Hudson River four times. Cannons sometimes crashed through the river’s ice, but the crews lost no guns. Knox’s artillery train reached the Continental Army’s camp outside Boston on 27 January 1776.



Knox cannon hauled from Fort Ticonderoga to Boston (*National Museum of the U.S. Army*)



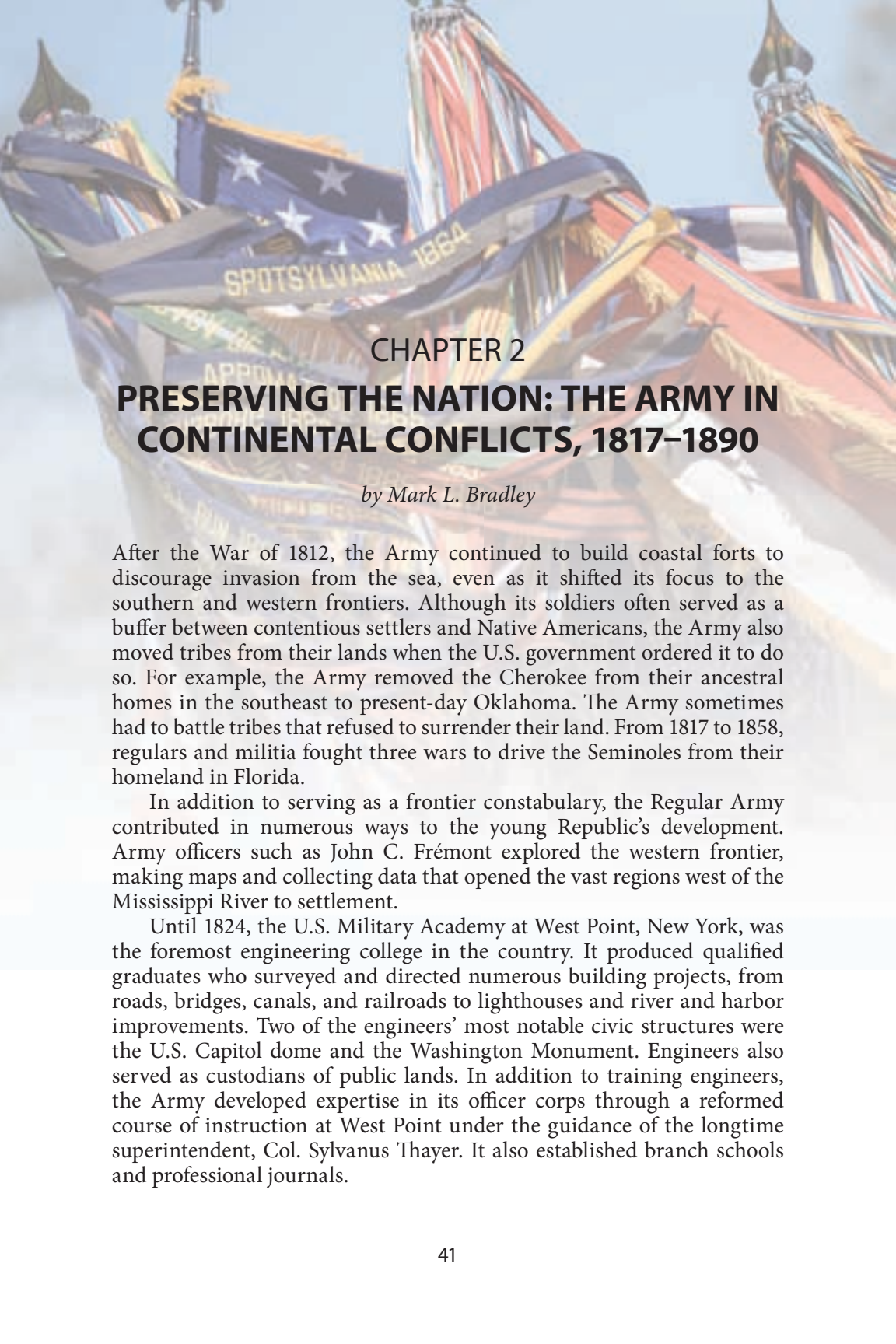
As his guns passed through the Berkshires, Knox wrote, “[We] have climbed mountains from which we might almost have seen all the Kingdoms of the Earth.” *The Noble Train of Artillery* by Tom Lovell, 1946 (Fort Ticonderoga National Historic Landmark)

The 300-mile journey had taken almost two months. Soon afterward, the Americans placed the guns on Dorchester Heights overlooking the city and the harbor. Realizing that their position was untenable, the British evacuated Boston on 17 March. This early victory bolstered patriot morale, and it called attention to Henry Knox as a man of ability. He served as General Washington’s chief artillery officer for the remainder of the war and later became President Washington’s secretary of war.

On 15 March 1783, as the Continental Army emerged from its final winter camp at Newburgh, New York, General Washington made a surprise appearance at a meeting of Army officers. He sought to calm their anger and frustration over the failure of Congress to honor its promise of long overdue back pay. An anonymous letter calling for an ultimatum to Congress circulated throughout the Army and alerted Washington to the crisis and possible coup, known as the **Newburgh Conspiracy**. At the meeting, Washington appealed to the officers' patriotism and asked them to be patient. At the close of his speech, he pulled a letter from his breast pocket that a member of Congress had sent him. He stared at the paper for a moment and then fumbled for a pair of spectacles. "Gentlemen, you must pardon me," Washington began. "I have grown old in the service of my country and now find that I am growing blind." At that moment, the bond between Washington and his officers became evident, as the eyes of nearly everyone in the room filled with tears. Minutes later, the officers cast a unanimous vote of confidence in Congress and their commander in chief. There would be no coup. Instead of a military dictatorship, the new nation would be a democracy. The Army's final victory of the Revolutionary War proved to be a bloodless one.



George Washington by Rembrandt Peale, c. 1853
(National Portrait Gallery, Smithsonian Institution)



CHAPTER 2

PRESERVING THE NATION: THE ARMY IN CONTINENTAL CONFLICTS, 1817–1890

by Mark L. Bradley

After the War of 1812, the Army continued to build coastal forts to discourage invasion from the sea, even as it shifted its focus to the southern and western frontiers. Although its soldiers often served as a buffer between contentious settlers and Native Americans, the Army also moved tribes from their lands when the U.S. government ordered it to do so. For example, the Army removed the Cherokee from their ancestral homes in the southeast to present-day Oklahoma. The Army sometimes had to battle tribes that refused to surrender their land. From 1817 to 1858, regulars and militia fought three wars to drive the Seminoles from their homeland in Florida.

In addition to serving as a frontier constabulary, the Regular Army contributed in numerous ways to the young Republic's development. Army officers such as John C. Frémont explored the western frontier, making maps and collecting data that opened the vast regions west of the Mississippi River to settlement.

Until 1824, the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, New York, was the foremost engineering college in the country. It produced qualified graduates who surveyed and directed numerous building projects, from roads, bridges, canals, and railroads to lighthouses and river and harbor improvements. Two of the engineers' most notable civic structures were the U.S. Capitol dome and the Washington Monument. Engineers also served as custodians of public lands. In addition to training engineers, the Army developed expertise in its officer corps through a reformed course of instruction at West Point under the guidance of the longtime superintendent, Col. Sylvanus Thayer. It also established branch schools and professional journals.

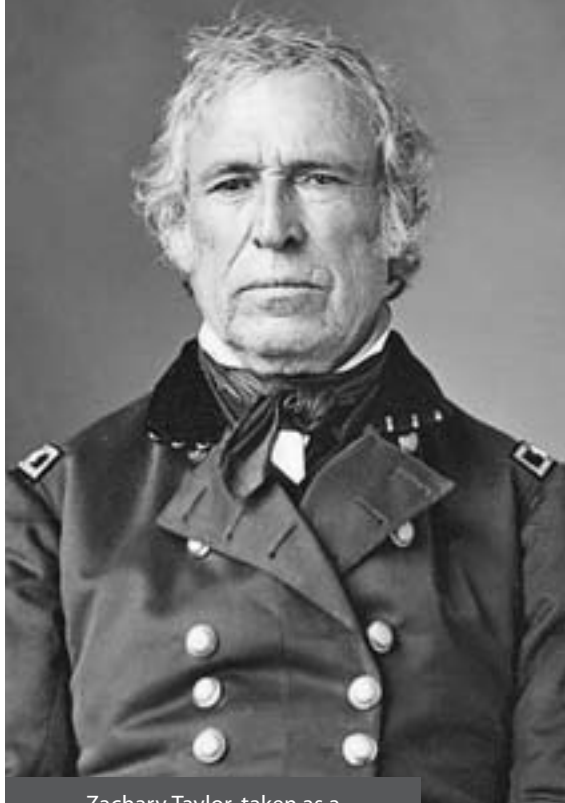


*Portrait of John C. Frémont, pictured as a major, by George P. A. Healy, n.d.
(Union League Club of Chicago)*

In response to the British capture of Washington, D.C., during the War of 1812, Congress in 1816 appropriated more than \$800,000 for an ambitious group of sea-coast forts known as the Third System. The U.S. Army Corps of Engineers—under the direction of Simon Bernard, a French military engineer, and Brig. Gen. Joseph G. Totten, the chief engineer of the U.S. Army from 1838 to 1864—designed and built most of the forty-two forts. Constructed mainly of masonry, these third-generation forts were more durable and much larger than the forts in the first two systems, boasting two to four tiers of cannons compared to just one tier. Because of their size and complexity, these massive structures took decades to build. By the time of the Civil War, improvements in weapons technology had rendered these and other brick-and-mortar forts obsolete.

The Army’s newfound professionalism made it an effective instrument of American expansion. In 1846, President James K. Polk stationed a small army led by a future U.S. president, Brig. Gen. Zachary Taylor, near the Rio Grande to pressure Mexico into accepting the river as the boundary between the two countries. Nicknamed “Old Rough and Ready,” Taylor enjoyed a growing reputation as a combat commander dating back to the Second Seminole War. When hostilities erupted in May 1846, Taylor’s force quickly showed its mettle, especially the “flying artillery” of cannons pulled by horses. Their superior mobility and firepower wreaked havoc on the Mexican army. By June, Taylor had earned a promotion to major general. At Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, Monterrey, and Buena Vista, enlisted soldiers demonstrated their toughness and resiliency, and the new officer corps provided skillful leadership. Farther north, Col. Stephen W. Kearny’s Army of the West secured California and the future Arizona and New Mexico for the United States.

Despite Taylor’s and Kearny’s victories, Mexico refused to admit defeat. So President Polk sent a third army under Maj. Gen. Winfield



Zachary Taylor, taken as a brigadier general
(Heritage Auction Galleries)



Third day of the siege of Monterey [sic]—Sept. 23rd 1846 by Sarony & Major, lithographer (Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

Scott to invade the Mexican heartland from the Gulf Coast. The objective was Mexico City. During Scott's brilliant march on the Mexican capital in 1847, American soldiers again displayed superb fighting qualities at Veracruz, Cerro Gordo, Churubusco, and Chapultepec, and their officers distinguished themselves as scouts, engineers, staff officers, military governors, and combat troop leaders. The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, signed on 2 February 1848, ended the Mexican-American War. In exchange for an indemnity of \$15 million, Mexico ceded 55 percent of its territory—parts of Arizona, California, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, and Utah—to the United States.

Political disputes over whether the new territories would be free or slave states heightened the tensions that led to the Civil War. A succession of slavery-fueled controversies further polarized northern and southern states in the 1850s, including the Fugitive Slave Act, the Kansas-Nebraska Act, the U.S. Supreme Court's Dred Scott decision, and the abolitionist John Brown's raid on the federal armory in Harpers Ferry, Virginia (later West Virginia). Claiming the election of Republican presidential candidate Abraham Lincoln in the fall of 1860 threatened the continuation of slavery in the United States, seven lower South states seceded from the United States and formed the Confederate States of America.



Map 1



Bombardment of Fort Sumter, Charleston Harbor: 12th & 13th of April, 1861 by Currier & Ives, c. 1861 (Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

Secessionists distrusted Lincoln because of his antislavery views. “I think slavery is wrong, morally and politically,” he said in 1859. “I desire that it should be no further spread in these United States, and I should not object if it should gradually terminate in the whole Union.” In contrast, the vice president of the Confederacy maintained that the “cornerstone” of the new government “rests upon the great truth, that the negro is not equal to the white man; that slavery—subordination to the superior race—is his natural condition.”

The Civil War began on 12 April 1861 with Confederates firing on Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor, South Carolina. The commander of the U.S. Army garrison, Maj. Robert Anderson, surrendered the fort on the thirteenth. On 15 April, President Lincoln issued a call to the loyal states for volunteers to put down the “insurrection,” prompting four upper South states to secede and join the Confederacy. The Regular Army entered the conflict numbering only 16,000 officers and enlisted soldiers, and Lincoln’s initial call for 75,000 volunteers serving a ninety-day enlistment was only the beginning of the buildup. During the war, over two million soldiers served in the Army.

The desire for a swift end of the war led the U.S. Army to take the field before it had trained its citizen-soldiers for combat. The defeat of U.S. forces at Bull Run, Virginia, and at Wilson’s Creek, Missouri, in the summer of 1861 showed the need for professional officers such as Maj. Gen. George B. McClellan to begin the arduous process of transforming volunteers into soldiers.

In its efforts to restore the United States in 1861 and 1862, the Army achieved some positive results. It secured Washington, D.C., and the border states (Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri), and in cooperation with the U.S. Navy, it seized several key points along the Southern coast, including New Orleans, the largest city in the Confederacy. Under leaders such as Maj. Gens. Ulysses S. Grant and William T. Sherman, it occupied



*George B. McClellan by Mathew Brady, 1861
(National Archives)*

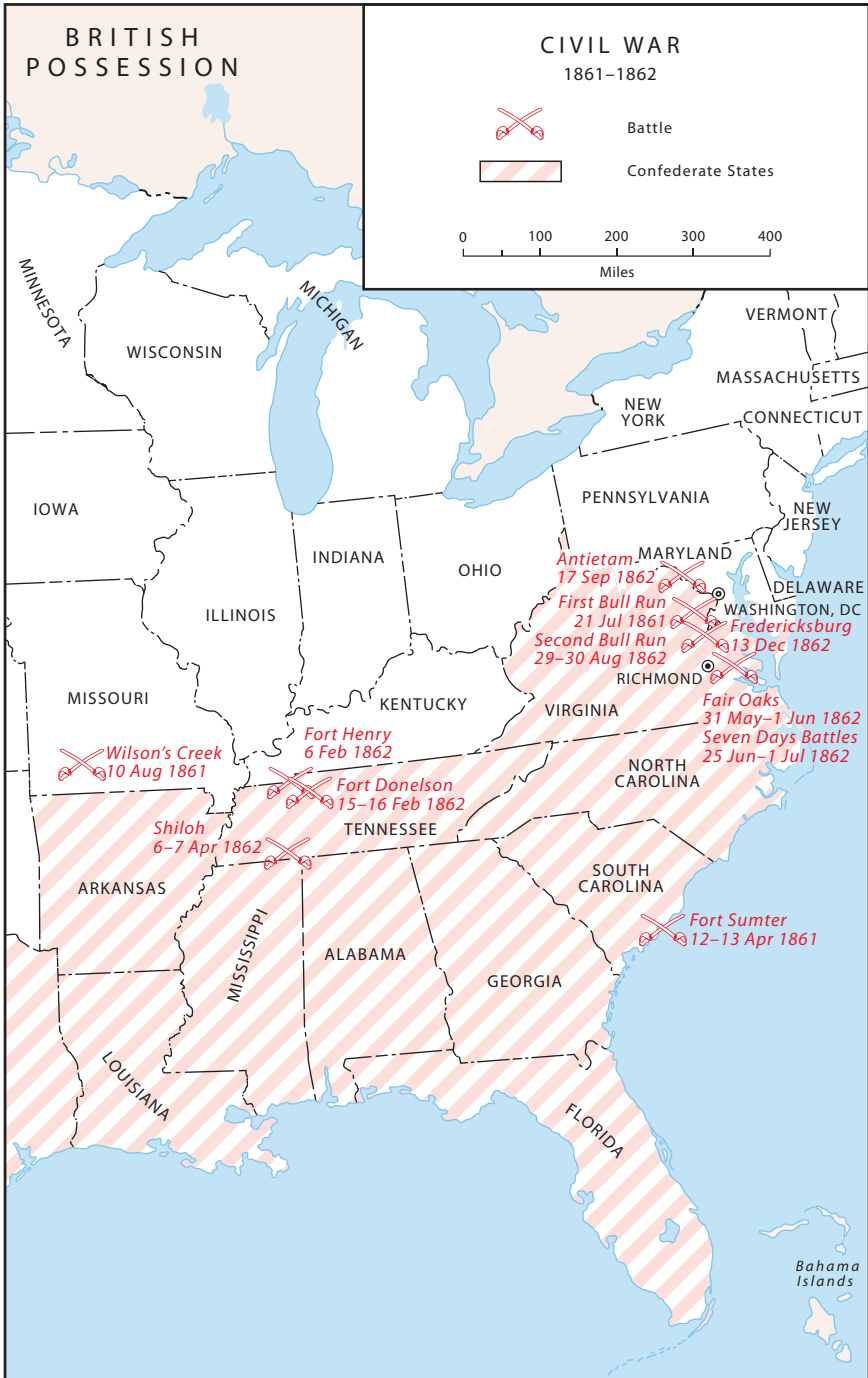


Battle of Shiloh by Thure de Thulstrup, c. 1888
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

western Tennessee and most of the Mississippi River. In April 1862, the bloodiest battle in American history up to that time occurred at Shiloh, Tennessee, a U.S. victory that resulted in over 23,000 total casualties. It was a grim warning of the carnage to come.

In the most visible theater of the war, however, the Army of the Potomac struggled against the Confederate Army of Northern Virginia commanded by General Robert E. Lee. After victories in the Seven Days Battles outside Richmond, Virginia, and at Second Bull Run in the summer of 1862, Lee's army invaded Maryland in the hope of encouraging European intervention. The U.S. victory in the Battle of Antietam in September 1862 forced Lee to return to Virginia. It also enabled President Lincoln to issue the preliminary Emancipation Proclamation, a war measure that declared the slaves in the Confederate states free as of New Year's Day 1863, and also authorized the U.S. Army and Navy to recruit military-age African Americans into their ranks. More than 180,000 Blacks enlisted in the Army. Formed into segregated units commanded by White officers, these soldiers made a crucial contribution to the U.S. war effort.

The Army of the Potomac's defeats at Fredericksburg in December 1862 and Chancellorsville in May 1863 brought the U.S. effort in the East no closer to success than it had been at the start of the war. Under the command of Maj. Gen. George G. Meade, however, it defeated the Army of Northern Virginia at Gettysburg in July 1863. The victory repulsed Lee's last invasion of the North and inflicted losses that the South could no longer replace.



Map 2



Company E, 4th U.S. Colored Infantry at Fort Lincoln, by William Morris Smith, c. 1866 (Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

On the Fourth of July, General Grant captured Vicksburg, Mississippi, after a lengthy siege and split the Confederacy in two, giving the United States control of the entire Mississippi River. The following November, the U.S. armies under Grant defeated the Confederate Army of Tennessee in the Battle of Chattanooga, opening the Southern heartland to invasion.

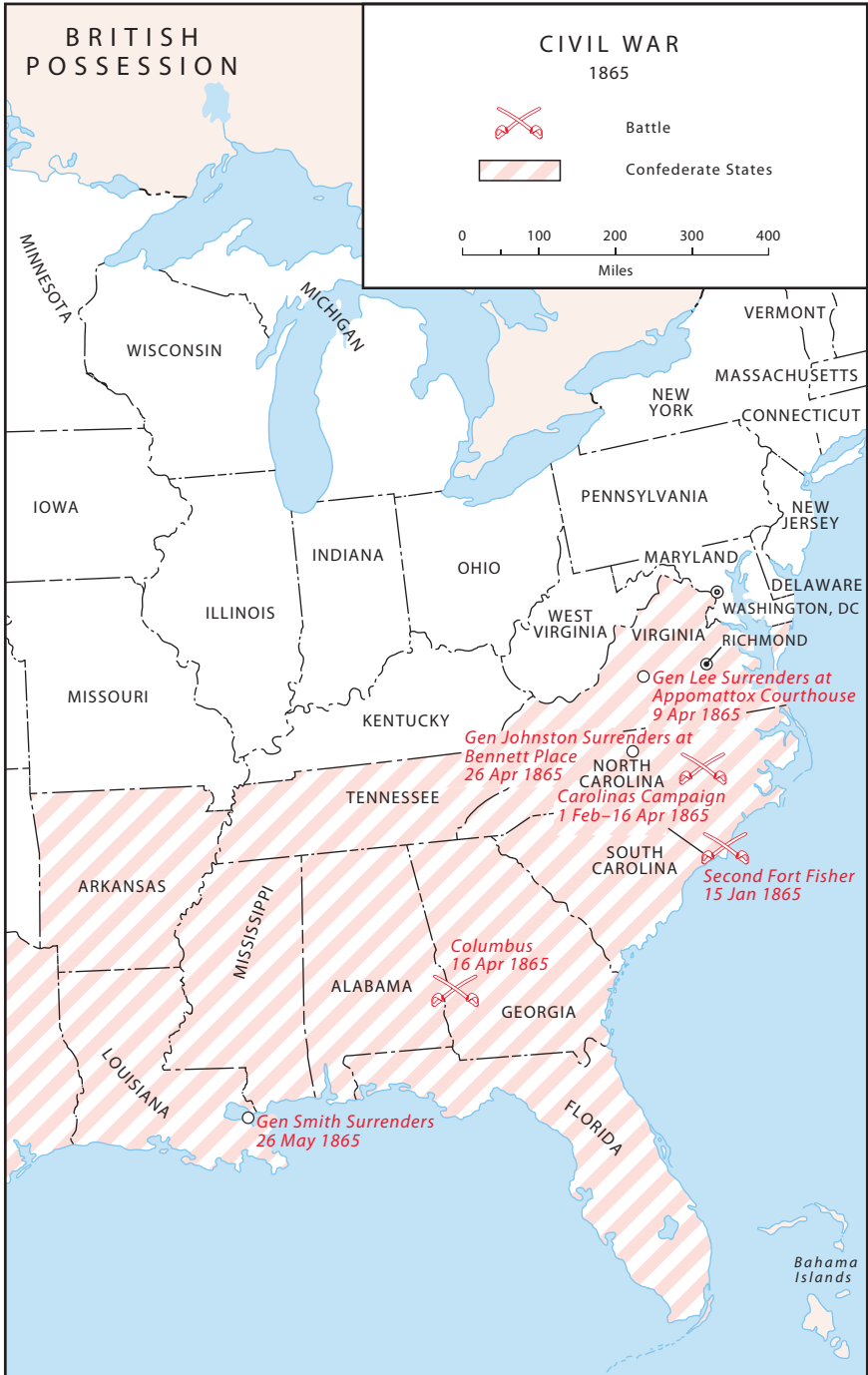
In March 1864, President Lincoln promoted Grant to lieutenant general and appointed him general in chief of the U.S. Army. Grant planned not only to annihilate the Confederate armies, but also to destroy the South's means of supporting them. Grant wore down Lee's army at the Wilderness, Spotsylvania Courthouse, and Petersburg during the campaigns of 1864 and 1865. His handpicked commander in the Deep South, General Sherman, captured Atlanta on 2 September 1864, ensuring Lincoln's reelection that fall. He then drove through the heart of Georgia and the Carolinas, destroying farms and factories, tearing up railroads, and otherwise obliterating the economic infrastructure of those regions. Cavalry raids and other U.S. operations such as the joint Army-Navy capture of Fort Fisher, which closed the vital blockade-running port of Wilmington, North Carolina, also advanced Grant's goal of destroying the Confederates' means of resistance. In April 1865, the Confederacy's two largest field armies surrendered at Appomattox Courthouse, Virginia, and at Bennett Place near Durham, North Carolina.

The Army's role in reunifying the nation did not end with Lee's surrender to Grant at Appomattox. To restore Southern allegiance to the United States, the Army had established wartime military governments in occupied areas, cracking down on Confederate guerrillas while providing food, schools, and improved sanitation to the destitute. This role continued after the collapse of the Confederacy, especially when the Republican Congress overrode President Andrew Johnson's lenient Reconstruction program in 1867 and



*Battle of Spotsylvania [sic] by Thure de Thulstrup, 1887
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)*





Map 4

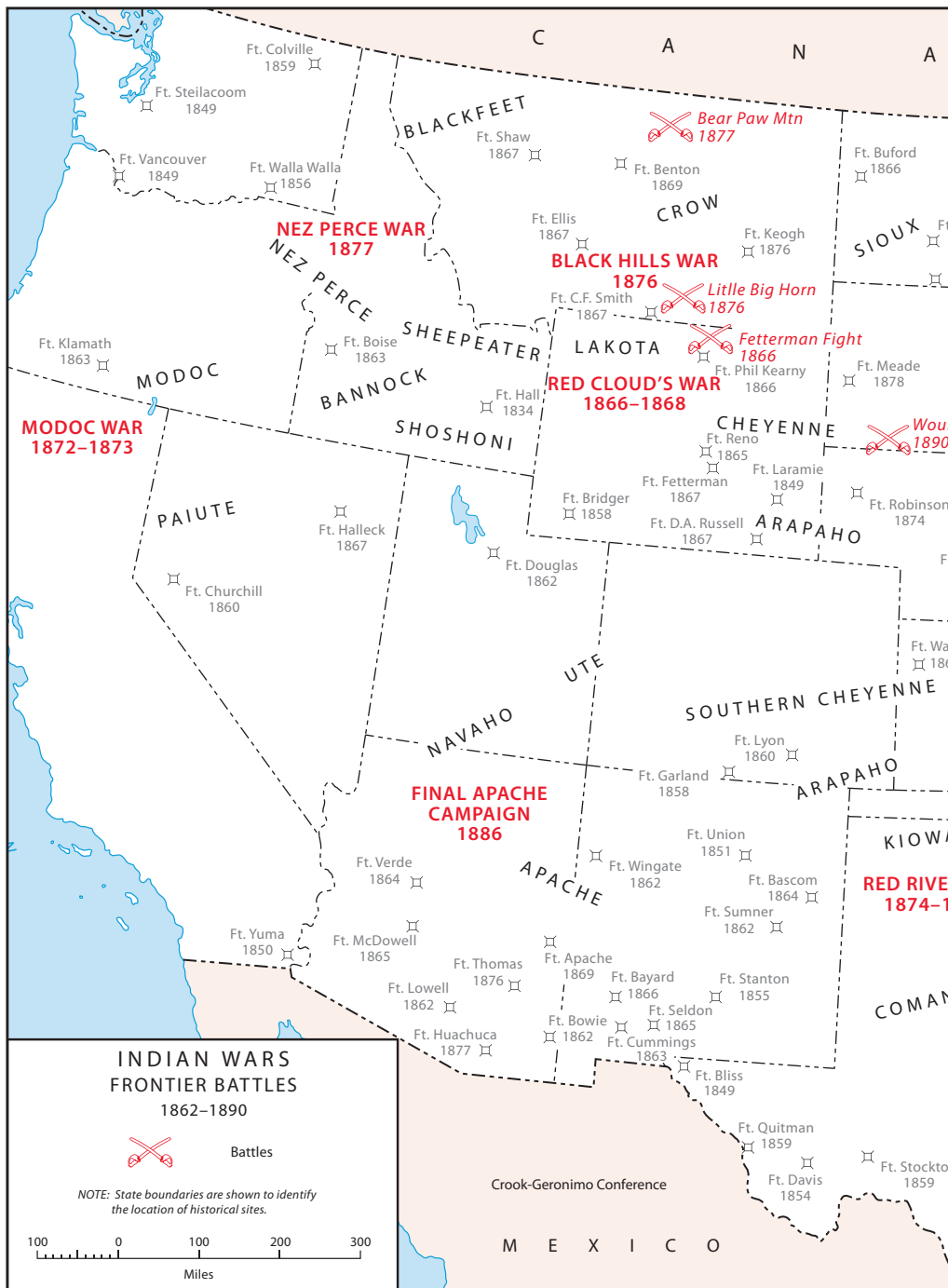


The Freedmen's Bureau by A. R. Waud, from *Harper's Weekly*, 25 July 1868
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

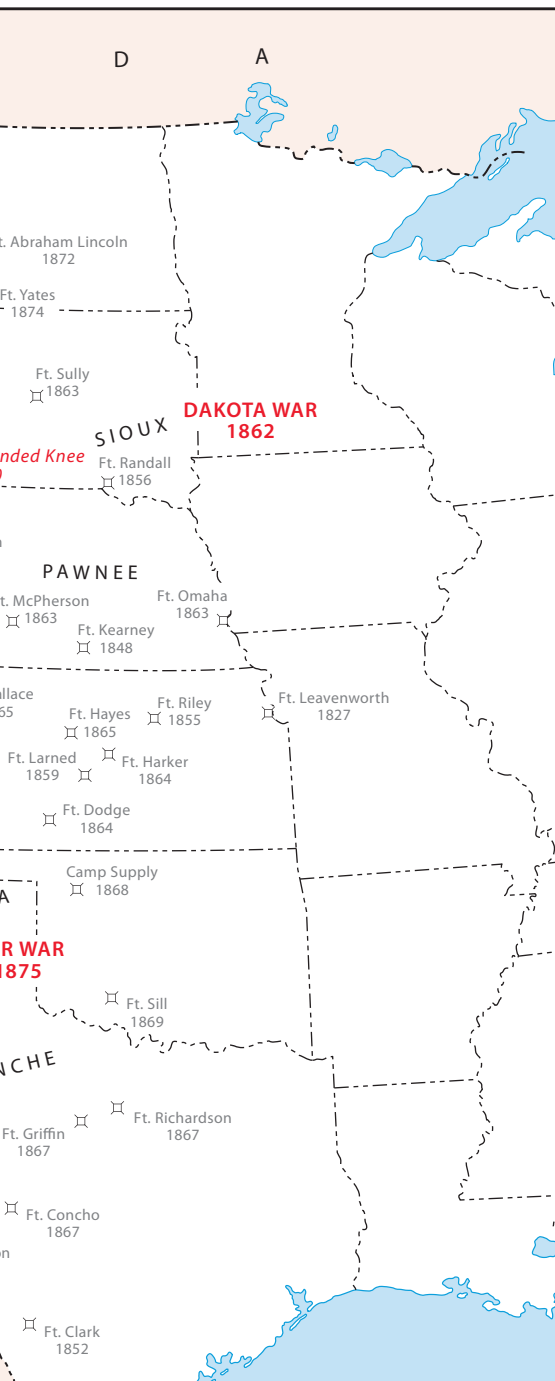
adopted its own tougher plan to restore the Southern states to the United States. The Army served as an occupation force and was the main means of enforcing Reconstruction efforts. Its most critical task was to protect newly freed African Americans and loyal Whites from white supremacist, paramilitary organizations such as the Ku Klux Klan. Acting through the Freedmen's Bureau, the Army provided relief for African Americans and indigent Whites, supplying twenty-one million rations, operating over fifty hospitals, arranging wage labor and establishing schools for freed Blacks.

The Army's task became increasingly difficult as support for Reconstruction waned and as occupation forces decreased in numbers. By the early 1870s, the Freedmen's Bureau had ceased operations as congressional funding for it dwindled to nothing. The Army's thankless but essential role in Reconstruction ended with the withdrawal of the last occupation troops from the South in 1877.

After the Civil War, the bulk of the Regular Army returned to its traditional role of frontier constabulary. Army officers negotiated treaties with the Lakota, Cheyenne, and other western tribes, and tried to maintain order between the Native Americans and the prospectors, hunters, ranchers, and farmers flooding into the West. When hostilities erupted, soldiers moved to force Native Americans onto reservations. In most cases, the tribes lacked the capacity or desire to challenge an Army unit of any size. In June 1876, however, at Little Bighorn in Montana Territory,



Map 5



George A. Custer, taken as a brevet major general
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

the Lakota, Northern Cheyenne, and Arapaho tribes combined their fighting forces and annihilated Lt. Col. George A. Custer's 7th U.S. Cavalry. This victory proved short-lived, as the Army, aroused by "Custer's Last Stand," campaigned through the winter to force the Lakota onto their reservations. By 1890, the combination of unrelenting Army campaigns with the pressure of advancing western settlement effectively ended Native American resistance throughout the West. On 29 December, soldiers of the 7th Cavalry under Col. James W. Forsyth indiscriminately killed several hundred Lakota men, women, and children at Wounded Knee, South Dakota. The massacre brought the century-long conflict between the Army and Native Americans to a shameful conclusion.

TIMELINE

First, Second, and Third Seminole Wars (1817–1818, 1835–1842, 1855–1858)

Black Hawk War (1832)

Second Creek War (1836)

1842–1845

John C. Frémont Expeditions

Mexican-American War (1846–1848)

1846

8 May: Battle of Palo Alto

9 May: Battle of Resaca de la Palma

21–24 September: Battle of Monterrey

1847

22–23 February: Battle of Buena Vista

9–29 March: Siege of Veracruz

18 April: Battle of Cerro Gordo

19–20 August: Battles of Contreras and Churubusco

8 September: Battle of Molino del Rey

12–13 September: Battle of Chapultepec

14 September: Capture of Mexico City

1848

2 February: Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo signed

1853–1855

U.S. Army Transcontinental Railroad Surveys

Civil War (1861–1865)

1861

12–13 April: Battle of Fort Sumter

21 July: Battle of Bull Run

10 August: Battle of Wilson's Creek

1862

6 February: Battle of Fort Henry

15–16 February: Battle of Fort Donelson

6–7 April: Battle of Shiloh

31 May–1 June: Battle of Fair Oaks

25 June–1 July: Seven Days Battles

29–30 August: Second Battle of Bull Run

17 September: Battle of Antietam

13 December: Battle of Fredericksburg

1863

29 March–4 July 1863: Vicksburg Campaign

1–4 May: Battle of Chancellorsville

1–3 July: Battle of Gettysburg

18–20 September: Battle of Chickamauga

23–25 November: Battle of Chattanooga

1864

4 May–14 June: Overland Campaign (includes Battles of the Wilderness and Spotsylvania Courthouse)

7 May–2 September: Atlanta Campaign

15 June–2 April 1865: Petersburg Campaign (includes Battles of the Crater and Chaffin's Farm)

15 November–21 December: Savannah Campaign (Sherman's March to the Sea)

30 November: Battle of Franklin

15–16 December: Battle of Nashville

1865

15 January: Second Battle of Fort Fisher

1 February–16 April: Carolinas Campaign (includes Battle of Bentonville)

9 April: General Robert E. Lee surrenders to Lt. Gen. Ulysses S. Grant at Appomattox Courthouse

16 April: Battle of Columbus, Georgia

26 April: General Joseph E. Johnston surrenders to Maj. Gen. William T. Sherman at Bennett Place

26 May: General Edmund Kirby Smith surrenders the Trans-Mississippi Department to Maj. Gen. Edward R. S. Canby, the last major Confederate troop surrender of the war

Dakota War (1862)

Reconstruction in the South (1865–1877)

Red Cloud's War (1866–1868)

1866

21 December: Fetterman Fight

Modoc War (1872–1873)

Red River War (1874–1875)

Black Hills War (1876)

25–26 June: Battle of the Little Bighorn

Nez Perce War (1877)

30 September–5 October: Battle of Bear Paw

1878

Posse Comitatus Act

1881

7 May: Command and General Staff College established

Final Apache Campaign (1886)

Ghost Dance Campaign (1890)

29 December: Wounded Knee Massacre



*Winfield Scott, print by R. Dudensing, c. 1861
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)*

PEOPLE, ARTIFACTS, AND EVENTS

Known as the “Grand Old Man of the Army,” **Maj. Gen. Winfield Scott** served as a general officer from the War of 1812 to the Civil War, a forty-seven-year stretch that remains unequaled in the U.S. Army. As a twenty-seven-year-old brigadier general, Scott received the nickname “Old Fuss and Feathers” for his insistence on military discipline and appearance. Yet his efforts helped to transform his infantry brigade into an elite fighting force that defeated British regulars in the Battle of Chippewa. After the War of 1812, he helped upgrade and standardize Army drill regulations.

In the 1830s, Scott faced Native American tribes that refused to relocate under government coercion. He led an indecisive campaign in the Second Seminole War and then defeated the Muscogee in the Creek War of 1836. In 1838, he oversaw the Cherokee Removal, known as the “Trail of Tears.” Despite widespread criticism for doing so, he approved Chief John Ross’s plan that enabled the Cherokee to lead their own westward movement. On 5 July 1841, Scott became Commanding General of the U.S. Army, and stressed the importance of professional schooling for the officer corps. In the Mexican-American War, he led the campaign that culminated in the capture of Mexico City and the defeat of the Mexican army. Upon hearing the news, the famed British general Arthur Wellesley, 1st Duke of Wellington—who in 1815 had triumphed over the forces of Napoleon Bonaparte at the Battle of Waterloo—praised Scott as “the greatest living soldier.” At the start of the Civil War, Scott was seventy-four and in poor health, so he retired in November 1861 after fifty-three years of service. He lived to see the United States win the war, dying at West Point on 29 May 1866.



General Ulysses S. Grant at his headquarters in Cold Harbor, Virginia, c. June 1864. Grant was a lieutenant general when E. G. Fowx took this photo. (Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

At the outbreak of the Civil War, **Lt. Gen. Ulysses S. Grant** was working as a clerk in the family store at Galena, Illinois. A graduate of West Point and a decorated veteran of the Mexican-American War, Grant had resigned from the Army in 1854 amid allegations of chronic drunkenness. He jumped at the chance to volunteer again in the U.S. Army, and in August 1861, received a commission as brigadier general. Two victories in February 1862 at Forts Henry and Donelson in western Tennessee earned him the nickname “Unconditional Surrender” Grant and made him a public figure. A few months later, a Confederate surprise attack at Shiloh caught Grant’s army off-balance and resulted in heavy casualties. Although the arrival of U.S. reinforcements enabled Grant to defeat the Southerners, President Abraham Lincoln received several demands for his removal from command. Lincoln refused, saying, “I can’t spare this man. He fights.”

Grant’s Vicksburg Campaign, which stretched for much of 1863, is a tribute to his tenacity and resourcefulness. After two assaults failed to break through Vicksburg’s strong defenses, Grant settled in for a lengthy siege, which ended with the Confederates’ surrender on the Fourth of July. Later in 1863, Grant routed the Confederates at Chattanooga, solidifying his reputation as the North’s premier field commander. In March 1864, President Lincoln promoted Grant to lieutenant general and appointed him general in chief of the U.S. Army. Heading east, Grant made his headquarters with the Army of the Potomac, determined to crush Robert E. Lee’s Army of Northern Virginia. In some of the most savage fighting of the war, Grant steadily hammered away at Lee’s army in the spring and summer of 1864, leading to the fall of Richmond and Lee’s surrender at Appomattox Courthouse in April 1865. Grant went on to serve two terms as the eighteenth president of the United States, overseeing Reconstruction and the Army’s efforts to eliminate the Ku Klux Klan.

Just twenty-two years old in the summer of 1863, **1st Lt. Alonzo H. Cushing** was a graduate of West Point and the veteran of a half-dozen major battles. At Gettysburg, he commanded the 126 men and 6 guns of Battery A, 4th U.S. Artillery. On 3 July 1863, Cushing's battery occupied a position in the center of the U.S. line known as the Angle. At about 1300, the Confederates opened a 150-gun artillery barrage on the U.S. Army. A veteran of Cushing's battery recalled, "Every few seconds a shot or shell would strike in among our guns. . . . Men and horses were being torn to pieces on all sides." During the cannonade, Cushing sustained severe wounds in his right shoulder and abdomen. Extreme blood loss left him too weak to issue orders to his gun crews, so he called on his first sergeant, Frederick W. Fuger, to speak for him. When Fuger urged him to go to the rear, Cushing refused, saying that he would "fight it out or die in the attempt." The Confederate barrage left Cushing with only two functioning cannons; worse yet, dead and wounded artillery soldiers covered the ground all around him. Anticipating an enemy assault, Cushing ordered his crews to haul their remaining guns to a low stone wall a short distance to the front.

After the Southern cannons fell silent, around 13,000 Confederate foot soldiers received the order to fall in and dress ranks. At 1500, they began the three-quarter-mile advance toward the U.S. line on Cemetery Ridge. The assault known as Pickett's Charge had begun. As the Confederate line approached to within range, Cushing had Sergeant Fuger order his two guns to open fire with solid shot, spherical case, and finally canister. The cannon balls and shrapnel tore huge gaps in the Confederate ranks. As the attackers rushed toward the stone wall, a bullet struck Cushing in the face, killing him. More than 151 years later, President Barack H. Obama posthumously presented Cushing with the Medal of Honor for his heroism, which contributed mightily to the repulse of Pickett's Charge.



Alonzo H. Cushing, taken c. May 1861, when he was a West Point cadet (*Wisconsin Historical Society*)



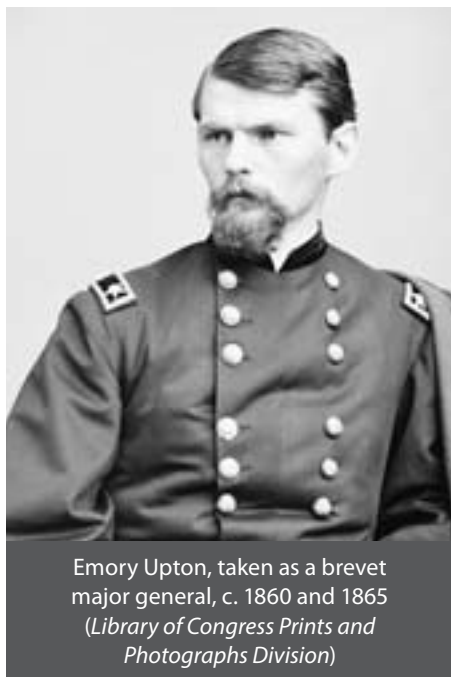
Nelson A. Miles, taken as a brevet major general, c. 1861–1870
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

In the course of a forty-two-year career in the U.S. Army, **Lt. Gen. Nelson A. Miles** rose from private to Commanding General. During the Civil War, he was wounded while leading troops at Fair Oaks. After a quick recovery, he commanded the 61st New York Infantry at Antietam, Fredericksburg, and Chancellorsville, where he again was wounded, this time so severely that Army surgeons did not expect him to survive. Miles eventually recovered from his injuries but was disappointed at missing the Battle of Gettysburg. Returning to the Army, he served at the Wilderness and Spotsylvania Courthouse and received a promotion to brigadier general. Miles went on to command a brigade and then a division in the Petersburg and Appomattox Campaigns. After the war, he oversaw the incarceration of the former Confederate president, Jefferson F. Davis, at Fort Monroe, Virginia. Promoted to colonel in the Regular Army in July 1866, he assumed command of the 40th U.S. Infantry, a regiment of African American troops, and directed the Freedmen's Bureau in North Carolina.

Miles then headed west and became one of the most successful commanders on the post-Civil War frontier. In 1874–1875, he defeated Southern Plains Indian tribes in the Red River War. In 1876, after Custer's defeat at the Little Bighorn, Miles forced the Lakota and other Northern Plains tribes onto reservations or across the Canadian border. In the fall of 1877, he defeated the Nez Perce band led by Chief Joseph at the Battle of Bear Paw, Montana Territory. In 1880, Miles rose to brigadier general in the Regular Army. Six years later, he accepted the surrender of Geronimo's Apache force. In December 1890, as a major general, Miles commanded the force that was responsible for killing or wounding roughly 200 Lakota at Wounded Knee, South Dakota. From his headquarters at Fort Sheridan, Illinois, Miles relieved the commander on the scene, Col. James W. Forsyth, for what he considered "a horrible massacre of women and children."

Although the Posse Comitatus Act of 1878 put severe limitations on the use of federal troops in law enforcement, President Grover Cleveland directed that Miles help put down the Pullman Strike in 1894. The following year, he became commanding general of the U.S. Army. During the Spanish-American War, Miles led the invasion of Puerto Rico, serving as the first head of the military government on that island. Promoted to lieutenant general in 1900, Miles left the Army in 1903, having reached the mandatory retirement age of sixty-four. When the United States entered World War I, the seventy-seven-year-old Miles volunteered his services, but President Woodrow Wilson politely declined his offer.

A brilliant and driven young West Pointer, **Brig. Gen. Emory Upton** was that rare Civil War officer who excelled whether leading artillery, infantry, or cavalry. He was also a tactical innovator who sought to achieve decisive results at minimal cost. At Spotsylvania Courthouse, he attempted an assault in depth with a single infantry brigade using fixed bayonets only. The shock of the attack caused a breakthrough, but Upton could not exploit it because reinforcements for his troops failed to arrive as planned. Yet Upton's partial success so impressed General Grant that he attempted a similar assault a few days later with an entire corps. At Columbus, Georgia, during the closing days of the war, Upton led his cavalry division on a night assault—a feat seldom attempted during the Civil War—that overwhelmed the Confederate defenders.



Emory Upton, taken as a brevet major general, c. 1860 and 1865
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

After the war, Upton became one of the Army's most visionary reformers. He served on a board that developed a new system of infantry tactics, and then was commandant of cadets at West Point for five years, during which he taught artillery, cavalry, and infantry tactics. At the behest of the Commanding General, William T. Sherman, Upton went on a global tour to study foreign armed forces, and the result was *The Armies of Europe and Asia*, in which he warned that European armies had achieved a level of professionalism far in advance of the U.S. Army. Among his numerous recommendations were the expansible army concept, a general staff based on the Prussian model, and the creation of advanced military schools. Upton's most controversial work, *The Military Policy of the United States from 1775*, was unfinished at the time of his death in 1881. The Army ultimately would adopt most of his proposed reforms, paving the way for the highly professional organization that emerged in the early twentieth century.



Christian A. Fleetwood
*(Library of Congress Prints and
Photographs Division)*

Born free in Baltimore, Maryland, **Sgt. Maj. Christian A. Fleetwood** received early education from his father's employer, a wealthy sugar merchant. He then graduated from the Ashmun Institute in Pennsylvania in 1860, and became a cofounder of one of the first newspapers with African American ownership in the South. In August 1863, Fleetwood enlisted in the 4th U.S. Colored Infantry; because of his education and experience, he became the regiment's sergeant major, then the highest rank a black soldier could attain. The unit served in the Petersburg Campaign, including the disastrous Battle of the Crater on 30 July 1864.

On 29 September, Fleetwood and the 4th U.S. Colored Infantry fought in the Battle of Chaffin's Farm. During a charge on Confederate fortifications, the color-bearers carrying the regimental and the national flags fell wounded. Fleetwood and another soldier seized the colors and led the attack. Unfortunately, the defenders held firm, and the assault proved futile. Nevertheless, Fleetwood and thirteen other African American soldiers received the Medal of Honor for their heroic actions at Chaffin's Farm. Transferred to North Carolina for the operations to capture Fort Fisher, Fleetwood and the 4th Regiment completed their wartime service under General Sherman's command.



Dr. Mary E. Walker wearing her Medal of Honor
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

The only woman to receive the Medal of Honor thus far, **Dr. Mary E. Walker** was also one of the first licensed female physicians in the United States. At the outbreak of the Civil War, Walker volunteered as a surgeon, but the Army rejected her because of her gender, even though she had years of experience as a private-practice physician. Determined to contribute in any way she could, Walker initially served as a nurse at the Battle of Bull Run, followed by work as an unpaid volunteer surgeon at the Battle of Fredericksburg and the Battle of Chickamauga in north Georgia. In September 1863, the Army of the Cumberland hired Walker as a contract surgeon. In addition to her service with the Army, she treated civilian patients, sometimes crossing into enemy territory to do so. On 10 April 1864, Confederate soldiers arrested her during one such mission of mercy, believing that she was a spy. She spent four months in the notorious Confederate prison, Castle Thunder in Richmond, Virginia, before her exchange in August 1864.

After the war, President Andrew Johnson presented Walker with the Medal of Honor in recognition of her service. She proudly wore the medal for the rest of her life, even though the Army later stripped it from her because of a technicality. In 1977, however, the Army posthumously restored Walker's medal.



Anton Mazzanovich
(National Museum of the U.S. Army)

A native of Lesina in the Austrian Empire (now Hvar, Croatia), **Pvt. Anton Mazzanovich** enlisted in the 21st U.S. Infantry as a musician in January 1870. Mazzanovich said that he was eleven years old, but he was actually nine—probably the youngest soldier in the Regular Army’s ranks. Three years later, he received a discharge at his father’s request to help support his family. He returned to the Army in 1881 and served with the 6th U.S. Cavalry in present-day Arizona. Honorably discharged in July 1882, he became a civilian scout during the Army’s final campaign against Geronimo’s Apache. After his military service, Mazzanovich worked as a saloonkeeper, actor, and author. His memoir, *Trailing Geronimo*, is his best known publication.



Y. B. Rowdy (Find a Grave)

A Yavapai Indian, **Sgt. Yuma William “Bill” Rowdy** was born and raised in present-day Arizona and served in Company A of the U.S. Army’s Indian Scouts. On 7 March 1890, Sergeant Rowdy fought in an action against renegade Apaches during the Cherry Creek Campaign—four years after the surrender of Geronimo and his band. In recognition of his bravery, Rowdy received the Medal of Honor two months later. He died on 29 March 1893 and was buried in the Old Post Cemetery at Fort Grant in Arizona Territory. In 1907, the Army moved his remains to the Santa Fe National Cemetery in modern New Mexico, where he lies beside eight other Medal of Honor recipients.



“Buffalo Soldiers” is the nickname for African American troops who served in four segregated Regular Army regiments: the 9th and 10th U.S. Cavalry, and the 24th and 25th U.S. Infantry. Formed in the post-Civil War era, they fought in most of the western frontier campaigns, with eighteen soldiers receiving the Medal of Honor. Their duties also included roadbuilding, escorting the U.S. mail, and park ranger service. The first nonwhite officer to command Buffalo Soldiers was 2d Lt. Henry O. Flipper, who joined the 10th Cavalry in 1877. Flipper was the first African American to graduate from West Point.

Buffalo Soldiers of the 25th U.S. Infantry at Fort Keogh, Montana Territory, 1890. Some are wearing buffalo hide coats. (Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)



The term Buffalo Soldiers originated with Native Americans, some of whom compared the Black soldiers' dark, curly hair to a buffalo's mane. Other Native Americans noted the buffalo hide coats they wore in cold weather, and still others paid tribute to their bison-like toughness in battle. The nickname became a generic term for all black soldiers. The Army now uses it to denote units that trace their lineage back to these African American regiments.



Civil War Medal of Honor
(National Museum of the U.S. Army)

On 15 February 1862, Senator Henry Wilson introduced a resolution for a **Medal of Honor for the Army**. Congress approved the resolution and the president signed it into law on 12 July 1862. The measure provided for a Medal of Honor to noncommissioned officers and privates who distinguished themselves “by their gallantry in action and other soldier-like qualities during the present insurrection.” On 3 March 1863, Congress made the Medal of Honor a permanent decoration and extended eligibility to commissioned officers. Three weeks later, Secretary of War Edwin M. Stanton presented the Medal of Honor—initially a five-point bronze star coated in copper—to six soldiers who had participated in the Andrews Raid in April 1862. The raid had involved the hijacking of *The General*, a Confederate locomotive, in an effort to destroy bridges and railroad tracks in north Georgia. The first recipient was Pvt. Jacob W. Parrott, an Ohio soldier whom the Confederates had captured and beaten. Afterward, the recipients met President Lincoln at the White House, a ceremony that soon became a tradition. More than 2,400 soldiers have received the Medal of Honor since then.



U.S. Army forage cap with red Maltese cross badge, signifying 1st Division, V Corps (*Heritage Auction Galleries*)

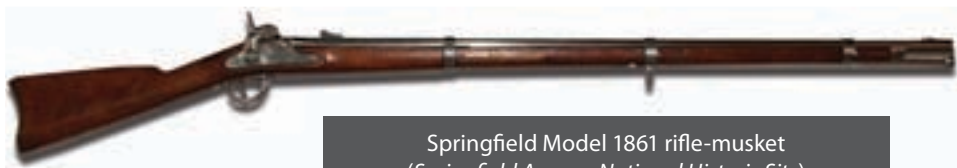
The idea for the **corps badge** reportedly originated in the summer of 1862 with Maj. Gen. Philip Kearny, who ordered the men in his division to wear a two-inch-square piece of red cloth on their hats to maintain unit cohesion while in battle. When Maj. Gen. Joseph Hooker assumed command of the Army of the Potomac in January 1863, he adopted Kearny's idea and expanded it army-wide to make any soldier's unit affiliation easily identifiable. Hooker gave the task of devising distinctive shapes—such as a diamond or a star—for each corps badge to his chief of staff, Maj. Gen. Daniel A. Butterfield. Butterfield stipulated that each division in a corps should have a different-colored badge: red for the first division, white for the second division, and blue for the third division. Corps with more than three divisions used other colors, such as green or yellow, for the additional units. Hooker directed that soldiers fasten their badges “upon the center of the top of the cap,” but other locations included the front of their cap or hat or over their left breast. In addition, corps and division flags bore the appropriate badge and color.

With a few exceptions, the other U.S. armies adopted this badge and flag scheme. The forerunners of today's shoulder patches, corps badges became a source of unit pride, and sometimes led to intense rivalry. For example, “The Battle of Acorn Run” is a nickname for the Battle of Bentonville, North Carolina, coined by soldiers of the XX Corps. They were alluding to the rout of a portion of the XIV Corps, whose badge was the acorn.

The **minié ball** is a hollow-based, cylindrical bullet developed in 1849 by a French Army officer, Claude-Étienne Minié (pronounced min-YAY), for muzzle-loading rifle-muskets such as the American Springfield Model 1861 and the British Pattern 1853 Enfield, both of which saw extensive use on Civil War battlefields. The barrels of the two weapons contain spiral grooves, or rifling, which impart a stabilizing spin to the similarly grooved minié ball, increasing its range and accuracy. The soft lead round also expands as the gunpowder heats up, creating a snug bullet-to-bore seal that maximizes muzzle velocity. The result is a weapon capable of inflicting far greater damage to a human body than the smoothbore musket could manage. When a minié ball struck bone, the bone usually shattered, necessitating amputation. Minié ball-induced amputations accounted for three out of four operations in Civil War hospitals. Worse yet, exit wounds were massive, and the resulting damage to organ tissue and major blood vessels was often fatal.



Minié balls
(Courtesy of Mike Cumpston)



Springfield Model 1861 rifle-musket
(Springfield Armory National Historic Site)

In addition to its other advantages, the minié ball was easier to load than the ball for the old long rifle. It was smaller than the diameter of the grooves and readily slid down the barrel, whereas the old rifle ball had to be encased in a cloth patch laced with wax or fat and then rammed down the barrel, which took time. The United States produced more than two billion “minnie balls,” as the soldiers called them, and it is estimated that they caused 100,000 deaths in the Civil War.



A pair of Model 1857 12-pound Napoleon field guns
(Courtesy of Michael McMurray)

The **Model 1857 12-Pound Napoleon Field Gun**—more popularly known as the 12-pounder Napoleon—was the most-used smoothbore cannon of the Civil War. Typical of the time, it was a muzzle-loading weapon, boasting a 1,220-pound bronze barrel based on a gun-howitzer developed by the French Army in 1853. It bore the name of the French Emperor, Napoleon III, nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte. Both safe and reliable, the 12-pound Napoleon had a maximum range of 1,700 yards and could fire solid shot, shell, spherical case, and canister. It was especially lethal when firing canister at short range. U.S. Brig. Gen. Alpheus S. Williams described the effect of several Napoleons firing canister on a large troop formation: “Each canister contains several [dozen] balls. They fell in the very front of the line and all along it apparently, stirring up a dust like a thick cloud. When the dust blew away, no regiment and not a living man was to be seen.”



Gatling gun
(Springfield Armory National Historic Site)

The brainchild of inventor Richard J. Gatling, the **Gatling gun** consisted of six barrels arranged around a center rod. Two people operated this machine gun mounted on a wheeled carriage. One person turned a hand crank, causing the barrels to rotate and fire, while a second fed ammunition cartridges into a hopper. As each barrel reached its lowest point, it fired a round and then reloaded on completing its revolution. Gatling first patented his gun in 1862 but continued to improve it. Nevertheless, a demonstration of the weapon left the Chief of Ordnance, Brig. Gen. James W. Ripley, less than impressed. He reportedly muttered, “You can kill a man just as dead with a . . . smooth-bore.”

Undaunted, Gatling persuaded Maj. Gen. Benjamin F. Butler to buy a few of his guns for a thousand dollars each, and they saw limited action in the siege of Petersburg. In 1865, Gatling obtained a patent for a weapon that could fire 350 rounds per minute. A demonstration of the improved Gatling gun at Fort Monroe, Virginia, convinced the new Chief of Ordnance—the War Department had reassigned Ripley—to order 100 guns. The Army officially adopted the Gatling gun on 24 August 1866. Although too late for the Civil War, it became a fixture on the western frontier. Much is made of Colonel Custer’s refusal to take along three Gatling guns on his ill-fated Little Bighorn expedition because he believed they would slow his progress. General Miles, however, found Gatling guns useful on campaign and had one on hand when he defeated Chief Joseph and the Nez Perce in the Battle of Bear Paw.



Capt. James W. Forsyth, a provost marshal in the Army of the Potomac, sits on a crate of hardtack at the army's supply base on Aquia Landing, Virginia. The crate indicates that the manufacturer is the Union Mechanical Baking Company of New York City. (*Library of Congress*)

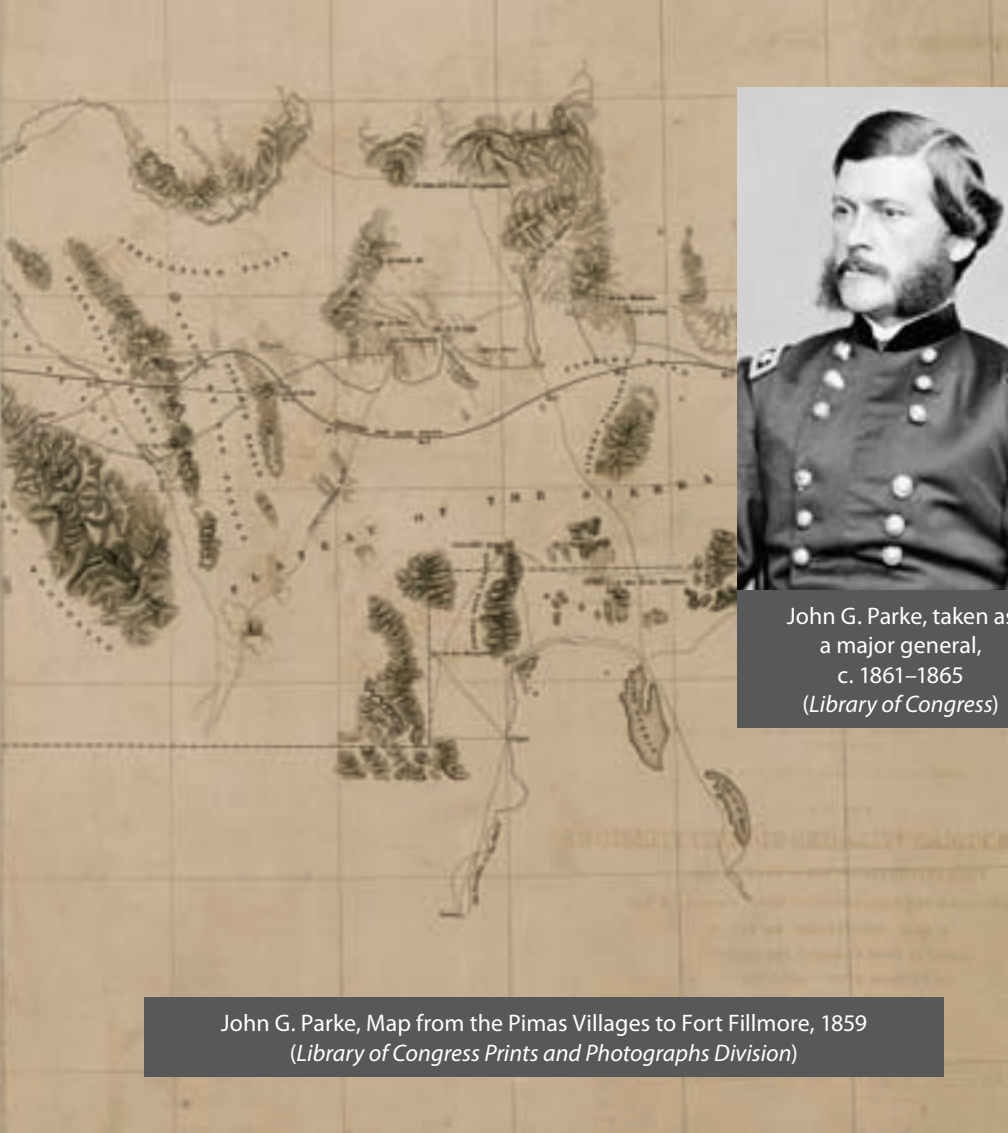
Inset: Civil War-era hardtack (T. T. Wentworth Jr. Florida State Museum)

Although northern manufacturers supplied U.S. troops with canned goods such as condensed milk and seafood, their availability was limited, restricting the quality and variety of **Civil War rations**. Yet the U.S. Army's Commissary General of Subsistence proved adept at keeping the soldiers in blue well fed, something the Confederate Commissary Department could rarely manage.

The staple of the soldier's daily ration was hardtack, a plain biscuit or cracker made of flour, water, and sometimes salt. Its chief virtue was durability—samples of Civil War-vintage hardtack are still on display in museums. U.S. soldiers also received coffee, sugar, rice, hominy, dried vegetables, molasses, and bacon or salt beef. Dissatisfied with such unappetizing fare, soldiers considered soft bread and fresh meat rare delicacies. Whenever possible, they supplemented their Army rations by purchasing these and other items from the sutler—a nineteenth-century forerunner of the modern post exchange—or by foraging on the local populace. As the war progressed, U.S. forces operating deep in Confederate territory relied increasingly on foraging and ultimately made it official practice.



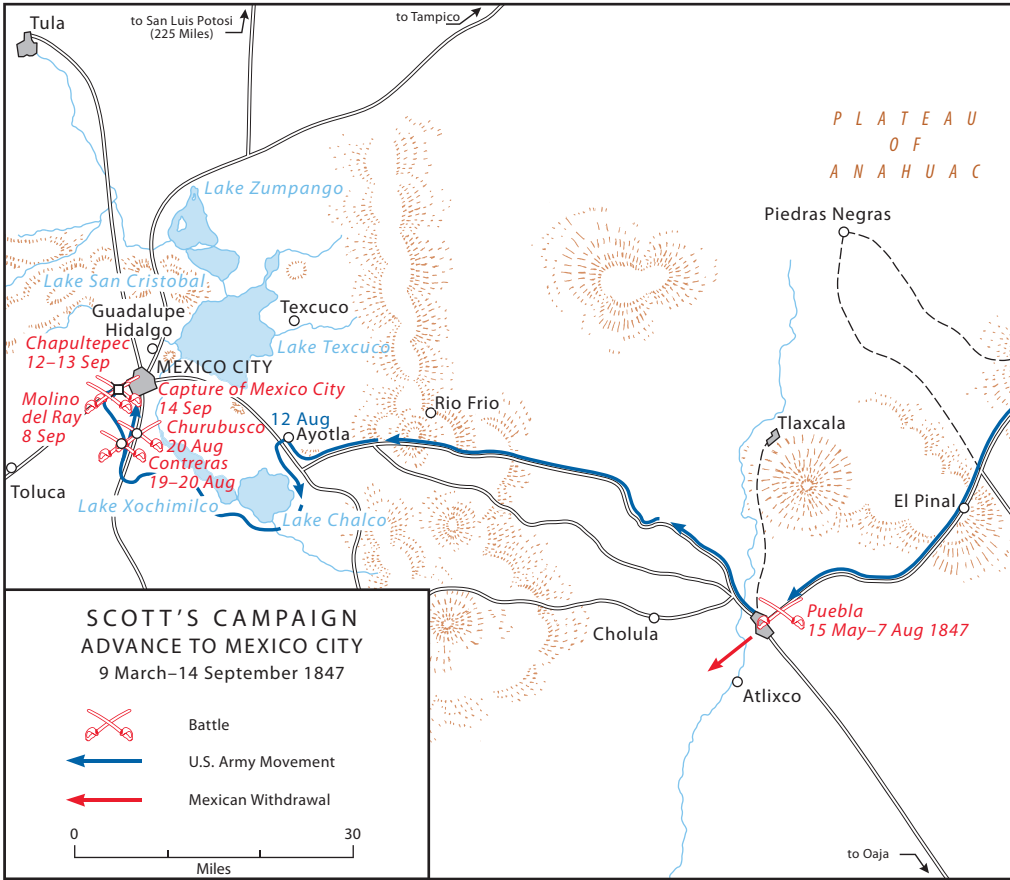
Invented in 1860 by Christopher Spencer, the **Spencer repeating rifle** was a lever-action weapon capable of firing seven rounds before reloading. Soldiers appreciated the Spencer's increased firepower—fourteen to twenty rounds per minute—and ease of use when compared with the single-shot, muzzle-loading rifle-musket, which could be loaded and fired just two or three times a minute. Yet the Army Ordnance Department initially disapproved of repeating rifles because of concerns that users would waste ammunition. This meant that a soldier who wanted a Spencer rifle had to pay about forty dollars out of pocket—roughly three months' pay for a private. Entire units such as Col. John T. Wilder's Lightning Brigade of mounted infantry wielded Spencer rifles, and Brig. Gen. James H. Wilson's cavalry corps opted for Spencer carbines because of their smaller size. In the end, about 200,000 soldiers and civilians believed Spencer repeating firearms were worth the cost.



John G. Parke, taken as a major general, c. 1861–1865
(Library of Congress)

John G. Parke, Map from the Pimas Villages to Fort Fillmore, 1859
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

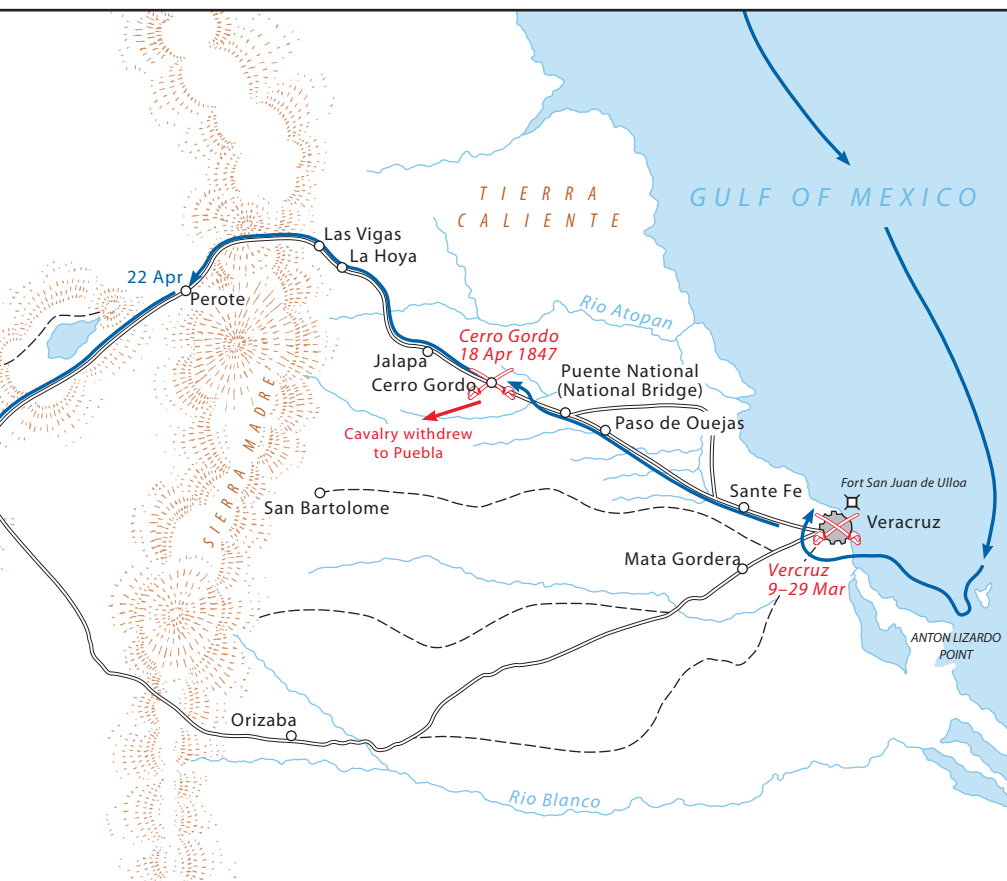
transcontinental routes surveyed. However, the Civil War intervened before work could start on what became the Southern Pacific Railroad. Parke headed east and served in the Army of the Potomac, rising to major general commanding the IX Corps. In 1865, a group of western business leaders established the Southern Pacific Railroad, and sixteen years later, the line formed part of the nation's second transcontinental railroad. Parke, meanwhile, served as commandant of cadets at West Point from 1887 until his retirement in 1889.



Map 6

Believing that a successful campaign from the Gulf coast to the national capital would force the Mexican commander, General Antonio López de Santa Anna, to concede defeat, President Polk launched **General Scott's Mexico City Campaign**. The American Army of 12,000 regulars and volunteers traveled by sea to the port of Veracruz. On 9 March 1847, it conducted the first major amphibious landing in the U.S. Army's history. After a twelve-day siege that included a massive combined Army-Navy barrage, the Mexican garrison surrendered.

On 18 April, Scott's Army fought Santa Anna's force at Cerro Gordo and routed it. Though victorious, Scott found it necessary to detach a garrison at Puebla to deal with guerrillas threatening his line of communications to Veracruz, and to protect the sick and wounded unable to travel with the Army. After the Battles of Contreras and



Churubusco—both American victories—Scott and Santa Anna agreed to a cease-fire. They opened peace negotiations, which broke down on 6 September. After victories in the Battles of Molino del Rey and Chapultepec—a colonial-era castle taken by frontal assault—the Americans occupied Mexico City on 14 September. Though defeated, Santa Anna sought to cut off Scott’s Army from the coast by laying siege to Puebla, but the Mexican commander’s inability to feed his troops resulted in the disintegration of his army.

Victory brought fresh problems for the Americans. For the first time in its history, the Army became an occupation force in a foreign capital, faced with the need to form a military government and restore order. As for Scott, he not only served as the military governor of Mexico City, but also became a national hero and a presidential hopeful.

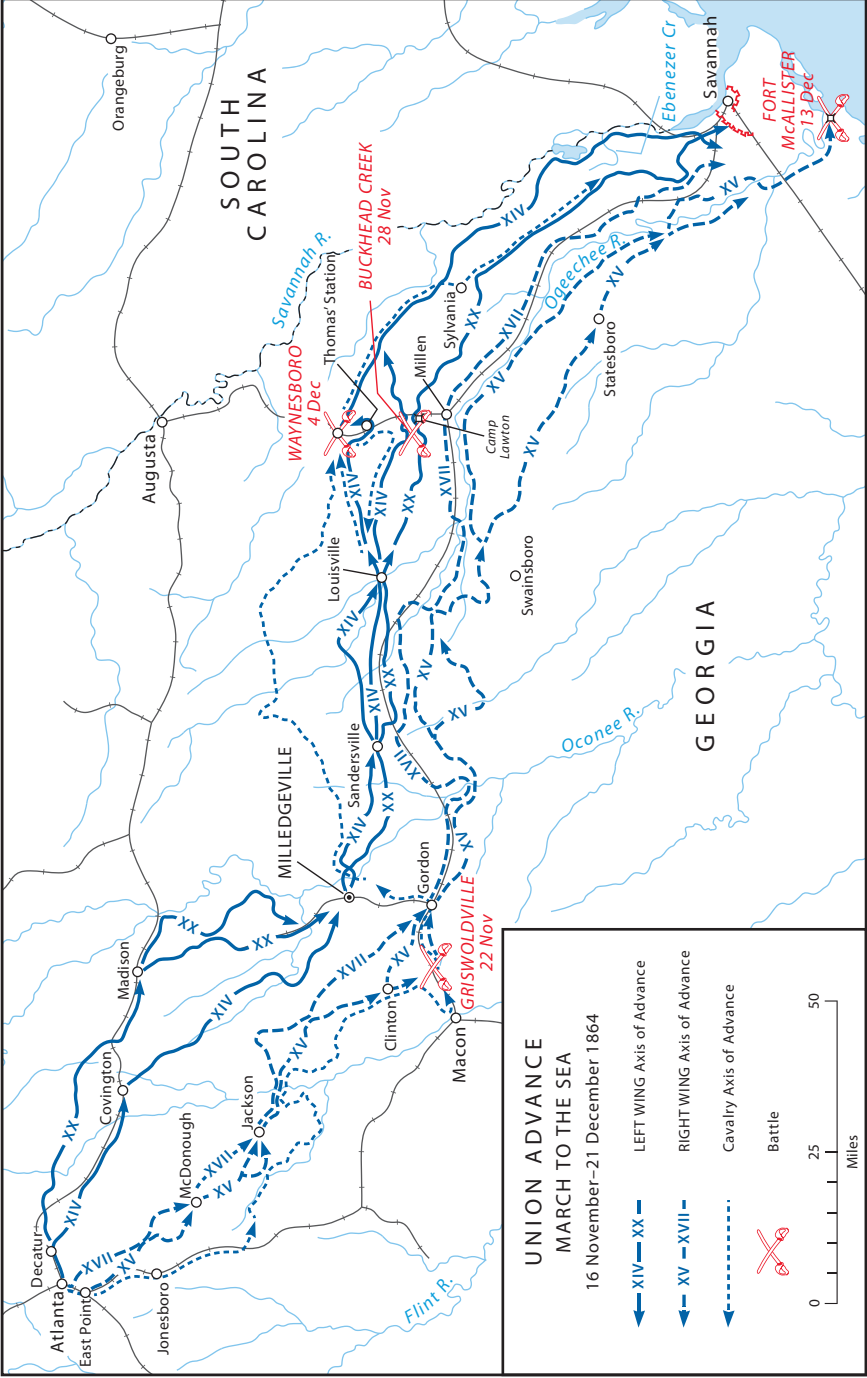


William T. Sherman
(National Archives)

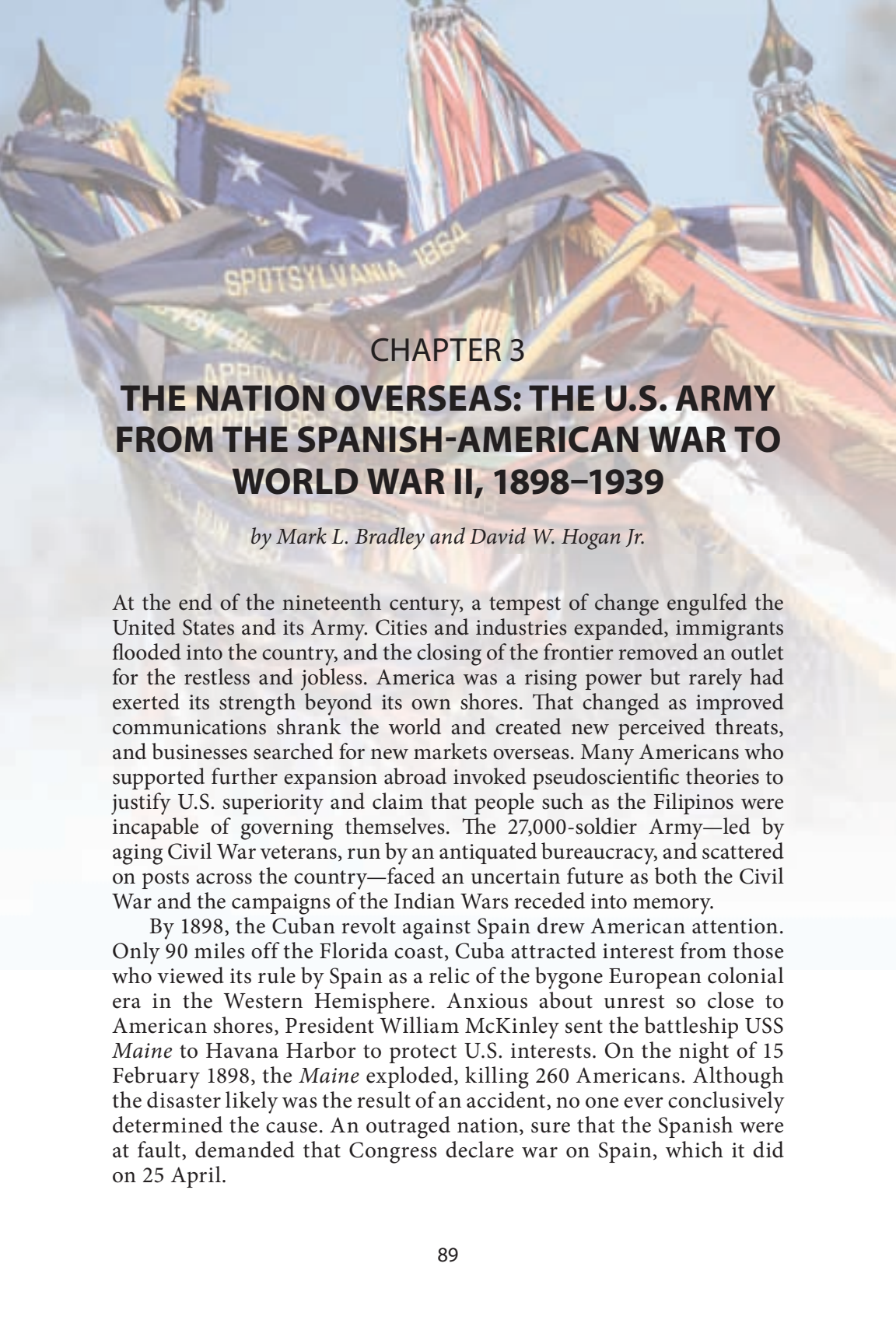
Maj. Gen. William T. **Sherman's March to the Sea** is the most notable example of his hard war strategy, which he brought to bear in the final year of the Civil War. From 15 November to 21 December 1864, Sherman's army group of 60,000 soldiers cut a swath through the center of Georgia, marching 285 miles from Atlanta to Savannah. Having severed his line of communications, the commanding general issued these standing orders for the campaign: "The army will forage liberally on the country." The soldiers zealously obeyed his directive. Sherman estimated that his forces consumed or destroyed \$100 million worth of civilian property—about \$1.6 billion in 2020 dollars. By damaging or destroying farms, factories, and railroads, Sherman's Army group hastened the collapse of the Confederate

war effort. Sherman argued that he was "not only fighting hostile armies, but a hostile people." His intent was to show Georgia civilians that the Confederate government could not protect them from "the hard hand of war," and that their only recourse was to demand an immediate end to hostilities.

Sherman's hard war strategy proved so successful that he used it on his march through the Carolinas in early 1865. In fact, South Carolina received even harsher treatment than Georgia did, for Sherman's troops were determined to make the Palmetto State suffer for being the "Cradle of Secession"—the first state to secede from the United States.



Map 7



CHAPTER 3

**THE NATION OVERSEAS: THE U.S. ARMY
FROM THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR TO
WORLD WAR II, 1898–1939**

by Mark L. Bradley and David W. Hogan Jr.

At the end of the nineteenth century, a tempest of change engulfed the United States and its Army. Cities and industries expanded, immigrants flooded into the country, and the closing of the frontier removed an outlet for the restless and jobless. America was a rising power but rarely had exerted its strength beyond its own shores. That changed as improved communications shrank the world and created new perceived threats, and businesses searched for new markets overseas. Many Americans who supported further expansion abroad invoked pseudoscientific theories to justify U.S. superiority and claim that people such as the Filipinos were incapable of governing themselves. The 27,000-soldier Army—led by aging Civil War veterans, run by an antiquated bureaucracy, and scattered on posts across the country—faced an uncertain future as both the Civil War and the campaigns of the Indian Wars receded into memory.

By 1898, the Cuban revolt against Spain drew American attention. Only 90 miles off the Florida coast, Cuba attracted interest from those who viewed its rule by Spain as a relic of the bygone European colonial era in the Western Hemisphere. Anxious about unrest so close to American shores, President William McKinley sent the battleship USS *Maine* to Havana Harbor to protect U.S. interests. On the night of 15 February 1898, the *Maine* exploded, killing 260 Americans. Although the disaster likely was the result of an accident, no one ever conclusively determined the cause. An outraged nation, sure that the Spanish were at fault, demanded that Congress declare war on Spain, which it did on 25 April.

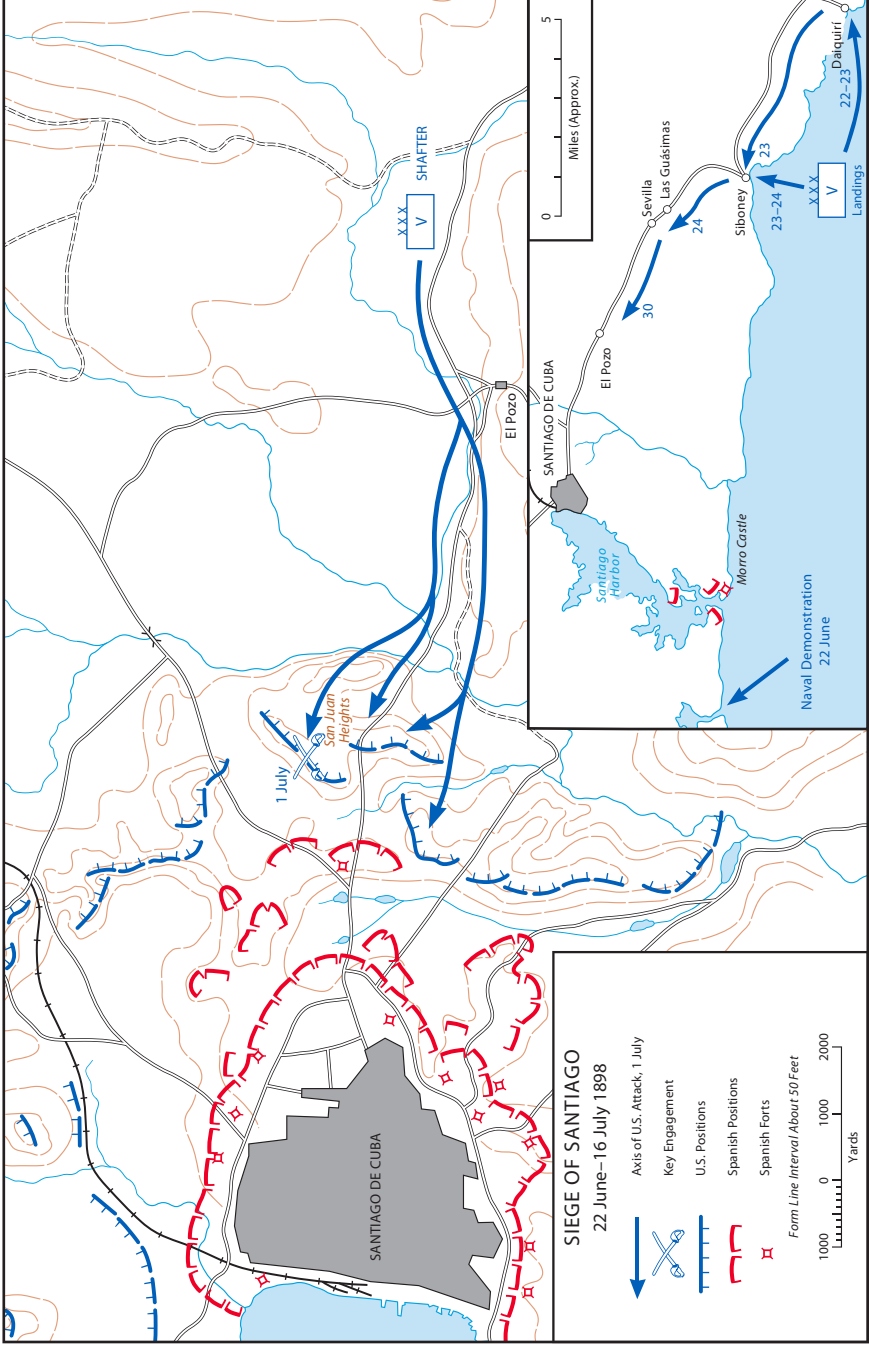


William R. Shafter
(New York Public Library Digital Collections)

For the United States, the War with Spain (commonly known as the Spanish-American War) was indeed, as Secretary of State John M. Hay later put it, “a splendid little war.” Responding to President McKinley’s call, over 200,000 volunteers jammed training camps and taxed the War Department’s ability to support them. At the small Port of Tampa, several miles west of Tampa, Florida, Maj. Gen. William R. Shafter embarked for Cuba with his V Corps of Regulars—including four regiments of Buffalo Soldiers—and some volunteer units, notably Lt. Col. Theodore Roosevelt’s 1st Volunteer Cavalry, the famed “Rough Riders.” After landing at the village of Daiquirí on 22 June, and with assistance of Cuban rebels, the expedition advanced to the port of Santiago, where a Spanish fleet had taken refuge from a U.S. naval squadron. On 1 July 1898, the V Corps launched a frontal assault that drove the Spanish from San Juan

Buffalo Soldiers of the 10th U.S. Cavalry
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)





Map 1

Heights, overlooking Santiago. Two days later, the Spanish fleet attempted to escape and American warships destroyed it. Without hope of relief, the enemy commander at Santiago surrendered his 23,500 troops on 16 July.

On the other side of the world, in the Spanish colony of the Philippines, Maj. Gen. Wesley Merritt and Commodore George Dewey led a joint Army-Navy force that occupied the capital city of Manila in August. This conquest, and Maj. Gen. Nelson A. Miles's earlier occupation of Puerto Rico, effectively ended hostilities. On 10 December 1898, the two sides signed the Treaty of Paris, which granted Cuba independence and ceded Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines to the United States. With this treaty, and the annexation of Hawaii in August 1898, the United States expanded its colonial power in the Pacific and in the Caribbean.

If the Spanish-American War was an easy victory, the suppression of the Filipino independence movement was a brutal three-year counter-insurgency campaign with numerous atrocities from all involved. After tensions erupted into open warfare in February 1899, the American troops defeated the Filipino rebels and forced them to turn to guerrilla warfare. The U.S. military responded to ambushes and raids by hunting down insurgent bands and leaders, burning buildings and crops on which the rebels relied for support, and, on occasion, torturing prisoners. Even as the fighting continued, the Americans built roads and schools, improved sanitation, offered amnesty to guerrillas, formed and employed native units, and gradually transferred more political control to Filipinos. On 4 July 1902, the United States proclaimed an end to the war, although Moro rebels in the southern Philippines fought on for another decade.



Wesley Merritt (Illustrated Roster of California Volunteer Soldiers in the War with Spain, [Bonestell, 1898])



Map 2

From the Philippines to the Caribbean, the Army found itself in a new role as a colonial constabulary and overseas expeditionary force. American troops joined an international rescue expedition when groups of antiforeign and anti-Christian Chinese—known in the West as “Boxers”—besieged diplomats in Peking (Beijing) in 1900. Soldiers became governors in Cuba in 1899, departing with the establishment of self-government in 1902, only to return in 1906 for another three years to restore order after a rebellion. Army doctors identified the mosquito as the source of the much-feared yellow fever and used that knowledge to eradicate the disease in Cuba and Panama. The victory over yellow fever enabled Army engineers to finish the Panama Canal, a 51-mile construction project that linked the Atlantic and Pacific when it opened in 1914. When Francisco “Pancho” Villa’s Mexican

revolutionaries murdered American citizens in Columbus, New Mexico, in March 1916, Brig. Gen. John J. Pershing led a punitive expedition south of the border in pursuit, but he could not capture the elusive Villa.

Meanwhile, the Army itself was changing to meet the demands of its new overseas role. In 1899, the new Secretary of War, Elihu Root, initiated a series of reforms to bring the Army up to the standard of other major powers. He established the Army War College as the pinnacle of the service’s educational system and instituted a chief of staff supervising a true general staff that would plan for and conduct future conflicts. To ensure the rise of promising officers, he installed a new, more merit-based promotion system. The Militia Act of 1903 laid the foundation for improved cooperation between the Regular Army and a new National Guard, with raised standards for training and readiness. The Army also modernized its weaponry, but it was not until 1914 that it added an aviation section



George W. Goethals, chief engineer of the Panama Canal, pictured as a major general (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)





Ambulance Corps leaving Columbus, New Mexico, for Mexico in search of Pancho Villa. (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)



Soldiers take bayonet practice at Camp Bradley on the grounds of Bradley Polytechnic Institute in Peoria, Illinois, during World War I.
(Bradley University Special Collections)

to the Signal Corps to keep up with developments in the new world of military aircraft.

In August 1914, years of escalating competition between European alliances culminated in the outbreak of the First World War. After the French and their British allies repulsed an initial German offensive at the battle of the Marne, the two sides settled into a stalemate along a front line that extended from the North Sea to the Swiss border. Troops in vast networks of zigzag trenches, fronted by massive tangles of barbed wire, faced each other across a no-man's land, where machine guns and artillery fire inflicted heavy losses on attackers. Even technologies such as poison gas, airplanes, and tanks could not break the deadlock. Isolationist-minded Americans recoiled from the slaughter and wished to stay out of the war, but both sides infringed on what the United States considered its neutral rights on the high seas. Eventually, unrestricted German submarine warfare against American commerce, economic and sentimental ties with Britain and France, and disclosure of a German offer of an alliance with Mexico against the United States turned American sentiment. The United States declared war against Germany on 6 April 1917. Americans went to fight in a war they thought would end all wars and would make the world safe for democracy.

Seldom has the U.S. Army ever been so unprepared for war. Although the Army had updated its staff structure and much of its weaponry, it was understrength with only 127,500 soldiers. World War I would require millions of men and women, as well as vast stores of materiel. The Selective



Soldiers training with a Lewis machine gun
at Camp Mills, Long Island, New York
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

Service Act instituted the first mass conscription since the Civil War, bringing four million citizens to the colors. It took time, however, to train soldiers and ship them to France. Initially, American soldiers had to use British and French equipment as American industry struggled to meet the demands of mobilization.

Still, the arrival in France of the American Expeditionary Forces (AEF) under General Pershing made an impact on the war-weary Allies. The 1st Division came just in time to parade through Paris on 4 July 1917. One of Pershing's staff officers told an ecstatic crowd, "Lafayette, we are here!" When in June and July 1918 the Germans launched a final, desperate drive to win the war before the AEF arrived in force, the doughboys barred the way at the Marne River and Château-Thierry, just 50 miles from Paris. A French staff officer watched them pass in endless columns of trucks on their way to the front. Amid cheering crowds, they sang "their national songs at the top of their voices." In this sight of "magnificent youth from across the sea, these youngsters of twenty years with smooth faces, radiating strength and health in their new uniforms," the French officer perceived "the presence of gushing, untiring force that would overcome everything because of its strength."

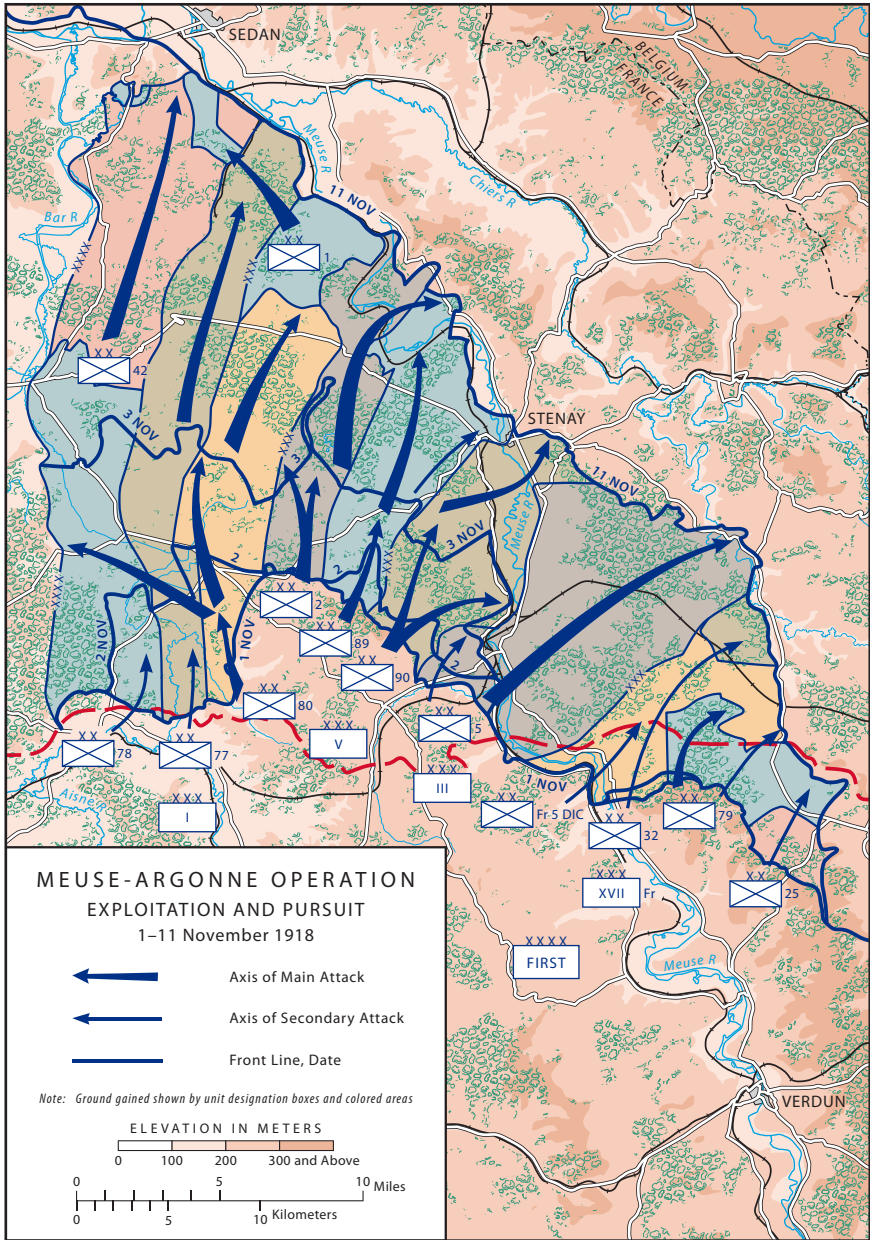
Although the AEF had not reached full strength, it still played a major role in the war's final months. On 12 September, Pershing's First U.S. Army launched its initial major offensive, a drive to eliminate the Saint-Mihiel salient. Having done so, it then shifted northwest to a new sector between the Meuse River on the east and the Argonne Forest to



American soldiers of the 166th Infantry (formerly 4th Regiment, Ohio National Guard) shooting at Germans on the outer edge of town, Villers-sur-Fère, France. (*National Archives*)

the west. The Meuse-Argonne Offensive, which began on 26 September, was perhaps the largest combat operation in American history. Over a million Americans fought through the rugged forests, ridges, and small towns of the region, frequently in frontal attacks against heavily fortified defenses, often in a driving rain. The AEF lost more than 117,000 soldiers, but it inflicted over 120,000 casualties on the Germans. To the north, the British cracked the German defensive bulwark known as the Hindenburg Line. With the enemy front collapsing, revolution broke out in Germany, and the new leaders sued for peace. At 1100 on 11 November 1918, the Armistice went into effect, and the guns of the Western Front finally fell silent after over four years of war.

After a hasty postwar demobilization, the Army lived, to a degree, in a state of suspended animation for the next twenty years. No threat existed on the horizon, except for the remote chance of a war with Japan or trouble on the Mexican border. The Regular Army maintained a skeleton force with the National Guard and Reserves as a basis for expansion in wartime. Units were too scattered to train on any scale, and lack of funds led to low pay, rotting barracks, and obsolete equipment, despite some experiments with motorization. Few Americans gave much thought to the Army. The economic troubles, isolationism, and pacifism of the 1930s, along with memories of the lives lost in the Great War (as World War I was known at the time) and the unrealized hopes from that conflict, left many disillusioned with warfare and military institutions.



Map 3



Civilian Conservation Corps Company 545 Camp at Fort Knox (*U.S. Army*)

The Army justified its continued existence and expense in a variety of ways. In Hawaii, the Philippines, and Tientsin (Tianjin), China, it guarded America's Pacific empire. Soldiers supplied disaster relief at home and abroad, Army engineers built dams and levees, and Army pilots thrilled the public with experiments in aviation. At the height of the Great Depression, in 1932, President Herbert C. Hoover ordered Army troops to evict the Bonus Marchers—a large protest group of jobless veterans and their families who demanded from Congress an early distribution of a promised bonus for their service—from their encampments in Washington, D.C. Soldiers also largely ran the Civilian Conservation Corps, President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal program that employed three million young adults to work on improving public lands.

New challenges lay on the horizon. Since 1898, the Army had changed greatly. It went from a frontier police force to an overseas colonial constabulary. It fought in a world war, experimented with new technology, and reformed its organization and educational structure. However, in many other ways, it had barely changed. Horse cavalry remained a primary element of the Army and its culture, and staff officers and soldiers trained to fight conflicts on foot, on horseback, and with artillery at a pace only slightly faster than the trench warfare of the Great War. That familiar world would change in May 1940 as the Nazi blitzkrieg of tanks, planes, and mobile infantry tore into Western Europe.

TIMELINE

Spanish-American War (1898)

- 25 April: United States declares war on Spain
- 1 May: Battle of Manila Bay
- 1 July: Battle of San Juan Heights
- 16 July: Spanish forces surrender at Santiago de Cuba
- 13 August: American forces occupy Manila, Philippines
- 10 December: Treaty of Paris signed, ending the war

Philippine War (1899–1902)

Root Reforms (1899–1917)

Boxer Rebellion (13 July–15 August 1900)

Maj. Walter Reed confirms that mosquitos transmit yellow fever (1901)

Construction of the Panama Canal (1907–1914)

Wright brothers test flights at Fort Myer, Virginia (1908–1909)

Joint U.S. force occuppies Veracruz, Mexico, to enforce arms embargo (1914)

Mexican Punitive Expedition (14 March 1916–7 February 1917)

World War I (1917–1918)

1917

- 6 April: United States declares war on Germany
- 26 June: 1st Division of the AEF lands in France

1918

- 28–30 May: Battle of Cantigny
- 15 July–6 August: 2nd Battle of the Marne
- 12–16 September: Battle of Saint-Mihiel
- 26 September: Start of the Meuse-Argonne Offensive
- 11 November: Armistice

Bonus March (1932)

- 28 July: President Herbert C. Hoover calls on Army to disperse Bonus Marchers in Washington

Civilian Conservation Corps established (1933)

World War II (1939)

- 1 September: Nazi Germany invades Poland, starting World War II



Theodore Roosevelt
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

PEOPLE, ARTIFACTS, AND EVENTS

Harvard graduate, legislator, rancher, police chief, and author, thirty-nine-year-old **Theodore Roosevelt** had already had a full life when, in April 1898, he resigned his post as assistant secretary of the Navy and volunteered for service. To “TR,” no other course was possible; he firmly believed that war developed character and he was anxious to have his chance. Together, he and Col. Leonard Wood formed the “**Rough Riders**,” a volunteer cavalry regiment that brought together Ivy League athletes and Western cowboys. At Tampa, he and his troops jostled to get a place on transports leaving for Cuba but had to leave behind their horses. When Wood rose to brigade command, Roosevelt succeeded him as the commander of the Rough Riders. On 1 July 1898, Roosevelt and the Rough Riders won lasting fame in their assault up Kettle Hill. The only American on horseback, Roosevelt led the advance under heavy fire, urging his troops forward. Alongside other units that included the Buffalo Soldiers of the 10th Cavalry and a Gatling gun detachment, the Rough Riders overran Kettle Hill. Roosevelt’s heroism propelled him in short order to the governorship of New York, the vice presidency, and after McKinley’s assassination, the presidency in 1901. One hundred years later, he received a posthumous Medal of Honor for his gallantry at San Juan Heights.

A native of New Hampshire but raised in Massachusetts, **Leonard Wood** received his medical degree from Harvard Medical School in 1884. Starting as an Army contract surgeon in Arizona, he received a lieutenant's commission in 1886 and served in the final campaign against Geronimo, receiving the Medal of Honor. When he was McKinley's personal physician, he met Roosevelt, and together they formed the Rough Riders. After the Spanish-American War, Wood was governor of Cuba from 1898 to 1902 and became a brigadier general. From 1903 to 1908, Wood was governor of Moro Province in the Philippines and commander of the Philippine Division, rising to major general. In 1910, he became the only medical officer to serve as Army chief of staff. During his four years in office, he strengthened the position of the General Staff in relation to the adjutant general and other bureau chiefs in the War Department hierarchy. In the years of American neutrality during World War I, he and Roosevelt supported preparing the United States for war, and Wood was instrumental in the creation of the Plattsburgh, New York, training camps, a forerunner of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps. Bypassed by President Woodrow Wilson for command of the AEF, he organized and trained the 10th and 89th Divisions at Camp Funston, Kansas. Retiring from the Army in 1921 after a failed presidential bid, he was governor general of the Philippines at the time of his death on 7 August 1927.



Leonard Wood, Maverick in the Making, 1882–1921, by John Singer Sargent, 1903
(National Portrait Gallery, Smithsonian Institution)



Calvin P. Titus grew up in an evangelical family in Iowa and Oklahoma. He signed up for the Spanish-American War as a volunteer but then enlisted as a regular in the 14th Infantry, where he served as a bugler and chaplain assistant in the Philippines. When the Boxer Rebellion erupted in China, the regiment joined an international force that deployed to rescue diplomats besieged by insurgents in the walled city of Peking (Beijing). On 14 August 1900, Titus and his comrades arrived near the Tung Pien (Dongbianmen) gate, where heavy fire from atop the wall pinned them

"I'll Try, Sir!" Corporal Titus Scaling the Walls of Peking
by H. Charles McBarron Jr., 1956 (Army Art Collection)



down. The unit commander called for volunteers to scale the 30-foot barrier. Titus stepped forward, saying, "I'll try, sir." Using jagged holes in the bricks, he made a treacherous ascent and found the section at the top unoccupied. The rest of his company followed and then hauled up their arms with slings. They laid down fire that helped the coalition forces break into the city. For his heroism, Titus received the Congressional Medal of Honor and an appointment to the U.S. Military Academy. His "I'll try, sir" became the rallying cry of the 14th Infantry.

Born into slavery in Kentucky in 1864, **Charles Young** grew up in Ripley, Ohio, and attended an integrated high school, where he excelled in academics, music, and foreign languages. His father, a U.S. Army veteran, encouraged him to attend West Point, where he became the ninth African American to enter the academy. Shunned by his fellow cadets because of his race, Young struggled academically at first, having to repeat his plebe year. Yet he persevered, and became only the third African American to graduate from West Point. Young served in the 9th U.S. Cavalry at various western posts and rose to the rank of captain. He later taught military science at Wilberforce University, served two tours in the Philippines, and became the first Black superintendent of a national park. He also served as a military attaché to Haiti, the Dominican Republic, and Liberia. During the Punitive Expedition in Mexico, he led a squadron of the 10th Cavalry and, at Agua Caliente, routed Pancho Villa's troops without losing a single soldier, a feat that won him promotion to lieutenant colonel. By the time the United States entered World War I, Young stood in good position for promotion to brigadier general, a rank no African American had ever reached. Instead, the War Department medically retired him at the rank of colonel. After Young rode 500 miles on horseback from Wilberforce, Ohio, to Washington to prove his fitness, the Army returned him to active duty, but he spent the rest of his career as an attaché in Liberia. Later, one of Young's protégés, Benjamin O. Davis Sr., became the first African American brigadier general.



Charles Young pictured as a major
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)



John J. Pershing at General Headquarters in Chaumont, France, in October 1918 (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

One of Young's fellow cavalrymen, **John J. Pershing** became the leading American soldier of his generation. An 1886 graduate of West Point, Pershing served on the western frontier with the 6th Cavalry and later as a military science professor at the University of Nebraska, where he also earned a law degree. After a stint with the 10th Cavalry, he returned as an instructor to West Point, where the cadets called him "Black Jack" for his time with the Buffalo Soldiers. During the Spanish-American War, he fought with the 10th Cavalry on Kettle Hill and San Juan Hill. After his service as an observer of the Russo-Japanese War, President Roosevelt promoted Captain Pershing directly to brigadier general over the heads of more than 800 officers senior to him. Tragedy struck in August 1915 when a fire at his family quarters in the Presidio of San Francisco killed his wife and three of his four children. Although grieving, Pershing immediately returned to duty, and in 1916 led the Mexican Punitive Expedition

to catch Pancho Villa. Having shown his ability to lead a large command on foreign soil without getting involved in party politics, Pershing was the obvious choice by President Wilson to lead the AEF to France. Pershing organized, trained, and supplied the AEF and ensured that it would serve as a distinct American army under American command. After leading the AEF to victory over Germany, he became the only American to hold the rank of General of the Armies of the United States during his lifetime. (George Washington later received the rank posthumously.) He then served as Army chief of staff from 1921 to 1924. Pershing lived long enough to see George C. Marshall, George S. Patton Jr., and other protégés emerge victorious in World War II.

One of the Missouri National Guard units that participated in the Meuse-Argonne Offensive was Battery D, 129th Field Artillery, commanded by **Harry S. Truman**. When Captain Truman took command of Battery D in Brittany, France, in July 1918, he struck some of the rough artillery soldiers as comical with his short stature and thick spectacles, but he soon showed them he meant business. When many of his soldiers fled from German shelling in the Vosges Mountains, Truman stuck to his ground and called them “every name I could think of,” inducing some to return and move the battery to safety. In the Meuse-Argonne, Truman acted without orders to shell an enemy battery before it could open fire on American infantry. In the process, he incurred the wrath of his commanding officer, but his unauthorized action went unpunished, perhaps because his decision had saved lives. Under his command, Battery D fired over 10,000 shells during the war without losing a single soldier in combat. Before the war, Truman had failed at several business ventures, but the conflict brought out his leadership qualities. He went home a hero, entered politics, became a U.S. senator, and in 1945, president of the United States.



Photograph of Harry S. Truman
taken in France in 1918
(National Archives)



Samuel Woodfill pictured as a master sergeant
(U.S. Army)

To Pershing, **Samuel Woodfill** was “the greatest American soldier of the World War.” Woodfill had honed his marksmanship in the woods near his family’s farm in Indiana. He was a Regular who had served in the Philippines, Alaska, and along the Mexican border. With the World War I mobilization, Sergeant Woodfill became a lieutenant with the 60th Infantry, 5th Division. On the morning of 12 October 1918 near Cunel, France, while on a reconnaissance, he saw muzzle flashes from a church tower about 300 yards away. Although he could not actually see the gunner, he fired where he thought the soldier’s head would be and killed him. He then repeated the process four times without missing as others tried to take over the now-silent machine gun. An enemy soldier charged Woodfill, but after a hand-to-hand fight, he killed the man with his pistol. Three more machine gun nests fell victim to his marksmanship as he continued forward. Approaching a fifth emplacement, Woodfill charged it, killing seven enemy soldiers, including two with a pickax when his rifle ran out of ammunition. For his exploits, Woodfill received the Medal of Honor from Pershing himself.



Henry Johnson
(U.S. Army)

William Henry Johnson, commonly known as **Henry Johnson**, was born in North Carolina. On 5 June 1917, he enlisted in the U.S. Army and became a private in the 15th New York (Colored) Infantry, an all-Black National Guard unit later redesignated the 369th Infantry and dubbed the “Harlem Hellfighters.” In December 1917, Johnson and the 369th deployed to France; many months later, AEF headquarters assigned the regiment to a French division owing to concerns that many White doughboys would refuse to serve alongside their African American counterparts. On 15 May 1918, while Johnson and Pvt. Needham Roberts were on sentry duty, a large German raiding party attacked them. Johnson fended off the enemy with grenades, his rifle butt, a bolo knife, and his fists, killing four Germans and wounding several others. Johnson and Roberts received severe wounds in the skirmish—Johnson sustained twenty-one injuries—but they stopped the enemy attack. Johnson’s feat earned him a promotion to sergeant and the nickname “Black Death” for his combat prowess. The French Army awarded him the Croix de Guerre, and on 2 June 2015, President Barack H. Obama posthumously presented Johnson with the Medal of Honor.



Sergeant Alvin C. York by Frank Schoonover, 1919
(82d Airborne Division War Memorial Museum)

When registering for the draft, **Alvin C. York** initially claimed conscientious objector status on religious grounds, but he came to believe that God meant for him to fight as a soldier. Having reconciled military service with his beliefs, he served with the 328th Infantry, 82d Division, and rose to corporal. On 8 October 1918, during the Meuse-Argonne Offensive, York's battalion attacked a German position and came under heavy machine-gun fire. A squad of seventeen soldiers, including York, infiltrated the enemy lines to knock out the machine guns and surprised a German headquarters, which surrendered. As York and his comrades rounded up the prisoners, German machine-gun fire raked the position, killing six Americans, wounding three others, and leaving York in charge of the rest. While the others guarded the prisoners, York advanced on the machine guns. His Tennessee marksmanship showed as he picked off one German after another, but he soon emptied his rifle. Six enemy troops charged him with fixed bayonets, but he shot each down in turn with his semiautomatic pistol before they could reach him. A German lieutenant offered to surrender his command if York agreed to cease firing. As York and his men escorted their prisoners back to American lines, they captured another German unit with the lieutenant's grudging cooperation. When York reported to his brigade commander, the general quipped, "Well York, I hear you have captured the whole German army." "No sir," York replied, "I only got 132." York received a promotion to sergeant and a Medal of Honor, personally presented by Pershing. He became perhaps the most popular American hero of the war. A movie of his life, *Sergeant York*, was the highest grossing film of 1941 and helped rally Americans for a new conflict.



The M1917 helmet worn by then-Cpl. Alvin C. York during his Medal of Honor action (National Museum of the U.S. Army)

The **M1917 helmet** is an American-made version of the steel Brodie helmet, designed and patented in 1915 in Britain by Russian-born inventor John Leopold Brodie. In 1917, the United States purchased 400,000 of the British Army's version of the Brodie helmet for the AEF, whereas African Americans serving alongside French organizations wore the French Army's Adrian helmet. Before the year was out, the first M1917 helmets began arriving in France. Although it closely resembled the Brodie helmet, the M1917 was sturdier and offered better protection than the original. By the end of the war, U.S. factories had made 1.5 million M1917s. An improved version of the helmet, the M1917A1, went into production in 1941, and the Army used it in the early stages of World War II.



American telephone operators, members of the U.S. Army Signal Corps, at an exchange within range of German shell fire, as evidenced by the gas masks and helmets, 15 October 1918. (*National Archives*)

Grace D. Banker was working as a switchboard operator at American Telephone and Telegraph when she saw an Army newspaper advertisement, seeking women who could speak French and run switchboards, then a relatively new technology. Wishing to do her part, she joined the Signal Corps and became a chief operator and supervisor. After several months of training, her unit departed New York for AEF headquarters at Chaumont, France. Upon her arrival, Banker led thirty-three switchboard operators known as “Hello Girls.” Their workload was daunting, often reaching 150,000 calls per day. The coded language used by the Army changed daily and had to be memorized, resulting in nonsensical phrases that reminded Banker of *Alice in Wonderland*. Yet, their work was deadly serious, involving top secret English and French messages between command



Grace D. Banker
(U.S. Army Women's Museum)

headquarters, supply depots, and even the trenches. During the fighting at Saint-Mihiel, Banker and five of her operators followed the First Army headquarters forward to within range of German artillery. They could hear the enemy guns as they worked around the clock, connecting calls with helmets and gas masks slung over their chairs. After the war, Banker received the Distinguished Service Medal, but the Army saw her and the other Hello Girls as civilian contractors, ineligible for veterans' benefits. When President James E. "Jimmy" Carter Jr. granted veteran status to the Hello Girls in 1977, only eighteen were still alive. Banker, who died in 1960, had no regrets, stating in 1919: "If you were to ask every girl in my party about her hardships, I know she would answer that she had none worth mentioning, and that her work overseas helped her in every way."

Although an Army officer, **William L. “Billy” Mitchell** is widely regarded as the father of the U.S. Air Force. During World War I, he commanded all American air combat units in France as a brigadier general. After the war, he served as assistant chief of the Air Service. Mitchell became a staunch proponent of air power, arguing that it would soon dominate warfare, and he promoted a separate Air Force equal to the Army and Navy to achieve air power’s potential. In the 1920s, he conducted a series of well-publicized tests in which airplanes bombed stationary battleships, and he used the results to claim that “aircraft constitute a positive defense of our country against hostile invasion.” His outspoken advocacy antagonized many Army senior leaders, leading to



William L. “Billy” Mitchell
(U.S. Air Force)

a reduction in rank for insubordination. In 1925, he faced a court-martial after accusing high-ranking Army and Navy officers of incompetence and “almost treasonable administration of the national defense.” The court-martial found Mitchell guilty, but his trial attracted national attention and public opinion supported him. Sentenced to five years’ suspension from duty without pay, Mitchell resigned on 1 February 1926. He devoted the remaining decade of his life to preaching the gospel of air power to all who would listen.



Liberty Truck
(National Archives)

Like the railroad in the nineteenth century, the internal combustion engine revolutionized military transportation in the twentieth century. The Army's first use of cargo trucks in a military operation was in the Mexican Punitive Expedition. At the start, the Army had just 105 trucks in service; when it ended, the expedition alone had around 250. Although much needed, the number of trucks presented Maj. John F. Madden, expedition quartermaster, with a maintenance headache because of the wide variety of vehicles. The experience convinced him and others that the Army should adopt a standardized truck for all of its needs. The Motor Transport Section of the Quartermaster Corps and the Society of Automotive Engineers collaborated to design such a vehicle, resulting in the development of the **Class B Standardized Military Truck** or "**Liberty Truck**" in 1917. Ten weeks after completing the design, the first models became available. Of the roughly 9,500 Liberty Trucks produced, 7,500 went overseas, starting in October 1918. The standard Liberty Truck had a gasoline-powered, fifty-two-horsepower engine with a top speed of 15 miles per hour.



Springfield M1903 rifle (*U.S. Army*)

Aware of serious deficiencies revealed by the Spanish-American War, the U.S. Army sought to modernize its firearms. In 1892, the service adopted the Krag-Jorgensen rifle, which proved obsolete when compared to the clip-loading, bolt-action, rapid-fire Mauser M1893 rifle that the Spanish used to lethal effect in 1898. Five years after the war, the Army began equipping its units with the improved, bolt-action, magazine-fed **Springfield M1903 rifle**. The War with Spain also showed that the standard rod bayonet was too flimsy, so starting in 1905, the Army replaced it with a sturdy knife bayonet. Finally, close quarters combat in the Philippine War against the Moro rebels showed the need for a less-cumbersome hand weapon with greater stopping power than the .38-caliber revolver. The Army found the answer in the **Colt M1911 pistol**, a .45-caliber, semi-automatic pistol, which it adopted in 1911. This pistol became a mainstay of the Army for most of the twentieth century.



M1911 pistol
(*National Museum of the U.S. Army*)



Army machine gun instructor 2d Lt. Valmore A. Browning—son of the inventor John Browning—test fires an M1917 at Thillombois, France, 5 October 1918. (*U.S. Army Signal Corps*)

Far more significant than the rifle, the bayonet, or the pistol in transforming the nature of twentieth-century warfare was the machine gun. American inventors, including John M. Browning (who designed the M1911 pistol), Isaac N. Lewis, and Hiram S. Maxim took a leading role in developing automatic weapons between the Civil War and World War I. The Army used several of them. Only in May 1917, after rigorous testing, did the Army at last settle on the **Browning M1917 machine gun** as the weapon that best suited its needs—a water-cooled, .30-caliber heavy machine gun capable of firing 450 rounds per minute. Up to that time, the French-made Hotchkiss M1914 had served as the standard heavy machine gun of the AEF. Because of production delays, however, only about 1,200 Browning M1917s saw combat during the final three months of the war. Subsequent versions of the M1917 went into action in World War II, the Korean War, and even the Vietnam War.



Wright Model A Military Flyer at Fort Myer, 1909
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

From August 1908 to July 1909, brothers **Wilbur and Orville Wright** conducted a series of test flights at Fort Myer, Virginia, to develop an Army aircraft. On 17 September 1908, a split propeller caused their plane to crash, severely injuring Orville and killing his passenger, 1st Lt. Thomas E. Selfridge—the first powered airplane crash fatality. After the tragedy, the Wrights devoted nearly a year to improve their flyer. On 30 July 1909, with Orville as the pilot and 1st Lt. Benjamin D. Foulois, the future chief of the U.S. Army Air Corps, as the navigator, they carried out an evaluation test flight. The model met all of the Army's requirements, staying aloft for an hour, reaching an altitude of 400 feet, and, in a separate speed trial, maintaining an average of 40 miles per hour. Designated Signal Corps No. 1, the Army's first airplane also bore the name of the **Wright Model A Military Flyer**.



Soldiers of Company C, 9th U.S. Infantry, with a Bell of Balangiga
(Fred R. Brown, *History of the 9th U.S. Infantry*, R. R. Donnelley, 1909)

On the morning of 28 September 1901, seventy-four soldiers of Company C, 9th Infantry, assembled for breakfast in the coastal town of Balangiga on the island of Samar in the Philippines. Engaged in counterinsurgency operations against the Filipino guerrillas, the soldiers had placed 80 to 100 townsfolk in two tents designed to hold 16 people each and forced them to work without pay. They had also antagonized villagers with stealing, brutality, and at least one rape. Now as the soldiers sat down, the village police chief approached a sentry. Suddenly, he pulled out a bolo knife and cut down the sentry. At that signal, a mob wielding bolos ran out of the nearby church and surrounding tents, slashing at the surprised soldiers as one of the church bells rang. A handful of soldiers managed to escape in a dugout canoe, but forty-four soldiers died, twenty-two were wounded, and four missing. An alarmed Maj. Gen. Adna R. Chaffee, the American commanding general in the Philippines, sent Brig. Gen. Jacob H. “Howling Jake” Smith to Samar with orders to use whatever methods necessary to pacify the island. Joint Army-Navy patrols destroyed Balangiga and confiscated the three church bells, which they brought back to the United States as war trophies. During the last three months of 1901, American troops killed over 750 supposed insurrectos and 580 water buffalos, burned over 1,660 houses, and destroyed tons of rice. After they segregated the population into zones to better monitor their activity, the insurgency finally subsided. After repeated requests by the independent Philippines, the United States returned the three **Bells of Balangiga** in late 2018.



Recruits at an event sponsored by the Commission on Training Camp Activities (*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

World War I occurred during the heyday of the idealistic progressive reform movement in the United States. Concerned about the impact of Army life—especially drinking and prostitution—on the values of American male youth, the War Department created the **Commission on Training Camp Activities** (CTCA). The CTCA worked with civilian organizations like the Young Men’s Christian Association, Knights of Columbus, and the Salvation Army to offer a variety of leisure alternatives to doughboys, which included athletics, recreational centers, libraries, concerts, and theaters. They cracked down on saloons and bordellos near the camps and distributed educational materials on venereal diseases. When the Premier of France offered to establish houses of prostitution for American troops—a common practice in Europe—Secretary of War Newton D. Baker exclaimed to Raymond B. Fosdick of the CTCA, “For God’s sake, Raymond, don’t show this to the president or he’ll stop the war!”



*"A Singing Army Is a Fighting Army" poster, 1917
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)*

Before the conflict, Fosdick had been impressed by the singing of German troops on the march, so when he had his opportunity in 1917, he tried to make the U.S. Army a **Singing Army** by appointing song leaders in Army units. All over the nation and in France, soldiers roared out, "Where Do We Go from Here?" "Over There," "There's a Long, Long Trail," and "We'll Hang Kaiser Bill to the Sour Apple Tree."



Charles W. Whittlesey receives the Medal of Honor from
General Clarence R. Edwards at Boston Common, 30 December 1918
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

On 2 October 1918, the 77th Division attacked north through the Argonne Forest as part of the AEF's Meuse-Argonne Offensive, but made little headway against fierce opposition. In one sector, however, six companies of the 308th Infantry and parts of two companies of the 308th Machine Gun Battalion advanced through a small valley uncovered by the enemy and, by nightfall, had reached the northern slope of a ravine a half-mile ahead of American units on their flanks. By morning, this force, joined by a company of the 307th Infantry, found that the Germans had cut off their line of retreat, and the saga of the **Lost Battalion** began. For four days, the doughboys fought off repeated assaults, endured machine gun and artillery fire from both sides, and rejected a call to surrender. Their food ran out on the second day, water was only available from the muddy creek at the foot of the ravine (which was exposed to enemy fire), and ammunition ran low, forcing the troops to salvage rifles and ammunition from German soldiers they had killed. At one point, American artillery was firing at their location and the battalion used its last carrier pigeon, Cher Ami, in an effort to halt the shelling. Despite wounds in its chest and leg, Cher Ami made it through the fire with its capsule message hanging from its leg, and the firing halted. Efforts by the Air Service to drop messages and supplies to the battalion failed, and the 77th Division's attempts to relieve the battalion were also unsuccessful. Finally, on 7 October, a flanking attack by the 82d Division to the east forced the Germans to withdraw. That evening, the 77th Division reached the 194 survivors of the battalion's original 600. Maj. Charles W. Whittlesey, the commander of the group, and two of his captains received the Congressional Medal of Honor for their heroism. From the French government, Cher Ami received the Croix de Guerre.



African American members of the Civilian Conservation Corps. About 250,000 Blacks served in the CCC. (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service)

The onset of the Great Depression of the 1930s—the worst economic crisis in American history—prompted an unprecedented federal response that included the Army. Just two days after his inauguration in March 1933, President Franklin D. Roosevelt called for the formation of the **Civilian Conservation Corps** (CCC) to provide work for jobless young men through the conservation and improvement of public lands. Rather than create a new bureaucracy, Roosevelt turned to existing government agencies, including the War Department. At first, the Army was only supposed to enroll and condition recruits provided by the Labor Department and turn them over to the Agriculture and Interior Departments, which would run the camps and supervise the work. However, the other agencies lacked the staff, equipment, and experience to administer the CCC program. Taking on the responsibility, the Army built the camps and provided food, fuel, vehicles, medical care, and supervision. Each camp housed a CCC company under a Regular officer, assisted by three reserve officers, a Regular first sergeant, and supply and mess enlisted soldiers. The youths worked on forest protection and improvements, fought fires, and built roads and trails, overnight shelters, and dams. During the hectic summer of 1933, the demands of the CCC forced virtual cancellation of reserve training and stripped Regular units of their officers. Enlisted soldiers did not like the fact that CCC enrollees received more pay than they did. Nonetheless, the CCC did much to improve the Army's image with the public, and it served as a training ground for officers and NCOs who would soon deal with conscripts in the national mobilization for World War II.



GLOBAL WAR: THE U.S. ARMY AND WORLD WAR II, 1939–1943

by Mark L. Bradley and David W. Hogan Jr.

When Adolf Hitler's armies invaded Poland in September 1939, the United States declared that it would remain neutral. Most Americans viewed the conflict between the Anglo-French Allies and the Germans as just another European quarrel. Disillusioned by the results of American participation in World War I, they were leery of intervention. The Army had only 190,000 soldiers in 6 skeleton infantry divisions, 1 small horse cavalry division, an air corps, and support units. Its World War I-era weapons were obsolete, and lack of funds left soldiers with insufficient training. During the fall and winter of 1939–1940, Army Chief of Staff General George C. Marshall was able to obtain some personnel increases in the size of the Regular Army and National Guard. However, his prescient warning in February 1940—"If Europe blazes in the late spring or summer, we must put our house in order before the sparks reach the Western Hemisphere"—fell on deaf ears in Congress and the White House.

Yet the sparks did reach the United States that spring with the German offensive in May 1940 and the shock of the subsequent fall of France. Suddenly, only Great Britain and an ocean stood between the United States and the triumphant Nazi war machine. President Franklin D. Roosevelt stepped up all possible aid to Britain short of war. He traded fifty old destroyers to the British to assist with convoys and used the Lend-Lease program to "loan" weapons and materiel to the British when they ran out of purchasing funds. He even ordered the U.S. Navy to escort North Atlantic convoys in the summer and fall of 1941. When Germany invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941, he extended Lend-Lease to the Russians. He also instituted sanctions against Japan's expansion in mainland Asia. In August 1940, Congress authorized the president to call up eighteen National Guard divisions for a year, and in September, it passed a Selective Training and Service Act—the nation's first peacetime



The USS *Arizona* burns after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.
(National Archives)

draft—allowing the armed forces to induct 900,000 men for one year. The Army drew on its prewar mobilization planning to collaborate with the Navy, businesses, and other government agencies to mobilize the nation’s resources and make it into the “Arsenal of Democracy.” Racing against time, the Army also sought to transform its organization, weaponry, and practices so it could stand up to the Germans’ revolutionary use of tanks, aircraft, and motorized infantry in their blitzkrieg or “lightning war.” The Army developed new tanks, trucks, planes, and airborne units. During the summer and fall of 1941, it also conducted large-scale field maneuvers in Louisiana and the Carolinas. The initial draft, however, required only a single twelve-month term for service members. In August 1941, the House of Representatives approved an extension of the draft by only one vote, or the new Army would have disbanded on the eve of war.

Thus, the Army had made headway toward preparedness—but still had a long way to go—when, on 7 December 1941, stateside soldiers enjoying a leisurely Sunday afternoon heard the news of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in Hawai’i. The severe losses to Navy forces drew the most notice, but enemy dive-bombers and fighters also hit Army barracks, supply depots, hangars, and runways at Hickam and Wheeler

Fields, where aviators had parked planes wingtip to wingtip as a defense against sabotage. In total, the Japanese destroyed about 164 planes, seriously damaged 128, and killed or wounded around 700 Army soldiers in addition to the 2,900 casualties from the other services. The next day, a stunned, angry nation heard President Roosevelt denounce the surprise attack as a “date which will live in infamy,” and Congress responded with almost unanimous approval to his call for a declaration of war on Japan. When the remaining Axis allies, Germany and Italy, declared war on the United States three days later, the country faced a two-ocean conflict. Americans had prepared for that contingency, having already agreed—in secret talks with the British—to defeat the more dangerous Nazi regime first before turning to the Pacific.

However, the Germany First strategy would be hard to maintain given the intense American desire for revenge and the long string of defeats the nation would endure into the summer of 1942. Within weeks of Pearl Harbor, the Japanese tide had swept across the Pacific, capturing Guam and Wake Island, seizing Hong Kong, driving into Thailand and Malaya, and sinking two British capital ships, the *Prince of Wales* and the *Repulse*. Within a few months, the Japanese had captured the supposedly impregnable British fortress of Singapore, occupied the Dutch East Indies, and overrun Burma. Only in the Philippines did the Japanese legions run into sustained resistance, as General Douglas MacArthur’s Filipino-American forces clung to a foothold on the Bataan Peninsula and on the island of Corregidor at the entrance to Manila Bay. However, in the aftermath of Pearl Harbor, relief was impossible. In March, President Roosevelt told MacArthur to go to Australia, and the general vowed, “I shall return.” Their supplies running out, the twin garrisons of Bataan and Corregidor surrendered in April and May.

While the Army fought to stave off disaster and preserve morale through 1942, it built its strength for the eventual counteroffensive. Divisions formed, endured thorough and realistic training, and engaged in large-scale maneuvers before deploying overseas, most toward the end of 1943. By then, the U.S. Army had mobilized ninety divisions, a small number compared to the hundreds in the Soviet and German armies but appropriate given the emphasis on American industry, air power, service and support units, and the Army’s goal of keeping existing forces up to strength. American industrial might supplied the Army—including the Army Air Forces—with a seemingly unending stream of tanks, artillery pieces, bomber and fighter planes, jeeps, trucks, and munitions. Through 1943, the Army mobilized millions of new soldiers. African Americans served in some segregated logistical and combat units and the new Women’s Army Corps helped with multiple administrative and logistical tasks, freeing soldiers for deployment to combat zones.

As the Army prepared, the tide was turning in favor of the Allies. In the Coral Sea and decisively at Midway in May and June 1942, American carriers inflicted crippling losses on the Imperial Japanese Navy and blunted further Axis expansion in the Pacific. At El Alamein in Egypt, General Bernard L. Montgomery's British Eighth Army stopped Field Marshal Erwin Rommel's drive on the Suez Canal. In November, he sent the German *Afrika Korps* reeling back in defeat across North Africa. At Stalingrad in the winter of 1943, the Soviet Red Army forced the German Sixth Army to surrender. On the Atlantic, after a dismal year of ship sinkings—many along the lightly defended U.S. East Coast—the Allied navies struck back in 1943. They inflicted losses that the German U-boat fleet could not replace and freed the sea-lanes for the Army to deploy en masse to Europe.

First to strike at German-occupied Europe were the planes of the U.S. Army Air Forces. Confident in the power of aerial strategic bombardment, the senior Air Force generals believed that daylight precision bombing with heavily armed B-17 Flying Fortresses and B-24 Liberator bombers on specific targets would inflict enough damage on industries and oil production that the enemy would be unable to support its forces. During the spring and summer of 1942, it deployed planes, crews, and munitions across the Atlantic and built bases in England for the Combined Bomber Offensive. After some initial raids on rail yards and industries in occupied France, the Eighth Air Force had enough strength by the summer and fall of 1943 to attack enemy factories, especially the key Schweinfurt plants that produced essential ball bearings for field artillery, precision instruments, and airplane engines. Although American bombers inflicted some major damage, German fighters and anti-aircraft fire caused horrific losses. In one October week, the Eighth Air Force lost 148 heavy bombers and crews. The force could not long continue losing so many planes and personnel.

To American strategists, a cross-channel invasion of France was the best way to defeat the Nazis. However, in the face of British objections and in eagerness to get American troops into action against the Germans, President Roosevelt accepted the British suggestion of an invasion of French Northwest Africa. On 8 November 1942, under the command of Lt. Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower, an Anglo-American task force landed at Algiers and Oran, Algeria, on the Mediterranean coast and at Casablanca, Morocco, on the Atlantic coast. In this early amphibious operation, lack of training of beach organization teams, poor coastal surveys, and primitive transfer of troops and materiel from ships to landing craft caused confusion. Fortunately, French forces offered little resistance, and the collaborationist French regime in North Africa soon called for a cease-fire and came over to the Allied side. Eisenhower then launched his forces east toward Tunisia in an effort to cut off Rommel's *Afrika Korps*, which



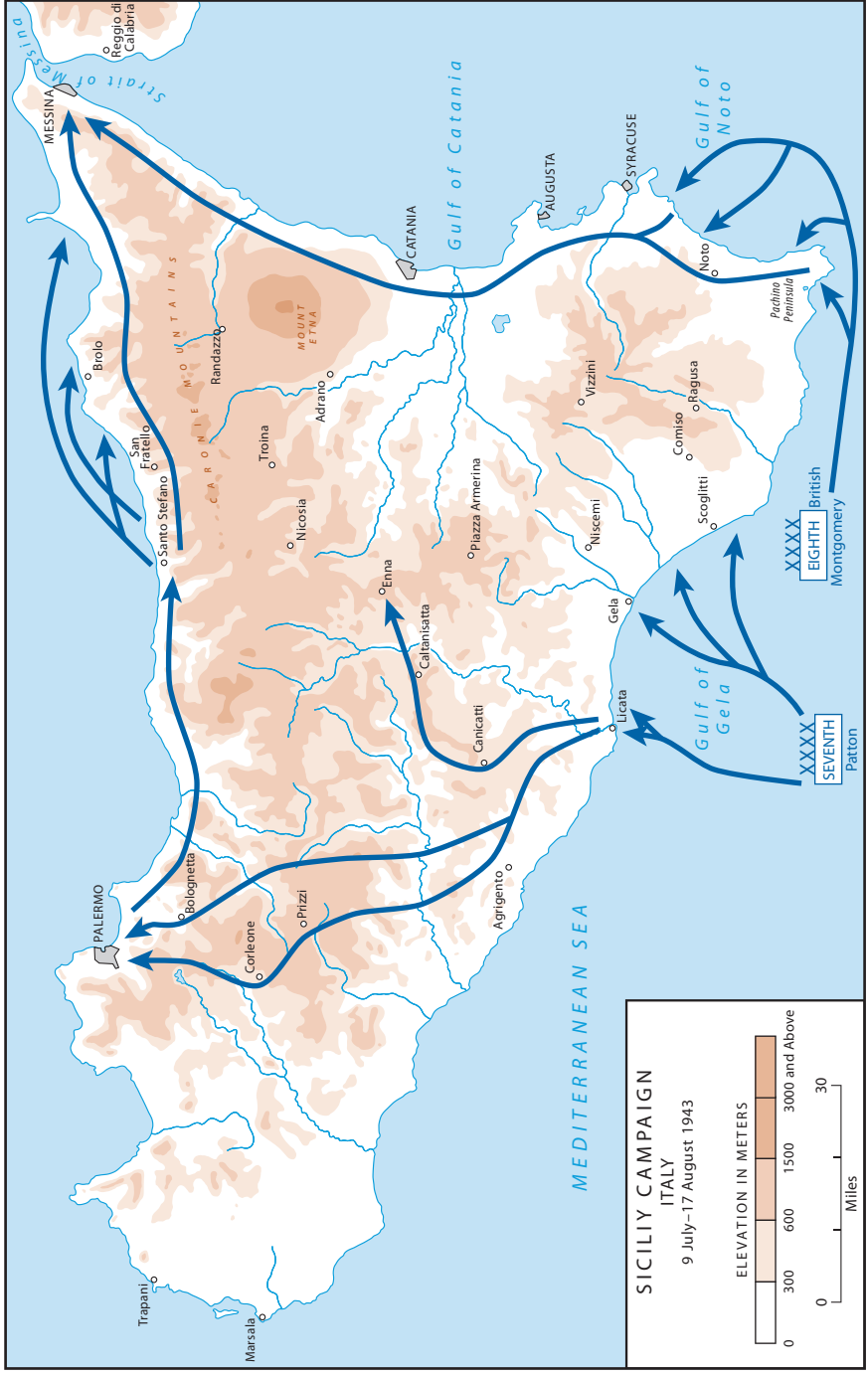
A riveter at Lockheed Corporation, Burbank, California
(National Archives)

was retreating from Egypt after El Alamein. However, vast distances, winter rains, poor roads, and the quick buildup of Axis reinforcements in Tunisia forced him to halt his advance. By mid-February 1943, the front had stabilized in Tunisia—the British First Army in the north, the French XIX Corps in the center, and the American II Corps in the desert facing the Eastern Dorsal Mountains in the south. The *Afrika Korps*, pursued by the British Eighth Army, approached the front from Libya.

On Valentine's Day 1943, the Germans struck the overextended II Corps sector. Nazi armored spearheads encircled exposed outposts and brushed off tank forces that tried, in piecemeal counterattacks, to rescue those positions and restore the front. The routed American forces withdrew to the Western Dorsals, where—stiffened by rushed Allied reinforcements—they held firm. Although the II Corps soon recovered the lost territory, the Battle of Kasserine Pass cost more than 6,000 American casualties, half of them captured, as well as the loss of 183 tanks, 104 halftracks, and 200 guns. American weapons, training, and leadership were lacking in this first test against the experienced German troops. Yet observers noted that the American soldiers seemed more angry than cowed, like a team that had lost a ball game to an opponent that they knew they should have beaten.

The Americans learned fast in the Tunisia classroom. After Kasserine, Maj. Gen. George S. Patton Jr. took command of the II Corps and instituted a rigorous retraining and disciplinary program. By late March and early April, the corps was putting enough pressure on the enemy to ease the Eighth Army's northward advance into Tunisia, crowding the Axis into a shrinking corner of the country. Shifting to the north, the II Corps, now under Maj. Gen. Omar N. Bradley, joined the final attack in late April and May, capturing the dominating height of Hill 609 and racing into Bizerte on 7 May. During the next week, 240,000 Axis troops surrendered, and the North African shore of the Mediterranean was clear of the enemy.

Although American leaders still wanted a cross-channel invasion, they knew they could not launch one until 1944, and this realization—along with the opportunity to win control of Mediterranean sea-lanes and knock Italy out of the war—induced them to agree to more operations in the theater in 1943. On 10 July, Patton's Seventh U.S. Army landed next to Montgomery's Eighth Army on the beaches of southeastern Sicily. This time, beach surveys, large landing craft for shore-to-shore operations, pontoon bridging, amphibious trucks called DUKWs, and strong naval gunfire support enabled a more orderly landing, despite heavy surf and stiffer resistance than had been faced in North Africa. Having established a solid foothold, Patton sent half of his army on a rapid swing through western Sicily to seize the key port of Palermo on the north coast. The drive featured the 3d Infantry Division's "Truscott Trot," named after its



Map 1



American soldiers observe artillery fire on a Sicilian town.
(National Archives)

commander, an old cavalry soldier named Maj. Gen. Lucian K. Truscott Jr., who trained his infantry to march 4 miles per hour through the dust and summer heat. Patton then turned east toward Messina to reduce further the shrinking Axis perimeter in northeast Sicily. The last stages of the campaign in August consisted of hard fighting in rugged mountain terrain, as typified by the weeklong battle for the town of Troina and by amphibious end runs by Patton's forces to bypass resistance along the coastal road. On 17 August, the Allies entered Messina, but this time, most German troops escaped to the Italian mainland.

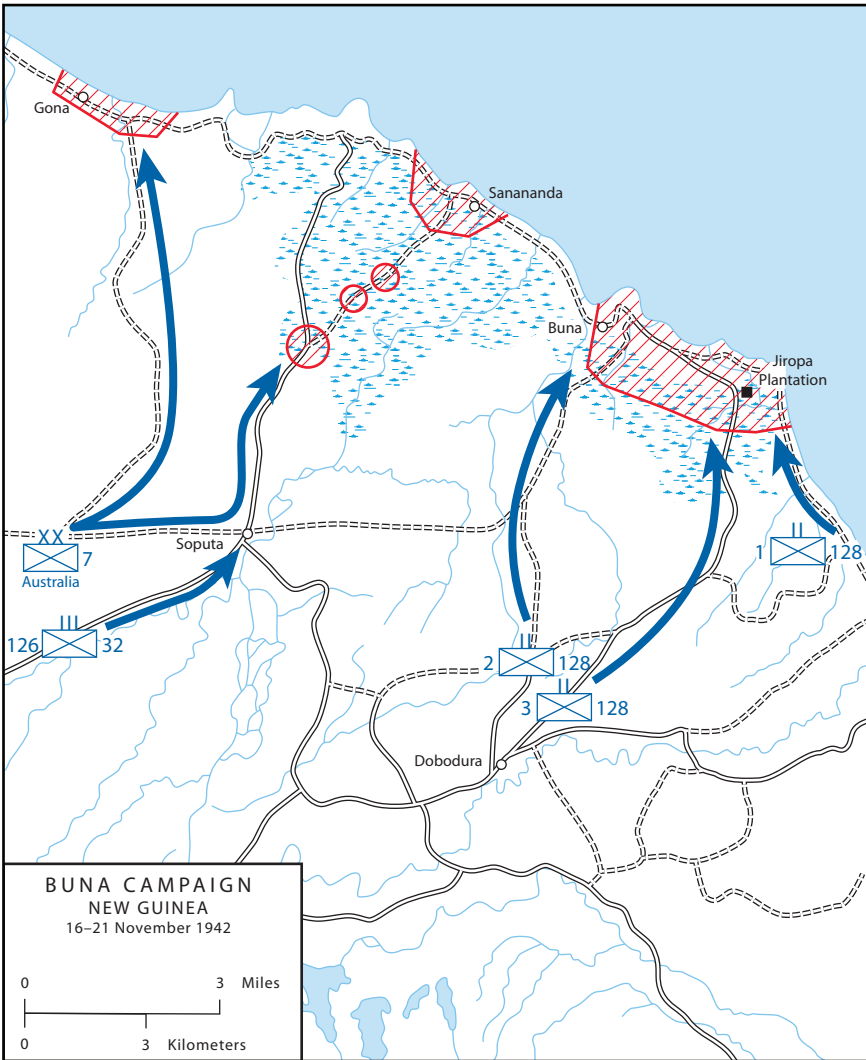
Italy surrendered on 3 September, the same day that the Allies began their invasion of the Italian mainland. The Germans soon dispelled any hopes that they would evacuate Italy. They disarmed Italian forces and made clear that they would fight for the peninsula.

The Anglo-American leadership anticipated that an advance in Italy would pin down German forces needed elsewhere. However, during the campaign, it became a matter of some debate who was pinning down whom. After the Fifth U.S. Army under Lt. Gen. Mark W. Clark landed at Salerno on 9 September and captured the demolished port of Naples on 1 October, the campaign devolved into a slow, grinding drive north across mountains and streams through the mud and rain of an Italian fall and winter. By the end of 1943, the Allies remained well short of Rome.

For all the attention the Army devoted to the European theater, it could not simply ignore the Pacific. Through 1942, it deployed forces to keep open communications with Australia and MacArthur's Southwest Pacific area. After Midway, American strategists felt that they must seize the initiative in the Pacific, resulting in the Marine landing at Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands in August 1942. Two Army divisions joined the Marines during the fall, and by 9 February, American forces had cleared the rest of the island. Meanwhile, in November, MacArthur's forces had launched their own advance against the Japanese position at Buna, near the southeast tip of Papua New Guinea. Untrained in jungle warfare, poorly supplied, and losing thousands to malaria, the 32d Infantry Division struggled to overcome the dense swamp and fierce, well-fortified



Lt. Gen. Mark W. Clark aboard the USS *Ancon* during the landings at Salerno, Italy, on 12 September 1943 (National Archives)



Map 2

Japanese opposition. On 14 December, the Americans captured Buna village, but it took weeks more to clear the area. More than 5,000 Japanese soldiers had died, but the cost was high for the 32d Division. Of its 10,000 troops, more than 90 percent were casualties, including 7,000 sick. The road to victory over Japan promised to be a long one.

Through the rest of 1943, the Army and other services continued the offensive in the Southwest Pacific, the Solomon Islands, the Northern



American M3 light tanks near Jiropa Plantation, Buna, 12 December 1942
(National Archives)



*"The Big Three" at the Tehran Conference (left to right: Joseph Stalin, Roosevelt, and Winston Churchill)
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)*



Pacific, and belatedly the Central Pacific. At the start of March, in an imposing display of air power, Allied planes destroyed an entire Japanese troop convoy in the Bismarck Sea off the north coast of the island of New Guinea. In New Guinea, MacArthur leapfrogged his way up the coast, using his naval and air support to bypass Japanese strongpoints, which—cut off by American control of their lines of communications—could only die on the vine. By the end of the year, the Americans and Australians had reached Finschhafen, New Guinea. They were close to breaching the archipelago known as the Bismarck Barrier that constituted the outer Japanese defense perimeter. In the Solomon Islands, Army troops, Marines, and allied forces overcame tenacious Japanese opposition in the jungle islands of New Georgia and Bougainville, as they drove toward the mighty Japanese base of Rabaul in the Bismarck Barrier. The Allies did not assault Rabaul itself, but they used naval bombardments and air strikes to isolate it and remove it as a factor. To the north, in May and August, Army troops reoccupied Attu and Kiska, two Aleutian Islands that had fallen to the Japanese during the Midway campaign. In November 1943, the Army's 27th Infantry Division assaulted Makin in the Gilbert Islands, as the Central Pacific Offensive opened.

By the end of 1943, the preliminaries had ended and the Allies were clearly on their way to final victory. Notwithstanding the Germany First strategy, thirteen American divisions had deployed to the Pacific whereas only slightly more—seventeen—had gone to Europe, showing that the country was fighting a real two-ocean war, even conducting three separate offensives in the Pacific. With the new year, the balance tipped even more toward Europe, as Allied leaders at the Tehran Conference in December 1943 confirmed a cross-channel attack on France for the summer of 1944. The Army now prepared for D-Day and the decisive, long-awaited “second front” in Northwest Europe.

TIMELINE

World War II (1939–1943)

1939

1 September: Germany invades Poland

1940

10 May–22 June: Fall of France

27 August: Congress approves mobilization of National Guard into federal service

3 September: President Roosevelt's destroyer deal with Great Britain

14 September: Congress approves the first peacetime draft in U.S. history

1941

11 March: Congress passes the Lend-Lease Act

22 June: Germany invades the Soviet Union

7 December: Japanese surprise attack on Pearl Harbor

8 December: United States declares war on Japan

11 December: Germany and Italy declare war on the United States

1942

9 April: Surrender of Bataan

4–8 May: Battle of the Coral Sea

7 May: Surrender of Corregidor

3–6 June: Battle of Midway

7 August: Marines land on Guadalcanal

23 August–2 February 1943: Battle of Stalingrad

13 October–9 February 1943: Army troops join the battle for Guadalcanal

23 October–4 November: Battle of El Alamein

8 November: Operation TORCH, invasion of French Northwest Africa

19 November–2 January 1943: Battle of Buna

1943

14–22 February: Battle of Kasserine Pass

11–30 May: Recapture of Attu in the Aleutian Islands

13 May: Tunisian campaign ends in Allied victory

30 June–25 August: Battle of New Georgia, part of Solomon Islands drive on Rabaul

30 June–2 October: Battles of Lae and Finschhafen, New Guinea

9 July–17 August: Sicily campaign

9 September: Landing at Salerno, Italy, by Fifth U.S. Army

8–14 October: "The Critical Week," culminating in bombing of Schweinfurt

1 November–24 December: Battle of Bougainville in the Northern Solomon Islands

20–23 November: Battle of Makin in the Gilbert Islands

28–30 November: Tehran Conference of Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin



General George C. Marshall Jr.
(U.S. Army)

PEOPLE, ARTIFACTS, AND EVENTS

As Army chief of staff during World War II, **George C. Marshall Jr.** oversaw the largest military expansion in American history, with 8 million soldiers in the ranks by 1945. A graduate of the Virginia Military Institute, young Marshall served in the Philippines and played a key role as a staff planner for the American Expeditionary Forces in World War I. While a junior officer, he received the ultimate compliment from a superior who, responding whether he would want Marshall as a future subordinate, said, “Yes, but I would prefer to serve under his command.” As assistant commandant of the Infantry School, Marshall revolutionized the curriculum to prepare officers for war’s uncertainties and to foster initiative and original thinking. In 1939, President Roosevelt promoted him over the heads of four more senior generals for the post of chief of staff. A strong voice for preparedness in the years before Pearl Harbor, the austere, grave Marshall later became such a towering figure in Allied strategic councils that President Roosevelt, when forced to decide whether to have Marshall lead the D-Day landing, reportedly admitted, “I could not sleep with you out of Washington.” Widely acclaimed as “the organizer of victory” and promoted to five-star general, Marshall left his post at the end of the war. However, President Harry S. Truman appointed him secretary of state and he received the Nobel Peace Prize for advocating the Marshall Plan to revive war-torn Europe. In 1950, President Truman again recalled him to serve as secretary of defense during the Korean War. In September 1951, after 49 years of service, he finally withdrew to his home in Virginia as the outstanding soldier-leader of his generation.

To the Army, the nation, and the world, he was simply “Ike.” Raised with five brothers on the Kansas plains, **Dwight D. Eisenhower** graduated from West Point in 1915 with the class that produced more generals than any other in academy history. Eisenhower was vigorous, gregarious, and had a wide grin that could charm prime ministers and privates. Nevertheless, Eisenhower had seen no combat and had never commanded a unit larger than a battalion before World War II. His reputation was that of a superb staff officer with a talent for coaching football on the side. He was first in his class at the Command and General Staff School and he impressed a succession of Army leaders—his mentor Fox Conner, John J. Pershing, MacArthur, and ultimately Marshall. In the year before Pearl Harbor, he rose from lieutenant colonel to brigadier general and after the attack, he served as the chief of the War Department’s Operations Division. In June 1942, Marshall sent him to London to take charge of the U.S. European Theater. His diplomatic skills and status as the leading American on the scene made him the logical choice to lead the Anglo-American invasion of French Northwest Africa. His victories as a coalition commander in the Mediterranean ultimately earned him the supreme command for Operation OVERLORD, the invasion of German-occupied France. Eisenhower made the key decision to seize on a brief break in the turbulent weather engulfing Normandy and launch the invasion on 6 June 1944. He oversaw the breakout in France, the destruction of the German Seventh Army in the Falaise Pocket, the pursuit across France to the German border, the Battle of the Bulge, and the final thrust into Germany. A successful theater commander, Eisenhower was most notable in his ability to keep strong personalities from different countries working for a common cause. A five-star general and national hero, he took Marshall’s place as chief of staff and later served two terms as president of the United States.



General Dwight D. Eisenhower
(National Archives)



*Douglas MacArthur, Robert Oliver Skemp, 1973
(Army Art Collection)*

If Eisenhower was the symbol of victory in Europe, **Douglas MacArthur** was the Army's dominant figure in the Pacific. The son of a general who received the Medal of Honor in the Civil War, the handsome, charismatic, and egotistical MacArthur was a legend even before World War II. First in his West Point class, he served in the Philippines and Veracruz, Mexico, where he engaged in personal combat with Filipino guerrillas and Mexican caballeros. After America's entry into World War I, he pushed for creation of a National Guard division from different state units—the famous Rainbow Division—and then served, as its chief of staff, then brigade commander, and finally as division commander. He personally led raids and scouts into no-man's-land, receiving two Distinguished Service Crosses. As superintendent of West Point in the early 1920s, he tried to modernize the curriculum against fierce opposition. As Army chief of staff in the Depression era, he fought to limit force cuts. In 1935, he accepted the fledgling Philippine government's request to build its army, with the rank of field marshal. As war with Japan approached, he returned to active duty as commander of U.S. Army Forces in the Far East. From the time of his forced evacuation from the Philippines in March 1942, he single-mindedly sought to carry out his pledge to return. In October 1944, he fulfilled his promise with the landing on Leyte. Clad in his distinctive crushed khaki hat with gold braid, dark sunglasses, and corncob pipe, he was the face of the Army's war in the Pacific, down to the Japanese surrender in Tokyo Bay in September 1945. After the war, he performed perhaps his greatest feat in overseeing the successful occupation of Japan. During the Korean War, his brilliant landing at Inchon put the North Koreans to flight, but his pursuit to the Yalu River led the Communist Chinese to intervene with devastating force. MacArthur's unauthorized calls for a larger war in Korea, declaring, "There is no substitute for victory," led to his controversial relief in April 1951 by President Truman. He returned home to a hero's welcome.



Brig. Gen. Benjamin O. Davis watches a Signal Corps crew erect poles in France. (*National Archives*)

Brig. Gen. Benjamin O. Davis Sr. became the first African American to attain the rank of brigadier general in the U.S. Army. During the Spanish American War, he served with the 8th U.S. Volunteer Infantry, an African American unit, as a temporary first lieutenant until it disbanded in March 1899. Three months later, he enlisted in the 9th U.S. Cavalry, rising to sergeant major within a year. While at Fort Duchesne, Utah, Davis came under Lt. Charles Young, then the only Black commissioned officer in the Army. With his assistance, Davis passed the officer candidate test at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Commissioned as a second lieutenant of cavalry on 2 February 1901, Davis deployed to the Philippines, serving with the 9th and 10th Cavalry. For the next three decades, Davis had several assignments designed to keep him from commanding White soldiers in a segregated Army. He taught military science at Wilberforce University and the Tuskegee Institute, became a military attaché in Liberia, and



Gen. Benjamin O. Davis pins the Distinguished Flying Cross on his son, Col. Benjamin O. Davis Jr. (*National Archives*)

instructed Ohio and New York National Guard soldiers. In 1938, he received his first independent command, the 369th Regiment, New York National Guard. One week before the 1940 election, President Roosevelt chose Davis to be the nation's first Black general. He spent most of World War II with the War Department's Advisory Committee on Negro Troop Policies, inspecting several Black units in the European Theater. During the Battle of the Bulge, when the need for infantry replacements was especially acute, Davis offered a proposal to train Black volunteers as individual replacements, a concept that Eisenhower modified to allow Black volunteer platoons to join White units. After fifty years of service, General Davis retired in 1948. His son, Benjamin O. Davis Jr., was the commander of the famed Tuskegee Airmen and later the first African American general in the U.S. Air Force.



Rodger W. Young, Medal of Honor recipient, reduced to private at his own request
(U.S. Army)

In January 1938, **Pvt. Rodger W. Young** joined the Ohio National Guard at the age of nineteen. Standing just 5 feet, 2 inches tall and weighing 125 pounds, he was one of the smallest soldiers in his company, but he proved himself as a soldier. By the time his unit, the 148th Infantry Regiment, deployed to the Pacific Theater in 1942, Young was a sergeant and squad leader. However, his poor hearing—the result of a head injury in high school—had so deteriorated that he believed that it might hamper his ability to lead in combat. Therefore, he asked his regimental commander to reduce him to private to eliminate that possibility. After a physical examination revealed that he was almost deaf, Young ignored the doctor’s recommendation to go to a field hospital for treatment and asked to remain with his

squad. One week later, on 31 July 1943, Private Young was part of a patrol reconnoitering Japanese positions on New Georgia in the Solomon Islands. As the patrol returned to American lines, a nearby enemy machine gun nest ambushed them. The initial burst killed two soldiers and wounded Young. Ignoring the patrol commander’s order to withdraw, Young crept toward the Japanese position. The enemy wounded him a second time. He continued to advance, drawing machine-gun fire and throwing hand grenades at the enemy emplacement until hostile fire hit him a third time and killed him. In January 1944, Young received a posthumous Medal of Honor for his sacrifice, which had enabled his platoon to withdraw from the ambush without further casualties. One year later, the songwriter Frank H. Loesser wrote “The Ballad of Rodger Young” in his memory.



George Watson, Medal of Honor recipient (U.S. Navy)

A graduate of the Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College (now Colorado State University), **Pvt. George Watson** joined the Army in September 1942 and became a bath and laundry specialist with the 29th Quartermaster Battalion. He deployed to the Pacific Theater and was on his way to New Guinea aboard the Army-chartered Dutch steamer *Jacob* when Japanese bombers attacked it on 8 March 1943. The vessel took two direct hits and soon listed heavily. The ship's captain ordered all passengers and crew to abandon ship. As the *Jacob* began to capsize, Watson disregarded his own safety and pulled soldiers who could not swim to the few available life rafts; the suction caused by the sinking ship made his task even more difficult. Yet, he continued his lifesaving efforts until he became exhausted and drowned. On 13 June 1943, Watson became the first African American to receive the Distinguished Service Cross for his actions in World War II. In 1997, President William J. "Bill" Clinton upgraded this decoration to a Medal of Honor, making Watson just one of seven Black World War II veterans so honored.



Ernie Pyle, war correspondent, eating C-rations, Anzio, Italy.
(National Archives)

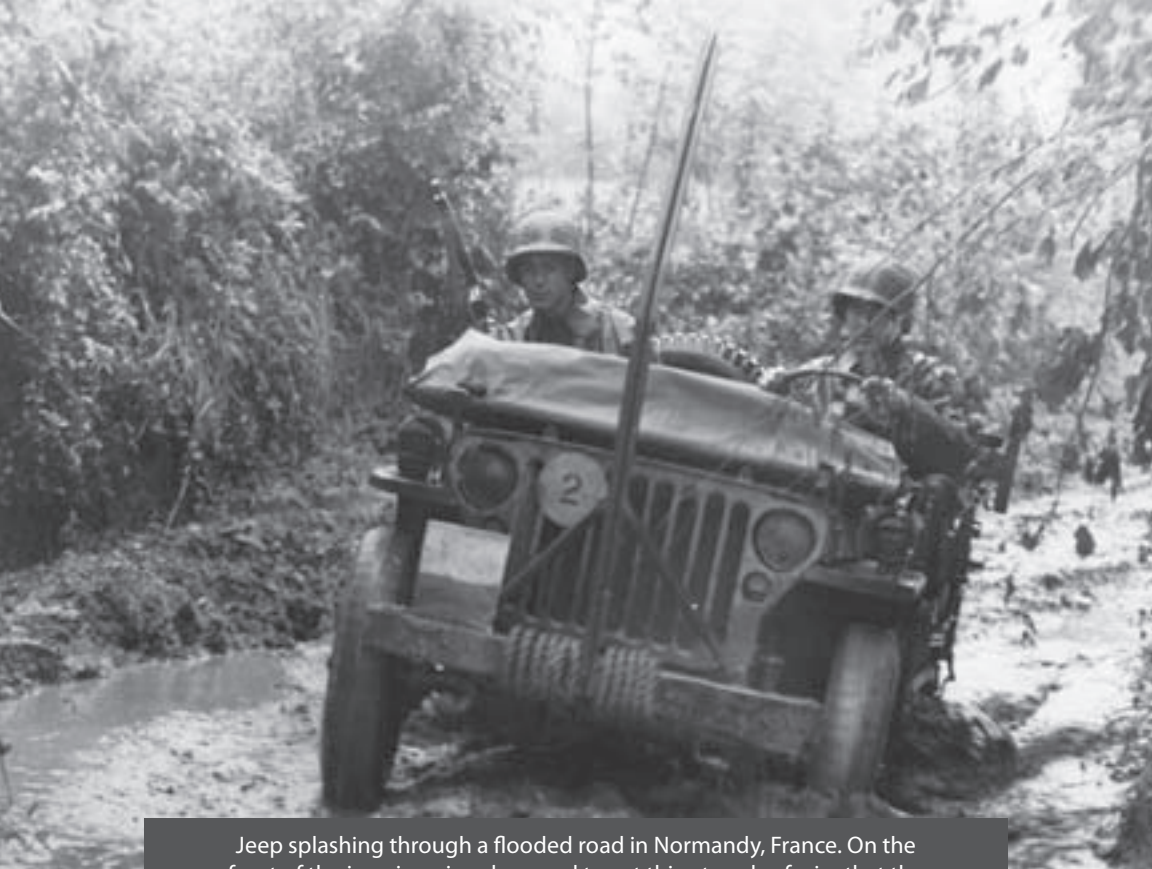
Far from the romantic, martial images of American soldiers of past wars, the media portrayed the typical soldier of World War II as a homely hero, a regular American who went about his business with bravery and resourcefulness but yearned to finish the job and return home. Two journalists in particular helped craft this depiction.

A native of Indiana, **Ernie T. Pyle** was an aviation reporter and a managing editor for the *Washington Daily News* before writing a syndicated column for Scripps-Howard, describing his car jaunts around the United States. After reporting on the German bombing of London, Pyle went to North Africa, Sicily, Italy, and France, where he wrote columns telling his American readers of the hardships, fears, and endurance of the common soldier. Wherever Pyle popped up in a familiar knit cap with his notebook,



William H. "Bill" Mauldin with sketchpad
(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

soldiers would crowd around him to give their names and hometowns on the chance that he would mention them in his column for their families to read. More than 400 newspapers carried his work, much of which he published in *Here Is Your War* (1944) and *Brave Men* (1945). In 1944, he received the Pulitzer Prize for his war correspondence. He did not survive the war; a Japanese bullet killed him on Ie Shima (Iejima) near Okinawa in April 1945. **William Henry "Bill" Mauldin**, a cartoonist for the 45th Infantry Division's newspaper and *Stars and Stripes*, developed the famous characters "Willie" and "Joe," two unshaven, disheveled soldiers who exemplified the drudgery, misery, and irreverence of the combat infantry soldier. Mauldin received the Pulitzer Prize in 1945 for his work and later published his cartoons in *Up Front* (1945).



Jeep splashing through a flooded road in Normandy, France. On the front of the jeep is an iron bar used to cut thin strands of wire that the enemy strung across the roads level with the heads of the occupants of the jeeps, which traveled with tops and windshields down.

(U.S. Army)

The original **jeep** was the result of the Army's request in 1940 for a general purpose vehicle—GP elided to “jeep”—that was small, lightweight, capable of carrying a light machine gun, and equipped with four-wheel drive for cross-country travel. The final production model appeared in late 1941 and was a collective effort of several auto and auto parts manufacturers. It had a Spicer-produced, four-wheel transmission; Willys-made Go-Devil engine; and legendary bodywork by Ford. During World War II, production of the jeep resulted in the manufacture of 647,925 vehicles, including nearly 13,000 of a Ford-made amphibious model known as the “Seep.” Ernie Pyle wrote of the jeep, “It did everything. . . . It went everywhere.” The jeep served as traveling headquarters for commanders; as taxis for aircrews heading to and from their aircraft; as combat reconnaissance vehicles; as ambulances, cargo, or artillery haulers; and as firefighting vehicles. The jeep landed with the assault waves in the Pacific, North Africa, and Europe, and it carried victorious Allies into Rome, Paris, Berlin, and Tokyo.



Inventor John C. Garand (*left*) points out features of his M1 rifle to Maj. Gen. Charles M. Wesson, U.S. Army chief of ordnance (*center*), and Brig. Gen. Gilbert H. Stewart (*right*).

(Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

Named after its designer, John C. Garand, the **M1 Garand rifle** was the standard U.S. service rifle during World War II and the Korean War. After years of testing and modification, the Springfield Armory began producing the M1 in September 1937. Further modifications followed, and by the end of 1941, the Army had equipped most of its soldiers with the M1. During World War II, the Springfield Armory and the Winchester Repeating Arms Co. produced more than 4 million M1 rifles. The M1 was a .30-caliber, semiautomatic rifle with an eight-round clip. In field conditions, it proved reliable, accurate, and easy to maintain. General Patton called it “the greatest battle implement ever devised.” The success of the M1 rifle spurred both the Allied and Axis militaries to increase their issue and development of semi- and fully-automatic small arms, and to move away from traditional bolt-action weapons.

The **M4 Sherman Medium Tank** was the most widely used Allied tank of its class in World War II. Not surprisingly, the M4 was also the most-produced tank in American history, with nearly 50,000 rolling off assembly lines from February 1942 to July 1945. The U.S. Army received 19,247 tanks, the Marine Corps 1,114, and the U.S. government distributed more than 20,000 to Great Britain, Canada, France, China, and the Soviet Union through Lend-Lease. The British named it the “Sherman” after the American Civil War general, William T. Sherman, a designation that the U.S. Army soon adopted. Although initially outgunned by heavier German tanks, the standard M4 tank was reliable, sturdy, and easy to



maintain, boasting a 75-mm. (later 76-mm.) main gun, one heavy and two medium machine guns, and a fully traversable turret for its five-soldier crew. The M4 proved extremely adaptable under adverse conditions, and constantly received improvements to firepower, protection, and mobility during the war. The British attached rotors and chains to clear paths through minefields, whereas the Americans fashioned plows to drive through the hedgerow country of Normandy. Using a special flotation screen, engineers even made the M4 buoyant enough to launch from a landing craft and make its way to shore under propeller power.



A Sherman tank battalion preparing for an attack near the village of Monghidoro, Italy
(U.S. Army)



Motorola SCR-300 radio
(National Electronics Museum)

Radio communications made huge strides during World War II. In the interwar years, the inventor Edwin H. Armstrong, a veteran of the Army Signal Corps, set the stage for these advances by developing frequency modulation (FM) as an improvement in sound quality on amplitude modulation (AM) transmissions. FM crystal-controlled sets were the equivalent of wire telephone communications—reliable, mostly noise-free, and easy to use. AM radio had one distinct advantage over FM, however, in that users could transmit AM signals over much greater distances. FM operators overcame this problem by using radio-relay techniques, extending the short-range of FM in 30-mile intervals to whatever distance users might require. They accomplished this with relays of truck-mounted equipment, providing in a matter of hours long-range, highly reliable, multichannel circuits—much faster, easier, and cheaper than laying miles of wire lines. Better yet, technicians soon interconnected these radio networks into wire-line systems. The marriage of wire and radio created high-quality communications, irrespective of whether signals traveled by wire or radio. In combat, armor and artillery units and infantry commands using the portable **SCR-300 backpack radio, or “walkie-talkie,”** could talk and hear clearly over their FM sets, which remained free of the static and interference that bedeviled enemy combatants’ AM radios. “I know the fighting would have lasted longer if we hadn’t had FM on our side,” wrote an American veteran of the European theater. “We were able to shoot fast and effectively because we could get information quickly and accurately by voice on FM.”

For all the advances in radio communications, their vulnerability to interception and decryption produced **ULTRA**, the greatest Allied intelligence coup of the war. **ULTRA** was the code word that the Allies used to identify intelligence from a variety of decrypted German and Japanese military and naval ciphers. For their codes, the Germans employed the Enigma machine, a device that used predetermined settings to convert plain text or coded signals into a seemingly random series of letters. The Germans thought the device made their communications impenetrable, but Polish and French intelligence worked with British cryptanalysts at a British estate called Bletchley Park to reconstruct the machine and crack the codes. By 1943, **ULTRA** intercepts enabled the Allies to track German submarines, contributing to victory in the battle of the Atlantic. They also proved of enormous value in identifying enemy units, although overreliance on **ULTRA** occasionally cost the Allies, as at the battles of Kasserine Pass and the Bulge. For the Pacific, American cryptanalysts at Arlington Hall in the Washington, D.C., suburbs worked with their British and Australian colleagues to crack Japanese Army and Navy codes. Intercepts from the Japanese Navy's main administrative code proved decisive at the Battle of Midway. Allied success in the great air battles of late 1942 and early 1943, in submarine attacks against Japanese shipping, and in the downing of the plane of Japanese Admiral Yamamoto Isoroku—the architect of the Pearl Harbor raid—owed much to alerts from **ULTRA**. The existence of **ULTRA** remained a secret until British Group Capt. Frederick W. Winterbotham's *The ULTRA Secret* appeared in 1974.



German Enigma machine in use in 1943
(*Wikimedia Commons*)



Two DUKWs on a beach near Anzio, Italy
(U.S. Army)

Early in the war, Allied logisticians faced a major challenge in unloading seaborne cargo across beaches and getting it inland to supply dumps. In the spring of 1943, Allied planners in the Mediterranean had to land the Seventh Army on Sicily without a nearby major port to sustain the force. A large part of the solution to this transportation problem was the **DUKW**, a 2.5-ton amphibious truck developed by Sparkman and Stephens yacht designers under the auspices of the U.S. Office of Scientific Research and Development. (D stood for model year, U for amphibian, K for all-wheel drive, and W for dual rear axles.) The DUKW consisted of a General Motors six-wheel-drive military truck with a 269.5-cubic-inch, straight-six engine, and a boat-shaped hull for buoyancy. It was 31 feet long, 8 feet wide, and 9 feet high and it could carry 5,000 pounds or 24 troops. Its maximum speed was 50 miles per hour on the road and 6.4 miles per hour on the water. It was the first vehicle to allow the driver to vary the tire pressure from the cab, according to the surface on which it was operating. The first wartime use of the DUKW involved landing of troops on Nouméa, New Caledonia, in the Pacific Theater in March 1943. Between 1942 and 1945, General Motors built 21,147 of the vehicles, which unloaded thousands of troops and tons of supplies across beaches in every theater. The Army organized 70 amphibious truck companies and assigned 12,829 soldiers to operate and maintain their vehicles.



A B-25 Mitchell bomber takes off from the USS *Hornet* during the Doolittle Raid. (National Archives)

In response to Pearl Harbor and the string of Japanese victories in early 1942, President Roosevelt urged the Joint Chiefs of Staff to find a way to bomb Japan as soon as possible to boost American morale and shake Japanese confidence. Army Air Forces headquarters chose veteran pilot Lt. Col. James H. Doolittle to lead the mission. On 18 April 1942, sixteen B-25 Mitchell medium bombers took off from the aircraft carrier USS *Hornet* about 600 miles east of Japan, almost 200 miles farther than planned owing to the task force's discovery by a Japanese patrol boat. Neither Doolittle nor his pilots had ever guided a bomber off the deck of an aircraft carrier before, but they managed to do so without a mishap. On reaching the Japanese mainland, the crews dropped their bombs on oil storage facilities, military installations, and factories in Tokyo and several other Japanese cities, and then headed out over the East China Sea. As their fuel tanks emptied, the pilots realized they could not reach their designated airfields in China. One by one, the crews ditched at sea, bailed out, or crash-landed in China. One B-25 even landed in the Soviet Union. Although the **Doolittle Raid** did relatively little physical damage, American home front morale soared. The raid also stunned the Japanese people and embarrassed their leaders, who decided to extend their island defense perimeter farther into the Pacific—a decision that led to the decisive Battle of Midway.



The Chaplain in World War II, Ken Riley, 1975
(Army Art Collection)

After the surrender of Bataan on 9 April 1942, the Japanese herded their 78,000 Filipino and American prisoners on a grueling 65-mile trek up the peninsula to an old Philippine Army post at Camp O'Donnell—an episode that came to be known as the **Bataan Death March**. More than 600 Americans and between 5,000 and 10,000 Filipinos perished in this infamous ordeal. Many of the Allied troops were already sick with malaria or dysentery and close to starving after months of hard fighting and lack of proper food. The Japanese underestimated the number of prisoners and their fitness for such a march. Some of the captives rode in trucks to their destination. The Japanese allowed others to receive food and water from Filipino civilians who lined the route. But for too many, the march was

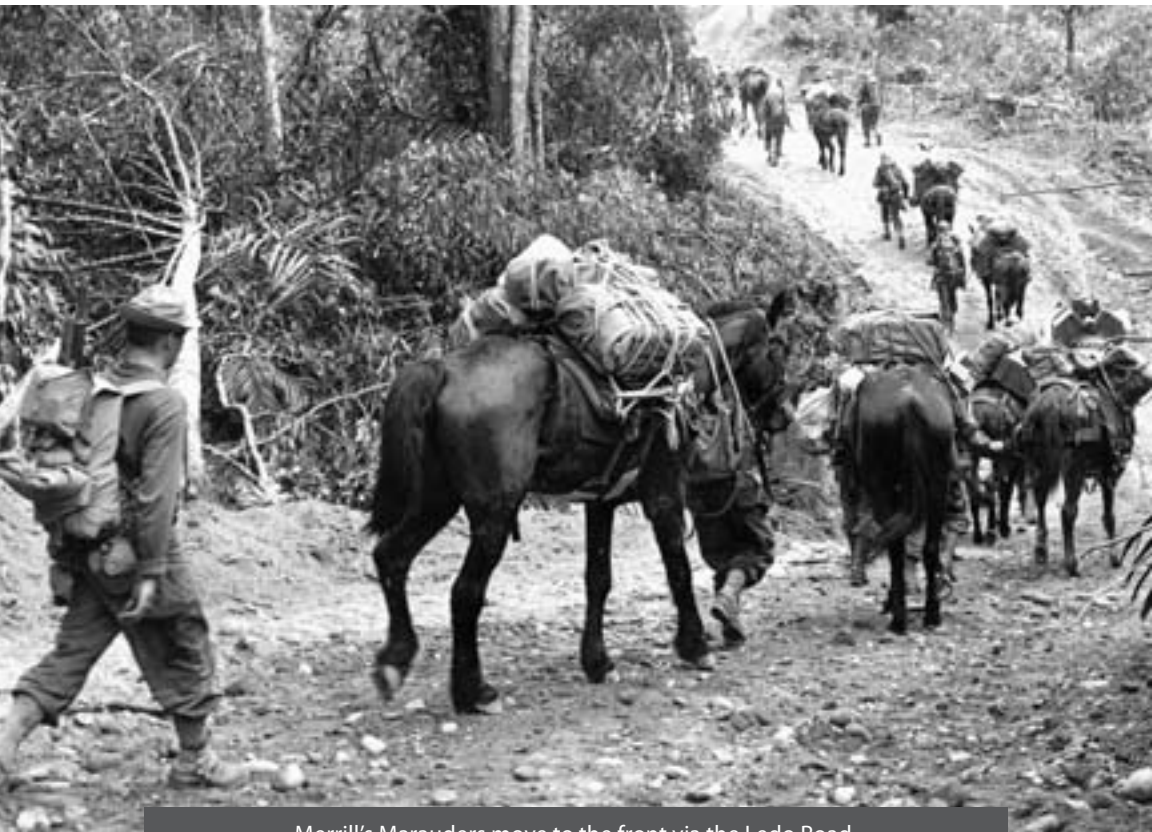


marked by inexorable cruelty. Japanese troops shot, bayoneted, or beheaded soldiers who could not keep up with the others. They confiscated personal items in repeated “searches”; one officer who refused to surrender his wedding ring had his finger hacked off with a bolo knife. On occasion, the guards stopped the thirsty prisoners next to artesian wells, allowing them to see the water but killing anyone who tried to drink. Bodies lay across the road in various stages of decomposition. Only in 1943, as some American prisoners escaped captivity, did the gruesome story reach the United States. In 1946, the Allies executed the Japanese commander, General Homma Masaharu, for various war crimes that included the death march, although he claimed ignorance of the march’s high casualty rate.



Flying the Hump, Moonlight, CBI, Tom Lea.
(Army Art Collection)

By occupying Burma in the spring of 1942, the Japanese closed the Burma Road, 700 miles of dirt highway that represented China's last overland link with the outside world. For three years, American logisticians had to send fuel, ammunition, and other supplies to China over the **Hump**, a 500-mile-long airlift from Assam, India, over the 15,000-foot peaks of the Himalayas to Chinese airfields at Kunming. The air transports frequently had to fly at their maximum altitude. They encountered icing, turbulence, monsoon weather, and Japanese fighters from bases in northern Burma. As more transport planes became available—more than 300 in 1945—airlift tonnage rose from 82 tons in July 1942 to 18,975 tons in July 1944,



Merrill's Marauders move to the front via the Ledo Road.
(U.S. Army)

and finally 71,042 tons in July 1945. Meanwhile, in one of the major engineering feats of the war, the Army's engineers constructed a new road from the Indian town of Ledo, near the Burma border, through hundreds of miles of rugged jungle terrain. As Chinese forces under American General Joseph W. Stilwell advanced into northern Burma in 1944, the engineers of the **Ledo Road** followed, first to Myitkyina in northern Burma, then to Bhamo, and finally to Mu-se, where it linked up with the old Burma Road and continued to China. When the entire route of 928 miles from Ledo to Kunming opened in February 1945, the Allies renamed it the Stilwell Road after the general who had done so much to make it possible.



The "Big Red One" shoulder sleeve insignia
(U.S. Army Institute of Heraldry)

The combat record in World War II of the 1st Infantry Division—known as the “**Big Red One**” after its shoulder sleeve insignia—only added to the already considerable laurels of the oldest division in the U.S. Army. Initially led by Maj. Gen. Terry de la Mesa Allen and Brig. Gen. Theodore Roosevelt Jr., the president’s son, the division made its first combat amphibious landing at Oran in French Algeria as part of Operation TORCH. At El Guettar, Tunisia, on 23 March 1943, the “Fighting First” withstood a powerful counterattack by the German *10th Panzer Division*. That afternoon, division intelligence broke the German radio battle code and reported that the enemy would renew the drive at 4:00 p.m. At 4:15, the division broadcast over the German radio battle net, “What the hell are you guys waiting for? We have been ready since 4:00.” Thirty minutes later, the Germans did attack, but the division had repulsed them by nightfall. When the II Corps conducted its final offensive in northern Tunisia, the 1st Division often used General Allen’s trademark night attacks to break through the rugged mountain terrain. In Sicily, the Big Red One made its second combat amphibious landing. It threw back a counterthrust that threatened to break through to the sea, drove across the island, and finally fought through fierce resistance in the mountains near the northern coast. Under a new leader, Maj. Gen. Clarence R. Huebner, the division conducted its third combat amphibious landing on D-Day, where heroes like Col. George A. Taylor and Capt. Joseph T. Dawson provided the leadership needed for the division to fight its way off the beach. When the First U.S. Army attacked in July near Saint-Lô during Operation COBRA, the motorized 1st Division was part of the exploitation force that broke through the enemy front and paved the way for the drive across France to the German border. Five months later, the division stood like a rock along the northern shoulder of the Bulge, turning back the final German counteroffensive. One of its veterans, Samuel M. Fuller, later directed the epic war film *The Big Red One* (1980), starring Lee Marvin and Mark Hamill.



“Cuidado—Take Care, Bushmasters!”, H. Charles McBarron Jr., 1994
(Army Art Collection)

In the World War II Army, the 158th Infantry, Arizona National Guard, was unique. Descended from the 1st Arizona Volunteer Infantry of the Civil War era, the regiment consisted of Mexican-American soldiers and representatives from twenty Native American tribes. It formed part of the 45th Infantry Division when that unit went on active duty in 1940, but after Pearl Harbor, it went to the Panama Canal Zone as a separate regiment. There, it conducted security patrols and helped with jungle warfare training. It also adopted the nickname **Bushmasters** after the venomous snake that inhabited the region. In January 1943, the regiment deployed to Australia. After a period of security duty, it entered combat for the first time at the end of the year near Arawe, New Britain, as part of MacArthur’s New Guinea campaign. Through the spring of 1944, the Bushmasters participated in hard fighting in New Guinea, killing an estimated 920 Japanese soldiers but losing 330 of their own. Joining MacArthur’s return to Luzon, Philippines, in January 1945, the Bushmasters took heavy casualties in attacks against dug-in Japanese troops along the Damortis-Rosario Road. In “Two-Gun Valley,” Company G earned the Presidential Unit Citation for capturing 2 Japanese howitzers and killing 164 enemy troops. In April, the regiment advanced through Luzon’s Bicol Peninsula as part of the overall objective of clearing the Visayan Sea passage through the central islands of the Philippines. It completed its Pacific odyssey by landing in Yokohama in October 1945 to participate in the occupation of Japan. General MacArthur would later say of the Bushmasters, “No greater fighting combat team has ever deployed for battle.”



GLOBAL WAR: THE U.S. ARMY AND WORLD WAR II, 1944–1945

by David W. Hogan Jr. and Mark L. Bradley

As the United States entered its third year of war, its presence was having an increasing impact around the world. In Russia, the Soviets—aided by American lend-lease supplies—were fighting the bulk of the German Army, driving them into Belorussia and Ukraine. In Italy, the Allies continued their offensive up the peninsula, although the Germans made the advance as bloody and arduous as possible. Many U.S. Army units in the Mediterranean shifted to the British Isles, where the buildup of troops, materiel, and vehicles had turned England into an armed camp. In the central and southwest Pacific, with the close of the Solomon Islands drive, the Army played a major role in the two Allied offensives converging on Japan. After years of waiting and frustration, the Chinese, British, and Americans finally advanced from India into the jungle-covered mountains of northern Burma.

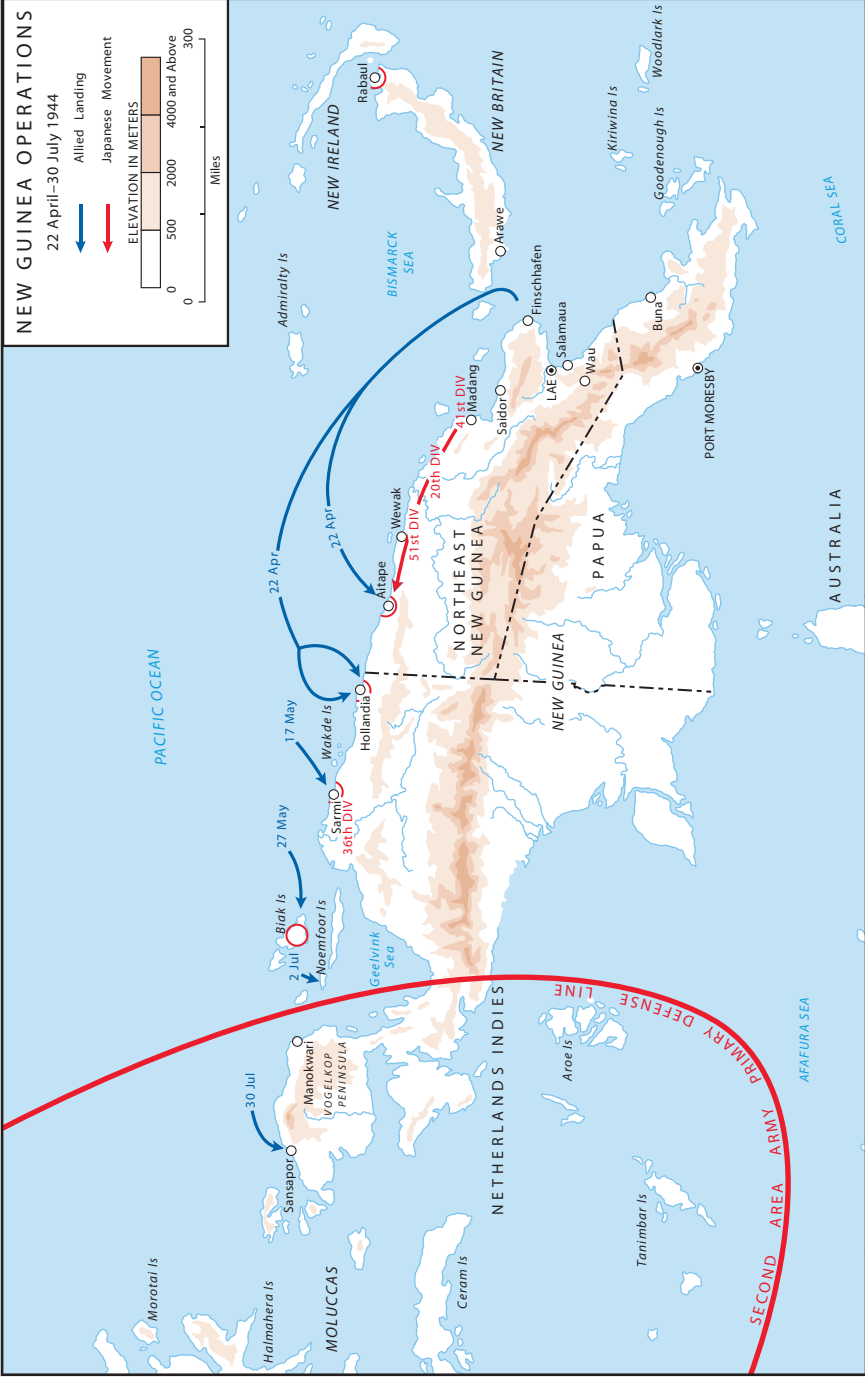
Although the other Allies had larger interests in Burma and Southeast Asia, the Americans sought merely to reopen a ground supply route from India to China. Thus, the Army established a sizable logistical structure in India. It used only a few combat troops, mostly a long-range penetration group of around 3,000 soldiers led by Brig. Gen. Frank D. Merrill, known as Merrill's Marauders. As Lt. Gen. Joseph W. Stilwell's two Chinese divisions—under orders from Chinese Nationalist military leader Chiang Kai-shek not to risk heavy losses—drove methodically forward, the Marauders sliced deep around the Japanese flank to set roadblocks across enemy lines of communications. Kachin guerrillas from northern Burma guided their movements, and Army transport planes airdropped supplies to them into jungle landing zones. Finally, Stilwell sent the Marauders on a 65-mile trek to seize the key airfield at Myitkyina, Burma, on 17 May 1944. But the American troops, exhausted by long marches and savage combat and sick with malaria and scrub typhus, could go no farther.



Brig. Gen. Frank D. Merrill (*right*) and Lt. Gen. Joseph W. Stilwell meet near Naubum, Burma. (*U.S. Army*)

Other troops finally relieved the Marauders and captured Myitkyina in August. During the rest of the year, they drove south to link up with the old Burma Road and reopen the route to China. Meanwhile, after winning a decisive battle over the Japanese at Imphal, India, in the spring of 1944, General Sir William J. Slim's Anglo-Indian Fourteenth Army advanced into central and southern Burma and retook Rangoon in May 1945. By that time, the Americans had given up on China as a major instrument of Japan's defeat and were looking entirely to the Pacific for decisive results.

During early 1944, the Pacific offensives shifted into high gear. Strengthened by the massive new *Essex*-class aircraft carriers coming out of American shipyards, joint task forces overpowered Japanese defenses at Kwajalein and Eniwetok Atolls in the central Pacific in January and February. After encircling and isolating a major Japanese base at the occupied coastal town of Rabaul, New Britain, General Douglas MacArthur's southwest Pacific forces landed in the Admiralty Islands. Then, in April, they jumped ahead to Hollandia and Aitape on the north



Map 1



North American P-51 Mustang fighter of the 375th Fighter Squadron,
361st Fighter Group, Eighth Air Force, over France, July 1944.
(National Archives)

central coast of the island of New Guinea, far behind the outflanked Japanese main force. Supported by land-based planes flying from new airfields at Hollandia, the Americans and Australians then leapfrogged to Wakde Island in mid-May, then to Biak Island in late May, and finally to Noemfoor Island and the Vogelkop Peninsula at the western end of New Guinea in July. American soldiers faced heavy fighting in mopping up the cut-off Japanese garrisons in the steamy jungles of New Guinea, but their impressive advance left MacArthur 700 miles from the Philippines.

As the Pacific campaign proceeded, the Combined Bomber Offensive had turned a corner in Europe. Bombers flying over Germany in early 1944 no longer had to fend off the relentless German fighters unaided. New, faster, and more maneuverable P-51 Mustangs, their range increased by drop tanks, now escorted the bomber fleets and began to shoot down enemy planes in impressive numbers. During the “Big Week” of 19–25 February 1944, more than 6,000 British and American bombers, supported by more than 3,600 fighter sorties, dropped nearly 20,000 tons of bombs on German aircraft plants, airfields, and ball bearing factories. Not only did the raids severely damage German aircraft production, but they also shot down 450 Nazi fighters. With growing confidence, Allied aviators drove further into Germany, adding Berlin to their target list and largely driving the Luftwaffe from the sky. As D-Day approached, the bombers shifted their emphasis to French railroads and roads to obstruct the German



Soldiers of the U.S. 3d Infantry Division landing at Anzio in late January 1944.
(U.S. Army)

ability to reinforce beachheads. With the beachheads secured, they went after a new target: German oil production. Despite frantic Nazi efforts—including the introduction of jet fighters in the war’s last months—the air offensive inflicted such damage that Hitler’s soldiers struggled to find enough fuel to run their tanks and vehicles.

Some of the American bombers came from bases in Italy, where in early 1944 Allied ground forces continued their slow progress up the Italian boot against the heavily fortified Winter Line. To speed up the advance in late January, the Allies tried to go around these barriers with an amphibious landing on the beaches of Anzio, 60 miles behind the Winter Line and only 30 miles from Rome. Although the attack surprised the Germans, they quickly rushed in reinforcements and tried to drive the invaders back into the sea. Allied troops threw back these assaults but could not expand their foothold. The situation soon devolved into a stalemate to match the one farther south. There, in conjunction with the Anzio landing, Lt. Gen. Mark W. Clark’s Fifth Army punched across the swollen Rapido River but could only establish a small bridgehead that it soon had to abandon after sustaining heavy losses. For the next three months, the Allies made little headway against this sector of the front, which was dominated by the high ground of Monte Cassino, a historic Benedictine abbey overlooking the valley. Even bombing raids that destroyed the abbey could not break the deadlock.



General Dwight D. Eisenhower gives the order of the day, “Full victory—nothing else,” to paratroopers in England, just before they board their airplanes to participate in the first assault in Operation OVERLORD. (*Library of Congress*)

Finally, in mid-May, the Allies broke through on both fronts. A carefully coordinated attack on 11 May by the Fifth and Eighth Armies—assisted by a thrust through the mountains by French troops and valiant assaults by Polish battalions on Monte Cassino—tore open the Winter Line. As the Germans fell back, the Anglo-Americans broke out of the Anzio beachhead and looked poised to link up with the Allies advancing from the Gustav Line. Instead of cutting off the enemy lines of retreat, General Clark turned those spearheads northwest toward Rome and began a race for the Italian capital. On 4 June, the Allies entered the “Eternal City,” as cheering crowds sang and threw flowers at their liberators.

Two days later came the news for which the Allies had been waiting four years. At just past dawn on 6 June 1944, American, British, and Canadian troops waded ashore under enemy fire in Normandy, France, along a line of beaches code-named UTAH, OMAHA, GOLD, JUNO, and SWORD. At the same time, airborne forces, commandos, and U.S. Army Rangers seized key points on the German flanks and rear. On four beaches, General Dwight D. Eisenhower’s soldiers were able to establish footholds relatively easily, but on OMAHA Beach, the First U.S. Army ran into fierce resistance from German pillboxes and machine-gun nests on the bluffs above the beaches. Amphibious tanks, which were supposed to reach the sands to support the infantry, foundered in the rough waters of the English Channel. For a time, it appeared that Lt. Gen. Omar N. Bradley would have to call off the assault at OMAHA. But U.S. Navy battleships and destroyers laid down a blistering bombardment of the German positions. On the beaches, numerous small unit leaders inspired their soldiers to make their way up the heights, break through the defenses, and push inland. By the end of June, the First Army had overrun the key port of Cherbourg and the Cotentin Peninsula and was expanding its lodgment as more troops and supplies poured over the beaches.

Although the Germans, aided by the rugged Norman hedges and swamps, contained the beachhead through most of July, they could not do so forever. On 25 July, in Operation COBRA, American heavy bombers and artillery blasted the enemy line west of Saint-Lô, opening the way for a concentrated attack by three U.S. divisions, followed by three more divisions in exploitation. The front blew wide open as American armored spearheads raced south. Then Lt. Gen. George S. Patton Jr.’s Third Army entered the battle, turning west into Brittany and east to envelop the enemy flank. When Hitler tried to restore the front with a counterattack, Patton drove east and north to encircle almost entirely the German *Seventh Army*, as Allied planes turned this “Falaise pocket” into a killing zone. Meanwhile, Franco-American forces landed in southern France near Marseille and drove up the Rhône Valley to link up with Eisenhower’s forces. By late August, the Allies had advanced east to the Seine River



Map 2

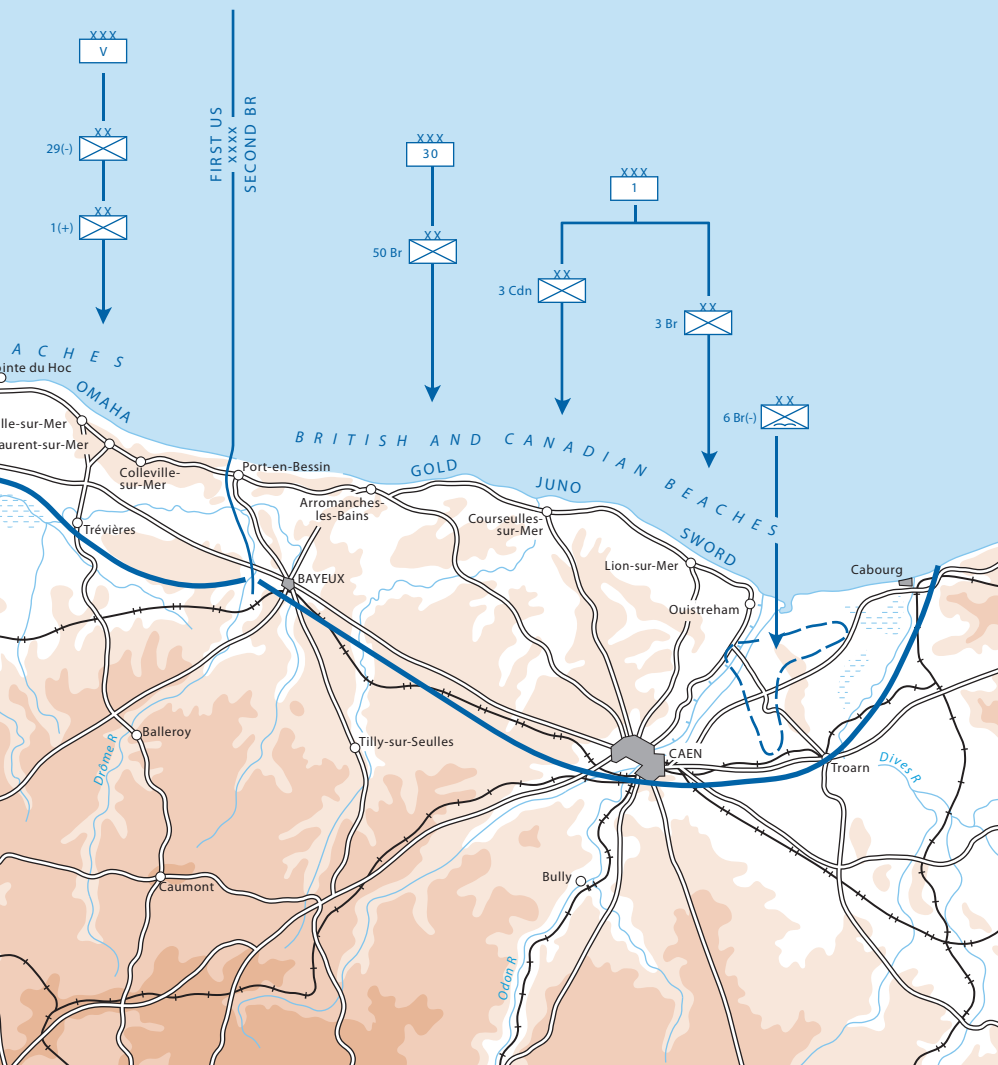
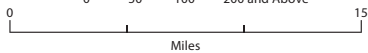
D - DAY

6 June 1944

 Drop Zones

 D-Day Phase Line

ELEVATION IN METERS





D-Day: Troops of Company A, 16th Infantry, 1st Infantry Division, wading onto OMAHA Beach on the morning of 6 June 1944. (*National Archives*)

with the Germans in headlong retreat. When French resistance forces rose in revolt against the German garrison of Paris, Eisenhower and Bradley sent French and American troops to liberate the “City of Light.” Parisian crowds cheered as American soldiers marched down the Champs-Élysées past the Arc de Triomphe on their way to the front. By early September 1944, the Allies had reached the German border, the Nazi armies were in tatters, and the end of the war seemed close.

The celebration was premature. The Allied forces had raced across France so rapidly that they outpaced their logisticians’ ability to supply them. Armored columns approaching the German border were already running low on fuel, the bulk of which was still in Normandy supply depots far behind the spearheads. Desperate expedients like the special truck convoys of the Red Ball Express could not entirely make up the deficit. British Field Marshal Sir Bernard L. Montgomery pressed Eisenhower to concentrate the available resources in his northern army group for a single thrust on Berlin, but the supreme commander instead opted for a more



conservative broad front strategy. In mid-September, Operation MARKET GARDEN—Montgomery’s attempt to jump to the Rhine with airborne troops—came up short, and the Allies had to focus on restoring their supply situation. By mid-November, when the Allies could again launch a major drive, the Germans had recovered their balance. The result was a tough, slogging advance, often in cold rain, through the gloomy recesses of the Hürtgen Forest, against German fortifications in Lorraine, and over the heavily wooded terrain of the Vosges mountains in Alsace.

As American, British, and Soviet armies converged on Hitler’s beleaguered Third Reich, American forces were breaching Japan’s inner Pacific defensive perimeter—the Mariana Islands. In mid-June 1944, two Marine divisions and the 27th Infantry Division assaulted the island of Saipan. The joint force seized a key airfield in the southern part of the island and then turned north for a grueling three-week battle against fierce Japanese opposition. Concurrently, U.S. Navy fliers defeated their Japanese adversaries in the battle of the Philippine Sea. With the Japanese



Soldiers of Company I, 181st Regiment, 8th Infantry Division, move through Hürtgen, Germany, 6 December 1944. (*National Archives*)

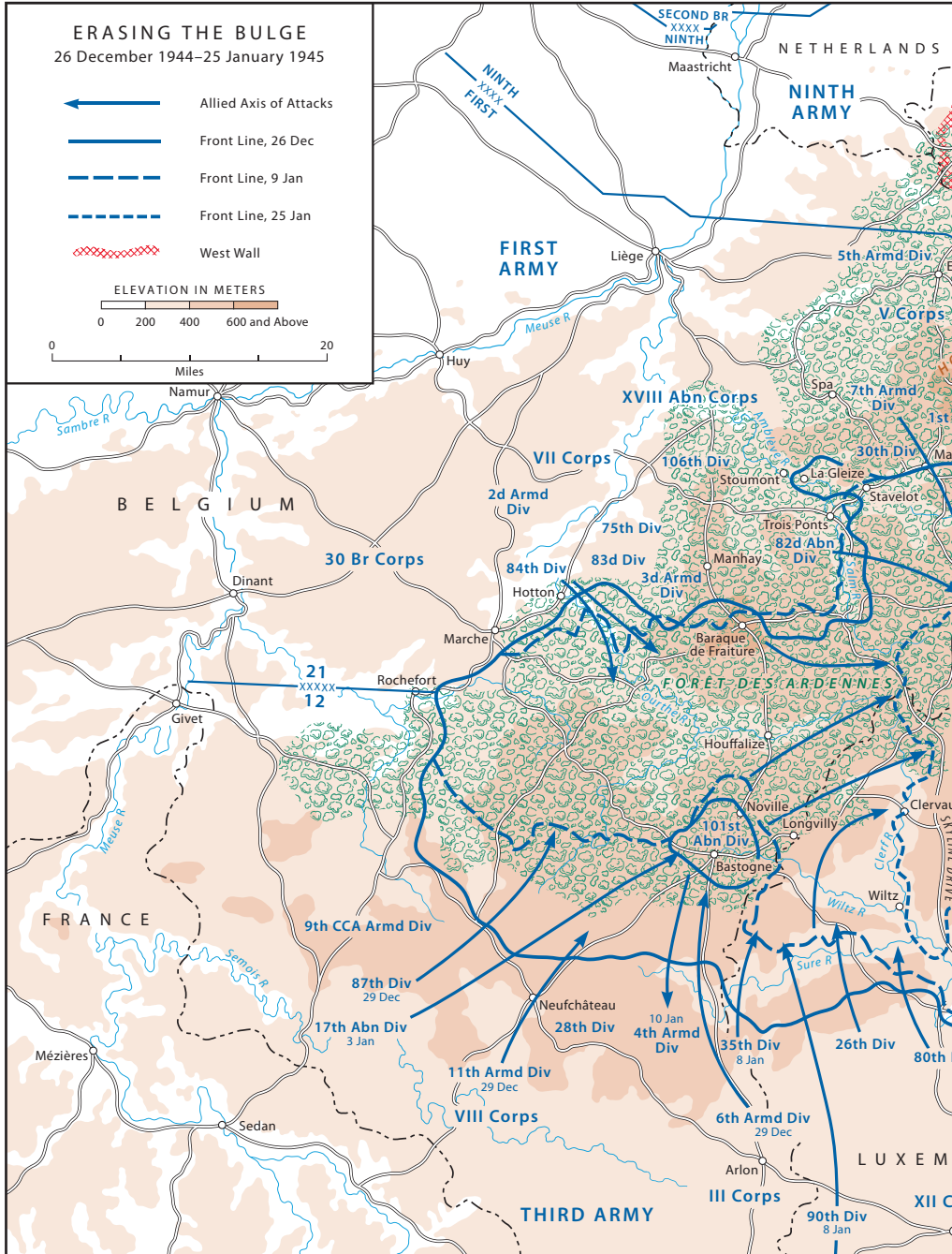
naval forces out of the picture, Marines and soldiers invaded the former American possession of Guam on 21 July; three days later, Marines landed on Tinian. By mid-August, Guam and Tinian were under American control, and the Japanese home islands were now within the range of the new B-29 long-range bombers, which began flying missions from the Marianas in November.

By then, the redemption of the Philippines had begun. On the morning of 20 October, four divisions of Lt. Gen. Walter Krueger's Sixth Army stormed ashore at the island of Leyte. A few hours later, General MacArthur waded ashore with his staff and, from an Army signal truck, told Filipinos, "I have returned! By the grace of Almighty God, our forces stand again on Philippine soil." While the U.S. Navy decisively defeated the Japanese fleet in the largest naval battle in history, Krueger's force still had to contend with zealous Japanese resistance as well as torrential rains that limited air support and turned roads to mud. An amphibious landing on Leyte's west coast cut off the Japanese from reinforcement, and by late December, the Americans had secured the most important parts of the island, although, as elsewhere in the Pacific, mopping-up operations would continue well into 1945.

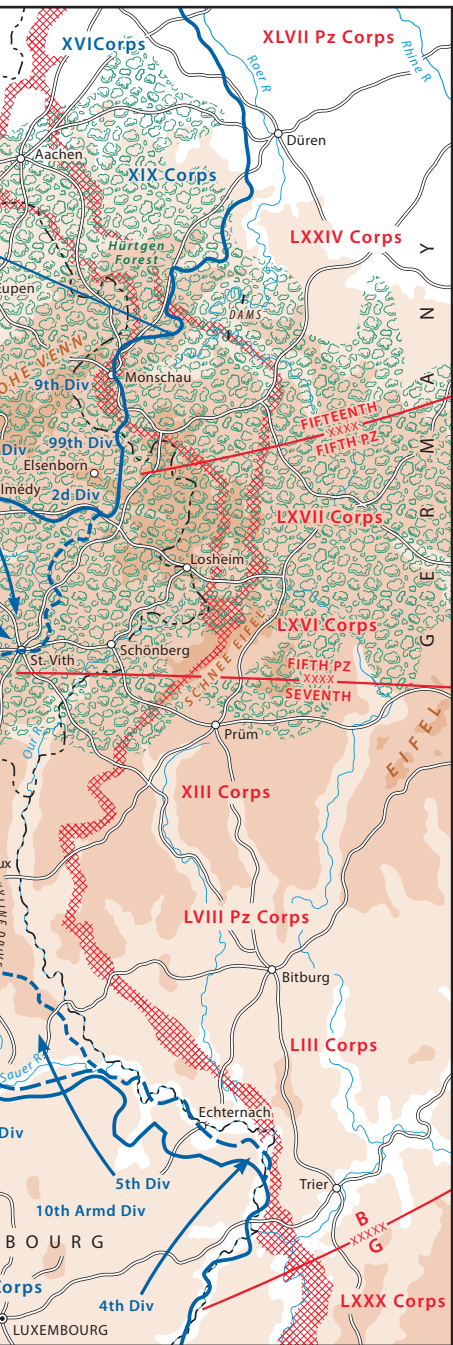


MacArthur wades ashore at Leyte, 20 October 1944.
(U.S. Department of Defense)

With victory in Europe and the Pacific so close, American hopes received a rude jolt in mid-December 1944. Gambling on a massive counteroffensive that would reverse the course of the war, Hitler sent three armies in a surprise attack against an inactive sector of the front in the Ardennes Forest of Luxembourg and southern Belgium. If they reached their objective of Belgium's North Sea port of Antwerp, they would divide Eisenhower's armies and bring back dark memories of 1940. But this time, they did not succeed. Small pockets of American combat troops fought hard to delay the German advance, engineers built roadblocks, and depot detachments spirited away fuel and other supplies that the enemy badly needed. On the northern and southern shoulders of the incursion, American resistance hardened, giving the fight its name: the Battle of the Bulge. When the Germans demanded the surrender of the surrounded crossroads of Bastogne, the commander of the 101st Airborne Division derisively responded, "Nuts!" Hurrying to the rescue, Patton turned his Third Army 90 degrees to face north and hit the Bulge's southern shoulder with a counterattack, while the 2d Armored Division blunted the tip of the offensive near the Meuse River. Then in early January, the First Army



Map 3



attacked from the north. By late January, the Americans had regained the lost ground, inflicting heavy casualties from which the Germans could not recover.

The end in Europe was now in sight, although it still took three more months to finish the job. Eisenhower's seven armies drove the weakening German forces toward the Rhine River, which promised to present a formidable barrier as the enemy blew every bridge that the Allies could use to cross. They missed one, however. On 7 March 1945, an American platoon seized a railroad bridge at Remagen before the German engineers could set off their charges. Within two weeks, the First Army built up a formidable force in the bridgehead, even while Montgomery's army group to the north and American forces to the south were crossing the Rhine elsewhere. Finally, in late March, the Allies launched their final offensive, surrounding 325,000 Germans in the Ruhr Valley. They drove east to the Elbe River to link up with the Soviet forces pushing westward, and then turned southeast to overrun Bavaria, entered Czechoslovakia, and reached the Alps. Along the way, they liberated concentration camps that had been the instruments for Hitler's attempt to eliminate Jewish people. At the same time, in Italy, Allied forces broke through the German front in the Apennine Mountains and rolled across the fertile plains of northern Italy's Po Valley to the Alps. On 30 April, Hitler died by suicide in his Berlin bunker, and his successors surrendered to the Allies on 7 May.

While Nazi Germany collapsed in Europe, Japan's "rising sun" was setting in the Pacific. On the morning of 9 January 1945, MacArthur sent Krueger's Sixth Army of almost 175,000 soldiers ashore against



Last picture of Lt. Gen. Simon Bolivar Buckner Jr., (right) taken on Okinawa, 18 June 1945 (*National Park Service*)

little opposition at Lingayen Gulf on the main Philippine island of Luzon. The Americans then thrust east across the island and south to Manila, MacArthur spurring on his soldiers in his zeal to liberate the Philippine capital. But the Japanese, using concrete buildings and old Spanish stone fortresses in the inner city, fought hard into March, leaving the metropolis of 800,000 people in ruins. American columns soon overran most of the rest of Luzon, but the Japanese holed up in the mountains in the northern part of the island until the end of the war. In the interim, MacArthur sent various joint task forces to free the rest of the Philippines, liberating thousands of prisoners and civilians along the way.

With the bloody capture of Iwo Jima by the Marines, the stage was set for the battle for Okinawa, 350 miles south of the Japanese home islands. The Americans assembled the largest amphibious assault force of the Pacific War—183,000 troops in four Army and three Marine divisions under the overall command of Lt. Gen. Simon B. Buckner Jr.'s Tenth Army, backed by an enormous invasion fleet and aerial armada. On 1 April, four of these divisions hit the beaches on the island's western shore. They met little initial opposition, for the Japanese were pulling back into the inland hills where they had built an immense complex of cave and tunnel defenses. For months, soldiers and Marines dug the enemy out of innumerable bunkers, while Japanese kamikaze planes dove into, sank,



Japanese prisoner being searched at the entrance of a cave after he has surrendered. (U.S. Army)

or severely damaged numerous American warships. With naval gunfire and air support, the Americans conquered the island by the end of June, but not before losing their commander, General Buckner, to an enemy antitank shell.

The fierce Japanese opposition seemed a grim precursor for the next step: the invasion of the Japanese home islands. Planning was underway for a landing in November on the western Japanese island of Kyushu, followed in early 1946 by an assault on the main island of Honshu. Under General MacArthur, the Army assembled its forces, bringing over units from Europe, and assembled mountains of supplies in the western Pacific. Meanwhile, the Navy tightened its submarine and surface blockade of Japan and bombarded the Japanese coast. The Army Air Forces raised its B-29 raids to new levels, firebombing Tokyo and other Japanese cities and leaving little more than rubble. Then, on 6 August, a B-29 dropped an atomic bomb on Hiroshima, followed three days later by another one on Nagasaki. Faced with this formidable new weapon and Soviet entry into the war, the Japanese government finally sued for peace. On 2 September, formal ceremonies took place on the battleship, *Missouri*, in Tokyo Bay.

At the end of World War II, the United States Army had reached the highest level of power and prestige it had ever achieved. The Army contained about 8.3 million soldiers, including 2.4 million aviation



Atomic bomb mushroom cloud over Nagasaki, 9 August 1945
(*National Archives*)



Surrender ceremony aboard USS *Missouri* in Tokyo Bay, Japan, 2 September 1945.
(National Archives)

personnel in the Army Air Forces; never had so many American citizens served in the armed services. The Army had worked with industry, scientists, and the U.S. government to mobilize the American economy for war on an unprecedented scale, and had emerged victorious in fighting against skilled, tenacious enemies in every part of the globe. Its professional leaders were national heroes. But even as the Army endured a rapid demobilization and huge spending cuts, it would still find itself with unaccustomed responsibilities in the postwar era.

TIMELINE

Europe-Mediterranean 1944

- 20–22 January: Battle of the Rapido River, Italy
- 22 January: Allied forces assault Anzio, Italy
- 19–25 February: “The Big Week,” Army Air Forces bomb Germany
- 11 May: U.S. Fifth and British Eighth Armies launch offensive against the Winter Line in Italy
- 4 June: Allied troops liberate Rome
- 6 June: D-Day: Allied forces invade Normandy (Operation OVERLORD)
- 25 July: First U.S. Army launches Operation COBRA
- 15 August: Operation ANVIL: Invasion of southern France
- 25 August: Allies liberate Paris
- 19 September–15 December: Battle of the Hürtgen Forest
- 16 December–25 January 1945: Battle of the Bulge

Asia-Pacific 1944

- 31 January: American forces assault Kwajalein Atoll, Marshall Islands
- 17 February: American forces assault Eniwetok Atoll, Marshall Islands
- 24 February: Merrill’s Marauders join ground offensive in northern Burma
- 29 February: American forces assault Los Negros, Admiralty Islands
- 22 April: Allied forces assault Hollandia and Aitape, New Guinea
- 17 May: Allied forces assault Wakde-Sarmi, New Guinea
- 17 May–3 August: Battle of Myitkyina, Burma
- 27 May: American forces assault Biak Island, New Guinea
- 15 June: American forces assault Saipan, Mariana Islands
- 2 July: Allied forces assault Noemfoor Island, New Guinea
- 21 July: American forces assault Guam
- 30 July: American forces assault Vogelkop Peninsula, New Guinea
- 20 October: Sixth U.S. Army invades Leyte in the Philippines
- 23–26 October: Battle of Leyte Gulf



Europe-Mediterranean 1945:

- 7 March: First U.S. Army captures bridge over Rhine River at Remagen, Germany
- 2 May: Surrender of German forces in Italy
- 7 May: Germany signs unconditional surrender at Eisenhower's headquarters in Rheims, France

Asia-Pacific 1945:

- 9 January: Sixth U.S. Army invades Luzon in the Philippines
- 28 January: Allies reopen Burma Road
- 3 February–4 March: Battle of Manila
 - 1 April: Allied forces assault Okinawa
- 28 June: MacArthur announces end of Japanese resistance in Philippines
- 6 August: A U.S. Army Air Forces B-29 drops first atomic bomb on Hiroshima, Japan
- 9 August: Second atomic bomb dropped on Nagasaki, Japan
- 14 August: Japan agrees to unconditional surrender
- 2 September: Japanese sign surrender terms aboard battleship USS *Missouri*



Lt. Gen. Omar N. Bradley
(U.S. Army)

PEOPLE, ARTIFACTS, EVENTS

For his unassuming manner and common touch with soldiers, **Omar N. Bradley** received the accolade “The GI’s General” from admiring reporters. Tall, homely, long-jawed, with a high-pitched twang from his Missouri roots, Bradley was a cool, careful, and able professional, skilled in infantry tactics and the use of combined arms. A member of the famous West Point Class of 1915—“the class the stars fell on”—Bradley, like his classmate Eisenhower, never made it to France in World War I. However, he still earned notice during the interwar years for his outstanding performance in Army schools. When Bradley was an instructor at Fort Benning, Georgia, in the 1930s, he especially impressed Lt. Col. George C. Marshall. As war approached, Marshall (now Army chief of staff) assigned him as commandant of the Infantry School, where he created the Officer Candidate School that produced so many officers for the Army in World War II. Next, he turned the 82d and 28th Infantry Divisions into two of the Army’s best, and then went to North Africa in February 1943 to serve as Eisenhower’s “eyes and ears.” Succeeding Patton in April as commander of the II Corps, he led it to final victory in Tunisia with a brilliantly planned campaign. His fine work in Sicily confirmed Marshall’s high opinion of him, and in September, he went to England to take command of the First U.S. Army with responsibility for the American D-Day landings. After the Normandy breakout, he assumed command of the 12th U.S. Army Group in August, which he led through France and Germany to the end of the war. In the spring of 1945, he directed 1.3 million American troops, more than any other field commander in American history. After the war, he directed the Veterans Administration, served as Army Chief of Staff, and in 1950 became the first Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, with the rank of five-star general.

Almost Bradley's polar opposite in style, **George S. Patton Jr.** has become a familiar face not only in the history of World War II, but also in American popular culture. Patton combined outspoken exuberance, a fondness for flashy uniforms, and a penchant for profanity with a deep religious faith, serious study of military history and literature, and aristocratic gentility. A descendant of two Confederate officers, he was a California native, West Point graduate, Olympic athlete, and polo-playing cavalry soldier who married wealth and had an opulent lifestyle for a soldier. His record was illustrious. In World War I, he led the first American tank brigade until he fell wounded in the Meuse-Argonne Offensive. During the interwar era, he returned to the horse cavalry but kept his interest in tanks, commanding the 2d Armored Division before Pearl Harbor. In North Africa, he led the task force that captured Casablanca, then took over the II Corps after the defeat at Kasserine Pass and whipped it back into combat shape. In Sicily, his Seventh Army showed his trademark mobility in racing to Palermo, then beating the British to Messina, but he was embroiled in controversy after slapping two soldiers suffering from combat fatigue. For a time, he sat on the sidelines. As decoy commander of the fictitious 1st U.S. Army Group in England, he duped the Germans into thinking he would lead the main D-Day attack at the Pas de Calais, rather than Normandy as planned. Instead, his Third Army spearheaded the breakout and race across France in the summer of 1944. Within two days during the Battle of the Bulge, he turned his forces 90 degrees and struck the German southern flank, relieving Bastogne. In the spring of 1945, he sprinted across southern Germany into Czechoslovakia by V-E Day. After ill-considered comments on denazification, he lost his command of Third Army and his position as military governor of Bavaria just before his death in December 1945 from an automobile accident. The Oscar-winning movie *Patton* (1970) was a dramatic portrayal of his exploits in World War II.



Lt. Gen. George S. Patton Jr.
(U.S. Army)

Born in Prussia in 1881, **Walter Krueger** immigrated to the United States with his family at the age of eight. He volunteered for the War with Spain and enlisted as a private in the Regular Army, rising to second lieutenant during the Philippine War. Returning to the United States, he graduated from the Infantry-Cavalry School and the General Staff College at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. He served with the Pennsylvania National Guard in the Mexican Punitive Expedition and in 1918, rose to colonel and chief of staff of the Tank Corps in France during World War I. Between the wars, he held several command and staff positions, serving in the War Plans Division of the General Staff; he also attended



General Walter Krueger
(U.S. Army)

both the Army War College and the Naval War College. As an Army War College instructor, he did research in Germany and promoted German principles of decentralized command in his classes. While commanding the 2d Infantry Division, he experimented with the triangular division and mechanization. His use of mobile tactics as commander of the Third Army in the Louisiana Maneuvers of 1941 earned favorable notice. Still, when the nation entered World War II, the 60-year-old Krueger assumed that the Army would use younger generals overseas and keep him occupied with stateside training assignments. Much to his surprise, in 1943, General MacArthur summoned him to the southwest Pacific to command the Sixth Army. Competent, if colorless, Krueger managed complex operations over hundreds of miles of ocean and difficult jungle terrain. Some critics have dismissed him as slow and plodding, but during the Battle of Luzon in January–February 1945, Krueger waged a clever war of maneuver against a strong Japanese force. The former enlisted soldier also showed his concern for his troops' welfare, often popping up in the middle of the jungle to inspect their feet for signs of damage from the soggy environment. After the war, he served on occupation duty in Japan. He retired as a four-star general in July 1946 and turned to scholarly pursuits, including his memoirs, before his death in 1967.



Brig. Gen. Theodore Roosevelt Jr.
(U.S. Army)

The eldest son of President Theodore Roosevelt and First Lady Edith K. Roosevelt, **Brig. Gen. Theodore Roosevelt Jr.** followed his father as a leader in the military, business, and government. Graduating from Harvard in 1909, he built a fortune as an investment banker. In World War I, he led the 1st Battalion, 26th Infantry, in several engagements, notably the Battle of Cantigny. During the 1920s and 1930s, he helped found the American Legion and served as assistant secretary of the Navy, governor of Puerto Rico, and governor-general of the Philippines. He then resumed his business career but remained active as an Army reservist, completing the Infantry Officer Basic and Advanced Courses and graduating from the Army Command and General Staff College. After Pearl Harbor, he returned to active duty as a colonel but soon became a brigadier general and assistant commander of the 1st Infantry Division. He was beloved in the “Big Red One” for his camaraderie, foghorn voice, and desire to lead from the front, but concern about his ability to maintain discipline led to his relief in Sicily in August 1943. He then became the assistant commander of the 4th Infantry Division and played a crucial role in the D-Day landings. Suffering from heart disease and arthritis so severe that he had to walk with a cane, the 56-year-old Roosevelt led the first wave of troops ashore on UTAH Beach. When told that his command had drifted off-course and landed far from its assigned position, he declared, “We’ll start the war from right here!” His decisive leadership earned him what became a posthumous Medal of Honor. Just over a month after D-Day, he died of a heart attack, unaware that General Bradley had just slated him for promotion to major general and command of the 90th Infantry Division.



Maj. Richard D. Winters
(U.S. Army)

Thanks to *Band of Brothers* (2001)—the television miniseries based on Stephen E. Ambrose’s book of the same name—**Maj. Richard D. “Dick” Winters** became famous. After enlisting in the Army on 25 August 1941 and graduating from Officer Candidate School, Winters volunteered for the airborne forces and, in August 1942, received orders to report to the 506th Parachute Infantry at Camp Toccoa, Georgia. He passed the rugged training course, which forced 350 of his 500 fellow officer volunteers to withdraw. In October, he became a platoon leader in Company E of the 2d Battalion, known as “Easy Company.” Later in 1943, the 506th and the rest of the 101st Airborne Division sailed to England, where they trained for Operation OVERLORD, the Allied invasion of France. Early on D-Day, Winters parachuted into Normandy with his platoon, and later in the day, he led thirteen of his soldiers in destroying a German artillery battery at Brécourt Manor—a daring feat for which he earned a Distinguished Service Cross, promotion to captain, and command of Easy Company. He later took part in Operation MARKET-GARDEN, the Allied airborne and armor offensive that attempted to force a Rhine crossing in September 1944. He became the 2d Battalion’s executive officer, a role he held during the Battle of the Bulge. In March 1945, he took command of the 2d Battalion as a major. Shortly before the end of the war, on 5 May, he led his battalion through crowds of surrendering German soldiers to reach Berchtesgaden, Hitler’s Alpine retreat. For all his fame from *Band of Brothers*, Winters remained modest and unassuming. He only agreed to a 12-foot statue in his likeness on UTAH Beach on the condition that it bore a dedication to all American junior officers who served in the Normandy invasion on 6 June 1944.



1st Lt. Audie L. Murphy
(U.S. Army)

One of the most decorated American soldiers of World War II, **Audie L. Murphy** lied about his age—he was 17 at the time—to enlist in the Army in 1942. He fought in Sicily, Italy, and France with the 3d Infantry Division, rising from private to lieutenant. On 26 January 1945, in the Colmar Pocket in eastern France, his company held an advanced position that came under attack from six German tanks and a strong infantry force. Murphy ordered his company to take cover in the woods while he remained at his forward command post to call in artillery fire by telephone. To halt the German advance, he mounted a burning tank destroyer and opened fire on the enemy with a .50-caliber

machine gun. He held this exposed position for an hour despite a severe leg wound and killed about fifty enemy soldiers. Returning to his company after running out of ammunition, he led a counterattack that drove off the remaining Germans. When asked after the war why he had taken on an entire German company by himself, he replied, “They were killing my friends.” Murphy received the Medal of Honor for his actions that day. In all, he fought in 9 major campaigns, killed more than 240 enemy troops, was wounded 3 times, and earned 33 medals. After the war, he became an actor and appeared in numerous films, playing himself in *To Hell and Back* (1955), a movie based on his 1949 war memoir of the same name. His combat experience haunted him long after the guns had fallen silent. He publicized his longtime struggle with post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and called on the government to come to the aid of veterans with PTSD. In 1973, two years after his death in a plane crash at the age of 45, the Audie L. Murphy Memorial Veterans’ Hospital opened in San Antonio, Texas.



President Truman presents Desmond T. Doss with the Medal of Honor.
(U.S. Government)

When the Army drafted **Desmond T. Doss** in the spring of 1942, he was working at the naval shipyard in Newport News, Virginia. He probably could have obtained a deferment, given his job in a war industry, but he accepted induction. A devout Seventh-day Adventist, the soft-spoken Doss would not bear arms, so he became a medic in a rifle company attached to the 307th Infantry, 77th Infantry Division. Eschewing the term conscientious objector, he called himself a “conscientious cooperator,” but he still endured bullying and other soldiers’ efforts to drive him from the Army. In 1944, he went overseas with his unit. For his bravery in treating wounded soldiers when under fire at Guam and Leyte in 1944, he earned two Bronze Stars. By the time the 307th arrived on Okinawa in the spring of 1945, his comrades had repeatedly witnessed him run into enemy fire at the risk of his own life to save a fallen comrade, and their belief in him was unshakeable. In May 1945, they found themselves on top of the Maeda Escarpment, a jagged, 400-foot-tall cliff the soldiers dubbed “Hacksaw Ridge.” For several days, Doss treated the wounded while under fire. On 5 May, his unit received orders to retreat, but seventy-five fallen soldiers remained behind, too severely injured to move under their own power. Doss rescued every one of the wounded on the ridge by lowering them to safety with a rope. On 21 May, he himself became a casualty, sustaining multiple wounds from grenade fragments and a bullet that shattered his left arm. Yet, he refused evacuation before more severely wounded comrades. Doss returned home but spent years in and out of hospitals, recovering from his injuries and a case of tuberculosis. On 12 October 1945 on the White House lawn, President Harry S. Truman presented the Medal of Honor to Corporal Doss, the only conscientious objector to receive the award for World War II service. His heroism was the subject of the 2016 Oscar-winning film *Hacksaw Ridge*.

Dr. Margaret D. Craighill was serving as dean of the Women's Medical College of Pennsylvania when, on 16 April 1943, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed into law the Sparkman-Johnson Bill, enabling women to enter the Army and Navy Medical Corps. One month later, she became the first female doctor to receive an Army commission. Major Craighill assumed her duties as a liaison with the newly formed Women's Army Corps (WAC). During her service, she traveled 56,000 miles, her work often taking her into war zones stretching from Europe, Africa, and the Middle East to Asia and the South Pacific. Her reports from the field on the condition of 160,000 Army nurses and WAC personnel challenged the stubborn notion that women were unequal to military service; she observed that they performed



Maj. Margaret D. Craighill
(U.S. National Library of Medicine)

capably in extreme climates and under harsh working conditions. In recognition of her excellent wartime service, the Army promoted Craighill to lieutenant colonel and presented her with the Legion of Merit. After the war, she became a consultant on women veterans' medical care, the first position of its kind in the Veterans Administration.

Vernon J. Baker enlisted in the U.S. Army in June 1941, a few months after a recruiter had turned him away because he was Black. Assigned to the infantry, his excellence as a company supply sergeant earned him a slot in Officer Candidate School, and he received a second lieutenant's commission upon graduation. Baker became a member of the 370th Infantry in the predominantly Black 92d Infantry Division (Buffalo). In July 1944, the Buffalo Division deployed to Italy, where it joined the Fifth U.S. Army. While leading his platoon on a patrol



1st Lt. Vernon Baker
(U.S. Army)

in October, Baker suffered a wound that confined him to a field hospital through December. Upon his return to duty, Baker found himself the senior company officer until three White officers arrived in March 1945 to occupy the senior leadership positions. He reverted to command of the heavy weapons platoon, consisting of 60-mm. mortars and .30-caliber machine guns. About 70 percent of Baker's platoon were replacements with little or no combat experience. He soon learned that his company would lead the next attack on Castle Aghinolfi, a German stronghold that had so far thrown back three American assaults with heavy losses. The assault began at 0500 on 5 April 1945. Moving faster than the rest of the company, Baker and twenty-five other soldiers approached to within a few hundred yards of the castle despite heavy machine gun and mortar fire. The fighting was intense and lasted for twelve hours, during which Baker killed nine enemy soldiers and eliminated three machine gun positions, an observation post, and a dugout. About two-thirds of Baker's soldiers fell, either killed or wounded. Heavily outnumbered and running out of ammunition, Baker ordered the survivors to retreat while he provided cover fire. The next day, he led a company from another regiment to the castle. Along the way, dead American and German soldiers littered the field, but not a shot broke the silence. The enemy had abandoned the castle. This marked Baker's last battle. Nevertheless, he remained in the Army until his retirement on 31 August 1968. For Baker's extraordinary display of "fighting spirit and daring leadership" at Castle Aghinolfi, President William J. "Bill" Clinton presented him with the Medal of Honor on 13 January 1997. Baker was one of just seven Black World War II soldiers to receive the Medal of Honor.



Higgins boat transporting soldiers at Okinawa, April 1945.
(U.S. Navy)

The **Higgins boat** was the brainchild of Andrew J. Higgins, the owner of a New Orleans–based shipbuilding firm that manufactured amphibious vessels. By far his most famous model was the Landing Craft, Vehicle, Personnel (LCVP), or Higgins boat. Measuring 36 feet long by 11 feet wide, its sides consisted of laminated plywood, and it had a steel bow ramp. The mostly wooden frame reduced the boat’s weight and resulted in a shallow draft—the distance from the waterline to the bottom of the hull—that enabled the boat to carry a maximum of thirty-six soldiers or a two-ton vehicle close to shore. Higgins Industries became a major wartime U.S. employer, expanding from a labor force of 75 in a single plant in 1938 to 20,000 workers in 7 factories by 1943. Higgins racially integrated his workforce, a rarity in the Jim Crow South. Workers earned equal pay according to the jobs they did, regardless of race or gender. By the end of the war, the company had produced more than 20,000 boats. Higgins boats made it possible for Allied armies to land on beaches in North Africa, Europe, and the Pacific once deemed inaccessible to watercraft. General Eisenhower declared that, “Andrew Higgins won the war for us. If Higgins had not designed and built those LCVPs, we never could have landed on an open beach. The whole strategy of the war would have been different.” Indeed, Steven Spielberg’s famous World War II movie, *Saving Private Ryan* (1999), opens with Higgins boats in action on D-Day.



A cargo truck stuck in the mud on the Red Ball Express, 1944
(U.S. Army)

The **GMC CCKW 2½-ton 6 × 6 cargo truck** was the workhorse of the famed Red Ball Express. Known as the “Jimmy” or the “Deuce and a Half,” the first trucks rolled off the assembly line in 1941, and by the end of World War II, GMC factories had made more than 572,500, including variants like the amphibious DUKW (see Chapter 4). Among military vehicles produced in the United States during the war, the GMC 2½-ton truck was second in quantity only to the jeep. Capable of running off-road, the CCKW version had all-wheel drive; a 6-cylinder, 91.5-horsepower engine; and a 5-speed Warner transmission. The rear cargo area had folding seats, enabling it to convert quickly from a cargo carrier to a troop carrier. The utility bed was at first built entirely of steel, but to conserve that precious alloy, GMC substituted all-wooden beds instead. When this proved inadequate, the manufacturer experimented with a wood-and-steel composite, which was also substandard. By this time, the war was nearly over, and the federal government soon lifted steel rationing, enabling GMC to resume building all-steel utility beds. Although production ceased in 1945, the Army continued to use the sturdy original Deuce and a Half during the Korean War and the Vietnam War.



C-ration
(Defense Logistics Agency)

In 1938, researchers at the Quartermaster Subsistence Research Laboratory in Chicago, Illinois, were devising food products that the Army could store for long periods and yet were more delicious and nutritious than the reserve rations that had sustained troops during World War I. The result was the **C-ration**, better known to soldiers as “C-rats.” The containers were 12-ounce tinplate cans that incorporated an opening strip. The meals initially consisted of stews, with more meal varieties added as the war continued, including meat and spaghetti in tomato sauce; chopped ham, eggs, and potatoes; meat and noodles; pork and beans; ham and lima beans; chicken and vegetables; and beef slices and potatoes with gravy. In addition to the main courses, the designers added chocolate or other candy, gum, biscuits, and cigarettes. Three meals of C-rations in a day provided about 3,700 calories. Soldiers soon learned that although they could eat the rations cold, the meals tasted better when cooked. The Army often ignored soldiers’ criticism, as in the case of the much-despised ham and lima beans, which remained on the menu long after World War II. Among other complaints, soldiers found the food choices monotonous and the rations too heavy to carry into combat.



B-17 Flying Fortresses from the 398th Bombardment Group on a bombing mission to Neumünster, Germany, 13 April 1945. (U.S. Army Air Corps)

On its entry into World War II, the Army Air Forces favored daytime precision bombing over the nocturnal area strikes preferred by Britain's Royal Air Force. American aviators were confident that their heavily armed Boeing **B-17 Flying Fortress** bombers, using the state-of-the-art Norden bombsight, could handle the job of bombing the target and returning home safely without a fighter escort. Flown by a crew of ten, the B-17 could carry 6,000 pounds of bombs at 300 miles per hour for up to 2,000 miles. Its iconic nickname came from the fact that it could hold as many as thirteen .50-caliber machine guns and boasted a reputation for being tough to shoot down. **B-24 Liberator** bombers soon joined the B-17s. They could carry more bombs and fly farther but had less armor and firepower. As the B-17s and B-24s flew deeper into Germany in the autumn of 1943, the bombing missions became more dangerous, and losses rose alarmingly as they encountered waves of German fighters and sophisticated anti-aircraft systems. Fortunately for the Allies, the North American **P-51 Mustang** came to the rescue of the overwhelmed Eighth Air Force. The Mustang's 1,450-horsepower Rolls Royce engine gave it a top speed of 440 miles per hour. Carrying extra fuel tanks, it could fly more than 850 miles. With these high-speed, long-range fighter aircraft capable of escorting them into and out of Germany, the bombers devastated German industry, while the fighters drove the Luftwaffe from the skies. In the Pacific, the **B-29 Superfortress**, a more formidable Boeing bomber, replaced the B-17s and B-24s. Two B-29s dropped the atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan, in August 1945. But the B-17 had served its purpose admirably; more than 12,000 bombers flew in every theater of the war. Several dozen Flying Fortresses hang in museums, and some can still fly—a rugged symbol of American ingenuity and resilience.



Comanche code talkers of the 4th Signal Company
(U.S. Army)

Army **code talkers** were Native Americans who used their tribal language for secure communication on the battlefield. Their origin was accidental. After an Army infantry officer overheard two Choctaw soldiers conversing in their tribal language during World War I, the Army began to use Choctaw soldiers to transmit vital information, using their native words as code. Although the Germans were able to tap the Americans' phone lines, they could not decipher the code talkers' spoken communication. During World War II, in the Pacific, North Africa, and Europe, the U.S. military employed code talkers from more than a dozen tribes, notably from the Comanche nation. The Army gave Comanche code talkers a free hand in developing secret code words that no one outside their team could grasp, not even other Comanche soldiers. For terms the Comanche language lacked, code talkers substituted descriptive words and phrases, such as "turtle" for tank, "pregnant bird" for bomber, and "crazy white man" for Adolf Hitler. The concept proved successful. It took a machine four hours to transmit and decode a message, whereas a Comanche code talker could decode a similar message in less than three minutes. The enemy never broke their code. On D-Day, thirteen Comanche soldiers in the 4th Signal Company landed with the 4th Infantry Division on UTAH Beach. Code talker Pvt. Larry W. Saupitty sent the first coded message from the beach, revealing the 4th Division's off-course arrival: "We made a good landing. We landed in the wrong place." Fighting wounded several Comanche code talkers, but all survived the war.



Crews from the 761st Tank Battalion cleaning and inspecting their machine guns. (U.S. Army)

The **761st Tank Battalion**—or “Black Panthers”—was a predominantly African American armor unit that trained at Camp Claiborne, Louisiana, and Fort Hood, Texas. In the Jim Crow South, where the 761st served for more than two years, segregation laws conferred an inferior status on Black people. The most famous member of the 761st, 2d Lt. Jack R. “Jackie” Robinson, faced a court-martial because he refused to obey a White bus driver’s order to sit in the back of a segregated military bus. Although an all-White panel of officers acquitted Robinson, he missed his opportunity to deploy to France with the 761st, instead going on to become the first Black player in Major League Baseball.

After more than two years of training, the 761st received a superior rating from General Benjamin Lear, the commanding general of Army Ground Forces. On 10 October 1944, the unit landed on OMAHA Beach and joined General Patton’s Third U.S. Army. They fought in Belgium, France, and Germany, participating in the Battle of the Bulge. The battalion was among the units that rushed to the aid of the 101st Airborne Division, penned up at Bastogne. A soldier in the 761st, S. Sgt. Ruben Rivers, received a posthumous Medal of Honor for extraordinary heroism from 15 to 19 November 1944. Despite a severe leg wound, Rivers repeatedly refused evacuation and fought on until an enemy round struck his tank, killing him and wounding the crew. The 761st Tank Battalion received belated recognition in the form of a Presidential Unit Citation awarded by President James E. “Jimmy” Carter Jr. on 24 January 1978, and a monument at Fort Hood that the Army unveiled in November 2005.



Lt. Gen. Lucian K. Truscott Jr. salutes after presenting the Presidential Distinguished Unit Citation to Company L, 3d Battalion, 442d RCT, 4 September 1945. (*U.S. Army Signal Corps*)

The Army activated the **442d Regimental Combat Team (RCT)** on 1 February 1943, about one year after President Roosevelt had signed Executive Order 9066, placing more than 100,000 West Coast residents of Japanese descent—most of them American citizens—into internment camps. Despite the racism triggered by the surprise attack on Pearl Harbor, thousands of Japanese Americans answered the call to arms. The 442d RCT consisted mainly of American-born, second-generation Japanese soldiers called “Nisei” (NEE-say). Roughly two-thirds volunteered from Hawai’i, and the remaining third came from the camps on the mainland. The commander and most of the company-grade officers were White. The unit included three battalions of infantry, the 522d Field Artillery Battalion, and the 232d Engineer Company. After a year of training at Camp Shelby, Mississippi, the 442d RCT deployed to the Mediterranean in May 1944. It joined the 100th Infantry Battalion—another Japanese-American unit—in Italy and entered combat on 26 June 1944, attached to the 34th Infantry Division. The 442d lived up to its motto, “Go for Broke,” and fought aggressively, earning nine Distinguished Service Crosses. The 100th Battalion received three more. On 10 August, the 100th formally joined the 442d as the first battalion. Beginning in



442d RCT shoulder sleeve insignia
(*National Museum of the U.S. Army*)

August 1944, the 442d RCT participated in the invasion of southern France as part of the Seventh Army. The unit liberated several French towns and, in October 1944, rescued a “lost battalion” that the Germans had cut off from the 36th Infantry Division. In March 1945, the 442d RCT joined the 92d Infantry Division, an African American unit, and helped drive the Germans from northern Italy. During that operation, Pfc. Sadao S. Munemori sacrificed himself to save the lives of two comrades, an act for which he received a posthumous Medal of Honor on 13 March 1946. Soldiers of the 442d RCT ultimately received more than 4,000 Purple Hearts, 21 Medals of Honor, and an unprecedented 7 Presidential Distinguished Unit Citations. The Army inactivated the 442d RCT in August 1946. The unit’s lineage and honors live on in the 100th Battalion, 442d Infantry, of the U.S. Army Reserve.



An M4 Sherman tank with hedgerow cutters
(U.S. Army Armor & Cavalry Collection)

In July 1944, the First Army faced a major tactical obstacle in its battle to expand the Normandy beachhead. For centuries, Norman farmers had cultivated **hedgerows**—massive, irregularly shaped earthen walls, 3 to 15 feet high and 1 to 3 feet thick, and topped with hedges—to divide and enclose their fields. The Germans turned these natural barriers into fortresses, with rifles, machine guns, mortars, and antitank weapons creating a withering crossfire in the fields between them. Overcoming the hedgerows challenge was a true team effort. A New Jersey tanker, Sgt. Curtis G. Culin, assembled a tusk-like device that he attached to the front of a tank, enabling the tank to drive straight through a hedgerow, rather than expose its belly as it climbed over it. Drawing on plentiful steel from the obstacles the Germans had erected on D-Day beaches, ordnance soldiers welded 500 hedgerow cutters and distributed them to forward troops. Meanwhile, infantry soldiers, tankers, artillery troops, and engineers evolved combined arms tactics to beat the hedgerows. While tanks and artillery provided covering fire, the infantry advanced until they masked the tanks' fire, throwing hand grenades to eliminate as many German defenders as possible. The tanks then backed up, and the engineers came forward to emplace charges in the embankments. The explosions blew gaps in the hedgerows, and the tanks themselves drove through the embankments, firing as the infantry advanced. Such tactics and technology enabled the Americans to work their way through the hedgerows until they reached the jump-off point for the breakout and eventual drive across France.

When Allied forces finally broke through the maze of Normandy hedgerows and raced to the German border, their rapid success resulted in a supply crisis. The enemy had left the French and Belgian ports in ruins, and Allied bombers before D-Day had destroyed much of the French rail network. Large-scale aerial supply was impractical. Somehow, the logisticians had to provide 28 Allied divisions in the field with their daily requirement of up to 21,000 tons of supplies. After a marathon brainstorming session, American commanders decided to implement a massive, around-the-clock convoy effort dubbed the **Red Ball Express**, after the red ball symbols used by railroad companies to mark express freight trains. The Army likewise placed red ball symbols on trucks, cargo, road signs, and uniform patches to denote their priority status. The system went into action on 25 August 1944 and ran through the fall. Because of narrow French country roads, trucks ran in a nonstop, one-way loop, hauling food, fuel, ammunition, and other vital items from beach dumps to depots near the front and then returning for another load. On Red Ball's peak day, roughly 6,000 trucks carried 12,500 tons of supplies. Seventy-five percent of the drivers were African American soldiers, because the Army's segregation policy sent disproportionate numbers of Black soldiers to rear echelon units. Working in teams of two, drivers faced numerous hazards, including breakdowns, accidents, fatigue, and the occasional enemy aircraft. With the opening of the port in Antwerp, Belgium, the Red Ball Express ceased operations on 16 November 1944. In 82 days, the drivers had delivered an impressive 412,000 tons of supplies. Their success in keeping Allied forces on the move inspired a 1952 movie, *The Red Ball Express*, featuring Sidney Poitier.



To-day's
TONNAGE
TARGET

RED BALL
HIGHWAY

20,000	TONS
19,000	"
18,000	"
17,000	"
16,000	"
15,000	"
14,000	"
13,000	"
12,000	"
11,000	"
10,000	"
9,000	"
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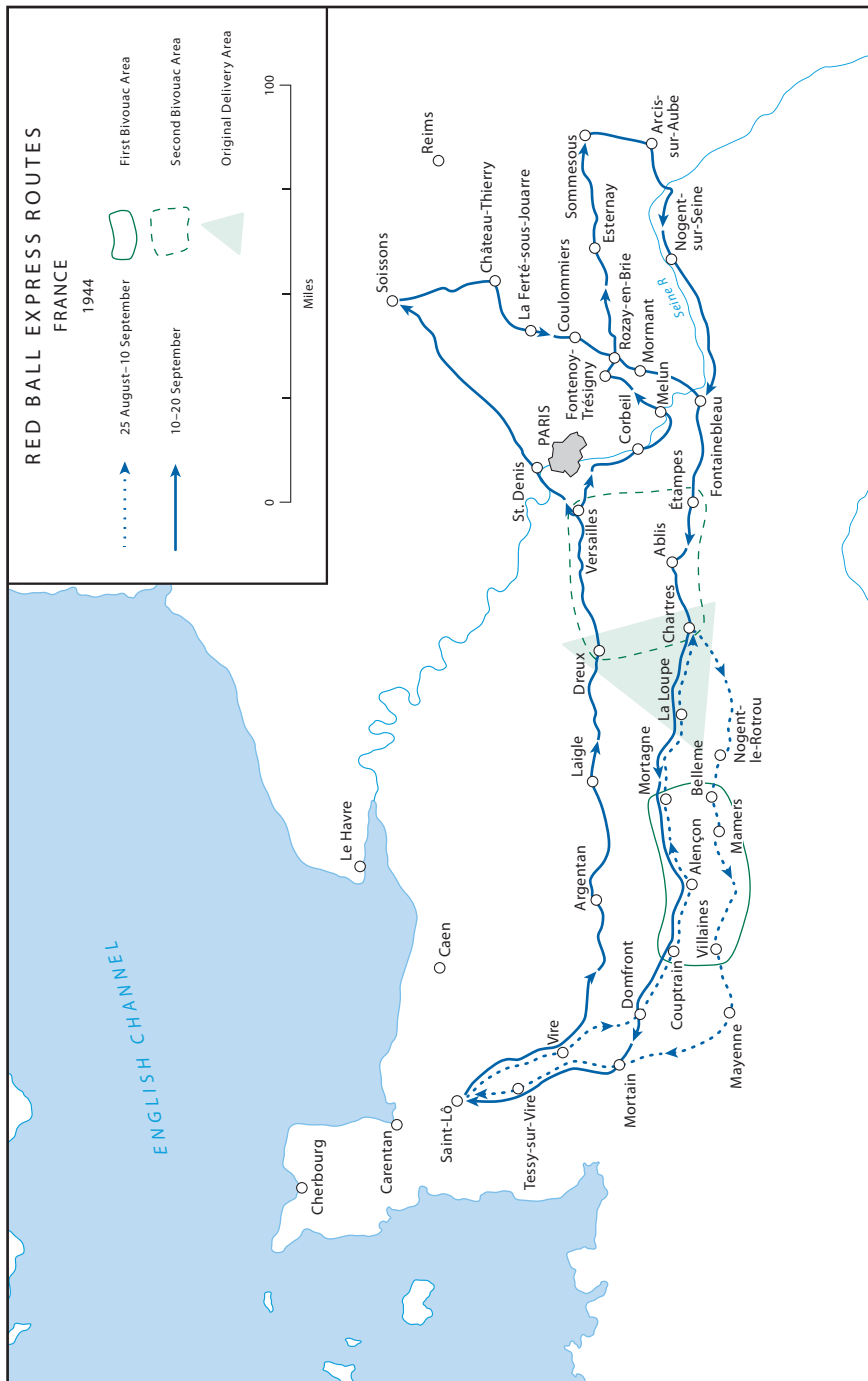


STAY ON THE



KEEP 'EM
ROLLING!

Cpl. Charles H. Johnson of the 783d Military Police Battalion waves on a Red Ball Express convoy. (National Archives)

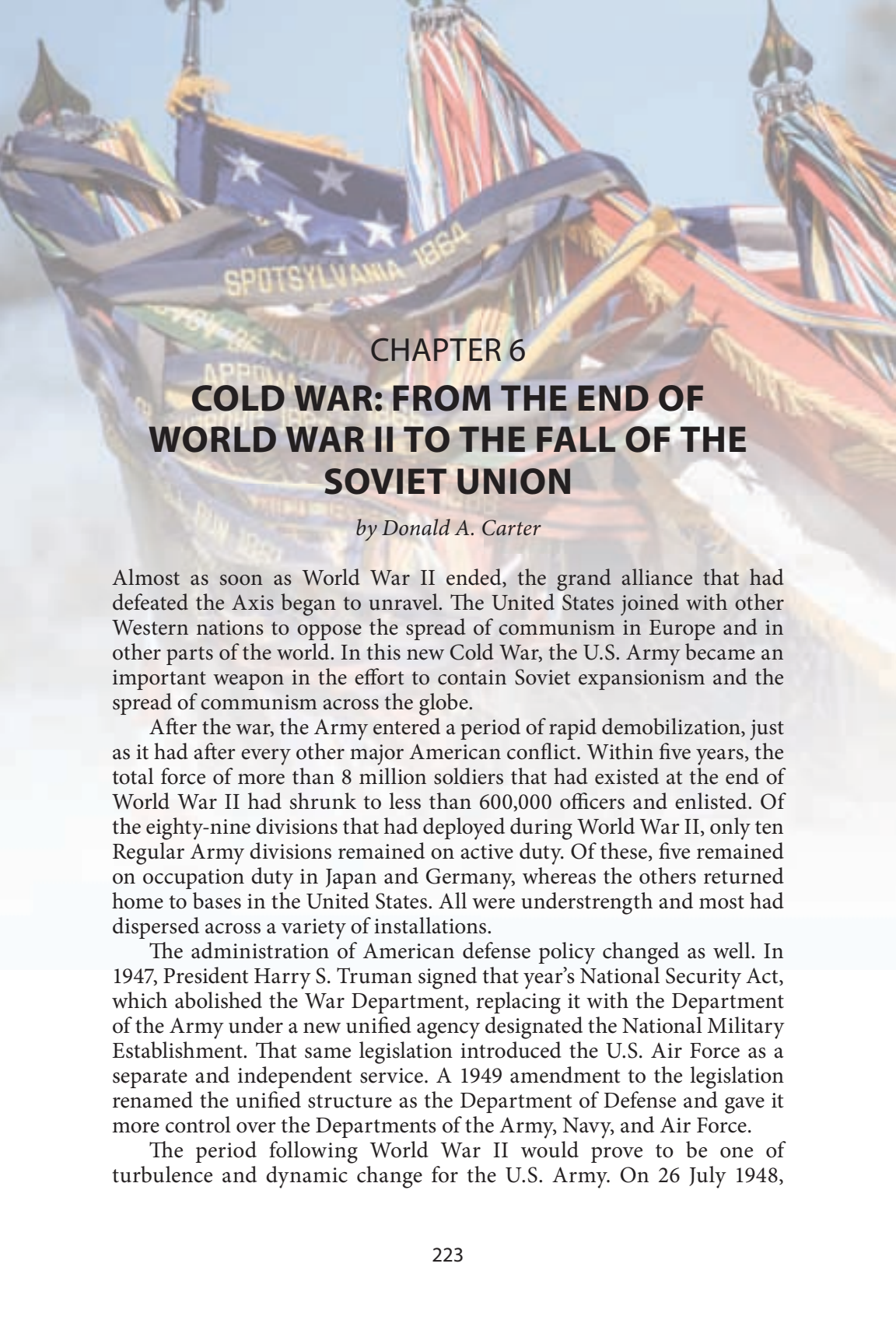


Map 4

Although the U.S. Army has long used distinct units to perform special tasks, **special operations** in the modern sense came into being during World War II. In the Mediterranean and Europe, the Army employed elite light infantry Ranger battalions. The service initially intended these units to conduct commando missions and seize key points in amphibious landings—such as Chiunzi Pass at Salerno and Pointe du Hoc on D-Day. Once the main force had established itself ashore, however, too often Ranger battalions served as line infantry, despite their smaller size and lack of firepower compared to standard infantry battalions. In the Pacific, the Sixth Army was able to avoid such misuse, allowing the 6th Ranger Battalion to pull off the liberation of the Japanese prisoner of war camp at Cabanatuan in the Philippines. The Sixth Army's Alamo Scouts also skillfully performed long-range reconnaissance in the Pacific. Elsewhere, the Canadian-American First Special Service Force and Merrill's Marauders came into existence for long-range raiding missions; but in the end, events forced their use as regular infantry. The Army generally left support of guerrillas to the Office of Strategic Services, which employed several Army personnel in such roles around the globe. In the Philippines, American officers who escaped to the jungle rather than surrender helped create several valuable guerrilla forces. Psychological warfare troops used leaflets and loudspeakers to induce enemy surrenders, and civil affairs detachments restored order to rear areas as the armies moved forward. Army special operations forces today trace their roots to many of these World War II warriors.



Army Rangers at
Pointe du Hoc, Normandy
(National Archives)



CHAPTER 6

COLD WAR: FROM THE END OF WORLD WAR II TO THE FALL OF THE SOVIET UNION

by Donald A. Carter

Almost as soon as World War II ended, the grand alliance that had defeated the Axis began to unravel. The United States joined with other Western nations to oppose the spread of communism in Europe and in other parts of the world. In this new Cold War, the U.S. Army became an important weapon in the effort to contain Soviet expansionism and the spread of communism across the globe.

After the war, the Army entered a period of rapid demobilization, just as it had after every other major American conflict. Within five years, the total force of more than 8 million soldiers that had existed at the end of World War II had shrunk to less than 600,000 officers and enlisted. Of the eighty-nine divisions that had deployed during World War II, only ten Regular Army divisions remained on active duty. Of these, five remained on occupation duty in Japan and Germany, whereas the others returned home to bases in the United States. All were understrength and most had dispersed across a variety of installations.

The administration of American defense policy changed as well. In 1947, President Harry S. Truman signed that year's National Security Act, which abolished the War Department, replacing it with the Department of the Army under a new unified agency designated the National Military Establishment. That same legislation introduced the U.S. Air Force as a separate and independent service. A 1949 amendment to the legislation renamed the unified structure as the Department of Defense and gave it more control over the Departments of the Army, Navy, and Air Force.

The period following World War II would prove to be one of turbulence and dynamic change for the U.S. Army. On 26 July 1948,

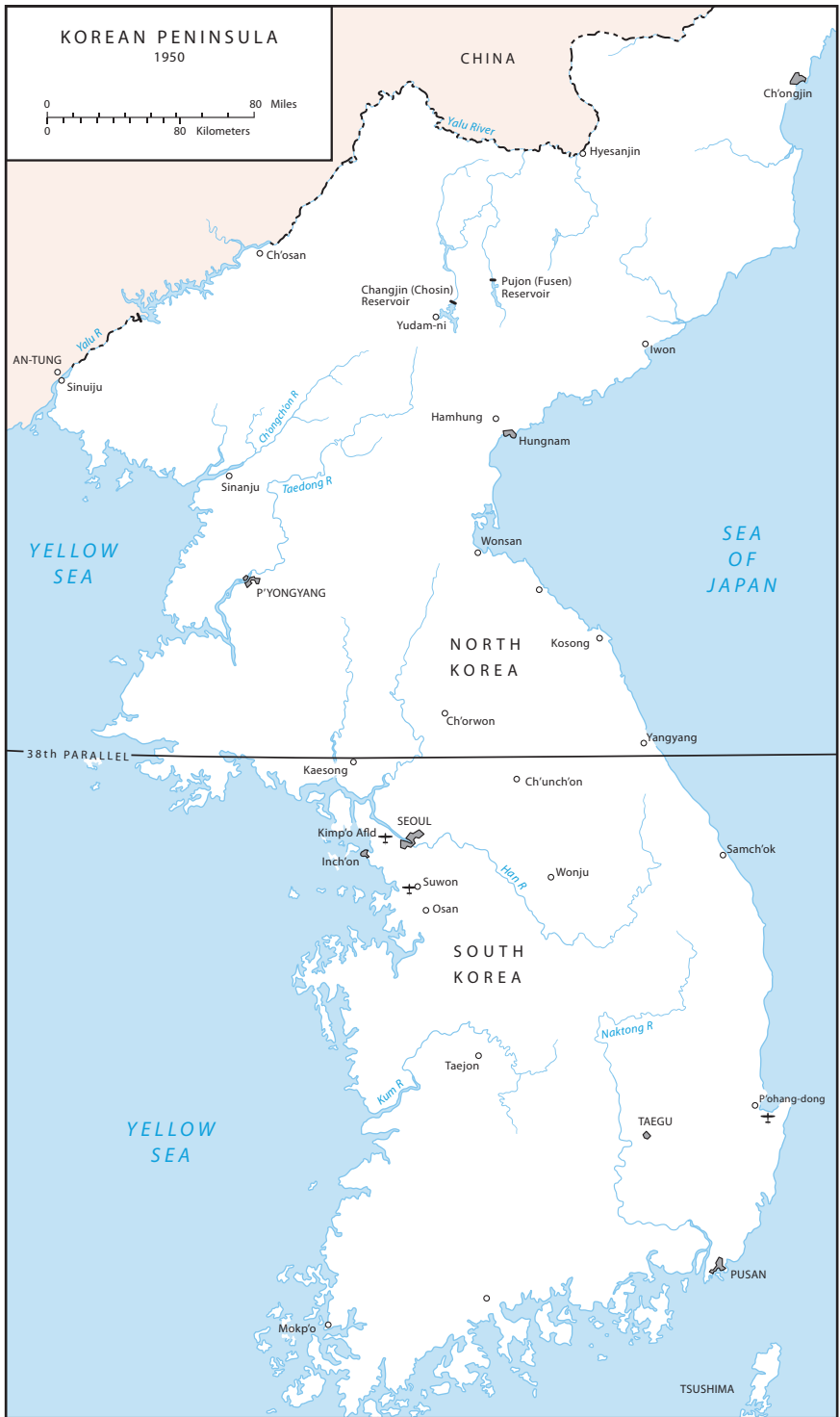
President Truman signed Executive Order 9981 that abolished segregation in the U.S. military. Although Army leaders initially resisted such dramatic social change, by the early 1950s, the service was well along toward integration and had eliminated all-Black units from its organization. When the Korean War broke out in 1950, commanders did not have enough White soldiers to replace those killed or wounded, thus expediting the integration of Black soldiers into the formerly all-White units.

War began on the Korean Peninsula on 25 June 1950 when North Korean forces crossed into South Korea, driving toward its capital city, Seoul. After the United Nations (UN) Security Council voted to oppose the incursion, President Truman ordered U.S. military forces to intervene. The first elements of the U.S. 24th Infantry Division met the leading edge of the North Korean advance on a small section of hills 20 miles south of Seoul. The North Koreans quickly routed the small American force and continued their advance, pushing the South Korean and American forces into a perimeter surrounding the port city of Pusan (Busan). Over the next several weeks, the United States poured soldiers and equipment into the fight, accompanied by smaller contributions from allied nations.

Allied fortunes changed for the better on 15 September 1950 when U.S. Army and Marine units landed behind the North Korean lines at Inch'on (Incheon) harbor. The leader of the United Nations Command, General of the Army Douglas MacArthur, had planned the operation to coincide with an attack by the forces near Pusan led by the Eighth U.S. Army commander, Lt. Gen. Walton H. Walker. The combined operation broke the back of the North Korean offensive and UN troops began a drive northward. By mid-October, they were approaching the Yalu River, marking the border between North Korea and China. In late October, Communist China entered the war in support of North Korea and the nature of the war changed.

The influx of hundreds of thousands of Chinese troops drove the UN Forces steadily south again. The new Eighth Army commanding general, Lt. Gen. Matthew B. Ridgway, soon stabilized the retreating allies, and what had been a war of maneuver bogged down into stalemate. The two armies faced each other from reinforced positions occupying the rugged hills and mountains of central Korea. Finally, on 27 July 1953, the adversaries signed an armistice that ended hostilities on the peninsula.

President Dwight D. Eisenhower, after his election in November 1952, aimed to move American defense policy in a different direction. The former Supreme Allied Commander in Europe during World War II had been appalled at the cost and destruction of the recent conflicts. He believed that atomic weapons offered a better option for keeping the peace, at a cost far less than that of maintaining large conventional forces. Under his military policy, dubbed the New Look, the United States devoted



Map 1



Pfc. Robert Smith (*left*) and Pvt. Carl Fisher of the 27th Infantry Regiment, dug in and firing at North Korean positions, 4 September 1950. (*U.S. Army*)

the bulk of its military budget toward building its atomic arsenal and a substantial strategic air force.

Within this context, the Army of the 1950s struggled to maintain its position as an equal member of the nation's armed forces. Larger percentages of the nation's defense budget went to the Air Force and the Navy, which maintained the assets to strike with atomic weapons. Without such weapons at their disposal, Army leaders searched for ways to adapt to an atomic battlefield. As a result, most Army research and development during the period focused on producing rockets and missiles capable of delivering an atomic payload. In 1956, the Army reorganized its forces to operate on a nuclear battlefield. The new formation, the Pentomic Division, proved unworkable and short-lived.

Alternatively, the Army looked to other supplemental missions to solidify its role in the Eisenhower defense policy. Since the redeployment of the U.S. Seventh Army to Europe in 1950 and the commitment of its five divisions to NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), the Army's mission of forward deployment to Europe to defend against a potential Soviet attack remained its most important assignment. Nike Ajax and Nike Hercules missiles replaced older air-defense artillery weapons at Army sites near major American and allied cities and sensitive military areas. Also, on 1 February 1958, the nation's first successful satellite launched into orbit atop a modified Army Jupiter missile. Scientists working at

the Army Ballistic Missile Agency produced much of the research and hardware for initial United States space exploration efforts.

By the late 1950s, another mission had captured the Army's attention. Communist-inspired insurgencies in Latin America, Southeast Asia, and Africa led Army leaders to devote an increasing amount of thought and resources toward developing counterinsurgency and counter guerrilla capabilities. This foresight paid off in 1961, when newly elected President John F. Kennedy included those specialties in his overall defense policy. As a result, the Army not only received additional funding to refurbish much of its conventional weapons, vehicles, and equipment, but also was able to increase the strength of its Special Forces units from 1,500 to almost 9,000. Although units throughout the Army would conduct counterinsurgency and counter guerrilla training on a regular basis, the Special Forces units would become the acknowledged experts in what became known as unconventional warfare.

The expanding insurgency in Vietnam provided the opportunity for the United States and the Army to test these evolving skills. Ever since the defeat of French colonial forces by Vietnamese nationalist fighters at Dien Bien Phu in 1954, the United States had played a steadily growing role in advising the military forces of South Vietnam and assisting with the newly independent nation's civic development. Although Special Forces units provided a large portion of these advisers, by 1963, regular Army helicopter and support units had also joined the effort.

By 1965, however, it had become clear to American political and military leaders that the advisory effort was not enough to quell the attacks by the growing communist insurgency in South Vietnam. In March 1965, President Lyndon B. Johnson ordered U.S. marines to deploy to South Vietnam to defend the large airfield at Da Nang. Shortly thereafter, he authorized the Army to send roughly 20,000 logistical troops to support an American buildup. At the same time, he approved the movement to Vietnam of the first Army combat troops, the 173d Airborne Brigade, to defend the growing number of American installations. In July, Johnson announced plans to increase the number of Americans in South Vietnam to 175,000.

For the next seven years, U.S. armed forces engaged in active combat against the Viet Cong (South Vietnamese communist insurgents) and North Vietnamese regulars. At its peak when troop withdrawals began in 1969, U.S. strength in South Vietnam exceeded 500,000 military personnel. Typical patterns of combat in Vietnam involved helicopter assaults against suspected enemy positions in order to flush out elusive opponents. U.S. divisions conducted a number of large-unit sweeps across areas of suspected guerrilla and North Vietnamese military concentration. American advisers helped to train South Vietnamese Army units and



Map 2



Combat operations at Ia Drang Valley, Vietnam, November 1965 (U.S. Army)

often accompanied them into battle. Despite many battlefield successes, the war settled into a stalemate.

Active campaigning against an implacable and difficult-to-eradicate enemy exacted a heavy toll in terms of casualties and economic costs. By the late 1960s, the war had become unpopular in the United States, particularly in cities and on college campuses where antiwar demonstrations and riots became a regular feature on nightly television newscasts. In late January 1968, the Viet Cong launched a major offensive that coincided with the Lunar New Year holiday. The Tet Offensive shocked many political leaders who had believed that the enemy no longer possessed the resources to launch a nationwide attack. After a sharp struggle against the Communists at Saigon, Hue, and numerous provincial capitals, the Americans and South Vietnamese defeated the North Vietnamese regulars and crushed the Viet Cong network that had facilitated the assault. Public opinion in the United States, however, had turned decisively against the war.

Between 1969 and 1972, U.S. military forces continued to prosecute the war, but in ever-dwindling numbers. In 1969, newly elected President Richard M. Nixon ordered U.S. military leaders to begin bringing American troops home. In a process he termed Vietnamization, he directed them to gradually turn the responsibility for fighting the war over to the South Vietnamese. Although U.S. Army units would participate in limited incursions into Cambodia and Laos

in 1970 and 1971, combat operations in Southeast Asia began to wind down. When the United States withdrew airpower support, in 1975, a massive invasion of Communist forces from North Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia overran the South Vietnamese and brought all of Vietnam under their control.

The end of the war in Vietnam left the U.S. Army in a weakened condition. Racial tensions, the vocal antiwar movement, and the expansion of drug addiction across the force all served to undermine discipline, morale, and cohesion throughout the Army. Often, soldiers returned home to hostile public reactions, as many across the nation had become suspicious of the military and the U.S. government. Rebuilding the force from within as well as restoring public confidence posed the next critical task for the Army's leaders.

Much of the public's dissatisfaction with the military had to do with its distaste for the draft. Recognizing this, the Nixon Administration ended the draft in 1973 in favor of creating an all-volunteer force. The Army instituted a number of reforms to ensure it could recruit and retain the high-quality volunteers it needed. After experimenting with relaxed standards and increased privileges, Army leaders learned that keeping good soldiers in the service relied upon better training and an increased sense of professionalism. A reduction in the size of the postwar Army also helped to stabilize retention rates.

One way to improve recruitment was to increase the size of the pool of available recruits. Army leaders reviewed policies within the service to improve opportunities for minority groups and to guarantee equal treatment for all. They also began to expand opportunities for women. Between 1973 and 1978, the number of women recruited into the Army rose from 10,900 a year to 25,130 a year. The Army opened to women many jobs that previously it had reserved for men.

Military operations in the aftermath of Vietnam indicated that the Army, and in fact the entire U.S. defense establishment, required further reform. A failed multiservice attempt to rescue American hostages held in Iran in 1980, and a hastily launched intervention in the Caribbean island of Grenada in 1983, illustrated an urgent need for all of the services to better coordinate their actions and communicate more effectively. In 1986, Congress passed the Goldwater-Nichols Department of Defense Reorganization Act, overhauling headquarters functions within the three military departments and improving the ability of the services to work together as a team.

The Army had the opportunity to assess the progress of its reforms in 1989 when elements of the 82d Airborne Division and the 75th Ranger Regiment took part in Operation JUST CAUSE, a joint action to overthrow a corrupt government in Panama. During the assault, U.S. soldiers



Map 3

demonstrated enhanced skills in night fighting and communications, particularly with other participating services.

Perhaps the greatest factor in preparing a next generation Army was the development and procurement of major weapons systems to replace those that had seen little improvement since the triumph in World War II. In the early 1970s, the Army began to develop a family of systems that would allow it to dominate on a modern, high-intensity battlefield. The M-1 Abrams main battle tank, the M-2 Bradley armored fighting vehicle, the AH-64A Apache attack helicopter, the UH-60A Black Hawk utility helicopter, and the Patriot air defense missile became known as “The Big Five” as they made their way through research, development, and procurement. By the mid-1980s, all five had begun to reach soldiers in the field. These and other new developments in weapons, equipment, and doctrine—including AirLand Battle, the basis of the Army’s European warfighting doctrine in the 1980s and 1990s—prepared the United States Army to meet whatever challenges it might face in the future.

TIMELINE

1948

26 July: President Truman signs Executive Order 9981 ending segregation in the United States armed forces.

1948–1949

Berlin Airlift. After Russian forces blocked American and British road and rail access to West Berlin, the western allies supplied the city by air for eleven months until the Russians lifted the blockade.

1950

24 November: The United States reactivates U.S. Seventh Army and begins deploying it to Europe in support of NATO.

Korean War (1950–1953)

1950

25 June: North Korean forces invade South Korea

5 July: Understrength 1st Battalion, 21st Infantry, 24th Infantry Division (Task Force Smith) becomes first U.S. Army unit to engage North Koreans

August–September: U.S. and UN Command forces defend perimeter around South Korean port city of Pusan

15–28 September: General MacArthur lands U.S. forces at Inch'on

Late October–Early November: Chinese Communist forces intervene, attacking South Korean forces and American units near the China-Korea border

1951

27 September–13 October: 2d Infantry Division with French allies battle for Heartbreak Ridge

1953

27 July: Cease-fire signed at Panmunjom

1957

23 September: President Eisenhower sends troops from the 101st Airborne Division to Little Rock, Arkansas, to help enforce school desegregation

1958


16 July–25 October: President Eisenhower sends Army and Marine Corps forces to Lebanon to intervene in the country's civil war

1961

13 August: Soviet and East German forces begin construction of the Berlin Wall, a series of brick and barbed wire barriers separating East and West Berlin

1965

30 April–21 September: Troops of the 82d Airborne Division land in Dominican Republic to assist with peacekeeping efforts



Vietnam War (1965–1973)

1965

7 May: 173d Airborne Brigade, first U.S. Army combat troops, deploy to Vietnam

14–18 November: Battle of Ia Drang

1968

31 January–30 April: Tet Offensive

1970

29 April–22 July: Cambodian Incursion

1971

8 February–25 March: South Vietnamese ground forces, heavily supported by U.S. Army artillery and aviation units, invade Laos

1972

23 August: Last U.S. Army combat troops leave Vietnam

Operation EAGLE CLAW (1980)

24–25 April: Unsuccessful attempt to rescue U.S. hostages in Iran

Operation URGENT FURY (1983)

25–29 October: U.S. invasion of Grenada

1986

1 October: President Ronald W. Reagan signs Goldwater-Nichols Department of Defense Reorganization Act

Operation JUST CAUSE (1989–1990)

20 December–31 January: U.S. invasion of Panama

1991

26 December: Dissolution of the Soviet Union



General Matthew B. Ridway
(U.S. Army)

PEOPLE, ARTIFACTS, AND EVENTS

Born in 1895 and graduated from the United States Military Academy at West Point in 1917, **Matthew B. Ridgway** served in a number of posts in the United States, South America, and the Philippines before World War II. In August 1942, the Army named him commander of the 82d Airborne Division. He parachuted into Sicily and Normandy with the 82d before becoming commander of the XVIII Airborne Corps in August 1944. He continued in that position through Operation MARKET GARDEN, the Battle of the Bulge, and the end of the war.

After his successes during World War II, Ridgway rose to even greater heights during the early Cold War. In December 1950, he took command of the U.S. Eighth Army in Korea after Lt. Gen. Walton H. Walker's death in a vehicle accident. Under his leadership, UN forces halted Communist advances and began to push the enemy northward. Then, after briefly serving as the Supreme Allied Commander for NATO forces in Europe, he returned to Washington, D.C. in August 1953 to become the Army chief of staff. In that position, he frequently battled with Eisenhower over the president's desire to diminish both the size and budget of the Army. Ridgway initiated several studies designed to modernize the service's organization and doctrine. His personal intervention with Eisenhower helped to convince the president not to commit U.S. military forces to assist the French in Vietnam. When Eisenhower chose not to nominate Ridgway to a second term as chief of staff, the General retired in 1955. However, he remained a frequent confidant and adviser to subsequent presidents.



Cornelius H. Charlton was born in Eastgulf, West Virginia, on 24 July 1929. He enlisted in the U.S. Army in 1946 at the age of seventeen. His early assignments included occupation duty in Europe and service in an engineering battalion at Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland. On 2 June 1951, while serving as a squad leader with the 1st Battalion, 24th Infantry Regiment, 25th Infantry Division, Sergeant Charlton took charge of his infantry platoon when his platoon leader was killed. Despite being wounded himself, he led his platoon in three separate attacks against enemy positions on Hill 543 near the village of Chipo-ri, South Korea. During the final assault, an enemy grenade killed Sergeant Charlton as his soldiers swept over the position. For his actions, he received the Medal of Honor posthumously.



Martha Raye with Special Forces soldiers in Vietnam (*U.S. Army*)

Martha Raye was an American singer, actor, and entertainer who performed in movies and television from the 1930s through the 1980s. During World War II, the Korean War, and the Vietnam War, she was a frequent participant in USO (United Service Organizations) and other sponsored tours to entertain the troops overseas. Because of her willingness to visit isolated camps in dangerous territory, she was a particular favorite of the Special Forces units in Vietnam. Out of respect for her courage, they made her an honorary lieutenant colonel and presented her with her own Green Beret. On several occasions in Vietnam, she assisted in the hospital wards and aid stations. Troops came to know her as Colonel Maggie. In 1968, she received the Jean Hersholt Humanitarian Award at that year's Academy Awards and, in 1993, President William J. Clinton presented her with the Presidential Medal of Freedom. She died in 1994 and was buried with full military honors in the Fort Bragg Main Post Cemetery in North Carolina, home of her beloved U.S. Army Special Forces.



Capt. Lewis Millett in Korea
(U.S. Army)

Very few soldiers could match the extraordinary exploits of Col. **Lewis L. Millett**, a veteran of World War II, Korea, and Vietnam. After brief service in the Massachusetts National Guard, the Army Air Corps, and the Canadian Army, he served as an antitank gunner in the 1st Armored Division and participated in campaigns in North Africa, Salerno, and Anzio. As a captain and company commander in the 27th Infantry Regiment, 25th Infantry Division, during the Korean War, Millett led his soldiers in a bayonet charge against enemy troops defending a hilltop position. For his actions, President Truman presented Millett with the Medal of Honor and the location subsequently became known throughout the U.S. Army in Korea as Bayonet Hill.



Soldiers from the 101st Airborne Division prepare to fire a training round from a Davy Crockett at Fort Campbell, Kentucky, 14 May 1962. (National Archives)

Perhaps no single weapons system better exemplified the Cold War and the military's fascination with atomic weapons than the **Davy Crockett launcher**. During the mid-1950s, the Army struggled to remain relevant to national defense policy as the Eisenhower administration emphasized atomic weapons, missiles, and air power as a more cost-efficient approach toward national security. As part of a concerted effort to demonstrate that the Army could also operate in an atomic environment, the service developed the Davy Crockett atomic weapons system. Looking like a large recoilless rifle mounted on a jeep or ground tripod, it launched a 100- or 300-pound atomic projectile out to a distance of about 4,000 meters.

Although the system seemed to meet the Army's need for an immediately available atomic fire support weapon, it presented several shortcomings. Its limited range meant that firing crews would have to operate close to or within the blast and fallout radius of the atomic explosion. More importantly, the system lacked a means of close civilian control that the military had applied to other atomic devices. Military and civilian leaders alike worried about the possibility of junior personnel inadvertently initiating an atomic exchange. As a result, the Army only deployed the Davy Crockett with units for a brief time, between 1961 and 1971.



MIM-3 Nike-Ajax missile
(U.S. Army)

During the early days of the Cold War, the Army struggled to retain a significant role in a national defense policy dominated by atomic weapons and the strategic air forces. One area in which the service looked to assert its preeminence was continental air defense. Entering service in 1954 was the **Nike-Ajax anti-aircraft missile**. The Army deployed batteries of these air defense weapons in the United States to protect major cities and military bases and in Europe as a defense against Soviet bomber attacks. At its peak deployment, almost 300 batteries of missiles surrounded the majority of northern and coastal cities. Although the Ajax was the world's first operational guided surface-to-air missile, it had a limited range and effectiveness against high-speed aircraft or missiles. Technological developments throughout the 1950s soon rendered the Nike-Ajax obsolete and in 1959, the Army began to deploy the more effective Nike Hercules. Although all of the services continued to develop more effective air defense systems, the threat of attack by multiple waves of nuclear-armed missiles eventually made ground based defense systems impractical and unaffordable.



M. Sgt. Roy P. Benavidez receives the Medal of Honor from President Ronald W. Reagan, 1981. (*White House Photographic Collection*)

Raul Perez “Roy” Benavidez was born in Cuero, Texas, in 1935. When both of his parents died of tuberculosis, he and his younger brother moved to El Campo, where they lived with their grandfather, aunt and uncle, and eight cousins. Benavidez joined the Texas Army National Guard in 1952 and, in 1955, switched to Army active duty. After completing airborne training in 1959, he reported to the 82d Airborne Division at Fort Bragg. He later applied for and qualified for Army Special Forces and, in 1965, went to Vietnam to serve as an adviser to an Army of the Republic of Vietnam infantry regiment. During that tour, he stepped on a landmine and the Army evacuated him back to the United States. Despite a medical conclusion that he would never walk again, Benavidez undertook an excruciating rehabilitation program and, more than a year later, walked out of the hospital on his own.

As a master sergeant, Benavidez returned to Vietnam in 1968. On 2 May, he responded to a call for assistance from a Special Forces patrol under siege by a North Vietnamese battalion near Loc Ninh. Armed only with a knife and his medical bag, he jumped from a helicopter into the patrol’s position. Despite numerous bullet, bayonet, and shrapnel wounds, he continued to provide medical attention to numerous wounded comrades, saving the lives of at least eight. When one of the North Vietnamese soldiers surrounding the battalion broke into the position and stabbed him with a bayonet, Benavidez pulled out his own knife and dispatched the enemy. After the fight, the Army once again evacuated him to the United States for another lengthy convalescence. In 1981, President Ronald W. Reagan presented M. Sgt. Roy P. Benavidez with the Medal of Honor.

After the Korean War, the Army identified a need for a new helicopter to serve as a medical evacuation, observation, and general utility aircraft. The service selected a prototype developed by Bell Helicopter, originally designated as the **HU-1A Iroquois**. Production began in 1960. Soon dubbed the “**Huey**,” it quickly became the mainstay of the Army’s growing helicopter fleet and the workhorse of the war in Vietnam. Its primary missions there included troop transport, air assault, cargo transport, medical evacuation, search and rescue, and ground attack. Units mounted rocket launchers, machine guns, and grenade launchers on the aircraft to provide aerial fire support. The Huey proved to be a versatile and reliable system, serving the Army well into the 1980s, when the Sikorsky UH-60 Black Hawk replaced it.





Soldiers from Troop B, 1st Reconnaissance Squadron, 9th Cavalry Regiment, 1st Cavalry Division, exit a UH-1 aircraft during Operation OREGON, 24 April 1967.
(National Archives)



BGM-71 TOW missile, variant M220. First produced in 1970, the TOW missile has been in the Army's inventory for more than fifty years. (U.S. Army)

Throughout the Cold War, the most significant military threat facing the U.S. Army was the possibility of war in Europe against the Soviet Union and its allies. U.S. and NATO military planners realized that they could not match the potential invading force on a tank-to-tank basis. As a result, the West devoted considerable research toward an effective and affordable means of engaging enemy tanks and heavy armor from a defensive position. After several less than fully successful efforts, the Army's Ballistic Research Laboratories produced a prototype tube-launched, optically tracked, wire-guided missile, which it christened "TOW." Delivery of the **TOW missile** to Army units in the field began in 1970. The weapon was sufficiently versatile that soldiers could use it from ground-mounted tripods, a variety of modified wheeled and tracked vehicles, and helicopters. In Vietnam, U.S. Army Huey helicopters fired TOW missiles in support of South Vietnamese forces in May 1972 near An Loc, breaking up an enemy armored assault. South Vietnamese ground forces continued to employ the missiles against North Vietnamese tanks for the remainder of the war. The U.S. Army employed variations of the TOW missile during the Gulf War, Afghanistan, and Iraq. It remains in service in the U.S. armed forces as well as numerous allied nations around the world.



M1 Abrams tank at Grafenwöhr Army Base, West Germany, 1986
(*Wikimedia Commons*)

By the mid-1960s, the U.S. Army's M-60 main battle tank, an improved version of the post-World War II M-48 Patton tank, was becoming obsolete. After a failed collaboration with the Germans to develop a replacement, the U.S. Army Tank-Automotive Command went to work on a new design. On 12 November 1976, the Department of Defense awarded Chrysler Corporation a \$20 billion contract to begin production of the **M-1 Abrams Main Battle Tank**. Named for former Army Chief of Staff General Creighton W. Abrams Jr., the tank entered service with Army units in 1980. Significant innovative features included a multifuel turbine engine, Chobham composite armor, a computer fire control system, and a pressurized crew compartment to provide protection from chemical and biological hazards. Although initial models mounted a 105-mm. main gun, later variants included a 120-mm. gun similar to those employed by other NATO allies. The Abrams remains the primary battle tank of the U.S. Army and Marine Corps today and the United States has provided variations to numerous allied nations around the world.



3rd Infantry Division (United States)

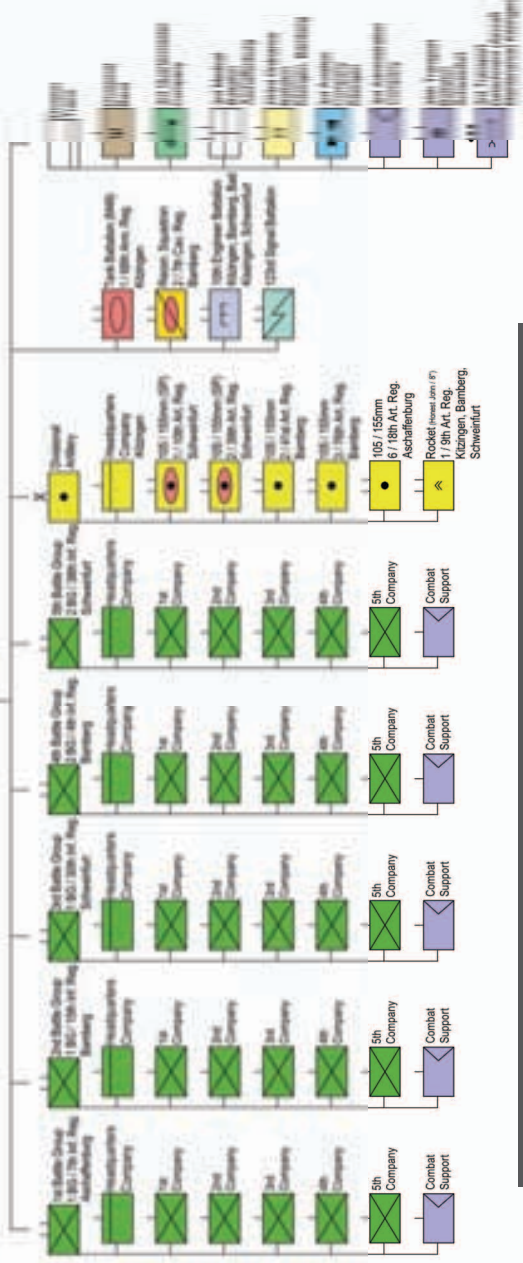
15 August 1960

3rd Infantry Division Headquarters (HQ)

Division HQ
Company

Source:
Division and Brigade (at the time) History Lists, 15 August 1960. Reggs. 61 of 89.
www.history.army.mil/branches/3id.htm (includes 1945-1955) (partial) (partial)

Headquarters, 3rd ID, Reg. 61 of 89



Organization of 3d Infantry (Pentomic) Division, 15 August 1960 (U.S. Army)

In 1956, the newly reactivated 101st Airborne Division began a series of tests and exercises to evaluate its reorganization into a new structure. The **Pentomic Division**, as the Army designated it, consisted of five battle groups instead of the traditional three regiments. Each battle group consisted of four rifle companies, a 4.2-inch mortar battery, and a company containing headquarters and service support elements. Division artillery would consist of two battalions: one a 105-mm. howitzer battalion with five batteries; the other a mixed battalion fielding two 155-mm. howitzer batteries, an 8-inch howitzer battery, and an Honest John rocket battery. Division support would be austere, with most elements that the division did not require on a regular basis removed to higher headquarters.

The goal of the reorganization was twofold. With the Army facing continued personnel cuts under the Eisenhower administration, Chief of Staff General Maxwell D. Taylor hoped to shrink the size of the Army's divisions. The new organization would reduce the airborne division from 17,490 to 11,486 troops and the infantry division from 18,804 to 13,748. Army leaders chose not to reorganize the armored divisions because they believed their flexible combat command structure was already well-suited for atomic warfare. In addition to reducing their size, Taylor hoped the new organizations would help adapt them to the modern battlefield. The addition of atomic-capable weapons, particularly in the field artillery units, would offset the loss of some of its other firepower. In May 1957, General Taylor announced that all of the Army's airborne and infantry divisions would undergo the transformation by the end of 1958.

Ultimately, the new organization proved to be poorly suited for the modern battlefield. Removing most of a division's organic transportation left it relatively immobile in an environment where dispersion and mobility were essential. Commanders found that the loss of key fire support elements left them without the firepower they had employed under previous organizations. Finally, the five-sided structure proved to be unwieldy and difficult to command and control, particularly without the improved communications systems that had yet to be developed. In May 1961, the new Chief of Staff General George H. Decker approved a new formation, labeled Reorganization of Army Divisions. Within three years, all Army divisions had converted to the new model.

On 4 November 1979, Iranian college students and supporters of the Iranian Revolution overran the American embassy in Tehran and took fifty-two U.S. diplomats and citizens hostage. After months of negotiations failed to make any progress toward freeing them, President James E. “Jimmy” Carter authorized the Defense Department to launch a rescue attempt.

The mission, code-named **Operation EAGLE CLAW**, faced complications from the start. The extended distance between where the Iranians were holding the hostages and available airfields was too far to traverse for most rotary aircraft available to the United States. High winds and unpredictable weather in the region also would prove significant. Ultimately, the plan for rescue would involve all four branches of the military, which further complicated command relationships and required extensive coordination measures.

As planned, eight Sea Stallion helicopters from the aircraft carrier USS *Nimitz*, 60 miles off the coast of Iran, would fly 600 miles to a remote stretch in the Iranian desert, 200 miles southeast of Tehran, a location denoted as Desert One. There, they would rendezvous with six U.S. Air Force C-130 aircraft flying 1,000 miles from an island off the coast of Oman and carrying teams of soldiers from Army Rangers, Army Special Forces, and the newly formed Delta Force. Once on the ground, the helicopters would refuel and transport the soldiers to Tehran, where they would assault the compound housing the hostages and effect their release. Once notified of a successful rescue, a separate company of Army Rangers would capture an abandoned airfield about 60 miles southwest of Tehran, where two C-141 Starlifters would fly in to evacuate all personnel.

The operation went poorly from the very beginning. Soon after the first C-130s landed at the improvised airstrip at Desert One, delivering soldiers, equipment, and fuel, they were met by Iranian vehicles traveling on a nearby dirt road. One vehicle, a fuel truck, continued toward the aircraft until an Army shoulder-fired missile destroyed it. Helicopters flying from the *Nimitz* ran into foul weather. Two returned to the aircraft carrier with instrument malfunctions, and a third reported hydraulic problems after arriving at Desert One. With only five aircraft now available for the mission, the various element leaders agreed to abort it. As the teams prepared to depart, one of the helicopters struck the rear stabilizer of one of the C-130s, which exploded and killed eight troops. The remaining mission personnel boarded the C-130s and departed the site, abandoning the remaining helicopters.



Map 4

The failed rescue attempt marked the nadir of American military readiness and capabilities in the post-Vietnam era. Subsequent investigations identified deficiencies in mission planning, command and control, and interservice operability. These studies ultimately prompted reform of the Defense Department, much of which was included in the 1986 Goldwater-Nichols legislation. The failed operation also led to the establishment of U.S. Special Operations Command, a joint organization with overall control over each service's special operations forces.



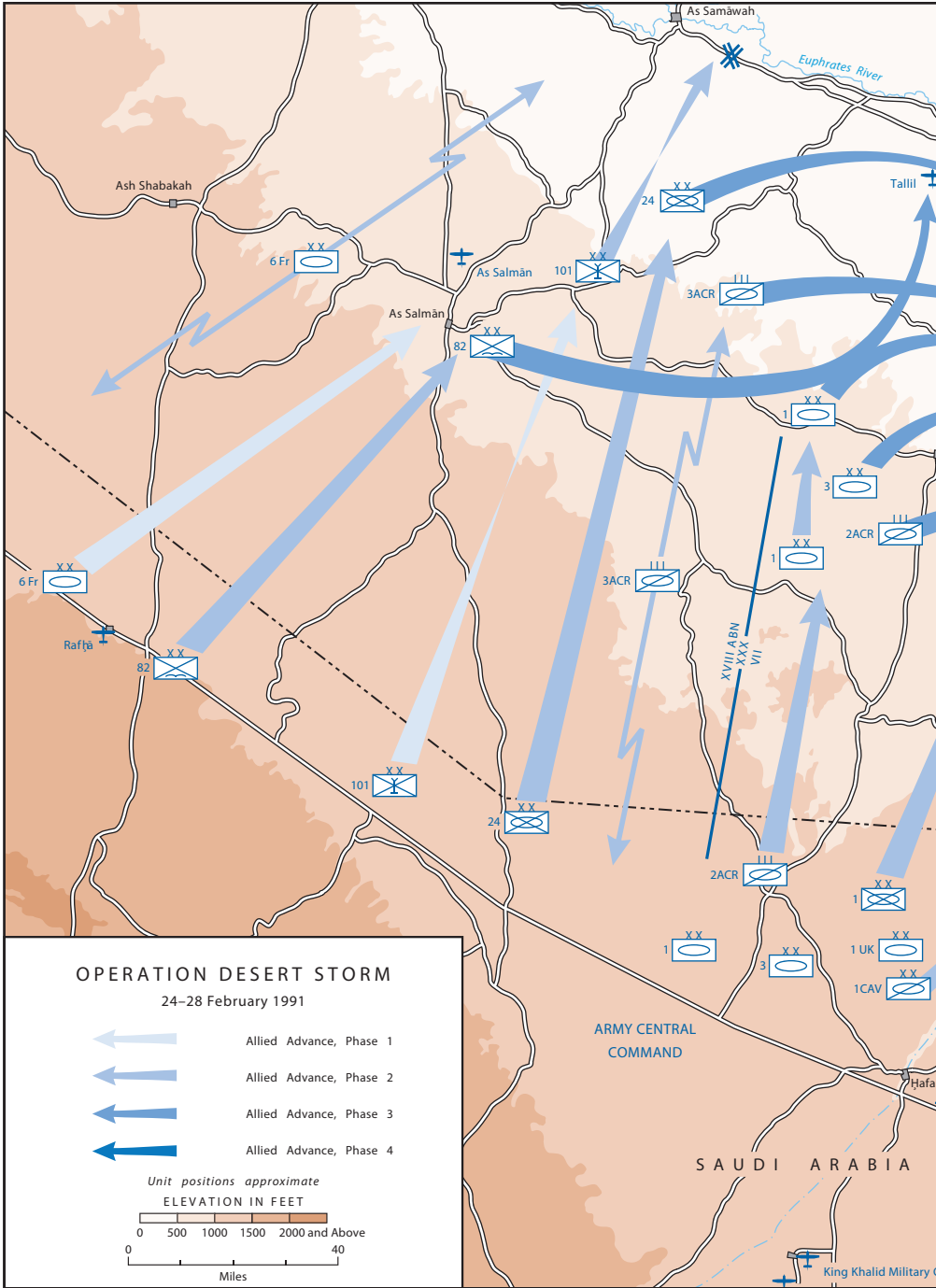
A CHANGING WORLD: FROM THE PERSIAN GULF WAR TO THE GLOBAL WAR ON TERRORISM

by Nicholas J. Schlosser

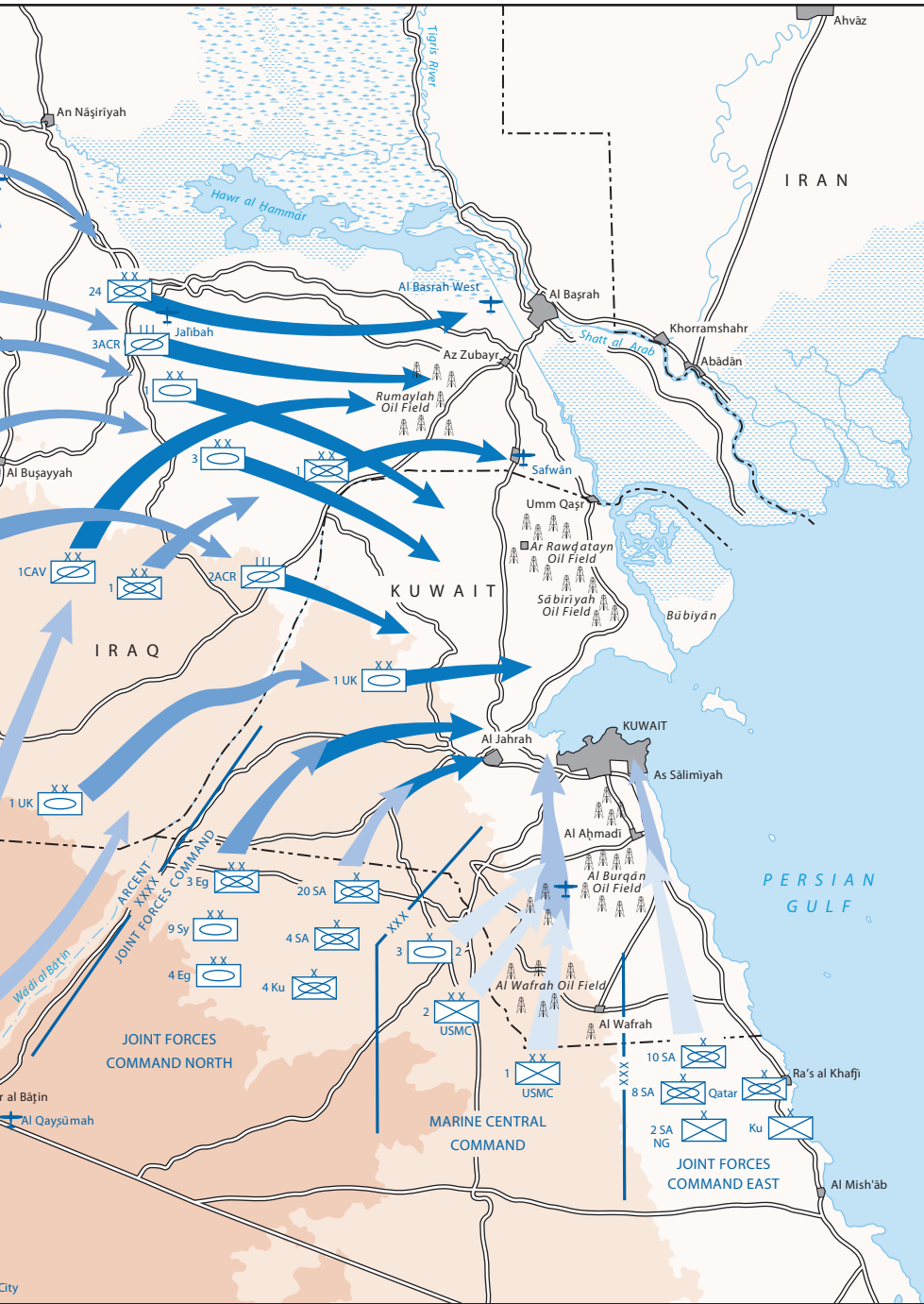
When the Cold War ended in 1989, the U.S. Army found itself at a crossroads. The fall of the Soviet-led communist bloc heralded a peace dividend as the U.S. government cut defense spending and reduced the size of the military. The Army inactivated a number of divisions and quickly drew down its forward-based posture in Western Europe. The total strength of the force went from more than 770,000 soldiers in 1989 to 529,000 in 1994. Nevertheless, the Army juggled a wide range of missions and responsibilities—peacekeeping, preparing for large-scale conflict, disaster relief, and other contingency operations—with a force much smaller than in previous decades.

Within months of the dissolution of the Soviet bloc, the Army confronted a new threat in the Middle East. On 2 August 1990, Iraq invaded its neighbor to the south, Kuwait. Iraq's dictator, Saddam Hussein, now controlled a substantial part of the world's oil supply and threatened its neighbor to the west, Saudi Arabia. In response, President George H. W. Bush launched Operation DESERT SHIELD. The United States assembled a coalition of more than thirty countries, including the United Kingdom, France, Egypt, and the United Arab Emirates, to defend Saudi Arabia from Iraqi invasion. U.S. Army General H. Norman Schwarzkopf Jr. oversaw the allied forces. During the fall of 1990, the United States and its coalition partners assembled a massive force in Saudi Arabia numbering around 750,000 troops.

On 17 January 1991, after months seeking a diplomatic solution, the U.S.-led coalition launched Operation DESERT STORM to liberate Kuwait from Iraqi occupation. The war began with an air campaign against Iraq, bombing its key infrastructure and armed forces. After weeks of



Map 1





Abrams tank in Operation DESERT STORM (U.S. Army)

unremitting air strikes that devastated the Iraqi military, the coalition commenced a ground war on 24 February 1991. As U.S. Marines and coalition allies advanced into Kuwait, Lt. Gen. Frederick M. Franks Jr.'s VII Corps and Lt. Gen. Gary E. Luck's XVIII Airborne Corps swept across Iraq's southern border and struck the enemy's western flank. During the offensive, Army units fought a number of large-scale armored battles, including at 73 Easting and Medina Ridge. Iraqi forces were unable to stop this armored onslaught. After four days of fighting and mass surrenders, Iraq agreed to a cease-fire. The Americans suffered 148 battle deaths and the coalition allies 99. Estimates for Iraqi killed in action were about 20,000. The war demonstrated both the effectiveness of the all-volunteer force and the battlefield superiority of the Army's Big Five combat systems. However, although the allies liberated Kuwait, Saddam Hussein remained in control of Iraq. After the end of the Gulf War, the United Nations ordered Saddam Hussein to destroy his arsenal of weapons of mass destruction—consisting of chemical and biological munitions—and open up his country to weapons inspectors. Throughout the 1990s, Saddam regularly thwarted these inspections. He also threatened to invade Kuwait again and ruthlessly crushed several rebellions against his rule. In response, the United States and allied states established no-fly zones across Iraq's north and south to protect vulnerable populations and regularly sent Army forces to Kuwait in case Saddam launched a second invasion.

The coalition's overwhelming victory against the Iraqi military led many observers to declare that a revolution in military affairs



A U.S. Army medic renders aid to a Somali child. (U.S. Army)

was underway. Arguing that advanced technology had altered radically the nature of war, some pressed the Army to embrace greater transformation initiatives such as enhanced battlefield networks, the global positioning system, and other digital innovations to make the service into a lighter, more agile (but still lethal) ground combat force that could deploy quickly across the globe. Among the most significant results of these initiatives was the introduction of the Stryker brigade combat team at the turn of the century. Using the Stryker light armored vehicle and a new system of battlefield network capabilities, Army Chief of Staff General Eric K. Shinseki intended to create a unit that balanced the light infantry divisions' agility with the firepower of heavy armored divisions.

As planners explored new transformation initiatives back home, various missions continued to test the Army overseas. In 1992, the United States joined a United Nations intervention in the Somali Civil War to help end a famine afflicting the country and to restore political stability. Both Regular Army units and special operations forces participated in the peacekeeping mission. On 3 October, militias in Mogadishu downed two Army UH-60 Black Hawk helicopters. Over the course of a brutal ten-hour battle marked by intense, close-quarter gunfights, U.S. soldiers fought to secure the crash sites and rescue survivors. The battle ended with seventeen U.S. soldiers killed in action. With the American public unwilling to accept casualties in support of an ill-defined, open-ended mission, President William J. Clinton decided to withdraw the American forces from the country.



Soldiers from the 2d Platoon, Company B, 9th Engineer Battalion, take a break while conducting a bunker-busting operation in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1996. (U.S. Army)

The Army participated in several other peacekeeping operations during the 1990s. In 1994, U.S. soldiers arrived in Haiti to help restore its democratically elected president, Jean-Bertrand Aristide, who had been in exile since a military coup deposed him in 1991. In 1995, the Army also deployed to southeastern Europe to serve as part of an international force to prevent further outbreaks of violence among different ethnic and religious groups after the breakup of the multiethnic country of Yugoslavia. Soldiers helped secure the former Yugoslav states of Bosnia and Herzegovina beginning in 1995 and Kosovo in 1999.

As the twentieth century ended, many Army planners anticipated the service would continue to perform these types of peacekeeping missions well into the new century. These predictions proved false when on 11 September 2001 members of the radical Islamic group al-Qaeda hijacked four airliners, flying two into the World Trade Center's twin towers in New York City and one into the Pentagon in Arlington, Virginia. Passengers thwarted hijackers' attempts to use the fourth plane as a missile, crashing it in Pennsylvania. The attack's architect, Osama bin Laden, coordinated the strikes in response to the presence of U.S. forces in Saudi Arabia, America's continued support for Israel, and his belief that the United States was at war with the Islamic world.

In response to al-Qaeda's attacks, President George W. Bush launched the Global War on Terrorism. Bush declared that his administration

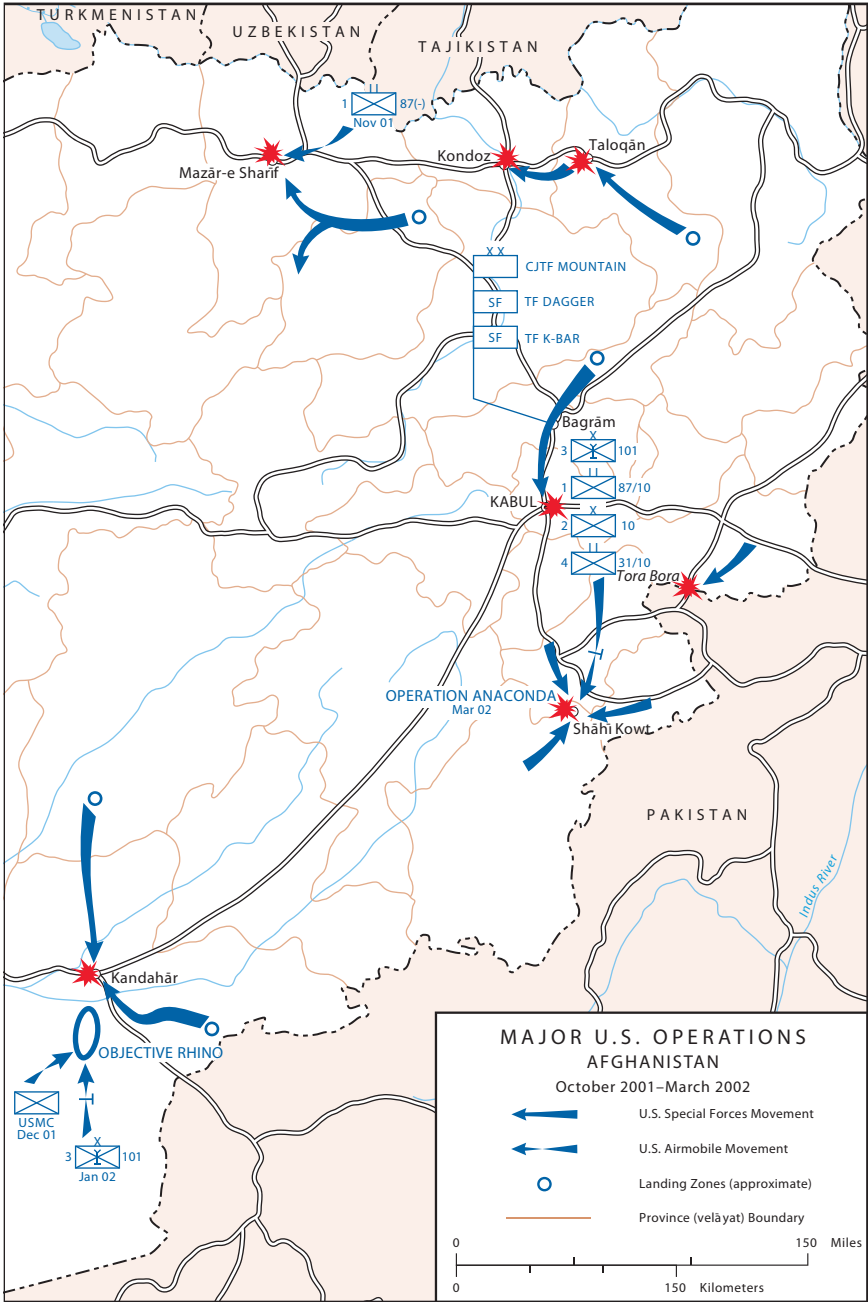


Aerial view of the Pentagon during post-11 September 2001 rescue operations (*U.S. Air Force*)

would “pursue nations that provide aid or safe haven to terrorism. Every nation in every region now has a decision to make: Either you are with us or you are with the terrorists.” President Bush saw the War on Terrorism as a global conflict in which the United States would fight all possible terrorist threats, even if it meant preempting attacks before they occurred. This marked a radical shift in American foreign policy. Whereas before 2001, the U.S. military posture was primarily defensive, the United States now would use its forces to prevent potential terrorist threats against the American homeland.

At the time of the 11 September attacks, al-Qaeda’s leadership had been afforded safe haven in the southwest Asian country of Afghanistan, which was ruled by a group of religious clerics called the Taliban. On 7 October, the United States launched Operation ENDURING FREEDOM to destroy al-Qaeda’s refuge in Afghanistan. Special Forces helped Afghan resistance groups overthrow the Taliban while American airpower hammered enemy defenses and provided critical close air support. By the end of the year, the U.S.-led coalition had driven the Taliban from power. One of the resistance’s leaders, Hamid Karzai, became the country’s new president.

Afterward, U.S. forces and a NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization)-led International Security Assistance Force remained in Afghanistan to help the country rebuild. At the same time, American



Map 2

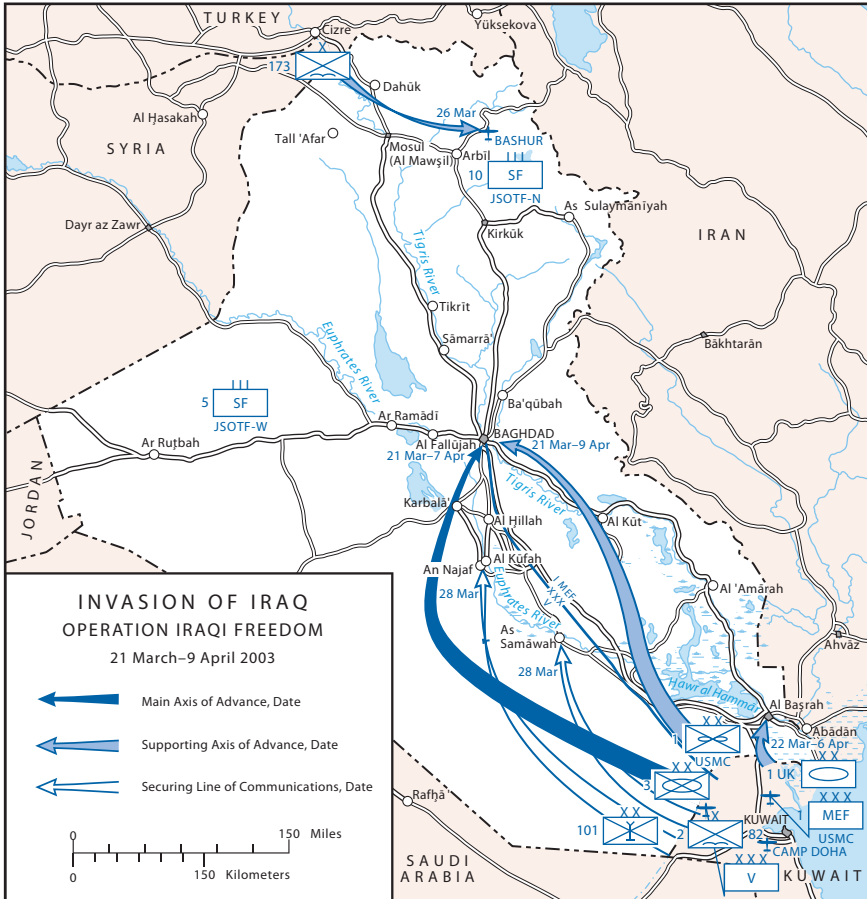
troops continued efforts to locate Osama bin Laden and destroy al-Qaeda, whose members largely had dispersed into the mountainous terrain along the Afghanistan-Pakistan border. The U.S. armed forces maintained pressure on the terrorist organization, but bin Laden nevertheless remained at large.

Afghanistan proved to be a difficult country to stabilize. It was also just one theater of a much larger struggle against international terrorist organizations. As soldiers fought in the frigid mountains of eastern Afghanistan, Army personnel also deployed to warmer climes to assist countries such as the Philippines in Southeast Asia and Djibouti in Africa defeat terrorist organizations in those regions.

President Bush believed Iraq—still ruled by Saddam Hussein—was a potential threat and likely sponsor of terrorism. The dictator continued to impede United Nations inspectors, leading senior figures in the Bush administration to conclude that he was likely hiding stores of chemical and biological weapons. Bristling under the American-enforced no-fly zones, and with his economy crippled by sanctions, Saddam had a motive to sell his weapons to terrorist groups as a means of striking at the United States. Concluding that allowing Saddam to remain in power constituted a risk to U.S. security, the United States launched an invasion of Iraq in March 2003. Under the overall command of Lt. Gen. David D. McKiernan's Coalition Forces Land Component Command, the Army's V Corps and the I Marine Expeditionary Force reached Iraq's capital, Baghdad, within a matter of weeks. However, although Saddam's regime collapsed, the coalition lacked enough troops to secure Iraq's capital and other critical cities.

U.S. planners anticipated that the handover of power from coalition forces to a new democratic Iraqi government would be a relatively smooth one. However, mass looting in Baghdad and general disorder prompted the Bush administration to create a U.S.-led Coalition Provisional Authority (CPA) to administer Iraq. The CPA dissolved the Iraqi Army and purged its civil service of members of Saddam's political movement, putting thousands of individuals out of work and leaving them embittered and frustrated with the new, post-Saddam government. Over the summer of 2003, Iraqis opposed to the presence of U.S. occupation forces began staging attacks against coalition forces and the new government.

Realizing that the Army would now need to support long-term security campaigns in both Iraq and Afghanistan, Chief of Staff General Peter J. Schoomaker accelerated efforts to transform the Army into an expeditionary force. During the Cold War, the Army had based entire divisions overseas permanently. Now, most of these units were located in the United States. Whereas previously the Army built its force structure



Map 3

around the division, now the primary deployable unit was the brigade combat team. Army leaders also created the Army Force Generation planning model to coordinate deployments and ensure units had sufficient recovery time in the United States between overseas duties. The National Guard and Army Reserve—once strategic reserves—now became operationalized elements of the total force whose members could expect to deploy overseas on a regular basis.

Between 2003 and 2006, the United States struggled to stabilize Iraq and lay the foundations for a new democratic government. The insurgents used ambushes and improvised explosive devices (IEDs) to disrupt coalition supply lines, staged mass-casualty attacks, and plunged Iraq into chaos. Although the coalition successfully cleared a number of insurgent

strongholds, such as the city of Fallujah in 2004, the insurgency remained a persistent threat to stability in Iraq. After the destruction of the Golden Mosque, a major shrine in the northern city of Samarra, open fighting erupted between Iraq's two Islamic sects: the Sunni and the Shi'a.

In 2007, President Bush committed a "surge" of Army and Marine Corps forces to restore security across the country and protect the Iraqi people. His administration also extended the standard deployment period for units in Iraq and Afghanistan from twelve months to fifteen months. This decision was a difficult one,

placing considerable burdens on soldiers and their families. However, the Defense Department believed it was necessary for the Army to maintain enough forces in Iraq to turn the war in the coalition's favor. Under the leadership of General David H. Petraeus, the newly expanded force reduced violence and significantly diminished the threat posed by insurgent groups such as al-Qaeda in Iraq and Shi'a militias such as Jaysh al-Mahdi. The number of attacks dropped to such a level that President Barack H. Obama felt confident he could withdraw most American forces from Iraq at the end of 2011. However, after the U.S. withdrawal, Iraqi Prime Minister Nouri al-Maliki pursued a pro-Shi'a policy that alienated many of Iraq's Sunni. This decision would have major consequences a few years later.

By 2008, Afghanistan threatened to fall once again into disorder. Pakistan allowed the remnants of the Taliban to rebuild their forces, and the United States had insufficient troops to secure the entire country while also conducting operations in Iraq. The newly resurgent Taliban commenced attacks in a bid to undermine the effectiveness of President Karzai's government and to take control of the country once again. The success of the surge in Iraq convinced President Obama to employ a similar strategy in Afghanistan in 2009. Under the leadership of Gen. Stanley A. McChrystal, reinforced U.S. and NATO forces in Afghanistan conducted a comprehensive counterinsurgency campaign to protect the people



General David H. Petraeus
(Department of Defense)

from Taliban attacks and create conditions that would allow the Americans and their allies to transfer the security mission in the country to Afghan forces.

Although the surge in Iraq led to a dramatic drop in violence across the country, the results of the Afghan surge were uneven. Many Afghan government officials were corrupt and the population did not feel that their leadership represented them. Taliban fighters could withdraw across the border to safe havens in Pakistan, where they regrouped, rearmed, and recruited new members. Many Afghans living in remote villages also came to see the Taliban as a more effective government than the official one in Kabul. At the same time, the

United States degraded al-Qaeda's forces with a mix of conventional operations, special operations forces, and unmanned aerial vehicles. The United States achieved a major victory on 2 May 2011 when U.S. Navy special operations forces located and killed Osama bin Laden in a hide-out in Pakistan. At the end of 2014, President Obama declared an end to Operation ENDURING FREEDOM and withdrew U.S. combat troops from Afghanistan. However, the United States still maintained a contingent of military advisers to assist the Afghan security forces.

Concurrently, U.S. forces were engaged in another war in Iraq—this time to defend it from the self-proclaimed Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (ISIS). In 2011, a civil war in Syria broke out and immediately began to impact neighboring states, including Iraq. In 2014, ISIS—which had emerged from the remnants of al-Qaeda in Iraq—took advantage of the war's chaos to launch a large-scale offensive. It took over a huge swath of territory encompassing most of eastern Syria and western Iraq. ISIS subsequently declared this area a new Islamic caliphate and set about creating a new religious government over the region.

In response to ISIS's offensive, the United States launched Operation INHERENT RESOLVE in the summer of 2014. Wary of committing U.S. soldiers in large numbers to Iraq, the Obama administration focused



General Stanley A. McChrystal
(Department of Defense)



An M109A6 Paladin self-propelled, 155-mm. howitzer supports Iraqi security forces' push toward Mosul, 17 October 2016 (U.S. Army)

instead on rebuilding the Iraqi Army—badly battered by ISIS’s assault—and providing close air support. Using a deliberate, patient approach, the United States assembled a coalition to assist the Iraqis, who were then able to halt ISIS’s offensive and lay the groundwork for a counterattack. Many of those involved in the American effort were veterans of the Iraq War with experience working alongside and advising Iraqi security forces.

At the end of 2016, Iraqi forces began a large-scale offensive in the north to retake the city of Mosul, the largest city under ISIS’s control in Iraq. By December 2017, Iraq had destroyed the bulk of ISIS’s forces in the country. At the same time, Syrian resistance groups, with the assistance of U.S. special operations personnel, successfully liberated the Syrian city of Raqqa, which ISIS had used as its capital. By the spring of 2019, ISIS’s physical caliphate had all but collapsed. Wary that ISIS could regroup and reemerge as a threat, the United States continued to maintain a force of advisers in Iraq through 2021 and beyond.

As the United States conducted operations throughout Southwest Asia, it also began to recommit more of its forces to Europe and the Pacific. After the Russian Federation’s invasion of Ukraine’s Crimean Peninsula in 2014, the Obama administration deployed Army units to Europe to strengthen the U.S. commitment to NATO. Operation ATLANTIC RESOLVE constituted the first regular rotation of American Army units to Europe since the end of the Cold War. Meanwhile, the continuing rise

of the People's Republic of China and its increasingly assertive posture in the South China Sea led the Obama administration to pivot to the Pacific and ensure the United States had sufficient forces in the region to defend its allies throughout southern and eastern Asia.

Meanwhile, the United States ended its involvement in Afghanistan. In 2019, President Donald J. Trump, negotiated a truce with the Taliban and his successor, President Joseph R. Biden Jr., withdrew the last U.S. personnel from the country in 2021. Unfortunately, the Afghan security forces were unable to stave off the Taliban's final offensives, which ended with the religious group once again taking control of the country at the end of August 2021.

As the twenty-first century enters its third decade, the Army remains the United States' principal ground warfare service. It continues to train and equip soldiers to fight and win our nation's wars across the full spectrum of conflict.

TIMELINE

Gulf War (1990–1991)

1990

- 2 August: Iraq invades Kuwait
- 7 August: Operation DESERT SHIELD begins. U.S. and coalition forces deploy to defend Saudi Arabia.

1991

- 17 January: Operation DESERT STORM begins with a coalition strategic and tactical air war against Iraq.
- 24 February: Coalition ground offensive begins against Iraq to liberate Kuwait.
- 26 February: Battle of 73 Easting
- 27 February: Battle of Medina Ridge
- 28 February: Cease-fire

Somalia Intervention (1992–1995)

1992

- 4 December: President George H. W. Bush orders deployment of U.S. combat forces to Somalia to protect humanitarian aid efforts.

1993

- 3–4 October: Battle of Mogadishu

1994

- 25 March: Majority of U.S. troops withdraw from Somalia

1995

- 3 March: Last United Nations soldiers withdraw from Somalia.

Bosnian War (1992–1995)

1994–1995

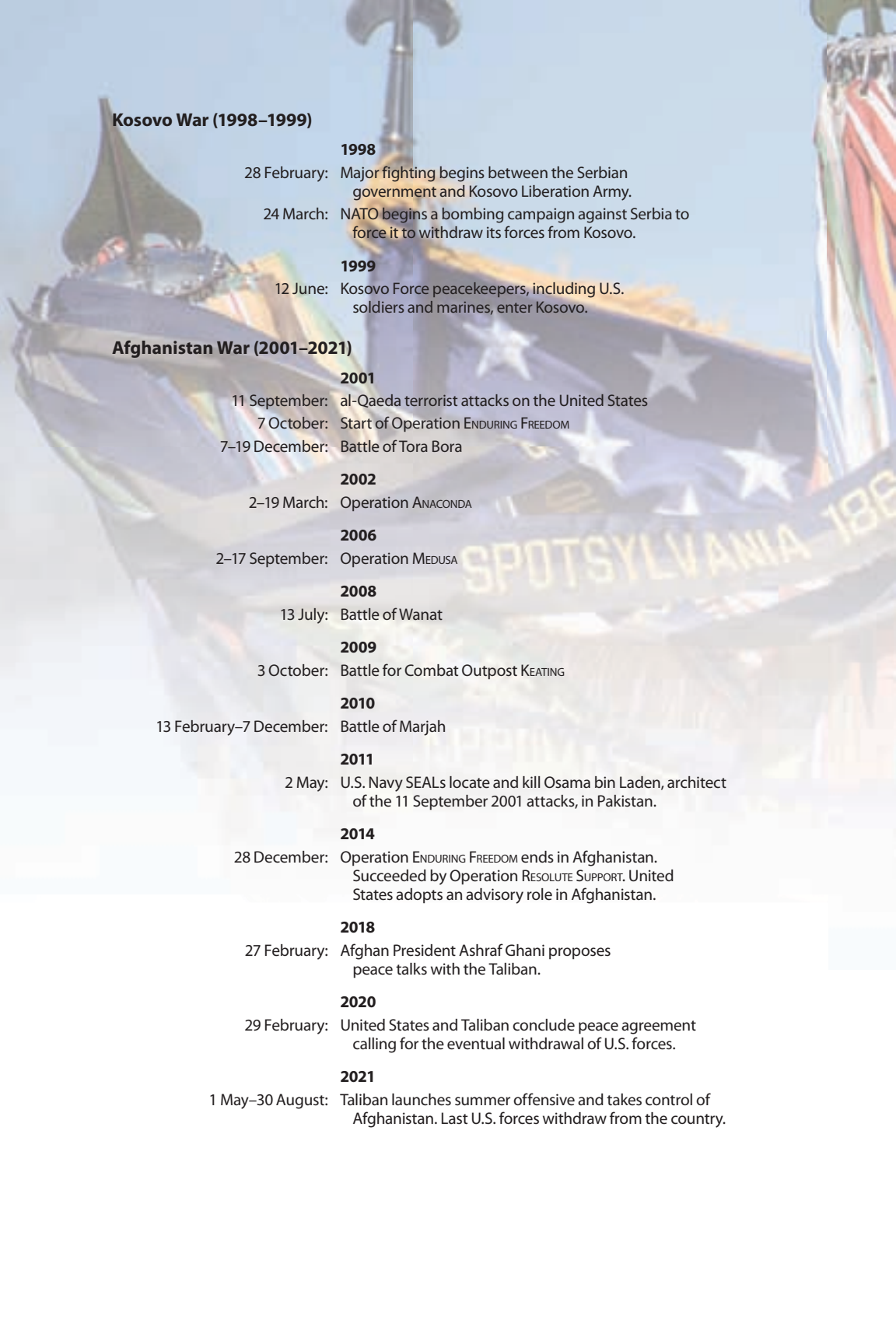
- United States participates in NATO air campaign against Serb militant forces to protect Bosnian Muslims.

1995

- 2 December: U.S. troops deploy to Bosnia-Herzegovina to enforce the Dayton Accords, ending the war in Bosnia.

Haitian Intervention (1994–1995)

- U.S. Army and Marine Corps forces deploy to Haiti to help remove a military regime and restore President Jean-Bertrand Aristide to office.



Kosovo War (1998–1999)

1998

- 28 February: Major fighting begins between the Serbian government and Kosovo Liberation Army.
- 24 March: NATO begins a bombing campaign against Serbia to force it to withdraw its forces from Kosovo.

1999

- 12 June: Kosovo Force peacekeepers, including U.S. soldiers and marines, enter Kosovo.

Afghanistan War (2001–2021)

2001

- 11 September: al-Qaeda terrorist attacks on the United States
- 7 October: Start of Operation ENDURING FREEDOM
- 7–19 December: Battle of Tora Bora

2002

- 2–19 March: Operation ANACONDA

2006

- 2–17 September: Operation MEDUSA

2008

- 13 July: Battle of Wanat

2009

- 3 October: Battle for Combat Outpost KEATING

2010

- 13 February–7 December: Battle of Marjah

2011

- 2 May: U.S. Navy SEALs locate and kill Osama bin Laden, architect of the 11 September 2001 attacks, in Pakistan.

2014

- 28 December: Operation ENDURING FREEDOM ends in Afghanistan. Succeeded by Operation RESOLUTE SUPPORT. United States adopts an advisory role in Afghanistan.

2018

- 27 February: Afghan President Ashraf Ghani proposes peace talks with the Taliban.

2020

- 29 February: United States and Taliban conclude peace agreement calling for the eventual withdrawal of U.S. forces.

2021

- 1 May–30 August: Taliban launches summer offensive and takes control of Afghanistan. Last U.S. forces withdraw from the country.

Iraq War (2003–2011)

2003

- 20 March: Coalition forces invade Iraq.
- 3–12 April: Coalition forces reach Baghdad. Saddam Hussein's regime falls.
- 16 May: Coalition Provisional Authority assumes control of Iraq.
- 13 December: U.S. forces capture Saddam Hussein.

2004

- 4 April–1 May: First Battle of Fallujah between Coalition forces and Sunni insurgents
- 5–27 August: Battle of Najaf between Coalition forces and Shi'a militias
- 7 November–23 December: Second Battle of Fallujah between Coalition forces and Sunni insurgents

2005

- 1 September–19 February 2006: Battle of Tal Afar.

2006

- 22 February: Sunni insurgents destroy Golden Mosque in Samarra, sparking sectarian war between Iraqi Sunni and Shi'a.
- 14 September–15 February 2007: Battle of Ramadi and birth of the Al-Anbar Awakening

2007

- 10 January: President George W. Bush announces surge of U.S. forces to secure Iraq from the insurgency and sectarian violence.
- 14 February–24 November: Battle of Baghdad
- 16 June–14 August: Operation PHANTOM THUNDER: Surge summer offensive

2008

- 23 March–20 May: Battle of Sadr City

2011

- 18 December: Last U.S. combat troops withdraw from Iraq.

Operation ATLANTIC RESOLVE (2014)

- April: First rotation of U.S. Army forces to Europe to participate in NATO deterrence operations against Russia.

War against the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria (2014–)

2014

- 8 August: U.S. forces commence air strikes on ISIS positions in northern Iraq.

2016

- 16 October–16 July 2017: Battle of Mosul. U.S.-advised Iraqi forces retake Mosul from ISIS.
- 5 November–17 October 2017: Battle of Raqqa. Syrian resistance forces, assisted by U.S.-led coalition, drive ISIS from its capital city.

2019:

- March 23: Liberation of the last ISIS-held territory

PEOPLE, ARTIFACTS, EVENTS

General Colin L. Powell was a major architect of American foreign policy during the final decade of the twentieth century. Born in 1937 to Jamaican immigrants in New York City, Powell attended City College of New York, joined the Reserve Officer Training Corps, and was commissioned a second lieutenant in the U.S. Army in 1958. He subsequently served two tours in Vietnam and became Deputy National Security Advisor in 1986, National Security Advisor in 1987, and then Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff in 1989.

As Chairman of the Joint Chiefs, General Powell articulated the principle that the United States should go to war with a clear and attainable objective and commit overwhelming military force against the enemy. The Powell Doctrine saw its clearest demonstration during the Gulf War from 1990 to 1991, as the United States and its coalition allies built up a massive force to liberate Kuwait from Iraqi occupation. General Powell also oversaw the U.S. intervention in Panama and the opening phase of the American peacekeeping mission in Somalia.

Powell retired from the military in 1993. He returned to government service in 2001 when President George W. Bush appointed him Secretary of State. The 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks and the wars in Afghanistan and Iraq dominated his term. During his tenure, he also helped increase American funding to fight AIDS in Africa and continued to support and foster the international partnerships upon which he believed the United States' security and prosperity depended.



General Colin Powell by Henrietta Snowden
(U.S. Army Art Collection)



Gary I. Gordon and Randall D. Shughart (photographed as Sergeants First Class)
(Department of Defense)

On 3 October 1993, U.S. special operations forces supporting international humanitarian efforts in Somalia launched a raid into the city of Mogadishu against local warlord Mohamed Farrah Aidid. During the operation, enemy militants brought down two UH-60 Black Hawk helicopters. The leader of the sniper team aboard a third helicopter, **M. Sgt. Gary I. Gordon**, repeatedly requested permission to protect the survivors at one of the crash sites. He finally received the go-ahead. Landing 100 meters south of the crash, Gordon and a teammate, **Sfc. Randall D. Shughart**, fought through dense urban terrain. Upon arriving at the crash site, they were all that stood between the helicopter's badly injured pilot, CWO3 Michael J. Durant, and Aidid's militia fighters. Using just sniper rifles and pistols, Gordon and Shughart held off repeated enemy attacks. When they expended their ammunition, they pulled weapons out from the helicopter and fought to the last bullet. Enemy fighters fatally wounded both soldiers and then captured Durant, whom they released two weeks later. Both Gordon and Shughart received the Medal of Honor for their actions.



Then a captain in the Illinois Army National Guard, Tammy Duckworth stands by her UH-60 Black Hawk helicopter. Duckworth spent 23 years in the Illinois Army National Guard, retiring as a lieutenant colonel. (*U.S. Army*)

Born in 1968 to a Thai mother and an American father who was a veteran of both World War II and Vietnam, **Ladda Tammy Duckworth** grew up in a family that valued service to the country. She was commissioned in the Army Reserve in 1992. Seeking service in a combat arm, Duckworth became a helicopter pilot, training on UH-60 Black Hawks.

Duckworth's unit, the 1st Battalion, 106th Aviation Regiment, of the Illinois National Guard, deployed to Iraq in 2004. During a flight north of Baghdad on 12 November 2004, an insurgent rocket-propelled grenade struck then-Captain Duckworth's helicopter. The projectile pierced the aircraft's hull directly where Duckworth sat, and exploded. Her wounds were so severe that Duckworth's copilot assumed she had been killed in the attack. Captain Duckworth was quickly transported back to Baghdad and then to Walter Reed Medical Center in Washington, D.C., a few days later. Doctors were able to save her life, but had to amputate both of her legs.

Duckworth remained in the National Guard, retiring as a lieutenant colonel in 2014. During this period, she continued her career in public service as a civilian—serving as director of the Illinois Department of Veterans Affairs from 2006 to 2009 and the U.S. Assistant Secretary of Veterans Affairs for Public and Intergovernmental Affairs from 2009 to 2011. In 2012, voters in the Illinois 8th Congressional District elected Duckworth to the U.S. House of Representatives. Four years later, she became a United States senator from Illinois.

There were no front lines in the Iraq War. **Sgt. Leigh A. Hester** quickly discovered this fact when insurgents attacked her company in 2005. Born in 1982 in Bowling Green, Kentucky, Hester joined the Army in April 2001 and deployed to Iraq with her Kentucky National Guard Unit, the 617th Military Police Company, in 2004. On the morning of 20 March 2005, her company was escorting a supply convoy south of Baghdad when insurgents opened fire with AK47s, PRK machine guns, and rocket-propelled grenades, using nearby irrigation ditches for cover. Sergeant Hester maneuvered her soldiers to protect the convoy and defeat the attackers. She ordered her gunner to open fire on the insurgent positions using an MK19 grenade launcher and an M240B machine gun. She then dismounted her Humvee and engaged the insurgents herself using her M203 grenade launcher to suppress enemy fire. She and her squad leader then destroyed one of the insurgent fighting positions with fragmentation grenades and M4 carbine fire. Although outnumbered five to one, Hester and her fellow soldiers successfully protected the convoy and defeated the insurgent ambush after a 45-minute, close-quarter firefight.

For her actions on 20 March 2005, Sergeant Hester received a Silver Star, the first woman to do so since World War II. In 2009, Hester left the military and became a police officer in Tennessee. She later rejoined the National Guard, serving as an instructor at the 117th Regional Training Institute Military Police School and deploying to Afghanistan in 2014 with a Cultural Support Team. Sergeant First Class Hester also served in military relief efforts in the U.S. Virgin Islands after Hurricane Maria in 2017.



Sgt. Leigh A. Hester stands at parade rest after receiving the Silver Star at an awards ceremony at Camp Liberty, Iraq, 16 June 2005. (U.S. Army)



Alwyn C. Cashe (photographed as a Staff Sergeant)
(U.S. Army)

Born in 1970, **Sfc. Alwyn C. Cashe** enlisted in the Army in 1988. An infantry soldier, he served in the Gulf War in 1991 and during the 2003 U.S. invasion of Iraq. During his third combat tour, Sergeant Cashe served with the 1st Battalion, 15th Infantry Regiment. On the evening of 17 October 2005, he was on a patrol in northern Iraq when his Bradley fighting vehicle struck an IED, crippling the vehicle and igniting its fuel cell. The Bradley erupted into flames. Drenched in fuel, Sergeant Cashe nevertheless leapt from the gunner position and ran to the rear of the vehicle to help soldiers escape through its back hatch. The fuel on Cashe's uniform ignited and started to scorch his body. Despite this, he repeatedly braved the flames engulfing the Bradley, ultimately pulling six soldiers and a translator from the burning armored vehicle. Despite being in excruciating pain—he suffered second- and third-degree burns over 72 percent of his body—Cashe continued to take the lead in administering aid to his soldiers and comrades before being evacuated for medical treatment.

Cashe died of his wounds on 8 November 2005 at Brooke Army Medical Center in San Antonio, Texas. He received a Silver Star for his actions; the award subsequently was upgraded to a Medal of Honor in 2021.

Born in 1985, **Salvatore A. Giunta** joined the Army in 2003. He deployed to Afghanistan's Zabul Province in 2005, serving with the 173d Airborne Brigade. Giunta originally had signed up for four years. However, Giunta's term of service was extended because of the stop-loss policy, by which the Defense Department could extend a service member's active duty service beyond their original enlistment date.

During his second tour to Afghanistan on 25 October 2007, enemy forces ambushed Giunta's patrol from Company B, 2d Battalion, 503d Infantry Regiment. Taking cover and engaging the fighters, Giunta ran under fire to assist his squad leader, who had been injured in the fighting. Afterward, he continued across the battlefield, searching for other wounded soldiers. Pinned down by the heavily armed enemy's well-coordinated ambush, Specialist Giunta realized one of his teammates was missing. Despite the withering hail of fire, he moved forward and saw two insurgents fleeing with a wounded American soldier. He opened fire on his opponents, killing one, wounding the other, and rescuing his fellow soldier, to whom he immediately provided medical assistance. "For all intents and purposes," one of Giunta's comrades observed, "with the amount of fire that was going on in the conflict at the time, he shouldn't be alive." Specialist Giunta received a Medal of Honor for his heroic actions. He left the Army in 2011 as a staff sergeant.



Salvatore A. Giunta (photographed as a Staff Sergeant)
(U.S. Army)



General Ann E. Dunwoody (center) receives her fourth star at the Pentagon, 14 November 2008 (U.S. Army)

On 14 November 2008, **Ann E. Dunwoody** became the first woman promoted to the rank of four-star general in the U.S. Army. It was one of many highlights defining a remarkable career of service. Born in 1953, Dunwoody was commissioned as a 2d lieutenant in the Quartermaster Corps after taking a Women's Officer Orientation Course in college. Dunwoody would go on to serve at every command level. As commander of the 407th Supply and Transportation Battalion, 82d Airborne Division, in 1990 and 1991, she helped deploy the division to defend Saudi Arabia after Iraq invaded Kuwait in August 1990. After the 11 September 2001 terrorist attacks on New York and Washington, Dunwoody—now a brigadier general in command of the XVIII Airborne Corps' 1st Corps Support Command—oversaw the creation of a joint logistics headquarters in Uzbekistan to support U.S. operations in Afghanistan. Subsequent assignments included Commanding General, Military Surface Deployment and Distribution Command (2002–2004) and Deputy Chief of Staff, G-4 (2005–2008). In 2008, after promotion to full general, Dunwoody took command of the U.S. Army Materiel Command.

As one of the Army's senior logisticians throughout the Global War on Terrorism, General Dunwoody ensured soldiers and the joint force received the equipment and materiel they needed to fight on multiple fronts and diverse environments across the globe.



Bradley fighting vehicle
(U.S. Army)

During the Gulf War, two new armored vehicles spearheaded the attack—the M1A1 Abrams Main Battle Tank and the **Bradley fighting vehicle**. The Bradley was one of the Army's Big Five weapons systems introduced during the 1970s and 1980s to modernize the force. Combining the capabilities of an armored personnel carrier and tank killer, the armored Bradleys could transport six infantry soldiers into battle and its three-person crew could engage an enemy with its 25-mm. M242 Bushmaster chain gun, 7.62-mm. M240 machine gun, and a Tube-launched, Optically tracked, Wire-guided (TOW) missile system.

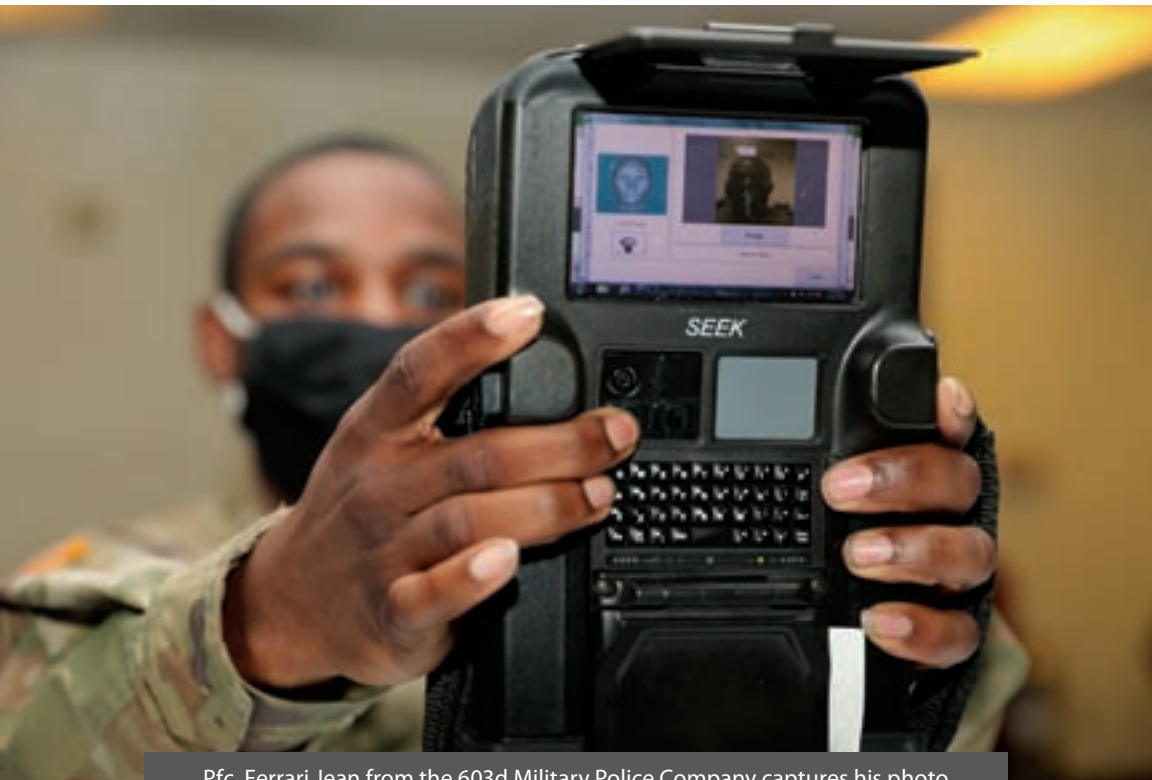


During the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, the U.S.-led coalition experimented with a variety of technologies to counteract IEDs, such as new tracking and surveillance systems. The coalition's primary mode of transport, the Humvee, was particularly vulnerable to these weapons. They were armored lightly and had a flat bottom, which meant that an IED blast could rip apart the vehicle and its crew. The Army and Marine Corps eventually looked to an older solution—a South African system from the

The first shipment of MRAP vehicles arrive at Camp Liberty in western Baghdad, 6 November 2007 (*U.S. Army*)



1970s known as the mine-resistant, ambush-protected vehicle, or **MRAP**. Sitting high above the ground, the MRAP had a V-shaped bottom that redirected the energy of an IED blast out and away from the vehicle and its occupants. By 2007, both the Army and Marine Corps began deploying MRAPs in Iraq and Afghanistan. Soldiers who would have died when a Humvee struck an IED now walked away battered, but alive.



Pfc. Ferrari Jean from the 603d Military Police Company captures his photo for a facial recognition scan on a BAT Army Kit during Operation READY WARRIOR at Fort Hunter Liggett, California, 15 September 2020.
(U.S. Army)

During the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, soldiers regularly employed a sophisticated system known as the **Biometrics Automated Toolset (BAT)** to collect and organize information about local populations. By assembling fingerprints, iris images, facial photographs, and other basic data, the handheld BAT devices—a digital camera, fingerprint reader, iris scanner, and reinforced laptop computer—allowed soldiers to know who lived in a particular town or village and who was an outsider. More often than not, outsiders were likely insurgents attempting to hide in plain sight. In an insurgency, the population is the center of gravity and the BAT allowed soldiers to better understand and protect that population.



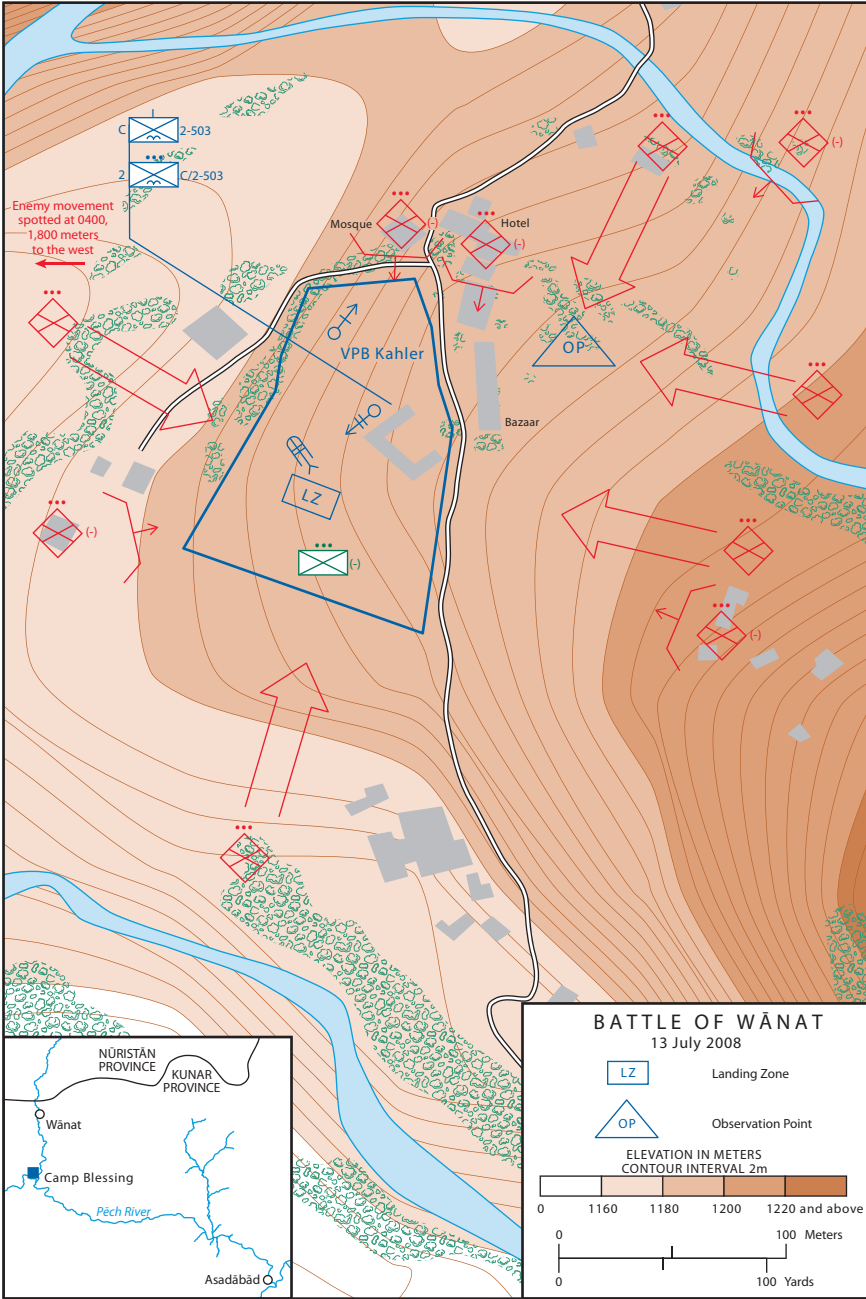
(Left to right) Spc. Logan Houser, Spc. Phillip Villegas, and Pfc. Ryan Longnecker mount a RQ-7B Shadow tactical unmanned aircraft system onto a hydraulic launcher at Balli UAS Airfield, Vilseck, Germany, 26 July 2019. (U.S. Army)

During the past two decades, unmanned aerial vehicles, also known as drones, have become a common feature on the modern battlefield. In 2002, the Army began deploying the **RQ-7 Shadow**, which measures just 11 feet long with a wingspan of 14 feet. Its launch platform is a trailer-mounted catapult. The Shadow's infrared camera relays real-time video feeds to soldiers on the ground, providing them with immediate information about conditions on the battlefield. Able to loiter up to 9 hours in the air, the Shadow's real-time observation capabilities proved critical to locating insurgents, neutralizing IEDs, and disrupting enemy networks in both Iraq and Afghanistan.

An army that does not eat cannot fight. The **Meals, Ready to Eat (MRE)**, recognizable in their brown pouches, is the most recent of a long line of standard rations issued to American soldiers. Throughout the Army's history, these have ranged from standard portions of beef and rice (during the Revolutionary War), canned meat, bread, and coffee (the Civil War), and C rations (World War II, Korea, and Vietnam). During the 1960s, the Army began to develop a new type of ration that would be more portable and cater to a greater variety of tastes. Introduced during the 1970s, the MRE was the standard ration for soldiers deployed in the field during the Global War on Terrorism. Each MRE provides 1,200 calories and has a shelf life of three years. There are more than twenty different menus, ranging from Mexican to Italian to vegetarian meals. However, although food technologists strived to make the MREs as appetizing as possible, soldiers have nicknamed the ration "Meals Rejected by Everyone."



The beef goulash MRE, introduced in 2019
(Natick Soldier Research, Development and Engineering Center)



Map 4



Paratroopers with 2d Platoon, Company C, unpack gear and begin digging in after arriving at Wanat, Afghanistan, July 2008. (U.S. Army)

On 13 July 2008, the **Battle of Wanat** began when insurgent fighters commenced a large-scale attack on a U.S. patrol base, established just a few days earlier, in the remote Afghan village. The 2d Platoon, Company C, 2d Battalion, 503d Infantry Regiment, held the position, which was typical of the difficult terrain and conditions regularly faced by soldiers operating in Afghanistan. With the bulk of U.S. combat forces engaged in the surge campaign in Iraq, U.S. commanders in Afghanistan carried out an economy-of-force campaign. For months, the soldiers of the 2d Battalion had operated in the country's austere, mountainous eastern region. Carrying out patrols from isolated firebases and observation posts, the Americans frequently encountered a populace often hostile to the presence of foreign troops. Meanwhile, enemy forces could retreat across the border into safe havens located in Pakistan's Federally Administered Tribal Areas.

The enemy attacking Wanat were well-equipped and familiar with coalition tactics, and they understood the terrain. They took advantage of the high ground surrounding the base. Their opening salvo of rocket-propelled grenades successfully destroyed the 2d Platoon's heaviest weapons—its TOW missile launcher and a 120-mm. mortar. The engagement then became a grim contest in which each side sought to maintain fire superiority. The insurgent forces were able to advance close

enough to lob hand grenades at the American defenders and even briefly breached the U.S. perimeter. After several hours of fighting, AH-64 Apache helicopters and other U.S. close air support assets were able to drive off the enemy assault. Nine American soldiers, including the 2d Platoon leader, died in the fighting. A further twenty-seven U.S. soldiers and four partnered Afghan troops were wounded.

It later emerged that local officials in Wanat had assisted the enemy in the fight. Concluding that the risks of placing isolated units in these vulnerable positions were too high to justify their continued use, the Americans began withdrawing from remote bases. The battle drew renewed attention to the war in Afghanistan and led the United States to commit more forces to the conflict.



Col. Scott A. Jackson, the commander of the 1st SFAB, observes as the unit unveils its colors for the first time in history during an activation ceremony at the National Infantry Museum at Fort Benning, Georgia, 8 February 2016.
(U.S. Army)

Throughout the Army's history, soldiers have carried out missions across the spectrum of conflict, beyond combat operations against peer and near-peer opponents. Security assistance has been a regular mission, with soldiers training foreign armies such as those in the Philippines during the early twentieth century, South Vietnam during the 1960s and 1970s, and Iraqi and Afghan security forces during the first two decades of the twenty-first century. In 2017, the Army stood up the first unit dedicated to this unique and challenging mission, the **Security Force Assistance Brigade (SFAB)**. The Army created six SFABs, with one attached to each of the five major combatant commands and a sixth serving as a reserve. Soldiers serving in SFABs underwent training at the Military Advisor Training Academy at Fort Benning, Georgia, where they learned the skills necessary to support host nations, use interpreters, conduct mission analysis, and advise foreign counterparts from many different countries, each with their own unique politics and professional military cultures. The Army created these units to ensure that it would have both the capacity to train allied armies and to allow brigade combat teams to focus on their combat mission.



CONCLUSION

When General William W. Hartzog, the ninth commanding general of the U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command, authored the first edition of *American Military Heritage* in 1998, his vision was to create a concise introductory guide to the history of the United States Army. He wanted junior officers and noncommissioned officers to use it both as a tool for personal professional development and for the education and inspiration of the soldiers they led. The seventeenth commander, General Paul E. Funk II, believes just as passionately in the long heritage of the American profession of arms. He saw great value in revising this book to bring it up to date with the Army's history since the late 1990s, and he turned to the Army's Center of Military History (CMH), which has been a part of Training and Doctrine Command since 2019. The result of that collaborative process is in your hands now as *Army History and Heritage*.

The chapter organization of *Army History and Heritage* reflects the gallery structure of the National Museum of the United States Army, which surveys the history of the Army from the colonial era to the present. The book's structure is intentional: to foster learning and retention in a way that will reinforce individual soldier and unit resiliency and esprit de corps. Each chapter has the same format, with a short overview of the Army during the period in question, a timeline of key events, biographies of key figures, images, insignia, and weapons. It is less as a book to read from cover to cover and more a tool for creating training and professional development events and supporting unit historical and heritage events. It is also a useful resource for drill sergeants and other Army school cadre. Each printed copy of the book will contain a page behind the front cover that will allow soldiers to record key dates and achievements in their Army careers, in effect making their own Army history.

In an age where the information environment and social media can work against historical knowledge and an understanding of context and change over time, Army history still matters to those who serve—both

soldiers and civilians. The Army's history is all around us, all the time. It inhabits our physical spaces in names that commemorate individuals, units, and events. Soldiers wear the Army's history on their uniforms, in heraldry, insignia, unit awards, and decorations. The assignment of unit names and types is a deeply historical process, one that draws on an "inventory" of lineages that in many cases go back to the colonial era, before the establishment of the United States. The tools of the profession of arms have a material culture all their own, and their development has a history that can be a useful venue for study and reflection. The authors of *Army History and Heritage* approached the work of writing and assembling this volume in the spirit of stewardship of these threads of continuity.

In the coming years, CMH will treat the chapters of *Army History and Heritage* as a physical gateway to a much larger body of knowledge than could possibly be contained in these pages. The chapters are also available individually on our website, <https://history.army.mil>, in digital formats that will make them useful for training and professional development. We will continue to use our digital and multimedia tools and expertise to expand the publication and increase its relevance to multiple Army audiences and will provide you the opportunity to send us feedback on the information and resources that would be most useful to you. Each soldier and civilian has a role in preserving the Army's history, warts and all, for the future, and this slim volume serves as a roadmap for doing just that. I hope you enjoy reading it, learning from it, and using it in performance of your daily duties.

Victory Starts Here!

Charles R. Bowery, Jr., SES
Chief of Military History



AUTHORS

Gen. Paul E. Funk II assumed duties as the 17th Commanding General, United States Army Training and Doctrine Command, on 21 June 2019. As TRADOC commander, Funk is responsible for 32 Army schools organized under 8 Centers of Excellence that recruit, train, and educate more than 500,000 soldiers and service members annually. Funk holds a bachelor's degree in speech communications, from Montana State University, and a master's degree in administration, from Central Michigan University. He is a graduate of the Armor Basic Officer Leaders and Advanced Courses, the Command and General Staff College, and completed his Senior Service College as a fellow at the Institute of Advanced Technology, University of Texas at Austin.

Mark L. Bradley is a recently retired historian at the U.S. Army Center of Military History (CMH) in Washington, D.C. He received his bachelor's degree in history from North Carolina State University, and his master's and Ph.D. degrees in history from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. His publications include *Last Stand in the Carolinas: The Battle of Bentonville* (Savas, 1996), *This Astounding Close: The Road to Bennett Place* (University of North Carolina Press, 2000), and *Bluecoats and Tar Heels: Soldiers and Civilians in Reconstruction North Carolina* (University Press of Kentucky, 2009).

David W. Hogan Jr. received his bachelor's degree from Dartmouth College in 1980 and his PhD from Duke University in 1986. After teaching at Elon College, he joined CMH in 1987. From 2017 to 2022, he was director of CMH's Histories Directorate, which writes the Army's official histories. He is the author of *Raiders or Elite Infantry?: The Changing Role of the U.S. Army's Rangers from Dieppe to Grenada* (Greenwood, 1992); *U.S. Army Special Operations in World War II* (CMH, 1992); *A Command Post at War: First Army Headquarters in Europe, 1943–1945* (CMH, 2000); and *Centuries of Service: The U.S. Army, 1775–2005* (CMH, 2005). During the summers of 1984–1986, he was a seasonal historian at Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park.

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MY U.S. ARMY CAREER

Initial Training Graduation Date: _____

Advanced Individual Training Graduation Date: _____

Duty Assignments and Dates: _____

Promotions and Dates: _____



Awards: _____

Influential Leaders: _____

End of Service Date: _____



PIN : 078416-000