

THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF
SKILL AND KNOWLEDGE



A BRIEF HISTORY OF
U.S. ARMY CIVILIANS
1775—2015

Cover: A 1998 class of the Army Management Staff College at Fort Belvoir, Virginia, captures the diversity of Army civilians at the end of the twentieth century.
(U.S. Army)

THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF
SKILL AND KNOWLEDGE

A BRIEF HISTORY OF
U.S. ARMY CIVILIANS
1775-2015

Stephen J. Lofgren
General Editor

Center of Military History
United States Army
Washington, D.C., 2016

CMH Pub 70-124

FOREWORD

From the earliest days of the republic to the present, Army civilians have been critical to the success of the total force, delivering “beans and bullets”; treating the sick and wounded; procuring and maintaining equipment and supplies; operating state-of-the-art technologies; managing posts, camps, and stations; and caring for families. Too often overlooked, these quiet professionals have always been a vital part of the Army profession.

This short history is intended as a general overview of their important story. The careful reader will find two themes. One is the broad range of ways in which Army civilians have supported the service and the nation in war and peace. The other is the growth and maturation—the continued increase in professionalism—of civilian employees that began to spread across the federal government in the early twentieth century and continues to this day.

Today the Army possesses one of the most skilled, best-trained, and highly motivated groups of professionals in existence. In the words of the Army Civilian Corps Creed, the corps’ role is to provide “stability and continuity” to the U.S. Army. This narrative was prepared by the Historical Support Branch, Histories Division, U.S. Army Center of Military History, so that Army civilians could better appreciate their place in the history of the service.

James C. McNaughton
Director, Histories Division



THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF SKILL
AND KNOWLEDGE

A BRIEF HISTORY OF U.S. ARMY
CIVILIANS, 1775–2015

A real strength of our civilians is that they are stable, remaining in their jobs for much longer periods of time than the military. They thus learn their jobs and are able to hone the skills necessary to be at the highest level of skill and knowledge in their fields.

—Brig. Gen. (later Lt. Gen.) James H. Pillsbury (2003)

Since the Continental Congress first created an American army on 14 June 1775 at the outbreak of the American War of Independence (1775–1783), U.S. Army civilians have been central to the success of the service in peace and war. From those early days in the nation’s history until the present, the Army has relied on its civilian employees to meet many critical needs. From clerks and wagon drivers to scientists and engineers, civilians have served the Army in a wide array of functions and jobs—some of which, particularly in the twenty-first century, are specialized and require as much training and education as any profession in the world.

Members of the Continental Congress, delegates from the thirteen colonies who became the governing body of the American opposition to the British during the American Revolution, understood from the beginning that the Army would need more than soldiers to succeed. In 1776, Congress established the Board of War and Ordnance to keep records on troops and equipment and maintain personnel and financial records. The new members of Congress who sat on the board appointed Richard Peters, a Philadelphia lawyer, as the board’s permanent secretary (later, commissioner). In 1782, Secretary at War Benjamin Lincoln oversaw an assistant, a secretary, and two clerks in the department. During this same time, General George Washington’s Continental Army hired other civilians to work as storekeepers and custodians of military supplies as well as wagon drivers and other laborers. These men proved their value throughout the Revolutionary War. From this beginning, small in number but substantial in influence, would grow the large professional force of civilians who serve today throughout the Army and the world.

The Early Years

The Treaty of Paris in 1783 marked the successful conclusion of the American Revolution and the independence of the United States from Great Britain. The thirteen states soon crafted a new form of national government in 1789 with the ratification of the United States Constitution, which guaranteed a central role for civilians within the Army. Congress, acting within the political philosophy that standing armies were an inherent threat to the liberty of the people, placed the nation's military forces under civilian control within the executive branch. In August 1789, Congress created the Department of War. Its mission was to oversee the administration of America's military forces. In that same month, President George Washington selected former Continental Army Maj. Gen. Henry Knox to become the first secretary of war. In addition to military matters, the secretary of war also assumed responsibility for supervising federal Indian affairs.

Secretary Knox managed the new department in New York City, initially with one clerk and then with only a handful of clerks and one messenger, to assist with his routine duties. Their job was to keep Army papers in order and to expedite departmental business. The administration of the Army also included a civilian-controlled military supply system under the secretary of war, responsible for keeping and distributing supplies. Knox's staff continued to grow with the addition of another clerk in 1790 to handle land claims for Army veterans. In 1792, two years after the department moved with the rest of the national government to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, a civilian bureau named the Office of the Quartermaster General became part of Knox's department to transport supplies to frontier Army posts for campaigns against Indians in the

The War Department had several homes in the early years of the republic. *Top*: Fraunces Tavern, the location that the War Office shared with the Foreign Office in the mid-1780s in New York City; *middle*: Norris Row, Philadelphia, in the mid-1790s; *bottom*: Old War Office, Washington, D.C., 1800–1820.

(Lithography by G. Hayward, published in 1834, Library of Congress; Independence National Historical Park Collection; drawn by C. Burton, published in 1831, Library of Congress)



Ohio River Valley. By the end of 1792, there were ten civilian clerks at the War Department with an average annual salary of \$60, including a chief clerk, John Stagg Jr. Due to the small number of U.S. Army forces in the 1790s and early 1800s, the department's workforce remained correspondingly limited.

The staff of the war office soon included seven civilians: chief clerk Stagg; R. J. Vandebroek, second clerk; Philip Audebert, assistant clerk; Constant Freeman; Benjamin Bankson; and Frederick King, messenger. Additionally, Caleb Swan worked for the department as the United States ambassador to the Creek Indians in what is now Alabama. Shortly thereafter, the secretary's office had seven clerks and seven more in the department's pay office, in addition to five others in the bureau for settling military accounts with the states. In 1794, Congress created the civilian position of superintendent of military stores in the War Department responsible for inspecting and reporting on the condition of supply houses, armories, and arsenals, as well as overseeing proper departmental record keeping and cooperating with the Treasury Department regarding purchasing and accounts. Assisted by civilian storekeepers and clerks, the superintendent also maintained accounts and returns with each Army regiment, garrison, and detachment and received and stored all ordnance materials and artillery for the commander in chief.

In short, from the 1790s and through the War of 1812, the War Department was chiefly an administrative and record-keeping bureau that served as a conduit for the military's large volume of correspondence and reports. The primary operational function of the department in this quarter-century was the procurement, storage, and issue of military supplies. Still, some civilians ventured afield. During the military campaigns against the Indians in the Ohio country in the 1790s, quartermasters general in the field with the armies were civilians and were allowed the pay, rations, and forage of a lieutenant colonel (without the rank). They handled transportation of troops and all supplies. Thus, for Maj. Gen. Arthur St. Clair's 1791 campaign against Indian forces in northern Ohio, Samuel Hodgdon was appointed quartermaster and was responsible for ordnance and quartermaster duties. Hodgdon had no staff officers to see to the execution of his orders, only three civilian assistants, and due to his lack of military rank, he had no authority over St. Clair's officers.

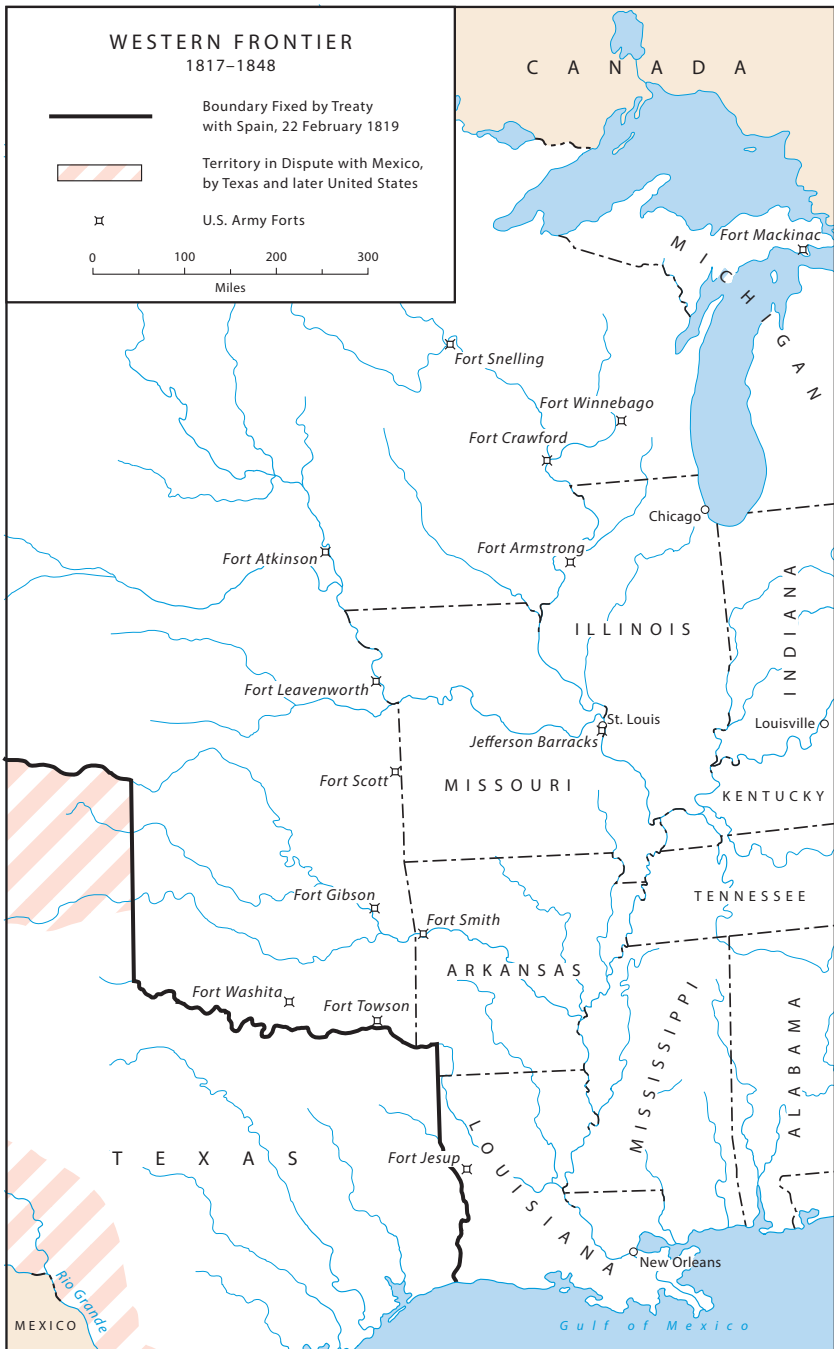
In 1794, Maj. Gen. Anthony Wayne led American troops in a victorious expedition against several Indian tribes along the Maumee River and its tributaries in what is now Ohio. Supporting Wayne's frontier operations was businessman James O'Hara, since 1792 the quartermaster general of the Army, a civilian position with no military rank. O'Hara



During the early national period, Army civilians provided supplies and services for soldiers at remote posts like Fort Washington in the Ohio country.
(Library of Congress)

hired numerous civilian workers, including deputy quartermasters, artificers (skilled craftsmen or mechanics), storekeepers, blacksmiths, wheelwrights, tinsmiths, rope makers, coppersmiths, armorers, boatmen, and coopers (barrel makers) to support his logistical requirements. Prior to the campaign, he appointed a commissary general of forage for the expedition and later a wagon master to handle transportation needs. O'Hara also hired a conductor of military stores to "receive, keep, and deliver all supplies" ordered by the commander and the chief of artillery.

After O'Hara resigned his position in 1796, John Wilkins Jr. was appointed quartermaster general of the Army, which was still a civilian post. With the increase in the number of frontier posts after General Wayne's victory at the Battle of Fallen Timbers (near today's Toledo, Ohio) on 20 August 1794, additional assistant quartermasters were appointed, although some were merely called "agents" in the field (*Map 1*). As the frontier Indian conflicts subsided, however, the War Department needed fewer clerks in Washington. A visitor to the War Department in 1796 wrote that he found "two clerks each sitting at his own table engaged in writing," who were sufficient to transact "all the business of the War Office."



Map 1

When Thomas Jefferson became president in 1801, he brought with him a parsimonious approach to government spending and a long-standing wariness of standing armies. Congress further reduced the strength of the U.S. Army in accordance with Jefferson's desire to lower government expenses and his mistrust of a large army. Congress also abolished the office of the quartermaster general in favor of using a contract system to supply the military's needs. The country was accordingly divided into three regional military departments, each with a civilian agent and assistants, responsible for the movement of supplies and troops within the departments. A civilian paymaster general remained within the department, which was now located in Washington, D.C., with the rest of the federal government. Jefferson's new secretary of war, Henry Dearborn, also favored the president's military economizing.

Between 1798 and 1812, the civilians in the War Department controlled all supply functions for the Army through the quartermaster general, commissary general, master of ordnance, Indian commissioner, commissioner of pensions, and commissioner of public lands. All uniforms, ordnance, medical supplies, food, and equipment were obtained and managed by these civilian bureaus. Civilians were also responsible for maintenance of military depots and arsenals and for ordnance matters. Additionally, there was a civilian auditor within the department before the War of 1812, a post eventually transferred to the Treasury Department shortly after the conflict ended. To manage Indian affairs, the War Department included an office of superintendent of Indian trade between 1806 and 1822, led by a civilian. Another section of the department, the Bureau of Indian Affairs, conducted all other business with the Indians through a civilian field service. In general, as one contemporary observer wrote in the early nineteenth century, the War Department was "a mere counting house establishment."

When hostilities again threatened to break out in 1812 between the United States and Great Britain, the War Department was considered too small to effectively prepare for and conduct war. Secretary of War William Eustis had a staff of twelve civilian clerks and bookkeepers working for him. Congress prudently reorganized and enlarged the War Department in the spring of 1812. The position of quartermaster general was reestablished to include a staff composed of masons, carpenters, blacksmiths, boat builders, harness makers, and other laborers, along with a civilian corps of artificers. The next year, Congress created the office of superintendent general of military supplies, to which a civilian was appointed to keep accounts of supplies purchased by the department. Secretary Eustis also added civilians with specialized knowledge to the departmental staff: a physician, surgeon general, and an apothecary general.

Despite these changes, the War of 1812 against Great Britain was marked by unsuccessful campaigns and severe logistical and administrative difficulties. When John C. Calhoun became the secretary of war in 1817, he instituted much-needed reforms and professionalism in the department. He introduced the Army's bureau system in his administration, which by 1821 included twenty civilian clerks in Washington engaged in correspondence, accounting, and record keeping. Most had specific assignments in subject areas and became specialists. All were overseen by a chief clerk. The Army's civilian staff remained small during the Mexican War (1846–1848), while some civilians served in the Army's Corps of Topographical Engineers due to lack of trained soldiers. In 1849 in Washington, D.C., the quartermaster general had only one assistant, a chief clerk, five clerks, and one messenger. Later Congress authorized several temporary clerks, and, after Quartermaster General Thomas Jesup requested more help, the department was allowed eleven permanent clerks.

As the American frontier moved west during the mid-nineteenth century, the War Department employed civilians in several roles, including teamsters, scouts, and skilled laborers at forts and outposts (*Map 2*). Others served as Indian agents, perhaps the most famous of which was Christopher H. "Kit" Carson.





Map 2



Army civilians traveled wherever Army units did in the American West before the Civil War.

(Library of Congress)

Long-standing sectional hostilities, the election of President Abraham Lincoln, and the start of the American Civil War (1861–1865) created unprecedented issues for the War Department, its soldiers, and civilian employees. When the Civil War began in 1861 and the Army grew dramatically to meet the challenge of preserving the Union, Congress recognized the need for more civilians to administer the War Department. Initially, Congress authorized Secretary of War Edwin M. Stanton to add assistant secretaries to assist the three he already had, but this small staff was inadequate for the responsibilities of waging war across half a continent. In early 1862, consequently, Congress authorized Stanton to appoint fifty-two new clerks and messengers to serve under Chief Clerk Albert E. H. Johnson. In fact, the War Department needed so many staffers that for the first time in history the quartermaster general's office hired women as copyists; they carried out the important task of duplicating documents by hand-copying them. By 1864, the staff in the War Department had grown to 213. Many of the clerks, wrote poet Walt Whitman, were “earnest, mainly honest, anxious to do the right thing—very hard working, very attentive.” In one



Army clerks at Brandy Station, Virginia,
Headquarters, Army of the Potomac, winter 1863–1864
(Library of Congress)

notable incident—a Confederate attack on the defenses of Washington in July 1864—Army commanders sent clerks and other War Department employees to man the fortifications of the city.

Throughout the conflict, the War Department also employed civilians for highly technical work. For example, the War Department established the U.S. Military Telegraph Corps in 1861. These civilian telegraph operators had the critical responsibility of maintaining communications between the War Department and the Union armies in the field. This corps also maintained telegraph operations in the field, where it sustained a 10 percent casualty rate during the war. In order to better work with military quartermasters, some telegraph supervisors were later given military commissions, though most of the men employed remained civilians. Other civilian War Department positions included the Army's numerous teamsters, mechanics, and laborers.

One of the most important contributions civilians made to the Union cause was in the field of military transportation. They handled the



War Department clerks and soldiers in front of the War Department, Washington, D.C., 1865
(Library of Congress)

movement of troops by ships at sea and coordinated the transportation of men, munitions, and supplies on land by railroad. Herman Haupt, a railroad construction engineer, was the most prominent and successful of transportation officials in the War Department during the conflict, beginning in Virginia in 1862. As chief of U.S. Military Railroad Construction Corps in Virginia, he was a commissioned officer for much of the war, but Haupt formed a civilian corps of well-equipped artificers for railroad building and repairs, including bridge work. By the end of the war, the corps consisted of 10,000 civilians, who helped put railroads on a well-organized and efficient operating schedule in Virginia and seven other states.

The large scope of the war drew two new classes of civilian workers into the effort—women and African Americans. As war



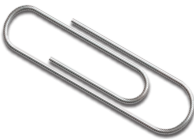
Army clerks of the commissary depot at Aquia Creek Landing, Virginia, 1863
(Library of Congress)

progressed, the Army hired many African Americans who were former slaves—some only recently escaped and known as contrabands—to be laborers, wagoners, and drivers. They soon formed the largest part of the military’s labor detachments. Performing unsung but vital work, they built entrenchments, herded droves of cattle and horses, and unloaded ships. Women joined the War Department’s civilian rolls primarily as nurses during the war, although this role remained a male-dominated field. The most prominent Civil War nurse was Dorothea L. Dix, who was made superintendent of Army female nurses in June 1861. Dix served during the entire war without pay: “I give cheerfully my whole time, mind, strength and income, to the service of my country,” she wrote, and would not “receive any remuneration for what I cheerfully render as a loyal woman.” Dix recruited



The blacksmith's shop, Quartermaster Department,
Washington, D.C., April 1865
(Library of Congress)

matronly women over the age of thirty, who were required to adopt a simple dress code. In 1863, Congress authorized the employment of women nurses by the Surgeon General's Office for duty at Army hospitals, to be paid \$12 per month. Most of their duties were related to housekeeping and distribution of medical supplies, and most of the women received no medical training. About 3,000 women served under Dix during the conflict. The U.S. Army hired many laundresses and cooks for service in its general hospitals as well.



Dorothea L. Dix was born in 1802 in Hampden, Maine. She became a noted social reformer who worked to improve the treatment of mentally ill patients and prisoners. After she volunteered her services to the Union in April 1861, she was appointed superintendent of female Army nurses and placed in charge of nurses working in U.S. Army hospitals. She had to convince skeptical military officials that women could perform nursing, and then she had to recruit the women. Dix only accepted plain-looking women older than thirty and implemented a modest dress code and forbade jewelry. Throughout the war, she took care of the more than 3,000 women who served as Union Army nurses. Army nursing care was markedly improved under her leadership. At the war's conclusion, Dix returned to her work on behalf of the mentally ill. She died in 1887.



Dorothea Dix
(National Portrait
Gallery, Smithsonian
Institution)

Mary Walker was born in Oswego, New York, on 26 November 1832. She earned a medical degree in 1855 from Syracuse Medical College. At the outbreak of the Civil War, she volunteered to help the Union effort and worked as a nurse. In 1862, she went to Virginia to provide medical care to the wounded, and in 1863 she was briefly appointed surgeon in an Ohio regiment. In the summer of 1864, she was a prisoner of war and later exchanged for a Confederate soldier. In September 1864, she was contracted to be acting assistant surgeon with the 52d Ohio Volunteer Infantry. In 1865, she was awarded a disability pension for partial muscular atrophy resulting from her wartime imprisonment. She was awarded the Medal of Honor for performing nursing duty following numerous battles and enduring hardships while a prisoner of war. After the war, she became a writer and lecturer, supporting such issues as health care, temperance, and women's rights. She died in 1919.



Dr. Mary Walker
(National Archives)

An Era of Expansion and Progress 1865–1939

The War Department rapidly decreased in size after the Civil War. When sectional hostilities ceased in 1865, the War Department was vast—more than 1 million soldiers supported by 50,000 civilians. Within one year, demobilization had cut the Army to 54,000 soldiers, and a slow decline would continue until 1874 when only 25,000 enlisted men and 2,161 officers were on the Army rolls. The number and roles of Army civilians shrunk along with the military; the War Department employed fewer than 5,000 civilians by 1874 as well. Most of these civilians worked in traditional jobs such as clerks, mechanics, and technicians. For the next seventy-five years, the civilian workforce of the War Department would be concentrated in Washington, D.C., and the Army arsenal system. The period was also characterized by significant progress in instituting needed improvements to civil service policies and regulations. Political progressives, forward-thinking secretaries of war, and others promoted changes that began the process of transforming the civilians as a group into a structured, highly qualified workforce of professionals. In addition, a small number of Army civilians, however, would find that the end of the Civil War began a period of opportunity for challenging and varied roles from working in the American West to helping former slaves in the American South.

One of these new roles for Army civilians was in the Freedmen's Bureau. The bureau was established within the War Department in 1865 to assist freed slaves, particularly those in the former Confederacy. Union Army Maj. Gen. Oliver O. Howard initially led the new agency. Several hundred Army civilians helped former slaves find employment and locate family members dislocated during the chaos of the war. Other bureau employees established schools to instruct reading and writing and acted as legal advocates for freed slaves in court cases and litigation. The Freedmen's Bureau, however, met significant opposition in the South. When it was closed in 1872, many of the civilian employees transferred to the new Army school system where they replaced the soldiers or chaplains who had formerly taught the children of soldiers at installations around the country. The influx of these educators boosted the effectiveness and appeal of Army schools. The civilian-run schools proved so popular with local communities in many cases that citizens sent their children to the local Army school.

Other new and specialized roles for civilian employees developed in this time. One was the maintenance of military cemeteries. In 1867, Congress passed the National Cemeteries Act, which appointed the U.S. Army to oversee and care for all Civil War burial sites and remains. Subsequent amendments expanded the mandate of Army cemeteries to



Army carpenter school for freedmen, Beaufort, South Carolina
(National Archives)

allow for the burials of sailors and marines in these plots and to expand the system as needed to preserve and protect the remains of soldiers killed in future conflicts. On many Army posts, civilian employees were laid to rest in military cemeteries next to soldiers.

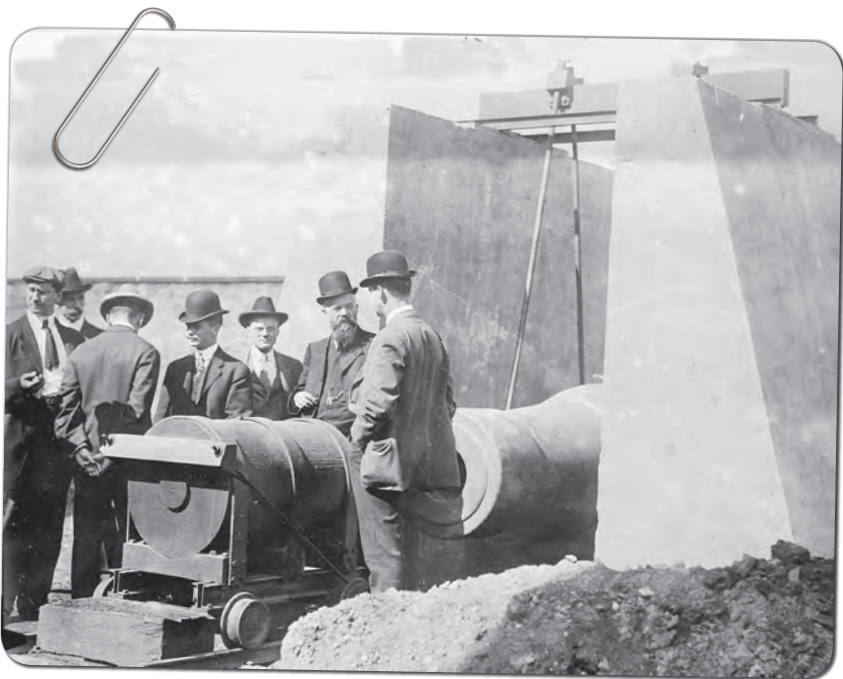
Another role for Army civilians after the Civil War was as scouts for U.S. Army forces that operated in the vast spaces of the American West. In these territories, Army units required the specialized tracking, hunting, and reconnaissance skills that experienced scouts could provide. U.S. Army scouts often operated far in advance of military formations, supplying units with food by hunting, translating local languages, meeting with local inhabitants, and, when necessary, fighting alongside Army forces. The scouts included several of the most famous adventurers and explorers of the era, such as future showman William Fredrick “Buffalo Bill” Cody, and these civilians were praised in numerous citations for their steadfast dedication, courage, and military expertise. Four Army civilian scouts, Amos Chapman, “Buffalo Bill” Cody, James Doshier, and Billy Dixon, were awarded the Medal of Honor for their gallantry under fire.



Cinching and loading a pack mule with flour during the starvation march of Bvt. Maj. Gen. George Crook's expedition into the Black Hills, 1876
(National Archives)

In the West, Army civilians also provided the specialized construction expertise to transform temporary encampments into permanent military posts. Each Army regiment operating west of the Mississippi was authorized between five and fifteen civilian carpenters, stone masons, and wagon masters to support it. These civilians were supervised by the Quartermaster Department, and they worked alongside soldiers in the dangerous frontier environment. Many of the buildings constructed by Army civilians during this period are now preserved by the National Park Service for their historic importance.

In Washington, D.C., Army civilians ran the important Records and Pensions Division of the Office of the Adjutant General. Before the establishment of a separate department of veterans affairs, the adjutant general's office employed hundreds of clerks who maintained military service records and processed benefits claims. Many of these civilians



Explosive experts at the testing ground, Pittsburg Arsenal, Pennsylvania, 1908
(Library of Congress)

relied on new technology to do their jobs in the postwar years, particularly the typewriter, recently developed in the 1860s. These clerks and typists responded to inquiries from Civil War veterans and members of Congress and transmitted the documentation that allowed tens of thousands of veterans to claim their benefits.

East of the Mississippi River, though, most Army civilians worked in the extensive Army arsenal and depot system, furnishing the technical experience and knowledge needed to support national defense. The arsenals produced a wide range of specialized equipment, such as large cannons, and tested a variety of weapons and equipment developed by contractors. The largest installation was the Frankford Arsenal in Philadelphia, where during the Civil War more than 1,000 workers had labored to make artillery, rifles, and gunpowder. The arsenal remained the U.S. Army's primary source of munitions after the war, while its experts continued to evaluate new weapons designed by private citizens. Other significant installations of this type included the Rock Island Arsenal

in Illinois, which became a leading manufacturer of carriages and gun mountings and then a center for vehicle development, as well as the Springfield Armory and Watertown Arsenal in Massachusetts and the Watervliet Arsenal in upstate New York. The Watertown Arsenal was notable for producing the massive coastal artillery guns that protected American ports and harbors.

The postwar period was also a time of change in the nature of federal employment. War Department civilians would be in the forefront of the professionalization of the civil service in the United States at a time when nepotism, cronyism, and corruption were common in state and municipal governments. Abuses of the political patronage system, whereby elected politicians installed supporters in government positions, generated a movement to create a more meritocratic and transparent government hiring process. In 1883, the Pendleton Civil Service Reform Act provided the first coherent legal structure for federal government employment practices. Over time, Congress expanded the scope of the Pendleton Act to include mandatory examinations for managerial and skilled positions. The first exam for Army clerks was held in 1887—almost 95 percent of the test takers passed. By the end of the 1890s, the majority of Army employees were required to pass examinations before being hired or promoted.

In addition to the problem of employment practices, Army civilians during the 1870s and 1880s found they often lacked coherent oversight or clear guidelines for evaluating their work. Civil service reformers urged Congress and the secretary of war to clarify civilian employees' roles and responsibilities, which had been decided on an ad hoc basis by the secretary of war. The matter of civil service duties became an especially prominent issue in 1889. Secretary of War William C. Endicott departed for a summer vacation, leaving the chief clerk in charge of the War Department, and returned to find that an assistant secretary of war position had been created in his absence.

The reforms of the 1880s, in any case, did not guarantee wartime competence. The challenges of mobilizing, supplying, and deploying the Army in the Spanish-American War of 1898 led to well-publicized problems and service failures that evoked widespread criticism of the War Department. The supply bureaus, which were primarily staffed by civilians, were particularly castigated for inefficiency and their failure to adapt peacetime regulations and bureaucratic rules for wartime. Accounts of ineptitude, red-tape, and callousness toward soldiers built support for systemic reforms. President William McKinley Jr. appointed a special commission, headed by former Civil War Maj. Gen. Grenville M. Dodge, to investigate the charges. Testimony before the commission generally reinforced the complaints, sometimes spectacularly, such as when one



Preparing cartridges for coastal artillery, Benicia Arsenal, California, 1900
(Library of Congress)

general famously coined the term, “embalmed beef,” when trying to describe the often-rancid and chemically adulterated meat that soldiers had received for rations. The Dodge Commission ultimately presented a scathing indictment of the War Department organization and bureaucracy, and President McKinley soon decided that he needed a new secretary of war.

Secretary of War Elihu Root moved quickly after he took office on 1 August 1899 to address these institutional shortcomings and strove to improve the efficiency of the department. He pushed, for example, to centralize the system of production and procurement into five main arsenals and to reform the contracting methods to use outside manufacturers for much basic equipment. Root also sought to incorporate successful business models and practices into the Army and hired more civilian managers at the main arsenals and transportation centers for this initiative. Root’s efforts enhanced executive control within the department and promoted the professionalism of the Army civilian workforce. Root’s strong encouragement of progressive reforms of the War Department helped change the “old Army” of frontier forts and coastal batteries into a modern organization.



John Tweedale (left)
(Library of Congress)

John Tweedale was born in 1841 in Frankford, Pennsylvania. He served as a private in the 15th Cavalry, Pennsylvania Volunteers, and received the Medal of Honor for gallantry in action at the Battle of Stones River, Tennessee. After the war, he received a law degree from Columbian University (now George Washington University) in Washington, D.C. He was appointed chief clerk of the War Department in 1882 and served until 1899, almost seventeen years under seven secretaries of war. In 1904 and 1905, he served as the Army's assistant adjutant general and retired in 1905. He died in 1920.

The wisdom behind the Root reforms would soon become apparent. In the summer of 1914, a decade after Secretary Root departed office, the nations of Europe went to war against each other with armies of millions in Europe, Africa, and the Middle East. By the spring of 1917, German provocations had inflamed American public opinion and led to a U.S. declaration of war against Germany and the decision to aid France and Great Britain. The Great War (1914–1918), as World War I was first known, severely challenged the capabilities of the War Department. The number of civilian workers more than doubled to approximately 100,000 personnel within a year. Of these, 34,000 men served as engineers in

France in 1917 and 1918. The most dramatic growth of civilian employment was at the Army's arsenals and depots. Rock Island Arsenal, for example, grew dramatically, from some 600 civilians to 13,263 in November 1918. Altogether, the number of civilians in the Army arsenal and depot system expanded tenfold during the war. In a parallel development, clerks in the War Department organized the Federal Employees Union in 1916, which combined with the National Federation of Federal Employees the following year. It was the first union in the United States to represent federal civil service employees.

Nevertheless, the demands of modern industrial warfare meant that private companies produced most American war materiel. The resulting administrative workload for the War Department was staggering. More than 30,000 contracts, worth some \$7.5 billion, were signed for war-related necessities—more than fifty times the entire U.S. Army budget for 1914. Moreover, the department faced the challenge of transporting millions of soldiers and thousands of tons of munitions, vehicles, and supplies to France.

To help coordinate this vast undertaking, Secretary of War Newton D. Baker turned to America's business community. Dozens of executives from major firms accepted civilian positions in the War Department for the nominal salary of \$1 a year for the duration of the war. A good example of this new type of Army civilian executive was Samuel M. Felton, a prominent railway engineer who had risen to be the chief executive officer of Chicago's Great Western Railways. After April 1917, Felton was appointed director general of military railroads. In 1918, he made a trip to inspect railroads behind the battle lines in France and became the first civilian to be awarded the Distinguished Service Medal. Another notable Army civilian was Robert J. Thorne, who had been the chief executive officer of Montgomery Ward. Thorne became the assistant acting quartermaster of the Army and helped establish a regional depot system for the millions of tons of supplies delivered by contractors. Army civilians, from arsenal workers and munitions inspectors to the dollar-a-year men, procured and steered the flow of men and supplies to the battlefields of Europe where they helped defeat Germany by the end of 1918.

As with previous wars, the increase in Army and civilian strength did not last after the fighting had stopped, and the War Department soon returned to its smaller size and limited mission. By 1923, the Army civilian workforce had returned to its prewar size of roughly 45,000, mostly located in the arsenal and depot system. The two decades after the war saw many lasting reforms and innovations that would transform the role of Army civilians even as the increasing complexity of organizing the Army and equipping it with modern technology led to the expansion of



Julia Ward (standing, center)
(National Security Agency)

Julia Ward was born in December 1900. She earned a bachelor's degree from Bryn Mawr College, Pennsylvania, in 1923, and a Ph.D. from Bryn Mawr in 1940. She was employed by Bryn Mawr from 1923 until World War II, when she joined the Signal Security Agency. There she worked as a librarian in the reference section, building a collection of classified and unclassified material for use by analysts. By the end of World War II, she was deputy chief of this organization. In October 1945, she became chief of the reference section. Under her leadership, it was reorganized and, within a few years, she turned it into a highly respected institution to which other federal agencies came for collateral information. As the reference section chief, she monitored agency reporting to ensure that products maintained the highest standards of accuracy. Her vast knowledge of cryptologic targets all over the world allowed her to catch many mistakes that would have otherwise been overlooked. Her pioneering efforts to build a library of classified and unclassified resources to aid analysis greatly advanced the American cryptologic effort. In 1949, with the formation of the Armed Forces Security Agency, Ward was named head of the Collateral Branch and held this position through the earliest days of the National Security Agency (NSA). She died in 1962.

civilian opportunities and roles. At the same time, Army civilians in the department's Bureau of Insular Affairs continued to perform a variety of roles in places such as the Philippines, the Dominican Republic, and Puerto Rico. In these locales, Army civilians carried out a wide range of administrative, public health, and legal reform initiatives. In the Philippines, for example, a staff of about one hundred War Department civilians created a postal system, established a network of banks, and initiated railway development while also supporting the development of American military bases for both the U.S. Army and Navy.

Legal changes also helped to attract a more talented and stable civilian workforce. In 1920, Congress created the Civil Service Retirement System to provide federal employees with disability, health-care, and retirement benefits. Prior to the creation of the retirement system, many Army civilians had remained in their positions into their seventies and eighties. Now, they could retire with a pension (mandatory at age seventy), and younger workers could be hired. In 1920, the National Defense Act also created an assistant secretary of war position for economic mobilization, which allowed for the creation of a small staff of Army civilians focused on war planning and coordination. Under this act, responsibility for procurement of military supplies and the mobilization of material and industrial organizations were explicitly assigned to the civilian assistant secretary of war position, not the military heads of the arsenals.

Another unique and vital role for Army civilians during the interwar period was in the emerging field of cryptography. Continuing the work of signals intelligence and code-breaking operators during the war, the War Department employed several prominent mathematicians to develop codes to protect U.S. communications and read enemy transmissions. The most famous of these cryptologists, William Friedman, served for thirty-four years as a civilian and made contributions to the success of U.S. Army operations in both world wars.

Two decades after the end of the Great War, the Army civilian service reflected the broader changes in American government and military power and had evolved from Civil War-era clerks and bookkeepers into a professional force of engineers, weapons designers, statisticians, and code breakers. Two new laws also brought major changes. Accusations that federal employees had been coerced to donate money to political campaigns in 1938 led to passage in 1939 of "An Act to Prevent Pernicious Political Activities," better known today as the Hatch Act, for sponsor Senator Carl Hatch of New Mexico. The law, among its provisions, prohibited active participation in politics by civil servants and certain other federal employees. The following year, Congress passed "Extending the Classified Civil Service of the United States,"



John Garand (left)
(Library of Congress)

John C. Garand was born in St. Remi, Quebec, in 1888 and moved with his family to the United States at the age of ten. He was the primary designer of the M1 rifle, also known as the Garand. The M1 rifle was a result of Garand's experimentation and innovation for more than a decade as he strove to develop a rifle with the combination of firepower and portability that the world war had shown was needed. He was given a position in 1919 as a consulting engineer at the Springfield Armory, in Springfield, Massachusetts. He became a U.S. citizen and rose to chief civilian engineer. Beginning in 1924, he worked for twelve years to improve the reliability of his experimental semiautomatic rifles, to increase the caliber of bullets they fired, and to ensure their dependability in all weather conditions. When his rifle was adopted by the U.S. Army in 1936, it was the first semiautomatic shoulder-fired rifle to be fielded as the standard infantry weapon by a major world power. It featured a sophisticated gas-recoil design that allowed American soldiers to fire eight .30-caliber rounds before reloading. Garand's remarkable mechanical skill and singular determination also resulted in the design of the numerous tools, jigs, and gauges necessary for the mass production of the Garand rifle. For his work with the Springfield Armory, he was awarded the Meritorious Civilian Service Award in 1941 and the first Medal for Merit by President Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1944. During the 1930s and 1940s, more than 6 million M1 Garand rifles were produced, equipping U.S. and Allied forces in every theater of World War II and the Korean War. He remained at Springfield Armory until his retirement in 1953. He died in 1974.

otherwise known as the Ramspeck Act, for sponsor Congressman Robert Ramspeck of Georgia. The act expanded competitive service to almost all non-policy-determining positions, including unskilled laborers, and banned discrimination within the federal government based on race, color, national origin, or creed (religion).

From World War II to the 1970s

When Germany invaded Poland in September 1939 and began the conflict that would be known as World War II, 122,595 civilians worked for the Army, a majority of whom belonged to one of the technical services: Ordnance, Quartermaster, Signal, Engineer, and Medical. The following twenty-seven months until the 7 December 1941 attack on Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, was a period of tremendous growth in both military and civilian strength. By December 1941, the service's civilian strength had increased to 320,291, surpassing the Post Office to become the largest employer in the federal government. To improve the management of this expanded force, a Civilian Personnel Division was established in the Office of the Secretary of War.

Even before Pearl Harbor, the Army found itself in competition with the Navy and with industry for competent workers, and the service had to meet its ever-growing need for new personnel by hiring and then training people in a wide variety of skills. Apprentice programs had existed before 1941, but these now proved inadequate. In July 1941, the War Department issued its first policy on educating civilian employees. Among its provisions were that education should be conducted with the same care given to the training of soldiers; that it be a progressive system that included basic and advanced skills; and that it be flexible enough to take into consideration local conditions. Later that year, a director of civilian training was appointed in the Office of the Secretary of War, and similar positions were established in the office of each technical service and the Air Corps chief and in each of their major field organizations.

Three months after the United States entered the war against Germany, Italy, and Japan, the War Department undertook a major reorganization in March 1942 that created three major commands: Army Ground Forces, Army Service Forces (ASF), and Army Air Forces (AAF). All technical and administrative services were placed under Army Service Forces, which meant that about 75 percent of civilian employees fell under ASF; almost all the rest worked for AAF. Five months later, the War Department delegated to the major commands authority to take final action on almost all civilian personnel transactions and directed that in turn they give this authority to their field establishments. A month later, Army Service Forces transferred

technical services' employees assigned to installations controlled by a service command from the ASF to the rolls of the service command—the most extensive decentralization of civilian personnel administration of any federal agency during the war. This change prompted the establishment of central personnel offices at the installation level.

The demands of waging a world war were immense and affected everyone. The War Department put almost all of its civilians on a wartime schedule of forty-eight hours per week and expanded the workforce to 908,000 in July 1942 and to 1,355,000 in July 1943. Appointments during the war were made on a “war service indefinite” basis—for the duration of the emergency plus an additional six months. Between 1943 and mid-1945 the number of Americans in uniform continued to grow while the increasing intensity of operations produced greater casualties. These factors tightened the labor market even further. In response, the War Department Manpower Board was established to recommend specific manpower savings within the continental United States. For the remainder of the war, the board worked with ASF and AAF to make more efficient use of personnel. These efforts produced a modest drop in the number of civilian employees in the United States from the mid-1943 totals: to 1,244,000 in July 1944 and to 1,138,000 in July 1945.

To accommodate the dramatic expansion of the Army's workforce, the War Department required a new building. In September 1941, then-Col. Leslie J. Groves of the U.S. Army broke ground on an effort to provide much-needed centralized office space near Washington, D.C. This massive effort produced the Pentagon, constructed around the clock by thousands of men, which enabled the first employees to move into the 6.6 million-square-foot building in Virginia by April 1942. The structure was completed in January 1943, and at its peak in World War II it held about 33,000 workers. Groves went on to lead a more ambitious wartime project that would involve great numbers of highly skilled civilian professionals in the War Department—the Manhattan Project, which developed the atomic bomb.

At this time, the Army experienced great difficulties attracting and retaining employees, particularly since many male employees were drafted. Some installations were distant from population centers, and often there was a shortage of affordable housing nearby. Wages in industry were frequently higher, encouraging employees to leave government service. The shortage of skilled labor also prompted organizations within the Army to poach workers from each other. The Army's response to these challenges had three main components: hiring an unprecedented number of women for positions usually filled by men before the war, improving working conditions, and expanding training programs.



Betty Murphy, a War Department stenographer in the kitchen of the Walsh Club for civilian war workers, Washington, D.C., March 1943
(Library of Congress)

In 1939, women constituted 12 percent of the War Department's civilian employees. Two years later, they comprised 21 percent, and by 1943, 34 percent. Though the number of civilian employees declined over the next two years, the percentage of women rose as the number of men in uniform continued to increase. In July 1944, 46 percent of employees were women; a year later the percentage was the same. The war opened a wide variety of positions to women. They worked as airplane mechanics in the Army Air Forces and over 1,000 served as civilian pilots, ferrying aircraft in the United States and towing targets.

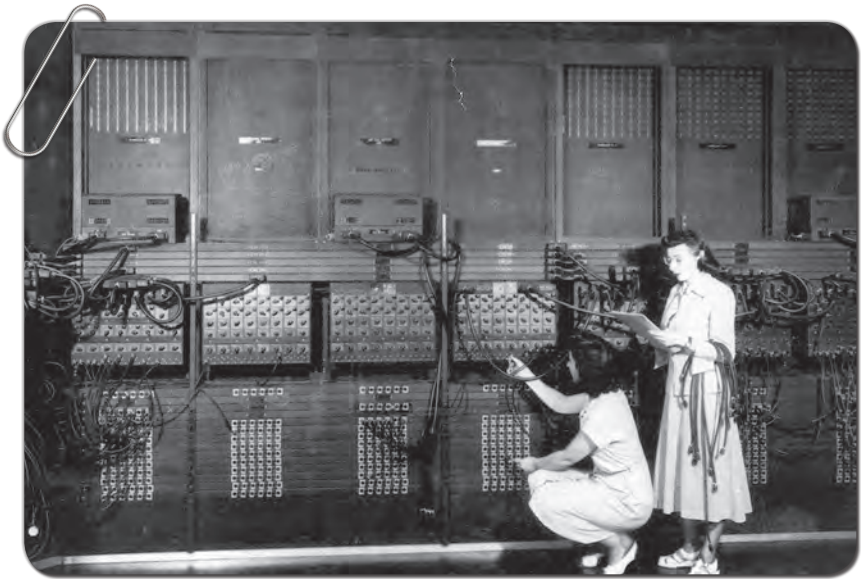


The War Department set aside a special space on the ground floor of its building for interviews and filling out job applications, June 1940.

(Library of Congress)

At Ordnance Department facilities, women worked as tool-crib operators, weapons testers, forklift operators, and truck drivers. They also functioned as computers in the literal sense, that is, performing the calculations needed to prepare ballistic trajectory tables for artillery shells. Six of these women in 1945 were selected to work on the world's first general-purpose electronic computer, ENIAC (Electronic Numeric Integrator and Computer), which was designed to perform the same calculations that the women had done. The six women thereby became the first computer programmers.

To retain workers, the War Department made efforts to improve working conditions in a variety of areas. Because so many supervisors were inexperienced, department officials instituted training programs to improve their management skills and also established grievance procedures.



Marlyn Wescoff (*standing*) and Ruth Lichterman wire the right side of ENIAC with a new program.
(U.S. Army)

Workplace safety received greater attention as well. In the Army Service Forces, the accident rate declined from 12.3 injuries per million man-hours in 1943 to 6.3 in 1945. Installations offered assistance with matters outside the workplace by locating and building affordable housing, finding needed transportation, and convincing local businesses to extend their business hours. Many women employees had young children, so installations arranged for child care. After-work events such as picnics, dances, and sports helped to raise civilian morale. Likewise, employees received cash rewards for helpful suggestions that were adopted. Three awards were established in 1943 for satisfactory service and outstanding achievements.

The expansion of the workforce in 1942–1943 was accomplished in large part by hiring people without the abilities needed for their position. Therefore, the Army had to further augment its training programs, in both scale and scope, for civilian employees. When the size of the workforce declined after 1943, the focus shifted to improving the skills of existing employees. Training occurred both in the classroom and on-the-job and was conducted by other employees, by outside schools under contract to the Army, and by the manufacturers of materiel used by the Army.



William Coffee (*right*)
(National Security Agency)

William D. Coffee was born in 1917 in Abington, Virginia, and studied English at Knoxville College in Tennessee. In September 1941, he was hired as a waiter at Arlington Hall School for Girls. The Army's cryptologic organization, the Signal Intelligence Service (later, the Signal Security Agency) soon acquired the property, and in June 1942 he was hired as a junior janitor. By April 1943, he was promoted to head messenger, and in June 1944 he was called on to recruit African American cryptologists to work at Arlington Hall. He brought on board about one hundred African Americans with proper qualifications for cryptologic activities. With this achievement, his title was changed to cryptologic clerk. In November 1944, he was promoted to assistant civilian-in-charge of a nineteen-person unit tasked to exploit nongovernmental coded messages originating from European, Asian, and Latin American countries. His roles and responsibilities continued to increase to include exploiting diplomatic codes of several countries and managing thirty people who worked in code identification and decoding, researching and analyzing unknown codes, and translating. In 1946, he was awarded the Commendation for Meritorious Civilian Service for his wartime leadership in exploiting critical enciphered messages (*above*). During the Cold War, Coffee's office became involved in an important transcription activity for which he became its officially recognized supervisor in 1947. In 1949, he joined the Armed Forces Security Agency, the predecessor of the National Security Agency, and then transitioned to NSA. He left NSA in 1972 and died in 1989.

The limits to American manpower as it fought another, larger world war forced the Army to employ greater numbers of foreign civilians to support the forces deployed around the globe: 149,000 by the end of 1943, 377,000 a year later, and peaking at 680,000 in June 1945. While most worked as laborers, others were trained in a wide variety of professions from carpenters to clerks to doctors. Throughout the war, overseas commanders sought the cooperation of local authorities in procuring and administering civilian employees and, on the grounds of military necessity, treated them generally in accordance with local laws and customs instead of American civil service regulations. Even with the hiring of local labor during the war years, the Army still employed about 237,000 American civilians overseas by the end of the war.

Although the postwar drawdown was rapid and steep, the demands of occupation duty and the Cold War prevented civilian strength from returning to prewar levels. By the start of the Korean War (1950–1953) in June 1950, the Army had 303,000 civil servants, close to three times the number it had in 1939, and the percentage of women in the workforce, while dropping from its wartime level, was still twice that of 1939. The Veterans Preference Act of 1944 had performed as intended; by 1950 about 45 percent of Army employees were veterans. Another change was that in 1939 Army civil servants did not work in foreign countries (although some were overseas in U.S.-controlled territories); in 1950, 14 percent were employed outside the continental United States, alongside about 20,000 noncitizens, almost all of whom were wage grade employees.

The interwar period had brought other changes. The Civil Service Commission made permanent the wartime practice of delegating authority to agencies to act in individual personnel matters without prior commission approval. The commission ordered that open competitive examinations be held for postwar positions occupied by a wartime appointee, who could compete to retain that job but who often lost it to a returning veteran. When the National Security Act of 1947 created a separate Air Force, some 110,000 civilian positions were transferred to the new service. The same law established the Office of the Secretary of Defense, which soon began developing policies to standardize the three services' civilian personnel programs.

Also in 1947, as the Cold War intensified, the administration of President Harry S. Truman set up a loyalty program that required the investigation of current and prospective federal employees. At first the undertaking had few procedural safeguards and frequently violated the rights of those being scrutinized. On a number of occasions the Army Security Review Board or federal courts found that Army employees had been dismissed because of unfounded accusations or guilt by association.



Amory Waite (*right*) being presented a silver ice ax on his retirement.
(Naval History and Heritage Command)

Amory H. "Bud" Waite was born in 1902 in Newton, Massachusetts, and served in the U.S. Navy from 1919 to 1923. After leaving the Navy, he worked installing radio equipment in naval vessels while taking night classes at the Lowell Institute (present-day Massachusetts Institute of Technology), where he graduated in 1926 with a degree in radio and electrical engineering. As a member of R. Adm. Richard E. Byrd's second Antarctic expedition, he gained national recognition as one of the three men who rescued Byrd from Bolling Advanced Base in Antarctica during the winter of 1934. After the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, on 7 December 1941, he became a civilian radio engineer with the U.S. Army Signal Corps. From then until 1965, he worked as an electrical engineer with the U.S. Army Signal Corps at the Coles Signal Laboratory, Fort Monmouth, New Jersey. In 1944, he went to Europe to install radio-relay communication systems for the invasion of Normandy and was awarded the Bronze Star Medal for his work. In 1946, he was at Bikini Atoll in the Pacific Ocean to research the effects of atomic bombs on radio communications, and he ultimately was involved in fourteen nuclear weapons tests. From 1946 to 1965, he was the coordinator of the Antarctic and Arctic research teams for U.S. Army Electronics Command and participated in ten Antarctic and twelve Arctic expeditions. He developed a technique to measure the depth of ice using a radio altimeter. Cape Waite in Antarctica is named in his honor. He died in 1985.

The Dwight D. Eisenhower administration revised the program in 1953 from looking for just the deliberately disloyal to identifying any employee who could threaten national security, including those open to coercion for such reasons as financial irresponsibility or homosexuality. This concept would govern employee screening for the remainder of the Cold War.

In response to the report of the Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, Congress passed the Classification Act of 1949, which superseded the 1923 Classification Act. The new law consolidated all white-collar grade systems into the General Schedule (GS). It also established three new “supergrades,” GS-16 to GS-18, based on the commission’s finding that the existing pay structure made it increasingly difficult to attract high-caliber individuals to fill top-level executive, professional, and scientific positions. Initially, Congress limited the number of employees holding supergrades to 400 for the entire government and directed that the Civil Service Commission would decide which positions qualified for these grades. Agencies quickly took to lobbying Congress and pressuring the commission for additional positions. The Army had one supergrade employee in 1950; by 1965 it had 198.

The Korean War generated an increase in the number of civilian employees, which rose to 521,000 in 1951 and then to 543,000 in 1952. Concern over the effect of the military buildup on the U.S. economy led to a cut in the Army’s budget during the last year of the war, and civilian strength declined to 504,000 by June 1953. As during World War II, most of the new civilian positions were in the technical services, and career appointments were replaced by indefinite appointments—that is, appointments without a specified end-date; by the end of 1954 only 49 percent of employees were in career status. Because the war did not entail a full-scale national mobilization, it did not fuel a major increase in the number of female employees similar to that in World War II. The war did stimulate an increase in the number of American civil servants and the number of direct-hire noncitizen employees working overseas. Additionally, thousands more foreign nationals worked for the Army overseas, their costs assumed by the host nation.

The end of the Korean War and President Eisenhower’s “New Look” national security strategy brought steep cuts to the Army’s budget and authorized strength. The number of civil servants declined to 429,000 by 1957 and to 390,000 in 1960. While a postwar program converted the force back to career status by 1956, the civilian force was insufficient to fully support all the Army’s activities, particularly installation operations. Overseas, much of this shortfall was covered by using noncitizens paid for by host nations. In the United States, many soldiers had to be detailed to post-support duties, which hurt troop morale and unit readiness.



An Army civilian works with a Friden mechanical calculator at Redstone Arsenal, Alabama, c. 1950s.
(Army Materiel Command)

During these years, the administration, Congress, and the Army sought to make the civil service more efficient and more attractive. Overseas positions were shifted from Schedule A excepted to competitive status, and Congress passed legislation providing reemployment rights in the United States for those who accepted an overseas posting. Congress also enacted the Federal Employees' Group Life Insurance Act, the Government Employees Training Act, the Federal Employees Health Benefits Act, and the Overseas Differentials and Allowances Act. The Civil Service Commission established the Federal Merit Promotion System. Within the Army, the Office of Civilian Personnel was transferred from the Office of the Secretary of the Army to the Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel. The process of establishing career programs for different occupational areas began. Two new civilian decorations—the Meritorious Civilian Service Award and the Distinguished Civilian Service Award—were created to recognize superior performance.

Legal changes also affected Army civilians starting in the late 1950s. From 1775, under the Articles of War and then the Uniform Code of Military Justice in 1951, the Army had exercised legal jurisdiction over civilians (both employees and soldiers' dependents) accompanying its forces in the field, to include court-martial authority. In a series of decisions between 1957 and 1960, the Supreme Court ruled that this practice was unconstitutional. Thereafter, the Army had no means to punish civilian employees who committed crimes while serving overseas except for dismissal, until Congress passed the Military Extraterritorial Jurisdiction Act in 2000.

The rise in Communist- and nationalist-inspired unrest in the world concerned President John F. Kennedy. In the years of his brief administration, 1961–1963, he increased the size of the active Army; however, the Army's civilian strength fell to 375,000. Most of this decline came from the decision to create new Department of Defense agencies—such as the Defense Supply Agency, the Defense Intelligence Agency, and the Defense Contract Audit Agency—which were assembled by transferring organizations from the military services to the new agencies. Additional cuts came from efforts to streamline the installation infrastructure by closing bases.

Another major reorganization initiated by Secretary of Defense Robert S. McNamara was Project 80, which ordered the Army to review its functions, organizations, and procedures. The project, directed by civilian Deputy Comptroller of the Army Leonard W. Hoelscher, resulted in the elimination of five technical services (Quartermaster, Transportation, Signal, Chemical, and Ordnance) and their replacement by Army Materiel Command (AMC). The new command was built mostly by absorbing elements and personnel from the disestablished technical services, which meant that few civilian positions were lost by the change.

The new decade brought major changes to the civil service. Presidential executive orders directed that the federal government take affirmative action to ensure equality of opportunity for employees without regard to race. In the early 1960s, African Americans constituted 12.5 percent of the Army's civilian workforce, but they were disproportionately concentrated in the lower salary and wage grades. The Department of Defense and the Department of the Army instituted programs to comply with these orders and with the Civil Rights Act of 1964, both in hiring and promotion. By the early 1970s, the Army had adopted an equal opportunity action plan with numerical goals and timetables. The Federal Women's Program (FWP), created in 1967 to implement an executive order that added sex to other prohibited forms of discrimination, sought to enhance the employment opportunities and advancement of women in the



An Army civilian technician works on a tape drive for an IBM 7090 mainframe computer at Redstone Arsenal in 1962.

(Army Materiel Command)

federal government. A subsequent 1969 executive order required federal agencies to take positive steps to ensure equal opportunity and integrated the FWP into the agency equal employment opportunity programs.

Change also took place for Army civilians after they were hired. For example, a 1962 executive order had directed that federal employees had the right to join labor organizations, which could engage in limited collective bargaining. The Army's civilian workforce quickly embraced this change; by mid-1968, it had more approved bargaining units than any other agency. In 1967, the Civil Service Commission established the Coordinated Federal Wage System to replace a confusing array of trades, labor occupations, and pay rates for wage grade employees that had developed over the previous century. The new system's objective was to ensure that trade, craft, and laboring employees within a local wage area who performed the same duties received the same rate of pay. In 1972, Congress gave this system a statutory basis by creating the Federal Wage System. Soon after, many nonappropriated fund employees—that is, employees whose salaries are

not appropriated by Congress but instead generated by operations of an activity itself, such as a service club or a golf course—were also brought under the new system.

Since 1950, full-time civilian technicians had become vital to reserve component readiness. Those working for Army Reserve units had always been federal employees, but those working for Army National Guard units, although paid for by the federal government, had been considered state employees with none of the protections and benefits provided by the federal civil service. To remedy this discrepancy, Congress passed the National Guard Technicians Act in 1968, converting them to federal civil servants.

In 1965, the civilian workforce began a rapid growth in concert with the deployment of ground combat troops to South Vietnam. This increase provided personnel both to directly support operations in Vietnam and to free up soldiers for overseas duty by replacing them with civilians in such areas as medical care, food service, administration, and transportation. By 1967, civilian strength had risen to 491,000, and to 503,000 by 1969. Initially, much of this expansion used indefinite appointments, but to improve the quality of hires these positions were converted to fixed-term appointments in 1968. In Vietnam, the number of Army civilian employees quickly rose, peaking at over 600 in early 1969, augmented by specialists dispatched there on temporary duty for specific missions. The Army also hired large numbers of Vietnamese citizens; by mid-1969, there were 35,000. As American forces withdrew, the number of these employees declined, but they continued to have a key supporting role until the last units left in 1973.

Army civilians working in Vietnam provided a wide range of skills, none more important than aviation maintenance. Vietnam was the first conflict that employed helicopters extensively, and the military personnel system never was able to fully meet the demand for experienced aviation maintenance specialists. Therefore, units depended on Army civilians, assisted by contractors, for detailed technical expertise; at the height of the war in 1969, thirty-seven Army civilians were assigned to aviation units in Vietnam.

The 1970s were turbulent years for Army civilians. In addition to the aftermath of the Vietnam War, declining budgets, installation closures, and inactivation of some major headquarters led to cuts in the civilian workforce that left it at 347,000 by 1980. There were several large-scale organizational changes—most notably the division of Continental Army Command into U.S. Army Forces Command and U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command—with attendant anxiety for many employees that their positions would be eliminated or moved to another location.

In May 1941, Clifton W. Gray entered federal service as an explosives operator in the ammunition production facility at Savanna Ordnance Depot, in Savanna, Illinois. After working for two years as an explosives operator, he was assigned as an ammunition inspector. In 1946, he was transferred to Okinawa. During this tour, he was among the first Department of the Army civilians on Okinawa and the Philippines after the end of the war. He made significant contributions to the clean-up of ammunition and explosives after World War II. During the next thirty-three years, he held progressively more responsible positions at duty locations in the United States, France, Germany, Japan, Korea, and Vietnam. During this time, he served as an ammunition inspector and later a quality assurance specialist (ammunition surveillance). For the last twenty-eight years of his career, he served as the deputy chief or chief of ammunition surveillance (that is, quality assurance) organizations. Throughout his career, he mentored countless numbers of ammunition officers and noncommissioned officers. He retired in January 1980 and died in 2008.



Clifton Gray
(U.S. Army Joint
Munitions Command)

This instability also created skill imbalances at U.S. installations, which aggravated the problems created by a workforce that declined much more than the workload placed on it. In October 1978, the Army established and activated the U.S. Army Civilian Personnel Center as a field operating agency under the deputy chief of staff for personnel. The purpose of the new center was to improve the management of the civilian workforce. The center, comparable to the Military Personnel Center, consolidated the functions, personnel, and equipment of the Civilian Personnel Field Operations Agency and Civilian Career Management Field Agency, which had been created in 1974 during a reorganization of Headquarters, Department of the Army (HQDA).

Equal employment opportunity issues also affected the civilian workforce. The Army considered that it had a special obligation to Vietnam-era veterans and made a concerted effort to comply with the

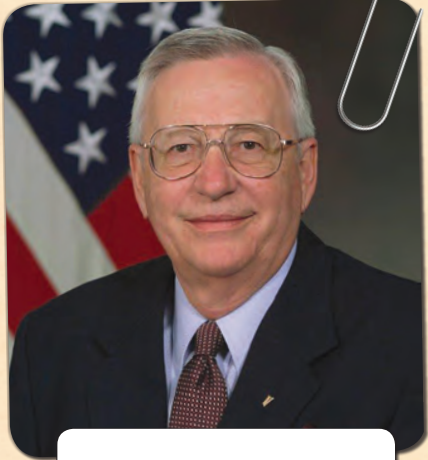
Vietnam Era Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act of 1974. Also, the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 made executive branch agencies subject to equal employment opportunity provisions in the Civil Rights Act of 1964. In response, the Army instituted policies and programs to comply with these requirements, both in regard to overall strength and in grades GS-12 and above. In the same period, a number of civilian employees sued the Army, alleging racial and sexual discrimination. By the end of fiscal year 1980, minorities comprised 18.8 percent of the total civilian workforce and women constituted 36.8 percent. In 1975, the Civil Service Commission removed the ban on the employment of homosexuals.

The most important development in this period was the far-reaching Civil Service Reform Act of 1978. The Civil Service Commission was abolished, and the Office of Personnel Management assumed oversight of government civilians. The act codified nine principles governing the merit system, defined prohibited personnel practices, and established the Merit Systems Protection Board to oversee the personnel system and to adjudicate complaints when an agency was alleged to have committed a prohibited personnel action. The board also had a special counsel to investigate charges of prohibited practices, including retaliation against whistleblowers. Another new agency, the Federal Labor Relations Authority, would deal with labor-management issues in federal agencies.

The act also established the Senior Executive Service (SES) to replace the supergrades above GS-15. The SES would be an elite corps of top career executives, just below the level of the politically appointed officials, with a separate system of selection, evaluation, and pay. Unlike the supergrades, whose rank was tied to their position, members of the SES would carry their rank with them, making it easier for agencies to move them to wherever they were needed. By the end of fiscal year 1980, there were 275 members of the SES in the Army.

The government-wide rating system was eliminated in favor of directing each agency to develop its own employee performance appraisal system in which employee ratings would be based on specific criteria related to their jobs. New procedures were instituted for adverse personnel actions and for appealing them. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission would now hear complaints involving discrimination and would be responsible for approving agency affirmative action plans. Moreover, the roles and responsibilities of employee labor unions were clarified regarding performance appraisals. A performance-based system for GS-12 to GS-15 manager and supervisor pay raises was instituted. Agencies were directed to conduct recruiting programs to help eliminate underrepresentation of minorities in the civil service.

Edgar B. Vandiver III earned bachelor's and master's degrees in physics from the University of Missouri-Columbia. From 1970 to 1974, he served as chief, Force Planning Division, Scientific Advisor's Office, Office of the Assistant Chief of Staff for Force Development, Headquarters, Department of the Army. In 1977, he became technical adviser to the deputy chief of staff for operations and plans, HQDA. In 1979, he became a charter member of the Senior Executive Service. From 1993 until 2012, he was the director of the Center for Army Analysis and the senior analyst of the Army. As director, he led an agency consisting of 147 military officers and civilian employees that supported HQDA and Army major commands by examining the issues of greatest importance to Army leaders. The Center for Army Analysis conducts studies addressing a wide range of planning and force development concerns, while focusing on and maintaining special expertise in theater-level operations and Army-wide processes, especially those involving resource allocation. As the senior analyst of the Army, he mentored and advised other senior analysts on subjects affecting the entire Army and joint analysis community. He also led the Army international operations research cooperative engagement program with selected international partners. He retired from active federal service in 2013, with forty-four years' service.



Edgar Vandiver
(U.S. Army)

From the End of the Cold War to 2015

By the 1980s, Department of the Army civilians had taken on additional missions to help maintain military readiness and defend the nation. In addition, new federal legislation, modifications in Department of Defense policies, and a number of Army initiatives and programs would combine to great effect. Civilians would become even more integral to Army operations in both peace and war. Significant changes in personnel management, pay and benefits, and training would increasingly turn Army civilians into a fully professional workforce that was integrated into the total Army team.

Speaking to Congress in 1980, Secretary of the Army Clifford L. Alexander and Chief of Staff General Edward C. Meyer emphasized the critical role Army civilians would have in Army operations in the first stages of the next war. Yet, General Meyer warned, the current strength of the civilian workforce was far below the level required and “the gap between required and available personnel could not be quickly closed by emergency augmentation plans.” Elected officials in Congress accepted that the reduction of civilian personnel had hurt Army readiness and authorized the growth of civilian strength throughout the decade. From 358,900 employees in 1980, the Army civilian workforce rose to more than 487,852 before the end of the decade.

The Army made the most of this increase in civilian employee strength by augmenting it with wide-ranging initiatives. For example, the Army developed and fielded the Army Automated Civilian Personnel System, which integrated Army civilian personnel data into the Army Mobilization Operations Planning and Execution System. Army civilians could now be organized and directed with the same speed and precision as their uniformed counterparts.

Another 1980s reform involved the professional training of civilians. The Army Civilian Training Education and Development System (ACTEDS) was introduced in September 1983, a program designed to identify high-potential employees at grades GS-12 and above and select them for intensive training and development programs. The system used a comprehensive approach to professional development and mixed practical work experience with grade-appropriate managerial and technical training. Twenty-four civilian career fields were enrolled in ACTEDS by the end of the decade.

Such efforts were a good start, but the Army struggled to maintain the pace of change and to unify its civilian oversight and training reform activities. In 1985, the Army’s inspector general found significant problems in the existing civilian personnel management system. In response, Army Chief of Staff General John A. Wickham Jr. directed Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel Lt. Gen. Robert M. Elton to oversee improvements to the administration of the Army’s civilian workforce. The result of this effort, the Civilian Personnel Modernization Project, was unveiled in April 1986 and laid the foundation for the reforms that would follow in the next decade.

As part of the project, the deputy chief of staff for personnel established the Army Management Staff College (AMSC) to provide training and professional development for mid-level civilian employees (GS-12 to GS-14 and GM-13 and GM-14). The college, in short, was intended to serve as the equivalent of the U.S. Army Command and General

Staff College for Army civilians. As such, prospective students would apply for the lengthy residential course where, in a seminar setting, they would receive a comprehensive program in the institutional and Title X functions of the Army and in subjects such as logistics and mobilization as well as managerial issues such as leadership and force development.

In addition to reforming civilian management and professional development, the Army also sought to simplify civilian manager pay by making it easier to administer and provide performance incentives while preserving the General Schedule system. These efforts met with limited success. More fruitful was an overhaul of the civilian pension program. In June 1986, Congress established the Federal Employees' Retirement System (FERS). FERS consists of three parts: social security, a basic plan to supplement social security, and an optional tax-deferred savings plan. The system required its members to pay social security taxes and contributions into the basic retirement plan. The optional tax-deferred savings plan, the Thrift Savings Plan, became effective in April 1987.

In 1986, the Army also instituted a program of drug testing in four critical job categories: aviation, law enforcement, safekeeping of chemical and nuclear materials, and clinical and control staff for Army drug and alcohol prevention. The undertaking, although intended to safeguard the health and welfare of its civilian workforce, initially met with some controversy and was challenged in the federal courts. At first, the Army's drug testing program was declared unconstitutional in a lower federal court but was later upheld in 1989 and implemented that same year.

In the 1990s, the Army continued to build on the professional development initiatives that were started in the previous decade. On 10 April 1990, Army Chief of Staff General Carl E. Vuono approved the Army Civilian Leader Development Action Plan. This was a comprehensive program designed to bring civilian leader development more in line with what the service provided to uniformed officers and noncommissioned officers. The Center for Army Leadership (CAL) and the Army Management Staff College designed and delivered the centrally managed, mandatory leader training courses. CAL offered formal training at three career stages; intern, supervisor, and manager. The AMSC provided the Army's civilian capstone course for leader development. In April 1992, the U.S. Army Personnel Command mandated completion of both the Basic Supervisory Development Course and the Leadership Education and Development Course by all supervisors of civilian employees and implemented a new procedure for the competitive selection of individuals to attend the AMSC.

In addition to making Army civilian professional development more comprehensive and competitive, the Army was granted a measure

of flexibility in hiring and compensation as a result of the Federal Employees Pay Comparability Act of 1990 (FEPCA). The act included several provisions that came out of the Army's Civilian Personnel Modernization Project and brought about a significant change in the white-collar pay system. The FEPCA authorized basic pay above the General Schedule minimum—known as advanced in-hire rates—for new employees with superior qualifications for all positions, rather than the previous limit of GS-11 and above. It also allowed recruiting, relocation, and retention allowances as well as providing for locality pay adjustments. These tools gave managers the flexibility to recruit more qualified applicants and helped ensure the retention of high-quality employees with diverse skills.

The Army reaped the benefits of its training and management reforms after Iraq invaded Kuwait in 1990 and throughout the following decade. During Operations DESERT SHIELD and DESERT STORM in 1990–1991, more than 1,600 civilian logisticians deployed to provide critical services to the Army units in the Persian Gulf. Army civilians set up depots, repaired and transported heavy equipment and aircraft, ran water purification units, furnished technical expertise, and helped process the countless tons of supplies required to wage a successful campaign. They also rendered important logistical support during Operation RESTORE HOPE in Somalia in 1993, Operation UPHOLD DEMOCRACY in Haiti from 1994–1995, and Operation JOINT ENDEAVOR in Bosnia in 1995. The vital roles that Army civilians played in these deployments led the Department of Defense and the Army to reexamine civilian personnel deployment policies and doctrine. The results of these efforts would be codified in regulations and policies in the next decade.

In 1993, the Army established the Total Army Performance Evaluation System (TAPES), similar to the Officer Evaluation Report system used to record the performance of uniformed officers. Employees developed written performance plans that documented objectives based on organizational missions and goals while reflecting the duties and responsibilities listed in their job descriptions. These performance plans consisted of responsibilities, professional standards, and individual job-related expectations set forth during formal counseling. Civilian employees could now be evaluated according to their assigned role in accomplishing the mission of their unit or organization in the same manner as their uniformed colleagues. The TAPES also provided “an environment where all understand that they are important members of the Army Team” and were “challenged to develop professionally and to perform at their full potential.”



Pallets and containers of equipment sit in a logistical support area during Operation DESERT SHIELD (2 August 1990–17 January 1991). During Operations DESERT SHIELD and DESERT STORM, more than 1,000 civilians from Army Materiel Command set up major depot operations, while other AMC civilians purchased, transported, and maintained personal supplies, combat materiel, and spare parts; established water purification and distribution systems; and offered technical assistance on the operation of weapons and equipment.

(Army Materiel Command)

In May 1996, Army Chief of Staff General Dennis J. Reimer published a white paper that emphasized the importance of the Army civilian workforce. General Reimer wrote that Army civilians were a great resource, possessing “tremendous ability and expertise.” Thereafter, he pointedly integrated civilian employee development into his plans to modernize the Army for the next century. He created the Civilian Personnel Management XXI concept to develop a civilian personnel system to support these programs. Under this proposal, the Army reviewed civilian personnel authorities and requirements to determine the lowest level to which they could be delegated and sought to modify

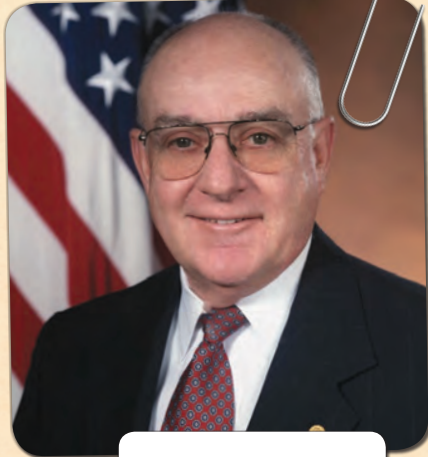
civilian professional development and evaluation programs to more closely mirror the military system.

Unfortunately, reform activities in the 1990s were complicated and often overwhelmed by the daunting efforts to manage the personnel drawdown mandated by Congress at the end of the Cold War. In January 1990, the Office of the Secretary of Defense imposed a total civilian hiring freeze. The Army reduced its civilian strength by 22,500 during fiscal year 1990 and by an additional 14,900 in the following year. Further decreases resulted from force structure downsizing, base consolidations or closures, and extension of the hiring freeze for additional years. Civilian personnel strength declined from 365,500 to 333,600 during fiscal year 1992, the largest reduction since the end of the Vietnam War. The number of Army civilians dropped from 376,000 in fiscal year 1989 to 223,300 in fiscal year 2000, a decline of nearly 45 percent. This decrease also affected the age and experience of the Army's civilian workforce. The average age of a civilian employee went from 43 to 47 years old and average time of service rose from 13.5 to 17.4 years, reflecting an older, top-heavy workforce.

The Army sought to avoid using a reduction in force (RIF) by providing outplacement employment assistance and making full use of Voluntary Early Retirement Authority. This initiative allowed employees to choose early retirement with a reduced annuity if they met program requirements for age and length of service. Voluntary separation incentives, the successful placement of surplus employees through the DOD Priority Placement Program, and vigorous outplacement initiatives established at the installation level made it possible to keep involuntary separations to a minimum.

The reduction in strength did not lead to a decrease in mission requirements. Civilian employees still formed the backbone of Army depot and logistical operations. The refusal of Congress to approve additional base closures exacerbated the problem by preventing the realignment of the remaining employees into more active posts and around high-priority missions. Contracted labor was used increasingly to fill the gaps in support. More frequently, Department of the Army civilians made policy and management decisions, and contractors executed them. As one Army historian explained, "Contractors became a shadow workforce, backfilling government employees they had replaced and often demonstrating considerable job stability. Indeed, an iconic figure of the time was the civilian, soldier, or noncommissioned officer who terminated his government employment one day and came back to the same position as a contractor the next." This outsourcing of labor and expertise would become increasingly controversial and expensive in the years ahead. Based on Office of Management and Budget Circular A-76 issued in 1983, the belief that the private sector could do most

Joel B. Hudson began working for the Army as a management analyst in the Office of the Assistant Chief of Staff, Comptroller, at Fort Eustis, Virginia, in 1962, and was chief of the Management Improvement Branch of the Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff, Resource Management, in 1973-1975. From 1975 to 1978, he became deputy director of studies and analyses on the staff of the Office of the Administrative Assistant to the Secretary of the Army; in 1978-1989, he was director of plans and projects in Washington; from 1989 to 1995, he served as director of policy and plans/safety, security, and support services; and from 1995 to 1996, he was deputy administrative assistant to the secretary of the Army. In 1996, Hudson was appointed administrative assistant to the secretary of the Army. In this position, he was responsible for administrative support to Headquarters, Department of the Army, and for logistical, personnel, and communications assistance to the Department of Defense in the Washington area. He received the Presidential Meritorious Rank Award in 2000, and the Presidential Distinguished Rank Award in 2003. He retired from civilian service in 2004.



Joel Hudson
(U.S. Army)

government jobs better and cheaper became widespread, along with a push for the Army to use contractors whenever possible. In recognition of the principle that “the competitive enterprise system, characterized by individual freedom and initiative, is the primary source of national economic growth,” Circular A-76 stated that it was “the general policy of the Government to rely on commercial sources to supply the products and services the Government needs.”

The new century would bring new challenges to the Army’s civilian workforce. Increasingly, the nation’s enemies targeted the U.S. homeland, and all who served in defense of the republic would face this new threat. The civilian employees of the U.S. Army found themselves in the direct line of fire on the morning of 11 September 2001, when al-Qaeda terrorists hijacked four airliners and crashed two of them into the World Trade Center in New York City and one into the west side of the Pentagon. Forty-six Department of the Army civilians perished in the Pentagon



The terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001 brought war directly to Headquarters, Department of the Army, in the Pentagon. *Top*: the collapsed section of the Pentagon between fourth and fifth corridors; *bottom*: the scene in the Pentagon's South Parking lot. (Both Department of Defense)



and many more were injured. Seventy-seven HQDA civilians were decorated for their actions that fateful morning. There were several acts of selfless service performed that day and many Army civilians risked their lives to help save others and give aid to their injured comrades. As James H. Schwartz, assistant chief of operations for the Arlington County Fire Department, stated, “Truly heroic acts were exhibited on the parts of both military and civilian personnel who were employed at the Pentagon, who saved far more lives in those first minutes . . . than we saved in that incident.”

The nation now found itself at war, and the work done by the Army to strengthen and improve the professional management and training of its civilian labor force would be put to the test in Operation ENDURING FREEDOM in Afghanistan and Operation IRAQI FREEDOM in Iraq. As was the case in the Gulf War nearly a decade before, Army civilians would be called on to provide a wide range of services and logistical support to forces deployed for combat overseas. However, the nature of combat in this war proved to be different from that encountered during Operation DESERT STORM over twenty years earlier. The focus soon shifted from fighting enemy combat units to counterinsurgency operations in which identifying the enemy was the first problem. There were no longer any front lines or secure rear areas from which to operate. This fact, along with lessons learned from the Gulf War, caused the Defense Department to issue new guidelines on the employment of civilian employees in a theater of war.

In 2003, the Department of Defense reaffirmed Directive (DODD) 1400.31, Civilian Workforce Contingency and Emergency Planning and Execution, providing joint guidance on the incorporation of the civilian workforce into war plans and overseas contingency operations. The directive stated that the services had to support deployed civilians “in the same manner as military personnel . . . as permissible by law and/or existing status of forces agreements with foreign nations.” The next year, the Army combined this instruction with lessons learned from the Gulf War to inform a revision of Army Regulation 690–11, *Use and Management of Civilian Personnel in Support of Military Contingency Operations*. This document assigned responsibility to the Army deputy chief of staff, G–1, for establishing policy and providing guidance for issues that impacted deployed Army civilians. The Army deputy chief of staff, G–3/5/7, was directed to add emergency-essential employees to unit manning records. Commanders at all levels became responsible for tracking and reporting the status of their deployed civilians. The regulation also listed the entitlements granted to deployed Army civilians, such as medical care, authorized equipment and clothing, and specialized

training. In the future, Army civilians would be integrated into the total Army team. As part of this commitment, a new initiative to strengthen civilian professionalism and provide continuity and stability for the force, named the Army Civilian Corps, was created in June 2006 under the guidance of Secretary of the Army Francis J. Harvey “to unify the Army civilian service.” The Army Civilian Corps Creed was published at this time as a statement of values and intent.

The number of Army civilians increased with the growing demands of an Army at war. By 2008, the Army employed 261,488 civilians. This included 7,553 directly hired foreign nationals and 16,649 foreign nationals employed through agreements with host nations. However, the Army still employed contractors to provide vital assistance to forces deployed overseas. The innovative Logistics Civil Augmentation Program allowed the Army to quickly employ contractors to fill critical support requirements on a temporary basis. This flexibility proved valuable in satisfying the shifting requirements of an Army waging a counterinsurgency. While contractors worked alongside their civilian counterparts in sustaining the force, Army civilians continued to serve on staffs at all echelons and operate the depots, maneuver training areas, ports, and mobilization stations.

The escalating expense of contractor support and a series of abuses perpetrated by security and logistical contract organizations operating in the Balkans and Iraq led Congress to reassess contractors’ roles and governance. In the Fiscal Year 2008 National Defense Authorization Act, Congress directed the Defense Department to consider converting functions performed by contractors to Army civilian positions, a process termed *in-sourcing*. Congress further instructed the Defense Department to return “inherently governmental” tasks that had been delegated to contractors back to accountable Army civilians. The wars in Iraq and Afghanistan made clear that the Army would need both Army civilians and contractors to sustain its forces overseas. However, Army civilians often proved to be more cost effective and accountable. They also demonstrated that they were adaptable in the face of new requirements and unexpected challenges.

Early in his tenure, Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld had determined that the increasingly specialized demands being placed on civilian employees required the department to reform the oversight of its diverse workforce. The National Defense Authorization Act of Fiscal Year 2004 authorized the Defense Department to implement a performance-based compensation and personnel management system. That same year, the Defense Department established the National Security Personnel System (NSPS). NSPS was a comprehensive initiative designed

Kathryn A. Condon received a bachelor's degree from the University of Rochester and a master's degree in business administration from Syracuse University. She began her Army career as a management analyst at the United States Military Academy in 1986. She then moved through progressively more responsible management and program analyst positions in Headquarters, Department of the Army, and was selected for the Senior Executive Service in September 1997. Her initial assignment from 1997 to 2000 was as special assistant for resources and military support in the Office of the Assistant Secretary of the Army (Installations and Environment), Washington, D.C. From 2000 to 2003, she was the interagency coordinator for military support to civil authorities, Office of the Secretary of the Army, Washington, D.C. In 2003, she became the first civilian assistant deputy chief of staff for operations, G-3/5/7, on the Army Staff, where she remained until 2006. She then served as the civilian deputy to the commanding general, Army Materiel Command, until 2009. In that capacity, she oversaw more than 50,000 employees in more than forty states and thirty-eight countries. During 2009-2010, she served as special assistant to the under secretary of the Army. She became the executive director of the Army National Cemeteries Program in June 2010. Her leadership at Arlington National Cemetery led to the correction of significant problems at the cemetery and the creation of processes to ensure that previous mistakes were not repeated. She retired from federal service in 2013 after thirty years of public service.



Kathryn Condon
(U.S. Army)

to provide “greater flexibility in hiring and compensating employees.” The fifteen grades on the GS pay scale were replaced by three “pay bands,” and employees would receive pay raises and performance bonuses based on the achievement of collaboratively derived, written performance objectives. Like previous attempts to install a merit pay system, NSPS encountered resistance from federal employee unions and other internal stakeholders that delayed its implementation. The system was criticized for inconsistent application and pay inequities across the new pay bands. Many managers also found the NSPS too cumbersome and a burdensome



Army Chief of Staff General Raymond T. Odierno talks with civilian helicopter mechanic Robby Cain during a tour of the Aviation Center Logistics Command, Fort Rucker, Alabama, 1 April 2013.

(U.S. Army)

drain on scarce time and resources. In the face of growing opposition and institutional challenges, Congress terminated the NSPS as a part of the National Defense Authorization Act of Fiscal Year 2010.

Efforts to shape professional development opportunities for Army civilians were more successful. In 2008, Secretary of the Army Pete Geren and Army Chief of Staff General George W. Casey Jr. chartered the Army University. After a series of funding delays, the Army University was established on 7 July 2015. The school was organized like the central institution of a state university system. Its mission was to provide centralized management and resourcing for the seventy Training and Doctrine Command school programs that train both soldiers and Army civilians. The purpose of the Army University, according to Secretary of the Army

John M. McHugh, was to “educate and develop Soldiers and Civilians to grow the intellectual capacity to understand the complex contemporary security environment to better lead Army, Joint, Interagency, and multinational task forces and teams.”

In 2011, Secretary McHugh ordered a review of the Army civilian personnel management system and ACTEDS, a process called the Army Civilian Workforce Transformation initiative. Its purpose was to increase the training and professional competence of the civilian workforce. One of the project’s major accomplishments was the establishment of a career program for all civilian occupational specialties. All Army professionals would now have a career path with codified performance and training goals to mark and guide their professional development. The Army civilian was recognized as a valuable asset, and the service committed itself to improving the quality and professional competence of its civilian cohort. A striking example of the dedication and commitment of Army civilians is that of John Bruce Jr., who began his military service in the U.S. Army Signal Corps in 1942 and then in 1946 started his civilian career at the Detroit Arsenal under the Tank and Automotive Command. In 2011, he retired in his nineties after sixty-nine years of service in acquisitions and contracting. While the length of Bruce’s service is unusual, the depth of his dedication to the Army is typical of his civilian colleagues—testimony indeed to Army civilians!

For more than a century, and particularly since the end of the Vietnam War, the professional training and management of Army civilians has moved in the direction of their uniformed counterparts. The result has been the creation of a specialized workforce of skilled professionals who are programmatically linked to the operational, logistical, and administrative needs of the Army. Today, when women and men become one of the more than 330,000 U.S. Army civilians, they know that they are joining *the* Army and will perform work that is essential to the health of the service.

Army civilians support the nation, the Army, and its soldiers in times of war and peace. They are part of the total force supporting the Army’s worldwide mission in what former Army Secretary Geren called “a diverse and complex environment.” The Army will continue to rely on civilians to be creative and strategic thinkers, confident and competent decision-makers, and educated professionals in demanding times.

CONTRIBUTORS

William M. Donnelly is a senior historian and the author of *Transforming an Army at War: Designing the Modular Force, 1993–2005* (2007) and *Under Army Orders: The Army National Guard during the Korean War* (2001), as well as “Bilko’s Army: A Crisis in Command?” *Journal of Military History* (October 2011). He was commissioned in the U.S. Army and deployed to the Persian Gulf for Operation DESERT STORM. After he earned a Ph.D. in history from Ohio State University, he became an Army civilian in 1999 when he joined the U.S. Army Center of Military History (CMH).

Stephen W. Lehman is a senior historian and oversees CMH’s oral history program. He holds a master’s degree in national security studies from Georgetown University. He served in the U.S. Naval Reserve from 1975 to 1995. He became an Army term employee in 2003 and a GS civilian employee in 2007. He joined CMH in 2010. He is a graduate of the Army Civilian Education System (CES) Advanced Course.

Stephen J. Lofgren is the chief of the Historical Support Branch. He is the author of *U.S. Army Guide to Oral History* (2006) and editor of *Then Came the Fire: Personal Accounts from the Pentagon, 11 September 2001* (2011). He received a master’s degree in history from American University and is a graduate of the U.S. Army Management Staff College. He became an Army civilian when he joined CMH in 1987.

John R. Maass is the author of *Defending a New Nation, 1783–1811* (2013) and *The Petersburg and Appomattox Campaigns, 1864–1865* (2015), as well as *The Road to Yorktown: Jefferson, Lafayette and the British Invasion of Virginia* (2015). He served in the U.S. Army Reserve in 1988–1992 and later earned a Ph.D. in history from Ohio State University. He became an Army civilian in 2007 when he joined CMH.

Robert M. Mages was commissioned in the U.S. Army and served with the 1st Infantry Division in the Persian Gulf in Operation DESERT STORM. He earned a master’s degree in European history from Washington State University. After working as an operations research

analyst for the U.S. Air Force Research Laboratory, he became an Army civilian in 2005 and served as the chief of the oral history program at the U.S. Army Military History Institute at Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania. In 2011, he joined CMH. He is the general editor of *The Sergeants Major of the Army* (2013).

Eric B. Setzekorn is the author of “Eisenhower’s Mutual Security Program: Taiwan as a ‘Strategic Bargain,’” *Journal of American-East Asian Relations* (Spring 2016), and “Chinese Imperialism, Ethnic Cleansing and Military History, 1850–1877,” *Journal of Chinese Military History* (Spring 2015). After serving in the U.S. Army, he earned a Ph.D. in history from George Washington University and became an Army civilian when he joined CMH in 2015. He is a graduate of the Army CES Intermediate Course.



Army Civilian Corps Creed

I am an Army Civilian—
a member of the Army Team.

I am dedicated to our Army,
our Soldiers and Civilians.

I will always support the mission.

I provide stability and continuity
during war and peace.

I support and defend the Constitution
of the United States and consider it
an honor to serve our Nation and our Army.

I live the Army values of Loyalty,
Duty, Respect, Selfless Service,
Honor, Integrity, and Personal Courage.

I am an Army Civilian.



PIN : 200285-000