THE GREAT WAR: U.S. ARMY ARTIFACTS

United States Army
Center of Military History

THE GREAT WAR
U.S. ARMY ARTIFACTS
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As the Army marks the centennial of World War I, it is important to examine the art and material culture of the Army from that period. The Army Museum Enterprise’s collection includes a wide range of art and artifacts related to World War I. Because the treasures are located at over fifty museums across the United States and not every artifact is on display, *The Great War: U.S. Army Art* and *The Great War: U.S. Army Artifacts* offer access to content that is not always readily accessible. By studying this collection, we can see the ways in which the Army rapidly reinvented itself during World War I and how it adapted during a period of innovation that changed the future trajectory of warfare. Through the analysis of artifacts attributed to individual World War I soldiers, we honor their legacy of service and the sacrifices they made.

Though the veterans of the Great War are no longer here to tell their stories to new generations of Americans, the items that they used and carried provide important insight into their Army service. Many of the artifacts highlighted in this volume have rich provenances, playing critical roles in the war or carried by soldiers who performed great deeds. Others were carried by ordinary soldiers whose names and actions would have been forgotten were it not for their memorialization in Army museums. Some items of personal equipment have been decorated by the soldiers who carried them, simultaneously existing as functional items, expressions of individuality or unit pride, and personalized works of art.

By considering the art and artifacts of World War I, we venerate the service of over four million American soldiers who served in the Great War. Their experiences are memorialized and brought to life through the Army’s timeless artworks and rare objects. Their stories live on and they continue to educate soldiers and civilians at Army museums. Though the uniforms, equipment, terrain, and soldiers themselves have changed over the past one hundred years, the art and artifacts of the Army are an important visual reminder that some timeless and universal truths exist in a soldier’s experience. These connections between the soldiers of today and the soldiers of World War I can clearly be seen in these volumes. It is the U.S. Army Center of Military
History’s hope that the art and artifacts featured in these books will inspire everyone to learn more about the remarkable legacy of the men and women who served and sacrificed during the Great War.

Washington, D.C. JON T. HOFFMAN
11 November 2018 Chief Historian
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A book like this is a truly collaborative effort. This is the first time that the U.S. Army Center of Military History (CMH) has published a book showcasing the unique artifacts displayed in Army museums. We sourced artifacts featured in this volume from almost every site in the Army Museum Enterprise (AME). Numerous staff members contributed in various ways to its successful completion.

First and foremost, I thank the members of the curatorial committee—Alan T. Bogan, Paul M. Miller, and Carrie M. Gabaree—who reviewed submissions, selected the artifacts included in this book, and worked tirelessly to research each artifact and to draft meaningful and engaging captions. Their subject matter expertise and enthusiasm were instrumental to ensuring a focused end product that represents the diverse wealth of World War I material in the AME collection. Dr. Brian F. Neumann also provided vital support and focus to the project with his review and revision of the introductory essay and chapter summaries.

By its very scope, this volume is the result of collaboration between curators and staff members of over thirty sites within the AME. With no exceptions, these museum professionals were a pleasure to work with on this project, always answering inquiries with utmost enthusiasm and professionalism and often coming through with a piece of vital information on very short notice. The following individuals and members of their staffs contributed to this volume by suggesting artifacts, answering research inquiries, or providing caption information or photographs: Dr. Robert J. Smith and staff of the 1st Infantry Division Museum, Fort Riley, Kansas; William (Mike) Alexander and staff of the 2d Infantry Division Museum, Camp Red Cloud, South Korea; John W. Aarson, Jimmie Hallis, and staff of the 82d Airborne Division War Memorial Museum, Fort Bragg, North Carolina; John C. Leighow and staff of the U.S. Army Heritage and Education Center, Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania; Lindsey M. Davis and staff of the Fort George G. Meade Museum, Fort Meade, Maryland; Paul P. Pipak and staffs of the Fort Huachuca Museum and the Military Intelligence Museum, Fort Huachuca, Arizona; Jacqueline B. Davis and staff of the Fort Sam Houston Museum, Fort Sam Houston, Texas; Alice M. Hart and staff of the General

In addition to photographing all of the artifacts for this volume located at the Museum Support Center, Pablo Jimenez-Reyes traveled to twelve other sites within the Army Museum Enterprise to photograph artifacts that appear in this book. His enthusiasm and dedication are to be commended, especially considering the amount of equipment that he transported to each site to ensure that we had the
best possible photos for publication. I thank the staffs of the West Point Museum, the U.S. Army Transportation Museum, the U.S. Army Women’s Museum, the U.S. Army Quartermaster Museum, the U.S. Army Ordnance Training Support Facility, the National Infantry Museum, the National Armor and Cavalry Museum, the U.S. Army Signal Corps Museum, the U.S. Army Basic Combat Training Museum, the U.S. Army Chaplain Corps Museum, the 82d Airborne Division War Memorial Museum, the Fort George G. Meade Museum, and the Museum Support Center, Anniston Army Depot for accommodating Mr. Jimenez-Reyes during these site visits. Mr. Jimenez-Reyes also served as the main point of contact for receiving and organizing photographs sent in from museums that he did not visit, often working with AME staff members to reshoot photos to improve lighting, staging of artifacts, or technical details. While numerous AME directors and staff members worked to photograph items from their collections that appear in this volume, James R. Rogers of the U.S. Army Military Police Corps Regimental Museum generously volunteered his time to photograph items from his own collection as well as items from the U.S. Army Engineer Museum and the U.S. Army Chemical Corps Museum.

On the history side, Deborah A. Stultz quickly and proficiently edited this text, all while staying flexible and keeping an excellent sense of humor. Gene Snyder designed the interior with his artist’s eye and made even the most challenging artifacts look beautiful. I thank Diane S. Arms, Cheryl L. Bratten, and Timothy J. Mazurek. All three were instrumental in keeping this volume on track. And finally, I thank CMH Executive Director Mr. Charles R. Bowery Jr. for suggesting that we publish this book set and Mr. Jon T. Hoffman and Dr. Charles H. Cureton for their guidance.

SARAH G. FORGEY
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INTRODUCTION

TANGIBLE REMINDERS OF THE GREAT WAR

As we commemorate the centennial of World War I, firsthand knowledge of the conflict has passed out of human memory. Although written and photographic depictions of the war can provide literary and visual representations of the experience, these sources cannot represent the full breadth of the physical world from that time. The objects that soldiers and civilians used during the war, by contrast, give us a tangible connection to this increasingly remote period. The items presented in the following pages are a sample of the more than 34,000 artifacts held in the Army Museum Enterprise’s extensive collection of World War I material. Army historians and curators have selected a variety of objects, ranging from the macro level of tanks and aircraft to everyday items such as individual soldiers’ personal effects. Through this collection, readers can gain a broad sense of the experience of those who endured the war.

This volume presents the artifacts in seven chapters grouped in specific themes. While the collection includes articles used by our allies and enemies, the items presented here focus on American artifacts from the war. Each photograph has an accompanying description that delves into the personal stories of those who used the artifacts and interprets them within the context of the chapter’s theme.

Chapter One examines the experience of trench warfare. Doughboys faced massed artillery barrages, poison gas, mud, and vermin while serving in the trenches. The items selected for the chapter not only display vehicles and equipment, but also present artifacts that explore how soldiers adapted to the challenges they faced while enduring the appalling conditions.

Chapter Two presents an array of wartime innovations, highlighting artifacts related to the Army’s rapid modernization as it built up its forces for service in Europe.
From the adoption of rapid-fire artillery, machine guns, and new tactical doctrine, to the creation of elements such as the Tank Corps, the Chemical Warfare Service, and the Motor Transport Corps, the chapter examines how the Army adjusted to modern industrialized warfare.

Some of these innovations were in the medical field, which we cover in Chapter Three. Perhaps the most important improvement in medical care came in the form of motorized ambulances, which could evacuate wounded soldiers quickly to medical care areas away from the front. The chapter also examines artifacts worn and used by the men and women who provided critical medical care on or near the front lines, often at great danger to themselves.

Chapter Four covers how the American logistical services accommodated the dramatic expansion of the U.S. Army from a small volunteer force of just over 300,000 men to a national Army of four million, nearly two million of whom served in Europe. Transporting and supplying a force across an ocean patrolled by enemy submarines is one of the greatest American success stories of the war. While the United States relied on the French and British for some support—including transport shipping and equipment like tanks and aircraft—American industry made great strides at meeting wartime demand and kept the doughboys well-supplied both stateside and overseas.

Chapter Five presents items linked to specific military personnel; some famous, some obscure. They communicate how experiences varied among servicemen. Many of these artifacts belonged to individuals who showed tremendous battlefield courage and gallantry, but others are presented to reflect the daily lives of both officers and enlisted men.

“Support by the Nation,” Chapter Six, focuses on civilians, presenting objects that linked them to the war, both on the home front and abroad. It showcases, for example, items related to the vigorous public relations campaign that helped convince American citizens to purchase billions of dollars of war bonds to finance the war. The chapter also includes objects connected to civilian service organizations that supported the troops in various ways.

This volume draws special attention to the manner in which women contributed to World War I—ways unprecedented in American history. Many are highlighted throughout the book. More than half of the women who served in the U.S. armed forces during World War I were in the Army Nurse Corps, and artifacts associated with them are included in the medical support chapter. The same chapter also features items showing how reconstruction aides worked closely with orthopedists to assist wounded soldiers in regaining strength and mobility. These women pioneered the field of physical therapy. Eighty percent of the nurses who served in World War I were
from the American Red Cross; their contributions are also featured in the medical support chapter. Women supported the war as workers for various civilian service organizations, both at home and in Europe; some of their stories appear in Chapter Six. Women also played a major role on the home front: working in munitions factories, contributing to bond drives, planting war gardens, and conserving food and other resources. These items are discussed in Chapter Six. Lastly, the Army Signal Corps ultimately recruited and trained over 230 telephone operators, known popularly as “Hello Girls,” for service overseas. Their stories and the related artifacts appear in the chapter on innovations.

Finally, Chapter Seven explores distinctive objects crafted by soldiers or local civilians. Known collectively as trench art, the pieces generally fall into two categories: equipment decorated by soldiers and objects crafted from battlefield debris. Both types feature unique works of art. Although limited by their materials and circumstances, the imagination and talent of their creators shine through. The Army’s trench art collection is a treasure trove of disparate artifacts that tell much about how soldiers and civilians chose to remember the war.

The artifacts from the Army’s collection presented in this volume are reminders of the service and sacrifice of those who participated in World War I. They represent not just modernization and technological advancements, but also the war’s impact on the nation as Americans mobilized as both a fighting force and a pillar of support. In highlighting these treasures and their stories for the World War I Centennial, we at the U.S. Army Center of Military History and throughout the Army Museum Enterprise hope the spirit of service and sacrifice that endured throughout World War I will inspire new generations of soldiers and civilians.
TRENCH WARFARE

One of the most enduring impressions of World War I is that of great armies fighting in massive networks of trenches separated by a shell-cratered, barbed-wire-filled expanse known as “no-man’s-land.” While this description does not apply to all battlefronts of the war, trench warfare nevertheless has become synonymous with the First World War. Trenches could be found most prominently on the Western Front in France and Belgium, where continuous field fortifications stretched along a roughly 500-mile front. There, the soldiers dug in, seeking cover from massive artillery barrages and the ever-present threat from snipers. Aircraft had been adapted for raking the trenches with machine gun fire and high explosives. Poisonous gas—fired from artillery pieces or released along the ground—could wound through blinding, blistering, and lung scarring, or cause death through asphyxiation. Those who saw combat with the American Expeditionary Forces (AEF) faced an enemy that was expert in defensive, static warfare. Attacking these positions proved spectacularly costly, as seen in the Meuse-Argonne Offensive. The simple act of going “over the top” to attack in the face of artillery, machine guns, and small-arms fire required extreme personal courage.

Even when not in combat, service in the trenches was a grim experience. Soldiers lived in dirt and mud for days and weeks at a time. Men crowded into dugouts to sleep or take shelter. Huge rats, engorged on dead soldiers and animals, roamed the trenches. After only a few days, the men would be covered in body lice (called “cooties”), which contributed to the spread of disease and the overall discomfort of soldiers. Fresh food and clean water were difficult to come by, and the aroma of death and decay was everywhere. The very act of living in such conditions could break a man’s spirit, to say nothing of being in combat.

The items presented in this section illustrate some of the things soldiers possessed in the trenches: coats and boots for warmth, helmets and gas masks for protection, and even a cootie. Artifacts such as these can help us envision the difficulties of trench life and trench warfare.
Faced with the challenges of trench warfare, AEF Commander General John J. Pershing and his staff had to adapt existing U.S. Army tactical doctrine to actual conditions. Pershing concluded that to defeat the Germans, the AEF had to fight differently than the Allies. He wanted the American soldiers to employ what he called “open warfare” tactics—getting out of the trenches and engaging in a war of movement—but first, troops needed to be trained in this doctrine. Until that time, the doughboys of the AEF had to learn to exist in the trenches and fight in the manner of the French and the British.

The Army was unprepared to provide this training and relied on our Allies’ training and manuals. Pictured here are examples of reprinted British, Canadian, and translated French technical and field manuals as well as some written at the U.S. War Department. The translated French manual *Supplement to Instructions for the Offensive Combat of Small Units* is marked with the warning, “Not to be taken into Front Line Trenches.” *Close Combat Weapons* is an English translation of a French-translated German document.

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A Chicago native, Lieutenant Reusnow served in the Illinois National Guard before his deployment to France. He and his unit arrived in France on 30 May 1918 and the Army assigned them to the British Fourth Army. On 9 August, the regiment attacked German positions at Gressaire Wood as part of the Somme Offensive. While leading his troops, a piece of shrapnel wounded Reusnow’s left ear during the attack. He was evacuated from the field and returned home. It is believed Reusnow was wearing this coat when he was wounded, and that the staining on the left collar, shoulder, and sleeve is his blood. Because the Army required officers to purchase their own uniforms, Lieutenant Reusnow kept his coat as a reminder of his World War I service.3

Lieutenant Dyer of the 77th Division's 302d Engineers wore this nonstandard rain or “trench” coat. On the back, he painted the 77th Division's shoulder sleeve insignia above an Engineer Corps castle, and also worked his regimental and divisional designation into the motif. This coat typifies commercially produced and privately procured rainwear worn by American officers in World War I. Because regulations remained vague as to the look of such garments, officers wore those made in a simple, military style.4

Draftees from New York made up the 77th Division. The division was heavily involved in the Oise-Aisne and Meuse-Argonne Offensives, and it suffered over 2,000 fatalities and 8,000 wounded during its service in France.5


Model 1917 Trench Boots featured strengthened soles and hobnails for better traction compared to earlier versions. Lobell applied a waterproofing agent, known as dubbin, to his shoes in order to overcome one of this model’s functionality issues. Corporal Lobell wore these boots during the war.

The Illinois National Guard formed the 33d Division and it served with the British and French through the Somme, St. Mihiel, and Meuse-Argonne Offensives, and in the Amiens, Troyon, and Verdun sectors in France. It suffered nearly 1,000 fatalities and 6,000 wounded during the ninety-eight days it was in the front lines.

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General Buck wore this protective helmet during his World War I service with the 1st Division. In June 1917, he took command of the 1st Division’s 28th Infantry. In August, he received a promotion to brigadier general and assumed command of the division’s 2d Infantry Brigade, which he led during the battles of Cantigny and Soissons. General Buck received yet another promotion to major general in 1918, and he commanded the 3d and 34th Divisions. He received the Distinguished Service Cross for his extraordinary heroism at the Battle of Berzy-le-Sec, 21 July 1918.

The British, French, and Germans had issued distinctive steel helmets to their troops by 1916. After entering the war, the United States adopted the British Mark I helmet. The Army provided these to the doughboys until the production of an American version got underway. With only minor differences in the liner, chin strap, rim around the brim, and exterior finish, American-made Model 1917 helmets mirrored the design of the Mark I helmets.

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Lieutenant Morrison used this Kinglet whistle during his World War I service. Popularized by European forces during the war, whistles such as this often signaled the start of an assault or rallied soldiers to the point of attack. Its chain and hook allowed the whistle to be attached to a soldier’s uniform. The level of an officer’s command responsibilities—platoon, company, or battalion—dictated which of three trench whistles he used: the thunderer, kinglet, or siren. Each had a distinctive sound that could be recognized easily on the battlefield.\footnote{“War Whistles History: Whistles Used in WWI by British, German, and Commonwealth Forces,” War Whistles, accessed 30 April 2018, https://www.warwhistles.com/ww1-whistles-history.html.}
Sergeant Rings carried this gas mask during his service in the AEF. The accompanying record card notes that the Army issued the mask to Rings in August 1918 and he experienced a mustard gas attack while wearing it in October in either the Ban-de-Sapt or Saint-Dié sectors.

Sergeant Rings personalized the carrier for his mask by drawing the division’s “wildcat” insignia on it and by recording locations where he served. American companies produced “corrected” gas masks such as this one beginning in May 1917. The masks were meant to resist the effects of gas better than the previously issued British small box respirator.12

The Army assigned Lieutenant Hotchkiss to Battery D, 68th Artillery (Coast Artillery Corps), during the final weeks of World War I. The regiment was organized on Long Island, New York, in June 1918. It was still undergoing training in France at the time of the Armistice.

Recognizing the value of heavy artillery in breaking free of the trenches, the Army reorganized coast defense units in the United States into regiments for overseas service. Many of these came from the National Guard.

A haversack carried a soldier’s rations, toiletries, overcoat, poncho or raincoat, blanket, shelter-half, and extra clothing. Featured here is the Model 1910 Haversack with Pack Carrier. Lieutenant Hotchkiss’ haversack exhibits interesting coloration. Its pea-green shade (rather than the more standard khaki-colored olive drab) is the result of dye inconsistencies. World War I’s initiation in Europe curtailed the importation of dyes to the United States.

Lieutenant Hotchkiss carried a Pattern 1917 Corrected English Small Box Respirator Gas Mask Carrier. On the outside of his gas mask carrier, he prominently drew a 6-inch seacoast gun mounted on a field carriage. The Army equipped Hotchkiss’ regiment with such artillery, which it removed from U.S. coastal emplacements for use in the field.
In World War I, the Army removed guns (such as this one) meant to protect the coasts of the United States from their emplacements and mounted them on field carriages for use in France. The war ended, however, before any could be used in combat.

This is the type of gun and carriage Lieutenant Hotchkiss drew on the outside of his gas mask carrier.
Lieutenant Peak used this camouflage swatch book during his AEF service. The 23d Engineers was a road building unit. It consisted of four battalions of three companies each, six service battalions of four companies each, ten truck companies, and five wagon companies. Lieutenant Peak likely received this book as a sample of what camouflage materials were available for use by his unit.
The influence of the cootie on doughboys remained with them after the war and continues today. The Military Order of the Cootie was founded in 1920 and became an honor society of the Veterans of Foreign Wars in 1923.13


Body lice and pubic lice were commonplace during the First World War because of the close and often unsanitary living conditions at the front. Soldiers frequently referred to these parasites as cooties. Captain Knox, who may have served in the 77th Division, donated this pubic louse. On a note included with the item, Knox wrote: “An inhabitant of the Argonne Forest. The elusive Cootie.”

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Pubic Louse (Pthirus pubis), a “Cootie” (magnified 48×)
Capt. Robert W. Knox, 77th Division
Fort George G. Meade Museum, Fort Meade, Maryland

Veterans’ Membership Medal, Military Order of the Cootie, Veterans of Foreign Wars
U.S. Army Museum Support Center, Fort Belvoir, Virginia
The patriotically named “President Wilson” was one of the many homing pigeons that served in the U.S. Army Signal Corps during World War I. Born in France, his initial assignment was with the U.S. Army’s newly formed Tank Corps. He first saw action delivering messages for the 326th and 327th Tank Battalions commanded by Col. George S. Patton in the St. Mihiel Offensive. Assigned to the forward-most squad in the advance, soldiers released him from the turret of a tank to fly back to the pigeon loft with a message conveying the locations of enemy machine gun nests. Artillery could then be brought to bear before the infantry advanced.

Following this action, President Wilson supported an infantry unit, most likely the 78th Division, which conducted operations in the vicinity of Grandpré during the Meuse-Argonne Offensive. On the morning of 5 October 1918, his unit came under attack and heavy enemy fire. The unit released President Wilson to deliver a request for artillery support. Flying back to his loft at Rampont some forty kilometers away, he drew the attention of the German soldiers who fired on him in an attempt to shoot him down. Despite this challenge, President Wilson managed to deliver the lifesaving message within twenty-five minutes, an unmatched AEF speed record. When he landed, his left leg had been shot away and he had a gaping wound in his breast.

President Wilson survived his wounds and retired to the U.S. Army Signal Corps Breeding and Training Center at Fort Monmouth, New Jersey, where he led a quiet life until his death on 8 June 1929. After his death, he was preserved and mounted and presented to the Smithsonian Institution. In 2008, the Smithsonian returned him to the U.S. Army and he is now on exhibit at the Pentagon, just outside the office of the Chief of Staff of the Army.14

This kit holds a message book, pencils, and message capsules. When information needed to be transmitted, a soldier wrote it on the paper provided in the message book, then folded and placed into the message capsules, and then affixed the capsule to a pigeon’s leg.
Homing pigeon Cher Ami received this Croix de Guerre for heroism in combat in the Verdun sector. He famously carried the message that saved the 77th Division’s “Lost Battalion” during the Meuse-Argonne Offensive. The French awarded these medals to many American soldiers and even some animals for their notable wartime actions.
This wicker basket, or gondola, hung beneath an observation balloon and provided a platform for up to two soldiers to view enemy positions and activity. American forces used the stationary, French-designed Caquot kite balloon, which was effective in most weather conditions because of its finned design.

During World War I, the Army used aerial observers to locate targets and adjust artillery fire. Observation balloons filled with hydrogen normally operated at heights between 1,000 and 4,000 feet. The observers equipped the balloons with a large map board, binoculars, and telephones linking them to a firing battery.

Aircraft, antiaircraft machine guns, and artillery closely guarded the balloons and formed protective rings around them.15

The AEF organized a Tank Corps in 1917 in France. By 11 November 1918, five heavy battalions and ten light battalions existed, four of which had been in combat. While tank production in the United States was proceeding, very few American-made tanks reached France before the Armistice. The Army acquired all tanks used in combat by the AEF from our allies—heavy tanks from the British and light tanks from the French.16

Company C, 344th Battalion, Tank Corps, used this French-made, two-man tank during World War I. The battalion was part of the 1st Provisional Tank Brigade commanded by Col. George S. Patton. The tank was nicknamed “Five of Hearts” because of its identification markings. The French assigned suits and numbers from playing cards to identify tanks.

The Five of Hearts saw heavy combat in the Fléville sector during the Meuse-Argonne Offensive. During its support of the 16th Infantry of the 1st Division, the turret and 37-mm. gun mount became so jammed with bullets that they could not be used. Soldiers left the tank on the field of battle after the infantry secured the area, but later recovered it. In 1919, it was sent to Camp Meade—the U.S. Army Tank Corps Headquarters—as a memorial to the corps’ service in the First World War.

This gun fired the first American artillery round against German troops in World War I. Battery C, 6th Field Artillery, drew the gun from French stocks at Bathelémont near Lunéville, France, on the night of 22 October 1917. Personnel of the battery were so anxious to get off a shot at the enemy that they pushed the gun by hand through mud and shell holes for half a mile to get in position. At 0605 on 23 October, they fired their first shots. The gun saw further action in November 1917 and eventually fired more than 10,000 rounds before the Army removed it from service.17

Capt. Idas R. McLendon, the battery commander, realized the historic value of the gun and asked that it be sent to the United States for preservation. With written approval from General John J. Pershing, the AEF shipped the gun to the West Point Museum, arriving 1 June 1918.

This 75-mm. shell once contained vesicant agent yperite, or sulfur mustard, which both French and American forces used in World War I. Mustard gas, first used by the Germans at Ypres, Belgium, in August 1917, was the most prolific poison agent used in the last year of the war. This shell would have been fired from the French Army’s “Canon de .75-mm Mle 1897,” a rapid-fire gun also supplied to the American forces. Both American and French artillerists used this gun.18

The Livens Projector was a British-produced weapon designed to fire or “project” a cylindrical canister containing poison gas, high explosive, or incendiary oil into enemy positions. Soldiers typically buried them up to their muzzles when in firing position and discharged them electrically. The 1st Gas Regiment used this system.19

This watercolor painting by an unknown artist, titled *The Carrying Party*, depicts American soldiers carrying Livens Projector canisters to the front.

The standard rifle at the beginning of World War I, the AEF used this iconic firearm, along with the Model 1917 rifle, in France. Because the Army could not rapidly expand production of the Model 1903 rifle at Springfield Armory and Rock Island Arsenal, it adopted the Model 1917 Rifle as a supplement. The Army issued the Model 1903 rifles primarily to Regular Army divisions deployed to the fighting fronts.

A soldier of the 314th Infantry, 79th Division, used this .30-caliber rifle during World War I. The division trained at Camp Meade, Maryland, before deploying to France in July 1918. It participated in the Meuse-Argonne Offensive—the war’s last series of battles, during which the Army suffered nearly 7,000 casualties. This rifle was originally part of the 314th Infantry’s Log Cabin Memorial. The majority of soldiers in the AEF carried this firearm. American arms manufacturers produced this rifle based on the British Pattern 1914 “Enfield” Rifle. The U.S. military adopted the weapon because American arms manufacturers were already producing large quantities of Pattern 1914 Enfield Rifles under contracts with Great Britain. It was easier to add production of a .30-caliber variant than it was to retool to produce an entirely different weapon, such as the Army’s prewar standard rifle, the Springfield Model 1903.

The French military acquired the 8-mm. Chauchat to fill a need for a light automatic weapon that the infantry could carry into an attack. Because the U.S. military initially lacked a light machine gun, they armed themselves with the Chauchat on arriving in France. By 1918, the AEF began receiving the new Browning automatic rifle to replace the French weapon.
This reliable, air-cooled, heavy machine gun was standard in the French ranks during World War I. Like the Chauchat, many American soldiers used this French machine gun in the trenches. The soldiers also used them in the French-made Renault FT Light Tanks.
The Army needed increased firepower to make the planned 1919 “Grand Offensive” successful. John Pedersen developed an attachment that converted the slow-firing, bolt-action Model 1903 rifle into a semiautomatic simply by removing the bolt and placing his invention into the weapon’s receiver. When a soldier squeezed the trigger and fired a round, the device reloaded the next round for him. The Army modified the standard Model 1903 rifles for use with the Pedersen device mainly by adding an ejection port in the receiver’s left side and altering a portion of the stock. Even with this modification, the rifle could be fired with or without the Pedersen device.
The African American soldiers of the 93rd Division were assigned to divisions of the French Army and used this French rifle during combat duty. The doughboys of the 93d wore American uniforms, but the French armed and equipped them. The Model 1907/15 Berthier was the French Army replacement for its Model 1886 Lebel rifle. The Lebel had an eight-round tubular magazine under the barrel which had to be filled one round at a time. Although the Model 1907/15 had only a three-round en bloc magazine, a soldier could reload the magazine more smoothly and quickly with the use of clipped ammunition.
Lieutenant Erickson used this .45-caliber Colt pistol during his service. The Model 1911 offered a faster rate of fire and better stopping power over contemporary revolvers.

Lieutenant Erickson joined the Army before World War I and served in the 1st Provisional Training Regiment in Plattsburgh, New York. After the United States entered the war, Lieutenant Erickson departed for France from the Hoboken, New Jersey, Port of Embarkation on 7 September 1917. In France, the Army assigned him to the French Field Artillery School at Fontainebleau on arrival, and further to Battery F, 150th Field Artillery, 42d Division—a division comprised of National Guard units from numerous states. Lieutenant Erickson served with his unit in the Baccarat sector, the Champagne-Marne Defensive (during which he received a promotion to 1st Lieutenant), the Aisne-Marne Offensive, the St. Mihiel Offensive, and the Meuse-Argonne Offensive. After the cessation of hostilities, he served in the Allied occupation of Germany until 9 April 1919. Lieutenant Erickson arrived back in the United States on 25 April 1919 and was discharged on 27 May 1919 at Camp Devens, Massachusetts.
The U.S. Army developed and issued some specialized weapons for close-quarters combat in the trenches. Sergeant Cook used this Model 1917 trench knife with scabbard during the war. The knife featured a triangular blade that could easily penetrate uniforms and equipage, and a spiked guard that could serve as brass knuckles in a fistfight.

Sergeant Cook received the Distinguished Service Cross and French Croix de Guerre for locating and silencing enemy snipers and machine gunners during the Meuse-Argonne Offensive.
This map shows the Allied and German positions at 1100 on 11 November 1918, the hour of the Armistice. General John J. Pershing used the map at the AEF Advanced General Headquarters in Ligny-en-Barrois, France, and he presented it to the West Point Museum in June 1919.
WARTIME INNOVATIONS

World War I occurred during a period of immense technological innovation. Advancements in communications, transportation, and medicine all had a tremendous impact on the battlefield. The stalemate of the trenches, created by the employment of rapid-fire artillery, machine guns, and accurate small-arms fire, pushed the warring nations to devise new ways to fight. They all looked to utilize new technologies to gain an advantage on the battlefield. The rate of technological advancement increased so rapidly over the course of the war that many features common to warfare in 1914 were obsolete four years later.

The area that saw the greatest change was the continued adaptation of the internal combustion engine to warfighting. Armored combat vehicles, although envisioned earlier in the Army’s history, reached a stage of development and employment where they were able to affect a battle’s outcome. The arrival of motorized trucks had an impact on logistics, increasing speed and cutting down on the need for draft animals. Improvements in engine design and an increasing understanding of the mechanics of flight enabled armies to field newer and better aircraft every few months. Aviators perfected air-to-air combat and began conducting tactical ground support and strategic bombing missions. Reconnaissance aircraft and aerial photography provided intelligence to commanders on the ground, and also led to improvements in the art of camouflage.

Innovation also proved important in protecting soldiers on an increasingly deadly battlefield. Long after firearms had seemingly rendered personal body armor obsolete, protection for the individual again became paramount. Helmets for ground troops provided protection from shell fragments, and armies began experimenting with new forms of body armor, including special helmets for aviators and tank crews. The large-scale use of poison gas initiated the hurried development of defensive devices for both soldiers and animals on both sides of the lines. These hardware
innovations often went hand in hand with improved tactical doctrine and combined-arms capabilities.

While wireless telephone and radio systems were still too delicate, bulky, and heavy for frontline use, they eventually provided airplane-to-airplane and air-to-ground voice communications. Wire communications by both telephone and telegraph were the AEF’s preferred method for signaling at the front and behind the lines. Switchboards operated by the women of the Signal Corps Female Telephone Operators Unit greatly aided command and control. These advancements were a raw form of the interconnected, three-dimensional battlefield in which modern soldiers operate.

This chapter showcases examples from the Army’s historical collection of battlefield (and nonbattlefield) equipment used to overcome the difficulties of warfare as it developed in World War I.
The U.S. Army first experimented with armored cars during the Mexican Expedition from March 1916 to February 1917. Lt. George S. Patton converted three Dodge Model 30 touring cars into armored cars by attaching steel plates to their sides. The White Motor Company tested several armored car prototypes for the Army. The New York National Guard used the car featured here on the Mexican Border.

During World War I, the White Armored Car No. 2 served both French and American troops. It is essentially a 4 × 2 civilian car chassis with an armored superstructure and turret. A 4-cylinder, 36-horsepower White truck engine powers the vehicle. A Hotchkiss .30-caliber Model 1909 Benét-Mercié light machine gun was mounted in the turret. A crew of three operated the White Armored Car, which had a top speed of 21 mph and a range of 100 miles.1

While the AEF used British and French tanks in combat, tank development and experimentation was taking place in the United States. This experimental tank was meant to be a lightweight version of the British Mark IV and Mark V heavy tanks, which possessed acceptable trench crossing capabilities. Built by the Pioneer Tractor Company of Winona, Minnesota, it was nicknamed “Skeleton” because of the tubular support beams used to create its framework and its overall open design. Theoretically, projectiles would pass harmlessly between these supports.

The Skeleton tank weighs nine tons and is twenty-five feet long. The center compartment could hold a two-man crew and has armor a half-inch thick. The two four-cylinder engines in the central compartment propelled the tank at five miles per hour. Armament was to consist of a single .30-caliber machine gun, but was never mounted in the turret. Pioneer Tractor built only a single example of this tank for testing.2

A single-seat, single-engine aircraft, the French Nieuport 28C–1 pursuit airplane could reach speeds of 123 mph with a range of 180 miles. It was armed with one or two machine guns mounted on top of the engine cowling. Although not adopted by the French for combat, the Nieuport 28C–1 became the AEF’s first operational pursuit aircraft because of the lack of such planes in the U.S. Army inventory. The French and British supplied almost all the aircraft used by the U.S. Army Air Service.1

The airplane pictured came to the United States from France after World War I and the U.S. Army Aviation Museum acquired it in 1992. The museum restored it and painted it in colors and markings to represent an aircraft of the 95th Aero Squadron, U.S. Army Air Service, 1918. The 95th was one of several U.S. Army Air Service pursuit squadrons equipped with this model of Nieuport.

On 14 April 1918, 1st Lt. Douglas Campbell and 2d Lt. Alan Winslow of the 94th Aero Squadron each shot down a German fighter in their Nieuport 28C–1s. The two lieutenants were the first Army pilots to destroy enemy airplanes in combat. The most successful American ace of World War I, Capt. Edward V. “Eddie” Rickenbacker, started his combat career flying the Nieuport.4

Lieutenant Hammond was a U.S. Army aviator (observer) from Yonkers, New York. He served with French bomber squadrons Escadrille Breguet 117 and 108 in France from July to September 1918, flying in French Breguet 14 aircraft. While serving with Escadrille Breguet 117, the French cited Lieutenant Hammond for “devotion to duty” during a period of combat in which other American airmen flying with the Escadrille were killed in action. Lieutenant Hammond was credited with one aerial victory in August 1918.5

Lieutenant Creech was credited with seven aerial victories flying the British Sopwith Camel. He received both the U.S. Army Distinguished Service Cross and the British Distinguished Flying Cross. The 148th Aero Squadron was attached to the British Royal Air Force from July to October 1918, before its transfer to the U.S. Army Air Service's 4th Pursuit Group.6

The regulation wing badge is silver bullion on blue wool cloth. The “U.S.” on the face of the union shield is in gold. The U.S. Army Air Service originally specified the wing badge design for men qualified as military aviators. The Air Service designated it for junior and reserve military aviators in October 1917, after which military aviators received a star above the shield to show their seniority and greater experience.7 Lieutenant Creech's AEF identification card lists his duty as “flying officer.”

A soldier removed this fabric from the wing of the first German aircraft brought down by a U.S. Army Air Service pilot during World War I. First Lt. Douglas Campbell of the 94th Aero Squadron shot down the fighter while flying a French Nieuport 28C–1 near Toul, France.⁸

This diary belonged to Corporal Webber of Company C, 56th Engineers, a searchlight unit that was part of the U.S. Army Anti-Aircraft Artillery Service. This page of the diary includes Webber’s notes and drawings of tail shapes of aircraft from all of the warring nations. Aircraft recognition was one of the most important skills that had to be learned by the AEF’s anti-aircraft servicemen.
With the development of aerial warfare, a unique type of combat arm had to be organized, trained, and fielded quickly. The newly formed Antiaircraft Artillery Service of the U.S. Army mastered the complicated science of tracking and shooting down a moving object flying at a distance through the vastness of the sky.

Lieutenant Hagan wore this coat during the war. The coat is made of wool and features shoulder sleeve insignia representing the antiaircraft units assigned to the AEF’s First Army. Lieutenant Hagan began his military service with the 14th Infantry Regiment, New York National Guard. When the Army federalized the regiment in 1917, it used most of its men to form the 27th Division. Some like Lieutenant Hagan, however, filled ranks of other newly formed units. As an infantry officer, Lieutenant Hagan had been trained to use machine guns, and the Army subsequently assigned him to the 2d Antiaircraft Machine Gun Battalion. Arriving in France in June 1918, the unit entered combat in September 1918. During its time at the front, the battalion was credited with downing seventeen enemy aircraft.9

This SCR–75 was an early development of wireless radio telephone equipment for communicating between aircraft and from aircraft to the ground. The Western Electric Company, Inc. made this receiver.

Wireless telegraph and telephone communication had been under development by the U.S. Army Signal Corps before World War I. In 1911, a message had been transmitted from an Army aircraft over a distance of two miles. In 1912, this increased to fifty miles, and by 1916, an Army pilot sent messages from an airplane for a distance of 140 miles. Airplane-to-airplane communication had also been achieved.10

After official trials in December 1917, the Army ordered thousands of transmitter-receiver sets. The Army turned out the first systems in early 1918, well before the aircraft for which they were designed. The Army Signal Corps took some wireless equipment to France for testing under operational conditions. In addition to air-to-ground communications, a primary use for the wireless radio telephone system was to allow the commander of an air squadron to control the combat movements of his men in the air. The system also facilitated talk between a pilot and his observer in two-seat aircraft.11

11 Crowell, America’s Munitions, p. 574.
Beginning in November 1917, the U.S. Army Signal Corps recruited approximately 200 women who were fluent in both French and English to serve as telephone operators overseas. Most came from commercial telephone companies, but to obtain enough bilingual operators, the Signal Corps also accepted untrained volunteers who met the language requirement. These women, who were subject to Army orders, regulations, and discipline but considered civilian employees, became members of the Signal Corps Female Telephone Operators Unit, commonly known as “Hello Girls.” The service required them to purchase their own uniforms as specified by the Army, with Army insignia and buttons.

The first detachment of women left New York City in March 1918. Hello Girls operated AEF telephone exchanges in Paris, Chaumont, and seventy-five other cities and towns in France, as well as some in England. Some worked at First Army headquarters during combat operations—less than fifteen miles behind the front lines.

Hoppock was one of the Hello Girls who served in the Meuse-Argonne Offensive at First Army headquarters, Verdun, France. In 1978, Congress recognized the surviving Hello Girls with honorable discharges and veterans’ status. The photo of Hoppock is courtesy of the National World War I Museum and Memorial, Kansas City, Missouri.

This is an example of an overseas cap worn in France by a Hello Girl—a member of the Signal Corps Female Telephone Operators Unit. It is made of dark blue wool with the orange and white piping of the U.S. Army Signal Corps. Attached to the front is an unofficial Signal Corps souvenir pin—a bronze Signal Corps branch of service insignia (crossed signal flags and torch) with an added silver “U.S.”

The Army appointed a Chief of Tank Corps in 1917 in direct response to the changing style and technologies of war. In February 1918, the Army authorized a Tank Service and renamed it Tank Corps in March. The 301st Tank Battalion trained at Camp Meade, Maryland, and at British Tank Schools to operate the Mark V Heavy Tank.14 This steel helmet belonged to Sergeant Rosenhagen during World War I; he likely decorated it after the war. The front of the helmet is painted with the colors of the U.S. Army Tank Corps’ insignia: yellow to symbolize the cavalry’s speed; blue, the infantry’s strength; and red, the artillery’s firepower. The sides of the helmet are painted with tank unit insignia in French and British styles. The Army issued 400,000 of these British-produced protective helmets to its troops in France because initially it lacked American-made ones.15

The Army first assigned Tennessean David A. Pyle as an artilleryman after being drafted and then as an engineer. He volunteered for the heavy tank service of the new Army Tank Corps and shipped out with the 301st Tank Battalion in March 1918 for the Royal Tank Corps School in Wareham, England.

After six months of intensive tank training in the English school, the Army selected Pyle as a trainer and he did not accompany the 301st to France. Instead, he went to Bovington Camp in Dorset, England, where he trained American and British tankers on British Mark IV and Mark V heavy tanks. Pyle eventually went to the front in October 1918 and saw combat with the 9th British Tank Battalion during the Somme Offensive.

The U.S. Army issued this experimental tanker’s helmet to Sergeant Pyle for testing. The Army intended the quilted panels to prevent wounds from external impacts and “lead splash which finds its way into the tank from disintegrating rifle balls.” It is missing the sponge rubber ring that originally went around the crown. The Army Ordnance Department produced thirty of these helmets.¹⁶

The Army Ordnance Department formed a committee to research, develop, and design a new helmet to replace the British Mark I and American Model 1917 helmets being worn by U.S. troops. Dr. Bashford Dean, the Curator of Arms and Armor at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, led the committee. Commissioned a major, Dean used his vast knowledge of armor to develop prototypes of protective gear appropriate for modern trench warfare. The museum loaned its armor workshop, staff, and armor collection to the government for the duration of the war to support this effort.

Just before the Armistice, and in spite of numerous problems cited during testing, the Army declared the “Liberty Bell”—named for its shape—as the new standard-issue helmet. The test phase revealed that the helmet did not balance well, did not provide sufficient coverage, and that excess space on top added to its weight. Furthermore, it was difficult to manufacture because the design caused the sides to be very thin. The Army tested several types of liners, but chose one that exerted too much pressure on the head. Nevertheless, soldiers wearing them could be readily recognized as American troops, which was important during battle.

The Army made a few thousand in France at the order of the U.S. Army General Staff through the AEF Ordnance-Engineering Equipment Section. The doughboys wore some in the field, but they were not popular. The ending of the war canceled its adoption as the standard American helmet.17

17 Ibid., pp. 232–33.
This heavy helmet is an experimental model developed for testing by Major Dean's committee. It was meant to protect observers or machine gunners, but was not practical for more mobile soldiers. The Army produced a small batch made of nickel-manganese steel and sent them to France in three weights: eleven, fifteen, and eighteen pounds. Testing found that the heaviest helmet would help protect a soldier from rifle fire at 150–200 yards.

Its design is reminiscent of heavy siege helmets worn extensively throughout Europe during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. It has a three-pad lining and its sides are hinged with a latch in the front to secure them. Although experiments found that it could be worn for a considerable length of time without "grave discomfort," the AEF testing resulted in adverse reports on its possible use.18

18 Ibid., pp. 218–19.
Major Dean and his committee also developed different types of experimental body armor, but the Army adopted none for service. The Army directed the committee to consider both heavy and light armor designs. The criteria for the light armor stipulated that it should cause minimal discomfort and must protect advancing infantry against projectiles and shell fragments of low to medium velocity. The light armor shown here was developed in response to that request.

This experimental version weighs eight-and-a-half pounds. Three plates connected by leather straps with a groin protector attached to the bottom plate form the front. Four plates, also connected by straps, comprise the back. Both the back and front assemblies could be adjusted for size by removing one of the plates. Padded front and back plates lessened the harm from projectile impact indentations.  

19 Ibid., pp. 248–53.
Because of the use and progression of chemical weapons during World War I, the Army made continuous efforts to improve American protective equipment. An upgraded French gas mask, the Tissot, was the impetus for the development of a U.S. gas mask that would be superior to the British-type mask used by the Americans. The Tissot improved on earlier British masks by jettisoning the irritating mouthpiece and nose clip, eliminating fogged lenses, and improving verbal communication. Despite these enhancements, it was made of thin gum rubber, it was complicated and fragile, and its filter was too large.

As the leader in American gas protection research, development, and production, the Long Island Gas Defense Plant sought to produce a mask like the Tissot that would be airtight and rugged. In August 1918, two prototypes for a new type of mask without mouthpiece or nose clip were ready for testing. One of these was the Kops-Tissot (KT) mask, designed under the direction of Maj. Waldemar Kops. The KT mask provided the same protection as the old masks, and was airtight, (relatively) comfortable, and durable. By the end of the war, a few hundred thousand KT masks had been produced.20

Horses proved to be more resistant than men to the toxic gases used in World War I. Research at the laboratories of the Long Island Gas Defense Plant showed that horses could be injured by other chemical agents, their eyes did not water when exposed to tear gases. As horses do not breathe through their mouths, researchers considered it only necessary to protect and cover the animal’s nostrils. The design for the horse gas mask adopted for use in France was a nose bag made up of many layers of chemically treated gauze and flannel. The 377,881 horse masks manufactured by the Gas Defense Plant for AEF use also protected mules.21

21 Crowell, America’s Munitions, p. 430.
Mary Merritt Crawford, the only female doctor at the American Ambulance Hospital in Neuilly-sur-Seine during the war, observed: “A war benefits medicine more than it benefits anyone else. It’s terrible, of course, but it does.”1 During World War I, advancements were made in antiseptics, anesthesia, physical therapy, facial reconstruction, prosthetics, and blood transfusions. Medical personnel also improved their ability to recognize post-traumatic stress, commonly known during the period as shell shock. The triage process also evolved over the course of the war to become much more systematic.

One of the most pivotal medical advancements during World War I was not in medicine itself, but in transporting the wounded. Because of conditions in the trenches, a wounded soldier’s life often depended on whether he could be evacuated before infection set in. Wounds were exposed quickly to bacteria in the trenches, often resulting in gas gangrene or other dangerous infections. The use of motorized ambulances increased the speed at which the wounded could be evacuated, thus increasing their chance of survival.

Conditions in the trenches were hazardous even to healthy soldiers. Pests such as rats and lice—and the bacteria that they carried—plagued soldiers. For example, lice-borne bacteria caused trench fever. Prolonged exposure to cold, wet conditions resulted in trench foot, which caused necrosis if left untreated. The close quarters and rapid troop movements also hastened the spread of influenza during the 1918 flu pandemic.

Motivated by a great sense of duty inherent to their profession, medical personnel volunteered to serve in World War I in considerable numbers. Even before the United States’ entry into the war, numerous American medical professionals had volunteered their services to the Allies, serving as physicians, ambulance drivers, nurses, and reconstruction aides. On many occasions, male and female medical personnel alike

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found themselves working close to or at the front, living in bunkers and makeshift
tents with few comforts and at great peril to themselves. They experienced the horror
of sustained artillery barrages and the debilitating effects of poison gas, all while
caring for soldiers and civilians.

This section showcases the articles used by these resilient men and women—
items that extended life or provided comfort. Whether the items were for the sick or
the dying, the war could not have been fought, or won, without them.
In 1918, the Army created a standardization board to consolidate the procurement of motor vehicles. The Army chose General Motors Corporation (GMC) and Ford chassis as standards for ambulances. The GMC 1916 Model AA had a 22.5-horsepower, four-cylinder engine and a three-speed transmission.

When the United States entered the First World War, many American volunteers were already in Europe serving with the French in ambulance units. France was concerned about the loss of these volunteers, and asked the United States to help ensure that the vital battlefield services provided would be unaffected. Both countries agreed to the American volunteer ambulance units being incorporated into the American Army as part of a new U.S. Army Ambulance Service (USAAS). These units would continue to provide the French Army necessary assistance at the front and be subject to recall for service with American units.

The USAAS was created 23 June 1917. The Army set officer authorization for the USAAS at 203 in 160 sections. This quickly became 214 officers and 169 sections. These sections supported divisions at 1 per 10,000 combat soldiers.

Crowell, America’s Munitions, p. 499.
Sergeant Whiteman served as an ambulance driver in World War I. The number of personnel in medical-related units exploded during the war because the need was so great. The Army needed ambulance drivers in divisional ambulance companies and for sanitary trains, hospitals, and the new USAAS ambulance sections.

This collection includes Whiteman’s Medical Department sergeant’s chevrons and Geneva Convention Red Cross brassard. The knitted items here—wristlets, balaclava helmet, and sweater—are examples of things made by civilian Red Cross volunteers. During the war, the government asked civilians to knit warm apparel for use by soldiers at home and abroad. American women responded, dutifully knitting items like these.

Items shown are not to scale.
Private Mandracchia wore this nonstandard identifying vest as a stretcher bearer and medical orderly in World War I. Stretcher bearers transported wounded men at field hospitals to ambulance trains for evacuation to other treatment facilities further behind the front lines. Private Mandracchia served in the St. Mihiel and Meuse-Argonne Offensives in 1918. His diary entries indicate that his field hospital moved at a moment’s notice, often marching miles at night to relocate in preparation for a planned assault the next day.
Adopted shortly before the United States entered the war, this is an example of the belt worn in the field by enlisted personnel of the U.S. Army Medical Department as part of their combat equipment. Its ten pockets contained the items necessary to perform the medical soldier’s first aid mission. It replaced the Hospital Corps pouch in use since 1898 and the War with Spain.

The supplies carried in the belt’s pockets included gauze bandages, sublimate gauze, individual field dressings, iodine swabs, safety and straight pins, adhesive plaster, spirits of ammonia, and a field tourniquet. Each item was intended to be carried in a specific pocket.

Attached to the belt is a pouch containing forceps, scissors, pencil with cap, and diagnosis tags; a canteen hanger with Model 1910 canteen cover, canteen, and cup; and a Model 1910 hand ax in a Model 1910 carrier.5

In 1916, Congress passed the National Defense Act, prompting the Army to reorganize its Dental Corps. The act also gave authorization for the Army Dental Reserve Corps. From July 1917 to May 1919, the Dental Corps treated almost 1.5 million soldiers of the AEF for a variety of dental conditions. By 1920, Dental Corps officers could be found across Europe in England, France, Belgium, Germany, Russia, and Poland.6

This dental tool set belonged to Colonel Anthony. It includes four tools, the handles of which are made of ebony and the working surfaces of ivory.6

Elizabeth Lewis of Maine served as a nurse overseas in several hospitals in France. By 1917, the Army had standardized the overseas indoor and outdoor uniforms for the Army Nurse Corps. For outdoors, the Army required a blue wool serge Norfolk suit, a fur felt hat, blue silk shirtwaist, and an overcoat. Creston in Paris made the velour hat.7

As the U.S. Army had no experience in physical therapy programs early in 1917, the Surgeon General of the Army convened a committee of Army medical officers to study and report on the program conducted in British Army hospitals. In August 1917, the Army established the Division of Special Hospitals and Physical Reconstruction. The Army began recruiting women to become Reconstruction Aides, as Army physical therapists were first known. They retained their status as civilians, but were subject to Army regulations. The Army had assigned approximately eighty physical therapists to the AEF by the end of 1918.8

Ethel Gray of Westbrook, Maine, who wore this cape, served in France during World War I as a Reconstruction Aide at the U.S. Army Medical Department Base Hospital 114 near Bordeaux. The Army organized Base Hospital 114 at Camp Crane in Allentown, Pennsylvania, in March 1918, and it operated in France from June 1918 to May 1919. The photo of Ethel Gray is courtesy of the U.S. Army Women’s Museum Archives.

Reconstruction Aides, known as occupational therapists today, worked closely with orthopedists. They assisted men who had been wounded and who needed help in regaining their physical strength and stamina to work toward a vocation.9

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Advancements in medical science, a greatly expanded U.S. Army, poor sanitary conditions in the front lines and rest areas of France, and the anticipation of many casualties required the adoption of new equipment for clothing disinfection and surgical dressing sterilization.

The Army tested portable disinfectors in 1916 during the Mexican Expedition. During World War I, the Army extended their use to evacuation hospitals and base hospitals lacking fixed disinfectors. These portable units used steam and formaldehyde to kill infectious organisms such as lice. Medical personnel also used them to sterilize surgical dressings in large quantities. The portable disinfectors could be towed by horses or trucks to rest areas to fumigate the clothing of soldiers just out of the front lines.

The American Sterilizer Company of Erie, Pennsylvania, made this example. The cylindrical boiler is used to generate steam, and there is a formaldehyde generator located below the large chamber that held uniforms being disinfected.10

This pencil-on-paper drawing depicts a typical sight at the front: searching for body lice. Lice were commonplace during the First World War because of the close and often unsanitary living conditions at the front. Soldiers frequently referred to these insects as cooties. For more of Baskerville’s war sketches, see Chapter Five of this volume’s companion, *The Great War: U.S. Army Art*.
LOGISTICS

When the United States entered World War I, one of the greatest challenges facing the Army was logistics. Before the war, the Quartermaster Corps (QMC) was responsible for all transportation activities of the Army, including motorized transportation. The QMC supplied a relatively small force located mostly on American soil. However, major changes were necessary to meet the Army’s wartime need of rapid expansion, modernization, deployment, and support. Logistical challenges included a lack of facilities and materiel, poorly constructed and maintained rail and shipping networks, maintenance of the Army’s growing fleet of motor vehicles, and the overworking of draft animals. During the war, the Army created a separate Motor Transport Corps and a Transportation Service to relieve the QMC of some of its numerous and varied missions.

Following these early challenges to the supply and transportation systems, the AEF’s Services of Supply (SOS) developed even more effective mechanisms for maintaining supplies and facilities and transporting soldiers and supplies in Europe. To ensure that they properly identified and utilized the AEF’s resources, SOS surveyed infantry units arriving in France for soldiers with backgrounds in carpentry, bricklaying, masonry, blacksmithing, plumbing, and other trades. The SOS then reassigned these soldiers to build and maintain logistics bases. The SOS’s divisions comprised “base sections” that included water ports for receiving supplies; “intermediate sections” for storing supplies and materiel; and “advanced sections” for distributing of supplies to units. The SOS was also responsible for operating ports, regulating rail lines, producing and distributing food to the troops, maintaining motor and horse-drawn vehicles, supporting hospitals, and milling the lumber required to build camps and other facilities.1 With over 600,000

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personnel in its ranks by the end of the war, the SOS constituted the single largest command within the AEF.

Logistical artifacts from World War I in the Army’s collection are some of the most diverse: from cans and crates of food to rolling kitchens, cargo trucks, and railway construction equipment. This chapter explores all of them and more.
The USS Leviathan transported over 100,000 American soldiers to and from France. The Leviathan was a German-built passenger liner that the United States seized in 1917 and the U.S. Navy operated. This life ring was originally part of the 314th Infantry, 79th Division’s Log Cabin Memorial collection, and is believed to have been taken from the ship by a soldier of the regiment. The Leviathan transported the 314th Infantry to France in the summer of 1918.²

First under the QMC of the U.S. Army and later as a separate organization, the Transportation Service handled troop transport to the theater of war. A quartermaster agent was responsible for all supplies to feed troops on transports, including mess equipment such as this teacup.
The Army used this crate to ship and store bacon produced by Swift and Company. It was destined for issue to AEF troops in France. It is made of pine with tin strapping. One end of the crate features the QMC and commissary symbols. On the side is the unique triangular AEF transportation and shipping marking showing its European destination.

*Bacon Shipping Crate, 1918*  
U.S. Army Quartermaster Museum, Fort Lee, Virginia
This insulated, thermos-type container played the important role of getting hot food up to U.S. troops on the front lines. The French used a five-gallon container called the “Marmite norvégienne.” The United States procured the French-made containers, and also began producing their own. Landers, Frary, and Clark of New Britain, Connecticut, patented and produced the example shown in 1917. The Armistice stopped development of a similar container that could be carried on a soldier’s back.
Made by the American Compressed Food Company of Passaic, New Jersey, in 1904, the Army issued emergency rations like this to the AEF troops. It consists of three three-ounce cakes of powdered meat and cooked wheat, and three one-ounce chocolate bars. The can is labeled with instructions for serving, and states that it should not be opened “except by order of an officer or in extremity.” The Army intended each ration to supply a soldier with enough food energy for a day. The main purpose of the emergency ration was to ensure that a soldier had food available when regular supplies could not be provided. Sometimes, however, the AEF simply used the emergency provisions to supplement other rations in a soldier’s diet. Manufacturers halted production of these rations after the Armistice.
During World War I, the U.S. Army began fielding a new mobile kitchen, one that could deliver hot food to the front and could allow food to be prepared onsite. By 1918, the Army developed a standardized design and produced two versions: one horse-drawn and the other motor vehicle–towed. The 27th Division used this particular example of a motor vehicle–towed rolling field kitchen in France during the war.
The four-mule or four-horse U.S. Army Escort Wagon dates from the mid-1890s, when it replaced the Army four- and six-mule transport wagons. Employed up through the 1930s, the escort wagon changed little in those forty years. The wagon saw service throughout the American West, transporting supplies to remote areas. Along with motor vehicles, the Army used it in 1916 during the Mexican Expedition. It was also a mainstay of transportation in France in World War I. Despite the introduction of standardized trucks, the AEF still depended on animal-drawn wagons.
A pioneering vehicle in the motorization of the U.S. Army, the design of the Standard B cargo truck began in August 1917. The first two samples were completed by 10 October of the same year. By 1 December 1918, American auto manufacturers had produced 17,089 Standard B cargo trucks and shipped 8,863 of them overseas.\(^3\)

This one is a Continental Motors Company–produced 3-ton, 4 × 2, Standard B model Liberty Truck, equipped with a Hinkley engine. The rear tires have been modified on this piece—they are not the original 40 × 6-inch dual tires, but single 40 × 16-inch tires.

Many of the vehicles used by the AEF were not of U.S. manufacture. The AEF used more than 200 different European makes and models of all types of motor vehicles.\(^4\)

\(^4\) Ibid., p. 499.
African American troops, along with African American and white officers, comprised the 508th Engineer Battalion, an engineer service unit. The AEF employed engineer service units in a wide variety of tasks just behind and sometimes in the front lines. One of their most important tasks was clearing and repairing roads that had been damaged by enemy action, so that men and supplies kept flowing.

This pattern 1911 Squad Surplus Bag carried extra clothing not carried in each soldier's haversack. According to the 1917 version of the Manual for Noncommissioned Officers and Privates of Infantry of the Army of the United States, each soldier was to have a surplus kit consisting of one pair of breeches, one pair of drawers, one shirt, one pair of shoes, two pairs of socks, one undershirt, and one pair of shoelaces. In addition, the bag carried a squad rifle cleaning kit. Each squad surplus bag could hold eight individual soldiers' surplus kits and a unit's motorized or animal-drawn transport carried the bags.5

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Sergeant Mumley, of the Réserve Mallet, wore this coat during World War I. Some Americans who volunteered in 1917, before the United States entered into the war, joined the French Transport Service, Automobile Reserve, also known as the Reserve Mallet. Once the United States declared war against Germany, it enlisted this force into the American service. It was one of the auxiliary elements already in France around which the AEF developed its transport system.6

On the left shoulder of the coat is the Réserve Mallet shoulder sleeve insignia: a gold-colored hunting horn on a green shield. Although adopted and worn by the men of the Réserve Mallet, the AEF never approved this insignia.

Much like those for officers, the Army had adopted the style of coats most worn by enlisted soldiers during World War I in 1911. They were made of either olive drab wool or cotton cloth, and in the form of a “single-breasted sack coat.” They featured “standing”-style collars, four exterior “patch”-type pockets, and “plain” sleeve cuffs.7

Between 1912 and 1919, the Army adopted five more patterns of wool service coats. Changes from previous iterations consisted of increased wool weight for coat bodies, stronger thread and sewing techniques, simplified construction, and cheaper materials. Because a soldier took only the wool uniform into the trenches, each new pattern had to increase warmth and usability, yet save in production costs.

Lapelled, roll-collar coats replaced World War I-style coats in 1926.8

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Before the organization of the U.S. Army Motor Transport Corps during World War I, Army motor transport functions came under the QMC. This wool-felt top portion of a pillow cover reflects that relationship through the use of the QMC insignia. The remains of a small silk American flag are at the upper left.

The Army organized hundreds of Motor Truck Companies/Motor Transport Companies for World War I service. The 327th Motor Truck Company (later Motor Transport Company 327) was active from September 1917 through December 1919.9

Souvenir Pillow Cover, Motor Truck Company 327
U.S. Army Transportation Museum, Fort Eustis, Virginia

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Driving Goggles
Cpl. George Rea, Motor Truck Company 429, 412th Motor Supply Train, Services of Supply
U.S. Army Transportation Museum, Fort Eustis, Virginia

Goggles were a necessity in the open driving compartments of World War I trucks. This pair has orange-tinted glass lenses set in metal rims mounted into a leather face piece. Cotton padding is along the edges of the face piece. This example is missing its strap.
In 1918, in order to ease the burden of transportation activities on the QMC, the Army organized the Motor Transport Corps. It designed and produced organizational insignia for officers and enlisted men of the new corps. This 1918 officer’s collar insignia is a truck wheel and tire with eight spokes. Mercury’s winged hat is superimposed on the wheel. The tire is silver.


A private company produced these unofficial chevrons for noncommissioned officers (NCOs) of the rank of corporal in the Motor Transport Corps. Although the AEF did not authorize the branch device to be a part of Motor Transport Corps NCO chevrons, soldiers purchased and wore them all the same.11

During World War I, the branch of service color for the personnel of the Motor Transport Corps was purple. Service hat cords and overseas cap piping were in that color. However, the Army did not authorize the purple stripes on this chevron. They are quite unusual.

By the end of August 1917, nine newly organized U.S. Army engineer railway regiments, recruited largely from workers on the nation’s private railroads, had arrived in France. The Army initially assigned several of the railway regiments to the British or French. While serving with the British southwest of Cambrai, France, on 5 September 1917, artillery fire wounded Sgt. Matthew Calderwood and Pvt. William Branigan of the 11th Engineers, a standard-gauge railway construction regiment. They were the first casualties in any U.S. Army unit serving at the front in Europe. The work of engineer troops who served in France in 1917 and 1918 contributed to frontline and rear-support efforts. Combat engineers constructed narrow-gauge railroads at or immediately behind the front. Engineer railway regiments built and maintained 800 miles of standard-gauge rail lines, plus an equal distance in railyards and storage tracks. Other units repaired locomotives and equipment. Railway engineer units were also at terminus and regulating stations, where they unloaded supplies from trains and moved and distributed them to units at the front.12

Shown are some examples of track laying equipment used by engineer units: standard track gauge, drill bit, track jack, spiking maul, metal punch, track drill, and track tongs.

Items shown are not to scale.

When the United States declared war on Germany in 1917, the U.S. Army was a constabulary force of just over 127,000 men, with another 80,000 federalized National Guardsmen to augment its numbers. To meet the personnel requirements of the modern battlefield, the Army needed to expand rapidly. Not only did the U.S. government increase the size of the Regular Army and federalize the remainder of the National Guard, but it also implemented a new form of national conscription known as Selective Service. Over 24 million American men had to register for Selective Service, and the Army drafted roughly 2.8 million of them over the course of the war. Soldiers entered the Army from all classes, ethnicities, races, and localities, growing the service to over four million by the war’s end.

Soldiers’ duties varied widely, from fighting to maintenance, each of which helped the Army function. Some soldiers were in the action as infantrymen, cavalrymen, artillerymen, and engineers, while others served important roles such as medical orderlies, cooks, postal couriers, supply clerks, repairmen, laborers, stevedores, butchers, and gardeners. Included in the ranks were Native Americans, Hispanic Americans, and African Americans, along with a large number of immigrants. Professionals served alongside the working class in an army that—with the glaring exception of segregating African Americans—embodied the democratic spirit of the nation.

This chapter includes objects that reminded soldiers of home and that reflected pride in their service and unit. Some of the artifacts shown here are uniforms that the men wore home, proudly displaying the honorable discharge red stripe and the gold chevrons of overseas service. It also includes items treasured by the families of soldiers who died in service, whether in combat or from illness, as a way to keep their memory alive.

This chapter also features artifacts related to the lives and contributions of the officers who had an impact on the Army and the nation in the First World War. The Army officer corps consisted of 9,693 commissioned officers when the nation
went to war. That number increased to over 203,000 by 11 November 1918. From the most junior second lieutenant in his first billet to general and field grade officers commanding the armies, corps, and other units of the AEF, the war required U.S. Army officers to adapt and learn new ways of combat on a grand scale. While events in 1918 required many insufficiently trained officers to go into combat with their men, many were able to adapt quickly and provide solid leadership. As a group, the American officers of World War I guided their soldiers to fight alongside the Allies in a mass, industrial war.
A West Point graduate, Pershing served on the U.S. western frontier and commanded the 10th Cavalry (also known as “Buffalo Soldiers”). He also served in the Philippines, where his success led to promotion from captain to brigadier general. In 1916 and 1917, he led the Mexican Expedition against rebel leader Francisco “Pancho” Villa.

General Pershing commanded the AEF in France from 1917 to 1919, and from 1921 to 1924 he was the Chief of Staff of the Army. Hazel Steinkamp painted this portrait from life following the war.
General Pershing was presented with this sword and scabbard and a case for them in 1920. The firm Cady & Olmstead Jewelry Co., of Kansas City, Missouri, manufactured them.

The sword, based on the design for the U.S. Army Model 1902 Officer’s sword, has an eighteen-karat gold hilt. The grip is inscribed “Lafayette, we are here.” There are scroll etchings on the blade with “U.S.” on the left side and an eagle and “E Pluribus Unum” on the right side.

The gold scabbard has integral plaques along its length. Starting from the drag the inscriptions on the plaques are: “Born Sept. 13, 1860 - Cadet U.S.M.A. July 1, 1882 - Second Lieutenant July 1, 1886 - First Lieutenant Oct. 20, 1892 - Captain Feb. 2, 1901 - Brig. General Sept. 20, 1906 - Major General Sept. 26, 1916 - General Oct. 6, 1917.” Inscribed near the top is “General John J. Pershing from his friends in ‘OLD MISSOURI.’” The State of Missouri coat of arms appears on the left side of the scabbard along with the year MDCCCXX.

The case for the sword is covered in black leather and has a brass plaque on top inscribed “General John J. Pershing, Washington D.C., U.S.A.” Inside rests a sword knot made of gold metallic thread.
As commander of the forces sent to Europe in 1917, General Pershing successfully resisted efforts by France and England to amalgamate American troops into their armies.

Pershing had this coat made in England. The eagle devices on the collar, along with the four stars on the shoulders, clearly denotes his rank. On this coat, he pinned only his ribbon for the U.S. Army Distinguished Service Medal—one of the first ever awarded.

*Pattern 1912 Service Coat*
General John J. Pershing, 1917
West Point Museum, West Point, New York
This vehicle is one of the special overseas limousines built by the Locomobile Company of America especially for General Pershing’s use in France. This example never made it to France, but Pershing used it in Washington, D.C., and during an inspection tour of Aberdeen Proving Grounds, Maryland. The special overseas limos had distinctive V-shaped windshields to reduce wind resistance.

The photo depicts General Pershing, just left of center, with a Locomobile special overseas limousine, circa 1920. Note the distinctive V-shaped windshield and the four-star automobile plate. The location shown in the image has not been identified.
This identification flag flew from staff cars in which General Pershing rode. It identified the automobile as carrying the commander in chief of the AEF.
This Model 1917 Steel Helmet and Pattern 1917 Wool Service Coat belonged to Cpl. Alvin York of the 82d Division, the most famous American soldier of World War I. On 8 October 1918, during the Meuse-Argonne Offensive, he captured 132 Germans, including one field grade officer, and killed twenty-five enemy soldiers. For his actions, he received a promotion to sergeant and was awarded the Medal of Honor. His citation reads:

After his platoon had suffered heavy casualties and three other non-commissioned officers had become casualties, Corp. York assumed command. Fearlessly leading seven men, he charged, with great daring, a machine-gun nest which was pouring deadly and incessant fire upon his platoon. In this heroic feat the machine-gun nest was taken together with four enemy officers, 128 men and several guns.1

York wore this steel helmet in action. The service coat dates from his postwar Victory War Bond drive and his Medal of Honor tour across the United States. The archival image of Sgt. York is courtesy George Grantham Bain Collection of the Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division.

1 Stringer, Heroes All, p. 26.
North Carolina–born 2d Lt. David S. Grant was killed in action at Saint-Thibault, France, on 5 August 1918 during the Second Battle of the Marne. The 4th Division, organized in late 1917, was part of the Regular Army. Lieutenant Grant posthumously received the Distinguished Service Cross in 1929 for extraordinary heroism resulting in his death in action. The citation reads:

While leading his platoon in an attack upon the enemy’s fortified position, with utter disregard for his own personal safety, Lieutenant Grant advanced steadily at the head of his platoon through severe machine gun and artillery fire, thereby being an inspiration to his men. When the order was given to continue the advance in small detachments, Lieutenant Grant led the first of these against the enemy’s fire until he fell mortally wounded. Although he realized the seriousness of his wound, he refused to be cared for and directed the disposition of his platoon until he made the supreme sacrifice.1

Distinguished Service Cross and Distinguished Service Cross Citation Certificate—The Army established the award in 1918 for extraordinary and distinctive service in combat.

French Croix de Guerre—Awarded to Grant for heroism in combat. The French awarded this medal to many American soldiers during World War I.

Inventory of the Effects of Lieutenant Grant—The Army sent this listing of his personal property to his mother following his death.

Report of Death and Disposal of Remains of Lieutenant Grant—This form specified that Lieutenant Grant was buried on the battlefield at Saint-Thibault, France, the day he died. He was reinterred in the Aisne-Marne American Cemetery in late 1918.

Mark I Steel Helmet—The Army issued British-produced helmets to its troops in France because of the initial lack of American-made ones. Grant may have been wearing this helmet when he died.

Identification Tag—The Army officially began to identify individual soldiers through small metal tags in 1906. This tag conforms to specifications adopted in 1910. As the Army prescribed in 1917, it would have been worn as a pair. One tag was to be buried with the body and the other saved by the burial detail. This was likely the latter.

Photograph of Lieutenant Grant—This photo was likely taken in 1918 before Grant’s deployment overseas. The 2d Lieutenant insignia on the shoulder loops of his service coat help date this image to sometime after December 1917, when the Army had adopted such insignia.

Items not shown to scale.

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Edward Christopher Allworth of Battle Ground, Washington, joined the 60th Infantry, 5th Division, in 1917. Captain Allworth received the Medal of Honor for an action on 5 November 1918. His citation describes the action just days before the Armistice:

While his company was crossing the Meuse River and canal at a bridgehead opposite Clery-le-Petit, the bridge over the canal was destroyed by shell fire and Capt. Allworth’s command became separated, part of it being on the east bank of the canal and the remainder on the west bank. Seeing his advance units making slow headway up the steep slope ahead, this officer mounted the canal bank and called for his men to follow. Plunging in he swam across the canal under fire from the enemy, followed by his men. Inspiring his men by his example of gallantry, he led them up the slope, joining his hard pressed platoons in front. By his personal leadership he forced the enemy back for more than a kilometer, overcoming machine gun nests and capturing a hundred prisoners, whose number exceeded that of the men in his command. The exceptional courage and leadership displayed by Capt. Allworth made possible the re-establishment of a bridgehead over the canal and the successful advance of other troops.3

The postwar photo of Captain Allworth in uniform with his decorations is from the Edward C. Allworth Collection at the U.S. Army Heritage and Education Center.

3 Stringer, Heroes All, p. 17.
The Army awarded this U.S. World War I Victory Medal to Sergeant Major Snelsire. He survived six months of combat and five campaigns in France, but died of pneumonia during the influenza pandemic of 1918. His posthumously awarded Victory Medal has five battle clasps reflecting his combat service. An act of Congress established the U.S. version of the World War I Victory Medal in 1919.
This 319th Engineers souvenir regimental medal belonged to Captain Kerper. Only part of the 8th Division sailed to France before the Armistice and it was too late to see combat. The 319th Engineers arrived in October 1918 and immediately went to work on rear area construction projects. Sfc. Oscar Breidert of the 319th designed this medal and manufactured it in France. The ribbon’s stripes symbolize the numbers “3,” “1,” and “9.” The obverse of the medal shows Camp Pontanezen (the major construction project of the 319th Engineers during World War I), the Corps of Engineers Castle symbol, and the shoulder sleeve insignia of the 8th Division.4

This coat belonged to Lieutenant Whitehouse of the 1st Division. It has unusual French-inspired and French-made embroidered collar patches with Lieutenant Whitehouse's Corps of Engineers branch of service insignia and “U.S.” devices. It retains stylistic elements with more standard-pattern coats, such as brass hooks on its waist to hold a belt, which would be adopted in later service coats.

The pattern or style of coat worn most by officers during World War I was adopted in 1911. They were made of either olive drab wool or cotton cloth, and in the form of a “single breasted sack coat.” The coats featured “standing” style collars, four exterior “patch”-type pockets, and “plain” sleeve cuffs with a ½-inch brown (field grade officers) or black (General Staff Corps officers) braid.5

Because officers privately tailored and purchased their uniforms, the types of material used for them varied considerably, and unauthorized deviations from the regulation pattern occurred. Among the variations that are evident in contemporary images and surviving examples are British- and French-influenced high collars and long coat skirts. Such changes were often subtle but they occurred throughout the AEF and the postwar Army.

For officers serving in combat formations, the obvious differences between their uniforms and those of enlisted men made them readily identifiable to the enemy. Consequently, a number of officers acquired enlisted men’s uniforms for wear in the field, modifying them by adding cuff braid, officer collar devices, and rank insignia.

5 War Department, Office of the Quartermaster General, “1126, Specifications for Olive Drab Cotton Service Coats,” pp. 1–2, RG 92, NADC; War Department, Specifications for the Uniform of the United States Army, p. 14.
Captain Shons of Orange, New York, was a battery commander in the 351st Field Artillery of the 92d Division. The 92d was a segregated National Army division organized in November 1917 from draftees. General and field grade officers, and technical branch and artillery officers above the grade of first lieutenant, were white. The rest of the division’s commissioned officers, about 80 percent, were African Americans, as were the noncommissioned officers and enlisted men. The 351st Field Artillery organized and trained at Camp Meade, Maryland.

The 92d Division arrived in France in June and July 1918. The Army sent the division’s artillery to the AEF’s artillery training area to continue its preparation for combat. In October 1918, the artillery rejoined the 92d Division in the Marbache sector, where, according to official reports:

The splendid work of the artillery units soon showed itself in the effective support given in the capture of objectives taken from well-trained and seasoned soldiers—positions that had been organized and strengthened for more than four years.6

An excerpt from a noncommissioned officer’s diary describes the end of the fighting for the 351st Field Artillery:

NOVEMBER 11—4 A. M., and we are laying a hell of a barrage. The Infantries are to go over this morning and the whole forest screams with flying shells. About nine o’clock word reached us that this effort had failed—the doughboys were late going over and lost about five hundred men.

11 A. M., and we receive the following order:


“All firing will cease at 10:45 A. M., November 11, 1918. Battery Commanders will notify every man in their organization that they will under no conditions have any intercourse with the enemy in any way while the Armistice is in force.

“Battery Commanders will check up their Batteries and organize their positions. Find shelters for the men that are as comfortable as possible, but keep the organization in such shape that it can move on short notice.

By command of Major ---------”

The boys are mad with joy, but somehow it is hard to believe. Already some German soldiers are over this side conversing with the boys—“Le Guerre Finis.”7

Not all doughboys served overseas during World War I. Dewey R. Henness Sr. wore this pattern 1913 overcoat. He enlisted in the Army in May 1918. He served as a cook in the U.S. Army Medical Department post hospital at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. He remained a cook at the hospital until his honorable discharge in June 1919. A specialty chevron for Cook, which uses the device of a chef’s toque, is on the right sleeve.
Sergeant Day wore this pattern 1917 Wool Service Coat when he served in France as an explosive ordnance disposal specialist. The coat includes the shoulder sleeve insignia for First Army ordnance units, an ordnance sergeant rank chevron, two overseas service chevrons indicating at least one year’s service in the theater of operations, an honorable discharge chevron, and a ribbon bar for the World War I Victory Medal. The collar disks are a “U.S.” device and the Ordnance Corps insignia: a flaming bomb. Sergeant Day wore this coat at the time of his discharge from the U.S. Army.
Sergeant Higginbottom was a textile chemist in Lawrence, Massachusetts, before the war. Entranced by the Army's recruiting posters, he enlisted for service. Recalling his inspiration for enlisting, he remembered one poster that sought recruits for the “Hell Fire Regiment” and asked for “keen, red-blooded men who are desirous of seeing active duty” against the Germans. Sergeant Higginbottom was wounded in action by poison gas during the war.

The items shown here are Higginbottom's Pattern 1918 Overseas Cap and Wool Service Coat. The coat is a 1909 pattern, altered in early 1917 to meet the standards of the 1911 pattern. Older, superseded clothing items still on hand continued to be issued to the greatly expanding American Army. The shoulder sleeve insignia are for the First Army and the 1st Gas Regiment and the collar disk is for the Chemical Warfare Service.

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Personal Items
Capt. George S. Patton Jr.
General George Patton Museum, Fort Knox, Kentucky
Capt. George S. Patton Jr. was one of the first officers to sail to France in May 1917 with the advance party of General John J. Pershing, AEF Commander. An early and enthusiastic supporter of using tanks, he set up the AEF’s Light Tank School in France. In August 1918, he took command of the AEF’s 1st Provisional Tank Brigade, which became the 304th Brigade, Tank Corps, late in the war. Patton led the brigade into combat in the St. Mihiel Offensive and then in the Meuse-Argonne Offensive, where he was badly wounded.

The archival photo of Patton in front of a Renault tank is courtesy of the World War I Signal Corps Photograph Collection.

Tree Branch and Shell Casing Cane, 1917—This hardwood cane is made from a tree branch and parts of a 37-mm. shell casing and projectile. The typewritten description tag composed by Patton states: “Walking Stick made of the first tree knocked [sic] down by an American Tank in France in the Bois d’Amour in 1917. Feurel [Ferrule] and band made from 37m/m shell and case. Used by me in Battle to rally broken troops. In my hand when wounded.”

U.S. Army Tank Corps Shoulder Sleeve Insignia, 1918—This U.S. Army Tank Corps shoulder sleeve insignia is believed to be the original French-made example that resulted from a meeting that took place in 1918 to decide the design for the Tank Corps’ shoulder insignia. According to the donor of this item:

This confusion [to which branch tanks would belong] was settled by a meeting in early 1918. Participants . . . believed to have been G. S. Patton Jr., Sereno Brett, Elgin W. Braine, Harry H. Semmes and perhaps others. The major point is that these officers all originated from separate branches and accordingly could not agree on branch colors. The attached patch, recently discovered in the G. S. Patton, Jr. collection of papers, was the result. It is therefore the original armor patch and represents the colors of the three genuine combat arms [Artillery, Cavalry, and Infantry].

Nonstandard Pattern 1904 Wool Sweater, 1917—Patton wore this sweater during the war. The sweater is typical of knitwear worn in World War I that the Army procured from commercial manufacturers to quickly fill soldiers’ needs for warm clothing. Relief organizations like the Red Cross also supplied such items.

U.S. Army Tank Corps Officer’s Collar Insignia, 1918—Colonel Patton wore this bronze officer’s U.S. Tank Corps collar device on his service uniform during World War I. It shows the side view of a Mark VIII tank above two stylized dragons breathing fire over a wreath. This is the second design worn by the Tank Corps, replacing an earlier unpopular insignia adopted in 1917.

Items shown are not to scale.

* Interview at time of donation, curator with Maj Gen George Smith Patton (Patton’s son), 10 Feb 1987, on file with the artifacts at the George S. Patton Museum, Fort Knox, Ky.
The 81st Division is recognized as being the first AEF division to adopt shoulder sleeve insignia. Troops from the 81st were wearing the “wildcat” insignia when they arrived in France in 1918 from Fort Jackson, South Carolina. Despite General Pershing’s initial disapproval, this was the impetus for the AEF to develop designs for all of its divisions and other organizations. The different-colored wildcats and borders of the insignia identified subordinate elements of the 81st Division.¹⁰

Few soldiers actually wore shoulder sleeve insignia before the Armistice, but they quickly became a popular item among doughboys, who proudly displayed them on their uniforms at home.

Sergeant Silverstein wore this Red Cross brassard while serving as an ambulance driver with Evacuation Ambulance Company No. 69. This unit was in France from October 1918 to June 1919 and had been assigned to the Second Army and the IX Army Corps. The number 202184 on the brassard is the neutral/noncombatant control number.\(^1\)

An iconic item of the doughboy’s uniform, this pattern 1911 Service or Campaign hat belonged to Ferdinand S. Pilkington. It has an Infantry Branch of Service hat cord. The Army assigned Pilkington to a Depot Brigade. The Army organized these units at the major divisional cantonments in the United States where they received, housed, clothed, equipped, and trained recruits for divisions and elements of divisions. Depot Brigades also supported demobilization of units at the war’s end. The 163d supported twelve divisions at Camp Dodge during and after World War I.\textsuperscript{12}

General Bliss was the assistant chief of staff of the U.S. Army when America entered World War I. He later served as the chief of staff. He concurrently served as the American Permanent Military Representative on the Supreme War Council.

When on official visits to France and inspection tours to the front, the Army issued leaders such as General Bliss a trench helmet, either a British-made Mark I or a U.S.-made Model 1917. General Bliss had a bronzed officer's cap device added to the front of his helmet.

Following the signing of the Armistice in November 1918, General Bliss remained on the War Council and also served as plenipotentiary at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919.13

A veteran of the 92d Division decorated and brought home this helmet. His picture is shown alongside his helmet. Regrettably, his identity is unknown. The front of the helmet has been painted with the insignia of the 92d Division, a black buffalo on a round medium green background with a black border.

Model 1917 Trench Helmet, 92nd Division, 1918
National Infantry Museum, Fort Benning, Georgia
After the Armistice, to save shipping and storage space and costs, the Army gave soldiers of the AEF a helmet and gas mask to take home as souvenirs of the Great War.14 The soldiers began to decorate their helmets and gas mask carriers with their unit insignia.

This Model 1917 Steel Helmet belonged to Sgt. Dale McNally. The 2d Division had an extensive and colorful insignia system that identified the units within the division by different shapes and colors behind an American Indian profile and star emblem common to the whole organization.

Private Cusack’s pattern 1917 Wool Service Coat features early distinguishing markings for Military Police (MPs) of the AEF. Army MPs used Military Police brassards as early as 1914. The World War I MPs of the AEF wore additional identifiers. The Army prescribed red tabs for MPs in September 1918. Later, they adopted red hat bands for their service hats.

The detail photo depicts the red tabs on the wool service coat collar. The “H” disk stands for a brigade headquarters or higher. At that time, the MPs did not have a distinguishing branch insignia.

The French false embroidered metal numbers attached to Corporal Morway’s brassard represent the 343d Military Police Company.

The photograph from Morway’s album depicts MPs. The hat bands, which were red, can be seen on the service hats of the two soldiers in the photograph. Corporal Morway is the soldier on the right. He is wearing the “MP” brassard with attached metal numbers of his MP unit.
An 1890 West Point graduate, General Bandholtz assumed command of the 58th Infantry Brigade, 29th Division, which deployed to France in June 1918. In September, General Pershing appointed him Provost Marshal General of the AEF, where his duties included reorganizing the Military Police Corps and managing German prisoners of war. Bandholtz’s insistence on a professional and well-trained military police organization during his tenure as the Provost Marshal General of the AEF was the foundation for a permanently established Army Military Police Corps in 1941.16

Shown here are General Bandholtz’s World War I overseas cap with brigadier general’s star device and his General Headquarters AEF, Provost Marshal General’s brassard, both from 1918.

The portrait, Harry Hill Bandholtz, is by Gyula Stetka, oil on canvas, 1919–1920. General Bandholtz sat for this portrait from December 1919 to January 1920, while he served as American military representative to the Military Inter-Allied Commission to Hungary.

Father Francis P. Duffy first served on the Mexican border in 1916 with the 69th Infantry Regiment of the New York National Guard (the “Fighting 69th”). In World War I, the 69th became the 165th Infantry, and Father Duffy went to serve as the 42d Division's chaplain in France as senior chaplain with the rank of major. Father Duffy inspired his division and eventually the entire AEF. On the transport ship to Europe, he gathered large crowds for on-board masses and the line of soldiers waiting for confession with him were comparable in length to mess lines.

Once overseas, the 42d experienced its first major battle in March 1918. The enemy hit it with a two-day bombardment of mustard gas shells, which killed and blinded many. During this and other subsequent actions, Father Duffy stayed with the soldiers, particularly at the front lines exposed to the heaviest fire. He heard confessions, said mass, spent time with the men, and counseled them. He visited unit first-aid stations, tending to both spiritual needs and wounds. His presence, especially in the midst of battle on the front lines, made him revered among the troops. For his service, Father Duffy earned the Distinguished Service Cross and the Distinguished Service Medal.

Father Duffy used these vestments (chasuble and stole), altar stone, and chalice during the war.

Items shown are not to scale.
Nicknamed “The Fighting Rabbi” during the war, Chaplain Voorsanger was the senior Jewish chaplain of both the 77th Division and the AEF. He received the French Croix de Guerre and was recommended for the Distinguished Service Cross.

The identification card issued to Chaplain Voorsanger as a 1st Lieutenant on his assignment to the AEF includes an early method of photo credentials.

The Army awarded Chaplain Voorsanger this Purple Heart for service as the senior chaplain, 77th Division, in World War I. The War Department instituted the Purple Heart in 1932. The criteria authorized its award to soldiers who earned wound chevrons in World War I or had been awarded the Meritorious Service Citation Certificate. Chaplain Voorsanger received the latter from the Commanding General of the AEF, General Pershing.

This Torah with cover is presumed to have been used by Chaplain Voorsanger during his service in World War I.

In 1919, Chaplain Voorsanger became general director of overseas activities for the Jewish Welfare Board, which provided support to Jewish soldiers.17 The board had its own shoulder sleeve insignia, shown here.

Items shown are not to scale.

Private O'Connor came from Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. He was killed in action 26 September 1918 at the start of the Meuse-Argonne Offensive and was interred in France.

The reverse of Private O'Connor's identification tag is stamped with his Army serial number, 1783448. Each doughboy wore two tags on a cord around the neck. A disc matching the one shown here would have stayed with O'Connor's remains. His leather wallet and draft registration card are included. The Army returned the items shown to O'Connor's family with his other personal effects.
Angelo Rizzo enlisted in the 10th Company, 13th Coast Defense Command, New York National Guard, in 1916. The Army mustered him and his unit into federal service in August 1917. The 59th Artillery (Coast Artillery Corps), formed from separate companies at Fort Hamilton, New York, in December 1917 and left for Europe in March 1918 on the troopship RMS Olympic. It arrived in France in April 1918. Rizzo witnessed his first taste of war in September. He was on gas guard when “the whole heaven opened up and poured out flames.” Rizzo survived the war and sailed back to New York in 1919.

Shown here is Rizzo’s Pattern 1917 Wool Service Coat with First Class Gunner’s chevron on the right sleeve (visible in photograph). The First Army Artillery shoulder sleeve insignia, honorable discharge chevron, and two overseas service chevrons are on left sleeve. The coat dates from 1918. Also included is his bunk and mess assignment card from the Olympic and a photograph of Rizzo in 1918 wearing the coat.

Corporal Hannah hand-stitched this flag to remind him of his home state of Texas. He carried it with him at Camp Gordon, Georgia, across the Atlantic aboard the RMS Mauretania, and throughout the war. After participating in the St. Mihiel and Meuse-Argonne Offensives, Hannah returned home in 1919.

Texas Flag
Cpl. Olan D. Hannah, Company A, 326th Infantry, 82d Division
82d Airborne Division War Memorial Museum, Fort Bragg, North Carolina
Private Fest, a bugler, purchased this instrument in France and used it in lieu of his issued American-made bugle. The 406th Telegraph Battalion was one of twelve such units recruited from the employees of the Bell System. The 406th contained men from the Bell Telephone Company of Pennsylvania and its subsidiary companies.¹⁹

¹⁹ Raines, Getting the Message Through, p. 170.
Lieutenant Everett of Company C, 30th Engineers (which became the 1st Gas Regiment), carried this pocket compass during the war. His regiment used Livens Projectors and Stokes mortars to fire poison gas, high explosives, and smoke projectiles.

In the early morning of 2 October 1918 near Charpentry, France, a shell exploded in front of Lieutenant Everett’s dugout and exposed him and several other soldiers to mustard gas while they slept. Everett died from exposure to the gas seven days later. He had been previously recommended for the Distinguished Service Cross for saving the life of another soldier in combat.  

Support by the Nation

Shortly after the American declaration of war, President Woodrow Wilson established the Committee on Public Information (CPI) for the purpose of shaping public opinion and crafting America’s wartime message. According to George E. Creel, the CPI chairman, the war was a “fight for the minds of men, for the conquest of their convictions, and the battle-line ran through every home in every country.”[^1] In its efforts to rally public support, the CPI demonstrated that wars are not waged by soldiers alone, and that campaigns are not limited to the battlefield.

In April 1917, Congress debated on how to pay for the monumental cost of rapidly mobilizing and deploying a force overseas. Part of its plan was funding the war through bond drives. There ultimately were five Liberty Loan campaigns along with the continuous sale of War Savings Stamps. Encouraged by a vigorous poster campaign challenging the public to buy bonds as a patriotic duty, Americans purchased an estimated $24 billion in bonds. Bond subscribers received a Liberty Button, providing an avenue for social shaming to those who did not display their patriotism. Beginning with the Third Liberty Loan campaign, honor flags were awarded to communities that met a certain subscription quota—another incentive for Americans to urge their friends and neighbors to participate. The Third and Fourth Liberty Loan campaigns also included a popular war exhibit train, filled with artifacts and accompanied by combat veterans or other distinguished speakers. War Savings Stamps, offered in smaller denominations, were a more accessible way for children and the poor to participate.[^2] Poster campaigns targeted not only the general public but also children, immigrants, women, and other specific groups of Americans. For more on

the posters that drove the bond campaigns, see the World War I Posters chapter in this volume's companion: The Great War: U.S. Army Art.

Women took a leading role in the effort to support the war. Many were already serving in and raising money for relief organizations before America’s entry, and their participation only intensified as the doughboys began sailing for France. Women did their part by participating in food conservation drives, planting war gardens, and buying bonds. Many of them utilized skills they learned in the First National Service School, organized in 1916 to train women for times of war and national disaster. Participants learned food conservation, military calisthenics, land telegraphy, telephone operation, surgical bandage production, signal work, and various other skills. In addition to their relief efforts, approximately three million American women joined the workforce on the home front, taking up jobs vacated by men leaving for the trenches, including dangerous positions in war materiel and munitions factories.

Civilian service organizations also provided support to the doughboys during the war. The American Red Cross grew exponentially during World War I, with membership increasing from 17,000 in 1914 to over 20 million in 1918. Poster campaigns raised over $400 million in funds and material to support Red Cross programs. Red Cross workers staffed hospitals and ambulance companies in France, with the agency providing over 80 percent of the nurses serving in World War I. The Young Men’s Christian Association (YMCA) and Young Women’s Christian Association (YWCA) worked to improve soldiers’ morale, providing entertainers, recreational items, and supplies to write letters home. The Salvation Army won the doughboys’ hearts by providing doughnuts, pies, hot chocolate, and other comfort items. It also established a money transfer system so that soldiers could send funds to their loved ones at home. The United War Work Campaign in 1918 raised $170 million on the home front to sustain the work of these and other charitable organizations that supported the troops overseas.

As seen in the artifacts presented in this chapter, the war touched the lives of millions of Americans, whether they had some connection to the military or not. Their efforts show that nations need to rally the public in order to successfully wage a large-scale, industrialized war. From the battlefield, to the factory floor, to the public arena, Americans showed through their efforts that the war was truly a national endeavor.

The Army used portable scales such as this one at World War I recruiting stations for physical examinations of potential soldiers. The scale is easily transportable when the lid is closed.
Private Russell wore this cotton brassard with the letters “N.A.” for National Army when he reported for induction into the U.S. Army on National Army Day, 19 September 1917, and while traveling to a training camp to begin his World War I service. In addition to showing his military status, the brassard identified him as a man doing his patriotic duty.
Named for Maj. Gen. Frederick Funston, the Army built this camp at a cost of $10 million on the Fort Riley Military Reservation, Kansas. The Army established the cantonment in July 1917 as one of the sixteen new training camps it constructed for its expansion during World War I. The local community benefitted greatly from having the camp and its soldiers nearby because it provided an economic boost. In turn, the citizens showed their patriotic zeal, as demonstrated by banners like this. The more than 40,000 soldiers housed and trained at Camp Funston were mainly draftees from the Midwestern states, many of whom organized the 89th Division of the AEF.4

This is a World War I-era silk and cotton, fringed souvenir pillow cover from Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana. Accompanying the U.S. national shield and eagle are the flags of the World War I allied nations. Completed in 1910, Fort Benjamin Harrison served as the central mobilization station for all U.S. Army railway specialists during World War I. The Army also used the installation for the training and processing of numerous units mobilizing for overseas service. After the Armistice, it became a demobilization center.5

5 Ibid., p. 876.
Capt. Robert L. Queisser, 5th Infantry Regiment, Ohio National Guard, designed and patented the service flag in 1917. The Blue Star flag became a popular unofficial symbol of a family’s child or children in service, and later, an official one authorized by the War Department. A blue star indicates an active duty service member, whereas a gold star covering the blue one indicates the service member died while on duty.
This blue star service banner belonged to the mother of Corporal Zitzman. It features a Blue Star service flag with one star to show one family member on active service, as well as a U.S. Army Corps of Engineers castle insignia. It is designed to be hung in a window. Banners of this type were available with all of the Army’s branch insignia embroidered on them.
The Navy League, a military support and service organization, created the First National Service School (FNSS). The league organized it in 1916 to assist in national emergencies. The Army, Navy, and the Marine Corps cooperated to train thousands of women, representing practically every state in the union, for national service. Lelia Barnett, wife of Maj. Gen. George Barnett, who was Commandant of the United States Marine Corps, wore this emblem while she was a member of the FNSS.6

Eleanor Lyons wore this uniform jacket during World War I as a member of the American Red Cross. Lyons was a Red Cross worker from April 1917 through November 1919, both in the United States and overseas. The Red Cross assigned her as a nurse's aide and canteen worker in France from October 1918 through July 1919. The blue collar tabs indicate the Red Cross Department of Military Relief, which included canteens.7

7 Smith, Dressed for Duty, Vol. 1, p. 54.
Helen Coates served as a member of the YMCA from 1917 to 1918. She played violin and served in the YMCA band assigned to the I Army Corps of the AEF. On the left shoulder of her coat is an I Army Corps shoulder sleeve insignia. A World War I Victory Medal ribbon bar is pinned to the coat as well. Her one overseas stripe indicates that she served six months in France. On the right sleeve is a YMCA patch under an “Entertainment” tab. The association allowed women to purchase their uniform when it discharged them; if unpurchased, the YMCA returned the uniforms to supply for reissue.8

As part of its mission of providing morale, welfare activities, and entertainment to American service personnel at home and abroad during World War I, the YMCA distributed “trench checkers” sets such as this one to soldiers of the AEF. This set belonged to Sgt. Thomas L. Brewster, who served with Headquarters Company and Company A, 149th Machine Gun Battalion, 42d Division. The black playing pieces are missing from Sergeant Brewster’s set.
Supported by the YMCA, Toot Sweet was a three-act musical comedy written, produced, and performed by the men of the 82d Division after the end of the war’s hostilities. Division Color Sgt. James F. Hanley wrote most of its music and lyrics. The shows began in January 1919 and ran through February. The men of the 82d Division portrayed all characters, including the female roles.
The Gas Defense Plant on Long Island, New York, was a huge complex of five buildings with one million square feet of floor space. The facility researched, designed, tested, and procured material, and manufactured gas protection equipment for American servicemen. The plant preferred to hire those who had close relatives in the AEF, especially the wives of servicemen. They reasoned they would put special effort into their work if they believed they might be helping to save their loved ones. Of the 12,000 employees working there in the summer of 1918, 8,500 were women.9

9 Crowell, America’s Munitions, p. 426.
The War Department largely funded the First World War by borrowing money from the public. These fund campaigns, known as Liberty Loan drives, sold bonds issued by the U.S. Treasury Department.

The newly established Federal Reserve System and its member banks managed the bond sales. Four Liberty Loan drives occurred during the war itself, with the fifth, known as the Victory Loan, happening after the Armistice. Made of cotton bunting, this is an official United States Treasury Department honor flag for the fifth loan drive, which did not end until early 1919.
A female Liberty Loan seller wore this patriotically themed cotton dress and apron during World War I. The United States Treasury Department recruited women to sell these bonds, also known as Liberty Bonds, to the public to help pay for the war. Four loan or bond drives took place during the war from June 1917 to October 1918. The Treasury sold Victory Liberty Loan bonds in 1919 to further finance its postwar debts.
During the war, civilians wore a wide variety of buttons and pins to show their support for the war and for the men and women serving in the armed forces. Members of many organizations, like the YMCA, Knights of Columbus, and American War Mothers, wore them to show membership and support. Individuals earned other buttons by selling or purchasing Liberty and Victory Loans and War Savings Stamps.

Some pins show that the wearer had a relative in uniform. These would have blue stars. One from Beaver County shows that the wearer has enlisted for “War Service.” Another simple button states a common feeling among Americans during the war: “To Hell with the Kaiser.”

Industry also had their buttons. One from the A. M. Byers Company of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, indicates that the worker wearing it is on “War Service” at a steel mill. Another from the United War Work Campaign says that “Industry is Pledged to Help the Boys.”

A few are from after the war. The U.S. Treasury Department Victory Liberty Loan service award pendant is “made from captured German cannon.” Lastly, a button welcomes home the returning troops.
The Treasury Department awarded this medal to each Boy Scout who sold ten or more Liberty Loan Bonds in a sales drive campaign during World War I. If the scout sold ten or more in other campaigns, he would receive a special bar to be added to the medal. This medal was presented to Scout William Creasy, who went on to graduate from the United States Military Academy in 1926. He eventually became a major general and chief of the Chemical Corps.
According to Paul Cornish of the Imperial War Museum, “Trench art is a term used to describe objects made from the debris and by-products of modern warfare.” The artistic pieces featured in this chapter provide a rare glimpse into the emotions of those who created them. Generally made as souvenirs or gifts for family members, trench art can often offer insight into an individual soldier’s experiences. Soldiers produced trench art as a means of filling idle time, as a distraction while convalescing from wounds, and even as a method of biding time as a prisoner of war. The chapter also includes works created by civilians who collected the refuse of the battlefields to make and sell as souvenirs. In this respect, the production of trench art became a veritable cottage industry for many seeking some form of financial support during the war years.

In addition to creating items from battlefield debris, soldiers also decorated their equipment. At first, the practice grew out of a desire to identify individuals and units, but these personalized decorations became more elaborate and imaginative, especially after the end of the war. The Army allowed each AEF soldier to take home a new steel helmet and a gas mask with carrier. Many used the time waiting to return to the United States decorating these items with a range of designs. Aluminum canteens and meat cans, commonly known as mess kits, were also popular material for decorating.

Whatever the purpose, the act of turning instruments of war into works of art offers a glimpse into how soldiers and civilians sought to personalize their wartime experience. They are also a reminder that even the horrors of war can produce artifacts of lasting beauty and emotional resonance.

On 18 July 1918, during the Second Battle of the Marne, Master Engineer Taylor of the 4th Engineers picked up an artillery shell fragment in no-man’s-land. With that shard of metal, he crafted this knife. He presented it to Col. Raymond A. Wheeler, Commander of the 4th Engineers.
Ralph Dunn made this brass and copper cigarette lighter from battlefield debris, including the driving band from an artillery projectile. One side is engraved with Dunn’s name, unit, date, and location. The opposite side has a Masonic symbol of a compass and square with a letter “G” in the center.
This etched and hammered decorated shell casing tells the unique story of the 20th Engineer Regiment (Forestry). By October 1918, the 20th was the largest regiment formed by the U.S. Army, larger than a division. The 20th Engineers procured logs and operated sawmills to provide the vast amount of forest products needed by the AEF.² The main element of the design is a circular saw blade, the kind that the 20th Engineers’ mills used for cutting lumber.

Private Shaffer created this piece of trench art from a shell for a 37-mm. Model 1916 Hotchkiss gun as a souvenir of the Meuse-Argonne Offensive. It is hand hammered with the inscriptions “MEUSE-ARGONNE” and the 80th “Blue Ridge” Division insignia.

Private Shaffer, of Vintondale, Pennsylvania, was inducted into the Army in September 1917. The Army sent him to Camp Lee, Virginia, and assigned him to the Medical Detachment, 305th Engineers, 80th Division. The 305th Engineers departed Camp Lee in May 1918, sailing on the U.S. Navy transport ship USS Huron and arriving in France later that month. Shaffer served in the Somme, St. Mihiel, and Meuse-Argonne Offensives, and in a defensive sector during the war.
Private Lintner made this brass trench art souvenir vase from a 75-mm. shell casing. Various designs appear on the upper portion above the hammered-in section. One side is engraved with the French Cross of Lorraine overlaid with an ivy branch. To its right is the union shield with vertical stripes and “USA” in the field. To the right of the shield is an eagle, tent, cannon, and American flag. Also hand-engraved into the casing is “LORRAINE 1918 151 MG CO. D LESTER L. LINTNER.”
This brass trench art souvenir vase was made from a 75-mm. shell casing. This is a typical example of civilian-made trench art using battlefield debris. They would then be sold as souvenirs to soldiers and, after the war, to battlefield tourists, military cemetery visitors, and returning veterans. The hammered design reads “VERDUN 1918.”
This hammered trench art vase was made from a brass 75-mm. shell casing. This example is decorated with a branch of holly. Horace Hobbs of the 26th Division brought this piece home as a souvenir of the war. Hobbs’ accompanying note states: “Vases made by wounded veterans of World War I.”
A German prisoner of war crafted and hand-engraved this aluminum match safe. A wood and paper matchbox is still inside. A prisoner identified as A. Hanika made this match safe for nurse Eula Webster. The engraved markings read “EULA D. WEBSTER PRISONER A. HANIKA GERMANY AMERICANISCHER NURSE’S CORPS 1919.”
Assembled as a souvenir, this is a German foot soldier’s equipment belt decorated with buttons from German soldiers’ uniforms and one lone U.S. Army button. Belts like this are often called “hate belts” because of the belief that the buttons and insignia on them had been taken from the uniforms of killed or captured enemy soldiers. An American soldier presumably put this together as a souvenir. Belts such as this one became popular as collector’s items after the war.
This decorated gas mask carrier belonged to Christian Marius Hansen. He was inducted into the U.S. Army in May 1918. Born in Denmark, he became a naturalized American citizen in July 1918 at Camp Kearny, California. He served in Company M, 324th Infantry, 81st Division, in France and participated in the Meuse-Argonne Offensive. The carrier is decorated with the American flag and chronicles Hansen’s service in France. His feelings about his gas mask are indicated by the inscription: “A nuisance indeed, but a friend in need.” The initials “OCL” on the insignia of the 81st Division signify obedience, courage, and loyalty.
A Red Cross nurse before the U.S. entry into the war, Bartlett served in France and Belgium. After the United States entered the war, she joined the Army Nurse Corps, which assigned her to Base Hospital No. 71 as chief nurse in France. After the Armistice, Nurse Bartlett again served with the Red Cross, this time in Japan, Siberia, and Manchuria. Her helmet’s crown has a painted red, white, and blue circular design featuring a caduceus, crossed Red Cross flags, and the words “Army Nurse Corps.”

The archival photo of Nurse Bartlett is courtesy of the Army Medical Department Center of History and Heritage.

Private Jones decorated this Model 1910 Canteen and Model 1918 Meat Can. The aluminum canteen is marked with the 82d Division insignia and inscribed “NATIONAL ARMY ALA GA AND TENN D.H.Q. ARRIVED FRANCE MAY 17 1918 LANDING.” The meat can, popularly called a mess kit, also features the 82d Division insignia, as well as a majestic eagle with a flag with the sun rising behind it. The hand-engraved markings read, “AEF 1918 1919 NORTH EAST SOUTH 325 CO I INF WEST ALL AMERICANS.”
Corporal Cadden engraved this Model 1910 canteen and meat can. The front of the canteen depicts an American eagle clutching an olive branch in one talon and arrows in the other. A union shield adorns the eagle’s chest and French and American flags appear on each side. Below the eagle are crossed cannon with Cadden’s unit designation. Cadden also engraved his name and the countries he visited during the war. His name and unit appear on the meat can.