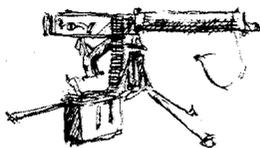


## Military Museums and Collections



Joseph H. Ewing

**T**HE student of military history should not confine himself exclusively to the study of books and written reference material, for he can become acquainted firsthand with the past in the collections of military museums. Like the library and archive, the museum is an important source of historical knowledge. A properly functioning historical museum systematically collects and preserves objects of historical significance, uses them selectively in the creation of exhibits for the general public, and makes its collection available for examination and study by the serious researcher and scholar. In visiting such a museum the student of military history may gain a fuller understanding of the problems and accomplishments of men in the past as he views such things as the clothes they wore, the tools and implements they used, and the objects they created. In the museum he may learn what he cannot learn elsewhere. He can appreciate, for example, what a Sherman tank is only when he has actually seen one. By viewing and examining a museum's artifacts he may discover, for instance, how difficult it was to load the 1808 Springfield musket or how heavy and awkward to carry was the SCR 300 backpack radio of World War II.

The power of the artifact in teaching military history is attested to by the chief historian of the Army:

If one picture is worth a thousand words, as the proverb would have it, what shall we say about the value, not of a representation but the physical object itself—in its original shape, form, and even dress? . . . The writer can only bring his subjects back to life on a written page through documents and words; the curator can resurrect the objects themselves as they originally were, and has a built-in visual advantage.<sup>1</sup>

Although the restrictions inherent in a museum exhibit do not

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1. Dr. Maurice Matloff, address delivered at Second Annual U.S. Army Museum Conference, Fort Sheridan, Ill., 3 May 73.

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permit the treatment of any subject in great depth, still a well-executed historical exhibit may stimulate the visitor to turn to written history to learn more about the subject he has encountered. On the other hand, some of the exhibits he sees in a museum may not actually broaden his knowledge but reinforce and clarify what he already knows.

For the sensitive visitor, a historical museum can create a sense of kinship with the past. The disposition of men to seek continuity with their ancestors and with life in earlier times may find its fulfillment in museums and at historical sites more than anywhere else. The coat worn by Wolfe at Quebec, a cannon surrendered by Burgoyne at Saratoga, the Lexington Green, or the Petersburg crater may produce a special awareness of a particular historical period, event, or person or awaken interest in military history in general.

There are three main groups of U.S. military museums—those maintained by the armed forces; by federal civil agencies; and by states, counties, municipalities, and private institutions.

### *Museums Maintained by the Armed Forces*

It was not until 1962 that the Army established a formal policy of preserving material evidence of its history. With the publication of Army Regulation 870-5 in 1962, all existing Army museums were placed under the supervision of the Chief of Military History, who assumed ultimate responsibility for the collection, control, and preservation of all historical properties throughout the Army and established a central catalog of these artifacts. Previously such preservation depended largely upon the degree of interest of the post or organizational commander, and artifacts in untold number were abandoned or discarded over the years because their historical value was unknown or unappreciated. Many, nevertheless, did survive. As early as 1854 the Ordnance and Artillery Museum was established at the U.S. Military Academy; it later became the West Point Museum, today the oldest museum in the Army. The Army Medical Museum (now the Armed Forces Medical Museum) came into being in 1862. The Springfield (Massachusetts) Armory Museum dates from approximately 1871, the Rock Island (Illinois) Arsenal Museum (now the John M. Browning Memorial Museum) from 1905, and the Army Ordnance Museum at Aberdeen Proving Ground (Maryland) from 1919. Except for the Field Artillery Museum at Fort Sill, Oklahoma, founded in 1934, all other Army museums were established in the 1940s or later.

Approximately sixty-five museums make up the Army Museum System. With the exception of that at West Point, they fall into four fairly distinct categories—branch, post, arsenal, and organizational. The West Point Museum is exceptional by reason of the size and scope of its collection and the size of its professional staff. While many of its holdings relate to the history of the U.S. Military Academy, by far the larger part illustrates the history of the U.S. Army as a whole as well as the history of warfare through the ages. Thus, it tends to approach the concept of a national Army museum. The Army's museums are listed and their collections described in detail in the *Guide to U.S. Army Museums and Historic Sites*,<sup>2</sup> a publication of the Army's Center of Military History. A sampling of the holdings of some of the branch museums will give some indication of the scope and content and diversity of the Army's museum collections.

A branch museum is concerned with the history of a major arm of service within the Army, such as infantry, artillery, or quartermaster, and usually operates as part of a branch school. Among the larger museums of this type is the Field Artillery Museum at Fort Sill, contained in eight separate exhibit buildings, most of them historic structures on the National Register of Historic Places. The museum's collection includes U.S. and foreign field pieces from the sixteenth century to the present. In its "cannon walk," a 700-yard display of field artillery, is "Atomic Annie," the 280-mm. gun that fired the world's first atomic artillery round in 1953.

At Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland, the Ordnance Museum collection represents ordnance development mainly since the introduction of smokeless powder. In addition to small arms, the collection includes tanks, self-propelled and towed guns, and motor vehicles. U.S. armored vehicles are displayed in single file in the "mile of tanks" along a main road of the proving ground. The museum also maintains a Chemical Corps collection, which it acquired upon the closing of the Chemical Museum in 1972.

The Patton Museum of Cavalry and Armor at Fort Knox, Kentucky, treats the history of U.S. armored forces and their equipment. It has a large collection of armored fighting vehicles, both U.S. and foreign, some of which are maintained in operational condition and are used to stage demonstrations for the public during the summer. The museum displays the

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2. Compiled by Norman Miller Cary, Jr. (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1975).

personal effects of General George S. Patton, Jr. for whom it was named, including his ivory-handled pistols, and the limousine in which he was riding when he suffered fatal injuries in 1945. The history of horse cavalry, as distinct from armor, is preserved and displayed in the U.S. Cavalry Museum at Fort Riley, Kansas.

The story of the American foot soldier is told in the National Infantry Museum at Fort Benning, Georgia, with weapons, uniforms, and equipment since colonial days. The museum also has a broad interest in the infantryman regardless of nationality, as indicated by thirty-eight foreign countries represented in its small-arms collection. Its Japanese weapons collection is believed to be one of the most complete in the world.

Among the holdings of the Quartermaster Museum at Fort Lee, Virginia, are collections of uniforms dating from the Revolutionary War, insignia and chevrons, and military saddles, this last one of the most complete in the country. Also on display is the caisson which carried the body of Jefferson Davis to his grave in Richmond in 1889.

Army transportation methods are shown in some dioramas at the Transportation Museum at Fort Eustis, Virginia, while others trace the evolution of transportation beginning with the Stone Age and progressing through the development of the wheel, balloon, coach, and canal barge. Helicopters, fixed-wing aircraft, experimental aircraft, railway cars and steam locomotives, trucks, and amphibious vehicles are found in the collection.

The Aviation Museum at Fort Rucker, Alabama, displays an extensive collection of fixed- and rotary-wing aircraft in telling the history of aviation in the U.S. Army. It has the largest collection of military helicopters in the world.

The Engineer Museum at Fort Belvoir, Virginia, preserves military engineer equipment, uniforms, insignia, flags, maps, and small arms. Among its items of special interest are maps prepared by French engineers at the siege of Yorktown in the Revolutionary War and the ship's wheel recovered from the sunken Battleship Maine.

The Army has more than twenty post museums at such stations as Fort Leavenworth, Kansas; Fort Huachuca, Arizona; the Presidio of San Francisco, California; Fort Bliss, Texas; and Fort Monroe, Virginia. The post museum is mainly concerned with preserving and depicting the history of the post and frequently the military history of the local region, even though that usually predates the establishment of the post. Where a branch museum exists, it is usually the only museum on post and

may assume the function of a post museum. The Field Artillery Museum at Fort Sill, for example, devotes perhaps half of its effort to presenting the history of the post and local area. Many Army installations without museums have small collections of historical artifacts, an excellent example being the numerous old cannon displayed on the grounds at Fort Lesley J. McNair, Washington, D.C. Often smaller historical items may be displayed in an officers' club, chapel, or headquarters building.

Only four museums fall under the arsenal classification. First among these is the venerable Springfield Armory Museum, which holds one of the world's most complete collections of small arms. It is operated by the National Park Service, to which the U.S. Army Center of Military History lent the collection. The John M. Browning Memorial Museum (Rock Island Arsenal) uses part of its collection in special exhibits of Browning's automatic weapons. The Picatinny Arsenal Museum at Dover, New Jersey, maintains a collection of U.S. and foreign explosive ordnance; and the Watervliet Arsenal Museum, Watervliet, New York, shows the use of artillery throughout history and displays cannon, howitzers, and mortars, the earliest dating from 1742.

Organizational museums operate primarily for the benefit of troop morale and *esprit de corps* and are devoted almost entirely to unit history. The 82d Airborne Division Museum at Fort Bragg, North Carolina, and those of the 1st Cavalry Division and 2d Armored Division, both at Fort Hood, Texas, are such museums. There are a few regimental museums, such as the Old Guard Museum maintained by the 1st Battalion, 3d Infantry, at Fort Myer, Virginia.

The Navy's two principal collections are the Navy Memorial Museum at the Washington Navy Yard, Washington, D.C., and the U.S. Naval Academy Museum at Annapolis, Maryland. Two museums are devoted to submarine history, one at the submarine base at Groton, Connecticut, and the other at the submarine base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. A naval aviation museum is located at Pensacola, Florida. Other Navy museums include the Seabee Museum at Little Creek, Virginia, and the Museum of the Naval Training Center at San Diego, California.

At Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Dayton, Ohio, is the U.S. Air Force Museum, the central museum of that service. It displays more than 125 aircraft and missiles, both U.S. and foreign. Other aviation museums are the Hangar 9 Museum at Brooks Air Force Base, Texas, specializing in aerospace medicine, and the Air Force Space Museum at Cape Kennedy, Florida, devoted principally to space exploration.

The U.S. Marine Corps Museum is situated at the Washington Navy Yard in the History and Museums Division of the corps headquarters. In its collection are uniforms, battle flags, weapons, dioramas, and substantial holdings of personal papers, photos, and documents. Smaller Marine Corps museums are at Quantico, Virginia; Parris Island, South Carolina; and Barstow, California.

The Walter Reed Army Medical Center, Washington, D.C., is the home of the Armed Forces Medical Museum, which exhibits items for both the general public and for pathologists and other medical professionals. At Albuquerque, New Mexico, the Sandia Atomic Museum, operated by the Defense Atomic Support Agency, displays unclassified nuclear weapons and associated equipment used by the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps.

Although the Army National Guard is rich in military history and tradition, it has few museums recognized as such. The New York State Military Museum, its largest, occupies space on the first and second floors of the state capitol in Albany. Some other states display objects related to their military history in the capitol or other state buildings but have no organized museums; many old-line National Guard organizations maintain trophy rooms which display memorabilia related to the unit's past. Information concerning National Guard collections and museums should be requested from the various state adjutants general.

### *Museums Maintained by Federal Civil Agencies*

Within the vast holdings of the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, D.C., are two distinguished military history collections. Its Museum of History and Technology displays an impressive store of military and naval artifacts, including firearms, edged weapons, uniforms, headgear, and insignia. The National Air and Space Museum of the Smithsonian, filling a large new structure on the Washington mall, includes an expansive collection of aircraft and missiles, many of them military. The National Park Service administers some seventy-five museums (visitors centers) at battlefield sites and old forts throughout the United States, most containing collections for study. Professional and technical support, including the design and production of all exhibits, is furnished these museums by the Park Service's Harpers Ferry Center at Harpers Ferry, West Virginia.

### *Museums Maintained by Other Agencies*

Many museum collections are maintained by states, counties, municipalities, and private institutions. Thousands of such collections are found throughout the United States, a small number of which are primarily, if not exclusively, military. In this category, for example, are the Indiana War Memorial, Indianapolis, Indiana; the War Memorial Museum of Virginia, Newport News, Virginia; and the Admiral Nimitz Center, Fredericksburg, Texas. Some art and science museums display military artifacts, such as the splendid examples of old arms and armor in the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York. State historical societies are prime sources of information concerning the location of museum collections in their respective states. Also, much detailed information is available in the latest *Official Museum Directory* and the *Directory of Historical Societies and Agencies in the United States and Canada*.<sup>3</sup>

Even though opportunity to visit them might be limited, the student of military history should be aware of foreign military museums; he may need to correspond with them for information otherwise unobtainable. In Ottawa is the impressive Canadian War Museum, a branch of Canada's National Museum of Man. England offers the museum visitor a rich experience in the extensive collection of the Imperial War Museum, The Tower Armouries, and the National Army Museum, all in London, and the National Maritime Museum in Greenwich. Among the outstanding military museums on the European continent are the Tojhusmuseet in Copenhagen, the Musée de la Marine and the Musée de l'Armée in Paris, the Heeresgeschichtliches Museum in Vienna, and in Stockholm the Armemuseum and the Statens Sjöhistoriska Museum (National Maritime Museum). Other fine museums are the Wehrgeschichtliches Museum at Rastatt and the Bayerisches Armeemuseum at Ingolstadt, both in the Federal Republic of Germany; in Madrid the Museo del Ejército Español and the Museo de la Real Armería; the Musée Royal de l'Armée et Histoire Militaire in Brussels, and the Leger-en-Wapenmuseum, in Leiden, Holland. Perhaps the most useful guide to foreign military museums is the *Directory of Museums of Arms and Military History*, published by the International Association of Museums of Arms and Military History in Copenhagen in 1970.

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3. The *Official Museum Directory* (Washington: American Association of Museums, 1976); Donna McDonald, ed., *Directory of Historical Societies and Agencies in the United States and Canada*, 10th ed. (Nashville, Tenn.: American Association for State and Local History, 1975-76).

Copies may be obtained from the secretary of the association, c/o the director of the National Army Museum, Royal Hospital Road, London S.W. 3, England. *European Military Museums*, by J. Lee Westrate,<sup>4</sup> is another excellent reference. The International Council of Museums, 1 rue Miollis, 75 Paris 15<sup>e</sup> France, operates the ICOM-UNESCO Documentation Center, which is able to furnish information on museums in all parts of the world.

### *Use of Military Museums and Collections*

Military museums vary greatly in the size of their collections; in the size and adequacy of their physical plants, staffs, and financial resources; and thus in the extent and quality of the services they provide. Most museums serve the general public with interpretative exhibits that are both attractive and historically accurate, and answer written and verbal inquiries concerning objects in the collection. The military history student, or the specialist, naturally benefits from these exhibits, but he also may wish to examine and study specific objects in the collection. Within reasonable limits, most museums will give him access to the objects he needs and provide working space. In some cases a museum's own research on its collection may not be adequate because of what it considers the more pressing needs of public exhibitions, guided tours, and the like.

Few armed forces museums offer any formal educational programs. The most notable exception is the West Point Museum, whose staff members, using artifacts, conduct classroom lectures in military history at the U.S. Military Academy. Many military museums, however, conduct guided tours for the general public and for school, college, and professional groups. The *Guide to U.S. Army Museums and Historic Sites* (see footnote 2) lists all U.S. Army museums as well as Department of Defense, federal, state, municipal, and private military museums throughout the United States and briefly describes their collections.

### *Military Historic Sites*

Throughout the United States numerous forts, arsenals, and battlefields recall the military past of the nation. The more important of these are listed in the *National Register of Historic*

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4. Washington: Smithsonian Institution, 1961.

*Places*, issued by the Department of the Interior. Established by law, the register includes not only property of national significance but also districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects of importance at the state and local levels.<sup>5</sup> Many of these sites, such as Kings Mountain, Fort McHenry, Gettysburg, and Fort Sumter, are operated by the National Park Service. Historic sites are frequently found on installations of the armed forces, and some of these are integrated with the local installation museums. Examples include the Rock Island Arsenal, Rock Island, Illinois; Fort Leavenworth, Kansas; and the National War College Building at Fort Lesley J. McNair, Washington, D.C.

The Council on Abandoned Military Posts,<sup>6</sup> a nonprofit organization interested in the identification, restoration, and preservation of old military installations, is another source of information. It publishes a monthly newsletter and a quarterly scholarly magazine. Additional information on military historical sites may be obtained from *The Official Museum Directory* and the *Directory of Historical Societies and Agencies in the United States and Canada* (see footnote 3).

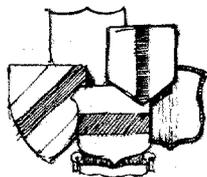
In his contact with museums the student of military history may come to appreciate the almost limitless historical treasures within their collections. He may find that museums supplement and reinforce the knowledge derived from reading and documentary research and serve to intensify his interest in this field of learning. And he may find a degree of inspiration.

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5. National Park Service, Department of the Interior, *The National Register of Historic Places* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1976). Detailed information concerning historic sites on U.S. Army property may be found in the *Guide to U.S. Army Museums and Historic Sites*.

6. P.O. Box 171, Arlington, VA 22210.

## The Place of Unit History



Stanley R. Connor

**P**ROUD soldiers form the backbone of any successful military organization. Skillfully used by the commander, unit history can be most valuable in instilling a strong sense of pride in the members of a company, battalion, regiment, or other Army unit. The study of unit history has sometimes been compared to genealogy, and the analogy is not a bad one. Just as knowledge of ancestry often creates a sense of pride in one's forebears, awareness of a unit's past can help to create *esprit de corps* for an organization. Americans are exceptionally proud if they can trace their lineage back to the Mayflower, but many families, representing waves of relatively recent immigration, are quite new to the United States. It is much the same in the Army. Except for those organizations in the Army National Guard that can trace their lineage back to colonial days, the vast majority of all Army units began in this century.

Obtaining prepared unit histories is not always easy. Many are published in limited quantities, if at all, and are often soon out of print. Because the use of incorrect history could damage the morale of a unit, the authenticity of existing histories should be determined through careful examination before acceptance. The New York Public Library probably maintains the best collection of published unit histories. They are listed in *Histories, Personal Narratives, United States Army: A Checklist* by Charles E. Dornbusch (1967—includes some unit histories in other collections). The U.S. Army Military History Institute maintains another good collection of unit histories, both published and in manuscript, cataloged in *United States Army Unit Histories, Special Bibliographic Series 4* (1971). The library of the U.S. Army Field Artillery School has a more specialized collection cataloged in *Artillery Unit Histories* (1955). The U.S. Army Center of Military History maintains bibliographies on all divisions, most combat arms regiments, and a few other

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organizations; some bibliographies show the locations of the volumes. The center also has one-page summaries, available upon request, of the actions of each division in World War II. Other possible sources for unit histories are libraries, publishers, used book dealers, and veterans' associations. Current lists of known veterans' associations are maintained by the Community Relations Division, Office of the Chief of Public Affairs, Department of the Army, Washington, D.C. 20310.

Very few unit histories were published before the Civil War, and many of those were more in the nature of memoirs or journals. Examples are Teresa Griffin Viele's *Following the Drum: A Glimpse of Frontier Life* (New York, 1858), which pertains to the 1st Infantry; and Lawrence Kip's *Army Life on the Pacific: A Journal of the Expedition Against Northern Indians . . .* (Redfield, New York, 1859), which provides information about Company F, 4th Regiment of Artillery (now 5th Battalion, 1st Field Artillery). After the Civil War a multitude of unit histories appeared, most either written by men who had served in the organizations or sponsored by the states that supplied them. Bibliographies of these histories, by state or region, continue to be prepared by Charles E. Dornbusch in *Regimental Publications and Personal Narratives of the Civil War: A Checklist* (1961-). Historical sketches of Union organizations are in Frederick H. Dyer's *A Compendium of the War of the Rebellion* (1908, 1959). A good starting place for histories of Regular Army regiments in the late nineteenth century is *The Army of the United States: Historical Sketches of the Staff and Line*, edited by Theophilus F. Rodenbough and William L. Haskin (1896). Its sketches originally appeared as separate articles in the *Journal of the Military Service Institution of the United States* between 1892 and 1896.

By the turn of the century the War Department was taking a more active interest in the heritage of its organizations and prepared *A Bibliography of State Participation in the Civil War . . .* (three editions, 1897, 1898, 1913), which is quite useful. The Adjutant General's *Statistical Exhibit of Strength of Volunteer Forces Called into Service During the War With Spain . . .* (1899) includes some information about volunteer units in that war. *The Order of Battle of the Land Forces in the World War*, prepared in three volumes by the Historical Section, Army War College (1931-49), provides similar data for units during World War I, including more detailed information about divisions.

A great number of unit histories appeared in the years following World Wars I and II and the Korean War, again written

mostly by unit members or sponsored by the organizations themselves. Most narrative unit histories today are similarly prepared, but some compilations or histories have been published by interested individuals not necessarily connected with the Army. In addition to the already mentioned volumes of Dyer and Rodenbough and Haskin, Fred A. Berg's *Encyclopedia of Continental Army Units* (1972) covers many of the organizations that served in the Revolutionary War. Bruce Jacob's *Soldiers: The Fighting Divisions of the Regular Army* (1958) is about Regular Army divisions in World War II. Some contemporary authors are producing histories of units in the past, such as Hugh Rankin's *North Carolina Continentals* (1971). And service journals, such as *Infantry* and *Army*, often note or review unit histories.

Not all unit histories appear in print. In addition to those manuscripts in the U.S. Army Military History Institute, the Center of Military History receives annual supplements from several active units, usually Regular Army and Army Reserve organizations. They vary from one-paragraph summaries to a few excellent histories. Students who are writing theses or dissertations often prepare unit histories. One example is Patrick Daniel O'Flaherty's "History of the Sixty-Ninth Regiment of the New York State Militia, 1852-1861" (Ph.D. dissertation, Fordham University, 1963). Many are listed in *Doctoral Dissertations in Military Affairs*, by Allan R. Millett and B. Franklin Cooling (1972—updated annually in *Military Affairs*).

Many units, especially smaller ones, have no written histories, but some historical information about them is usually available. Such unit records as muster rolls, operations or after-action reports, morning reports, and other similar documents are invaluable. Most of these records are now in storage at one of several records depositories, including the National Archives in Washington, D.C. The National Archives also holds the unit histories that The Adjutant General required regiments to prepare around the beginning of this century. Other sources include local historical societies, museums, former unit members, the state adjutants general for National Guard units, and, when active, the units themselves. Information concerning the various possible sources is included in a pamphlet, *Organizational History: Its Preparation and Use*, prepared and distributed by the Center of Military History.

The history of a unit manifests itself in many ways other than in written form—tangibly in such symbols as flags, colors, and

standards, streamers for campaigns and decorations, distinctive insignia, shoulder sleeve insignia, and organizational historical property. Intangibly, special traditions and customs and the spirit of an organization also reflect its history. Each symbol, whether tangible or intangible, has an important role in unit esprit.

During the nineteenth century considerable confusion existed as to the accepted procedures and methods for determining the history of Army units and their entitlement to honors for participation in various campaigns. After World War I many units with long histories and numerous honors were demobilized. The Historical Branch, War Plans Division, General Staff, published its *Outlines of History of Regiments, United States Army* in 1921. And during the 1920s, to prevent loss to the active Army of those units with the most significant heritage, the Historical Section of the Army War College began determining unit continuity. The section also guided the War Department General Staff on unit historical matters and monitored unit history preparation. With the tremendous changes that occurred during and immediately after World War II, the Organizational History and Honors Section of the Historical Division, War Department Special Staff, was established in 1947 to continue the work of the Historical Section, Army War College. Today, after several reorganizations, the unit lineage and honors function is performed by the Organizational History Branch, Center of Military History.

The basic document showing a unit's history is the official Lineage and Honors Certificate, which is prepared and issued by the Center of Military History to all flag-, color-, and separate guidon-bearing units that are organized under a Table of Organization and Equipment. These certificates outline major organizational changes and list official campaigns and decorations for units of all components—Regular Army, Army Reserve, and Army National Guard. The original certificate is suitable for framing and prominent display within the unit's area.

The certificate is divided into two parts. The first traces the history of the unit, in brief outline form, from its beginning through its various reorganizations, redesignations, and other changes up to the present. The second portion lists the unit's campaign participation credits and decorations. (AR 672-5-1, 3 June 1974, Decorations, Awards and Honors—Military Awards, describes authorized unit decorations and lists recognized campaigns with inclusive dates.) In order of precedence, U.S. decorations for Army units are the Presidential Unit Citation

(Army—formerly Distinguished Unit Citation), the Valorous Unit Award, and the Meritorious Unit Commendation. The Valorous Unit Award, the most recently established, is authorized for actions on or after 3 August 1963 and so has been awarded only to units that were in Vietnam. The Presidential Unit Citation is authorized for actions on or after 7 December 1941, and the Meritorious Unit Commendation for those on or after 1 January 1944.

The U.S. Army Institute of Heraldry uses the historical data provided by the certificates in creating coats of arms displayed on unit colors and unit insignia worn on uniforms. The U.S. Army Support Activity, Philadelphia, uses the honors portions of these certificates as the basis for issuing campaign and decoration streamers and silver bands for display with unit flags, colors, or guidons. Asterisks are used on the certificates of regimental elements organized under the Combat Arms Regimental System to denote those honors for which an element is an "earning unit," and their streamers have an additional device or wreath. The Adjutant General furnishes certificates for each U.S. unit decoration awarded. Honors are also the basis for ribbons and emblems that unit members wear on their uniforms.

While Lineage and Honors Certificates are not intended to be full histories of units, they do form the framework around which more complete histories can be written. Because the meaning of many of the terms used on the certificates is often misunderstood, a glossary is included in most volumes of the Army Lineage Series prepared by the Center of Military History. The CMH pamphlet *Organizational History: Its Preparation and Use* suggests content and format for unit histories and provides references and sources for information about Army organizations. Although the Department of the Army neither prepares nor requires units to prepare unit histories, many major commands do. Those that are prepared should agree with the data shown on the unit's official Lineage and Honors Certificate.

The Center of Military History furnishes other certificates that assist in fostering *esprit de corps*—those for unit days, special designations, and memorial awards. A unit day, commemorating some noteworthy event in the life of the organization, is selected by the unit for annual celebration in ceremonies and special activities. The date may be the one on which the unit was first organized or on which it performed some outstanding feat. The 1st Air Defense Artillery, for example, celebrates 20 March to commemorate its actions as the 1st Regiment of Artillery at the battle of Churubusco in 1847 during

the Mexican War. Unit special designations, or nicknames, are of two types: traditional—those associated with the unit for at least thirty years, and distinctive—less than thirty years. The 101st Airborne Division uses “Screaming Eagles” as its traditional designation, while the 7th Cavalry has “Garry Owen.” An example of a distinctive designation is “Truck Masters,” selected by the 24th Transportation Company in 1974. An organization with a particularly distinguished history may select a memorial award for annual presentation to a unit member. It is presented in remembrance of a combat action in which the unit participated or in the name of an outstanding former member.

Units down to the separate company, troop, or battery should accumulate and permanently retain all significant historical data. Units are required to establish an organizational history file for such items as unit histories, photographs, copies of Lineage and Honors Certificates, correspondence about unit lineage and honors, and other material relating to the unit's history and traditions. The file is never retired. During periods of inactivation or at other time when the unit is unable to care for it, the file is kept in a records storage facility and is returned whenever the organization can again maintain it. (See AR 340-2 and 870-5.)

Volumes of the Army Lineage Series prepared by the Center of Military History highlight the background and accomplishments of units. Each volume has a narrative history of a branch of the Army and, in compact form, the history and honors of each major unit within that branch. In addition to tracing the evolution of individual branches, this series presents a capsule history of the entire Army and gives insight into the reasons for most organizational changes. A prerequisite to an understanding of unit history in today's combat arms is a sound knowledge of the Combat Arms Regimental System, which is explained in recent volumes of the series. Each book contains illustrations and descriptions of the official coats of arms and distinctive insignia, as provided by the Institute of Heraldry, for major units. These volumes are useful at all levels of command, the Department of the Army staff, service schools, various training programs, and for the general public. Like other CMH publications, they are available for issue to authorized recipients through normal publications channels or they may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

The first lineage volume, published in 1953 and covering the infantry, is now out of print. A revised version, *Infantry, Part I*

(1972), includes Regular Army infantry regiments. Part II, on Army National Guard and Army Reserve units, is scheduled for later publication. Part I of the *Armor-Cavalry* volume (1969) has historical data on Regular Army and Army Reserve regiments, while Part II (1972) covers those of the Army National Guard. Other volumes planned for this series will be on armies and corps, divisions and separate brigades, air defense artillery, field artillery, engineers, medical, ordnance, signal, military police, and possibly other service and support organizations. A special volume, being prepared in conjunction with the Army's participation in the bicentennial observance, is entitled "The Continental Army" and will include the lineages and honors of Continental Army units during the Revolutionary War.

Unit history has many uses. It can help the commander in inspiring members of his command to excel in garrison or in the field. Heraldic symbols are tangible illustrations of a rich heritage. In addition to members of the unit itself, unit history often serves others. Quite frequently it provides the historian, social scientist, or fiction writer with material for a study of a war or campaign, a biography or autobiography, a sociological study, or a novel or short story. A sense of community pride may even stem from a unit having been raised or having served in an area. And veterans use unit history in reminiscing about their service with relatives and friends.

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# Military History in the Army School System



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**I**N his letter to the Chief of Staff in 1970 that led to the establishment of the Department of the Army Ad Hoc Committee on the Army Need for the Study of Military History, Brig. Gen. Hal C. Pattison, then Chief of Military History, contended that in the 1950s the Army's higher schools had turned away from the teaching of military history, traditionally an integral part of officer education. The net result, he thought, had been that officers in the 1960s paid the price of "neglect of the lessons of the past."<sup>1</sup> General Westmoreland's mandate to the committee consequently placed heavy emphasis on the question of the place of military history in Army school curricula, and some of the most significant conclusions and recommendations of the committee concerned this subject.

The committee found General Pattison's contentions right, that while interest in military history on civilian campuses had increased over the preceding twenty years, the Army had "shown less interest in teaching the subject in service schools than it did before World War II." Its first general recommendation called for the U.S. Continental Army Command to introduce a "progressive coordinated history program into the Army educational system." (ANSMH Cmte Rpt, 1:51, 56.)

When the committee met in 1971, responsibility for most of the Army's service schools, the Command and General Staff College, and the Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC) and associated programs resided with the Continental Army Command; in the 1973 reorganization of Army commands they were transferred to

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1. Ltr. Brig. Gen. Pattison to Gen. William C. Westmoreland, CSUSA, 30 Jul 70, copy in CMH files. On the committee report (ANSMH Cmte Rpt) and its part in the genesis of this Guide, see above, Foreword.

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the newly created U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command. The United States Military Academy and the Army War College operated at the time and continued to operate in 1977 under the direct control of Headquarters, Department of the Army. The teaching of military history in all these educational settings came under the ad hoc committee's examination, and only in case of the Military Academy did the committee make no recommendations for changes and improvements in the teaching and use of military history. The following account sets forth the status of military history instruction in 1977 at all of these levels, with some emphasis on the committee's recommendations and how they were carried out. To some extent, of course, the whole system is, and perhaps always will be, in a state of flux.

### *United States Military Academy*

The purpose of the Military Academy is to educate and train professional officers for the Regular Army, and military history has always held an important place in the curriculum. In order to meet the requirements of the Army for officers capable of assuming the diverse responsibilities inherent in a modern defense establishment and who also possess detailed knowledge in various areas, the academy seeks to strike a balance between breadth and specialization in its academic program. The cadet is required to take several courses in each major discipline but is allowed to choose an area of concentration in either basic sciences, applied sciences and engineering, national security and public affairs, or the humanities. While an area of concentration is not the equivalent of a college major, it can, when taken in conjunction with the broader offerings, provide a sound basis for future study at the graduate level. At West Point, history is offered within both the national security and public affairs and the humanities areas of concentration.

Each cadet, regardless of his area of concentration, must study either modern European, world, or American history during his sophomore year and take a course entitled "History of the Military Art" during his junior or senior year. The latter course indicates the Military Academy's professional as well as academic responsibilities; among the traditional university functions of education, scholarship, and service, the last is somewhat more strongly emphasized than at other academic institutions.

The academy has taught the history of the art of war in one form or another for well over a hundred years. The two-semester

course, "History of the Military Art," as it is presently constituted began to take shape in the mid-1960s. While preserving the traditional focus on the evolution of the military art, this course now presents more of the political and societal context in which wars have been waged; i.e., the causes and consequences of wars now receive more emphasis. The cadet examines the conduct of wars as well as the peacetime activities of military institutions in light of the milieu in which they existed.

This complex material is presented in terms of evolutionary themes, referred to as threads of continuity. They include strategy; tactics; logistics; generalship; military theory and doctrine; military professionalism; technology; and political, social, and economic factors influencing the nature of war. The evolution of these factors, the relationships among them, and the reasons they have changed form the structure of the course.

A thematic approach provides several significant benefits. By studying military history over a broad time span, the student can isolate and analyze the critical reasons for changes at different junctures in history. Ideally, such a process sharpens the cadet's judgment so that he will better understand contemporary military developments; it also builds the foundation for a broader and deeper understanding of war that will help the graduate make sound decisions and give useful advice as he moves through positions of increasing responsibility in the Army.

"History of the Military Art" is divided into subcourses covering various periods: ancient and early modern warfare through the eighteenth century, the Napoleonic wars, the American Civil War, World War I, World War II in Europe and the Pacific, together with several military conflicts since World War II. Although the course offers a selective survey of the history of the military art, the cadet studies two operations, Napoleon's Jena campaign and the battle of Vicksburg, in considerable depth to give him a more realistic understanding of the events that transpired and to develop his ability to conduct a detailed historical analysis.

In addition to this required two-semester course, the Department of History also offers a number of military history electives, generally taken during the junior and senior years. These include two popular courses, "The History of Revolutionary Warfare" and "War in the Twentieth Century," which are offered each semester, as well as broader, nonoperational electives such as "War and Its Philosophers," "The Development

of Air Power," "The Development of Sea Power," and "The American Military Experience," presented less frequently. Since the institution of a visiting professorship in military history in 1972, each holder of the chair has offered a one-semester course in his area of principal specialization or interest.

Perhaps the major difference between teaching military history at the Military Academy and other academic institutions is the low student-to-instructor ratio. Each instructor teaches approximately sixty-four students in four separate sessions of sixteen students each, a ratio which gives him the opportunity to conduct the class more as a colloquium than as a lecture. This allows the student to participate in give-and-take discussion with the instructor and to probe him for answers to questions; it also enables the instructor to know his students individually. Classroom discussions are enlivened by a variety of visual instructional aids and are supplemented by occasional lectures, films, television programs, and demonstrations of weapons and equipment by the curators of the West Point Museum.

Assigning active-duty officers as instructors has a number of advantages, particularly in teaching military history, but it also results in an annual turnover of one-third of the officers within the department. Because of the personal method of teaching in a small classroom, continuous attrition makes the selection of instructors a vital and time consuming task which shapes the character of the entire department.

The department head's criteria for selecting military history instructors include a strong desire to teach cadets, excellent performance in duty assignments, and potential for academic achievement and growth. In addition it is desirable for military history instructors to have attended the Command and General Staff College before reporting for duty; to date about ninety percent of the officer instructors have done so. Those selected as instructors attend graduate school, usually for two years, to study under noted historians with an interest in military history and to earn an M.A. degree. Some continue their work toward a doctorate and complete the requirements while at West Point. New instructors in military history also receive several weeks of instruction during the summer preceding their first year, including a tour of selected American battlefields. Thereafter the instructor's continuing education is a product of his own initiative and the needs of the department. In addition to educated cadets, the system of teaching history at the Military Academy produces middle-grade officers with a greatly increased understanding of war and peace.

Military history increases the cadet's understanding of how, through the whole sweep of history, man has used war to achieve his goals; helps him perceive the relationships between strategy and policy, between tactics and technology, and between the military profession and society at large; and, finally, helps him appreciate his place in the profession of arms as a newly commissioned officer. By causing him to reflect upon how military commanders and statesmen of the past handled their problems, the Military Academy can alert the cadet to the demands that will be placed upon him as he matures to higher commands and responsibilities.

### *Reserve Officer Training Program*

The Reserve Officer Training Program was established by the National Defense Act of 1916, and from the beginning military history instruction was an integral part of the program. Privately printed manuals supported all ROTC instruction for many years, and they provided some coverage of military history. The manual for 1922, for example, contained 106 pages of military history concentrated primarily on military policy rather than campaigns. By 1932, however, the historical accounts had shifted to military operations exclusively.

The ROTC program was suspended during World War II and underwent extensive study and changes in the immediate postwar period. A major revision in the curriculum took place in 1951. The new 480-hour curriculum contained thirty hours of instruction in American military history which emphasized the principles of war and stressed the history of the Army and of leadership to add meaning to the detailed factual information presented. In 1956 the Office, Chief of Military History, first developed a text for the course (see Chapter 11).

Further revisions of ROTC curricula took place periodically during the 1950s and 1960s. Most of these changes resulted from pressures in the academic community to substitute academic courses for military subjects and to eliminate instruction which was not up to college level, such as training on crew-served weapons. In 1965 an Army advisory panel on the ROTC reviewed several proposals and recommended a new curriculum which included sixty classroom hours of world military history in the freshman year and ninety hours on national security and the concept of force in the sophomore year. The Department of the Army approved this as a developmental program, and in 1968 eleven schools adopted the new curriculum, which was known as Option C. Almost immediately work began on another

revision, a flexible one that allowed more academic substitution. Half of the 360 hours then required would be professional military courses taught by military instructors. The other half would consist of academic subjects which could be taught by the academic faculty. Although American and world military history were two subjects which could be taught by the academic faculty, about fifteen or twenty hours of American military history were included in the first year course, "Fundamentals of Leadership and Management." The Department of the Army approved this curriculum as another option in 1969.

When the ad hoc committee met in 1971, colleges and universities could choose from five ROTC programs. Three included 30 hours of American military history; one (Option C) contained 60 hours of world military history; and one, the curriculum approved in 1969, had 15 to 20 hours of military history augmented by those history subjects (enrichment courses) taught by the academic faculty.

Most of the committee recommendations with regard to the ROTC curricula were general. The one precise recommendation, that the required hours of military history in the 1969 curriculum be raised to thirty, was not approved by the Department of the Army—doubtless because of a desire to maintain the flexibility so necessary for a changing educational philosophy and for the accommodation of a wide spectrum of institutions with ROTC programs. These were, after all, the reasons for having a choice of curricula in the first place. In any case, in school year 1975/76 the large majority of ROTC students did receive the thirty-hour block of American military history. For this course the Office, Chief of Military History, provided its revised and much improved text in 1969, with an updated version in 1973 to provide more current coverage of the Vietnam War (see Chapter 11).

The ad hoc committee recognized a basic prerequisite for an adequate ROTC program in military history, competent instructors, and it recommended the assignment of at least one officer with a graduate degree in history to each ROTC unit. As this recommendation came at a time when many military subjects were being phased out of the ROTC program, it coincided with increased demands from colleges for ROTC instructors with advanced degrees in several fields. The Army decided to rely on a broader program, an advanced degree program for all ROTC instructors, to improve academic qualifications of teachers of military science and tactics and so rejected the committee's specific recommendation. In the advanced degree program,

instructors with a master's degree were to have a three-year stabilized ROTC tour; those not having that degree were to be permitted up to two years of study at a civilian institution to work toward it, followed by a two-year stabilized tour of instructor duty.

In terms of upgrading the academic qualifications of ROTC instructors generally, the program was highly successful. The proportion of professors and assistant professors of military science with advanced degrees increased from only 8 percent in academic year 1968/69 to 64 percent in 1974/75. As of February 1976 the figure was 66 percent. While no distinction was made as to the disciplines in which these degrees were earned, history undoubtedly received its share.

Meanwhile, a major study of the officer corps started in 1974 had significant impact upon the ROTC program. Under the Officer Personnel Management System (OPMS), the assignment of officers to ROTC duty no longer would be by grade and branch with graduate degree in unspecified disciplines. Rather, officers would be assigned by grade and OPMS specialty, with graduate degree requirements corresponding to that specialty. Although precise requirements had not been determined in 1976, there was no reason to assume that ROTC requirements for officers with advanced degrees would decline significantly.

As approved, committee recommendations called for participation of the civilian faculty in teaching ROTC cadets military history, either in the core curriculum or in enrichment courses. Some colleges and universities offered military history courses within their own history departments which served as appropriate substitutes for the ROTC requirement. Team teaching continued to be an effective device which combined the talents of military and academic instructors in the presentation of military history. Guest lecturers added variety and depth.

A six-week military history workshop, conducted since 1968 at the United States Military Academy, has also improved the qualifications of some ROTC military history instructors. This program includes seminar discussions, guest lecturers, library research, and the preparation of monographs. In 1972, the Department of the Army asked the Continental Army Command to restudy the workshop requirement, particularly in view of the expected impact of the advanced degree program, but its value was solidly reaffirmed. These workshops have served as excellent training vehicles for selected professors and assistant professors of military science to prepare adequately for their role as military history instructors.

## *Branch Service Schools*

Although branch service schools date from 1824, when the Artillery School of Practice was established at Fort Monroe, the present system took shape after the reorganization of the Army in 1920. During the period between the two world wars, service schools stressed a broad education and included the formal study of military history in the basic and advanced officer courses. For example, in the early 1920s the Infantry School's basic course contained 66 hours of critical study of selected campaigns, and its advanced course had 91 hours of formal military history. Some schools studied military history in relation to the particular arm or branch. The Artillery School advanced course after World War I contained 25 hours of "lectures on selected campaigns with particular reference to Field Artillery." World War II forced the abandonment of such "educational" subjects as the schools stressed the accelerated training of large numbers of officers.

Post-World War II attempts by some branch schools to reinstitute military history in their curricula were thwarted primarily by more pressing teaching requirements. In 1954, a survey of fourteen branch schools revealed that only the Chemical Officer Advanced Course provided formal instruction in military history. By the early 1970s some basic courses did include one-hour periods on the history of the particular branch. Although branch advanced courses benefited from extensive use of historical examples integrated into regular instruction, there was little or no history in the core curricula, and, at the time the ad hoc committee met, only a few schools offered military history electives.

For the basic courses, the committee recommended a two-hour block of instruction on the importance and value of the study of military history and two hours on the history of the particular branch. Two military history electives should be offered in the advanced courses, one operationally oriented and the other emphasizing civil-military relationships. Realizing the futility of offering military history courses without qualified people to teach them, the committee recommended that a minimum of two spaces be validated for officers possessing master's degrees in history for each school conducting an advanced course.

The Department of the Army concurred in the recommended basic course requirements but eliminated any reference to minimum hours. It agreed that two military history electives, "of diverse sophistication," should be included in each advanced

course curriculum. And it also agreed that "one or two spaces" in each branch school should be validated as graduate degree positions in history; incumbents would teach history and advise fellow faculty members on matters of military history.

In addition the committee recommended that the Continental Army Command (CONARC) develop some instruction for officer candidate school students who had not been exposed to military history as college undergraduates. This instruction, which should approximate the ROTC American military history course, should be given no later than the branch basic courses. This recommendation was never approved; neither the relatively short length nor the performance-oriented training characteristic of both OCS and the basic courses were conducive to teaching military history.

By school year 1974/75, CONARC and the Training and Doctrine Command had carried out the other recommendations. CONARC directed the Command and General Staff College to prepare instructional packets consisting of scope, outline, and bibliography for the two military history electives which were to be included in the advanced course curricula. One course was called Topical Military History, the other Advanced American Military History. While some schools used this material, others developed their own military history electives, an approach facilitated by the assignment of qualified instructors to the branch service schools. Even so, there was no precise uniformity in offerings. The Armor School, for example, offered but one military history course during school year 1974/75, as part of the core curriculum. The Field Artillery School offered five military history electives in its advanced course ranging from an evaluation of warfare through the ages to the role of the military in the modern world. The Air Defense School offered two military history electives, one a review of American military history, the other a reading seminar which examined generalship and technology in warfare. The Infantry School offered a well-received world military history elective, taught by an officer instructor who was a Ph.D. candidate in history at Duke University.

By 1975, however, a change in the length of branch school advanced courses was affecting the elective program. The Training and Doctrine Command determined that advanced courses would be reduced from thirty-six to twenty-six weeks. This change, which took place in the school year 1975/76, forced out all elective courses. A survey of branch schools in 1976 indicated that only one intended to retain military history as part

of the core curriculum. Other schools planned to integrate military history into the instruction, although that subject would not constitute a teaching objective. The removal of formal military history presentations from advanced course curricula naturally eliminated the need for officer instructors with advanced degrees in history.

The whole matter of reducing the length of advanced courses became interwoven with the formulation of the Officer Personnel Management System which was taking place at the same time. One of the ramifications of the system was a review of the advanced degree program and a decision to limit civilian schooling requirements to skills and areas dictated by officer specialties.

### *The Command and General Staff College*

In 1966, the Department of the Army's Haines Board, convened to review the Army's school system, described the Command and General Staff College at Fort Leavenworth as "the keystone of the Army educational system in the tactical application of combined arms and services." From its inception in 1881 as the School of Application for Infantry and Cavalry, this institution presented instruction in military history. Refinements in the curriculum resulted from the influence of Capt. Arthur Wagner immediately before the Spanish-American War and the stimulus of Elihu Root's sponsorship and Maj. John Morrison's instruction after that war. If the period preceding World War I can be characterized as the time of intellectual ferment in the teaching of military history at Fort Leavenworth, the 1920s can best be described as one of pragmatic, utilitarian endeavor. During World War I, Leavenworth graduates had served in high command and staff positions and had organized training schools based on the Leavenworth model. Confident of the soundness of the Leavenworth method as modified by their wartime experience, they returned to reestablish the Army school system. The National Defense Act of 1920 provided for the progressive military training of officers from West Point and the Reserve Officers Training Program through the branch service schools and the Line and General Staff College at Fort Leavenworth to the Army War College.

The prevailing post-World War I educational philosophy was best expressed by a colonel in a 1921 issue of the *Infantry Journal*. To be an active and intelligent participant in the era that

had just begun, an officer "must know, not only the military condition of the United States, but he must know its history, its political, industrial, and financial conditions, and the hopes and aspirations of its people."<sup>2</sup> This kind of thinking ensured the place of history within the curricula of the Army service school system during the interwar years.

In 1923 the institution at Fort Leavenworth was renamed the Command and General Staff School, and the curriculum that had evolved by that time was to remain substantially the same until World War II. A course in psychology and leadership, emphasizing American characteristics, included general historical studies and studies that dealt more specifically with such American military leaders as Grant, Lee, Sheridan, and Sherman. A course in logic was later combined with one in military history, while courses in military geography, strategy, and legal principles drew heavily upon the study of military history. The school's annual report for 1921 indicated the rationale for such measures:

Purely theoretical studies . . . even though they consist largely of the discussion of concrete situations, are not considered sufficient to adjust the officer's mind to actual conditions. In time of peace, Military History must be relied on for information as to the actual conditions of war. As a consequence . . . the course in Military History and Strategy is scheduled to proceed hand in hand with the course in Tactical and Strategic Studies, Corps and Army, for the purpose of illustrating the actual workings of the principles discussed in the latter course.<sup>3</sup>

Despite good intentions for broadening the scope of military history, courses stressed for the most part military operations in the field. Although course hours and content fluctuated during the years up to World War II, the objective of military history remained that stated in the 1921 annual report. In the last year before World War II disrupted the school's operations, 53 of 1,073 total classroom hours were devoted to military history.

The first special World War II streamlined course, which began in December 1940, contained 318 hours of instruction and 243 hours of applicatory exercises. Both formal instruction in military history and the use of historical illustrations were discarded entirely. Operational lessons learned were to be the only vestige of military history. The post-World War II Leavenworth curriculum was an extension of the wartime model. Formal instruction in military history did not reappear

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2. Henry A. Smith, "General Staff College Course," *Infantry Journal* 18 (Jan. 1921):51.

3. General Staff School, *Annual Report 1920-1921* [Fort Leavenworth, Kans., June 30, 1921], p. 23.

until 1952, when historical examples were introduced into the core curriculum as a means of illustrating the principles of war. By 1957 the curriculum included 21 hours of historical examples and one hour on the history of Fort Leavenworth. In addition, each student spent about 55 hours on a leadership paper involving rudimentary historical research and some 16 to 32 hours of historical illustrations were written into lesson plans.

By 1960 the upward trend was reversed and formal instruction in military history was reduced to a three-hour course, the purpose of which was the encouragement of self-study. These three hours were eliminated in 1965 in favor of a more comprehensive elective military history course. The use of historical examples to reinforce general instruction continued, and ten hours of leadership case studies were introduced. In 1967, as result of a Haines board recommendation, the college expanded its program of electives, including those in military history.

When the ad hoc committee met in 1971, the core curriculum of the Command and General Staff College contained no formal instruction in military history, although case studies and historical examples continued to be used. The college itself offered three military history electives—"Military History," "Topical Military History," and "Development of Combat Divisions—Free World and Communist Powers." Ten history or history-related electives from the University of Kansas, Kansas State University, and the University of Missouri at Kansas City were also available. The lack of qualified instructors at the Command and General Staff College was a problem in the military history elective offerings in 1971. None of the eleven instructors who taught two of the military history courses had graduate degrees in history, although two had masters in other disciplines—English and mechanical engineering. A similar situation existed in the third military history elective.

Ad hoc committee recommendations approved by the Department of the Army included the following: improving the quality of current military history electives within the college as faculty expertise improved; introducing electives in the critical analysis of actual tactical operations and in strategic studies; validating at least three spaces as graduate degree positions in history; and encouraging nearby colleges to offer more military history electives. The Department of the Army deferred action on a recommendation for restudying the feasibility of a visiting professor in military history.

The large majority of these approved recommendations were

carried out. The catalog of resident courses for the academic year 1977/78 listed ten military history electives taught by the faculty, while five more history courses were presented by professors from the University of Kansas. The college faculty also taught 29 hours in the common curriculum, including an 18-hour block on the U.S. Army in the twentieth century. Equally important, historians were introducing a theater operations exercise and a two-major-corps tactical exercise. Three of the five officers teaching military history had masters in history, one had his Ph.D. in history, and one had met all doctoral requirements but the defense of his dissertation. The military staff was supplemented by two civilians with doctorates in history and by a visiting professor in the John F. Morrison Chair of Military History established in 1974.

### *The Army War College*

Military history has traditionally formed an important part of the instruction for students at the Army War College. Studies of campaigns and leadership to derive lessons from the past can be found in the curriculum of the Army's senior educational institution from its inception at Washington, D.C., in 1901. This type of study, emphasizing military operations in the field, reached its zenith in the years between World War I and World War II, when much time, both in and out of the classroom, was devoted to analyses of earlier campaigns and battles and foreign military institutions. Students toured Civil War battlefields in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, and distinguished military historians such as Douglas Southall Freeman lectured frequently at the college.

Unlike the Command and General Staff College, the War College closed its doors during World War II. When it reopened after the war it was at a new location, first at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, and after 1951 at Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania—and with a new curriculum reflecting new concepts of professional education for senior officers. The emphasis had shifted from field operations to the realm of national military planning and policy and management problems. The approach was interdisciplinary, and the tools of study more frequently political science, international relations, economics, and psychology than military history per se. The formal teaching of military history that had characterized the interwar period disappeared from the curriculum, though the use of military history for illustrative examples as part of the interdisciplinary approach did not.

In the various curriculum changes since the early fifties, the study of military history has increased both in terms of formal instruction and as part of the interdisciplinary approach. The ad hoc committee report in 1971 concluded that coverage within the core curriculum was adequate. The committee proposed a threefold definition of military history that furnished a framework for War College curriculum planners and professors. The committee's definition included (1) operations (tactics, strategy, and leadership, to mention the most important aspects); (2) administration and technology, such as the functional and professional activities of armed forces, doctrines, organization, manpower, training, and weapons and their development; and finally (3) the military establishment and society, dealing with the national and international aspects of national strategy in war and peace, the elements of national power, and the role of the armed services strategies in achieving national objectives. Since the War College seeks primarily to educate rather than train, the educational aspects of military history have been emphasized.

For the past several years the curriculum at the Army War College has had two major elements: a Common Overview to provide the core of professional knowledge essential to each graduate, and an Individual Concentration (elective) phase to allow each student to meet individual professional needs. The Common Overview exposes the student to the historical backgrounds of the United States and the leading nations of the world to aid him in assessing the domestic and international issues that affect U.S. national security. The approach during these core courses is interdisciplinary, and history in general and military history in particular is woven into the fabric of instruction.

A much more intensive and extensive use of military history can be found in the Evolution of Military Strategy course of the Common Overview. Here the three elements of the definition of military history come into play: operational, administrative and technical, and the military and society. All students are exposed to the development of military strategy/military history with special emphasis on the "great captains" and military strategic thinkers here and abroad. Thus, a definite military historical framework for all War College students is part of the required course.

The Individual Concentration phase gives the student an opportunity to explore military history in greater depth. In this as in the Common Overview, the War College has received

excellent cooperation from the U.S. Army Military History Institute (MHI—see Chapter 12). Since 1971 the institute's staff and since 1973 visiting professors at the institute have offered elective courses. Each visiting professor has conducted a seminar in military history as an elective for War College students in addition to other services, such as advising students and guiding study projects.

Elective courses provide a range of choices in the general field of history as well as specifically in military history. Among the specific military history courses a student might choose are: Contrasts in Command, Changing Nature of Modern Warfare, and Strategic Issues of World War II. General courses with historical content include: Arms control: An Element of National Security; Nuclear Strategy: Policy and Planning; Politico-Military Dimensions of National Policy; Contemporary Issues in U.S. Foreign Policy; and War and International Law: The Kaiser to Kissinger. Area courses also have historical content, for instance, Africa: Problems and Promises; China as a World Power; Middle East Political Dynamics; and Soviet Power and Policy.

Besides formal curricular offerings, War College students have other opportunities to study military history. The commandant conducts wide-ranging small group discussions with all members of each class, and distinguished active or retired members of the armed services who visit the college can draw on professional experience stretching back in some cases to before World War II. One of the highlights of the academic year is the Gettysburg Battlefield tour which is open to students, their families, and guests. A presentation on the strategy, tactics, and events leading up to the day of battle precedes the tour. During the academic year the Military History Institute sponsors a series of evening meetings, "Perspectives in Military History," in which some of the leading military historians here and abroad discuss their current research. The institute also provides publications and exhibits.

Perhaps the most interesting and rewarding experience is the Oral History Program sponsored by the MHI. An average of about twenty students per year debrief senior retired Army generals and other distinguished military and civilian leaders and analyze earlier debriefings. These interview sessions make the student keenly aware of the significance and importance of military history in the education of the professional officer.

In summary, the current War College curriculum represents an interdisciplinary approach to fulfilling the college mission. A

strong undercurrent of military history flows through the Common Overview courses and especially the Evolution of Military Strategy course. Almost half of the Individual Concentration courses have a direct relation to history and to military history in particular. Other educational and professional opportunities also exist outside the seminar room at the War College for the student to pursue an interest in military history.

## The Use of Military History in Staff Work

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Walter G. Hermes

**O**N the eve of the Civil War the Secretary of War received two communications. One—a treatise on camels and their use in warfare—was sparked by Jefferson Davis's interest in the possibility of importing camels and employing them in the American southwest in the place of horses and mules. The second came from a junior Engineer officer who pointed out that the system of coastal defenses along the Atlantic seaboard would be largely ineffective against a maritime power. In the process, he gave a short account of amphibious landings undertaken since 1400 A.D. to demonstrate how the state of the art had changed and how vulnerable the United States was to invasion from the sea. The treatise on camels argued that the old ship of the desert still merited a place in warfare, while the engineer emphasized the impact of modern technology, such as the introduction of new steam vessels and more deadly weapons, upon military planning.

Whether the issue concerns the retention of the old or the adoption of the new, the telling points are frequently drawn from military history. For generations staff officers have marshaled facts and figures to support the pros and cons of a case. Patently, the officer who is poorly grounded in military history will often operate at a disadvantage in the staff arena.

It is thus unfortunate that as a rule the young officer entering his first assignment on a staff will have little time to devote to the study of military history. In most cases, he will soon become an action officer responsible for a specific area and will be immersed in current operations. Working against deadlines, he will be under constant pressure to prepare the never-ending stream of reports and memoranda that are the lifeblood of staff work. In the hectic schedule of a working staff, military history will usually play a subsidiary role.

Yet that role is important. Many of the papers that staff

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officers prepare become the bases for decision—some of major consequence. The proper use of historical materials and resources in the preparation of these papers is essential in arriving at acceptable solutions to many problems. How then can the staff officer take full advantage of his training and resources to ensure that his staff submissions are historically sound and can be supported with confidence?

The exposure to military history that young officers receive during the academic years may vary from almost none to a great deal. The fortunate ones will have a general background of knowledge in the field, although it may be of only limited assistance in attacking a specific problem. Similarly, the experience acquired in research projects during the school years should give many officers at least a basic skill in finding materials and in digesting, assembling, and presenting information in a logical fashion. Some officers have also had the benefit of postgraduate work to sharpen those skills.

How these skills can be applied to each problem will vary according to the time available. For the most part, the staff officer will be dealing with a brand of history that, in this era of convenience packaging, has received the rather appropriate title of instant history. In staff operations the deadline is the controlling factor and the amount of research that can be done in support of a project is usually quite limited. Frequently the staff officer will not have adequate time to do a thorough job in investigating the background of a problem.

If the deadline is extremely tight—a day or less—the officer will have to depend upon what is immediately on hand or easy to obtain. He must know the sources he can tap quickly. Upon his assignment to a staff section, he should become thoroughly familiar with the office records and should set up and maintain a complete and well-organized file on the subjects he is responsible for. Since very few problems are wholly new, background material will be available in previous studies, reports, and other documents. Frequently the major task will be simply to update this material by screening current records or by getting information from other staff sections. In the search for such material the command staff historian or the Center of Military History can often be of service. The command staff historian, who may work alone or with a small staff, is charged with performing historical functions for his command or agency. Either he or the center may have done some work on the subject and may be able to provide spot information, statistics, or other data from reference files. For the immediate demand project,

however, there is little time for basic research, and the result is instant history at its worst.

The quality of the response should rise in proportion to the time allowed by the target date, but the depth of the research will depend a great deal on the complexity of the subject and the location of the records. In other words, a week may permit an officer to become familiar with the desertion problems that existed during World War II but would scarcely allow him to do more than begin his research on the handling of deserters in all American wars. It also follows that if all the required records are located in one place, the staff officer will be able to cover much more than he could if they were scattered among half a dozen sites.

A quick survey of the dimensions of the problem will help determine whether the staff officer should attempt to do the job himself or seek outside help. In most cases, consultation with the command staff historian or, if the officer is located in the Washington area, with the Center of Military History is highly advisable. Historians can provide information on what has already been done on the topic—in 1965, for example, a center study on the call-up of reserve forces during the Berlin crisis of 1961 proved to be of great help to the staff in planning for the use of reserves during the war in Vietnam. Historians may also suggest books, articles, theses, and studies that can be helpful reference sources. Frequently they may be able to furnish names and addresses of persons and organizations that can give additional information and assistance. The historical office usually can save the busy staff officer valuable time that otherwise might be spent in searching dead ends by guiding him promptly to the most rewarding sources. By cutting down waste motion the staff officer can do a more thorough job, and that thoroughness will be reflected in his final submission.

On occasion the staff officer will be assigned, either individually or as a member of a study group, to prepare a long-range study on a major topic such as Army promotion policies, the overhauling of a logistical support system, or Army planning for the mobilization of reserve forces. Depending on the urgency of the situation, the time allotted for studies of this importance will, as a rule, vary from three months to a year.

For a comprehensive study the first task is generally the development of an outline. In almost every outline the first section will be devoted to the background of the topic. To know where you are going, it is necessary to know where you have been. If the study is on promotion policies, the officer will have to

become familiar with the policies of the past before he can discuss those of the present or recommend those of the future. The scope of the study will determine whether he need only study the policies of the past decade or must trace developments from the Revolutionary War to the present. Similarly, a consideration of the use of foreign ports in wartime may be limited to the experience in Vietnam or may span the period from World War I on. Whether the period covers a few years or centuries, the background portion of the study is essentially historical in nature and should be approached as a historical research project.

It is rare to discover that someone else has already done the bulk of the research and writing in response to an earlier requirement. More frequently, the bits and pieces that form the background mosaic are scattered in a dozen places and considerable digging may be necessary. Should the staff officer decide that he has both the time and ability to do the historical work himself, he would still be wise to consult the command staff historian or the center of Military History. There is no point in duplicating the work of others, especially if they have done the job well. In any event, the guidance and suggestions of the historian can help smooth and shorten the path of the do-it-yourself officer.

If the study topic is broad and complex or if the study clearly cannot be completed on time without assistance, the staff historian or Center of Military History may be called upon to prepare part or all of the background material. Preliminary consultation with the historical office is always advisable before a formal directive is drawn up. Since each historical unit has certain fixed requirements and capabilities, the priority of a new request must be established and the availability of qualified persons to do the task must be determined. A small historical office, for example, will not have the flexibility of the Center of Military History and may not be able to assume an additional load, no matter how willing it may be to help. In some cases, requests for historical assistance may have to go through command channels and be approved by the staff agency that supervises the historical office. An informal discussion with the historian in advance will reveal whether his office can handle the job and meet the deadline. It will also assure that the request is sent through the proper channels and that the directive to be issued is concise and acceptable to the historical office.

The preparation of the directive is important and should be done with care. The staff officer must assume that he will get

what he asks for. If the request for a historical background section or chapter is vaguely worded and does not state the requirement clearly, the end product will probably mirror the indecision. The directive should set forth the purpose of the study, the topics to be covered, and the scope and time focus of the historical background so that the historian's research will put the subject into the proper perspective. The background chapter should not be cluttered with material that is not germane to the study. If the subject should be the mobilization of the National Guard in times of crisis, for instance, there may be no need to cover in any detail the call-up of other reserve forces or the expansion of active Army units during these periods. The directive, in essence, should be a blueprint for the historian to construct a sound, unbiased, and relevant base for the study.

If the agency or command to which he is assigned prepares an annual historical summary of its activities, the staff officer may also become directly involved in writing military history. Although the administrative details of assembling and packaging the annual summaries are usually performed by civilian action officers, many of the submissions concerning directorate, division, and branch operations are prepared by staff officers as an additional duty. To do the job effectively, they must become thoroughly familiar with the background of missions, accomplishments, and problems so that they can present an objective, well-organized, accurate account of the major activities of the past year. In the process they should acquire a good overview of their own operations as well as valuable experience in researching, writing, and organizing historical materials.

Thus far only the more usual circumstances under which the staff officer would come into contact with military history have been considered. A development of recent years may become more commonplace and important. It is instant history also, but with a different twist. In 1962 during the Berlin crisis, the Chief of Staff wanted a record of the events, since the call-up of two National Guard divisions and a number of other reserve units had resulted in a number of problems for the Army. The Office of the Chief of Military History sent a four-man team to the Pentagon to collect the necessary data from action officers scattered throughout the Army staff. The team worked from current files and filled gaps in the records by interviewing military and civilian staff members who held important positions. Shortly after the reserve forces were released from active service in mid-1962, the team finished a detailed study that covered the background of the call-up, the problems

encountered in mobilizing and demobilizing the reserves and in expanding the active Army, and an analysis of the lessons learned during the operation.

Later that year OCMH sent a historian to the Pentagon to monitor the Oxford crisis, which developed when a black student attempted to enroll in the University of Mississippi. Working side by side with the action officers, he was on hand as the drama took place and was able to obtain copies of most of the important documents and telephone conversations as they were generated. With this valuable source material he was able to write a monograph on the incident within a few months after it ended. Similar uses of historians occurred during later crises, with the historians collecting and writing the story almost as it happened.

The advantages of preparing instant history of this kind are obvious. The historian can be on the scene while the records are relatively intact. He can screen the source documents and organize a historical file that should eventually contain the core material for his study. By being close to the action officers while history is in the making, the historian can absorb a sense of the drama of the situation and a feeling for the atmosphere. He can also talk to many of the participants while everything is still fresh in their minds, before the fog of time begins to obscure the sequence of events and leads them to magnify their own roles.

For the staff officer this type of instant history can be extremely useful. Almost immediately he will have a handy reference tool available to answer questions, to prepare reports, and to tap for planning and experience data. But the attractions of instant history should not blind either the historian or the staff officer to its inherent weaknesses. Of necessity it will be limited in scope and will reflect mainly the information to which the recorder is privy. Many pertinent records will not be available until well after the events are concluded, especially those dealing with the high-level story and those held by other agencies. Perhaps the most glaring limitation of all is the lack of perspective. Writing so close to the action, the historian can hardly avoid some distortion. And, like the quick demand project that the staff officer is called upon to prepare, instant history is bound to reflect the haste with which it has been turned out.

Despite these disadvantages, instant history's plus factors appear to outweigh the minus. The collection and preservation of the records alone would be enough to commend it. Besides, in many cases the instant history may be the only reliable account available for some years. It serves as a useful reference tool until

the passage of time and the accessibility of other records permit a more accurate and balanced account to be written.

In summary, the staff officer will come into contact with military history on numerous occasions during his tour but will probably not have much time to study it. He will have to rely mainly upon whatever general knowledge of the subject he acquired during his school years plus what he has picked up on his own in the interim. Ideally he should be familiar with the standard books and reference works in the field and with the historical publications of the Center of Military History before he is assigned to staff duty; time for extensive reading may be sharply limited during the tour, especially under crisis conditions. Then the officer will have to know how to exploit quickly the resources at his disposal. The deadline will be the prime factor in every action, and the officer must know where to go for assistance, both short- and long-range, and be keenly aware of the time restrictions that govern his response. He will usually have to make compromises between the desirable and the practicable to satisfy the requirement of the moment.

To help ease the pressure and increase the reliability of his staff submissions, the officer may turn to the historical office for guidance and assistance. The professional military historian may not always have all the answers, but he does know the best places to look for them. When time permits, the historian may also be requested to prepare historical background material for staff studies and reports, especially those of major importance. During crises the staff officer may encounter the historian on the job when they work side by side covering the emergency. With luck the officer will have a draft account of the events on hand shortly after they come to an end.

All in all, the staff officer will be exposed to military history frequently during his tour, and often, consciously or subconsciously, will be applying his knowledge to the solution of his daily problems. For those who plan to reach the top, military history can be a valuable aid.