

THE OFFICIAL

ARMY
INFORMATION
DIGEST

U. S. ARMY MAGAZINE

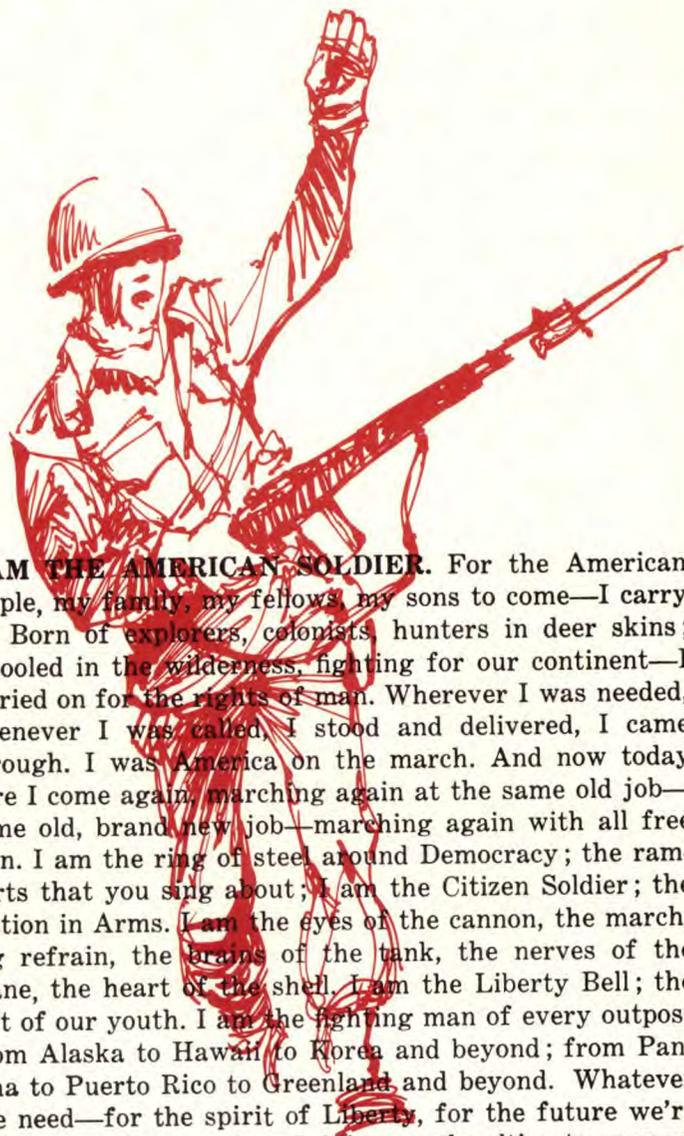
1963

SEPTEMBER



THE UNITED STATES ARMY
Protector of Proud Heritage

CODE OF THE U.S. ARMY SOLDIER



I AM THE AMERICAN SOLDIER. For the American people, my family, my fellows, my sons to come—I carry on. Born of explorers, colonists, hunters in deer skins; schooled in the wilderness, fighting for our continent—I carried on for the rights of man. Wherever I was needed, whenever I was called, I stood and delivered, I came through. I was America on the march. And now today here I come again, marching again at the same old job—same old, brand new job—marching again with all free men. I am the ring of steel around Democracy; the ramparts that you sing about; I am the Citizen Soldier; the Nation in Arms. I am the eyes of the cannon, the marching refrain, the brains of the tank, the nerves of the plane, the heart of the shell. I am the Liberty Bell; the salt of our youth. I am the fighting man of every outpost from Alaska to Hawaii to Korea and beyond; from Panama to Puerto Rico to Greenland and beyond. Whatever the need—for the spirit of Liberty, for the future we're making—I, the American Soldier, am the ultimate weapon.

THE UNITED STATES ARMY

... Protector of Our Liberties

Defender of Proud Heritage ...

Brig. Gen. Paul M. Robinett, USA Ret.
and
Dr. Abe Bortz

The original of this article, prepared by General Robinett when he was Chief, Special Studies Division, Office of the Chief of Military History, Department of the Army, was published in June 1955 as a special commemorative issue of *ARMY INFORMATION DIGEST*. Dr. Bortz, currently a member of the Histories Division, OCMH, has revised the original article and brought it up to date.

ARMY INFORMATION DIGEST

*The Official Magazine of the
Department of the Army*



EDITOR, Lt. Col. John S. Chesebro; EXECUTIVE EDITOR, Lt. Col. David M. Peters; MANAGING EDITOR, Samuel J. Ziskind; ASSISTANT MANAGING EDITOR, Owen J. Remington; ASSOCIATE EDITOR, Thomas H. Monahan; ART DIRECTOR, T. S. Patterson.

The mission of *ARMY INFORMATION DIGEST* is to keep personnel of the Army aware of trends and developments of professional concern. The *DIGEST* is published under supervision of the Army Chief of Information to provide timely and authoritative information on policies, plans, operations, and technical developments of the Department of the Army to the Active Army, Army National Guard, and Army Reserve. It also serves as a vehicle for timely expression of the views of the Secretary of the Army and the Chief of Staff and assists in the achievement of information objectives of the Army.

Manuscripts on subjects of general interest to Army personnel are invited. Direct communication is authorized to: Editor, *ARMY INFORMATION DIGEST*, Cameron Station, Alexandria, Virginia, 22314. Unless otherwise indicated, material may be reprinted provided credit is given to the *DIGEST* and the author.

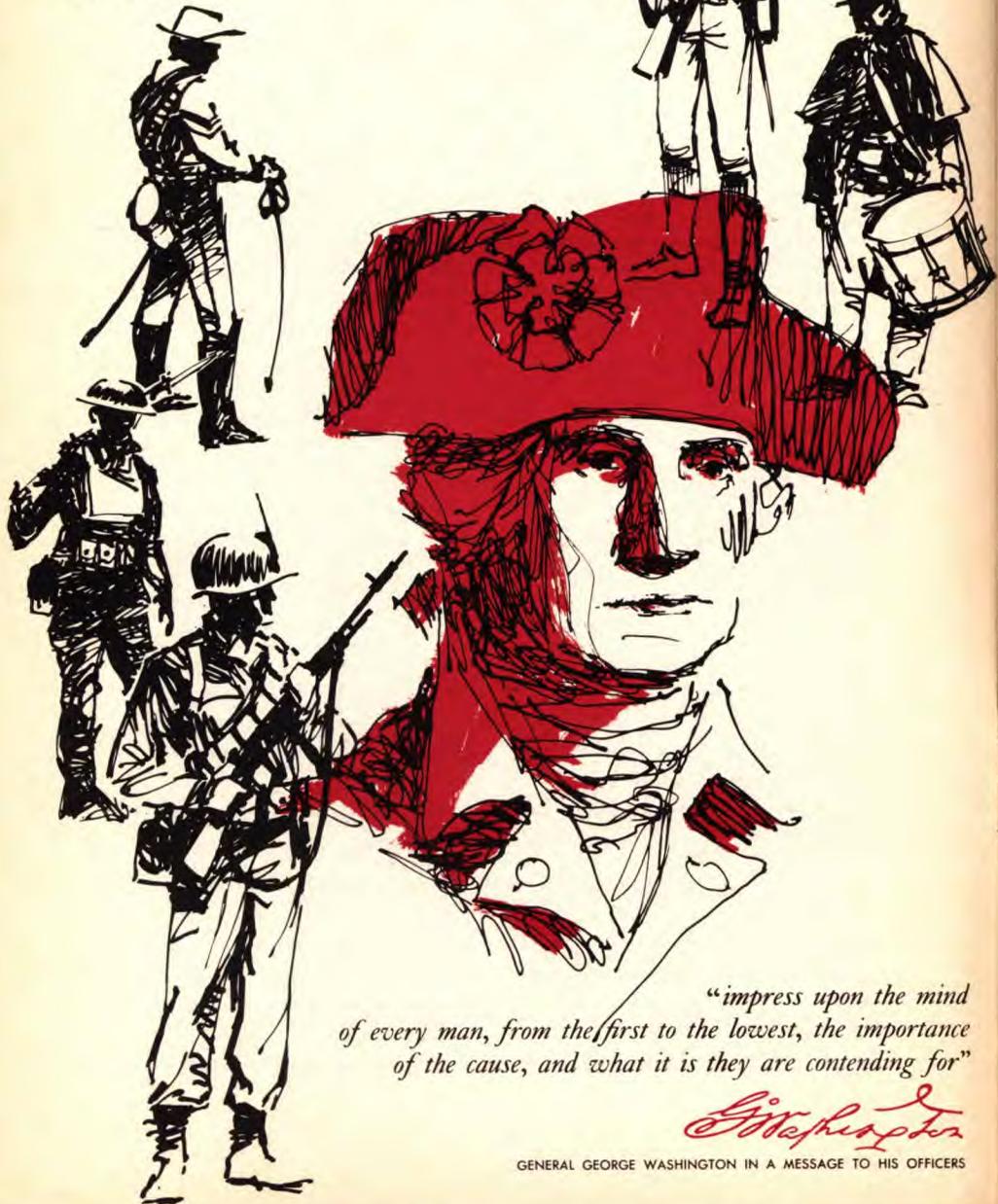
Distribution: From the U. S. Army AG Publications Center, 2800 Eastern Boulevard, Baltimore, Maryland, 21220, in accordance with DA Form 12-4 requirements submitted by commanders.

Subscriptions: Available to individuals through Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 20402, at \$2.75 for twelve issues mailed to domestic or APO address, \$3.50 for mailing to foreign address.

Picture Credits: All photographs by U. S. Army, except p. 26, U. S. Coast Guard. Illustrations on pp. 12, 15, 18, 28, 32 from Army Poster Series. Back cover painting by Norman Rockwell.

Use of funds for printing this publication approved by Headquarters, Department of the Army, 8 May 1963.

THE ARMY'S HERITAGE is a tapestry of rich design, deep-hued with the blood of soldier-patriots, embroidered with deeds of bravery, service, sacrifice in countless battles and campaigns. This special issue recounts the deeds of valor and dedication to ideals of Duty, Honor, Country which brought our liberties into being, and preserved them unto this day. It reflects the hope, expressed by the first Commander in Chief, that awareness of our legacy of freedom shall be constantly renewed to



"impress upon the mind of every man, from the first to the lowest, the importance of the cause, and what it is they are contending for"

George Washington

GENERAL GEORGE WASHINGTON IN A MESSAGE TO HIS OFFICERS

THE UNITED STATES ARMY



When the English colonists settled in North America, they brought with them their civil and military institutions. Each colony raised its own Militia to maintain domestic order and to defend its frontiers against unfriendly Indians and Europeans. When emergencies arose, England sent regular troops and reinforced them with colonial Militia.

The colonial troops received their formal training in European tactics and organization during the intermittent, century-long war between France and England for control of North America. Frequent clashes with the Indians along the frontier taught the colonists to fight as irregulars. By 1763, England had decisively defeated the French in North America. The colonists had played an important part in that victory and had gained valuable experience for the struggle that lay ahead.





1775-83:
**REVOLUTIONARY
WAR**

In the mid-18th century, navigation and trade legislation and other restrictive economic measures, a growing spirit of independence in the colonies, as well as other causes, led to grave differences between Great Britain and the English colonies in America. The military phase of the Revolutionary War began on 19 April 1775 when these differences became open resistance at Lexington, Massachusetts.

The Continental Army was created on 14 June 1775 when the Continental Congress authorized the formation of 10 companies of Infantry. The Army thus acquired the distinction of being "the senior service" and the Infantry the "senior arm." Subsequently, troops of the other arms were authorized and raised.

During the war, mobilization and demobilization were continually in progress. Approximately 250,000 men

FROM LOW POINT AT VALLEY FORGE, WASHINGTON LED ARMY TO VICTORY.



served at some time; more than half of these were Continental troops, the remainder were Militia. Some states made use of a draft during the latter part of the war.

At first the Continental Congress was the executive agency for the conduct of the war. Then a Board of War was developed to exercise this function. When the Articles of Confederation were finally ratified in 1781, the Board was replaced by a Department of War.

General George Washington, Commander in Chief, Continental Army, meticulously maintained a deference to the Congress and its instrumentalities throughout the war. This precedent is one of the basic tenets under which the U.S. Army still functions.

A bold American attempt to win Canada as the "Fourteenth Colony" failed, largely because the French inhabitants did not share the views or experiences of the English colonists. The British countered with an invasion from the north to secure the line of the Hudson River and separate New England from the other states.

After a signal American victory at Saratoga, France and the United States concluded a "conditional and defensive alliance" on 6 February 1778. France then furnished land and sea forces and munitions to support its young ally.

During the Revolutionary War the system of dispersed order used by the Army in many small frays ultimately had a decisive effect on the outcome. Of particular note were Maj. Gen. Frederick von Steuben's oral instruction and his little *Blue Book*, the first training manual used by the Army, both of which improved discipline among the revolutionary forces.

After many bitter years of fighting, the low point at Valley Forge, and the failure of the British in the south, General Washington was able to bring allied sea and land forces to bear against Cornwallis at Yorktown. There the conflict ended with the surrender of Cornwallis on 19 October 1781. By the Treaty of Paris, 3 September 1783, the United States achieved its independence.

With the cessation of hostilities the Militia forces were demobilized, and by June 1784 the Continental Army was reduced to a mere guard for military stores at West Point and at Fort Pitt—an example of military parsimony that was to recur again and again in the Nation's history.

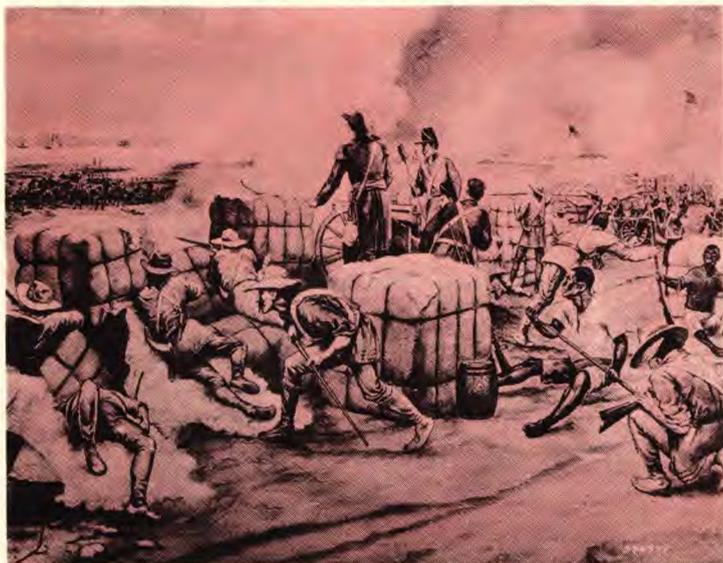


1783-1815:

THE WAR OF 1812

The Treaty of Paris did not eradicate the causes of the Revolutionary War, for the new Republic was still embroiled in economic, political, and territorial difficulties with England and Spain. Portions of the territory ceded to the United States were still occupied by British forces, who remained as late as 1796, and British agents continued to foment trouble among the Indians within U.S. territory. In addition, the new nation had

ANDREW JACKSON'S TROOPS GAINED RESOUNDING VICTORY AT NEW ORLEANS.



to overcome serious constitutional questions and organize an army to enforce its policies before it could really begin to resolve the varied and complex problems left by the war. Unfortunately, the Confederation was too weak to cope with these problems.

American leaders recognized that these weaknesses were an invitation to foreign aggression, and to consider measures for strengthening the central government they called a convention, which assembled at Philadelphia on 14 May 1787. The convention created the Constitution of the United States, which was ratified and became operative with the inauguration of President Washington on 30 April 1789.

The Constitution designated the President as Commander in Chief of the armed forces, but gave the Congress actual control by putting the purse strings in its hands and granting it the sole power to declare war. The first law on military affairs, passed by Congress on 7 August 1789, established a Department of War responsible for both the Army and the Navy. This arrangement was continued until 30 April 1798, when the Navy Department was created. An act continuing the Army created by the Continental Congress was passed by Congress on 29 September 1789.

The Militia Act of 1792—which with minor modifications remained law until the National Defense Act of 1916—failed to provide a “well-regulated and uniform Militia.” Though the act recognized national defense as a duty of citizenship and made every able-bodied man between the ages of 18 and 45 a member of the Militia, it failed to establish a satisfactory basis for raising troops in case of emergency.

That same year the Army reorganized as the “Legion of the United States,” after having suffered a number of humiliating defeats by the Indians on the frontier. Trained by Maj. Gen. Anthony Wayne, the Legion defeated the Indians at the Battle of Fallen Timbers on 20 August 1794, thereby ending serious trouble on the northwest frontier.

With the national government firmly established, President Washington declined re-election in 1796. In his Farewell Address he advised his successors to avoid involvement in European affairs and permanent alliances, a stricture that became the keystone of American foreign



AT CHIPPEWA, AMERICAN ARMS ENGAGED BRITISH ON NIAGARA FRONTIER.

and military policy until the 20th century.

Strength of the Army increased and decreased as crises arose and passed. The Whiskey Rebellion and the threat of war with France and England led to expansion. Economy and latent fear of military power just as often led to reductions.

During President Jefferson's administration military and naval strength declined, even though the need for troops actually increased when the United States purchased Louisiana. However, in 1802 Jefferson did carry out Washington's recommendation for establishing a military academy.

Jefferson also initiated the exploration of the West. Notable were the expeditions of Capt. Meriwether Lewis and Lt. William Clark to the Pacific, begun in 1803, and

those of Lt. Zebulon Pike to the headwaters of the Mississippi in 1805 and to the Southwest in 1806.

Nevertheless, in the crisis leading up to the War of 1812 the United States failed to produce a force capable of making American foreign policy effective. Impressment of American seamen, acts of aggression upon American commerce by the British system of blockade, and British incitement of hostile Indians were among the immediate causes that led to the declaration of war against England on 18 June 1812.

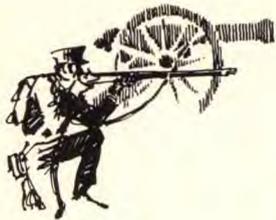
There was no planning for wartime mobilization or procurement before the outbreak of war, a failure that contributed to the poor showing made by the Army. During the war the United States raised approximately 287,000 troops without resorting to conscription. However, most of these men entered the service on short-term enlistments and were never actually employed in battle.

In the fighting the Army fared badly in the north, except at Plattsburg and in the inconclusive battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane. It was also soundly defeated at Bladensburg, near Washington, and the Capitol itself was burned. The Navy, however, did well on the lakes, where Commodore Oliver H. Perry's accomplishments were outstanding.

Only Maj. Gen. Andrew Jackson's command retrieved the Army's reputation in the great victory at New Orleans on 8 January 1815. But this was fought after the Treaty of Ghent, ending the war, was signed on 24 December 1814. Total Army casualties included about 2,300 men killed incident to battle and 4,500 wounded.

The United States had upheld its honor and maintained its territorial integrity, but the treaty ignored the actual causes of the war. The United States did abandon its hopes of acquiring Canada by force. Thus was the stage set for the eventual relinquishment of claim to the northern regions of Oregon and portions of the Louisiana territory and for the extension of the U.S. boundary to the Pacific.

Even during the War of 1812 units were continually being discharged, and at the end of the conflict a wholesale demobilization took place. The Army was soon reduced to a peacetime basis, with excess regiments being either disbanded or consolidated with Regular Army units. The Cavalry was eliminated altogether.



1815-48:

THE MEXICAN WAR

In the period following the War of 1812 the U.S. Army was enlarged somewhat beyond its prewar strength, but it remained woefully weak. Because of the limited number and scattered locations of Regulars, the Nation largely relied upon the Militia in the wars with the Seminole, Creek, and other Indian tribes on the frontier.

The Army continued to play an outstanding role in the exploration of the West and in establishing government and order on the frontier. These tasks led to the reintroduction of the Cavalry in 1832.

The indefinite boundaries of the Louisiana Purchase involved the United States in border problems with Mexico, the successor of Spain. These were aggravated by U.S. citizens who entered Texas and established an independent republic there.

On 1 March 1845, when President Tyler signed a Congressional resolution for the annexation of Texas, the Mexican minister to the United States asked for his papers. Annexation of Texas by the United States, he warned, would have to be considered a declaration of war against his government.

To meet the situation, Army strength was increased by calling up elements of the Militia and a number of Volunteer units. The Regular Army formed the framework upon which the expanded Army was built. Of the nearly 80,000 men mobilized, the majority were in Militia and Volunteer units.

In the Mexican War the Army was deployed for the first time far beyond the U.S. frontier. Maj. Gen. Zachary Taylor, after defeating the Mexican Army at Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, invaded Mexico and captured Monterey. Another force, under Brig. Gen. John E. Wool, marched south from San Antonio and

joined General Taylor's command at Aqua Nueva. The combined forces defeated Santa Anna at Buena Vista on 23 February 1847, ending the war in the north.

Marching from Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, Brig. Gen. Stephen W. Kearny occupied Santa Fe, New Mexico, and continued overland to California where he joined a naval task force. A column under Col. Alexander W. Doniphan marched south from Santa Fe, captured Chihuahua, and joined General Wool's command at Saltillo on 21 May 1847.

In the decisive operation of the war, Maj. Gen. Winfield Scott, supported by the Navy, captured Vera Cruz on 26 March 1847 and after defeating the Mexican Army at Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Churubusco, and Molino Del Rey stormed Chapultepec and captured Mexico City on 14 September 1847.

The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, 2 February 1848, restored peace and ceded New Mexico and California to the United States.

Demobilization was a continual process during the Mexican War as it had been in previous wars. At the conclusion of hostilities whole units were demobilized without prior planning. Army casualties in the Mexican war were approximately 1,700 men killed incident to battle, 4,000 wounded, and 12,000 who died from other causes.

During the war Dennis H. Mahan, a professor at the United States Military Academy, published a little book that became the prototype of all United States field service regulations. Both his instruction and his book, *Advanced Guard, Outpost and Detachment Service of Troops*, had considerable subsequent influence upon operational thinking in the United States Army.

IN FIRST AMPHIBIOUS LANDING, ARMY FORCES DEBARKED AT VERA CRUZ.





1848-65: CIVIL WAR

Following the Mexican War the Army reverted largely to its prewar strength except that one additional Cavalry regiment was retained; this brought the Army's strength to 10,035 troops. At the same time, the Army's peacetime duties were greatly enlarged to handle the territories obtained from Mexico and to protect western settlers from Indian attacks.

The Mexican War did not silence the deep-seated political, economic, and social differences that divided the nation—it only accentuated them. In time these differences led to civil war.

The political split that followed the Confederate attack on Fort Sumter on 12 April 1861 was also accompanied by a division of the Regular Army, whose strength had been 16,367 on 1 January 1861.

In general, officers from northern states sided with the Union and those from the southern states with the Confederacy, but few, if any, enlisted men turned against the Government. During the war 2,128,948 troops were raised by the Union and an estimated 900,000 served with the Confederacy.

UNION TROOPS ASSAULTED STUBBORN VICKSBURG DEFENSES BEFORE CITY FELL.



Initially, the Union relied on short-term Militia and Volunteers of varying periods of enlistments but finally resorted to a draft on 3 March 1863. The Confederacy at first used long-term enlistments but resorted to a draft in April 1862, almost a full year before the Union.

No plans for the mobilization of personnel and munitions had been made and no effective replacement system was worked out during the course of the war. During the first part of the fighting, the Army was in continual process of mobilization and demobilization due to short-term enlistments. After the draft law was passed, however, the process was stabilized. The Regular Army was enlarged, the technical and administrative staffs were improved, and measures for the inclusion of military instruction in civilian colleges were adopted before the war ended.

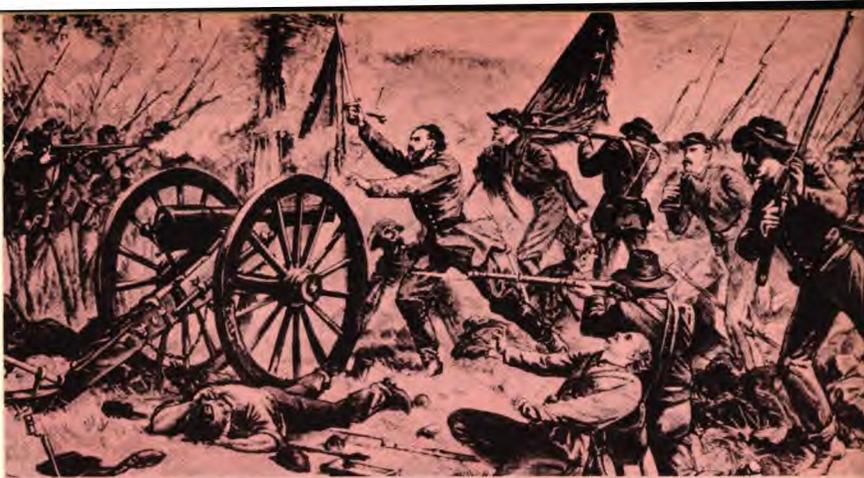
At the beginning, the Union and the Confederacy were equally unprepared and untrained militarily. By the end of the first year, however, both sides had veteran armies in the field that fought with a skill and sanguinariness rarely surpassed by armies of any country at any time.

During the war organizational changes in the War Department and in the field forces were made very gradually by a process of trial and error. In the field the Army for the first time came to include such major commands as brigades, divisions, corps, and armies.

In time, the process of attrition and blockade whittled down the Confederacy's manpower and resources, and the tide of battle was turned simultaneously at Vicksburg in the west and at Gettysburg in the east. Maj. Gen. Ulysses S. Grant, the victor at Vicksburg, then defeated the Confederate forces at Chattanooga on 25 November 1863.

Moved to the east, General Grant set in motion a wide envelopment from the west by Maj. Gen. William T. Sherman, coupled with continuous direct pressure by Maj. Gen. George G. Meade in the east and Maj. Gen. George H. Thomas in Tennessee.

A highly effective military organization finally emerged on 17 March 1864 when Grant was promoted to lieutenant general and named General in Chief of the Armies of the United States. Though he had moved to the east, he maintained his headquarters in the field while Maj. Gen. Henry W. Halleck remained in Wash-



PICKETT'S CHARGE AT GETTYSBURG MARKED HIGH WATER MARK OF CONFEDERACY.

ington as Chief of Staff. Through Halleck, Grant maintained close liaison with President Lincoln and Secretary of War Edwin M. Stanton.

The many costly mistakes that led up to this solution had witnessed the rise and fall of several Union generals in campaigns that demonstrated the genius and leadership of Confederate General Robert E. Lee and numerous of his subordinates. However, in the final campaigns General Grant commanded, with consummate strategic skill, one of the largest military forces that had ever been engaged. The closing operations in the east found the Union Cavalry, under Maj. Gen. Philip H. Sheridan, contributing conspicuously to the victory. War ended with the unconditional surrender of General Lee's forces at Appomattox on 9 April 1865.

The Civil War had been fought by mass armies supported by the mass effort of the people on both sides. In addition, the telegraph, railway, steamship, and revolutionary improvements in rifles, artillery, and the manufacture of munitions had had a profound influence upon operations. Because of all this, the Civil War has been called the first of the modern wars. (See "The Lesson and the Legacy," August 1961 Special Issue ARMY INFORMATION DIGEST.)

Army casualties included 138,000 killed incident to battle and 280,000 wounded. In addition 222,000 died of other causes. The Confederate Army is estimated to have lost 74,500 killed incident to battle and 59,000 who died from other causes. An additional 194,000 were wounded.

Following the war, the Army was quickly demobilized by units, leaving to Regular Army and volunteer units the mission of occupying the seceded states and Far West.

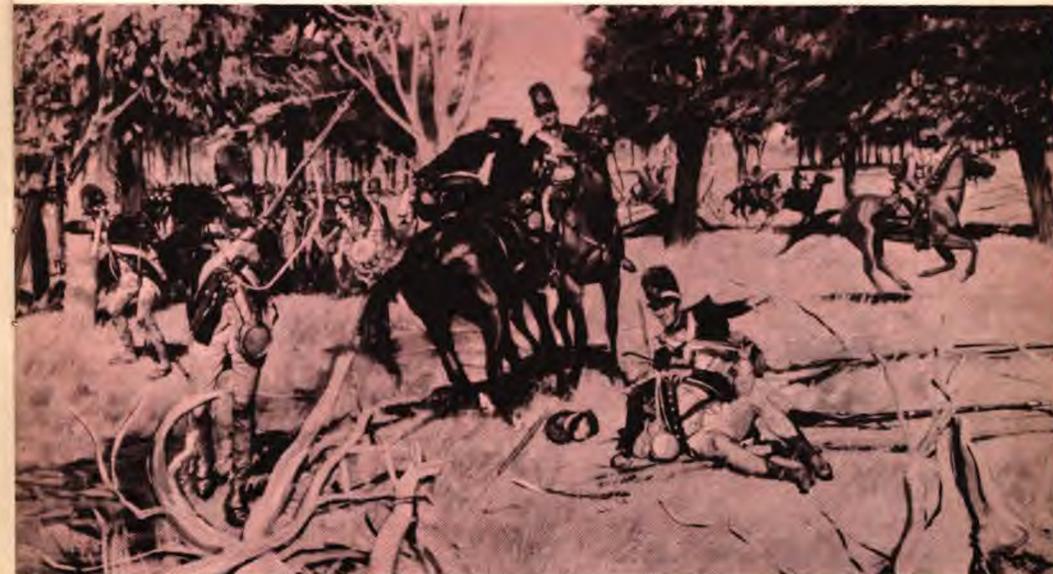


1865-91:
**RECONSTRUCTION
AND
INDIAN WARS**

While a civil war raged in the United States, European powers acquiesced in the establishment by France of a monarchy in Mexico under the Austrian archduke Maximilian. But promptly upon the conclusion of the conflict, the U.S. Army ordered General Sheridan to the Mexican frontier with a force of about 50,000. This threat probably speeded the fall of Maximilian's puppet government, and led to the re-establishment of the Mexican Republic.

Lessons that would have been valuable in a future mobilization of manpower and material and in developing a replacement system were disregarded by the Army,

FALLEN TIMBERS, 1794, WAS ONE OF EARLY INDIAN BATTLES.





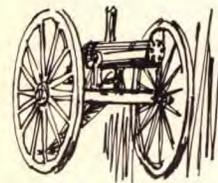
MOBILITY OF CAVALRY PLAYED PROMINENT ROLE IN INDIAN CAMPAIGNS IN WEST.

which was then completely engrossed in problems of military government and in the pacification of dissident Indians. In spite of these tasks, the Army was gradually reduced. The authorized strength of the postwar Regular Army was 54,302, but by 1867 this figure had reached a low of 27,472.

In the years 1865-91 small commands were engaged in bitter primitive warfare against numerous Indian tribes, with the Cavalry playing a notable role because of its mobility. Rated the best light cavalry in the world, the Sioux won the Indians' most decisive victory at Little Big Horn, 25 June 1876. However, Maj. Gens. George Crook and Nelson A. Miles were notably successful in the Indian Wars, which were finally brought to an end at Wounded Knee Creek in 1891. All told, the Army saw action in at least 1,067 separate engagements with the Indians.

At the end of the Indian Wars, the Army was scattered in numerous small garrisons over the United States. Divided into eight geographical departments, the Army reported to a War Department still lacking an effective organization to control it or to exploit the latest scientific developments.

The 1865-91 period was not one of total stagnation, however. Many important technical and training advances were made. The breech loading cannon revolutionized the Artillery, as the Krag-Jorgenson rifle and the Gatling gun did the Infantry. The Army's system of education was expanded and improved, and the basis of a general staff college was laid. The acquisition of Alaska on 18 October 1867 gave the Army new responsibilities but no additional means.



1891-1901:
**SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR
AND THE
PHILIPPINE INSURRECTION**

National policy had long favored elimination of European colonialism in the Western Hemisphere. Numerous revolutionary movements had troubled Spanish rule in the West Indies for many years, and the American people sympathized with the aspirations of the insurrectionists.

Both foreign policy and public opinion were far in advance of Army preparation when the tension came to a head with the mysterious sinking of the battleship *Maine* in Havana harbor on 15 February 1898. On the military side, the Regular Army included approximately 28,000 effectives, backed up on paper by an untrained and poorly equipped Militia of about 115,000. Nor had plans been made for an expansion of the Army or for the procurement of large quantities of munitions in case of war.

The Regular Army had been concentrated at several points on the Gulf of Mexico for only a short time when the President approved a joint resolution of the Congress on 19 April 1898 demanding that Spain withdraw from Cuba. Spain countered by declaring war on 24 April.

The Army had no experience in the tropics or training in amphibious operations, and none of the higher commanders had commanded large bodies of troops since the Civil War. Nevertheless, the President ordered a naval blockade of Cuba and issued a call for 125,000 volunteers. By the end of the war 280,564 troops had been raised by volunteer enlistments.

Mastery of the sea had to be gained before the Army could be deployed overseas. This was made possible in the western Pacific by Commodore George Dewey's victory at Manila Bay on 1 May 1898. But Dewey's use of

insurrectionists in the Philippines was to lead to complications and continued fighting.

In the Atlantic, Commodore William T. Sampson quickly gained control of the Caribbean area and bottled up Admiral Cervera's Spanish fleet at Santiago de Cuba. Maj. Gen. William R. Shafter's poorly equipped force of about 17,000 was then landed on the island on 22 June 1898. After brushing aside light opposition, the main attack on Santiago began on 1 July and the next day El Caney and San Juan were assaulted and captured, completing the investment of the city. Admiral Cervera's fleet was forced to come out of Santiago harbor and was completely destroyed on 3 July 1898. During the same month Puerto Rico fell to a smaller Army force.

In the Pacific an expedition under Maj. Gen. Wesley Merritt landed in the Philippine Islands with a force of about 11,000 and attacked the defenses of Manila in conjunction with the fleet and the insurgents. With only token resistance, the city quickly fell on 13 August 1898. In the meantime, the United States had annexed Hawaii on 12 August 1898, and other troops had occupied Wake and Guam.

In the Spanish-American War the Army lost about 370 killed incident to battle and had 1,600 wounded. Disease and other causes accounted for the loss of 2,000

GATLING GUNS PROVED WORTH IN SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.



more during the period of hostilities. Approximately 2,500 men contracted yellow fever during the war and died later in hospitals. The initial cost of the war is estimated to have been nearly \$445,000,000.

The war was fought entirely by the Regular Army and volunteer units. No volunteer units were discharged during the war but, with the exception of a few retained on occupation duty or employed in the Philippine Insurrection, most were quickly demobilized at the end of the conflict.

By the terms of the Treaty of Paris, 10 December 1898, the United States made important acquisitions and commitments in the West Indies and acquired the Philippine Islands in the far Pacific. It now had become committed in Pacific problems.

In the Philippine Islands, American relations with the insurrectionists soon degenerated into warfare, and the Congress increased the Regular Army to a maximum strength of 67,585. In addition, 27 volunteer regiments were authorized to serve until 1 July 1901. Fighting took on a most primitive form, much like that experienced in the Indian Wars. About 3,000 separate actions were fought and the tide only turned in favor of the U.S. Army with the capture of the Philippine leader Aguinaldo on 23 March 1901.

FIGHTING IN PHILIPPINES WAS PRIMITIVE, MUCH LIKE THAT OF INDIAN WARS.





1901-18:

WORLD WAR I

Following the Spanish-American War the War Department, under the direction of Elihu Root, made reforms that involved the establishment of an effective General Staff under a Chief of Staff. This necessitated the reorganization and enlargement of the Army school system. The Army War College was established as the capstone of a system that included the Command and General Staff School and various branch schools.

In the Pacific the Army remained fully occupied suppressing resistance in the Philippines and bringing stable government to that vast area. The open-door policy in

ARMY PLAYED MAJOR ROLE IN FINAL WORLD WAR I CAMPAIGNS.



China, where the European powers were engaged in a scramble for concessions, soon involved the United States, too, and led to Army participation in the China Relief Expedition.

In the Caribbean, the Army occupation of Cuba, which was of great benefit to the island, ended in 1902, only to be resumed in 1906 and then finally ended in 1909. A trans-isthmian canal in the Caribbean was the natural corollary to the emergence of the United States as a world power. Panama was selected as the site, and the Army Engineers succeeded in constructing a canal there after French efforts under Ferdinand de Lesseps had failed. The conquest of yellow fever and improvements in field sanitation pioneered by the Army Medical Department helped make this achievement possible.

The United States used its armed forces on numerous occasions in the Caribbean area in support of its foreign policy. To the Army fell the task of protecting the U.S. border. Brig. Gen. John J. Pershing's Punitive Expedition of 1916 into Mexico was but a prelude to more serious affairs in which the United States was soon to become involved.

A complete re-examination of military policy undertaken by the General Staff led to the enactment of the National Defense Act of 1916. Among other things, it standardized and converted the Militia into the National Guard and provided for a Reserve Corps. The reforms came too late, however, to have any material influence on the events that followed immediately.

Although the United States was not a party to the controversy that led up to the war between the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente, cultural and sentimental ties and political affinity with Great Britain and France, stimulated by effective Allied propaganda, led the American people to favor the Entente and President Wilson to reject the idea of placing an embargo on munitions and foodstuffs.

German military and diplomatic provocation and resort to unrestricted submarine warfare finally led to the declaration of war by the United States on 6 April 1917.

The Army found itself once again woefully weak and unprepared to assume its role in the war. To make matters worse, there had for some time been prohibitions against the formulation of official war plans. Conse-

quently, when the crisis came there were no comprehensive plans for the mobilization of either manpower or industry. This was partially responsible for America's slowness in getting into action, for the disproportion of troops raised to troops engaged, and for the exorbitant cost of the war.

After the United States entered World War I the Army received more funds than it could use advantageously—a circumstance that led to great confusion and waste in raising and equipping the Army. But the organizing ability of the American people and of the Army showed what could be done in an emergency. Congress passed a universal draft act for raising troops and an industrial mobilization provided for needed munitions.

Sale of munitions to the Allies before the United States entered the war had helped build up American industry and was thus of importance to the Nation's war effort. It was equipment, however, that determined the rate at which the Army could be expanded, and the Allies had to furnish a great part of that.

The Army made no provision for a satisfactory replacement system. Combat divisions were simply broken up and the men used as individual replacements.

A variety of technological developments gained prominence in World War I. The telephone, invented in 1876, and the radio, invented in 1896, together with the telegraph, played important roles in combat operations and in the dissemination of propaganda. Similarly, the internal combustion engine, extensively used in vehicles after 1909, had a marked influence on operations both in the air and on the ground. Other important factors were barbed wire, machine guns, artillery, tanks, and use of chemical agents. Unfortunately the mechanization of the Army trailed that of the civilian economy until war skyrocketed it upward.

Of prime importance was the work of the U.S. Navy. Reinforcing the British Navy, it helped defeat the submarine menace and gain control of the oceans, thus making it possible to transfer the Army overseas. Of the 4,057,101 men or 62 divisions with supporting troops raised, 2,120,000 or 43 divisions with supporting troops were shipped to France. Of the latter, 30 divisions with supporting troops were actively engaged in battle.

General Pershing insisted that the American Expeditionary Forces fight under U.S. command, since he had in mind the decision of his government that eventually an independent U.S. army must be formed. At the same time, however, he urged unity of command—an idea that materialized when Marshal Foch was appointed to supreme command. To accomplish his purpose, Pershing had to overcome the prejudices of the Allies. They adhered to traditional concepts of command and wanted to use U.S. troops in small units to bolster their own forces. A Supreme War Council—never very effective—was interposed between Foch and the Allied governments.

The Army played a major role in the final campaigns and turned the tide of battle in favor of the Allies. Of these the St. Mihiel and Meuse-Argonne Offensives were the most important United States operations in the war.

In these final operations in Europe, General Pershing initially commanded the U.S. First Army and then a group of armies, including the First and Second.

During the course of the war, the Army lost approximately 50,500 men killed incident to battle and had 194,000 wounded. In addition, there were about 56,000 nonbattle deaths.

The Bolshevik Revolution in Russia and the counter-revolution there led to the dispatch of Allied—including U.S.—forces to Archangel and Siberia. The U.S. Army also conducted relief missions in Russia and in several other countries. The Third Army was assigned occupational duties in Germany.

The U.S. Army began to demobilize even before it was sure that the armistice of 11 November 1918 was the prelude to peace. Nor did demobilization proceed with any serious planning. The war itself was not officially ended until 18 October 1921 when the United States signed a separate treaty with Germany.

World War I cost the United States over 33 billion dollars and an untold expenditure of its natural resources. For a time at least, the United States had re-established the balance of power in Europe, but itself again reverted to isolationism behind its ocean barriers. President Wilson was able to bring about the establishment of the League of Nations, but United States' participation was never formally ratified by the Senate.

1919-39:

BETWEEN THE WARS

The between-war years fall into two periods. In the first, extending to 1935, the military power of the World War I victors progressively weakened as they disarmed themselves. In the second, steadily rising crises culminated in total war.

In the interest of international good will the United States withdrew its troops from Russia and later from Germany, reduced the war debts of former allies, and participated in a moratorium on war reparations that eased the economic situation in Germany. It took part in a number of disarmament conferences and at the Washington Conference of 1922 agreed to limitations on the number, size, and type of warships. The United States also subscribed to the 1928 Pact of Paris, which outlawed war as an instrument of national policy.

During this period, U.S. relations with the other nations of the Western Hemisphere improved; Japanese aggression in Manchuria and Italian aggression in Ethiopia were disapproved; legislation was enacted to insure American neutrality in event of war abroad; and diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union were established in 1933. Meanwhile, Germany began to rearm, unchallenged by other European powers, and Japan violated the treaties limiting naval armament.

The military policy of the United States during these years was essentially the same as it had been before World War I—to maintain an efficient Navy equal to that of any other nation and a small Regular Army backed up by a National Guard and Organized Reserves.

Based upon experience gained in World War I, the War Department and the Army were reorganized under the National Defense Act of 1920. The United States territory was divided into nine corps areas and three overseas departments, to which were allotted specific troops of the various components. The staffs of the Military Establishment were organized on identical functional lines at all levels. The Air Corps became a separate arm, Chemical Warfare a separate service, and the Tank Corps was broken up, its tanks being assigned

(Continued on page 25)





"Front and Center"—

THE FLAG'S PLACE IN HISTORY

Colonel Harry D. Temple

FLAGS are almost as old as civilization itself. Archeological records abound with these symbols and devices of mankind.

The dictionary defines a flag as "a light cloth bearing a device or devices . . ."; but even the most ardent realist must admit that a flag is more than mere cloth and color. Indeed, any effort to explain the flag fully is as hopeless as an attempt to describe the soul.

Imperial Egypt flaunted military standards charged with sacred de-

COLONEL HARRY D. TEMPLE, Adjutant General's Corps, is Commanding Officer, The Institute of Heraldry, U. S. Army, Cameron Station, Virginia.

Proud symbol and rallying point in every epoch and campaign—

vices, and the armies of Babylon, Chaldea and Assyria followed the colors of their kings. The Old Testament frequently mentions banners and standards. Each of the twelve tribes of Israel had its own special standard around which it rallied during encampments. The standards of Rome were viewed as particularly sacred, and in time of peace were kept within the city temples and guarded with devotion.

The romance of the Medieval Ages brought a universal love for the display of personal and family coats of arms and the colors of knightly and religious orders. Records of the times are conspicuous with the brilliant displays of standards, guidons, streamers, gonfanons, banners, pennons and pennoncelles. Each nobleman had his own distinctive heraldic device.

Among the most heroic banners of the Middle Ages were those of the glamorous and gallant adventurers who were fired with their obligations to rescue the Holy Sepulcher—the Knights Hospitalers, the Knights Templars and the Teutonic Knights. It was from those days of chivalry that the principles of orderly heraldry grew to give us our flags of today.

Until comparatively recent years, the flags which identified nations usually were based upon the personal or family heraldry of the reigning monarch or ruling nobleman. As autocracies faded or disappeared, dynastic colors no longer were popular, and truly national flags, as we think of them today, came into being. These new national flags, as the Union Jack of Great Britain, the Tricolor of France, and our own Stars and Stripes are not of great age.

The national flag serves its country in many ways. Frequently it is a mark of jurisdiction, proprietorship or own-

ership. It may be a means of identification. At times it is evidence of a nation's power or authority, and even its supremacy. Those who have served their country overseas in both peace and war, well know these many meanings. No real man on foreign soil can view his country's flag without emotion. The real beauty of the flag is its ethereal values and in such is the patriot's love.

History is filled with heroic acts of devotion to the flag. The Persian royal banner always was entrusted to the most redoubtable fighter of the army. Roman legion commanders on occasions ordered their standards to be thrown to the enemy in order to spur their soldiers to daring and sacrifice for their recovery.

Sergeant William Jasper voluntarily risked death to recover the fallen Crescent Flag of Fort Moultrie during the Revolutionary War. During our Civil War the color bearer was marked with honor to symbolize and rally his regiment in the forefront of the fight, and when he fell, eager hands seized the colors to continue their advance. At Appomattox many Confederate regiments destroyed their colors to prevent their surrender; some were cut into tiny bits and distributed among the men.

Colonel Paul Bunker burned the flag which was lowered at Corregidor before the Japanese could reach it; but first he snipped out a small fragment which he concealed under a patch in his shirt. Near death in a Manila prison, he passed half of it to a fellow prisoner, Colonel Delbert Ausmus. After the war, Colonel Ausmus delivered his relic to the War Department. At the request of Colonel Bunker's widow, the fragment was presented to West Point where today it is a priceless exhibit.



Speaking of the Flag of the United States, President Woodrow Wilson once said —

“THIS FLAG, which we honor and under which we serve, is the emblem of our unity, our power, our thought and purpose as a nation. It has no other character than that which we give it from generation to generation. The choices are ours. It floats in majestic silence above the hosts that execute those choices, whether in peace or war. And yet, though silent, it speaks to us—speaks to us of the past, of the men and women who went before us, and of the records they wrote upon it.”



THE ARMY FLAG was dedicated and unfurled to the general public on 14 June 1956 at Independence Hall, Philadelphia, on the 181st anniversary of the establishment of the United States Army by the Continental Congress in 1775. Measuring 4 feet 4 inches by 5 feet 6 inches, the flag is of white silk with a blue embroidered central design of the original War Office seal. “United States Army” is inscribed in white letters on a scarlet scroll, with the year “1775” in blue numerals below. The Secretary of the Army designates the Army headquarters and agencies authorized an Army Flag.

In 1962 the Army Field Flag was authorized for issue to headquarters and other Army elements not authorized the Army Flag. Reversing the colors of the Army Flag, the Army Field Flag measures 3 feet by 4 feet; it is of blue silk with central design of the War Office seal in white and a white scroll with “United States Army” inscribed in scarlet. The year “1775” appears in white arabic numerals.

THE CAMPAIGN STREAMERS

The 145 streamers attached to the Army Flag staff denote the campaigns fought by the Army throughout our national history. Each streamer—2¾ inches wide and 4 feet long—is embroidered with the designation of the campaign and the year in which it occurred. The colors derive from the campaign ribbon authorized for service in that particular war.

The concept of campaign streamers came to prominence in the Civil War when Army organizations embroidered the names of battles on their organizational colors. This was discontinued in 1890, when units were authorized to place silver bands, engraved with the names of battles, around their organizational color staffs. When AEF units in World War I were unable to obtain silver bands, General Pershing authorized the use of small ribbons bearing battle names. In 1921 all color bearing Army organizations were authorized to use the large campaign streamers as now used with the Army Flag.

The 145 campaign streamers on the Army Flag represent participation in the following wars—

REVOLUTIONARY WAR

11 Streamers—Scarlet with a white stripe
TICONDEROGA • BOSTON • QUEBEC •
LONG ISLAND • TRENTON • PRINCETON
• SARATOGA • BRANDYWINE • GERMAN-
TOWN • MONMOUTH • YORKTOWN

WAR OF 1812

6 Streamers—Scarlet with two white stripes
CANADA • CHIPPEWA • LUNDY'S LANE •
BLADENSBURG • McHENRY • NEW ORLEANS

MEXICAN WAR

10 Streamers—Green with one white stripe
PALO ALTO • RESACA DE LA PALMA •
MONTEREY • BUENA VISTA • VERA CRUZ
• CERRO GORDO • CONTRERAS • CHURU-
BUSCO • MOLINO DEL REY • CHAPULTEPEC

CIVIL WAR

25 Streamers—Blue and gray, equally
divided
SUMTER • BULL RUN • HENRY AND DONEL-
SON • MISSISSIPPI RIVER • PENINSULA •

SHILOH • VALLEY • MANASSAS • ANTIETAM
• FREDERICKSBURG • MURFREESBOROUGH •
CHANCELLORSVILLE • GETTYSBURG • VICKS-
BURG • CHICKAMAUGA • CHATTANOOGA
• WILDERNESS • ATLANTA • SPOTSYL-
VANIA • COLD HARBOR • PETERSBURG •
SHENANDOAH • FRANKLIN • NASHVILLE •
APPOMATTOX

INDIAN WARS

14 Streamers—Scarlet with two black stripes
MIAMI • TIPPECANOE • CREEKS • SEMI-
NOLES • BLACK HAWK • COMANCHES •
MODOC • APACHES • LITTLE BIG HORN •
NEZ PERCES • BANNOCKS • CHEYENNES •
UTES • PINE RIDGE

WAR WITH SPAIN

3 Streamers—Yellow with two blue stripes
SANTIAGO • PUERTO RICO • MANILA

CHINA RELIEF EXPEDITION

3 Streamers—Yellow with blue edges
TIENTSIN • YANG-TSUN • PEKING

PHILIPPINE INSURRECTION

11 Streamers—Blue with two red stripes
MANILA • ILOILO • MALOLOS • LAGUNA
DE BAY • SAN ISIDRO • ZAPOTE RIVER •
CAVITE • TARLAC • SAN FABIAN • MIN-
DANAO • JOLO

MEXICAN EXPEDITION

1 Streamer—Yellow with one blue stripe
and green borders
MEXICO 1916-1917

WORLD WAR I

13 Streamers—Double rainbow
CAMBRAI • SOMME DEFENSIVE • LYS •
AISNE • MONTDIDIER-NOYON • CHAM-
PAGNE-MARNE • AISNE-MARNE • SOMME
OFFENSIVE • OISE-AISNE • YPRES-LYS • ST.
MIHIEL • MEUSE-ARGONNE • VITTORIO
VENETO

WORLD WAR II

38 Streamers

ASIATIC-PACIFIC THEATER

21 Streamers—Orange with two white, red,
and white stripe groupings; with
blue, white, red stripes in center.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS • BURMA, 1942 •
CENTRAL PACIFIC • EAST INDIES • INDIA-
BURMA • AIR OFFENSIVE, JAPAN •
ALEUTIAN ISLANDS • CHINA DEFENSIVE
• PAPUA • GUADALCANAL • NEW GUINEA
• NORTHERN SOLOMONS • EASTERN MAN-
DATES • BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO • WEST-
ERN PACIFIC • LEYTE • LUZON • CENT-
RAL BURMA • SOUTHERN PHILIPPINES •
RYUKYUS • CHINA OFFENSIVE

AMERICAN THEATER

1 Streamer—Blue with two groupings of
white, black, red, and white stripes;
with blue, white, red in center.

ANTISUBMARINE 1941-1945

EUROPEAN-AFRICAN-MIDDLE EASTERN THEATER

16 Streamers—Green and brown with two
stripe groupings, one of green, white,
red and the other of white, black,
and white stripes; with blue, white,
and red stripes in the center.

EGYPT-LIBYA • AIR OFFENSIVE, EUROPE •
ALGERIA-FRENCH MOROCCO • TUNISIA •
SICILY • NAPLES-FOGGIA • ANZIO • ROME-
ARNO • NORMANDY • NORTHERN FRANCE
• SOUTHERN FRANCE • NORTH APENNINES
• RHINELAND • ARDENNES-ALSACE • CENT-
RAL EUROPE • PO VALLEY

KOREAN WAR

10 Streamers—Light blue bordered on each
side with white; white center stripe.

UN DEFENSIVE • UN OFFENSIVE • CC
INTERVENTION • FIRST UN COUNTER OF-
FENSIVE • CC SPRING OFFENSIVE • UN
SUMMER-FALL OFFENSIVE • SECOND
KOREAN WINTER • KOREA, SUMMER-FALL
1952 • THIRD KOREAN WINTER • KOREA,
SUMMER 1953



MEDAL OF HONOR

For conspicuous gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of life, above and beyond the call of duty, in action involving actual conflict with an enemy.

DECORATIONS



DISTINGUISHED SERVICE CROSS



DISTINGUISHED SERVICE MEDAL



SILVER STAR MEDAL



BRONZE STAR MEDAL



AIR MEDAL



COMMENDATION RIBBON WITH METAL PENDANT



PURPLE HEART



MEDAL FOR MERIT



NATIONAL SECURITY MEDAL



LEGION OF MERIT



DISTINGUISHED FLYING CROSS



SOLDIER'S MEDAL



GOOD CONDUCT MEDAL



MEDAL OF FREEDOM
Reestablished 22 Feb. 63
with new design as
Presidential Medal of Freedom



DISTINGUISHED CIVILIAN SERVICE MEDAL



OUTSTANDING CIVILIAN SERVICE MEDAL



EXCEPTIONAL CIVILIAN SERVICE AWARD



MERITORIOUS CIVILIAN SERVICE AWARD

CAMPAIGN MEDALS



CIVIL WAR
CAMPAIGN MEDAL



INDIAN
CAMPAIGN MEDAL



SPANISH
CAMPAIGN MEDAL



WORLD WAR I
VICTORY MEDAL



ARMY OF OCCUPATION
OF GERMANY MEDAL



AMERICAN DEFENSE
SERVICE MEDAL



SPANISH WAR
SERVICE MEDAL



ARMY OF CUBAN
OCCUPATION MEDAL



ARMY OF PUERTO RICAN
OCCUPATION MEDAL



WOMEN'S ARMY CORPS
SERVICE MEDAL



AMERICAN CAMPAIGN MEDAL



ASIATIC-PACIFIC
CAMPAIGN MEDAL



PHILIPPINE CAMPAIGN
MEDAL



PHILIPPINE CONGRESSIONAL
MEDAL



CHINA CAMPAIGN
MEDAL



EUROPEAN-AFRICAN
MIDDLE EASTERN CAMPAIGN MEDAL



WORLD WAR II
VICTORY MEDAL



ARMY OF OCCUPATION MEDAL



ARMY OF CUBAN
PACIFICATION MEDAL



MEXICAN SERVICE
MEDAL



MEXICAN BORDER SERVICE
MEDAL



MEDAL FOR
HUMANE ACTION



NATIONAL DEFENSE
SERVICE MEDAL



KOREAN SERVICE MEDAL



ARMED FORCES
EXPEDITIONARY MEDAL



ARMED FORCES
RESERVE MEDAL



UNITED NATIONS
SERVICE MEDAL



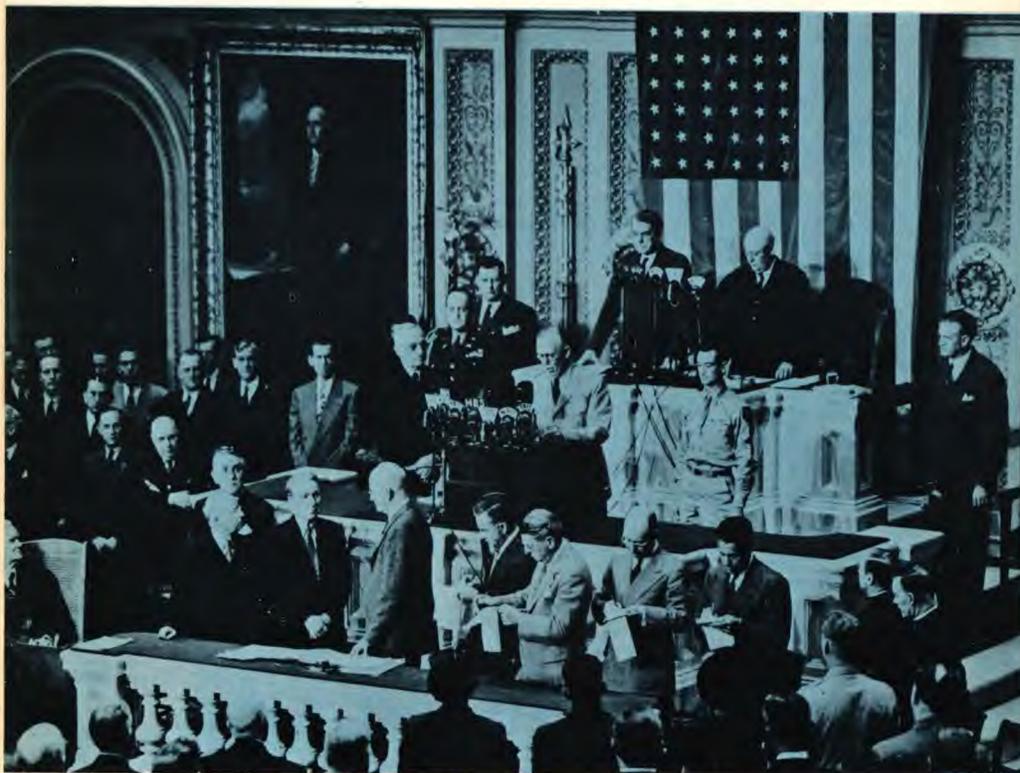
PHILIPPINE
DEFENSE RIBBON



PHILIPPINE
LIBERATION RIBBON



PHILIPPINE INDEPENDENCE
RIBBON



BEFORE JOINT SESSION OF CONGRESS IN 1945, TECH SGT JAKE W. LINDSAY
RECEIVES MEDAL OF HONOR FROM PRESIDENT TRUMAN.
GENERAL OF THE ARMY GEORGE C. MARSHALL READS CITATION.

*Worn with pride and distinction—
For Valor, Gallantry, Fidelity,
Meritorious Achievement and Exemplary Conduct—*

ARMY MEDALS AND DECORATIONS

William Plampin

TO MANY people, a medal is a medal. But militarily there are important distinctions between decorations, service and campaign medals.

Basically a decoration is a medal of distinctive shape—star, heart, cross, and the like—awarded to an individual by name in recognition of an act of heroism, or of a specific service or achievement. It must be recommended by someone having knowledge of the facts, approved by somebody else having authority to make the award, and then be announced in orders. It usually is presented in a formal ceremony. Accompanying ribbons customarily use combinations of red, white and blue.

Service and campaign medals are awarded for service in specific areas such as a certain campaign, or during specific periods in a war, or both. No recommendation is required, nor is the award announced in orders. Eligibility is simply established when the soldier's military service meets prescribed criteria.

Service medals are always solid disks. Usually the accompanying ribbons are in colors symbolic of the area involved, the enemy engaged, or the services performed.

In a category by itself is the Good Conduct Medal. While the award must be recommended and announced in orders, it does not meet

WILLIAM PLAMPIN is Administrative Assistant in Decorations and Awards Section, The Adjutant General's Office. He is also author of "For Valor and Gallantry", July 1962 DIGEST.

the other criteria for decorations.

Today there are several military decorations and a number of campaign or service medals. But it was not always so. In the early days of the Republic, military decorations were regarded as associated with foreign royalty, and thus unbecoming to a new and quite revolutionary nation.

Yet, there always has been a universal desire to recognize acts of bravery, fidelity, loyalty. The Congress during the latter part of the Revolution presented awards to several officers. Various States frequently struck off medals to honored sons. And as early as 1782 General Washington ordered "Honorary Badges of Distinction" for enlisted men "who have served more than three years with 'Bravery, Fidelity and Good Conduct.'" He also instituted a Badge of Military Merit in the "Figure of a Heart in Purple Cloth or Silk". So far as can be determined, three men were awarded this early Purple Heart. After the Revolution it fell into disuse, to be revived as the Purple Heart in 1932, on the 200th anniversary of Washington's birth.

During the Mexican War, Congress established the Certificate of Merit to be awarded to enlisted men who specially distinguished themselves. Although no medal accompanied the award, the recipients were given a two dollar a month pay increase.

Officially, the United States had no military decorations until the Medal of Honor was initiated during the Civil War. Until World War I, the Medal of Honor was awarded for varying degrees of heroism. Today it

is the Nation's highest award for bravery. (See "For Valor and Gallantry in Action," July 1962 DIGEST.)

During World War I, General John J. Pershing filled the need for lesser awards by issuing a certificate for meritorious service and a similar certificate for gallantry. Other commanders singled out individuals for honors by citing them in orders.

Finally, by Act of 9 July 1918, the Congress established three decorations—the Distinguished Service Cross for extraordinary heroism which did not warrant the award of Medal of Honor; the Silver Citation Star, for gallantry in action; and the Distinguished Service Medal.

The act established the concept of placing time limits on the submission of recommendations and on the final action taken. Requirement that recommendations be submitted within two years of the date of the deed permits ample time for research and paperwork and still is prompt enough for timely recognition.

The Silver Citation Star originally was a star 3/16 inch in diameter worn on the ribbon or ribbon bar of the World War I Victory Medal. In 1932 it was made a full fledged Army decoration as the Silver Star Medal, and was issued retroactively to those awarded the Silver Citation Star and others who had been cited in orders for gallantry during World War I.

When the Purple Heart was revived, it was as an award for meritorious service junior to the Distinguished Service Medal, and was issued retroactively to those who had received General Pershing's Meritorious Service Citation Certificate. Today it is utilized solely as an award for wounds received in action.

Two other modern medals also trace back to General Washington's badge—the Legion of Merit and the

Good Conduct Medal. The Legion of Merit was created in 1942 as a decoration with which the United States could reciprocate awards conferred upon our servicemen by foreign governments. It is awarded for extraordinary fidelity and essential service. To make it more meaningful in other countries it is given in four degrees—Chief Commander, Commander, Officer and Legionnaire. It is now awarded to Americans without reference to degree, although several awards were so made to United States soldiers when the decoration was first authorized, including General Lyman L. Lemnitzer who wears the Legion of Merit, Degree of Officer, and one without degree.

In a sense, the Good Conduct Medal is the same decoration as the Honorary Badge of Distinction established by General Washington. In its present form it was established by Presidential Executive Order in 1941, and was restricted on a selective basis to soldiers who have distinguished themselves by exemplary conduct, efficiency and fidelity while in an enlisted status.

Decorations are not awarded exclusively to men. Virginia Hall, an American civilian employee of the Office of Strategic Service, received the Distinguished Service Cross in World War II for work with the French resistance forces.

World War II created conditions that merited additional medals, so to the list were added the Air Medal, Bronze Star Medal, Army Commendation Medal, Medal for Merit, and Medal of Freedom.

The first three are on a par insofar as the degree of service or achievement is concerned. The Air Medal is given for meritorious service in aerial flight, the Bronze Star for ground action against an enemy or hostile force,

and the Army Commendation Medal where combat operations factors are not present. Both the Air Medal and Commendation Medal may be awarded in peacetime.

The Army Commendation Medal started as just a ribbon and grew by steps to its present form and significance. Regulations specifically exclude award of this decoration to general officers but all others can be, have been, and are being awarded the Army Commendation Medal.

The Medal for Merit was established as an award for civilians by the same act of Congress that established the Legion of Merit for the military. The Medal of Freedom was created by Executive Order 9586, 6 July 1945, with more liberal requirements than the criteria for the Legion of Merit applicable to foreign civilians. It was awarded by General Eisenhower to members of the underground who contributed to the war effort.

By Executive Order on 22 February 1963, the Medal of Freedom was re-established as the Presidential Medal of Freedom, with provisions broadened to encompass recognition of artists, writers, scientists and other distinguished contributors to the national life.

The National Security Medal, created by Executive Order in 1953, honors distinguished performance by any person, regardless of nationality or military status, in the field of intelligence involving national security.

Two existing medals were created in peacetime—the Distinguished Flying Cross as a result of the rapid strides in aviation, and the Soldier's Medal for heroism not involving conflict with an armed enemy. Both were created by act of Congress in July 1926. The Soldier's Medal is popularly associated with life-saving but the actual criterion is risk of the in-

dividual's own life in performing some act of heroism.

Today, U. S. troops engaged as advisors and trainers in Vietnam and elsewhere are often under hostile fire.

In 1962, establishment of the Armed Forces Expeditionary Medal was announced on order of President Kennedy. The medal is awarded to Armed Forces personnel, participating as members of U. S. military units, who encounter armed opposition, or where hostile action by foreign armed forces was imminent although it may not have materialized. The medal is awarded only for operations for which no other United States campaign medal is approved.

Executive Order 11016, issued by President Kennedy on 25 April 1962, authorizes award of the Purple Heart for wounds received in various types of action against hostile forces which are short of a formal war. On 24 August 1962, President Kennedy issued Executive Order 11046 authorizing award of the Bronze Star Medal under similar circumstances.

At first the Medal of Honor, Distinguished Service Cross and the Silver Star could not be awarded in the Republic of Vietnam because the law specified that they must be earned "in action against an enemy." Public Law 88-77 (25 July 1963) now permits award of these decorations to United States service personnel in such Cold War situations.

Although the Army's awards system now appears broad enough to cover all circumstances, nobody can foretell what future situations may develop. When new conditions present new problems, appropriate means will be found to honor the Nation's heroes—for "glory is the soldier's pay," and awards, honors and decorations are indispensable hallmarks of soldierly achievement.

ARMY PERSONAL DECORATIONS

Decorations
(Listed in order of
precedence)

	Awarded for Heroism		Achievement or service
	Combat	Non-combat	
MILITARY			
Medal of Honor (Est. 1862)			
Distinguished Service Cross (Est. 1918)			
Distinguished Service Medal (Est. 1918)			
Silver Star (Est. 1918)			
Legion of Merit (Est. 1942)			
Distinguished Flying Cross (Est. 1926)	★	★	★
Soldier's Medal (Est. 1926)			
Bronze Star Medal (Est. 1944)	★★		
Air Medal (Est. 1942)		★	★
Army Commendation Medal (Est. 1945)			
Purple Heart (Est. 1782; Revived 1932)	Wounds		

NONMILITARY

Medal for Merit
(Est. 1942)

National Security Medal
(Est. 1953)

Medal of Freedom
(Est. 1942)

Distinguished Civilian Service Medal
(Est. 1957)

Outstanding Civilian Service Medal
(Est. 1960)

Exceptional Civilian Service Medal
(Est. 1957)

Meritorious Civilian Service Medal
(Est. 1960)

★ Must meet requirement "while participating in aerial flight."
★★ Must meet requirement "in actual ground combat" for valor, awarded with a bronze V device to distinguish from an award made for achievement or service.

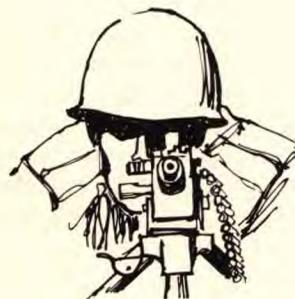
to the Infantry. Each arm and service was headed by a chief on the special staff level.

The Army school system was improved, particularly in the tactical field, and new schools were established. Notable among these were the Air Corps schools and the Army Industrial College, established in 1924.

Placed on a firm basis was the Officer Reserve Corps. Extension courses were introduced for inactive duty training, and limited active duty tours were inaugurated. Citizens Military Training Camps were established and the Reserve Officers Training Corps program enlarged.

By 1935 enlisted strength of the Regular Army reached a low of 118,000. Because of progressively dwindling appropriations, most of the Army's work during the period was theoretical rather than applied.

The Army did, however, effectively utilize its limited available funds, which dipped to \$277 million in 1934. Great emphasis was given to joint planning, mobilization planning, military organization, training literature, boards for improvement of equipment, the higher education of officer personnel, preservation of division-sized units, and in general the modernization of the Army plant. Unfortunately, resources available to the Army were not increased when foreign policy began to shift after 1932. Instead, under impact of the depression, the Army was virtually demobilized and given only a paramilitary mission with the Civilian Conservation Corps and various relief agencies.



1939-45:

WORLD WAR II

By the late 1930's realistic plans for mobilizing American manpower and industry had been evolved. The framework of the Field Forces based on four field armies



HISTORY'S LARGEST AMPHIBIOUS OPERATION ENGULFED THE NORMANDY BEACHES.

had been established; a major air command, the GHQ Air Force, organized and tested; comprehensive military doctrine, including joint Army-Navy action and military intelligence, prepared and tested; and joint war plans for numerous contingencies developed. Then, too, the National Guard and Organized Reserves were ready to become important elements in the mobilization.

Nevertheless, between the two world wars military leaders had failed to comprehend fully the scientific and mechanical developments then in progress and the revolutionary effect they would have on weapons, organization, and tactics. For World War II was to be a war of maneuver in which airplanes and tracked, armored vehicles would play a paramount role in the concepts of ground operations.

World War II began when Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union attacked Poland in September 1939. As a result the United States revised its neutrality laws and

allowed the purchase and shipment of munitions by foreign governments on a cash-and-carry basis. Soon afterwards, U.S. destroyers were traded for British bases and a lend-lease bill was passed making the United States the "arsenal of democracy." Staff conferences with the British were held; U.S. Army and Navy staffs were set up in London, as were comparable British staffs in Washington.

In Europe, the Germans attacked the Soviet Union on 22 June 1941, after completing their campaign in the Balkans. Two weeks later, U.S. troops began to relieve the British garrison in Iceland. In the Pacific, a partial embargo was placed on exports to Japan as early as July 1940; all trade relations were broken a year later.

The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on 7 December 1941, while diplomatic negotiations were still under way in Washington, united the American people and created a war spirit. Germany and Italy promptly declared war upon the United States; thus with Germany as a common enemy, United States and Russia became allies.

Not until France fell and the United States was irrevocably committed in the affairs of Europe and the Far East was the Army given adequate support. To make matters worse, future allies, then in straightened circumstances, needed all the supplies and equipment that were currently available. In spite of these and other deficiencies, the Army entered World War II better prepared to fulfill its mission than it had been in any previous war.

President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Churchill, and their principal military and naval advisers met in Washington at the Arcadia Conference shortly after Pearl Harbor to work out Anglo-American strategy, a system of command, and initial war plans. The defeat of the European Axis was given first priority; the defeat of Japan would follow.

Under the President and Prime Minister, the combined U.S.-British chiefs of staff, operating from Washington, became the executive committee for the conduct of the global warfare through theater commanders who exercised unity of command in their respective areas.

Great improvements in communications at last made it possible to exercise central control of operations from

such a great distance as Washington. General of the Army George C. Marshall, as U.S. Army Chief of Staff, played a key role as adviser to President Roosevelt on matters of strategy. To cope with the many problems arising out of training, production of equipment, and global planning the War Department was reorganized in March 1942.

In the Pacific, Japan quickly overran British Malaya and occupied the Dutch East Indies, much of southeast Asia, and Guam, Wake, and Midway. After a heroic defense, Lt. Gen. Jonathan M. Wainwright surrendered the U.S. Army forces in the Philippines. Japan thus spread itself thin over vast reaches of Asia and the Pacific Ocean.

In preparation for a counteroffensive, China was strengthened, Australia, Hawaii, and Alaska reinforced, numerous islands where airfields could be constructed were occupied, and the Pacific Fleet was rehabilitated. In the meantime, deployment in the North Atlantic area continued in preparation for the invasion of Africa and Europe. Initially, German submarines seriously restricted this movement.

Before Pearl Harbor the Army, as well as the Navy and Marine Corps, had participated in amphibious training and in the preparation of joint operational doctrine. The British had also studied the subject. All of this

BITTER FIGHTING MARKED ARMY ISLAND LANDINGS IN PACIFIC IN WORLD WAR II.



knowledge and know-how was pooled when the United States entered the war, and an unprecedented number of successful amphibious operations were launched before victory was finally won.

American military planners favored opening a second front in Europe while the Germans were preoccupied with Soviet Russia on the Eastern Front, a move also preferred by the Russians. The British favored clearing up the Mediterranean area first. The latter was actually the limit of Anglo-American capabilities in 1942-43. President Roosevelt agreed with the British, and on 7 November 1942 Anglo-American forces landed in French Northwest Africa. The Allies eliminated the Axis forces there in a campaign lasting until early May 1943.

At the Casablanca Conference, which preceded the end of the African campaign, President Roosevelt agreed that the United States would insist on unconditional surrender by the Axis powers.

Anglo-American forces followed up the African victory by seizing Sicily and southern Italy. This opened up the Mediterranean and paved the way for Italy's desertion from the Axis camp. In the meantime the German offensive in the USSR had bogged down, after which the Germans lost ground steadily.

At Guadalcanal Island in the Pacific the Japanese met their first serious reverse on land. Then an Allied force, under the command of General Douglas MacArthur and heavily supported by the U.S. Army, Navy, and Marine Corps, began a steady advance in the South Pacific, picking off strategic islands. Another force, including Army contingents, advanced in the Central Pacific under Adm. Chester W. Nimitz. These successes permitted the Army Air Forces, in conjunction with those of the Fleet, to extend operations closer to Japan.

In Great Britain the build-up for the invasion of Europe gathered momentum as the Allied forces in Italy slowly fought their way northward. On 6 June 1944, General Dwight D. Eisenhower launched the Anglo-American assault on Normandy, the greatest amphibious operation in history.

Following a build-up of forces in Normandy, Lt. Gen. Omar N. Bradley's 12th Army Group broke out of the beachhead and made a spectacular drive through France.

To the south, an American-French force (later to become Lt. Gen. Jacob L. Devers' 6th Army Group) invaded southern France on 15 August 1944 and eventually joined up with the forces invading from the west for the final assault upon Germany.

With the German Luftwaffe driven from the sky, Allied ground troops received overwhelming support from the air as they pushed into Germany. In December 1944 the Germans, in an attempt to repel the Allies, launched a major offensive in the Ardennes, which became known as the Battle of the Bulge. When this failed, the German forces gradually crumbled into total ruin.

While Anglo-American armies drove into Germany and eventually halted at the River Elbe, Soviet forces drove the Germans westward, occupying Berlin, much of Germany, and most of the Balkan countries. This set the stage for postwar difficulties. Meanwhile Hitler committed suicide, and the German armed forces capitulated unconditionally to General Eisenhower on 8 May 1945.

In the Pacific the cordon around Japan was steadily tightened by surface, air, and underwater forces. Considerable aid was provided the forces holding the Japanese in China; the Philippine Islands fell to General MacArthur's forces; Iwo Jima was captured by the Marines and became an important base for the Army Air Forces bombers. Okinawa was captured by Admiral Nimitz's forces after the Tenth Army, with Marines in corps strength attached, had destroyed the Japanese defenders. Japan was under heavy aerial attack, its navy destroyed, and its farflung army seriously weakened.

The climax came when two atomic bombs, produced by the Corps of Engineers' Manhattan Project, were dropped upon Japan early in August 1945. On 8 August, six days before Japan capitulated, the Soviet Union entered the Pacific War. General MacArthur received the official Japanese surrender on the USS *Missouri* on 2 September 1945.

World War II ended with a military victory, but serious problems stemming from occupation duties and demobilization remained to involve the Army deeply. Between 1 December 1941 and 31 December 1946 about 11,200,000 men and women served with the Army. Of these 235,000 met death incident to battle, more than

83,000 died from other causes, and 566,000 were wounded in action. The initial monetary cost of the war is estimated to have been some 330 billion dollars.

For the first time in the history of the United States Army, planning for demobilization had begun before hostilities ended. Under an Army-wide point system demobilization was soon completed, and soon the Army was reduced to the point that it could not even care for its own equipment.

1945-53:

THE KOREAN WAR



The international agreements made at the Yalta and Potsdam Conferences and the Russian failure to adhere to them led to difficulties with the Soviet Union. Russian intransigency increased as the U.S. armed forces grew weaker under demobilization. Disregarding the aims of the United Nations, the Russians pursued an aggressive policy throughout the world and quickly succeeded in subjecting many peoples, notably in Central Europe and in Asia.

In Europe occupation of former Axis territory was a joint responsibility of British, French, Russian, and U.S. forces. The Army controlled the United States zones. The Soviet Union refused to co-operate with the other occupying powers and placed many obstacles in the way of Allied commanders. Meanwhile, the occupation of Japan, almost exclusively the responsibility of the U.S. Army (although the Australian Army participated for a short time) progressed smoothly.

Under the Marshall Plan, the United States bolstered the sagging western European economies that had not yet fallen under Soviet domination. The Russians retali-



BREAKTHROUGH AT CHIPYONG-NI WAS A HIGHLIGHT OF KOREAN WAR.

ated by blockading Berlin, where the United States maintained a small occupation force deep within the Soviet Zone of Germany. An unprecedented airlift ultimately broke the blockade.

In the East, the Russians refused to recognize the United Nations' mandate for uniting Korea and built instead a strong Communist regime north of the 38th Parallel. By June 1949 the United States had withdrawn its occupational forces from the Republic of Korea, leaving only a Military Advisory Group on duty there.

The rising tensions in the East and in the West led the United States to take positive steps to strengthen anti-Communist countries. Many permanent alliances were made with the object of preventing a further Soviet expansion. Among other measures, American forces abroad were gradually strengthened.

At home the Army pioneered the idea of uniting the services under a Department of National Defense. A service-wide reorganization in 1947 placed the Army, Navy and Air Force under a Secretary of Defense, who had the technical assistance of the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

Then on 25 June 1950 a shaky peace was shattered when the Soviet-sponsored North Korean army invaded the Republic of Korea. The United Nations Security Council reacted quickly, calling upon all member nations

to help repel the aggression.

President Truman complied, first sending naval and air contingents, and then committing ground units. Other members of the United Nations sent smaller forces. On 7 July 1950 the United States was made the directing authority for a United Nations Command under General of the Army MacArthur.

The success of the North Korean surprise attack led almost immediately to a piecemeal commitment of Army units in Korea. These forces were able to delay the North Korean advance but only after suffering heavy losses. Ultimately, the Eighth Army, under General Walton Walker, built up a defense around Pusan while still under heavy attack.

In a bold maneuver on 15 September 1950 General MacArthur landed a X Corps force, including Marines, at Inchon, which was captured after only slight resistance. The Eighth Army then counterattacked the North Korean forces in conjunction with X Corps' amphibious maneuver on the enemy's rear. The two forces made contact on 26 September. This spectacular success netted thousands of prisoners of war. However, numerous guerrilla bands were left behind the United Nations front. In the meantime, the Republic of Korea Army was being rehabilitated and made into an effective force.

On 6 October 1950 the United Nations Command launched an attack across the 38th Parallel and soon captured Pyongyang, the capital of North Korea. The complete destruction of the North Korean army became the next objective, and the United Nations forces advanced on the Yalu River, though supporting aviation was not permitted to strike into Manchuria.

Meanwhile, the Chinese Communists had secretly established two field armies in the mountain redoubt of North Korea. On 26 November 1950 they took the United Nations forces by surprise and overran them. Under the impact of this attack the U.N. forces withdrew to the south. Certain elements, which had been surrounded, had to break through. X Corps was finally evacuated by sea from Hungnam on the east coast of Korea on 24 December 1950.

Because a temporary defensive line across the narrow waist of Korea could not be held, the United Nations

forces withdrew below the 38th Parallel. The Communists followed but soon outran their logistical support and suffered heavily from air blows struck at their rear.

The United Nations forces, now under the field command of General Matthew B. Ridgway, who had succeeded to that command when General Walker was killed, took the offensive and methodically pushed the enemy northward, recapturing Seoul and a strong position north of the 38th Parallel.

President Truman relieved General MacArthur of his commands on 11 April 1951 because of differences of opinion regarding the conduct of the war in the Far East, and appointed General Ridgway in his stead. Soon afterwards armistice talks were initiated.

While the armistice negotiations continued, the war became a defensive struggle, neither side gaining a decisive advantage. The repatriation of prisoners of war became the stumbling block in the negotiations, a large number refusing to be returned to the Communists. At the same time Communist prisoners of war caused serious disturbances and tied down a considerable number of United Nations troops. An armistice agreement was finally arrived at on 27 July 1953.

In addition to an enormous financial burden and the loss of important resources, the United States lost a total of 33,629 men killed incident to battle and had 103,284 wounded in action. Of these the Army lost 27,704 incident to battle and had 77,596 wounded in action. The Republic of Korea losses were, of course, far greater.

The United States Army had carried the brunt of the collective effort that halted Communist military aggression. True, the armistice marked the end of the fighting, but the problem of a divided Korea remained unresolved.

While the fighting in Korea was in progress, United States Army and Allied contingents in Europe were built up. Together with the war in Korea, this entailed a partial mobilization. Certain National Guard and Reserve units and individual trained Reservists were called into the federal service. Selective Service calls were increased to help fill the ranks with required personnel. Munitions production and research were stepped up as more and more military equipment was shipped out to bolster U.S. and Allied troops throughout Europe and Asia.

1953-63: DECADE OF TENSION



IMPROVED WEAPONS HAVE BEEN ADDED TO THE ARMY'S ARSENAL.

The Korean armistice brought no lasting easement of Cold War tensions. Though Stalin died in March 1953, his successors followed much the same foreign policy. And in Asia Communist China threatened to upset the fragile balance.

The Korean War itself had awakened the American people to the seriousness of the Communist challenge and to their responsibilities as leaders of the Free World. This meant closer ties with old allies and new treaties with other independent countries. Between 1949 and 1963 the United States made collective security agreements with some forty nations united in NATO, SEATO, OAS, and other organizations. It also meant the burden of a huge military establishment, the largest in the Nation's peacetime history. With almost half of the Army's military might deployed overseas in these years, the United States has provided proof of its resolve to make collective security work.

U.S. military policy after 1953 was reshaped to meet Soviet moves over the long pull, and not to rely on crash

programs, as during the Korean War. This "New Look" policy of the Eisenhower administration was to be carried out without unduly disturbing the American economy. Its aim: to make the defense dollar go farther.

Complicating the picture were the fantastic changes revolutionizing almost every aspect of the military scene. The world had entered an age where weapons of awesome destructive power could be delivered by long-range missiles as well as by manned aircraft. Similar changes were taking place in communications, transportation, and electronics.

The "New Look" placed greater reliance on atomic superiority as a deterrent and on instant massive retaliation should deterrence fail. Strong emphasis was therefore put on airpower to defend the continental United States; less dependence was placed on the "individual" and conventional arms. In the areas threatened, except for Europe and South Korea, initial defense would be by indigenous forces that could, however, have American material as well as advisory assistance.

For the Army, this policy meant a reduction in strength and in funds. From a strength of approximately 1.5 million and twenty divisions in December

1953, the figures dropped to 877,000 and fourteen divisions in December 1960. Army expenditures declined from 16.3 billion in fiscal year 1953 to 10.1 billion in fiscal year 1961.

Still the Army continued to work for a balanced force—one that could respond rapidly to and fight local, "brush fire" or limited wars as well as general nuclear wars—in case deterrence failed.

Other persistent Army problems involved timely modernization of equipment; airlift, sealift and tactical air support needs; and an adequate program to maintain equipment and plant capacity. Limited funds made it difficult to deal with emergencies that lay between normal peacetime operations and all-out war.

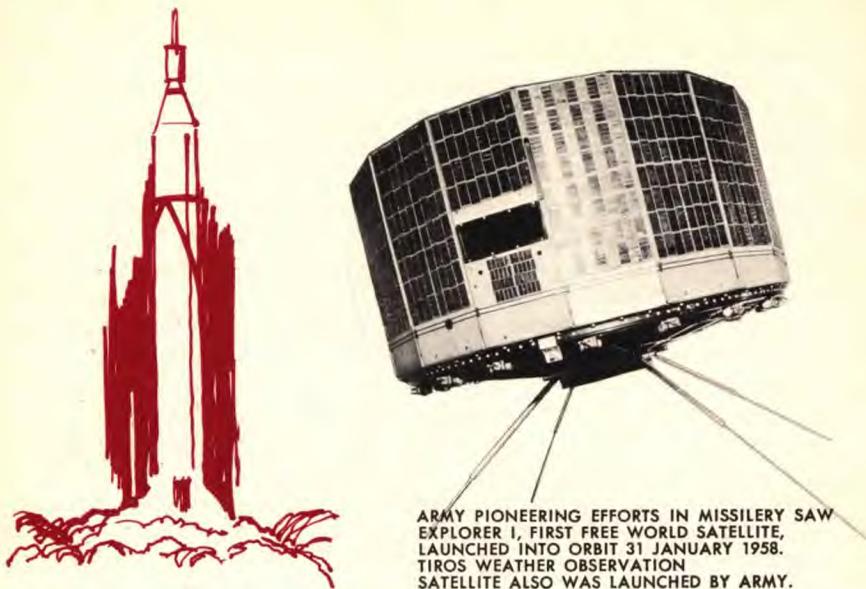
The Army envisioned nuclear war as encompassing a combat area much greater in breadth and depth than the battlefields of the past. The checkerboard disposition of units with wide gaps between them would force tactical

SMALL UNIT TACTICAL TRAINING REMAINS IMPORTANT.



RANGER UNITS ARE TRAINED TO TRAIN OTHERS, AS IN VIETNAM.





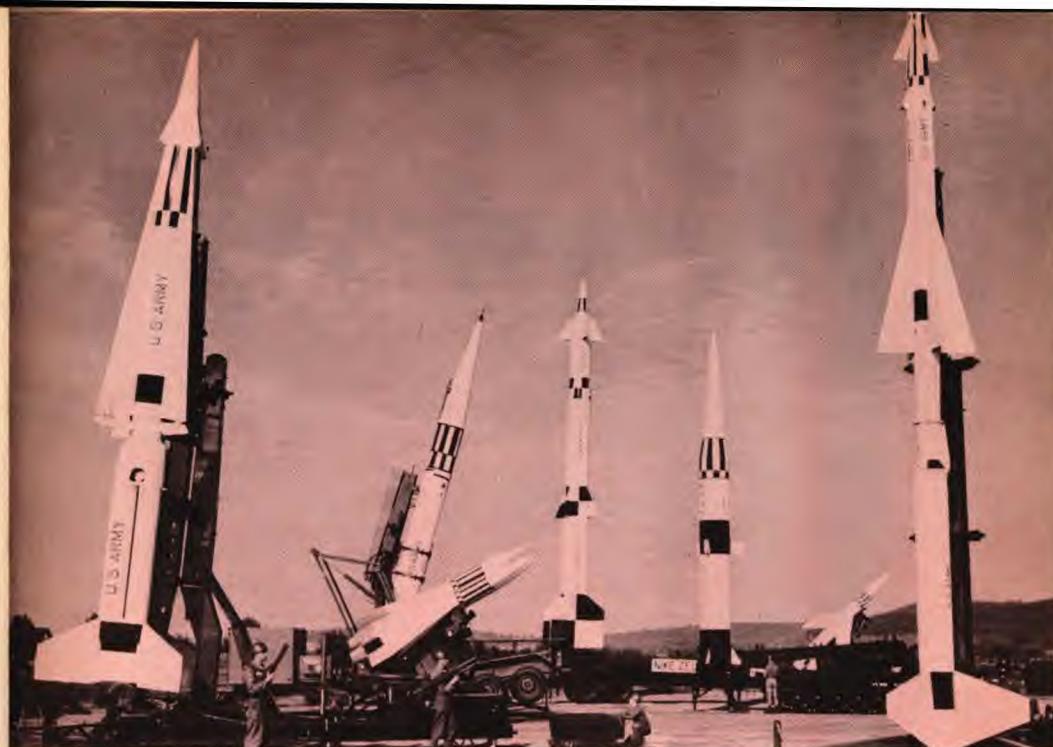
ARMY PIONEERING EFFORTS IN MISSILERY SAW EXPLORER 1, FIRST FREE WORLD SATELLITE, LAUNCHED INTO ORBIT 31 JANUARY 1958. TIROS WEATHER OBSERVATION SATELLITE ALSO WAS LAUNCHED BY ARMY.

units to be small, self-contained, and capable of operating over great distances. In a non-nuclear war, forces would not have to be as mobile or as dispersed.

To cope with this conception the Army needed to develop new types of combat organizations, new equipment and weapons with greater firepower and range, and new tactical concepts, including the selective use of nuclear weapons by ground forces—even in limited wars. New ground defenses against air attacks had to be developed along with new battlefield transportation and communication equipment, as well as new and faster ways of supplying forces in the field. Above all, the Army required highly qualified personnel trained to handle the most advanced techniques and equipment.

In a nuclear war, the amount of equipment on hand could well prove decisive. That and the shift in military policy from preparation for an M-day to that of a state of continuous preparedness compelled the Army to overhaul its plans and procedures for the production and procurement of military materials. It placed its logistical emphasis on reducing requirements and types of equipment and supplies to a minimum.

Revolutionary new machinery—electronic computers and the like—have altered the entire logistical setup. Almost instantaneous knowledge of the location, type, and



ARMY MISSILE FAMILY NOW INCLUDES SECOND-GENERATION WEAPONS.

amount of supplies and equipment can now be provided by these machines. As a result, requisitions can be processed more quickly, better stock control has been achieved, and faster and more reliable delivery methods by sea, land, and especially air have been developed.

Dispersion and rapid movement of forces called for by nuclear warfare compelled the development of more and improved off-the-road transportation and additional vehicles that can serve as warehouses on wheels. The Army has tried to cut the size and weight of its equipment and to make all materiel transportable by air. Practically all equipment and supplies have been designed for dual use—both in nuclear and non-nuclear warfare.

All this had been difficult to accomplish because weapons become obsolete in three to seven years. And though more powerful and complicated replacements cost on the average at least twice as much, the Army continued to receive the same or smaller funds for replacements.

A new phase of the Berlin crisis in 1961 provided the Army with an opportunity to pre-position equipment at overseas depots. Whole divisions can thus be airlifted to forward positions carrying only their personal equipment and then pick up all heavy equipment at the pre-position bases. In addition, floating forward supply

points are being deployed at strategic sites overseas.

Along atomic lines, science had produced a wide variety of nuclear warheads for the Army, with power ranging from a fraction of a kiloton to many megatons. These include short- and long-range guided missiles and rockets—surface-to-air, surface-to-surface, and anti-missile. Some are tactical, others strategic in purpose. Honest John, Corporal, Redstone, and Lacrosse arrived on the scene, only to be replaced by Little John, Sergeant, and Pershing. Already available or in advanced stages of development are Davy Crockett, Mauler, Hawk, Law, Shillelagh, Entac, and SS11. In Turkey, Italy and elsewhere Army-developed Jupiter IRBM's have provided protection against potential aggressors.

Along conventional lines came new or improved recoilless rifles, flamethrowers, mine planters, bridges, armored tracked and wheeled vehicles, personnel and weapons carriers that can swim, GOER off-the-road vehicles, amphibious vehicles, and aerial tramways. Several firearms have been made interchangeable with NATO weapons. Digital computers have been linked with powerful new artillery.

Given responsibility in 1956 for anti-aircraft defense of America's great metropolitan areas and important installations, the Army produced two generations of the ground-to-air Nike missile. The Missile Master provides the essential electronic air defense fire direction system. Manned by Army and Army National Guard units, these Nike sites are tied in with the early warning systems, all part of Continental Air Defense Command.

Communications and surveillance have been revolutionized to aid attack, defense, and mobility. Miniaturization is one aspect of these phenomenal changes. Systems have been established that provide split-second control over far-flung Army commands, from the lightweight, ground-based, short-range radar at company level to the more sophisticated longer range airborne systems. To aid ground-based and airborne surveillance, infrared, acoustic, and seismic devices identify the location, size, formation, and movement of enemy troops, day or night, under any weather conditions. Drones, sensors, and planes carrying side-looking radar offer additional aids, while faster mapping processes sharpen the Army's eyes.



FUTURE LEADERS ARE EVALUATED AT NCO ACADEMIES.

Psychochemicals that can temporarily incapacitate, as well as more deadly weapons, are among the developments in the chemical and biological fields.

The Army has turned to aviation to redress the balance between firepower and maneuver, thrown out of kilter by nuclear weapons. By adding helicopters, and thousands of slow-moving, fixed-winged aircraft, the Army has found quicker means to move above the battlefield, conduct surveillance, locate targets, evacuate wounded, move supplies, reduce susceptibility to enemy detection, and secure greater dispersion and firepower. These aircraft also provide the benefits of vertical or short take-off and landing.

To meet the requirements of the nuclear age, the Army in 1956 began to replace the triangular division with the pentomic division. Though division strength was cut from 17,000 to 13,500, the new organization, with its relatively self-contained battle groups, provided greater mobility, dispersion, and a higher rate of firepower—nuclear and non-nuclear. It was given more artillery and missiles with nuclear capacity, more armored troop carriers, and many more helicopters and other short-range, slow, low-flying aircraft. Regular

Army divisions were reorganized by 1958, National Guard and Reserve units by 1960.

In 1961 came ROAD (Reorganization Objective Army Division). This reorganization has been designed to provide forces tailored to specific missions, environments, terrain, and foe. The battle group structure of the pentomic division is replaced by a more flexible battalion structure. Any of four types of divisions can be organized—airborne, infantry, armored, or mechanized—depending on the varying mixes of combat battalions. ROAD has been created to balance nuclear and conventional forces, and to provide a flexible command and control structure, and an improved capability of operating with Allied forces.

Larger than the pentomic division by approximately 2,000 troops, ROAD is given more personnel carriers, light tanks, cargo trucks, and double the number of organic aircraft. Firepower is tremendously increased—artillery by a factor of 2, machine guns by 3, and recoilless rifles by 4. The ROAD organization began in early 1962 with two reactivated divisions, and all Regular Army divisions are expected to be so reorganized by mid-1964.

IN RIVER CROSSING OPERATION, RIFLEMEN MOVE TO OVERCOME ENEMY ON LAND.



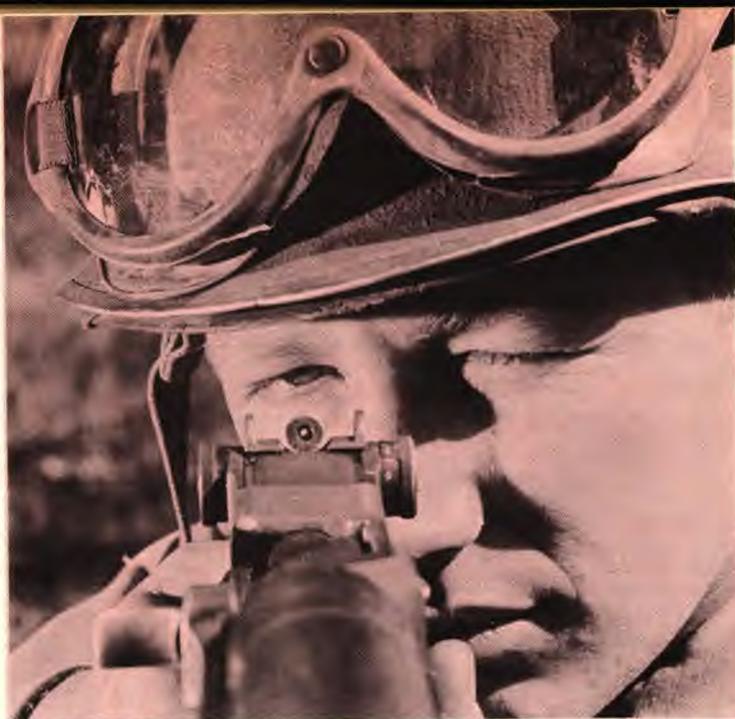
AIR ASSAULT UNITS FOR GREATER STRIKING POWER ARE BEING TESTED.

This reorganization, along with other changes, is blurring the hard and fast branch lines and developing combined arms officers.

Currently, three new types of units are being tested. The first is an air assault division that will use even more armed aircraft than ROAD; the second is an air transport brigade to support the air assault division; the third is an air cavalry brigade—a modern version of the old horse cavalry—that will employ armed aircraft to carry missiles, antitank weapons and machine guns.

The Army responded to Russia's launching of earth satellites in 1957 by speeding up its own astronomical developments. By June 1959 it had sponsored the launching of three earth-orbiting satellites, two lunar probes, and the Free World's first recovery of living creatures placed in space-flight trajectory. That autumn the Army's activities in this field were restricted to the development of tactical missiles. Since then the Army has launched Tiros, a weather satellite that has televised thousands of pictures of the earth. Its military value was demonstrated during the Cuban crisis in 1962.

Beginning in 1961, the new Kennedy administration



HIGHLY TRAINED STRAC TROOPS ARE READY TO GO ANYWHERE ANYTIME.

began to place greater emphasis on limited war capabilities. Then the United States was brought into a semi-emergency status by a new Berlin crisis. The Army saw its 870,000 authorized strength increased to 1,081,000, its active divisions made combat ready, two additional divisions reactivated, tours of active duty extended, Selective Service calls increased, and two National Guard divisions plus thousands of reservists called up.

In answer to increased Communist emphasis on guerrilla activities, the Army expanded its Special Warfare Forces. Organized on a small-scale basis in 1960, these units are designed to use unconventional and psychological warfare, as well as counterinsurgency. Each group of approximately 1,260 men is tailored for use in a major area of the world—Southeast Asia, Africa, Latin America, or the Middle East. Arms provided the units include light and silent weapons; special demolitions; specialized communications, surveillance, tracking, and identifying equipment; and an improved delivery system. The Berlin emergency in July 1961 and fighting in Laos and the Republic of Vietnam brought an expansion in the number of Special Forces units.

44 STRAC (Strategic Army Corps) was organized in 1957 to handle sudden great emergencies anywhere in

the world. Composed at first of four, then three divisions, STRAC is to a great extent self-contained and self-sufficient. It made up part of STRAF (Strategic Army Forces), which included the other U. S.-based divisions that were in a lesser state of readiness. STRAC was strengthened in airpower and airlift in 1961 when it was combined with TAC (Tactical Air Command) to make the USSTRICOM (U.S. Strike Command).

In the Cuban crisis of October 1962 STRAC demonstrated its importance when units totaling more than 100,000 officers and men, assigned to USSTRICOM, were deployed as an augmentation to the operational command of the Commander-in-Chief, Atlantic. Additional divisions also were alerted; 10,000 men became part of the Peninsula Base Command in Florida; and Army air defense battalions with their Hawk and Hercules missiles were deployed there in support.

In the 1953-63 period the Department of Defense was given new powers and responsibilities. As a result, the Army has become—to an even greater degree—an element in a unified military command structure. Recognition that strategic and tactical policy must be completely unified emerged from the Department of Defense Reorganization Act of 1958, which established direct command channels from the Joint Chiefs of Staff to the unified and specified commands for strategic military planning and operations. This eliminated the military department as executive agency within the chain of command; however, the departments and services retained responsibility for preparation, provision and support of their respective forces in unified/specified commands.

The most thoroughly high-level Army reorganization since the establishment of the General Staff in 1903 began in 1962. It was an answer to the increasingly complex technical requirements of modern warfare, the ever-increasing international threats, and the growing importance of the Joint Chiefs of Staff and the Department of Defense. To be more responsive to requirements, the General Staff was relieved of command-type functions—training, procuring equipment, and the like—and left free to concentrate on planning, programming, policy making, and general supervision.

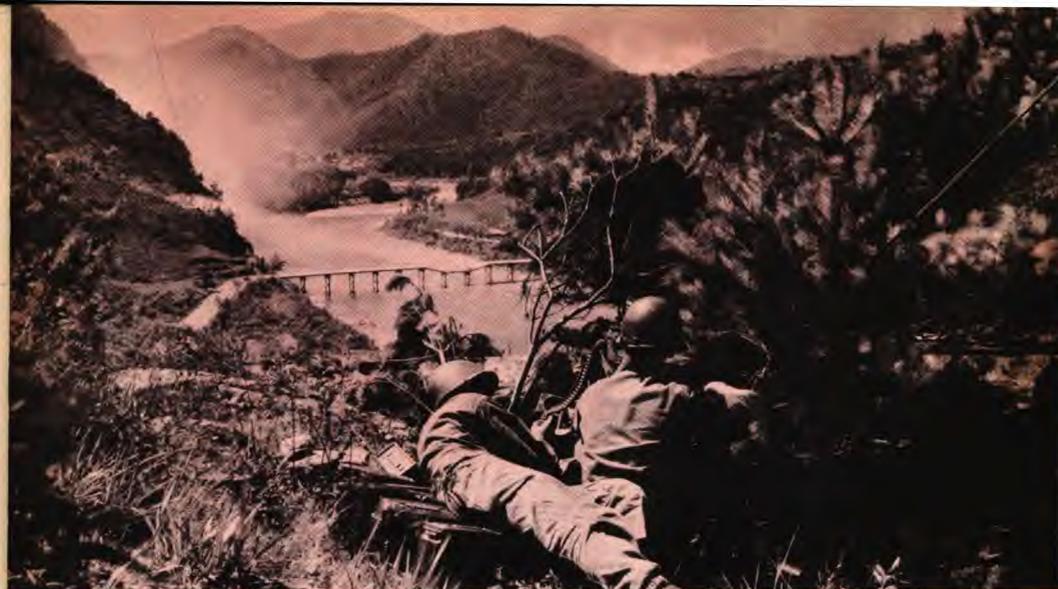
United States Continental Army Command (USCON-ARC) was made responsible for virtually all individual

and unit training. Organized in 1955, USCONARC had replaced the old Army Field Forces. The Army established a Combat Developments Command (CDC) to provide doctrine, chart the Army's future, and be responsible for combat development.

The Army Materiel Command (AMC) came into being to centralize control over all Army operations dealing with development, procurement, and distribution of all commodities or end products. It took over functions formerly shared by the seven technical services and the control formerly divided between the Deputy Chief of Staff for Logistics (DCSLOG—organized in 1955 to supervise the technical services) and the Chief of Research and Development. With some exceptions, the technical services were either eliminated or reduced in size and mission. A new organization, Office of Personnel Operations (OPO), was given responsibility for military personnel, their assignment and careers.

Units and individuals of the Army National Guard and Army Reserve had played an essential role in the Korean War, but the system of call-up left much to be desired; consequently the Army reorganized these reserves to prevent any such repetition. The Ready Reserves (National Guard and Army Reserve) were more closely integrated with the Army, and they were reduced to manageable size and provided with newer and better equipment. By 1963 several National Guard divisions were being readied to move out almost immediately in case of emergency. In the offing are more responsive Ready Reserves.

The treaty system worked out since 1949 with more than forty nations—Allies and others determined to preserve their independence—has involved the United States in tremendous military and financial commitments. The establishment of the MAAG (Military Assistance Advisory Group) program after World War II has imposed a huge responsibility on the Army. Billions of dollars in military equipment and supplies have been made available under MDAP (Mutual Defense Assistance Program). By 1960 some 49,000 Army personnel were engaged in mission activities overseas in support of allied armies, including the maintenance and training of the equivalent of some 200 divisions. Military schooling, both in the United States and abroad, has pro-



UNEASY TRUCE IN KOREA KEEPS ARMY ON CONSTANT VIGIL.

vided training for thousands from friendly nations.

When Lebanon and Taiwan required special assistance in 1958, the Army supplied both troops and equipment. Today Army personnel—in MAAG and in regular units—are helping the Vietnamese to retain their independence against Communist guerrillas.

Many roles have been given the Army in the last ten years, some military, some civil. Personnel stationed in ninety countries have acted as cultural ambassadors, spreading American democracy. In Chile, Morocco, and elsewhere overseas, as well as at home, Army men have helped victims of earthquakes, fire, flood, and storm. The Army successfully handled the thousands of Hungarian refugees who came to the United States in 1956-57. At Little Rock, Arkansas, in September 1957, and again at Oxford, Mississippi, in October 1962, the Army's job was to maintain law and order in carrying out Federal court decrees.

Army personnel helped construct the St. Lawrence Seaway, they built up much of Okinawa, and developed numerous airfields and ballistic missile sites for the Air Force. In addition, they are contributing to protection of the Nation's natural resources.

With all the scientific achievements of the past ten years, the Army has not forgotten its own personnel—its most important ingredient. Conditions have improved and inducements have been provided officers and enlisted personnel. The Army has established new enlisted grades

and a proficiency pay system, increased re-enlistment bonuses, reinstated permanent promotions, and given officers greater opportunities for promotion and provided them with more security while in service. Personnel now have coverage under Social Security, broader medical protection, and wider opportunities for higher education. In addition, training has been given new emphasis; entrance and retention standards have been raised.

The Army's *esprit de corps* is high. A new Army Green uniform, awards recognizing Cold War service, the Combat Arms Regimental System, a new Army flag and song—all have contributed to this spirit. The new Code of Conduct recognizes the need to arm the mind and spirit of the soldier as well as provide him with equipment and supplies. As a result, the percentage of Regular Army officers and enlisted men has increased, while the figures for those in disciplinary barracks fell from 6,000 in 1955 to less than 800 in 1962.

The Army has been a major factor in American history. It has played the predominant role in most of our wars. It has contributed mightily to the exploration, policing, governing, and winning of a continent, as it has in saving the Nation from internal collapse, in carrying out the law, and in preserving domestic order. Beginning with the Spanish-American War, soldier-ambassadors have carried the flag and American concepts of freedom and democracy to all the world.

Until the 20th century the United States depended on a small Regular Army. The wars of this century, however, have required the use of universal military obligation and Selective Service. Today the Army's goal is versatility in the application of land power across the whole spectrum of warfare.

TODAY'S SOLDIERS PREPARE TO FIGHT OVER ANY KIND OF TERRAIN.



The 145 streamers on the Army's battle flag were put there by the approximately 525,000 Army members who sacrificed their lives on the battlefield and the more than 1,275,000 who were wounded in those campaigns. Today our soldiers are still shedding their blood in distant lands.

Throughout our history, the Army and its leaders have consistently upheld the principle expressed by George Washington and incorporated in the Constitution—that the Army is merely an instrument of civilian authority. Its code has been—and remains—Duty, Honor, Country.



THE U.S. ARMY SOLDIER— Key to Landpower

Back cover: Famed painting by Norman Rockwell, reproduced by courtesy of the artist, now hangs in hearing room of House Armed Services Committee, Rep. Carl Vinson, Chairman.



Norman
Rockwell