FINAL ARMORY HISTORIC CONTEXT

ARMY NATIONAL GUARD
NATIONAL GUARD BUREAU

ARCHITECTURAL AND HISTORICAL RESEARCH
CULTURAL RESOURCES CONSULTANTS

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Below is the Disclaimer which accompanied the historic context when submitted to the NGB in draft form in 2005. Due to reorganization of the document prior to its finalization, the section in which Burns & McDonnell references below has been changed and is now Section II of the document, which is written in its entirety by Ms. Renee Hilton, Historical Services Division, Office of Public Affairs & Strategic Communications, National Guard Bureau.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION, BACKGROUND, AND METHODOLOGY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This Historic Context Study provides an overall historic look at the Army National Guard (ARNG), presents an evaluation of ARNG events that occurred within geographic areas and specific states, defines and categorizes property types and architectural styles, and discusses the work of known and significant architects who contributed to the construction of ARNG armories nationwide.

In order to address these topics, the study is divided into four sections.

Section I: Introduction, Background, and Methodology

Section II: A Brief History of the Army National Guard

Section III: Geographic Overview: Selected State History of the Army National Guard

Section IV: Architectural Overview of Army National Guard Armories

Section V: Bibliography

Section II provides a general history of the ARNG from the Colonial Period through the present day and is excerpted from A Brief History of the Militia and National Guard (Hylton and Wright 1993). Section III presents a brief history of the ARNG in each state in which armories were visited in the field during the research and fieldwork associated with the creation of this historic context. The level of historic detail available for the study of the ARNG within each state is somewhat varied. Section IV provides an architectural overview of the armory designs prevalent throughout the history of the ARNG, and a list of architects or master craftsmen involved in the construction of the armories for each period. The term “armories,” used throughout this report, refers to facilities currently called “Readiness Centers” by the ARNG. “Armory” is used to avoid confusion for the reader, since many of the quotes provided in this context use this term.

Appendix A contains individual inventory forms for those extant armories (armories currently in existence and owned by the ARNG) that were visited as part of this project. These generic forms were created by Architectural and Historical Research (AHR), LLC, for the sole purpose of this report; each ARNG state Cultural Resource Manager (CRM) and State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO) was given the opportunity to review the contents of the form.

1.2 BACKGROUND

Concurrent to the development of this historic context, the ARNG was currently developing a Nationwide Programmatic Agreement (PA) for armories located in all states, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, Guam, and the District of Columbia. The purpose of the Nationwide PA is to streamline and standardize National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA), Section 106 compliance in accordance with 36 CFR 800.14(b). The Nationwide
PA will cover the maintenance and treatment, rehabilitation, renovation, and mothballing of armories.

Burns and McDonnell (B&McD), the prime consultant for the project, retained AHR, LLC, Kansas City, Missouri, to prepare this Historic Context Study. As part of the study, the ARNG proposed site visits to approximately 26 armories in 13 states. Under the initial scope for the project, the sample of armories to be documented included all armories within the 13 states constructed prior to the Cold War, and a 10 percent sample of the Cold War armories from those states. However, it quickly became apparent that selecting sites to visit from the 10 percent sample of Cold War Era armories gleaned from the PRIDE database, would be inadequate for this study; they would not be representative of the many styles of Cold War Era armories. Therefore, site selection considered all of the ARNG armories; the final selection was made by AHR and the ARNG state CRMs in coordination with the National Guard Bureau (NGB) and the appropriate SHPOs. The collection of information for each armory included examination of reference materials, identifying points of contact, and reviewing other historic sources. Following the analysis of this material, the Historic Context Study was prepared.

Cydney E. Millstein, AHR, completed this report, as well as associated fieldwork, research, and photography. ARNG Historian Renee Hylton authored Section II, A Brief History of the Army National Guard. Historian Mary Ann Warfield and archeologist Victoria Vargas assisted in the fieldwork and developed portions of Sections III and IV as well as the development of the individual inventory forms found in Appendix A. Kristin Leahy, NGB Cultural Resources Program Manager, authored Section V and edited and reviewed the report prior to its completion.

1.3 SURVEY BOUNDARIES AND RESOURCES

An architectural investigation of specific armories was conducted in 13 states: Alabama, Alaska, California, Kansas, Massachusetts, Mississippi, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas. Two armories in each state (three in New York) were chosen for the field survey sample, for a total of 27 armories.

1.4 SURVEY OBJECTIVES

The architectural survey component of the historic context survey was used to develop an inventory of architecturally and historically significant buildings and structures, and to identify the range of property types within the sample of sites visited during the field survey. This survey also identified properties that may be eligible for the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) and those that may be adversely affected by future modifications. Furthermore, this survey was designed to be used as a tool in the identification of historic structures and for making decisions pertaining to engineering and architectural design and implementation by the ARNG, CRMs and respective SHPOs. Finally, this Historic Context Study provides an outline of the resources and history of the ARNG’s armories that allows the ARNG to make decisions regarding their historic properties on a nationwide basis.
1.5 METHODOLOGY

Both field survey and archival research (see below) were used to obtain historic context information regarding the visited armories within the 13 states. Information for each inventoried property was gathered from the following sources and repositories:

- Site Visits: An on-site analysis of each property was conducted to fully assess its present condition and integrity (i.e., identification of style, type, design, approximate construction date, and obvious alterations and/or additions).

- Photography: At least 12, 4- x 6-inch black-and-white photographs of each property were taken using a 35mm camera. In addition, digital images were also taken. Each inventoried property was keyed with a corresponding image number and identified as such on a spreadsheet. Original negatives are housed at AHR, Kansas City, Missouri. All digital images are being provided to the ARNG on CDs.

- Global Positioning System (GPS)/Geographic Information System (GIS) data: GPS data were collected using a Trimble GPS receiver that provided real time sub-meter accuracy. To facilitate the data collection in areas with controlled access, a laser range finder was connected to the GPS receiver to record distant points. The outlines of the structures were recorded, as well as the main entrance doors and fences surrounding the structures if present. When field conditions were inadequate or satellite coverage was not available, uncorrected data were collected in the field and post-processed in the office for real-time accuracy. Hand-drawn sketches of the facilities were produced in the field with descriptive notes; to compliment the GIS data, facility plans and building outlines and footprints were collected from the facility. GPS data collected in the field were processed with GPS Pathfinder Office 2.80 software and exported to a shapefile format where it was projected into the appropriate UTM zone and NAD83 datum. The GPS data were then verified through aerial photography, and feature classes were created for building points, building perimeter, fences, gate lines, and gate points. All the data were organized and formatted following Spatial Data Standards (SDS), and Federal Geographic Data Committee (FGDC) compliant metadata was created. These data were created to be linked to the ARNG’s PRIDE database. Multiple state shapefiles were then combined into one global feature class and projected into the North American 1983 geographic coordinate system (GCS). An ArcMap 8.3 document was created to view the global feature classes and approximately five photos for each armory. Photos were obtained during the site visits and the five photos selected are included in the Historic Inventory Forms in Appendix A of Volumes II through V of this study. An ArcIMS AXL map service was also created that references the data collected in the field.

In general, the data for background research presented within Sections III and IV as well as the specific information about armory sites were collected from the following repositories:


- State Historic Preservation Offices: Files on previously inventoried armories and
sites, NRHP Nominations, Multiple Property Listings (MPL), and NRHP individual surveys.

During each visit, given the very brief amount of time at each site, CRM files were examined, and if time allowed, nearby repositories visited. Of course, the quality of the files retained at individual CRM offices varied a great degree. When possible, original plans for each armory were pulled, records including permits, maps, site plans and modification notes were examined and used in the report, when appropriate. In some cases, we found errors in record keeping, which further limited field time. Most of the primary material that could be copied, i.e., plans and drawings, are included in the individual volumes of State data materials and inventory forms and can be accessed through the ARNG office.

Every effort was made to contact the respective SHPO offices to request any primary or secondary material; sources can be found in the extensive bibliography found in Section V and in the individual inventory forms within Appendix A. Copies of the majority of the sources can be examined in the General Data Volume, No. XIV. As requested by AHR, LLC, a separate trip was taken to Arlington, VA, to examine files at the ARNG office. ARNG Annual Reports and Reports of the Adjutant General of the Army Relative to the Militia of the United States were examined and often cited in the historic context.

Secondary sources such as The National Guardsman, historical accounts written by prominent authors such as Jerry M. Cooper, Michael Doubler, R. Ernest Dupuy, Robert M. Fogelson, John K. Mahon, and several books on the Cold War (authored by Andre Fontiane, for example), were examined and often cited. A few theses and dissertations were also found to be of particular interest and are cited in the bibliography.

Other secondary sources examined include several professional periodicals found through Avery Index, Industrial Arts Index, Engineering Index and a few resources located through the internet, which were generated through various university and/or professional sources. All of these articles are included in the General Data Volume XIV. Tertiary sources, such as ICRMPS and inventories were also requested prior to each site visit and then examined for each state. The range of historical contexts varied from state to state; some completely ignored the topic altogether. If time and budget had allowed, a visit to the National Archives, Washington, D.C., and College Park, Maryland, may have provided more state specific data for this historic context.

### 1.6 REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS

As stated in National Register Bulletin 16A: How to Complete the National Register Registration Form, “three key concepts—historic significance, historic integrity and historic context—are used by the National Register program to decide whether a property qualifies for listing.”

“Historic Significance is the importance of a property to the history, architecture, archeology, engineering, or culture of a community, state or the nation. It is achieved in several ways by applying the National Register Criteria for Evaluation, as follows:

- **A:** Association with events, activities, or patterns.
- **B:** Association with important persons;
- **C:** Distinctive physical characteristics of design, construction or form
D: Potential to yield important information.”

There are also Criteria considerations, which include (G): Properties that have achieved significance within the past 50 years (exceptional significance). This may apply to those properties that have achieved significance in the Cold War period.

1.7 HISTORIC INTEGRITY

Integrity is “the ability of a property to convey its significance. To be listed in the National Register of Historic Places, a property must not only be shown to be significant, under the NR criteria, but it also must have integrity. The evaluation of integrity is sometimes a subjective judgment, but it must always be grounded in an understanding of a property’s physical features and how they relate to its significance.” The retention of specific aspects of integrity is paramount for a property to convey its significance. To retain historic integrity a property will always possess several, and usually most, of the aspects of integrity and the following are the seven aspects of integrity: (For a complete definition, please refer to NPS Bulletin 15).

- Location
- Design
- Setting
- Materials
- Workmanship
- Feeling
- Association

Location is “the place where the historic property was constructed or the place where the historic event occurred.” Design “is the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property.” Setting “is the physical environment of a historic property.” Materials “are the physical elements that were combined or deposited during a particular period of time and in a particular pattern or configuration to form a historic property.” Workmanship “is the physical evidence of the crafts of a particular culture or people during any given period in history or prehistory.” Feeling “is a property’s expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of a particular period of time.” Association “is the direct link between an important historic event or person and a historic property.”

1.8 HISTORIC CONTEXT

In the discussion of historic context, one may refer to National Register Bulletin: How to Complete the National Register Registration Form, page 4, which refers to the NPS definition, as follows:

“Properties are significant within the context of prehistory or history. Historic Context is information about historic trends and properties grouped by an important theme in the prehistory or history of a community, State or the nation during a particular period of time.”

“Because historic contexts are organized by theme, place and time, they link historic properties to important historic trends. In this way they provide a framework for determining the significance of a property and its
eligibility for National Register listing. A knowledge of historic contexts allows applicants to understand a historic property as a product of its time and as an illustration of aspects of heritage that may be unique, representative, or pivotal.”

“Themes often relate to the historic development of a community, such as commercial or industrial activities. They may relate to the occupation of a prehistoric group, the rise of an architectural movement, the work of a master architect, specific events or activities, or a pattern of physical development that influenced the character of a place at a particular time in history. It is within the larger picture of a community’s history that local significance becomes apparent. Similarly State and national significance become clear only when the property is seen in relationship to trends and patterns of prehistory or history statewide or nationally.”

To qualify for listing in the NRHP Criterion A, the property must retain the following:

- A strong degree of association and location.
- A high degree of architectural integrity in setting, materials and workmanship for their period of significance.
- Should also be an excellent example of their property type possessing the distinct stylistic and functional characteristics that qualify it as this property type.
- The integrity of features associated with the property type is especially important. In particular, a high percentage of window and door elements should be extant, particularly on the primary façade. While some alterations to basement windows and ground floor fenestration is to be expected, the impact of alterations in this area should be measured against the architectural integrity and complexity and size of the entire façade.
- Additions to the main building are acceptable if they are subsidiary to the original and are located on secondary facades.

To qualify for listing in the NRHP Criterion B, the property must be associated with important persons in the local, state or national history.

To qualify for listing in the NRHP Criterion C, the property must also retain the following:

- In addition to the above requirements, to be individually listed under Criterion C, the property must be an excellent example of a specific style of architecture, retaining a high-degree of integrity in setting, design and materials that define the style or type.

In general, it is useful to turn to the “[Multiple Properties Documentation Form] MPDF: Army National Guard Armories in New York State” for a discussion of registration requirements that can be applied nationwide: “In summary, the [registration] requirements are simple and liberal: if an armory survives with at least a moderate degree of integrity and embodies the distinctive characteristics of the type as defined in the historic overview (refer to the ARNG historic context), it is eligible for listing in the National Register. This simplistic approach is made possible for two reasons: first,
armories as a building type are so rare at both the state and national levels that even a fragment of an armory might still qualify for NRHP designation…”

In determining NRHP eligibility for armories, the following registration guidelines were taken into consideration:

- Is the resource at least 50 years old?
- Does the resource directly relate to the ARNG’s role during this time period?
- Does the resource have local, state or national significance?
- Does the resource meet NRHP criteria A, B, or C?
- Does the resource retain integrity?
- Does the property display, through physical design or association, any of the themes described in the historic context?

If the answer to all of the above questions is “yes,” then the property may qualify for listing on the NRHP. It should be noted that although a property may not qualify as significant resource under this guidance due to issues of integrity, it may qualify at a later date under the standard NRHP criteria if the integrity is addressed and retained by restoration or rehabilitation.

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2.0 A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE ARMY NATIONAL GUARD

The following text is excerpted from *A Brief History of the Militia and National Guard* (Hylton and Wright 1993). The text presented here is identical to that of the original volume except for the exclusion of a few paragraphs and the addition of new text by Hylton (2005). Chapters and subsections from the original text have been renumbered to follow the presentation conventions of this historic context.

2.1 COLONIAL BEGINNINGS

2.1.1 European Roots

The greatest cultural influence on the area that became the United States was from England, and the first settlers brought English military ideas with them. Medieval Englishmen believed that every free, able-bodied male had the obligation to furnish his own weapons and turn out under local leaders to defend the realm. By the late 1500s, when Englishmen were beginning to plan colonies in the New World, the militia had been separated into two categories. Most individuals would serve only in a crisis, such as the approach of the Spanish Armada in 1588. However, a select element was grouped into ‘trained bands’ and voluntarily held periodic musters for training.1

During the middle of the seventeenth century, a civil war between the Royalists and Parliamentarians convulsed England. Both sides created armies and, after the execution of King Charles I, the country endured a military dictatorship under Oliver Cromwell. When the monarchy was restored in 1600, the trained bands were allowed to deteriorate, and a small permanent, or ‘standing’ army, was created.2

Most Englishmen had a horror of standing armies. They were expensive to maintain, which meant higher taxes, and they could too easily become a domestic police force for the central government. But in England, the growing power of Parliament preserved civilian control over the king’s small army3; in the English colonies, the elected assemblies, or legislatures, would do the same with respect to their militias.

2.1.2 The First Colonies

The first colonists in Virginia (1607), Plymouth (1620), Massachusetts Bay (1629), and Connecticut (1636) brought English military traditions with them. They also drew upon the experience of earlier English colonists in Ireland, protecting themselves from hostile natives by living within wooden forts and organizing themselves into a militia. The little trading post at Jamestown, to maintain the discipline necessary to survive in the Virginia wilderness, organized itself into a virtual regimental garrison within two years of its

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3 Ibid., 95-181. Schwoerer discusses the British elite’s acceptance of standing armies following increased Parliamentary control after the Revolution of 1689, and the use of Army commissions as a source of jobs for sons of the elite.
founding, complete with companies and squads. Plymouth, on the advice of Miles Standish, its military advisor, formed four companies of militia to maintain order and patrol its borders.\(^4\)

The larger and wealthier Massachusetts Bay Colony profited from the experiences of the earlier settlers. In 1629, its first expedition left England for Salem with a militia company already organized and equipped with the latest weapons. Although standing regiments were not to appear in England until 1642, by December 1636 Massachusetts Bay had grouped its 15 companies into three regional regiments. Other colonies followed suit: Maryland and Plymouth in 1658, Virginia in 1666, and Connecticut in 1672.\(^5\)

2.1.3 Regional Patterns

Regional patterns emerged fairly soon in the colonial militia. In the Chesapeake Bay area, a plantation economy based on tobacco took hold, leading to a rural settlement pattern. This meant that it took a broad geographic area to form a company, and a county normally had only one regiment. In New England, an economy based on trade and Puritan religious convictions led to a town-based residential system. With their denser population, the New Englanders could form more than one regiment in each county. Pennsylvania remained an exception to the general pattern. Settled originally by pacifist Quakers, it did not pass a law establishing a mandatory militia until 1777.\(^6\)

2.1.4 Indian Warfare

Relations between the earliest English colonists and the Indians were reasonably peaceful, especially in Plymouth Colony. But the colonists' desire for more and more land made hostility inevitable. The Indian Wars in Virginia in 1622 (in which 25% of the colonists were massacred) and 1644\(^7\), and the Pequot War in New England in 1637, began a pattern that was to continue on the American frontier for almost 250 years.

The Indians would attack white settlements, usually the smaller and more isolated outposts. The militia would gather to defend the settlements and to pursue the Indians deep into their own territory. Temporary detachments were used for sustained operations in the wilderness, minimizing the economic hardship on individual militiamen.

This was a very different type of warfare than that going on in Europe at the same time, and it meant changes in tactics and equipment. Body armor of metal and leather was fine for a European battlefield, but it was a hindrance when chasing Indians through the woods and swamps of eastern North America. For similar reasons, the European emphasis on drill and coordinated movement gave way to the individual initiative required for frontier warfare.\(^8\)

\(^5\) Ibid.
\(^6\) Ibid., 7.
\(^8\) Wright, 7.
When immediate danger subsided and colonies matured, the standing militia remained active, although it tended to serve as an institution to train young men in the art of war, as a source of recruits or draftees, and as a law-enforcement agency. A supplemental force emerged for most combat missions in the wars of the 1670s; a force comprising hired volunteers to range the frontiers, patrolling between outposts and giving early warning of any Indian attack. Other volunteers combined with friendly Indians for offensive operations deep in the wilderness, where European tactics were ineffective. The memoirs of the most successful leader of these mixed forces, Benjamin Church, were published by his son Thomas in 1716 and represent the first American military manual.9

2.1.5 The French and Indian War

The volunteer concept matured in the major colonial wars of the eighteenth century. Regiments completely separate from the militia were raised for specific campaigns. These units, called Provincials, were patterned after regular British regiments and were recruited from the militia, often during normal drill assemblies. The most famous Provincials were formed by Major Robert Rogers of New Hampshire during the French and Indian War (1654-1673). His ‘rangers’ performed reconnaissance for the regulars invading Canada and conducted occasional long-range raids against the French and their Indian allies.10

2.1.6 The Coming of the Revolution

In the years that followed the French and Indian War, the British government adopted a series of policies that altered the traditional relationship between England and the colonies. Seven years of war in Europe and North America had cost Britain millions of pounds, and the British people were being taxed to pay for the war. Naturally, the British Parliament felt that the colonists, who had benefited from the war, should help pay their share. But when efforts were made to regulate the colonial economy for the benefit of the mother country after years of benign neglect, the colonists were furious at what they saw as assaults on their traditional liberties.

In order to protect the territories (including most of what is now Canada) won from the French, and to try and maintain some sort of peace between warring settlers and Indians on the frontier, British troops were stationed permanently in North America for the first time. The colonists, with their traditional English suspicion of standing armies, suspected that their real purpose was to enforce unpopular legislations such as the Stamp Act of 1768.11

Colonial politicians began agitating for serious militia reforms to create a force capable of standing up to the British Army. Colonists organized voluntary military companies for extra training. In 1774, when the political situation was at a boiling point, the Massachusetts Committee of Safety (in effect, a ‘shadow’ government representing the revolutionary, or Patriot, sympathizers), created a select militia force ready to turn out at a minute’s notice. They were called ‘minutemen.’12

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9 Ibid., 9
10 Ibid.
11 Doubler, 27.
2.1.7 Lexington and Concord

Tensions reached the breaking point in New England. On April 18, 1775, a British column of some 600 men set out in the dark from Boston. Massachusetts revolutionary leaders had begun assembling military supplies, and the British had orders to proceed to Concord and seize any material found there. Early the next morning, the column encountered a company of militia drawn up near their route of march. Neither side wished to provoke trouble, but both needed to make a political statement. The British deployed to confront the militiamen, and ordered them to disperse. Just as the colonists were beginning to comply, a shot rang out. Seconds later, the British opened fire, leaving a number of colonists dead and wounded.13

No one knows for sure who fired the “shot heard round the world,” although it was probably a junior British officer simply trying to gain the attention of a milling crowd. This incident and a later engagement just outside Concord touched off a general battle as the small British column attempted to withdraw. Several hundred British soldiers died or were wounded during the long march back to Boston as the militia forces of eastern Massachusetts swarmed out to harass them. Only the appearance of a relief column, and the lack of any central control over the militia, enabled the survivors to escape total annihilation. The American colonies’ revolt against the mother country had begun.14

2.2 THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

Within two months of Lexington and Concord, four separate armies – one from each New England colony (Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island) – had enlisted for service through the end of the year. They were patterned after the Provincials, and relieved the Minutemen and militia that had begun the siege of Boston. All four armies drew heavily on the militia and Minuteman organizations for both officers and trained soldiers.15

On June 17, 1775, this New England army fought its first engagement, the first major battle of the war. Some 2,200 British regulars made frontal assaults against more than 2,000 militiamen dug in on Bunker and Breed’s hills. When the front-line defenders ran out of ammunition, the British finally took the hills with a bayonet assault; they lost 42 percent in dead and wounded.16

2.2.1 Washington Takes Command

Three days before the Battle of Bunker Hill, the Continental Congress, meeting in Philadelphia, took control of the conduct of the war. They passed a resolution authorizing “the American Continental Army” and also requested Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia to raise troops.17 The appointment the next day of a Southerner, George Washington, to lead the army added to the national character of the force.

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14 Ibid.
15 Wright, 11.
16 Ibid.
17 Ibid.
Although sectional politics were involved in Washington’s selection, he was in fact the best qualified person for the job. He began his career in 1752 as a regional adjutant in the Virginia militia and was the only colonial to command a brigade in the French and Indian War.\textsuperscript{18}

The signing of the Declaration of Independence in July 1776 put the colonists’ rebellion on a new footing. The continental army was enlarged, and enlistments were for the duration of the war rather than for a single campaign.\textsuperscript{19}

British grand strategy for suppressing the rebellion called for the two main British armies, in Canada and New York, to work together to sever New England from the rest of the country. But during this first phase of the Revolution, the British Army was unable to decisively defeat Washington, or to rally a significant percentage of the colonists to come out openly for the Loyalist cause.

2.2.2 The War Moves South

In 1780, in a change of strategy, the British moved the main body of their troops to the southern colonies, where they hoped to find more Loyalist sympathizers. Unfortunately, the arrival of a British Army in the South, where society was much more loosely organized and more ethnically diverse than the North, was the spark that set off a civil conflict that raged throughout North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and the frontier regions beyond the old colonial boundaries.

British strategy called for rallying the Loyalists to declare themselves for the king, and to form militia units. But these units were quickly matched by equal numbers of Patriot militia and irregulars, under former Continental and militia officers like Thomas Sumter, Andrew Pickens, and Francis Marion, the “swamp fox.” These units harassed their Loyalist neighbors and the British rear lines in a sometimes-savage guerrilla war. There were plenty of atrocities to go around – on both sides. After the Battle of Kings Mountain, North Carolina, fought almost entirely by Loyalist and Patriot militia, many Loyalists were massacred while trying to surrender.\textsuperscript{20}

2.2.3 Tactics to Utilize the Militia

During the last two years of fighting, Continental generals finally learned how to utilize the militia to best advantage. Rather than calling them away from their homes and families for months-long periods, or expecting them to fight in the style of a European Army, like the well-trained Continentals, American commanders learned to call out militia forces only on the eve of a battle, and then employ them in a way that used their skills.

The greatest example came at Cowpens, South Carolina, in January 1781, where militia contingents from the Carolinas and Georgia arrived literally on the night before the coming battle. The illiterate American backwoods commander, Daniel Morgan, explained to them personally that he wanted only two good volleys, and then they would be free to leave the battlefield. The militiamen’s deadly fire contributed greatly to the

\begin{thebibliography}{9}
\bibitem{Boatner} Boatner, 1166.
\bibitem{Wright} Wright, 12.
\end{thebibliography}
overwhelming defeat of British Colonel Banastre Tarleton, and Morgan’s tactical deployment of his militia riflemen made Cowpens, as one noted military historian wrote, “…a classic, any way you look at it.” 21

Like Daniel Morgan, the new American commander in the South, Nathaniel Greene, adopted his tactics to suit local conditions. By concentrating on quality and mobility, and forcing the more cumbersome British Army to chase him, Greene seized the initiative with a series of battles. Large militia contingents were called out only on the eve of a battle, and used as they had been at Cowpens. 22

Once again unable to raise Loyalist supporters or inflict decisive defeat on the Continental Army, by the fall of 1781 the British presence in the deep South was reduced to garrisons in Charleston and Savannah. A British move to split the Southern colonies by establishing a base at Yorktown, Virginia, ended in disaster when the colonists’ new French allies blockaded the British fleet with their navy, and Continentals and Virginia militia blocked overland retreat. After a European-style siege, the British surrendered, and two years later, eight years to the day after the Revolution’s first shots at Lexington and Concord, an armistice halted the fighting. 23

2.3 THE YOUNG REPUBLIC

The Treaty of Paris not only ended the Revolution, it established the United States as a member of the community of nations and fixed its boundaries. But Americans still had to convince a skeptical world that their new republic – and a republic was a very radical form of government in the eighteenth century – could maintain an effective government, establish control over its new lands, and protect national interests beyond its borders.

2.3.1 The Debate Over the Constitution

Many Americans doubted that all of this could be accomplished without major changes in the way the new nation was governed. The Articles of Confederation, adopted by the Continental Congress in 1777, provided for a loose confederation of states with very little power for the central government.

Revolutionary statesmen such as Patrick Henry, who had an almost paranoid distrust of centralized power, were happy with a loose confederation. But the ‘Federalists,’ as those who favored stronger central government came to be called, argued that the Confederation was unworkable. The Federalists’ arguments finally prevailed; in February 1786 Congress announced that the states should send delegates to a convention in Philadelphia, “for the sole purpose of revising the Articles of Confederation.”24

The delegates far exceeded their original authority. Between May and September 1787, they designed a new form of government to replace the Articles. They produced a constitution specific enough to govern effectively, but flexible enough to last for 200 years. It was the first truly republican form of government since Rome almost 2,000 years before, and many Europeans thought it too radical to succeed.

21 Boatner, 299.
23 Ibid., 1241-49.
24 Wright, 31.
Long debates by the delegates over the issues of the exercise of governmental power produced a system of checks and balances that divided responsibility between the states and the national government, and between the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of the central government. The nationalist, or Federalist, elements pushed for greater central authority. The anti-Federalists wished to reserve as much power as possible for the states, which they believed to be more in touch with common citizens.

2.3.2 Military Power for a Democracy

Military force, in the form of an army and navy, represented power that needed the tightest control, and the delegates devised a solution that reflected both their overwhelmingly British heritage and their colonial past. The Constitution explicitly granted the Federal government authority to raise and maintain land and sea forces in peacetime as well as in wartime. It placed all such forces under the control of the executive branch by making the President the Commander in Chief. 25 On the other hand, like their English ancestors, the framers gave ultimate control to the legislature by giving it sole power to collect the taxes that would pay for the military, and enacted a provision that required a vote of Congress to declare war. They also vested Congress with the power to employ the militia for common purposes of internal and external security. But they dampened that authority by leaving the individual states with the responsibility to appoint militia officers and to supervise the peacetime training of the citizen-soldiers. 26

Ultimate control over the militia remained in the states. The Second Amendment to the Constitution, part of the “Bill of Rights” that the anti-Federalists insisted be added to the document, guaranteed the “right to keep and bear arms.” It was intended to prevent the Federal government from disarming the militia. 27

The nation’s first President, George Washington, a former militiaman himself, believed in a strong militia. President Washington and Secretary of War Henry Knox, the former chief of artillery in the Continental Army, urgently desired to establish national uniformity in organization and training to avoid the chaos experienced during the Revolution when militia forces had mobilized to support the Continentals. Washington and Knox hoped to divide the militia into two categories: young men who would be intensely trained (including summer camps) to serve as the mobilization forces, and older men who would remain in a lesser state of readiness to provide for local needs. 28

2.3.4 The Militia Act of 1792

Congress voted instead for a less ambitious program. The Militia Act of 1792, actually two pieces of legislations passed in May of that year, provided for two categories of militia, but in a less expensive and less centralized form. The vast majority of individuals would continue to serve in the common militia, just as they had in the past. A volunteer militia, similar to the Minutemen of 1775, would be called the actual ready reserve. The volunteer militia would consist of men willing to buy their own uniforms and equipment, and to undertake training without pay. These volunteer, or uniformed, units would form

25 Ibid.
27 Ibid.
the “flank” companies: riflemen, grenadier, light infantry, cavalry, and artillery. The 1792 Act established an idea of organizing these militia forces into standard divisions, brigades, regiments, battalions, and companies, but left compliance up to the individual states.29

The Militia Act of 1792 defined the position of the militia in relation to the Federal government for the 111 years that it was retained on the statute books. Modifications to the act in 1795 and 1808 allowed the President to mobilize the militia either by calling intact units or by calling for volunteers. The latter modification to the Act also provided Federal funds for the states in order to furnish weapons for those men too poor to buy their own.30

Unfortunately, the 1792 Act did not call for any inspection of a state’s militia by the Federal government, nor did it specify any penalties for noncompliance with the law. Some states, such as New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut and Pennsylvania, maintained a strong militia on their own initiative. Other states, unwilling to spend the necessary money, allowed their militia to fall into decline. In many areas of the country, the once-a-year muster of an untrained, un-uniformed militia company became a subject for ridicule. In other areas, the militia did not even muster at all.31

2.3.5 The War of 1812

In 1812, the United States again found itself at war with Britain. Sometimes called the “Second War of Independence,” the War of 1812 “…revealed glaring inadequacies in the military system and raised serious questions regarding the responsibilities the Federal government and the states shared for the common defense.” 32 The governors of Massachusetts and Connecticut refused President James Madison’s call for militia troops; Ohio and New York militia refused to cross into Canada, whose annexation into the United States (U.S.) was a prime part of U.S. war strategy; Regular Army and militia commanders argued over each other’s authority and blamed each other’s troops for the many U.S. defeats.33

Despite the U.S.’ many military failures, they enjoyed advantages of resources, lines of communication, and strategic initiative. But in 1814, the nature of the war changed. Napoleon’s defeat in Europe suddenly freed the battle-hardened veterans of the Duke of Wellington’s army for service in North America. A British invasion force was foiled in their attempted invasion into New York State, but in August 1814, they had greater success to the south, defeating a poorly-organized force of seamen, marines, regulars, and militia at Bladensburg, Maryland, marching into Washington, D.C., and burning most of the city’s public buildings, including the White House.34

Barely more than a village, the nation’s capitol had little strategic value. Much more significant was the port of Baltimore, where Major General Samuel Smith planned a defense of the city that included the Regulars at Fort McHenry, militia from the

29 Mahon, 53-54.
30 Ibid., 66.
31 Doubler, 88-90.
32 Ibid., 82.
33 Ibid., 83.
34 Mahon, 73.
surrounding communities, navy gunboats, and citizens, both slave and free, pressed into emergency service. “The Star Spangled Banner” commemorates the successful American defense of the city.  

2.3.6 The Battle of New Orleans

The newly-American city of New Orleans was also successfully defended – in a battle that took place after the signing of the treaty that ended the war. Grossly overestimating the pro-British sentiment in the former colony of France and Spain, Major General Sir Edward Pakenham and 5,300 hardened British Regulars sailed up the mouth of the Mississippi River in the fall of 1814. Major General Andrew Jackson, commissioned from the Tennessee militia into the Regular Army after a series of successful campaigns against southern Indian tribes, quickly cobbled together a motley force of “two regiments of Regulars, militiamen from Tennessee, Kentucky and Louisiana, aristocratic gentry and free Blacks from New Orleans, a band of Choctaw Indians, and pirates under Jean Lafitte.” When Pakenham ordered a frontal assault against Jackson’s line of earthworks and cotton bales, a withering barrage of artillery and small arms fire tore the British to pieces. Over 2,000 were killed, among them General Pakenham, against American losses of 8 killed and 13 wounded.

The War of 1812 tested the uniquely American defense establishment that had evolved since the end of the Revolution. The young Republic had a small Regular military, employed to protect the frontiers and coastlines. Although it often performed poorly against a better-trained British Army, this small force of Regulars, when backed up by a well-armed militia, accomplished its defensive mission in the War of 1812. American generals like Andrew Jackson at New Orleans and Samuel Smith at Baltimore proved that, just as in the Revolution, Regulars and militia could be effective when employed as a team.

2.4 THE RISE OF THE VOLUNTEER MILITIA

Six years after the end of the War of 1812, Congress was busy slashing the Regular Army’s budget. Most Americans – and most Congressmen – still regarded a standing army as a dangerous and expensive institution. Isolated from any European threat by the Atlantic Ocean, many felt that a strong militia could adequately defend the country. Some went so far as to call for the complete abolishment of the small Regular force.

2.4.1 The Neglected Militia

Unfortunately, the government paid not much more than lip service to the militia. Very little money or direction was given to the states by the War Department in Washington. The “enrolled” militia, consisting of the men between 18 and 45 who were legally obligated to serve, went into a decline from which it never recovered. In many states,
musters were held only once a year, and often degenerated into excuses for speeches by vote-seeking politicians and bouts of public drunkenness by many participants and spectators.\textsuperscript{42} By 1845, many states had rewritten their statute books to abolish compulsory militia service and with it their enrolled militia.\textsuperscript{43}

2.4.2 Volunteer Units

While the unorganized, or enrolled, militia was dying a slow death in most areas of the country, a different kind of militia organization was taking its place: the volunteers. Volunteer companies had existed in the eighteenth century, usually made up of a colony’s social, financial, and political elites.\textsuperscript{44} And of course, the Minutemen who fired the first shots of the Revolutionary War had been volunteers. But the first half of the nineteenth century saw an explosion in the growth of the volunteer militia.

The volunteers paid for their own uniforms, which were often quite elaborate, and for most of their equipment. After they were firmly established, the volunteer units could apply for a charter from the state, and their officers received commissions. As the enrolled militia declined, many states began to rely completely upon the volunteer units, and spent all of their limited Federal arms and equipment subsidy on them.\textsuperscript{45}

The volunteer militia was primarily an urban institution. Rural volunteers would have to travel long distances for meetings and, in any case, farmers and frontiersmen tended to have less leisure time for drills and less ready cash for uniforms and equipment. Instead, clerks and draftsmen from the cities and towns made up most of the volunteers. The officers, who were elected by the members of the unit, tended to be wealthier men such as lawyers or bankers. Many officers contributed money to equip poorer members of the unit.\textsuperscript{46}

2.4.3 Ethnic Volunteers

In the 1840s and 1850s an increasing number of emigrants began arriving from Europe. Most prominent among the groups who began arriving in large numbers during these decades were the Irish and the Germans. In the cities and towns in which they settled, Irish and German volunteer companies were formed, with names like the “Hibernian Guards” and the “German Brigade.” Louisiana had Creole units that conducted drill in French, and units filled with Scotsmen outfitted themselves in kilts.\textsuperscript{47}

2.4.4 War with Mexico

In 1845, Texas was admitted to the Union as the 28\textsuperscript{th} state. Before winning its independence in 1836, Texas had been a province of Mexico, and the Mexicans threatened war if the Republic of Texas was made part of the United States. The threat

\textsuperscript{42} Mahon, 81-82.
\textsuperscript{43} Doubler, 90.
\textsuperscript{44} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{45} Mahon, 84-85.
\textsuperscript{46} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{47} Ibid.
was ignored, and Regular U.S. troops were sent into territory claimed by both Texas and Mexico. The Mexicans retaliated, and war was declared in April 1846.\textsuperscript{48} Volunteers from the South and parts of the Midwest quickly swamped Major General Zachary Taylor and his small army on the border. \textsuperscript{49} A majority of Texas' Anglo settlers were from the South, and the war was popular there. For political reasons, it was less popular in the North, where the growing anti-slavery movement had objected to Texas' admission as a slave state. \textsuperscript{50} Despite the general unpopularity of the war in their region, however, many northern militia units answered President James K. Polk's call for volunteers. Militia volunteers would eventually make up some 70 percent of the U.S. force that invaded Mexico\textsuperscript{51}, in this first U.S. war to be fought completely on foreign soil.

Initially, volunteer units were given the choice of one-year or "duration of the war" enlistments. When seven volunteer regiments exercised their one-year option, General Winfield Scott was left deep in Mexican territory with an army of only 7,000, and had to wait months for more volunteers to arrive. Later volunteers had to enlist for the duration of the war.\textsuperscript{52}

Regular officers were upset when militia officers outranked them, and complained that the volunteer troops were sloppy and poorly disciplined. There were even incidents involving atrocities by militia troops against Mexican civilians.\textsuperscript{53} But, as the war progressed, fewer Regular officers complained that the volunteers couldn't or wouldn't fight. At Monterrey, volunteers from Tennessee and Mississippi, including West Point graduate Jefferson Davis' famous "Mississippi Rifles," stormed a crucial redoubt and turned the tide of the battle for the Americans. At Buena Vista, the outnumbered Americans might easily have been defeated were it not for the bravery of the volunteers and the skill of the Regular Army artillerymen.\textsuperscript{54}

Unable to defeat the U.S. forces in a major battle, the Mexicans sued for peace, and the war officially ended in February 1848. Mexico was forced to cede her northern provinces – now the states of New Mexico, Arizona, California, Nevada, and Utah – to the U.S..

Many saw the Mexican War as a vindication of the U.S. military tradition. West Point had trained many of the Regular officers, including junior officers such as Robert Edward Lee, Ulysses S. Grant, Thomas Jackson, and a long list of others who would command during the Civil War. The Regular officers provided military know-how and leadership; the militia provided the bulk of the fighting troops.\textsuperscript{55}

\section*{2.5 THE CIVIL WAR}

Sectional conflict between the agricultural South and the industrializing North had existed since the earliest days of the Republic. The South, made rich first by tobacco
and then by cotton, wanted to import manufactured goods from Europe cheaply; the North wanted high import taxes to protect its growing industries.

And, of course, there was the question of slavery. The South not only wanted to keep slavery in the “Old South,” they wanted to expand it to the western territories and new states coming into the Union. Most Northerners wanted, if not to end slavery, then to contain it and keep it out of the West.

The 1860 election of Abraham Lincoln, candidate of the newly-formed Republican Party, which stood firmly for “free labor,” brought matters to a head. South Carolina seceded from the Union in December 1860, even before Lincoln took office. Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas followed. Upper South states such as Virginia and North Carolina, with economies less dependent on slave labor, waited and hoped that the crisis would blow over. But when the newly-inaugurated President Lincoln sent gunboats to Charleston Harbor to reinforce Fort Sumter, whose commander had refused to surrender it to the Confederates, the Southerners fired on them.

2.5.1 The Militia Volunteers

President Lincoln referred to the Militia Act of 1792 and, under its “suppress insurrections” provision, called for 75,000 militia to serve for the 90-day limit that the law allowed. The tiny Regular army (15,529 men and 1,108 officers – about a third of who would resign to join the Confederacy56) was not large enough for the job even if it had been stationed around the city, which it was not. But 38 companies of pro-Union District of Columbia militia were available, and within days six companies from Pennsylvania and the 6th Regiment, Massachusetts Volunteer Militia (which had to fight its way through a pro-Confederate mob when the troops changed trains in Baltimore) arrived for the defense of the Federal city.57

In the South, volunteer militia were the “…primary agents of State governments in seizing control of federal forts, arsenals, customs houses, and mints.” 58 Both militias, and the tiny Regular forces which they supplemented, met at the war’s first major engagement at Bull Run in Virginia, fought in July 1861 because the 90-day term of service for Lincoln’s federalized militia, most of whom had been sworn into Federal service in April, was about to expire.

2.5.2 Raising the Union and Confederate Armies

The war’s first battle demonstrated to both sides that the conflict would be protracted. The first 90-day militia call-up had shown that manpower needs required a longer-term solution, and both sides would revert to conscription in 1862. On both sides, the Civil War draft was based on the legal obligation to serve in the militia, with quotas from each state; on both sides, the draft laws also were riddled with unfairness. In the South, those who owned more than 20 slaves were exempt, as were overseers of more than 20 slaves. In the North, $300 (several years’ salary for a common laborer) would purchase a substitute.59 Enlisting in the state militia or “Home Guard” was also a draft exemption,  

56 Mahon, 97.
57 Doubler, 101.
58 Ibid.
59 Weigley, History of the United States Army, 205-209.
although many militia units were called for state service, particularly in the South (and during Lee’s Gettysburg campaign in the North), when enemy armies invaded.

While both sides drafted men for service, volunteer enlistments were preferred, and states offered cash bounties for men who enlisted voluntarily. In the North, before conscription was enacted, Lincoln called for 500,000 three-year volunteers. Many of the militia units whose 90-day tours of duty had ended went back home and volunteered for these new “three-year” regiments. Thus the history and military lineage of the pre-war militia units passed to the newly-formed volunteer regiments, thereby confusing generations of historians who have written that “the militia played little part in the Civil War.” On the contrary, units of today’s National Guard carry among them thousands of Civil War battle honors, and the Army National Guard in the southern states is the only component of the Army to carry battle honors for Confederate service.

2.5.3 Famous Units from the Militia

Many of the Civil War’s most famous units were originally militia who had volunteered for three years service. In the Union Army of the Potomac, these units included the 2d Wisconsin, part of the famous “Iron Brigade” that had the highest percentage of total losses in the Union Army, with almost 20 percent killed in the course of the war. Also included were the 20th Maine, which saved the high ground for the Union on Gettysburg’s second day; and the 1st Minnesota, which on the second day of Gettysburg charged to save the Union line. This latter unit suffered 215 casualties out of 262 members, “…the highest regimental loss in any battle, in proportion to the number engaged, in modern history.” All of these units still exist in today’s Army National Guard.

On the Confederate side, New Orleans’ Washington Artillery was “…the most famous of the Confederate volunteer artillery organizations…It particularly distinguished itself in the defense of Marye’s Heights during the Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville campaigns.” Stonewall Jackson’s original command, made up of militia companies from all over Virginia’s Shenandoah Valley, was ever after known as the “Stonewall Brigade.” It, too, still exists as a regiment in the Virginia National Guard, and is as famous for its World War II service as for the Civil War. Eighty-three years after its formation, as the 116th Infantry Regiment, 29th Infantry Division, Jackson’s old command was the assault regiment at Omaha Beach on D-Day, June 6, 1944.

2.6 RECONSTRUCTION AND THE REVIVAL OF THE MILITIA

When the bloodiest war in U.S. history was over, the defeated Confederates stacked their arms and started for home. The former militia members in the Union Army, except those who intended to make the Army their career, were eager to do the same. The Union

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60 Doubler, 103.
62 Ibid., 502 and 553.
63 Historical files (Force structure), National Guard Bureau, Office of Public Affairs.
64 Boatner, , 893.
65 Historical Files (116th Infantry), National Guard Bureau, Office of Public Affairs.
Army shrank from 1,000,516 officers and men in May 1865, to 199,553 several months later.\textsuperscript{66}

After long years of war, most of these Union veterans wanted nothing more than a complete return to civilian life. And the communities to which the veterans returned had had their fill of flags, parades, speeches, and recruiters. Thus, there was no rush to revive the pre-war volunteer militia units from which so much of the Union Army was formed.

In the former Confederacy, the situation was different. The southern militia units were quickly reformed; one of their main duties was to enforce the “Black Codes” that the reorganized state governments had passed to assure the legal inferiority of former slaves. The “Radical” Republicans, who dominated the House and Senate after Lincoln’s death, were determined to change the situation in the conquered South. Many Radicals were abolitionists, committed to full equality for blacks. Others cared little about the former slaves, but wanted the South to suffer to firing the first shots of the war.\textsuperscript{67}

2.6.1 Black Militia in the South

The Radicals triumphed politically. They came within one vote of impeaching President Andrew Johnson and, after Ulysses S. Grant’s election in 1868, they embarked on a program to “reconstruct” the South. The Radical Congress suspended the southern states’ right to organize their militias; militia rights were returned only when a state was firmly under the control of an acceptable Radical Republican government.\textsuperscript{68}

The militia units formed under these governments included many former slaves, to the horror of most southerners. In response, ex-Confederates organized vigilante groups (the ancestors of the Ku Klux Klan) to terrorize both black and white sympathizers of Reconstruction\textsuperscript{69}; some of these vigilante groups were almost identical in membership to pre-war Southern militia units.\textsuperscript{70}

The sporadic violence that often resulted did not abate until 1876, when Reconstruction officially ended. The Republican militia units in the South were promptly disbanded, although black units were allowed to survive in the Alabama, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia militias. In the North, Connecticut, Illinois, Kansas, Ohio, and the District of Columbia also had black militia units.\textsuperscript{71} Despite the difficulties of serving in a segregated Army, some of these black units would go on to earn impressive combat records.

With Reconstruction lifted, the South’s pre-war volunteer militia was free to reorganize. Interest in the volunteer militia was also rising in the North, especially in the tradition-rich states of the New England and mid-Atlantic regions. Many Army veterans grew nostalgic for camp life and camaraderie, and men who had been too young for the Civil War enjoyed the days-long militia encampments, which frequently became social occasions for entire towns or counties.

\textsuperscript{66} Weigley, \textit{History of the United States Army}, 598
\textsuperscript{67} Hill, 102-103.
\textsuperscript{68} Ibid., 106-107.
\textsuperscript{69} Ibid., 107-108.
\textsuperscript{70} See Mark Boatner’s \textit{Civil War Dictionary}, pg 893, for the Washington Artillery’s post-war career.
2.6.2 Strike-Breaking in the North

In many northern and western states, the post-war militia found itself with a new, if quasi-military, mission: keeping order during the strikes and labor unrest that accompanied the nation's rapid industrialization. The Regular Army might be called to quell large disturbances, but usually the burden fell on the militia. Many men did not like the duty and, if they sympathized with the strikers, whole units sometimes refused orders to move on them or to fire. 72

Historians still debate this period of the National Guard's history. Some claim that the militia during these years became the private police force of "Big Business." Others blame the strikers' troubles on their leaders and organizers, who tended to be too politically and socially radical for the times. 73

The presence of strikes and labor unrest did cause the state governments to reexamine their need for a well-equipped and trained militia. Between 1881 and 1892, every state revised its military code to provide for an organized force. 74

2.6.3 The Evolution of the Armory

The physical embodiment of the volunteer militia's importance as an institution during this period is the large, imposing National Guard armory, which began to dot the towns and cities of the urbanized, industrializing Northeast and Midwest during the last quarter of the nineteenth century. The colonial militia had drilled on village greens and open fields. During the rise of the volunteer militia in the first half of the nineteenth century, "...common sites for 'armories' were stables, fraternal halls, or the upper floors of commercial buildings." 75 If purpose-built 'armories' were constructed, it was not with defensibility in mind. 76

In the last quarter of the nineteenth century this changed, as the heavily-fortified, castle-like armory became a distinct architectural form. The movement began with the completion in 1879 of the prototype (and perhaps most spectacular example), commissioned and in part paid for by the members of the 7th New York, a "silk stocking" regiment for New York City's wealthy and socially prominent. This regiment never forgot their front-line duty in the New York Draft Riots of 1863, the bloodiest domestic disturbance in U.S. history. 77

The enormous building was designed to be an urban fortress – albeit one with luxurious interiors by Stanford White and Louis Comfort Tiffany – and it set off a scramble by always-competitive militia units in other towns, cities, and states to build their own fortresses. Historian Robert Fogelson has pointed out that fears of class warfare after

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73 Hill, 128-129.
74 Mahon, 110-124
76 Ibid.
the violent railroad strikes of 1877 made public officials, wealthy individuals, and corporations highly susceptible to appeals for the new, modern armory for their local militia units.\textsuperscript{78}

The style that became known as “castellated Gothic” quickly became the favorite, particularly in the Northeast, where states and municipalities had the money to erect them.\textsuperscript{79} Between 1891 and 1910, for example, the state of New York spent some $20 million for armory construction, an enormous sum at the time.\textsuperscript{80}

2.7 THE SPANISH – AMERICAN WAR

On February 15, 1898, the U.S. battleship \textit{Maine} blew up in the harbor of Havana, Cuba. Cuba, along with Puerto Rico and the Philippine Islands in the Pacific, was part of the decaying colonial empire of Spain. Three hundred years before, Spain had been the richest and most powerful nation in Europe. At the dawn of the new century, she stood in stark contrast to the young U.S., just beginning to flex its muscles as a world power.

After the U.S. declared war on Spain, there was such a ‘rush to the colors’ that thousands of men had to be turned away from the recruiting centers. When it was decided that the President did not have the legal right to federalize the militia for service abroad, National Guard units had to volunteer as individuals. But unit integrity was maintained; units were sworn in as individuals (often taking the oath en masse), and then kept their previous structure by reelecting their officers and NCOs. A total of 164,932 Guardsmen from every state entered Federal service in this way.\textsuperscript{81}

2.7.1 Logistical Problems

The Spanish-American War was a logistical nightmare. Volunteers were collected together in hastily-built tent cities, but the Regular Army was too small to have any apparatus for training, arming, feeding, or clothing them. Medical supplies were lacking, which became a critical problem when disease broke out in the unsanitary camps. Wool uniforms were issued for wear in the tropics, and the Guardsmen were issued single-shot, black-powder Springfield rifles that betrayed the firer’s position with every puff of smoke. When the troops bound for Cuba reached their embarkation point at Tampa, Florida, there were not enough ships to carry them all to Cuba.\textsuperscript{82}

2.7.2 Victories in the Caribbean

Initial expeditionary forces of approximately 17,000 men each eventually reached Cuba and Puerto Rico. The best-publicized unit in either force was a volunteer unit partly recruited from Texas and New Mexico Guardsmen, the First U.S. Volunteer Cavalry, better know as the ‘Rough Riders.’ Led by Lieutenant Colonel (and later President) Theodore Roosevelt, a former New York National Guard officer, the Rough Riders made

\textsuperscript{78} Ibid, 55, 64.  
\textsuperscript{79} Everett, 7-8.  
\textsuperscript{81} Weigley, \textit{History of the United States Army}, 296.  
\textsuperscript{82} Ibid., 300-301.
their famous charge (up Kettle Hill, not San Juan Hill) on foot, because there was not enough room in the transports to ship their horses to Cuba.83

The Spanish defenders put up a spirited defense, but the U.S. victory in these campaigns was never in doubt. Disease took a far greater toll than Spanish bullets or artillery; malaria, yellow fever, and typhoid (the biggest killer) were epidemic.84

2.7.3 Guerilla War in the Philippines

Although not widely perceived by the U.S. public in 1898, the real importance of the Spanish-American War was in launching the U.S. as a colonial power in the Far East. Admiral George Dewey and his fleet defeated the Spanish navy in the Battle of Manila Bay without a single U.S. casualty, and a land force was quickly assembled in San Francisco to follow up on Dewey’s victory.

The National Guard played a tremendous role in taking and holding the Philippine Islands. Most of the 25,000-man Regular Army was in the Caribbean, so three-quarters of the initial 5,000-man expeditionary force in the Phillipines was made up of National Guard units, mainly from the Midwest.85

These Guardsmen found themselves in a kind of combat no American army had ever experienced, or been trained for. The Spanish surrendered Manila after only a token show of resistance.86 But that was only the beginning; next came a guerilla war, fought in the jungle and savannah, against an ideologically-committed enemy.

The ideologically-committed enemy was Filipino freedom-fighters, bitterly disappointed that the U.S., after taking the Philippines from the Spanish, annexed the islands instead of granting them independence. In February 1899, the Filipino insurgents attacked the U.S. lines around Manila. After securing the city against further attack, the U.S. troops began operations to defeat the rebels in the countryside, their natural base of operations.87

The insurgents were a formidable enemy. They were organized (they had been fighting the Spanish just as the Cubans had); they knew the terrain and were used to the tropical climate; and their leaders were Westernized and well-educated. But when the rank-and-file Insurrectos ambushed U.S. troops in the jungle, they used the traditional bolo, a large machete which could literally cut a man to pieces.88

The U.S. first had to take and hold the larger Filipino towns and villages. From these not-always-secure bases, U.S. forces then fanned out in search of the enemy. The guerrillas were elusive, and, just as in Vietnam 60-odd years later, it was often difficult to separate the Insurrectos from peaceful villagers. One veteran from the 1st South Dakota Volunteer

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83 Hill, 167.
84 Weigley, History of the United States Army, 304.
85 Mahon, 131.
86 Doubler, 134.
87 Ibid.
88 Mahon, 132.
Infantry recalled, "...the natives would just take off their uniforms and put on ordinary white peasant clothes...you never knew when one would start shooting from behind."\(^89\)

The U.S. troops coped with this unfamiliar type of warfare but, just as in the Caribbean campaigns, disease was the most lethal enemy. By the end of the first year in the Philippines, National Guard units were decimated by various illnesses. Typhoid fever alone killed 1,900 the first year.\(^90\)

### 2.7.4 The Regulars Take Over

As the months of fighting dragged on, cries were heard back in the various states to bring their Guard units home. The troops seconded the emotion; after all, they had enlisted to avenge the *Maine*, not to conduct search-and-destroy missions in Philippine jungles. The Army hierarchy realized that the insurrection was liable to drag on for years, and was more properly a task for regulars. But the Army received authority to recruit from among soon-to-be-demobilized Guard units, and two regiments of infantry and one of cavalry were raised from Guardsmen who found life in the tropics exciting.\(^91\)

Despite the difficulties in fighting in a strange environment, the 13,000 Guardsmen who served in the Philippines acquitted themselves well. National Guard units had borne the brunt of the first year’s fighting. Some units spent four months in the line – a long time in jungle warfare.\(^92\) Perhaps more than any other major campaign in U.S. history, the success of the first year’s fighting in the Philippines belongs to the National Guard.

## 2.8 REFORM AND THE BEGINNINGS OF FREEDOM

The Spanish-American War demonstrated that if the U.S. was to be successful in its new role as an international power, its military forces were in need of serious reform. After numerous Congressional hearings on the inefficiencies and supply scandals that mobilization and combat had revealed, President McKinley appointed Elihu Root, a corporate lawyer with no military experience, as Secretary of War. Root’s mission was to modernize the Army, a task at which he succeeded.\(^93\)

Some internationalist, expansion-minded Americans would have liked to see a much larger Regular Army grow out of Root’s reforms. Not surprisingly, most of the Regular Army officers fell in this category. But Root and the more realistic reformers realized that, in addition to Americans’ traditional fears of a large standing Army, no money for a much larger Army would be forthcoming from Congress. Secretary Root knew that the country would have to rely, as it always had, on its citizen-soldier reserves.\(^94\)

But what kind of reserves? The Regular Army had long sought a ‘national reserve’ of individuals, without ties to any state and firmly under the Army’s control. They looked down on the militia, and it is important to understand why.

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\(^{90}\) Mahon, 132.

\(^{91}\) Weigley, *History of the United States Army*, 308.

\(^{92}\) Cropp, 103.


\(^{94}\) Ibid., 320.
2.8.1 “The Old Army”

The U.S. Army of 1903 was a small, tightly-knit institution. The U.S. Military Academy produced the overwhelming majority of its officers, with many young men following their fathers and grandfathers to West Point. Only a very small number of officers were commissioned from the ranks or from other military academies. The Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC) did not yet exist, so there was practically no mechanism for bringing ‘new blood’ into the Army.

Thus, because there were very few examples to the contrary, most Army officers of 1903 believed that only years of training could produce a good soldier. The Regulars scorned both National Guard officers and men as ‘amateurs,’ and they were deeply distrustful of the Guard’s state ties. Their plan for the nation’s military reserves would remove those state ties and create a Federal reserve force under Army control.

Since its founding some 30 years before, the National Guard Association, which had been formed to increase the Guard’s military professionalism and further its interests, had bitterly fought such a plan. Now, friends of the militia and states-rights advocates in Congress joined the battle.

2.8.2 The Dick Act

The Guard prevailed. The Act that was signed into law in January 1903 – replacing the 1792 Militia Act that had stood for 111 years – reaffirmed the National Guard as the Army’s primary organized reserve. Known as the Dick Act for the Congressman and National Guard general from Ohio who sponsored it, the 1903 law opened the way for increased Federal control over the Guard.  

If a state wanted part of the increased Federal funds that the Dick Act made available, units in that state were, for the first time, subject to inspection by Regular Army officers, and held to specified unit strengths. The Dick Act required Guardsmen to attend 24 drills per year and five days of annual training. For the first time, there was Federal pay for annual training, although not for drills.

The 1903 Act also required that the state militias change their name to “National Guard.” That term had first been adopted by a New York City militia unit that had served as an escort to the Revolutionary War hero, the Marquis de Lafayette, on his last visit to the United States in 1824. Lafayette had commanded the Paris militia, the “Garde Nationale,” during the early stages of the French Revolution. In 1862 the state of New York officially named its militia the “National Guard,” and in the years following the Civil War many Northeastern and Midwestern states followed suit. The term did not catch on everywhere however, with many Southern states, and the U.S. Regular Army, preferring the term “militia.”

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95 Hill, passim.
97 Doubler, 143.
98 Doubler, 144.
99 Hill, 188.
100 Doubler, 95, 122.
The Militia Act of 1908 (note use of term “militia”) increased appropriations to $4 million, and lifted the previous restriction of nine months active duty in case of national emergency. The President now had the power to call the Guard into service for any specified length of time. But in 1912, the Attorney General nullified this provision of the 1908 act by ruling that the President could not employ the militia outside of the U.S. – a severe constraint on its new role as a Reserve force for the Army.\(^{101}\)

The 1908 Act also called for the creation of a Division of Militia Affairs within the War Department, the ancestor of today’s National Guard Bureau. Militia affairs had previously been scattered among many different offices. The Chief of the Division and all his staff were Regular Army officers.\(^{102}\)

### 2.9 THE NATIONAL DEFENSE ACT OF 1916

When World War I began in Europe in August 1914, few thought that the war would drag on for years, or that the United States would ever be involved. But by 1915, the conflict had stalemated into bloody trench warfare, and some Americans were beginning to talk about ‘preparedness.’\(^{103}\) Once again, the structure of the nation’s military forces became a political topic. Revolution and political unrest in Mexico added fuel to the discussion; troops had been sent to Veracruz in 1914 to protect U.S. life and property\(^{104}\), and soon there would be more trouble from south of the border.

The Army’s Chief of Staff, Major General Leonard Wood, and Secretary of War Lindley Garrison mounted another attack on the country’s traditional militia system. Wood, Garrison, and the entire General Staff (including the Chief of the Militia Division) argued before Congress that the militia, a collection of compartmentalized state forces, was by its very nature impossible to organize or to mobilize. Garrison and Wood had plans for a national individual reserve that they called the ‘Continental Army.’ The Continental Army, however, was flatly rejected by anti-militarists, states-righters, fiscal conservatives, and friends of the National Guard in Congress.\(^{105}\)

The National Defense Act of 1916, the legislation that emerged from this debate, was one of the most important pieces of military legislation in U.S. history. In addition to the genesis of the Army and Naval Reserves, and the Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC), the Act guaranteed the state militias’ status as the Army’s primary reserve force, and it mandated the term ‘National Guard’ for that force.\(^{106}\)

But some autonomy had to be surrendered in order to get this recognition. The National Defense Act prescribed that qualifications for National Guard officers would be determined by the War Department, that each unit would have to be federally recognized, and that units would be organized in accordance with Army organizational models. Dozens of provisions specified fiscal and enlistment procedures, strength

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\(^{101}\) Ibid., 203-204.  
\(^{102}\) Doubler, 151.  
\(^{104}\) Ibid., 347.  
\(^{105}\) Derthick, 40-41.  
requirements, and school training requirements. The President was given the authority, in case of war or national emergency, to mobilize the National Guard for the duration of the emergency. The number of yearly drills increased from 24 to 48, and annual training from five to 15 days. Weekly drill pay was authorized for the first time, something for which the National Guard Association had long been lobbying.  

2.10 TROUBLE ON THE MEXICAN BORDER

Passage of the 1916 Act was spurred by events on the Mexican border. In March of that year, Pancho Villa, the Mexican bandit/politician, raided the town of Columbus, New Mexico. Seventeen U.S. citizens, including nine soldiers, were killed, and scores were wounded. General John J. Pershing quickly mounted a punitive expedition to chase Villa deep into Mexico.

The Mexican government, always distrustful of its neighbor, responded by moving its troops toward the U.S. border. Pershing’s expedition had denuded the Southwest U.S. of troops, and there was panic in the border states. The National Guards of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona were called up, comprising a force that soon totaled over 5,000. President Woodrow Wilson quickly decided that there was enough threat of hostilities to warrant calling up the entire National Guard.

Coming just 15 days after passage of the new National Defense Act, the call-up naturally created confusion. Many states were not sure what types of forces they were supposed to field, and did not have copies of the organizational tables under which those forces were now supposed to be organized.

The National Guard of 1916 was hardly a ‘balanced’ force. Units were overwhelmingly infantry because the Federal government had never provided the money or the equipment required for signal, engineer, or other combat arms units. The cavalry and artillery units that did exist had always furnished their own horses, but felt that while in Federal service, their horses should be supplied by the Army. Some of these units spent months in northern camps waiting for horses and other equipment, which in some cases never arrived.

A total of 158,664 Guardsmen eventually reported for active duty. There were not enough trains to transport even a small percentage of them to the Southwest immediately, but by July 31, 112,000 Guardsmen were in place along the border. None ever crossed into Mexico or fired a shot in anger.

2.11 THE NATIONAL GUARD IN WORLD WAR I

But the Guard was soon to put its active-duty time on the Mexican border to good use. In April 1917, the U.S. declared war on Germany. President Wilson, as his 1916 re-election campaign slogan pointed out, had “kept us out of war” for almost three years. But

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107 Weigley, History of the United States Army, 344.
108 Mahon, 151.
109 Hill, 234.
110 Ibid.
111 Weigley, History of the United States Army, 350.
Germany’s policy of unrestricted submarine warfare, designed to deny Britain re-supply by sea, was sinking U.S. ships. Wilson felt he had no choice but to ask Congress for a declaration of war.

Some Guard units were still serving on the Mexican border when war was declared, and the War Department began calling units back into Federal service. A draft law was passed in May 1917, its framers very careful to avoid the inequities of the Civil War draft. The draft of 1917 did not permit buying of substitutes nor paying of bounties for enlistment.

After some confusion over the co-existence of volunteering while a draft was in effect, the Guard was ordered to recruit to full strength. “Join up and go with the hometown boys” cried the recruiters, and thousands did.

2.11.1 Wartime Reorganizations

In the summer of 1917 the War Department created a new ‘National Army’ of Regulars, draftees, volunteers, and Guardsmen. For the Guard, it meant unprecedented change on a massive scale. The Guard regiments’ traditional state militia designations (i.e., 1st Minnesota, 20th Maine, 69th New York) were replaced by an Army-wide numbering system that gave the Regular Army regiments numbers below 100, the Guard the 100-200 series, and the draftee regiments the higher numbers.

For many Guardsmen whose unit’s old state designation was often carved literally in stone over the armory’s front door, this was a shock. But in the summer of 1917 there were more shocks ahead. General John “Black Jack” Pershing, who would command U.S. forces in Europe, wanted large, self-sustaining U.S. divisions to fight on the Western Front. So in August, 1917 almost the entire U.S. Army, including all of its’ National Guard component, was organized into divisions.

The National Guard units of large and densely-populated states like Pennsylvania, Illinois, and California formed single divisions, while the units from smaller, less populated states combined into regional divisions. As with regiments, Regular Army divisions received the lowest numbers for their designations; Guard divisions were to be numbered 26-75 (although that many Guard divisions were never organized); and the divisions to be made up of draftees and volunteers would be numbered 76 and above. The same basic system is still in use in the Army today.

Its formation into divisions created havoc in the National Guard. Some artillery and infantry regiments went directly into the new divisions, but others were broken up into pieces to form the support elements that made up the ‘division trains,’ the trucks and horse-drawn wagons that carried all of the division’s non-combat support personnel and equipment. Infantry units were redesignated as Engineer or Signal Corps units;

112 Hill, 261.
113 Weigley, History of the United States Army, 357.
114 Hill, 254-255.
115 Ibid.
116 Ibid., 266.
Guardsmen had little time to master new skills before being replaced by Regular Army officers.117

2.11.2 Backbone of the American Expeditionary Force

After three years of watching from the sidelines, Americans were eager to get into the fight. No sooner had the National Guard been federalized than politicians began lobbying the War Department to get their states' soldiers on the first ships to Europe. Major Douglas MacArthur, a young staff officer, suggested that a new National Guard division be created from the units left over in the conversion to the new square division. The units would be from a ‘rainbow’ of different states, and would forestall sectional jealousies by being the first Guard division shipped overseas. President Wilson liked the idea, and Major MacArthur was promoted and made Chief of Staff of the 42nd Rainbow Division.118 Two of its regiments, the 165th (before the renumbering, the ‘Fighting 69th’ from New York City) and the 167th (originally the 4th Alabama), had fought each other at Gettysburg,119 and the division’s first weeks of training were a study in sociological contrasts.

The Rainbow Division was indeed one of the first U.S. divisions to reach France, but many other Guard divisions quickly followed. In contrast to the draftee divisions, which had to be organized from scratch and filled with untrained personnel, the Regular Army and National Guard divisions were at a higher state of readiness, and so were the first to ship out and the first into combat.120

The size of the Army in World War I reached 2,395,742 members, with 379,071 mobilized Guardsmen making up some 15 percent of the total. That figure, however, does not accurately portray the Guard’s enormous role in the actual fighting. At its height the American Expeditionary Force fielded 43 divisions in Europe. Seventeen of them, or almost 40 percent, were National Guard divisions, and 4 out of the 8 highest-casualty divisions were from the National Guard.121 In no other major conflict, before or since, has the National Guard accounted for such a large percentage of the U.S. Army’s combat formations.

2.12 THE YEARS BETWEEN THE WARS

As was the case with the Spanish-American War, the end of World War I brought a debate on the future of the Army and the reserve components. Despite the distinguished war record of many National Guard divisions, the Guard’s future was not assured. The Regular Army remained unhappy with the Guard’s state ties, and some distinguished Guardsmen were forced to agree that a 48-state force could be unwieldy.122
These and many other opinions were voiced in Congressional hearings during 1920, but the resulting National Defense Act was another legislative victory for the Guard and its supporters. For the first time, the Chief of the Militia Bureau would be a National Guard officer\textsuperscript{123}; National Guard officers would be assigned to the General Staff; and the Guard’s World War I divisions would be retained and reorganized.\textsuperscript{124}

Thirteen years later, an addition to this Act further clarified the Guard’s status. A Congressional Act of 1933 created a new Army component, the National Guard of the United States. This new component, while identical in personnel and organization to the National Guards of the several states, was a part of the Army at all times and, as such, could be ordered into active Federal service by the President whenever Congress declared a national emergency.\textsuperscript{125} Thus, it now became possible for the National Guard to be given a Federal mission without having to wait for a ‘call’ to be issued through the various state governors.

\subsection*{2.12.1 The Beginnings of the Air National Guard}

The years between the world wars were, for the most part, quiet ones for the Army and for the Guard. In 1920, the U.S. had declined to join the League of Nations, despite the fact that it was a U.S. president, Woodrow Wilson, who had conceived the idea. U.S. entry into the First World War had been marketed to the American public as “the war to end all wars” and the war to “make the world safe for democracy.” The war having been concluded on the Allies terms, it was easy for “isolationist,” anti-Wilsonian politicians to convince a majority of voters that we had done our bit for the Europeans, and now it was time to revert to a traditional “no foreign entanglements” policy. So the country withdrew behind its oceans, and thus saw little need to spend money on its armed forces. Nonetheless, this period saw developments that would be important in the National Guard’s future, and one of the most important was the growth of the aviation arm of the National Guard.

National Guard aviation actually predates World War I, when a few states had ‘aeroplanes,’ but only two units, the 1\textsuperscript{st} and 2\textsuperscript{nd} Aero Companies of New York, were federally recognized.\textsuperscript{126} But with many former military pilots and crewmen released from the Army after the Armistice, the Militia Bureau was determined to make use of their skills. Post-war organizational tables called for each Army division to have an “observation squadron” whose primary mission, as the name implies, would be reconnaissance.\textsuperscript{127} The Guard was eager to form theirs.

By 1930, there were 18 observation squadrons in the Guard, 15 of them attached to divisions.\textsuperscript{128} But in the 1930s this rate of growth slowed dramatically, as the Depression gripped the country.

\subsection*{2.12.2 The WPA Armories}

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\textsuperscript{123} Hill, 306
\textsuperscript{124} Hill, 311-312.
\textsuperscript{125} Mahon, 175.
\textsuperscript{126} Francillon, Rene, \textit{The Air Guard}. Motorbooks International, Osceola, WI, 15-16.
\textsuperscript{127} Ibid., 16.
\textsuperscript{128} Ibid., 19.
\end{flushleft}
During the 1930s, the Guard had no trouble keeping its units filled – the $1 per drill that a private earned each week went a long way during the Great Depression. And when Franklin Roosevelt, elected in 1932, instituted the “New Deal” economic programs to put some of the nation’s millions of unemployed to work, the Guard was a direct beneficiary. For the first time, the Federal government would help pay for armories and other Guard facilities.

In 1934 there were 866 National Guard armories in the U.S.; by 1942, the Works Progress Administration (WPA) and the Public Works Administration (PWA) had remodeled more than 500 of these, and built 400 new armories. “Largest were the PWA-built armories, for these projects were intended to be cash-charged, and the buildings were to be professionally designed and constructed by skilled laborers. Smallest were the WPA armories, intended to be built by unskilled labor and local architects, who were quite often Guard officers.” 129

The first wave of armory construction had begun in 1880 and ended with the U.S. entry into World War I; these armories were largely concentrated in the wealthier states of the urbanized and industrialized Northeast and Midwest, who could afford to construct them with state, municipal, and even private funding. The New Deal armories, on the other hand, tended to be clustered in the poorer states of the South, the West, and the rural Great Plains. 130

Most of the New Deal armories were built by the WPA, usually on land donated by the state or municipality. Communities were required to supply cash or materials for construction, and to guarantee that 90 percent of the workforce be unemployed and on relief. 131 Some of these armories were still under construction when the Guard began mobilizing in 1940. The last of the New Deal armories were completed in 1942, months after the U.S. had entered World War II and, in some cases, more than a year after their tenant units had departed for active duty. 132

2.13 MOBILIZATION FOR WORLD WAR II

2.13.1 “Goodbye Dear, I’ll be Back in a Year”

By the summer of 1940, Europe was once more engulfed in war. Sixty German divisions invaded Poland in September 1939, and eleven months later, most of Europe had fallen to the Nazis. Only a miracle of luck allowed the British Army to escape from the French port of Dunkirk and, in August 1940, Hitler turned his Luftwaffe bombers on Britain herself.

It was in this tense atmosphere, with Britain alone among the major powers holding out against Germany, that President Franklin Roosevelt mobilized the National Guard for the stated purpose of one year of training. Despite the objections of the isolationist ‘America Firsters,’ the Guard’s mobilization was accompanied by the nation’s first peacetime draft.

129 Everett, 33.
130 Everett, 35.
131 Everett, 34.
132 Historical files (Installations Division, “Facility Inventory and Stationing Plan,” 1991), National Guard Bureau, Office of Public Affairs.
Some War Department planners actually felt that with a draft in place, the mobilization of the Guard was not necessary, but President Roosevelt insisted that a peacetime draft was hardly fair unless the reserve components were called up.\textsuperscript{133} Chief of Staff George Marshall testified before Congress that unless the Guard was mobilized, the Army would have to organize from scratch the units that the hundreds of thousand of draftees would fill.\textsuperscript{134}

Between September 1940 and October 1941, over 300,000 Guardsmen in 18 divisions, 28 separate regiments, and 29 observation squadrons were inducted into Federal service.\textsuperscript{135} Since no Guard unit was up to full strength, the ranks were filled up with recent recruits and draftees. It was the job of experienced Guard officers and NCOS to train them – if they themselves were not sent off for training at various Army schools.

2.13.2 Reorganizations

As in previous mobilizations, the force structure of the National Guard underwent many changes after induction. The rapid advance of German tanks across Europe sent U.S. strategic planners into a rush to create more tank, anti-tank, and artillery units. Tank companies were withdrawn from their divisions and hastily formed into separate tank battalions. Despite the obvious lessons of World War I, four divisions of horse cavalry had been organized in the 1920s; they were disbanded, and their elements converted and reorganized. Because of the possibility of invasion, some units were reorganized into anti-aircraft or coast/harbor defense units.\textsuperscript{136}

The Guard’s mobilization and the draft had originally been for only one year, but in June 1941, General Marshall asked Congress to extend the commitment of the ‘one-year men’ by 18 months. The ‘Lend-Lease’ program to help Britain had begun, but isolationist and anti-war sentiment was still very strong. In September 1941, the bill to extend the draft and the mobilization of the National Guard passed the House of Representatives by just one vote.\textsuperscript{137}

2.14 THE BIG WAR

The war in Europe was responsible for the Guard’s mobilization and the draft, but it was the Japanese who brought the U.S. into World War II. In December 1941, the Japanese struck not only the U.S.’s Pacific possessions, but also those of the European powers. By March 1942, most of Southeast Asia and the Pacific Islands were in Japanese hands.

The spring of 1942 found U.S. forces in the Philippines continuing to hold out against the Japanese. Two National Guard tank battalions, newly created from the tank companies of several mobilized divisions, and New Mexico’s 200\textsuperscript{th} Coast Artillery, sent to the islands in the autumn of 1941, were among the defenders. Without reinforcements and close to starvation, the U.S. forces on the Bataan Peninsula were finally forced to surrender in

\textsuperscript{133} Weigley, \textit{History of the United States Army}, 427
\textsuperscript{134} Hill, 368.
\textsuperscript{135} Annual Report, Fiscal Year 1941, Chief, National Guard Bureau.
\textsuperscript{136} Mahon, 181.
\textsuperscript{137} Weigley, 434.
April. Less than a month later, the Japanese raised their flag over Corregidor, the last American stronghold. For the captured Americans, the Bataan Death March and three and a half terrible years as prisoners of the Japanese were to follow.

2.14.1 Triangularization

As U.S. factories began churning out military hardware, the Army began churning out new generals. Combat is a young man’s game and, as soon as war came, both Guard and Regular Army division commanders found themselves relieved and reassigned to make way for younger men. The fact that most of these new commanders were Regulars rankled many Guardsmen. Only two Guard divisions, the 31st and 37th, were taken into combat by their Guard commanders.

In the late 1930s, the Regular Army had begun ‘triangularizing’ its four-regiment square divisions in order to create a smaller and more maneuverable three-regiment force. After Pearl Harbor, there was a rush to triangularize the Guard divisions as well. Each division lost many units and about 8,000 men. Some of these detached units were reassigned to divisions far from their home states, or to Regular Army divisions. Some remained non-divisional ‘orphans’ for the duration of the war.

All 18 National Guard divisions fought in World War II, and they were exactly divided between the European and Pacific theaters. The first division to deploy overseas was a Guard division and, of the first five Army divisions to enter offensive combat, four were National Guard.

These first-deploying Guard divisions retained their personnel and their regional identities. The later-deploying Guard divisions, on the other hand, saw many of their original personnel transferred out, to be replaced with draftees and volunteers. But even these divisions tended to maintain a strong regional flavor. When the 36th “Texas” Division landed at Salerno in 1943, the division commander – who was neither a Guardsman nor a Texan – personally planted the Lone Star flag.

Although it made up a smaller percentage of the U.S. Army during the all-out mobilization for World War II than it had during the First World War, the Guard nevertheless played a major role in combat operations, particularly during the first years of U.S. involvement, before full industrial and military mobilization had occurred. The 29th “Blue and Grey” Infantry Division from Virginia and Maryland has become more and more famous over the years as the assault division at Omaha Beach (the grisly but accurate recreation of the Normandy landings in the first 20 minutes of the film “Saving Private Ryan” depicts Virginia’s 116th Infantry), and Guard units played key roles in all the major campaigns in the European theater.

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140 Hill, 440.
But perhaps more telling is the fact that in the first 18 months of offensive combat in the lesser-known Pacific theater, all of the U.S. Army infantry and field artillery units available to General Douglas MacArthur were National Guard units.\textsuperscript{142} Along with the Marine Corps (with whom they sometimes fought side by side\textsuperscript{143}), these Guard units were responsible for all the early U.S. land victories against Japan.

\textbf{2.15 THE BIRTH OF THE ATOMIC AGE}

The U.S. emerged as the “big winner” of World War II. Unlike its European allies and foes, U.S. territory had not been invaded and U.S. cities had not been bombed. This time there would be no retreat into isolationism, as there had been after end of the First World War. U.S. military forces would remain in Western Europe to keep the peace, and later, to oversee its’ political and economic reconstruction; indeed, in the first decade of the 21\textsuperscript{st} century, U.S. forces are still there.

The other big winner of the Second World War was the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the U.S.S.R., better known as the Soviet Union. At the war’s end, Soviet troops occupied all of Eastern Europe and the Baltic states, and the eastern half of Germany, and it soon became apparent that they would keep these countries in their sphere of influence, if not under their direct control. To counteract this threat, the democracies of Western Europe and the U.S. formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, or NATO,\textsuperscript{144} unique in that its integrated armed forces, under a single command and backed by U.S. nuclear power controlled by the President of the United States, constituted the first significant multinational force to arise in peacetime.\textsuperscript{144}

The U.S. had developed the technology to produce atomic bombs to win World War II, which ended when two atom bombs were dropped on Japan. Until 1949, the U.S. was the world’s sole possessor of this technology, but in that year, the Soviet Union exploded its own nuclear bomb,\textsuperscript{145} setting off an arms race which lasted for a generation.

\textbf{2.15.1 A NEW RESERVE COMPONENT}

Until the development of rocket-propelled missiles in the 1950s, long-range aircraft were the only means of getting an atomic or any other kind of bomb to its target. In the eyes of airpower advocates, that made conventional ground combat forces obsolete, for wars would now be won or lost in the air. The U.S. Army Air Forces, which had been promised status as a separate component at the start of World War II, certainly subscribed to that view; immediately following the war’s end, planners for the new, separate Air Force envisioned a force so large and well-funded that it would need no reserve units at all.\textsuperscript{146} But by 1947, political and economic realities forced the Air Force

\textsuperscript{143} Spector, 205, 210.
\textsuperscript{145} Ibid., 1199.
to accept both an Air Force Reserve and an Air National Guard, both created by the same September 1947 legislation that separated the Air Force from the Army.  

2.16 THE KOREAN WAR

When the U.S. was the world’s only atomic power, the presence of such a destructive weapon did seem to limit the possibilities for future wars. But once the Soviets gained atomic power, the scenario changed to one of “mutually assured destruction,” in which the retaliation for using nuclear weapons against an enemy meant the certain devastation of one’s own country in return, thus rendering the technology virtually unusable. It was this knowledge of the horrors of atomic warfare that led to the “cold” war between the U.S. and its allies, and the Soviet Union and its client states behind what Winston Churchill called “the Iron Curtain.”

The breakup of European and Japanese colonial empires in Asia and Africa following the end of World War II provided fertile ground for U.S. and Soviet recruitment of states into their respective spheres of political and economic influence. And it was in these former colonies that the Cold War turned its hottest.

2.16.1 The Korean War Begins

The Cold War first boiled over on the Korean peninsula. A defacto colony of Japan since 1905, Korea was split in two after 1945, with the U.S. occupying the southern half of the Korean Peninsula and the Soviets the north, where a Communist government was quickly set up. In June 1950 a North Korean invasion quickly pushed the South Korean Army and its 500 U.S. military advisors into a small perimeter, to which U.S. reinforcements were rushed from Japan. When the Soviet Union made the mistake of not joining an emergency session of the United Nations (U.N.) Security Council to deliberate the situation in Korea, that body directed that the U.N. would send troops to defend South Korea.

In September 1950 the supreme commander of U.S. forces in the Far East, General of the Army Douglas MacArthur, landed the 1st Marine Division at Inchon, halfway up the Korean coast. It was the tactical masterpiece of his long career and, by October, U.S. and South Korean forces had chased the North Koreans almost to the border with China, the world’s second great Communist power as a result of Mao Tse-tung’s 1949 defeat of Chiang Kai-Shek and the pro-Western Kuomintang party.

2.16.2 The Chinese Revolution

In late November 1950, the Chinese Communists entered the war with a huge force. The U.S. Eighth Army was completely overrun in the greatest military defeat in U.S. history. Douglas MacArthur urged an invasion of China itself, but President Harry Truman did not want to risk escalating the war into a nuclear confrontation with China’s Soviet ally, and

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147 Gross, 32.
148 Hylton, Renee, *When Are We Going?: The Army National Guard and the Korean War, 1950-1953*. National Guard Bureau, Office of Public Affairs, 2000, 19. The Soviets were boycotting the Security Council over its refusal to replace Taiwan with the People’s Republic of China, a maneuver which they never again repeated.
he fired MacArthur. Nuclear weapons would not be employed; the U.S. would rebuild its conventional forces, and the Army National Guard would be part of that rebuilding.

Even before the disastrous Chinese intervention, it was recognized that the Regular Army, spread thinly around the world and with the responsibility for maintaining large garrisons in Europe and Japan, could not handle the situation in Korea without help. Thus, the first Army Guard units were mobilized in August 1950 for two years of service. In the heady days of MacArthur’s drive into North Korea, it looked as if the Guardsman might not be needed, but after the Chinese intervention, several Guard units instead found their scheduled departure for Korea speeded up, with the first Guardsmen arriving at Pusan in late December 1950.

2.16.3 The Army National Guard in Korea

Eventually, 138,600 men from 1,698 Army National Guard units, including eight infantry divisions and three regimental combat teams, would be mobilized for active duty. Guard units, including two infantry divisions, fought in Korea, while thousands of other Guard members went to the combat zone as individual replacements.

This was the first partial mobilization in the National Guard’s modern history, with only about one third of the Army Guard called to active duty. National security planners worried that Korea was a feint, jointly planned by the Soviets and the Chinese, to draw U.S. resources away from Europe, where the Soviets would deliver the real blow. This was the “nightmare scenario” that required the U.S. to maintain a strategic reserve of troops, including Reserve forces, while at the same time fighting a war in Korea.

2.17 THE HEIGHT OF THE COLD WAR

When the truce ending the fighting in Korea was signed in June 1953, more than 30,000 U.S. soldiers had died. The war in Korea put an end to the theory that saturation bombing and atomic weapons had made ground warfare obsolete. The Korean War also showed how suddenly the Cold War could turn hot, and the U.S., for the first time in its history, would now maintain a large peacetime military, both active and reserve.

2.17.1 The Cold War Armories

A larger peacetime military meant larger peacetime defense budgets, and the Reserve Components shared in the largesse. For the National Guard, the first and still-visible sign of increased Federal support was the third great wave of armory construction, the groundwork for which was laid in the years immediately following World War II, with the wave cresting in the 1950s.

With the example of the recently-constructed WPA armories before them, as soon as World War II was over the National Guard Association began lobbying for Federal help with armory construction. The result was a 1948 law prescribing a formula of 75 percent Federal/25 percent state funding for armories, with the buildings reverting to 100 percent

149 Hylton, 21-22.
150 Ibid., 25.
151 Ibid., 23.
The Korean War slowed implementation of the program, but after 1953 funding for armory construction increased. With Federal funds came Federal design guidelines, and the red brick armories that began to dot the country in the 1950s were mostly similar in design and construction.  

2.17.2 The Berlin Mobilization

The first half of the 1960s saw the Cold War at its height. The Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962 was probably the planet’s closest brush with all-out nuclear war between the U.S. and the U.S.S.R., but more momentous for the National Guard was the 1961 construction by East Germany of a wall between Communist East and democratic West Berlin. To demonstrate U.S. resolve, President John F. Kennedy countered by asking Congress to authorize the call up of as many as 250,000 Reservists for a year’s active duty, and in October 1961 some 44,371 Army Guard personnel reported for active duty.

If Korea was the modern National Guard’s first partial mobilization, the Berlin Crisis was its first political mobilization. None of the Army Guard members called to active duty in 1961 ever left the U.S., and it was suggested at the time that, given the personal hardships that mobilization often meant for individual Guardsmen and their families, it was not fair to call up them up for diplomatic, as opposed to military, reasons.

2.17.3 The Shrinking Army National Guard Force Structure

John F. Kennedy brought to Washington as his Secretary of Defense the former president of the Ford Motor Company, Robert S. McNamara. With his Harvard Business School training, McNamara was determined to streamline the management of the nation’s armed forces, and the Reserve components were high on his list for remodeling.

Since the end of World War II, it had been part of the country’s military policy to favor large pools of reserve manpower as a cost-cutting measure. McNamara, however, felt that the reserves were too large; he wanted fewer units at a higher degree of readiness. Accordingly, 802 units, including four divisions, were cut from the Army National Guard in 1963.

Deeper cuts were proposed two years later, but McNamara offered the National Guard something in return: he wanted to merge all Army Reserve units into the Guard, leaving the Army Reserve to consist of individuals only. The Army Reserve had developed its own friends in Congress, and the proposal was blocked, but the Army National Guard still lost its units. By September 1967, 12 infantry and three armored divisions had been inactivated. Among them were the 32d, 36th, and 45th Infantry Divisions, divisions with combat records as distinguished as any in the U.S. Army. The Army National Guard was left with eight divisions: five infantry, one mechanized, and two armored.

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152 Everett, 43.
153 Ibid.
154 Doubler, 251.
155 Ibid., 254
156 Mahon, 230.
2.18 WAR IN SOUTHEAST ASIA

While the Army Guard struggled through these numerous reorganizations, U.S. political and military involvement in the Republic of Vietnam was growing. U.S. ground combat forces had been committed in March 1965, and Vietnam began to siphon off an ever-increasing share of its military resources. Secretary McNamara and the Joint Chiefs of Staff wanted to use the Reserves to meet manpower demands, but President Lyndon Johnson remembered the complaints he received from Capitol Hill over the Berlin Crisis mobilization, when he was Kennedy’s Vice President. In addition, Johnson felt that to call up Reservists for Vietnam would both alarm the Soviets and Chinese, and risk turning the U.S. public against the war. A manpower draft had been continuously in place since the end of World War II and, by an increase in monthly draft quotas, the Army could easily grow from 969,066 in 1965, the year ground troops were committed, to 1,570,343 at the height of U.S. involvement in 1968. 

Lyndon Johnson’s decision to rely on draftees to fight the Vietnam War would have far-reaching consequences, both for the Army and for the National Guard. Since the end of the Korean War, the Guard had had recruiting problems. With no “shooting war” going on, and a host of veterans’ benefits available to those who served two years on active duty, being drafted for two years or volunteering for three seemed a better deal to many young men than six years of part-time service in the Guard or Reserves, with no benefits to follow. But as U.S. casualties in Vietnam began to rise after 1965, fulfilling one’s military commitment in the Reserve components became increasingly attractive, and during the late 1960s there were long waiting lists to join many Guard units.

Meanwhile, the Joint Chiefs continued to lobby the White House for a Reserve Component mobilization to provide more troops for Vietnam, but it would take the Viet Cong’s Tet Offensive of January 1968 to produce a small Guard and Reserve call-up. Forty-two Army Reserve and 34 Army National Guard units were ordered to active duty for two years. Eight Army Guard units, with 2,729 members, were deployed to Vietnam, with an additional 4,311 sent to the combat zone as individual replacements.

2.18.1 Action on the Home Front

Many National Guard units not mobilized for Vietnam saw action of a different sort during the 1960s. Beginning with Newark, New Jersey, in 1964, racially-motivated riots broke out in many large American cities. Units of the National Guard were called out to stop burning and looting in Los Angeles, Washington, D.C., Detroit, and a host of other cities. And, as the anti-war movement gathered momentum in the late 1960s, Guardsmen were called out to maintain order during large demonstrations. As was the case during the labor disputes of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, ‘riot duty’ in the 1960s was generally unpopular with Guardsmen.

2.19 THE END OF THE DRAFT

157 Mahon, 242.
158 Weigley, History of the United States Army, 600.
159 Mahon, 243.
160 Doubler, 260.
161 Mahon, 238-242.
When the last Guardsmen were released from active duty in December 1969, a gradual process of ‘Vietnamization’ had begun, designed to lessen U.S. military presence in Vietnam, especially in ground combat. But domestic opposition to the war continued to increase, and a convenient target was the draft. Early in 1973, the draft, in effect almost continuously since the end of World War II, ended, to be replaced by the “All Volunteer Force.”

For almost 30 years, both the active and reserve components had relied on a large pool of young men who were legally obligated to serve in the armed forces. When that legal obligation was removed, military recruiters found it difficult to fill their quotas. Between 1974 and 1979, Army National Guard strength declined.

2.20 THE GUARD INTEGRATES

In the 1970s, the National Guard turned its attention to a manpower source that had often been overlooked in the past; minorities, particularly African-Americans. The integration of the active components had begun in 1948, when most of U.S. society was still strictly segregated. During the Korean War, black and white troops fought side by side in integrated units, and the Guard’s 40th and 45th Infantry Divisions had African-Americans assigned to them while they were stationed in Japan and Korea during the Korean War.

Black National Guard units had survived since Reconstruction in a few states, part of a U.S. Army that until 1948 was segregated by unit. In 1946, New Jersey became the first state to officially integrate its National Guard, two years before the integration of the active Army. But many states in the South with large black populations had no African-Americans at all in their National Guards; the Army in the 1950s, despite its successful integration, had not wanted to take up what would have become a political fight with the Southern governors and their representatives in Congress.

This could have been a problem during the civil unrest that sometimes accompanied desegregation in the 1950s and 60s. In 1957, President Dwight D. Eisenhower federalized the entire Arkansas National Guard for a month to prevent the segregationist Arkansas governor from using it to stop the court-ordered integration of Little Rock High School. The scene was replayed in 1962 during the desegregation of the University of Mississippi. In both cases, Guardsmen obeyed the President and helped to enforce the law.

In the early 1960s, the state Guard units began to recruit more blacks and other minorities, a process hastened by the landmark Civil Rights Act of 1965. With the Chief of the National Guard Bureau prodded on minority recruitment by Secretary of Defense McNamara himself, the National Guard Bureau began to prod the states, with everyone understanding that under the terms of the Civil Rights Act, states that did not
integrate their Guard force structure could lose their Federal funding. It was an argument for change that all recognized, and 20 years later, minorities made up one quarter of the Army National Guard, and almost 10 percent of its officer corps.\(^{167}\)

2.20.1 Women Join the Guard

Women, too, found a place in the National Guard in the 1970s. Because the Militia Act of 1792 and the National Defense Act of 1916 had both referred specifically to males, legislation was required to allow women to enlist. The Army had established the Women’s Army Corps (WAC) in 1942, but the total number of “WACs,” as female soldiers were called, was severely limited, and they served in separate units, which the Guard did not want to organize.\(^{168}\)

But when the Guard got non-divisional medical units in the 1950s, those units required nurses – and the Army Nurse Corps at the time was limited to females. Congressional hearings were held, a law was passed, and the first female in the National Guard, a nurse, was commissioned in the Air National Guard in 1956.\(^{169}\) For the next 12 years, nurses were the only women in the Guard. A 1968 law authorized prior-service enlisted women to join the Guard, but the numbers recruited were small. In 1971, non-prior-service women were allowed to enlist.\(^{170}\) As all branches of the military began opening previously-restricted jobs to women, the number of women in both the Army and Air National Guard rose dramatically.

2.20.2 A Partner in the Total Force

The impact of the “All Volunteer Force” that replaced the draft-era military on the National Guard was not limited to minority recruitment. For the Army National Guard especially, the end of conscription signaled its entry into a new partnership with the Active Army. The Air Guard had been integrated into the workings of the active Air Force for almost 20 years; now the Army, cut off from its source of cheap manpower, was forced to turn to its reserve components.

The ‘Total Force’ policy was first articulated in 1970. In 1974 a program of ‘affiliation’ between the Army’s active and reserve combat arms units began. By 1980, all Army Guard divisions and brigades were spending their Annual Training with active Army partner units. The ‘Roundout’ program, which began in 1976, assigned Army Guard units to augment Active Army units in case of mobilization.\(^{171}\) In order to train and, if necessary, mobilize effectively, the Army Guard began to get more modern weapons and equipment than ever before in its history.

The trend accelerated dramatically after Ronald Reagan was elected President in 1980. Under Reagan, the Defense budget increased dramatically, and the National Guard shared in the budget largesse. Staff levels, both at the National Guard Bureau and in the states and territories, increased, and included much larger numbers of full-time personnel.

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\(^{167}\) Annual Review of the Chief, National Guard Bureau, Fiscal Year 1984, pg. 76


\(^{169}\) National Guard Bureau Historical Files, “Cpt. Norma Parsons Erb”

\(^{170}\) Morden, ibid.

\(^{171}\) Doubler, 277-281.
personnel. There was more money not only for personnel, but for equipment, training, and modern facilities.172 Hundreds of historic armories were de-accessioned by the Guard during the 1980s, often replaced, in a cost-saving maneuver, by ‘Reserve Centers’ that also served units from other Reserve Components.173 “Landlocked” urban armories, without large parking lots for cars and military vehicles, were particularly hard-hit, a trend accelerated by the fact that, with the end of the draft, city-dwellers were less likely to join the military than their small-town and rural counterparts.

What historians call “the Reagan defense buildup,” has often been credited with bringing down the Soviet government and the fall of the Berlin wall, as the much smaller and much less efficient Soviet economy tried to keep up with the U.S. military’s increasingly sophisticated weapons and technology. And during these years the Guard played its part in displaying U.S. military might to the Soviets. The Army National Guard had first sent small units overseas for training in the mid-1970s174 but, under Reagan, overseas deployments of the Guard increased, as did the size of the units deploying. The first battalion-sized overseas training took place in 1980; 1983 saw the first overseas deployment of an Army Guard unit with its own equipment. In 1986, when some 8,000 Guard members, including the entire 32d Brigade from Wisconsin, shipped out with all their equipment to Germany to participate in the major NATO exercise “Reforger,”175 it was not lost on Soviet intelligence.

If the Soviet Union had not collapsed, and if the Reagan defense buildup had led to war with the Soviet Union rather than to its collapse, the Total Force Policy would have sent Army National Guard combat units to Europe to reinforce U.S. and NATO troops. Instead, the First Gulf War following Saddam Hussein’s invasion of Kuwait in 1990 saw more than 37,848 Guard troops on active duty in Southwest Asia. These units were primarily combat support, rather than actual combat units – but over a decade later, after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, Army Guard combat units were serving in Iraq and Afghanistan, a key component of the Bush Administration’s ‘Global War on Terror.’

2.21 AN ENDURING AMERICAN INSTITUTION

The National Guard is one of the oldest continuing institutions in this country. It is many years older than the U.S. itself, many years older than the U.S. Army, and a great many years older than the U.S. Air Force.

The citizen/soldiers who make up the National Guard have fought in every major American war since the Pequot War in Connecticut in 1637. War has changed a great deal since 1637, and today’s National Guard is trained to serve in a high-technology environment, using complex weapons and equipment. But the principles that underlie Guard service are the same as they were in 1636: to become full-time military professionals if the need arises.

172 Doubler, 289-294.
173 Historical files, National Guard Bureau, Office of Public Affairs.
174 Annual Review of the Chief, National Guard Bureau, Fiscal Year 1977.
175 Doubler, 294.
3.0 GEOGRAPHIC OVERVIEW: STATE BY STATE HISTORY OF THE ARMY NATIONAL GUARD

This section presents a brief history of the ARNG in each state in which armories were visited in the field. The level of historic detail available for the study of the ARNG within each state is somewhat variable. Neither has each state received equivalent degrees of historic and cultural resource investigation in past years. For those histories that do exist, most only focus on specific time periods or certain topics within the overall history of that state. The result is a somewhat uneven coverage of historic trends between the states. In general, most states lack a published, coherent history of the ARNG. Those states that lack such studies would greatly benefit from having them conducted.

Nationwide patterns of construction should also be mentioned here. The apparent inactivity of armory construction during the Civil War and World War II years, for example, was generally due to the deployment of units into federal duty, and in some cases, inactivity of the guard across the United States. For instance, as Fogelson points out in his book America’s Armories, during the Civil War years, “The campaign for armories labored under several handicaps, perhaps the most severe of which was that after the Civil War, the volunteer militia was, as one scholar has written, ‘at its lowest ebb in our history.’ All but a few elite units had trouble attracting recruits, retaining members, and raising money.” For example, Fogelson states that between 1860 and 1868, Pennsylvania lost more than 90 percent of its citizen-soldiers.¹

According to Cooper, historians paid limited attention to the state activities of the National Guard during the years between WWI and WWII. Only a few broad state studies exist, primarily for North Dakota, Kansas, and Utah, which assess the state forces through the post World War II years. Furthermore, Cooper notes that according to military historian, Dr. Ronald W. Wachs “there is an absence of scholarly work on Guard peacekeeping for these years and little published on the issue from the National Guard Bureau, Department of the Army, and other governmental agencies.”² Cooper gives a thoughtful analysis of the lack of history between the 1920s and 1960s. He goes on to state that “Wachs’s fine dissertation on the use of the National Guard in race-related disturbances during the 1950s is the only substantive scholarship available on the postwar role of state troops in civil disorder.”³

In reviewing the numerous works cited by Cooper, it can be said that the National Guard played an instrumental role in the containment of civil disorder throughout the 50 states. However, it is not possible to fully identify specific incidents that occurred within the states in this study. Written history on a state-by-state basis is inconsistent in scope. Some states offer a more complete history as is the case for Tennessee, North Carolina and South Carolina, whereas, Mississippi and Massachusetts offer a limited scope. By

³ Cooper, 119-120.
1935 and the expansion of the national highway system, highway patrols or state police were taking the place of the National Guard in quelling civil disorder as was the case in Texas.

3.1 ALABAMA

Few cultural resource or historic studies have been conducted on the Alabama ARNG or its properties. However, two studies have been completed by AMEC Earth and Environmental, Inc. and one by Colonel Napier, III. Only Colonel Napier’s study provides a history of the Alabama ARNG. This text is a summary of that history as derived from his report, which, although not published in book form, is available in manuscript form at the Alabama State Archives and online.

After the Revolutionary War, the American frontier moved west and new states entered the Union. The Mississippi Territory was organized in 1798 and included Alabama. In 1807, the Militia Law passed in the new territory required military service of each free white male between 16 and 50 years of age. Each militia member was required to provide his own equipment and weapons. When Alabama achieved statehood in 1819, the Mississippi Territory Militia became the foundation for the new Alabama State Militia.

In 1821, Alabama passed its first military legislation as a state, officially establishing the Alabama State Militia. The militia was headed by an Adjutant General with the Governor assigned as Commander-in-Chief, and was divided into divisions and brigades. Volunteer corps developed, including Monroe County’s Claiborne Troop and the Montgomery Troop. Officially, there were four divisions of nine brigades with at least one regiment or battalion in each brigade.

Volunteer companies from Alabama assisted Texas in 1835 during its fight for independence from Mexico. In 1836, an Alabama volunteer regiment fought in the Second Seminole War in Florida while three other Alabama regiments helped suppress the Creek Nation resistance to their forced removal along the Trail of Tears to Oklahoma. In the mid-1800s, tension over slavery increased between the North and the South. In 1859-1860, the Alabama General Assembly chartered at least 60 volunteer military companies. In February 1860, the legislature created the Alabama Volunteer Corps out of the existing Alabama militia, organizing 74 companies with 8,150 men. In June of that year, the Second Regiment was activated in Montgomery.

After President Lincoln’s election in 1860, southern secession began. Alabama seceded in January 1861. The recently formed Alabama Volunteer Corps (AVC) seized federal military posts in Alabama and a regiment was sent to help Florida, Mississippi, and Louisiana troops occupy United States installations in those states. Once the Civil War began, all AVC troops were transferred to the Provisional Army of the Confederate

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5 Napier, 2.
6 Napier, 3.
States. In 1881, the state militia became the Alabama State Troops and, in 1897, the militia assumed its title as the Alabama National Guard.7

Prior to the establishment of municipal and state police in the 1900s, the Alabama volunteer militia was used to maintain law and order. Before the Civil War, the volunteer militia also served as slave patrol, and later was sent to suppress racial disturbances and labor strikes.8 After the Civil War, the Alabama state militia took part in enforcing the United States southwest border in response to Pancho Villa’s raids. The 1st, 2nd, and 4th Alabama Volunteer Infantry Regiments were sent into federal service at Montgomery’s Vandiver Park, which later became Camp Sheridan. More than 5,000 Alabama militiamen saw five months (November 1915 - March 1917) of field service at San Antonio, Texas and Nogales and Douglas, Arizona.9

The Alabama National Guard troops were sent to the Mexican border in November 1915 for service and were demobilized in March 1917. Less than a month later, the United States declared war on Imperial Germany; the Alabama National Guard remained on active duty and was assigned to defend key locations in the state. In August of that year, 5,025 Alabama National Guardsmen were federalized once more.10 The 4th Alabama Infantry Regiment, along with men from other Alabama regiments, formed the United States 167th Infantry. Other Alabama National Guard units went into the 31st “Dixie” Division, along with units from Georgia, Florida, and Louisiana. The Dixie Division did not reach France until a month before the Armistice and served as a depot division. The 167th helped liberate Belgium and was part of the occupation of Germany. They returned home in May 1919 and were mustered out at Camp Shelby, Mississippi.11

In the fall of 1940, the Alabama ARNG was ordered to active duty to engage in WWII. Alabama guardsmen went to Camp Blanding, Florida, to join the 31st “Dixie” Division for training and deployment. In April 1944, the 31st Dixie Division was deployed to the South Pacific, serving under MacArthur in New Guinea and in the Philippines.12

In response to growing fear of the invasion of the United States, Governor Frank Dixon spearheaded the organization of a temporary military force to replace the deployed Alabama ARNG.13 The newly formed Alabama State Guard recruited primarily from the American Legion posts of WWI veterans. Twenty-five companies went into state service and performed their duties without pay or benefits. The Alabama State Guard trained at Fort Gaines on Dauphin Island, which was turned over to the State Guard troops for that purpose. The State Guard troops were called out on several occasions to maintain order in labor disputes.

8 Napier, 5.
9 Napier, 5.
11 Napier, 6.
13 Napier, 7.
As WWII ended in September 1945, the Dixie Division returned to the United States and was deactivated in December at Camp Stoneman, California. The Alabama State Guard was disbanded and the Alabama ARNG underwent reorganization.14

3.2 ALASKA
The only available history on the ARNG in Alaska is by Jon Nielson’s journal article, “Alaska’s Territorial Guard: Military Expedient on a Remote Frontier, 1884-1950.” Although it does not provide coverage for the Post 1910 Era, it does include an interesting variant of ARNG development in the state, as compared to the histories of the ARNG in other states. Much of this is due to the late date that Alaska joined the Union in 1959, as well as the relative remoteness of Alaska to the “lower 48” states.

On March 30, 1867, Secretary of State William H. Seward signed an agreement (widely referred to as “Seward's Folly”) with Baron Edouard Stoeckl, the Russian Minister to the United States. The agreement ceded possession of the vast territory of Alaska (586,000 square miles of land) to the United States for the sum of $7.2 million dollars. The 40th Congress (1867-1869) passed a law that made Alaska a customs district of the United States, but made no other efforts to establish a civil infrastructure.

Between the years 1867 and 1879, Alaska’s pseudo-military government was administered first by the Army, and then by the Treasury Department. During the late 1870s and through the early 1880s, relations between Alaskan natives and Anglo-American settlers became tense and the Navy forces of Commander L.A. Beardslee were brought in to maintain order.15 From 1879 until 1884, the Navy governed Alaska. As most of Alaska’s inhabitants resided along the southeastern panhandle of the state, this was an expedient solution.

The passage of the First Organic Act (1884) made Alaska a civil and judicial district and provided the territory with judges, clerks, and marshals. The legal code of the state of Oregon was adopted and the Governor of Oregon was empowered to act as ex-officio Commander-in-Chief of Alaska.16 The Governor of Oregon was given the right to call upon the citizens of Alaska to serve “as such when the public exigency demands.”17

The First Organic Act of 1884 did not provide for a representative government in Alaska; as a result, Alaska was consigned to a territorial status. There was little interest among United States congressmen to move Alaska towards statehood. It was considered too remote and too barren to inspire much interest among the voters of the United States. However, in 1887, Congress appropriated $8,000 for arms, ordnance, and equipment for an Alaskan militia.18 The first militia formed in Juneau was designated as Company A. The Klondike Gold Rush of 1897-1898 was the first event to garner significant national exposure for Alaska. During the decade of 1890-1900, more than 30,000 people surged

14 Napier, 7.
16 Nielson, 53.
17 Nielson, 53.
18 Nielson, 53.
into the Yukon Territory and Alaska when gold was discovered in several locations, including Dawson, Fairbanks, and Ester. There was a strong call to the United States to provide a centralized government and civil organization.\(^{19}\) It would take another 12 years for that to occur.

Territorial status was finally granted to Alaska in 1912 with the passage of the Second Organic Act, also called the Alaska Home Bill. In 1916, Congress passed legislation that included a provision for an organized Alaska militia. Home Guard units were formed throughout the Alaska Territory.\(^{20}\) In a short time, eight towns had Home Guard units, comprised of a mix of Alaska Indians and Anglo-Americans. This was accomplished despite the WWI draft of 3,000 men that comprised 12 percent of the total Anglo-American population of the Territory.

After WWI, the Alaska Home Guard was mostly disbanded, but four units continued due to direct funding from the Territorial Legislature and private donors. Despite years of lobbying by residents, the Alaska National Guard, however, was not formed until 1939. This was primarily due to increasing tensions abroad that inspired a need to protect the United States' holdings in the far northwest of North America. By September 1941, enlisted men of Companies A and B were combat ready.\(^{21}\) However, the Alaska National Guard was mobilized and sent to the contiguous states for training and deployment later in 1941 due to the outbreak of WWII. The Alaska Territorial Guard (ATG) was then established on a volunteer basis to provide protection to the Alaska Territory communities while the National Guard was away at war.\(^{22}\) Those that served in the ATG received no pay or benefits in exchange for their service.

### 3.3 CALIFORNIA

No recent, comprehensive history of the California ARNG has been written. However, J.J. Hudson’s unpublished Ph.D. dissertation provides a detailed history of the California ARNG for the years between 1903 and 1940. Jones and Stokes provide the best available historic summary of the California ARNG from its inception as state militia to its modern form.\(^{23}\)

The early militia in California helped preserve law and order and protected against attacks from Indians and bandits.\(^{24}\) The New York Volunteers comprised the first militia in the state, but local residents pushed for a permanent, local militia. The First California Guard–Light Artillery was formed in July 1849 in San Francisco. In 1850, the California Military Law passed, requiring registration and service of all white males between 18 and 45. The resulting militia was composed of four divisions and brigades. The same year,

\(^{19}\) Nielson, 54.
\(^{22}\) Nielson, 55-57.
\(^{23}\) Jones and Stokes, “Final Inventory and Evaluation of National Register of Historic Places Eligibility of California Army National Guard Armories” (Sacramento: Jones and Stokes, 2002), 7.
\(^{24}\) Jones and Stokes, 7.
the First California Guard obtained funds to construct the Benecia military hall and armory.

After the onset of the Civil War, state and federal funding increased and the militia grew. After the war, the California militia underwent reorganization under the California Military Act of 1866, which renamed the militia as the National Guard of California. A central authority for the National Guard in California was formed, which oversaw unit management, location, and standards for equipping each unit.

The passage of the Dick Act in 1903 (as amended in 1908) provided much needed organizational restructuring. However, issues of dual state and national allegiance were not fully resolved with this legislation. In 1905, California passed the California Militia Law that brought the organization into greater conformity with the Dick Act.25

To eliminate conflicting allegiances between state and nation, the National Defense Act of 1916 required all national guardsmen to swear loyalty to both their state and the nation. Several reorganizations of the National Guard in California took place in the decades following the passage of the Dick Act.26

According to Jones and Stokes, “the 40th Division was called into active duty in 1917. Members of this Division trained at Camp Kearney before going to Europe.”27 This division participated in the Battle of Argonne and St. Mihiel.

Throughout the Roosevelt years, the California ARNG responded to numerous civil and labor disputes and natural disasters, such as the Folsom Prison riot in 1927 and flooding of the American River in 1928.

The armory system in California was extremely inadequate in the early 20th Century. Despite efforts by Adjutant Generals between 1903 and 1917, the National Guard of California received little state funding for new armory construction. Exceptions included state monies to build armories in San Francisco, Los Angeles, Stockton, and Sacramento. The following 10 years saw the state lease or rent another thirty armories.28 The Adjutant General continued lobbying for the construction of new armories that would be owned outright by the state. The leased and rented facilities were inadequate for their needs, lacked necessary security features, and many were in serious disrepair. Communities had taken an active interest in armory construction as early as 1926 but, without state funding, it was difficult to obtain construction cost. By this time, the state owned only four buildings outright. In 1930, one armory was constructed at Long Beach then another in Yuba City in 1931.

The California National Guard retained the old guard reporting system, answering only to the state governor until 1933, when the California National Guard was formally

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26 Jones and Stokes, 8-10.
27 Jones and Stokes, 12.
28 Jones and Stokes, 8-10.
integrated into the National Guard of the United States. By 1934, four new armories were completed with two more armories in later years. Construction was made possible by Federal grants through the Public Works Administration (PWA) and the WPA, matched with state funding.

3.4 KANSAS

The primary written history of the National Guard in Kansas is by Brian Fowles, A Guard in Peace and War: The History of the Kansas National Guard 1854-1987. A variety of other cultural resource management and historic studies have been conducted surrounding the Kansas ARNG or its properties; these studies are summarized in a survey report by Randall Thies, which also provides an excellent research bibliography. Thies provides a detailed cultural history of Kansas and historic context of the Kansas ARNG that is summarized in the following text with additional details derived from Fowles.

The early Kansas ARNG, like that of many states, was organized as a state militia that served during the Indian Wars and the Civil War. With the passing of the Dick Act in 1903, the state militia units were formalized and subsequently formed the primary reserve of the United States Army. This created an increased need for adequate training facilities in Kansas that spurred the creation of regular armories in many communities. Initially, the majority of those armories were in rented or borrowed facilities.

During the Post 1910 Era, the Kansas ARNG was deployed to the Mexican Border Crisis of 1916 and to France during WWII, functioning as part of the 35th Infantry Division. Although there was an anti-war movement that embraced the Isolationist agenda during the administration of Woodrow Wilson that continued after WWII, the Kansas ARNG survived through the enlistment of men that were drawn by the financial remuneration to Guardsmen during the Depression.

Although there was an anti-war movement that embraced the Isolationist agenda after WWII, the Kansas ARNG survived through the enlistment of men that were drawn by the financial remuneration to Guardsmen during the Depression. By the end of the 1930s, the United States military machine began rebuilding with the increased threat of conflict abroad. The WPA provided funding for the construction of armories in Kingman, St. Mary’s, and Hiawatha, Kansas; all three were recently nominated to the NRHP as a Multiple Properties Listing (MPL).

3.5 MASSACHUSETTS

No comprehensive, published history of the Massachusetts ARNG was found. However, an unpublished document authored by retired Colonel Leonid Kondratiuk, historian for

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29 Jones and Stokes, 9.
30 Jones and Stokes, 10.
31 Thies, Randall M. “Kansas Army National Guard Cultural Resources Survey” (Topeka: Archaeology Office, Cultural Resources Division, Kansas State Historic Society, 2001), 8.
The Massachusetts ARNG, provides an excellent overview. The document, entitled “Brief History of the Massachusetts ARNG,” covers the years from the initial formation of the nation’s first militia in Massachusetts until 2004.

The Massachusetts ARNG was the first component of the United States armed forces, beginning as militia companies voluntarily formed by the first British settlements at Plymouth Colony in 1621 and in the Massachusetts Bay Colony at Salem in 1629.33 As population increased, colonial authorities recognized a need for a larger military organization to oversee the militia. On December 13, 1636, the North, South, and East Regiments were formed by order of the General Court. These three regiments, the 181st and 182nd Infantry Regiments (North Regiment), the 101st Field Artillery Regiment (South Regiment), and 101st Engineer Battalion (East Regiment), are the oldest units in the United States Army and still exist today.34

Initial militia engagements included a provisional battle in 1637 against Pequot Indians and skirmishes with the Niantic and Narrangansett Indians in 1645. King Philip’s War followed in 1675-1676. Several thousand militiamen were involved in these battles because the colony’s survival was at stake.35 Militiamen also participated in four wars against the French and their allies between 1680 and 1763. In 1745, the Massachusetts militia eventually captured the French fortress of Louisbourg in Nova Scotia. In addition, Massachusetts militiamen fought in the French and Indian War (1755-1763) that succeeded in ending the French dominance of North America.36

As relations with Britain became more strained between 1765 and 1775, the colonists formed a Committee of Public Safety that was responsible for military affairs.37 In 1774, all British loyalists were removed from the militia and a quick-response force, the Minutemen, was created.38 Minutemen companies and regiments formed across the Massachusetts colony. They devised a rapid alert system that would ensure quick communication and the ability to quickly muster for any military emergencies. By April 1775, there were 50 well-trained Minutemen and militia regiments at the ready.

British forces marched into Concord on April 19, 1775, to seize militia cannon and gunpowder. The Lexington militia responded; 15 militia casualties resulted. The remaining Minutemen and militia regiments mustered and marched to Concord. With this act, the war with Britain began. Under the onslaught of a superior force, the British fell back to Boston where the British garrison was surrounded and held at bay.

Shortly after, regiments of a new Massachusetts Army were formed from several militia regiments.39 They were inducted into the Continental Army, which later became the United States Army. The Massachusetts Army was heavily involved in the Revolutionary

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34 Kondratiuk, 1.
35 Kondratiuk, 1.
36 Kondratiuk, 1-2.
37 Kondratiuk, 1-2.
38 Kondratiuk, 1-2.
39 Kondratiuk, 1-2.
War, providing more troops than any other colony.²⁰ Two years after the end of the Revolutionary War, the Massachusetts militia was reorganized and expanded to 10 divisions. In 1814, 20,000 militia troops from Massachusetts mobilized to defend the coast against threatened British landings.

In 1840, the militia was disbanded and replaced by the Massachusetts Volunteer Militia (MVM). The units were primarily comprised of young men who were well trained and better equipped than the old enrolled militia. The MVM consisted of 6,000 men, organized in 10 regiments. Most units used town halls and commercial buildings for meetings and training.²¹

During the Civil War, the Massachusetts Volunteer Militia (MVM) “played three key roles: (1) it provided the first regiments for the defense of Washington; (2) it provided the leadership and cadre for dozens of three-year volunteer organizations; and (3) it returned to active duty to reinforce the Union Army during critical conflicts.”²² After the Civil War, the MVM was reorganized into two brigades, four battalions and seven regiments. State officials recognized a need for permanent housing for the MVM. Under the Armory Act of 1888, Massachusetts began building large armories in three major towns: Boston, Worcester, and Springfield. Within 10 years, nine new armories were constructed.²³

When the United States entered WWI, the Yankee (26th) Division was the first National Guard unit sent to the battlefields in France. In 1919, after the war ended the Massachusetts ARNG returned to its state mission and was called in to settle a strike when the mayor of Boston refused to allow the city police force to unionize. Governor Calvin Coolidge called in the National Guard to end the strike. The Massachusetts National Guard was divided into Army and Air Force Guard units in 1923.²⁴

3.6 MISSISSIPPI

The Mississippi ARNG Integrated Natural and Cultural Resources Management Plan (IN/CRMP) details all previous cultural resource studies prepared for Mississippi ARNG properties. There is no recent, published history of the Mississippi ARNG, nor is the Mississippi ARNG’s history detailed in the IN/CRMP. One unpublished, short history was discovered during the course of research for this Historic Context Study at the National Guard Museum at Camp Shelby, Mississippi. Another document, entitled “The Mississippi Army National Guard: Today/Tomorrow?” is also on file at the National Guard Museum archives; however, the author and date of the document are unknown. This document provides additional background on the ARNG’s history in the state. A recent architectural history survey of the Mississippi ARNG armories and a historic

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²⁰ Kondratiuk, 1-2.
²¹ Kondratiuk, 1-2.
²³ Kondratiuk, 5.
resources inventory of the Mississippi ARNG armories have been completed; neither includes a history of the ARNG in the state.

The following summary is drawn primarily from Colonel W.D. McCain’s unpublished manuscript, "A Sketch of the Mississippi Militia and National Guard," with the inclusion of additional details from the anonymous report. As with Alabama, the earliest militia in current-day Mississippi was founded by an act of Congress in 1798 as the Mississippi Territory Militia. All free white males, except physicians, ministers, and civil officers between the ages of 16 and 50 were required to perform military duty. All militiamen were expected to provide their own uniforms, weapons, equipment, and ammunition. Additional organizational specifics were outlined in the Mississippi Territory Militia Act of 1802. Afterwards and throughout the Territorial period, the militia organization remained relatively unaltered except by changes related to an amendment to the Militia Act in 1809. This amendment reduced the upper age limit to 45 and specified that each battalion would have four companies, and each company would consist of 73 men. An Adjutant Lieutenant Colonel and Inspector of Militia were assigned by the Governor in 1811.

Mississippi was admitted to the Union on December 10, 1817, and the structure of the militia underwent complete reorganization. Two divisions commanded by major generals were required under the State Militia Act of 1818, as was the separation of the division into two brigades each under the command of brigadier generals. The militia officers were to be elected, rather than appointed by the Governor. The militia underwent several bouts of reorganization through the late 1850s. By the outbreak of the Civil War, however, the militia laws of the state had become ineffective and no training of troops had occurred for 11 years.

Following Reconstruction, native Mississippians regained control of their state government in 1875. The State Legislature passed an act abolishing all extant militia organizations, revoking all commissions and appointments, and requiring all militia equipment to be delivered to Jackson, Mississippi, for maintenance and reissuing. At that point, the militia was completely reorganized.

The Mississippi National Guard was first mentioned in Mississippi in an act approved on March 3, 1888, which called for the state militia to be divided into the acting and the reserve militia. The active militia was designated the Mississippi National Guard. The Mississippi militia fought in numerous wars from the Sabine Expedition of 1806 onward. However, the Mississippi National Guard was not called up for active duty until 1898 when they were activated for federal duty in the Spanish-American War.
Although three infantry regiments from Mississippi served during the Spanish-American War, the units were made up totally of volunteers. They were called for active duty by the War Department for the first time in 1916 to serve during the Mexican Border crisis. Three battalions of infantry were formed into the First Infantry Regiment, Mississippi National Guard. On June 24, 1916, 56 officers and 1,819 enlisted men were stationed along the Mexican border. In September 1917, this regiment was redesignated the 155th Infantry Regiment and served in the 39th Infantry Division in France during WWI. In total, when the United States entered WWI, the Mississippi ARNG sent 5,398 enlisted men and 171 officers.

During the 1920s, the Mississippi National Guard was part of a reshuffling effort to reorganize Guard troops for federal service in case of a national emergency. At that time, the Mississippi Guard became part of the Army’s 31st Division. The Mississippi National Guard was called up for service in 1940 for WWII. Units across the state were activated for federal duty. This included a total of 3,417 enlisted men and 264 officers.

3.7 NEW YORK

The New York ARNG ICRMP presents a concise historic overview and summary of the New York ARNG.

The Dutch settlement of New Amsterdam (later New York City), passed the first militia law in 1640. The militia (the Burgher Guard), were first called to duty in 1653 to fend off British encroachment on New Netherland territory (later New York state). The Burgher Guard was reorganized in 1686 as a Regiment of Foot, commanded by Colonel Nicholas Bayard.

On July 18, 1775, the Continental Congress passed the first militia act. In 1775, New York passed its own Provincial Militia Act. The Continental Army comprised of the soldiers sent by the states, were primarily responsible for the Continental Army’s success. New York passed the Act for the Defense of the Northern and Western Frontiers in 1808. Soon afterwards, war was declared on Britain and the New York militia was activated for combat. Britain signed a treaty with the United States in 1815 after three years of conflict.

During the early 19th Century the compulsory, organized militia in New York withered away; in its place, the volunteer militia arose during the 1820s. The New York volunteer militia served in response to numerous local disturbances, including: the Flour Riots of 1826; the Election Riot of 1834; the Abolition Riot of July 1834; the Stonecutters’ Riot of 1835; the Stevedores Riots of 1836; the Croton Water Riots of 1840; the Astor Place Riot of 1849; the Dead Rabbit Riots of 1857; and the Staten Island Quarantine Riots of 1858.

In 1847, an Act for the Organization of the First Division of the New York State Militia was passed. The legislation established numerous regiments that would later form the core of the New York National Guard. Eight divisions were created; within each division

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51 Mahon, 173.
52 Colonel W.D. McCain, “A Sketch of the Mississippi Militia and National Guard” (Camp Shelby, Mississippi: unpublished manuscript on file at the National Guard Museum, 1954), 18-19.
was usually three brigades. Each brigade usually contained three regiments and each regiment was made up of two to four companies. The state provided a central arsenal for each division to store its state-issued munitions. Many regiments within most divisions maintained a separate armory that was often leased.

During the Civil War, New York supplied a high number of Union regiments. Due to the excellent training of the New York militia, many of the commanding officers of New York’s wartime regiments were recruited directly from New York’s existing militia units. New York not only sent regiments to the front, but also maintained a strong force at home to ensure local defense. After the war ended, the New York National Guard once again became the primary force to suppress riots in the state. Numerous labor riots sprang up all over the country during this period, beginning with the Great Railroad Strike of 1877 (Buffalo NY). In New York, the Guard responded to the Buffalo Switchmen’s Strike of 1892 and the Brooklyn Trolley Car Strike of 1895.

The New York Armory Law of 1884 created the New York City Armory Board, which oversaw armory-building projects first in Manhattan, then in the other boroughs of the city. Construction of armories, especially in the industrial parts of the state, proceeded rapidly, with New York exceeding all other states in the number of armories, and in their architectural splendors. Before World War I, more than $10,000,000 in state bonds had been issued for armory construction, a huge amount at the time.

WWI began and on August 5, 1917, the New York National Guard was called into active federal duty. Two days prior, on August 3, 1917, in anticipation of the drafting of the state’s National Guard for the war, the Adjutant General of New York organized a state military force. The New York Guard was formed to replace the National Guard regiments called to overseas duty. A Provisional Brigade of the New York Guard was created from existing units to protect New York City’s water supply. After the Armistice was signed and the federalized New York National Guard units were returned to State status, the New York Guard units were deactivated. This pattern would be repeated each time the New York National Guard was activated for federal service.

The role of National Guard armories as civic centers in New York expanded further after WWI with their members often at the center of promoting community stability and well being. During the years of the Depression, this need was further expanded; armories provided a safe place for local social events. The use of armories for cultural, recreational, political and civic gatherings within the communities was often more frequent than for military needs.

3.8 NORTH CAROLINA

Research for this project revealed only one published history specifically about the North Carolina ARNG. However, the North Carolina ARNG ICRMMP contains an overview of the Guard history in the state in addition to a complete dossier of all cultural resource or historic investigations about the North Carolina ARNG or its properties. Camilla Delber and colleagues also offer a succinct summary of the North Carolina ARNG history in an historic buildings survey they conducted for the Guard.
The colonial militia, in what would become North Carolina, was first organized to fight in a year long war against the Meherrin tribe in 1675. Another three years of Indian uprisings and wars took place beginning in 1711, and the militia expanded by forming more companies of volunteers to meet the threat. North Carolina militiamen also fought in two wars in the mid-18th Century against European colonial powers and defended the coast against Spanish privateers. The Spanish eventually tried to take Wilmington, but were repelled by the militiamen. The North Carolina militiamen also played key roles in several Revolutionary War battles with troop strength at over 8,000 Continentals and 32,000 local militia or irregular units.\textsuperscript{53}

The North Carolina General Assembly passed a law in 1806 creating the Adjutant General’s Department. The system of command and control of the state militia outlined in that legislation remained fundamentally unchanged for many years. The North Carolina National Guard (organized militia) was distinguished in the 1806 law from the general militia; the organized militia was identified as a pool of able bodied men available for military duty.\textsuperscript{54} The North Carolina state militia defended the coast during the War of 1812 and sent one regiment to the Mexican War (1846-1847).

North Carolina was a secessionist state in the Civil War, seceding in May 1861. North Carolina state militia contributed 125,000 Confederate troops in 70 regiments, 11 battalions, and 9 batteries during the Civil War, more than any other state. The Reconstruction Act of 1867 invalidated the state governments of the Confederacy, reassigning control to Union Army commanders who disbanded the state militia.\textsuperscript{55} The state government was turned back over to North Carolina in 1870 and, in 1877, a state law reinstated the North Carolina militia, placing their organization and training directly under the auspices of the Adjutant General’s office.\textsuperscript{56}

When the United States entered WWI, the 30\textsuperscript{th} Infantry Unit, “Old Hickory,” was formed, combining National Guard units from North and South Carolina and Tennessee.\textsuperscript{57} Before long, all North Carolina guardsmen would be called into active federal service. At the end of WWI, the North Carolina National Guard was disbanded. It was reorganized in 1920 to search for missing persons, perform strike duty, and prevent looting.\textsuperscript{58}

In the interim years between WWI and WWII, the North Carolina National Guard applied for and received WPA funding to build new armories. By 1940, 23 new brick armories

\textsuperscript{54} Parson Engineering Science, Inc., 22.
had been constructed, housing four North Carolina National Guard units. By 1942, another seven armories were added.\textsuperscript{59}

In 1940, when the United States was building its military forces in response to growing overseas turmoil, the North Carolina National Guard was once again called into active federal service.\textsuperscript{60} The 30\textsuperscript{th} Infantry Division took part in the invasion of Normandy. They went on to fight elsewhere in France, Belgium, the Netherlands, and then Germany.

3.9 OKLAHOMA

A published history of the Oklahoma ARNG, as well as, several reports of cultural resource investigations at Oklahoma ARNG facilities, provide the historic background for the state.

The Oklahoma militia was founded in 1890 as a citizen-soldier militia for the Oklahoma Territory. The early years were plagued with meager training, equipment, and funding.\textsuperscript{61} However, by 1898, the militia had developed into a coherent force; it was deployed to fight in the Spanish-American War with five companies of infantry and three troops of cavalry. The cavalry troops became a strong component of the 1\textsuperscript{st} United States Volunteer Cavalry Regiment, known as the “Rough Riders.”\textsuperscript{62}

In 1916, the Oklahoma National Guard was sent to the Mexican Border Crisis for a year.\textsuperscript{63} They had returned home for only a month when they were called again for federal service. The United States had entered WWI and, in 1917, the Oklahoma regiments were combined with those from the Texas National Guard to form the 36\textsuperscript{th} Infantry Division. The Division was sent to France where they fought for over a month.\textsuperscript{64} In 1923, the 45\textsuperscript{th} Infantry Division was organized as part of the National Guard with units stationed in Oklahoma, New Mexico, Colorado, and Arizona.\textsuperscript{65}

At the close of WWI, Oklahoma, like many other states, had no permanent facilities for many National Guard units.\textsuperscript{66} The Depression years hit Oklahoma particularly hard and large numbers of the population were unemployed. Major General W. S. Key, commander of the 45\textsuperscript{th} Division of the National Guard, resigned his position and became the State Director of the WPA. He helped lobby for WPA money to fund armory construction around the state. Bryan F. Nolen, an Oklahoma ARNG major and architect,
was placed on active duty to design armories. Warde and Everett, 4. Between 1935 and 1937, 51 new armories were constructed in Oklahoma. Warde and Everett, 4.

In 1940, the United States sent the 45th Division and three other National Guard divisions to combat in WWII. Kenny Franks, *Citizen Soldiers: Oklahoma’s National Guard* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1984), 53. The 45th remained on active duty for over five years, engaging in eight separate campaigns. Several of the Oklahoma armories (Haskell, Eufaula, Okemah, and Konawa) became holding centers for German prisoners of war that were detailed for agricultural labor. Warde and Everett, 6.

### 3.10 PENNSYLVANIA

The history of the Pennsylvania National Guard is a compilation taken from two sources, which give a very thorough account of the development of the National Guard in Pennsylvania. “Timeline of Pride” is from the Pennsylvania ARNG web site and includes photographs of their uniforms from 1747 through 2002. Pennsylvania Army National Guard, online. The 111th Infantry and the 103rd Engineer of the Pennsylvania Army National Guard trace their origination to the early “Associators” of 1681. The second source is the book *Civilian in Peace, Soldier in War* written by Michael Doubler.

The early militia in Pennsylvania developed in numerous ways. Each colony, except the Quaker, contributed to and participated in the Pennsylvania compulsory service. When William Penn established Pennsylvania in 1681, the Quakers had established peaceful relations with the Indians. They saw no reason to develop a militia until the middle of the 18th Century.

In 1747, Benjamin Franklin convinced 600 “gentlemen and merchants” of Philadelphia to sign the “Articles of Association” to provide for protection against the increasing threat from Indians and French privateers. They called themselves “Associators” and are recognized as the foundation of the Pennsylvania National Guard.

Conflict erupted between the French and the British over the construction of forts at the headwaters of the Ohio River in 1753. The crisis destroyed the peaceful conditions that had existed between the Quakers and the Indians for nearly a century, and prompted the Pennsylvania governing body to establish a formal militia. Although the Quaker pacifist religious beliefs resisted a formal militia, the Pennsylvania Assembly passed their first Militia law, on November 25, 1755, establishing a voluntary rather than compulsory service in the militia.

When Congress created the Continental Army in 1755, it was a Pennsylvania militia, the First Troop, Philadelphia City Cavalry that escorted George Washington to Cambridge,
Massachusetts on June 23, 1775.\textsuperscript{75} The Pennsylvania militia played a key role in the American Revolution. In 1776, they first supplied 6,000 troops for military operations in New York. Over the next seven years, Pennsylvania sent tens of thousands into service during the Revolution.\textsuperscript{76}

Over the next 100 years, the Pennsylvania militia answered the call to service during many conflicts including the Whiskey Rebellion in 1794, the War of 1812, and the Mexican-American War (1846-1848).

When Civil War broke out in 1861, President Abraham Lincoln declared the five units from Lehigh Valley, Pennsylvania as the “First Defenders.” This title remains an honor held by today’s 213\textsuperscript{th} Area Support Group. In 24 campaigns, over 200 regiments from Pennsylvania fought for the Union during the Civil War. In 1870, the name “militia” was dropped and the designation “National Guard of Pennsylvania” was formally adopted.

In 1879, the Pennsylvania National Guard decided to organize under one division. This division is the oldest division in the United States Army. Today it is known as the 28\textsuperscript{th} Division (Mechanized). The “keystone” symbol was adopted as its distinctive badge.

During the Post 1910 Era, the Pennsylvania National Guard served in the border patrols along the Mexican border (1916-1917). Some camped near El Paso, Texas while other units were sent to the Maifa Station and still others sent to Nogales, Arizona. While no action was seen along the border, time was spent in drilling and training, which prepared the Pennsylvania ARNG for the larger task, the battlefields in WWI. In 1917, troops were sent to Camp Hancock, Georgia before being deployed to Europe. Upon arrival in France, the “Keystone” (28\textsuperscript{th}) Division first trained with the British troops. They saw their first battle in July 1918 at Champagne-Marne. By the end of the “Great War,” a total of 2,837 Pennsylvania men were killed and 11,120 wounded. Many Pennsylvania guardsmen received honors from both the United States and France.

Between 1941 and 1945, the 28\textsuperscript{th} Division trained in the United States, England and Wales for landing in France on D-Day. In 1944, the 28\textsuperscript{th} Division earned the nickname “Bloody Bucket” Division as it was instrumental in stalling the last German offensive in the Battle of the Bulge. It cost the Division 2,000 soldiers to earn that title.

3.11 SOUTH CAROLINA

South Carolina is one of the few states included in this study with a comprehensive, written history of its ARNG. Gwen Rhodes and the History Book Research Staff at the South Carolina ARNG compiled the history at the request of the Adjutant General. In addition, a brief historic overview of the South Carolina ARNG is presented in Christina Anderson’s \textit{A Historic Resources Inventory and Survey of South Carolina Army National Guard Facilities}, as a historic context for her historic resources survey of ARNG facilities in the state.

\textsuperscript{75} Doubler, 48. The First Troop, Philadelphia City Cavalry is the oldest United States Army cavalry unit and now serves as Pennsylvania’s Troop A, 104\textsuperscript{th} Cavalry of the Pennsylvania Army National Guard.

\textsuperscript{76} Pennsylvania Army National Guard, online.
The South Carolina ARNG, like other states, originated from the colonial state militia. The first establishment of the militia in South Carolina occurred shortly after the founding of Charles Town in 1670 to help defend the settlement against Indian hostilities and Spanish incursions.\textsuperscript{77} By the 1690s, defense of the colony had become a major concern because of the increasing threat from the French and Spanish. Realizing that British war tactics were unsuitable for the terrain and conditions in the New World, the militia began earnestly training in “Indian war tactics.” The colonial militia engaged in numerous battles with both foreign powers, sustaining a serious attack at Charles Town by both the French and Spanish in 1706. Numerous battles with local Indian tribes and marauding pirates also followed.\textsuperscript{78}

Through most of its early history, the colonial militia in South Carolina was organized into geographically divided regiments with a colonel as the commanding officer.\textsuperscript{79} In 1733, the Charleston Light Dragoons was organized. They were an aristocratic unit from their inception, comprised of men from leading families.\textsuperscript{80}

In the early history of the South Carolina ARNG, there were two militias: the militia and the voluntary militia. The former was basically an unorganized pool of manpower with most men in the colony between 16 and 60 years old enrolled. The voluntary militia was considered the “skilled militia,” which met and trained on a regular basis and was the first called into service when troops were needed.\textsuperscript{81}

The militia would see considerable action through the early years, including involvement in the Cherokee Wars and skirmishes with the French, Spanish, and pirates. They were among the first involved in the Revolutionary War, beginning in 1775. They became known in the War for Freedom for their guerilla tactics and their ability to harass and succeed at hit-and-run warfare. In 1780, Charles Town was attacked and taken by the British.\textsuperscript{82} Eventually, the British were unable to hold their position and, after several decisive battles, withdrew their claim to the South. After the Revolutionary War, the South Carolina militia engaged in the Seminole War and the Mexican War.\textsuperscript{83}

Troops from South Carolina’s National Guard—including the Charleston Light Dragoons, organized in 1733 and renamed Troop A, South Carolina cavalry—were federally activated and sent to the Mexican Border Crisis and, shortly after, to active duty in WWI. Troop A Guardsmen were split from their original units and spread to other units in the Army. Like other states, with the bulk of their National Guard deployed to the war, South Carolina organized a replacement unit to oversee safety at home until the troops returned from war.\textsuperscript{84} After the war, the temporary unit was disbanded with the return of the normal South Carolina National Guard.

\textsuperscript{78} Rhodes, 19-20.
\textsuperscript{79} Rhodes, 21.
\textsuperscript{80} Rhodes, 21.
\textsuperscript{81} Rhodes, 21.
\textsuperscript{82} Rhodes, 21.
\textsuperscript{83} Rhodes, 26.
\textsuperscript{84} Gwen R. Rhodes, \textit{South Carolina Army National Guard} (Dallas: Taylor Publishing Company, 1988), 42.
South Carolina seceded from the Union on December 20, 1860, and the Civil War broke out four months later. During the Civil War, South Carolina provided 35 regiments of infantry, 7 regiments of cavalry, and 2 regiments of artillery to the Confederate cause. Cut off from food, ammunition, and clothing, South Carolina was one of the last States to surrender in 1865. South Carolina was then placed under military rule, for a period of economic, social, and political upheaval that became known as the Reconstructionist Years. The original militia was disbanded at the end of the Civil War. The new United States military government recognized a need for a peacekeeping militia to suppress crime in the state. A new militia was initially formed, comprised primarily of ex-Confederate soldiers; however, it was disbanded again, when Congress forbade the existence of state militias in the south.

In 1868, the new constitution of South Carolina was ratified. The new constitution contained an article for the election of an Adjutant General. South Carolina remains the only state in the Union today that still elects their Adjutant General by popular vote. No forces served under the Adjutant General until 1869, when Congress reinstated the right of southern states to organize state militias. The force organized by South Carolina after 1869 received the name “National Guard.” Even though South Carolina recognized the state troops as the National Guard it still maintained a “dual” militia system until 1905. While the National Guard was primarily black the volunteer troops were white. This caused considerable turmoil for years with many clashes between white and black militia.

Forces from the South Carolina militia were sent to Cuba in the Spanish-American War in 1898. The troops saw no action, but many men were lost to unsanitary conditions in camp. After their return to the states and prior to World War I, the South Carolina National Guard was called out repeatedly to suppress civil disturbances, primarily involving racial clashes. Following the passage of the Dick Act in 1903, the South Carolina National Guard underwent significant reorganization, incorporating both the previous National Guard and the state militia with no racial distinctions. To conform to the Dick Act, South Carolina’s legislature passed a new South Carolina Military Code, resulting in a reduction of troops in the state. In 1905, the first permanent National Guard armory was built in South Carolina on Assembly Street in Columbia.

Between WWI and WWII, the National Guard units would return to their previous duties of local peacekeeping and relief efforts during natural disasters. Many of their assignments still involved racial conflicts, protection of African American prisoners from lynching mobs, keeping peace during labor riots, and assisting sheriffs in apprehending criminals.

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86 Rhodes, 31-32.
87 Rhodes, 32.
88 Rhodes, 32-33.
89 Rhodes, 35.
After the passage of the 1933 National Guard Status Bill, the South Carolina National Guard underwent another complete reorganization. That same year, the South Carolina National Guard became motorized, replacing most of the horse drawn equipment with motorized units. There was a great need for permanent armories in the state and South Carolina also benefited from the WPA program for their construction. Beginning in 1936, 38 new armories were constructed in the state.91

In 1941, the United States entered WWII and the South Carolina National Guard was called into federal service once again. They saw combat in England, North Africa, France, and Italy. The men of the “Old Hickory” Division were a part of the Normandy Invasion in 1944 and the Battle of the Bulge.92 They returned to the United States in 1945.

3.12 TENNESSEE

No comprehensive published history of the Tennessee ARNG was found. The Tennessee ARNG ICRMP provides detailed historic contexts for the three major ARNG installations in the state: Smyrna, Milan, and the Chattanooga Readiness Complex. In addition, a history of the Tennessee ARNG can be found online. Those sources were consulted to develop the historic summary of the Tennessee ARNG presented below.

The militia in Tennessee initially formed in 1774 in response to a Shawnee Indian threat. Several battles were fought between this early militia and the Shawnee Indians.93 In October 1780, irregular forces of 1,000 men from Tennessee Territory, known as the “mountain men,” fought against Hessian mercenaries and British troops winning the battle at King’s Mountain, South Carolina. This battle was considered the turning point in the south for the fight for United States independence. The mountain men were intimately involved in the War of 1812, fighting against the Red Sticks of the Creek Nation, who were fighting on behalf of the British. Andrew Jackson led the Tennessee militia to victory in these battles with his lieutenants William Carroll and Sam Houston.94 All three were propelled to national acclaim for their successful leadership and military abilities.

Andrew Jackson was appointed Major General in the United States Army and given command of the southern military district. William Carroll became major general of the Tennessee militia on November 13, 1814, winning distinction of service in the defense of New Orleans in January 1815.95 Sam Houston, who was known as “the Raven,” was elected Governor of Tennessee by a large majority. While governor, and after a brief marriage that ended unfavorably, Houston resigned from Tennessee politics. In 1832 he moved to Texas along with a few friends and went on to become an important figure in the history of the Texas militia.

91 Rhodes, 45.
94 United States Army National Guard, online.
95 William Carroll went on to serve two terms as governor of Tennessee, from 1821-1827, and from 1829-1835.
Almost immediately after Jackson’s appointment as commander of the southern military
district, the British invaded the Gulf Coast and Jackson led the Tennessee militia and
troops from other states to a decisive victory known as the Battle of New Orleans. Three
years later, he led another force composed primarily of Tennessee militiamen to Florida
to fight against the Seminole Indians. As a side result of that incursion, their arrival
convinced Spain to cede Florida to the United States.96

During the Civil War, Tennessee along with other border states, experienced one of the
most tragic episodes of its history. Members of the same family often found themselves
on opposite sides of the conflict and entire communities were torn apart with the
divisions. Tennessee was the second most frequent location for battles and conflicts
during the war. Three regiments of the State Guard were the first to respond to the call
of the Confederacy to defend Virginia.97 They were engaged in all battles in Virginia
during the Civil War and in Gettysburg, PA. They remained under the Virginia command
until 1865 at the close of the war.

After the Civil War, Reconstruction (1865-1877) was imposed on Tennessee as a former
Confederate state. During this time, Union forces continued to operate in the South while
all state militia activity was suspended in Tennessee. In 1876 all Southern state militias
were returned to state control.

During the Spanish American War of 1898, the Tennessee militia was asked for
volunteers. The state sent four regiments into service and was the only state in the
nation to stay on to serve during the Philippine Insurrection. The Army Chief of Staff
Summerall stated of the Tennessee militia, “I can say deliberately that the Tennessee
Battalion of the 37th United States Infantry Regiment to be the best soldiers I have ever
known, and it is an honor to have been associated with them.”98

During WWI, seven regiments of Tennessee state troops formed the nucleus of the 30th
Infantry Division, which won more Medals of Honor than any other unit during the war.99
Like other states, whenever the ARNG was called into active federal service, a State
Guard was formed to fulfill their domestic duties. Upon the return of the forces from
overseas, the State Guard was dismantled.100

Tennessee’s industrial sector experienced a number of labor disputes during the years
following the Depression. Between 1929 and 1940, the National Guard was called in to
quell several major strikes. The most violent labor dispute in Tennessee occurred when
the fabricating plant of the Aluminum Company of America at Alcoa ceased operations
on May 18, 1937. Three thousand workers, led by the American Federation of Labor
(AFL), demanded a wage increase. On July 8, non-striking workers returned to work

96 United States Army National Guard, online.
97 United States Army National Guard, “Tennessee: History of National Guard,” August 2, 2004,
http://home.att.net/~dcannon.tenn/TNSGHIST.html
99 Rhodes, 42.
100 Rhodes, 42.
under police protection. A pitched battle between strikers and police took place; two men were killed and 21 wounded. The National Guard was ordered out and remained on the scene until the strikers returned to work on July 12. An agreement was negotiated by a representative of the AFL. Demands of the strikers, however, had not been met.

On September 6, 1940, Franklin Roosevelt called part of the National Guard into federal service. Tennessee had been assigned to the 30th Division under the Army’s reorganization of Guard units for federal emergencies during the 1920s. Their success at breaking the German defense lines was so great that the German High Command called them Roosevelt’s “Shock Troops.” As in other states, whenever the ARNG was called into active federal service, a State Guard was formed to fulfill their domestic duties. Upon the return of the forces from overseas, the State Guard was dismantled.\footnote{United States Army National Guard, “Tennessee: History of National Guard,” August 2, 2004, <www.globalsecurity.org/military/agency/army/arng-tn.htm>.}

\section{Texas}

Two primary sources were consulted for the history of the Texas ARNG: Bruce Olson’s online history and Texas ARNG ICRMP. Numerous other cultural resources studies have been conducted on the Texas ARNG and its properties, which are detailed in the Texas ICRMP.

Sam Houston played an important role in the early Texas militia. In 1835, just three years after his arrival, Houston was appointed general of the military district east of the Trinity. He attended a Convention that met in 1836 to declare independence from Mexico, at which time, he was elected commander-in-chief of the armies of Texas. After the Alamo fell to Santa Anna’s army, Houston immediately took control of the Texas forces and conducted the retreat of the army to the site of the Battle of San Jacinto. On April 21, 1836, his force defeated Santa Anna in this battle, thereby gaining independence for Texas.

It was during this period that the Texas ARNG began as the First Army of Texas Volunteers (First Army) in response to a need for armed forces in the Texas Revolution in 1835.\footnote{Texas Army National Guard. “Integrated Cultural Resources Management Plan for the Texas Army National Guard 2002-2006” (Austin: Texas Army National Guard, Camp Mabry, 2002), 3-19.} Following the defeat of the Mexican Army, independence was declared on March 2, 1836, and within days the interim government was formed for the newly created Republic of Texas.\footnote{Texas Army National Guard, 3-19.} The First Army continued service after independence due to continued bandit attacks, as well as Indian attacks. In 1845, Texas became the 28th state and the state militia fell under state and federal legislation for its funding, organization, and oversight. The Texas Militia Act of 1846 geographically divided Texas into five divisions and ten brigades.\footnote{Olson, Bruce. “Texas National Guard,” Handbook of Texas Online, December 4, 2002, The Texas State Historical Association, <http://www.tsha.utexas.edu/handbook.online/articles/view/tt/qnt2.html>, 2.}

After the Civil War, Texas formed a Committee of Public Safety to deal with issues of security and defense. The frontier was divided into three districts and the volunteer militia was called on to defend them. The Texas legislature reorganized the militia into a
frontier regiment of Rangers and State Troops. These troops had a three-pronged mission: (1) defense of the frontier against Indian and Mexican intrusions, (2) defense of the coast from Union troops, and (3) identification and suppression of Union loyalists.105 After the defeat of the Confederacy, the Texas militia was abolished under the Reconstruction Act of 1867. This situation lasted for three years, until 1870, when the United States Congress readmitted Texas into the Union. Although Texas was once again part of the Union, it still remained under Reconstruction rule by the federal government.

The Governor reinstituted a state militia in 1870 that was composed of the State Guard of Texas and the Reserve Militia. The State Guard was comprised of volunteers while all other men between the ages of 18 and 45 became part of the Reserve Militia.106 The State Police were also created at this time and became responsible for protection of the citizens and property, oversight of law and order, and for maintaining the peace.107 The State Guard and Reserve Militia were responsible for defense against foreign invasion, as well as assisting state, county, or local police during civil emergencies.108

In 1872, Reconstruction ended under new democratic rule in the Congress. The Texas Militia Law of 1870 was amended, dissolving the State Police and combining the State Guard and Reserve Militia into one force.109 The new combined militia, however, was segregated between black and white troops. In 1874, the Frontier Battalion, a branch of the Texas Rangers, was created to assume the duty of Mexican border patrol.110 The militia was then able to focus on their more traditional duties, such as control of blacks and Mexicans, and labor unrest. The militia was called the "Uniformed Militia" until the Texas Militia Act of 1879, when they were renamed as the "Texas Volunteer Guard." In 1903, they became the Texas National Guard.111

Following the Dick Act of 1903 (as amended in 1908) and the National Defense Act of 1916, the Texas National Guard underwent numerous reorganizations.112 Between 1910 and 1917, the Mexican Revolution caused numerous border troubles and was the single most frequent cause for activations of the Texas National Guard.113 At the onset of the United States involvement in WWI, there was a flurry of military construction activity in Texas, including the building of Camp Mabry in Austin. To replace the Texas National Guard troops called into service during WWI, the Texas legislature formed the New National Guard in 1918, which was dismantled once the regular troops returned home.114 Between WWI and WWII, the Texas National Guard was activated numerous times to respond to incidents caused by racial tensions and other outbreaks of violence around the state. In addition, they were called upon to enforce prohibition, anti-gambling laws,

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106 Olson, 2-3.
107 Olson, 2-3.
108 Olson, 2-3.
109 Olson, 2-3.
110 Olson, 4.
111 Olson, 5.
112 Olson, 6.
113 Olson, 5.
114 Olson, 6.
and assist in oil production during the oil field and Gulf Coast dock strikes. In the 1930s, a new Department of Public Safety (DPS) was formed. The DPS took over the policing duties of the Texas National Guard, who were then able to focus upon disaster relief duties. WPA funds were drawn upon prior to WWII and a large military construction effort began, including the expansion of Camp Mabry.\textsuperscript{115}

The Texas National Guard was mobilized in 1940 for WWII engagement. Not only was Texas’ 36th Infantry Division the first U.S. division to land on the continental of Europe (at Salerno, Italy), Texas National Guard units fought against the Japanese. Some units were sent to New Caledonia, while others fought in New Guinea and in the Philippines. Texas troops were also sent to Burma.\textsuperscript{116}

3.14 REGIONALISM

The following observation on regionalism is based solely on the specific armories that were visited and researched within this study. These observations are in no way meant to be comprehensive and remain open for interpretation on a site-by-site basis.

During the early twentieth century, the ARNG was establishing itself as a state-affiliated, yet national, military organization. With increased federal recognition, the National Guard was finally finding acceptance as a viable security force for their home state, as well as a supplement for the military forces for national security.

As federal acceptance and recognition increased, the idea of regionalism began to decline. New policies established by the Dick Act of 1903 and 1908 resolved issues that had kept the National Guard from full federal recognition. The National Defense Act of 1916 established a uniformity of federal support and recognition for the National Guard such as Universal Military Training (UMT) and the Reserve Officers Training Corp (ROTC). Armories built during this period were designed for the purpose of training and housing troops.

The individuality of identity that was common under state order was now being eliminated. Any regional differences that still existed were slowly disappearing. One form of regionalism that can be identified during this period is in the names of the various state Guard units that linked them to their past, such as the Keystone Division from Pennsylvania or the Irish (69th) Regiment of New York. This allowed the ARNG to retain the rich history and sense of pride of their local divisions. While there was a brief movement to eliminate any recognition of the troops pride in their state divisions during WWI, it was unsuccessful. However, armories constructed during this period still maintained a regional aspect, which is discussed in detail in Section 4.0.

It is important to note that during the New Deal Era, federal funding administered through the PWA and WPA, made it possible for all states to upgrade and improve their armory conditions. Also, with the entire country suffering financial hardship during the

\textsuperscript{115} Texas Army National Guard, “Integrated Cultural Resources Management Plan for the Texas Army National Guard 2002-2006” (Austin: Texas Army National Guard, Camp Mabry, 2002).

Depression years, the enrollment into the National Guard increased substantially in the urban and rural regions of the nation. Young men that were out of work were able to make a living by serving in the National Guard. While armories were designed specifically for the gathering and training of the National Guard, it was not the only use during this period. The armories served their local communities, in urban and rural areas alike, as centers for social, cultural entertainment and recreational gatherings. While funding was universal, architectural type varied from state to state. Further discussion on architectural type follows in Section 4.0.
4.0 ARCHITECTURAL OVERVIEW OF ARMY NATIONAL GUARD ARMORIES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In 1991, Dianna Everett states in *Historic National Guard Armories: A Brief Illustrated Review of the Past Two Centuries* that of “approximately 2,600 state-owned armories, approximately twelve to fifteen percent qualify as "historic," that is, have survived at least fifty years past the original date of their construction.”¹ As the United States enters the 21st Century, the ARNG currently (at the writing of this report) occupies 2,783 armories, more than 90 percent of which are state-owned facilities.

The time frames for the architectural overview of this report, as defined by Everett (1991), include: Pre-Civil War, Post Civil War, Post-1910, New Deal Program, and Post-World War II.² Everett relied heavily on Robert Fogelson’s *America’s Armories: Architecture, Society and Public Order* (Harvard University Press, 1989), as well as Willard B. Robinson’s *American Forts: Architectural Form and Function* (University of Illinois, 1977). The architectural eras of armory design, as outlined by Everett and recognized by the ARNG, are condensed and discussed in further detail within this section of the Historic Context Study.³

4.2 PRE-CIVIL WAR ERA (PRIOR TO 1861)

The varying architectural styles of the armory throughout this and all other periods discussed in the historic context study were influenced, in part, by regional history of the ARNG. For example, a large gap in the development of state militias is very evident when looking at New York in relationship to California. While the New York militia was dealing with industrial riots in 1849, California was just beginning to form their state militia. Likewise, construction of armories occurred in heavily populated areas with the armory serving as a point of defense until the 1830s. After 1830, defense needs changed as Indian uprisings decreased east of the Mississippi. In direct relation to this decrease, the number of state militia troops began to decline as well. However, the western states were just beginning to develop their militias. Armories in rural areas were few, if any. Also, the location of armories and militia units were found to be more abundant in the northeastern states, which were the heavily industrialized urban centers of the country. Armories have always stood as a symbol of the dedication of the citizen-soldier in providing protection to both state and nation. Prior to the Civil War, the Federal Arsenal Program established two types of armories: the “arsenal” and the “armory.” Armories were constructed by both the federal government and state governments. An

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² Everett, 1.
³ Although in some instances, there are outbuildings located at some of the sites, a separate historic context of these property types is not included in the overall discussion, except in the individual inventory forms, when applicable. These separate components of armories, often constructed as hangars, warehouses, detached garages (often called Ordnance Maintenance Shops or OMS) and motor vehicle storage buildings, are typically considered non-contributing as they are not architecturally or historically significant. If built within the period of significance, these ancillary outbuildings may be included as a contributing source. Furthermore, a discussion of the surrounding community was discussed, when relevant to the overall context, in the architecture section of each volume. A brief surrounding site description was included in each inventory form.
arsenal consisted of one or more buildings to manufacture, store, and manage arms and ammunition. Arsenals were never used for assembly or drill of the militia.

Throughout most of the antebellum period (roughly defined as 1840 to 1860), armories in contrast to arsenals, were typically located in rented spaces including taverns and hotels, on the upper floors of stables and in Masonic and Odd Fellows halls. Drills were held out of doors in fair weather and cavalry units leased nearby riding academies. As stated in Fogelson, “through the first third of the nineteenth century, the volunteers found these arrangements satisfactory. But shortly thereafter, several changes took place which led many of them to conclude that a rented room no longer sufficed for an armory.” The reasons for this change in attitude included the need to provide storage for arms and ammunition, a place for frequent drill assignments, and social gatherings. A need for permanency was paramount and volunteers made their pleas to the cities for new, more efficient headquarters.

Armories were community-based facilities that served as training centers for the volunteer militia as well as for storage and manufacture of arms and ammunition. Their ground floors frequently served as markets for the local citizens. The pre-Civil War armories were built of thick, load bearing masonry walls. During and after the American Revolution, Congress provided for National defense against foreign invasion. The federal government maintained several national arsenals including Harpers Ferry, West Virginia, which was established in 1796, and the arsenal at Springfield, Massachusetts, that dates from the American Revolution.

After the acquisitions in the Southwest resulting from the Guadalupe/Hidalgo Treaty of 1848, defense of the new territory became paramount. In 1851, the United States built the Benicia Arsenal northeast of San Francisco. It consisted of one wood-frame building. (Fifteen more buildings constructed of stone and wood-frames were added between 1853 and 1863).

The architecture of pre-Civil War arsenals and armories was based on revivals of classical Greek architecture as well as Romanesque and Italianate styles. However, generally speaking, early examples of armory architecture resembled other building types and were not in themselves a distinguishable property type. Some state governments began constructing armories as early as 1798 where Greek-Revival design in a "castellated" form was a popular architectural style (Figure 1). Another example can be found in the Kentucky State Arsenal in Frankfort, Kentucky, built in 1850. As the nation’s population expanded west, a system of "national arsenals" was created to solve the logistical problem of supplying the army in developing regions.

The Romanesque and Italianate styles were

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4 Fogelson, 8.
5 Everett, 6.
dominated by semi-circular or round-arched window openings. Rooflines were on a broad horizontal plane. After 1840, typical details included quoins used to accentuate the buildings corners. The Romanesque style included round-arched entryways often found in the castellated armory style. Regardless of the style, armories of this period had large ground floor-level doors and windows that allowed easy access. The buildings were often connected to other commercial units on either side, which softened the armory’s foreboding appearance as a fortress.

A few examples of armories built during this nascent period of armory architecture include Brooklyn’s Henry Street Armory (1858) (Figure 2), designed in the Romanesque Revival style and Philadelphia’s National Guards Hall (1857) influenced by villa design of the Italian Renaissance and Tompkin’s Market Armory (1861) (Figure 3), an imposing Italianate styled building hailed as the finest in the world. "In the absence of a distinctive architectural form that would have distinguished armories from retail stores, office buildings, and other commercial and civic structures, it is no surprise that the nation’s most prominent armory [Tompkin’s] was often mistaken for a library.”

Today, there are two Pre-Civil War Era armories that are extant: the Jackson, Michigan, Armory constructed in 1850 and the Jericho, Vermont, Armory, built in 1860. Both are still in use as armories and are owned by the ARNG. Neither of these armories was inventoried (site visited) as part of this ARNG project.

Pre-Civil War armories, although sometimes ornate in their design, were as a whole, without merit as a recognizable property type. “[T]hese armories lacked a distinctive architectural form that would have made it clear what kind of buildings they were (and

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6 Fogelson, 122.
what kinds they were not)." Furthermore, "they did not look much like the homes of a military organization, much less like the forts which dotted the eastern seaboard of the United States or the fortresses which covered much of Western Europe. Nor did they look much like one another." 

The apparent inactivity of armory construction during the Civil War years was generally due to the deployment of units into federal duty, and in some cases, inactivity of the guard across the United States. For instance, as Fogelson points out in his book America’s Armories, during the Civil War years, "The campaign for armories labored under several handicaps, perhaps the most severe of which was that after the Civil War, the volunteer militia was, as one scholar has written, ‘at its lowest ebb in our history.’ All but a few elite units had trouble attracting recruits, retaining members, and raising money." For example, Fogelson states that between 1860 and 1868, Pennsylvania lost more than 90 percent of its citizen-soldiers.  

4.2.1 Architects of the Pre-Civil War Era

Only one architect associated with Pre-Civil War era armory construction was identified. Source: “MPDF: Army National Guard Armories in New York State, National Register of Historic Places Nomination.”

H. N. White, NY

4.3 POST-CIVIL WAR ERA: 1866-1910

After the war and after the abolishment of slavery, the South was in near financial ruin and remained that way well into the 20th Century. Although measures were taken to provide equal rights to Black Americans, the southern states were slow to incorporate the laws into individual state constitutions. In 1870, Congress passed the 15th Amendment to the Constitution guaranteeing blacks the right to vote. Several southern states incorporated grandfather clauses in the attempt to keep blacks from voting. In many cases these laws managed to remain intact well after 1910 until they were declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. When the Union troops finally left the southern states in 1877, many of the states found ways to revert back to a form of segregation in a blatant act of disregard for the Civil Rights Act of 1866.

The South was slow to recover from the economic hardships that resulted from the Civil War and Reconstruction. Because of this, the construction styles and materials of armories in the southern states differed greatly from their Northern counterparts. Armories of the Pre-Civil War Era did not, as discussed earlier in Volume I, have a distinct architectural style and were often confused with other types of commercial or institutional properties. However, the Romanesque and Italianate styled armories of the Post-Civil War armories did, indeed, include round-arched entryways often found in the

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7 Fogelson, 120.
8 Fogelson, 121.
10 The Supreme Court declared the grandfather laws which disenfranchised the black vote unconstitutional in 1915 and again in 1939.
"castellated" armory style, a type of armory design that exploded during the 1880s through the first decade of the 20th Century.

In 1863, New York’s 22nd Regiment Armory was built in the French Second Empire style that became popular throughout America beginning in 1860. Regardless of the style, armories of this period had large ground floor level doors and windows that allowed easy access. The buildings were often connected to other commercial units on either side, which softened the armory’s foreboding appearance as a fortress.

Following the Civil War, the state militias underwent a revival, largely due to the needs of the industrializing states in the Northeast and Midwest for a peace force to use during strikes and periods of labor unrest. It became apparent the militia could not be effective as a group unless they could assemble on a regular basis in facilities that would allow them to effectively, efficiently, and economically run their regiments.

Americans feared class warfare and social revolution between socialists and the elites. The Haymarket Affair of 1886 “triggered the first major “red scare” in American history.”11 Prior civil disorder included the Draft Riots of 1863, the Paris Commune of 1871, and the Railroad Strike of 1877. As Fogelson stated, “an English visitor found that many affluent Americans had “an uneasy feeling that they were living over a mine of social and industrial discontent, with which the power of Government, under American institutions, was wholly inadequate to deal; and that some day this mine would explode and blow society into the air.”12 Subsequently, many military units sought financial support from state legislatures to assist in preserving public order, thereby aiding in the construction of new, modern facilities.13 In spite of serious protests from socialist labor parties, who believed that the “armories were a manifestation of class warfare...a war of the plutocracy against the people,” a surge in armory construction took place between 1880 and 1910.14

Although the castellated style made an appearance in armory design in the pre-Civil War Era, the style became widely used between 1880 and 1910, with one major difference. It transitioned from a commercial type of building to a real armory style. The style combined elements from Romanesque, Medieval Gothic, Italianate and Second Empire to create an imposing yet visually appealing blend as seen in New York City’s 7th Regiment Armory (Figure 4), designed by Charles W. Clinton, a member of the militia. Clinton’s plan for the 7th Regiment Armory was, to a large degree, a prototype for the interiors of future armory design. His plan essentially divided the armory into two functionally separate sections: (1) an administrative wing (from one to three stories), sometimes referred to as a head house and (2) an attached rear unit used as a drill-hall (Figure 5). Most exceptional of the 7th Regiment Armory was the actual design of the interior by artist Louis Comfort Tiffany and architect Stanford White. Heralded by the 7th Regiment Armory, the castellated Gothic Revival was the most popular architectural style for armories during the late 19th Century.

11 Fogelson, 22.
12 Fogelson, 24.
13 Fogelson, 63. Fogelson points out that during this period, armory construction became a form of “pork barrel legislation.” See page 66.
14 Fogelson, 72-76.
Figure 4- New York City’s 7th Regiment Armory
Source: Fogelson

Figure 5- New York City’s 7th Regiment Armory Drill Shed
Source: Fogelson
The castellated Gothic Revival style featured battlements or crenellations as well as towers and turrets (Figures 4 and 5). The result was an imposing building with an appearance of strength and permanence. Entries were made of “heavy wood with a metal slab with a protecting “portcullis” (Figure 6) or metal grate.” Examples of armories in the castellated style were built from coast to coast, but were most prevalent in the northeastern states as funding in these areas was more readily available. The style even appears in smaller towns on a smaller scale, built to house local guard units. The exterior walls of these armories stood as a reminder that domestic social order would be maintained, militarily, if necessary.

Interior space was another matter. Although the armories were built for defense, the interior space was utilized by the organizations that occupied them for purposes other than military. Since militia units resembled fraternal organizations, the armory often served as a space for socializing as well as for military training. The armory housed libraries, clubrooms and recreation centers and offered what many large cities provided through men’s clubs. For instance, the offices, classrooms, arms vault/equipment storage and recreation area would be located in the “head house” of the armory. Usually attached to the head house on the ground floor was a vaulted ceiling drill hall. In the larger armories, the drill hall was spacious enough for the entire regiment to practice their standard close-order drills. All other activities would take place in a separate wing or section of the armory.

“From the 1880s through the 1910s and on, armories were designed by local architectural firms hired by state officials of the Guard.” It is not surprising that the architects selected to design the armories had gained their reputations in designing banks, hospitals and government buildings. Notable armories of this Post Civil War Era include Philadelphia’s 1st Troop Armory (Furness and Hewitt, 1874), one of the first armories to actually feel like a fortress; it was characterized by prominent crenellation and a massive rusticated foundation—all hallmarks of medieval military architecture (Figure 9). In 1881, the well-known firms of Burnham and Root planned Chicago’s First Regiment Armory; the firm of Holabird and Roche prepared the design for the Chicago Avenue Armory in 1910.

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15 Everett, 16.
16 Everett, 17.
17 According to Fogelson, these large drill sheds were directly influenced by the design of railroad stations, with their head house and adjoining train shed that employed the use of large, iron trusses to create unobstructed rooms.
18 Everett, 14.
19 Fogelson, 122-124.
New York was the leader in designing and constructing the castellated armory, epitomized by the 7th Regiment Armory. The castellated style, during this period of armory construction, was here to stay. Architects involved in castellated style armory projects in New York City, many of who championed functionalism, included James Ware, John R. Thomas, John P. Leo, W. A. Cable and E. A. Sargent. As the style spread to other parts of New York, William Mundell, Isaac Perry, Fowler and Hough and Rudolph L. Daus took their cues from the massive, fortress-like castellated armories in the city.

Outside of New York, architects such as Charles A. Gifford (New Jersey), James H. Windrim (Philadelphia), Olin Cutter and William G. Preston (Massachusetts), William Walker and Son (Rhode Island), Lehman and Schmitt (Cleveland) either held fast to the castellated style or developed their own more moderate versions of this ever-popular form.

In the end, the castellated style with thick masonry walls, limited yet imposing entrances, sparse number of inaccessible narrow fenestrations, sally ports, turrets, towers, battlements, and machicolations was designed by architects such as the firm of Burnham & Root. Architects, like the guardsmen, feared class warfare when they explained:

"[The armory should] be the perfect embodiment of the spirit of regimental life in peace or in war; which practically means accommodations of every sort for occupation by the organization, for maintaining them in health, for sustaining life in case of siege, and, so far as construction is concerned, that perfect defense without should be possible against all weapons but heavy artillery. The result is a building which should be held against any mob, unless it rise to the dignity of a revolutionary force, and be possessed of heavy ordnance. The conditions are practically identical with those, which caused the building of mediaeval castles, and the design being thus cause by analogous conditions, is strongly suggestive of a fortress."

Fogelson’s (and therefore, Everett’s) view of armory construction and architectural styles leads one to believe that the United States was steeped in a widespread grand tradition of castellated armory building after the Civil War well into the turn of the century.

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20 Functionalism can be thought of as form follows function.
21 Of course, there were some exceptions to building armories in the castellated style, such as the Third Regiment Armory (Philadelphia) and the J.J. Bagley Memorial Armory (Detroit).
22 Fogelson, 158.
However, it must be pointed out that this surge of construction was typical only in urbanized, wealthy cities where financial allocations were easily procured. Such was the case with cities; for example, New York City, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, and St. Louis. As outlined in the Annual Reports for the fiscal years represented in this era of armory construction, it is continually stated that the:

“very unsatisfactory status of the armory question, which, as a rule, exists throughout the United States. With the exception of a very few States, the armory facilities provided are inadequate, both for storage purposes and for drill purposes…It is passing strange that a people like our own, which stands at the head of the world in its development of business methods and activity in regard to all civil and commercial occupations and lines, should permit itself to drift along in such an unbusinesslike [sic] way in matters military, especially as has been the case in many of the States in regard to providing suitable and adequate armory facilities.”

After the Civil War, the southern states of the Confederacy were too poor to construct new armories. Attesting to the economic woes of the South, an armory built in 1903 in Key West, Florida was of wood-frame construction. In the west, construction of new armories also lagged behind as territories struggled to become states at the turn of the century.

As of the publication of the report there are 46 Post Civil War Era (1866-1910) armories that are extant; most of these facilities are located in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts. Four of these Post-Civil War facilities were inventoried as part of this study: the 47th Regiment Armory (Brooklyn, NY, 1883); the Worcester Armory (Worcester, MA, 1891); the Troop C Armory (Brooklyn, NY, 1904) and the Pine Grove Armory (Pine Grove, PA, 1908). Both of the Brooklyn armories are eligible for listing in the NRHP, while the remaining facilities are currently listed in the NRHP.

The 47th Regiment Armory (William Mundell) (Figure 10), constructed in 1883 with an addition in 1900, is a fine example of the castellated style, with elements of the Gothic Revival. It is composed of three main parts: (1) the head house, (2) the original drill shed, and (3) a newer drill shed at the rear of the facility. Like the armory located on Marcy Avenue, the Troop C Armory (Pilcher & Tachau) (Figure 11) is a significant example of the castellated style, but with Art Nouveau detailing in the exterior and the interior. Its most prominent feature is the massive three-story drill shed. Most important, the Troop C Armory was not just designed as an armory, but also for use as a civic

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23 Report of the Chief, Division of Militia Affairs in the Office of the Secretary of War Relative to the Organized Militia of the United States, 1910. Washington, DC, 1910, 118-119. A 1906 annual report states that “a very large percentage of the militia companies are quartered in unsuitable rented buildings, and even in single rooms, which are not fitted either for drills or storage or for both.” See: Report of the Military Secretary of the Army Relative to the Militia of the United States for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1906. Washington, DC, Government Printing Office, 1907, 136. Jerry M. Cooper, in his book The Militia and the National Guard in America Since Colonial Times. Westport, CT.: Greenwood Press, Inc., 1993, states that while Fogelson’s book is “a valuable work on a neglected aspect of the Guard’s history,” it “relies too much on New York City for most of its evidence.” Cooper sees Fogelson focusing on the castellated armory architectural style as key evidence that the Guard’s function was to intimidate and, if necessary, crush an unruly working class. (See page 93.)
center. For the first time in the history of armory construction, the administration portion was designed to be subservient to the drill shed.

Figure 10- 47th Regiment Armory, Brooklyn, New York
The Worcester Armory (Fuller & Delano), constructed in 1889-1890 with an addition in 1907, and the Pine Grove Armory (architect unknown), constructed in 1908, are also designed in the castellated style with Gothic Revival vocabulary. In both locations, the large drill sheds are reached by the head house, while towers at the end bays mark the exteriors.

Early in the era of Post-Civil War armory architecture, many of the design cues were taken from the firm of Clinton & Russell, architects of some of the most imposing armories of the time. In a series of articles published in *The Brickbuilder* in 1908, Lieutenant Colonel J. Hollis Wells outlined the requirements for successful design including fireproofing, easy access, permanent materials such as brick and granite, iron grilles for street-level windows, substantially sized drill halls with clerestories, and specifics for the engineering of truss work for the interior of the hall.²⁴ Ironically, fear of class warfare prompted much of the Northeast to build fortress-like facilities; however, in the end, only a few were ever attacked by rioting mobs.

As the castellated style spread from New York to other parts of the United States, it was clear that this was now a recognizable, national property type and one that was subscribed to by architects, guardsmen, and the public alike. Inspired by such architectural theorists such as A. W. N. Pugin and E. E. Viollet-le-Duc, the character of the armory became a “symbol of authority, of the overwhelming power of the state….⁵⁰ Although many of these formidable armories appeared throughout the Northeast and parts of the Midwest and Southeast, much of the nation was left without adequate facilities in which to operate their regiments.

### 4.3.1 Architects of the Post-Civil War Era

The following list of architects, engineers and contractors was compiled from various sources including Robert M. Fogelson’s *American’s Armories*, State inventories and National Register of Historic Places Nominations.

²⁵ Fogelson, 155.
4.4 1910-1932

During this period, the ARNG was establishing itself as a state-affiliated, yet national, military organization. With increased federal recognition, the National Guard was finally finding acceptance as a viable security force for their home state, as well as a supplement for the military forces for national security.

As federal acceptance and recognition increased, the idea of regionalism began to decline. New policies established by the Dick Act of 1903 and 1908 resolved issues that had kept the National Guard from full federal recognition. The National Defense Act of 1916 established a uniformity of federal support and recognition for the National Guard such as Universal Military Training (UMT) and the Reserve Officers Training Corp (ROTC). Armories built during this period were designed for the purpose of training and housing troops.
The individuality of identity that was common under state order was now being eliminated. Any regional differences that still existed were slowly disappearing. One form of regionalism that can be identified during this period is in the names of the various state Guard units that linked them to their past, such as the Keystone Division from Pennsylvania or the Irish (69th) Regiment of New York. This allowed the ARNG to retain the rich history and sense of pride of their local divisions. While there was a brief movement to eliminate any recognition of the troops pride in their state divisions during WWI, it was unsuccessful. However, armories constructed during this period still maintained a regional aspect.

After 1910, the appearance of the armory began to change once again, as armory functions changed to reflect the nation’s new military philosophy and the lessening of public fears about civil unrest. The Dick Act of 1903 had legitimized the militia while the National Defense Act of 1916 strengthened the militia and required states to call their militia National Guard. The National Defense Act of 1916 solidified the National Guard’s position and connection to the growing federal military system. A new feeling of security was widespread, in that Americans no longer were concerned about mob attack or civil war. As a result, the design, materials, size, scale, and function of the armory significantly changed during this period of armory construction.

A huge influence on the design of the armory, as well as architecture as a whole in the United States, was the World’s Columbian Exposition (The White City) of 1893, which resulted in a “blow to functionalism” and a growing enthusiasm for classicism. The castellated armory eventually became obsolete, a transition that began with the design of Brooklyn’s Troop C Armory constructed in 1903 with interior details of Art Nouveau (Pilcher and Tachau). It appears that the turning point for the eventual elimination of the castellated style was marked by the competition for the State Arsenal and Armory in Hartford, Connecticut, held in 1907. Benjamin Wistar Morris’s winning design had “no towers, no turrets, no crenellations and machicolations, plenty of windows, and a high peaked roof covering the drill shed,” a true departure from the endlessly popular castellated style of the former period of armory design.

The demise of the true castellated style can also be seen in Holabird and Roche’s design for the Chicago’s 122nd Field Artillery Armory (Figure 12), begun in 1919 and completed in 1925. Modeled after the medieval French church, Ste. Cecile at Albi, the armory was styled less like a fortress with its lack of characteristic castellated vocabulary. When Lewis Pilcher was appointed state architect for New York in 1913, his designs for armories, with one exception, completely abandoned the castellated style. Other architects returned to the now popular Classical Revival style as seen in Pittsburgh’s Hunt Armory, 107th Field Artillery (1911-1916), designed by W. G. Wilkin’s Company (Figure 13).

After the reorganization of the National Guard in 1916, a nation-wide armory construction boom occurred in which a variety of architectural styles, often reflecting regional ethnic history, such as the Spanish or Mission style, were instituted. Standardized plans were

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26 Fogelson, 202.
27 Fogelson, 185.
28 Everett, 23-30. Fogelson refers to the church as St. Cecily Alby.
29 Everett, 30.
also implemented for the first time when, as Everett points out, Colorado instituted a state law to construct 19 armories using a standard plan by J. J. Huddart in 1922. After WWI, armories designed in the Modern style appeared in urban areas. This style eliminated the romantic classical themes along with the medieval heaviness that had dominated the armories of the late 19th Century.

Simplicity in design and lower costs were the order of the day. Typically, armories became utilitarian in function and had modest architectural detailing, if at all. The one marked change was the size and placement of the drill shed. The administration wing or head house became a less prominent feature, while the drill shed often overshadowed the entire facility. This allowed for multiple use of the drill shed. Civilians were now using the armory for non-military purposes such as community events.

Quite possibly the most significant affair to take place in an armory was the landmark art exhibit, entitled the Armory Show of 1913. Held at the 69th Regiment Armory in New York City, the exhibit included Duchamp’s *Nude Descending a Staircase*. This was a pivotal point in art history as the show, for the first time in United States history, introduced modern art to the country.

During the 1920s, armory design took on a new direction across the United States as architects employed the Art Deco style. This early modern design was characterized by a profuse use of geometric patterns frequently cast in concrete (Figure 14). By the start

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30 The Craig, Colorado, armory was replicated twelve times throughout the state. See Everett, 30.
31 The interior elegance of the late 19th Century armory faded as the military became less interested in using the armory as a clubhouse for officers and family.
of the 1930s, Art Moderne began to replace the choice of Art Deco design for armories. This style gave more emphasis to the horizontal plane, which was relieved by vertical elements with piers, buttresses, and window openings. Wall surfaces were smooth with rounded corners. According to Everett, this group of armories classed modernistic, like their castellated predecessors, are similar in appearance and are only distinguished by material and detail rather than shape and massing.32

As in the last era of architectural construction (Post-Civil War through 1910), Fogelson’s (and therefore, Everett’s) view of armory construction throughout the United States is skewed. This surge of construction was typical only in urbanized locations, although the trend was spreading further into the Midwest and Southern states toward the beginning of the 1930s. As outlined in the Annual Reports for the fiscal years represented in the first half of this era of armory construction, “The armories generally throughout the country are inadequate and unsuited for their purpose, and in many States there are no armories at all, but buildings or rooms are leased for the purpose. It is gratifying to state, however, that there is an awakening interest in this subject, and that in a number of States legislative enactments have been passed looking to the ultimate erection of armories.”33 It was also reported that National Guard officials complained of the leasing

32 Everett, 31.
of valuable training spaces within the facilities, such as for dog shows, poultry exhibits, church fairs, causing a “misuse . . . carried to excess . . .”\textsuperscript{34} Furthermore, approximately one-fourth of all drill halls were inadequate for instruction and about one-twelfth of the armories that were used for non-military purposes were interfering with gallery practice.\textsuperscript{35}

By the close of 1915, the \textit{Report of the Chief Division of Militia Affairs} observed that of the 2,009 armories, many were “capacious and magnificent and well suited for the purpose,” but there were still many that were inadequate for armory activities.\textsuperscript{36} As expected, some states were more liberal than others in their appropriations for armory construction. Curiously, none of the \textit{Annual Reports} or the \textit{Reports of the Chief Division of Militia Affairs} discussed armory design or architectural styles, but instead highlighted a synopsis of state activities and armory condition.

Today, there are 130 Post 1910-1932 Era armories that are extant; these facilities are generally located throughout the United States, with a concentration of facilities in the East, Midwest, and Western states. One of the armories constructed within this architectural era of armory construction was visited for this study—the Staten Island Armory, constructed in 1922. It is eligible for listing in the NRHP and meets the registration requirements summarized in the Multiple Property Survey for the New York National Guard (Figure 15).

\textbf{Figure 15 - Staten Island Armory, New York}  
Source: AHR,LLC, 2004

Designed by Harold Werner and August P. Windolph, the Staten Island Armory is the sole example of the obsolete castellated style to be built in New York after 1920. Utilitarian in design, the facility originally featured a drill shed at the front of the building. Like the castellated armories of the preceding era, the Staten Island Armory features large crenellated towers at its entry bay.

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{34} Report of the Chief, 1912, 46.
\item \textsuperscript{35} Report of the Chief, 1914, 10.
\item \textsuperscript{36} Report of the Chief, 1915, 44.
\end{itemize}
\end{footnotesize}
As the boom of the castellated style occurred during the Post-Civil War Era, especially during the 1880s and 1890s, the fading of the style during the first decades of the 20th Century was just as conspicuous. Besides a change in architectural vocabulary, the form of the armory became more prominent, the drill hall was often vaulted, two-stories or more in height, and overshadowed the administration wing. While there were gestures toward the castellated style, through the mid-1910s, the style was considered “too severe, too austere, to serve the light and decorative purpose for which an armory is intended.” The World’s Columbian Exposition of 1893, which exposed the beauty of classicism to the nation, had an undeniable influence on the design of armories. Now that “functionalism of the last century was on the wane, the architects saw no reason why the armory should retain a distinctive style,” and so ensued a new era of architectural styles.

Since class warfare was no longer a concern, the function of the armory took a new turn, and armories were often used as community centers and for public gatherings. No longer were these facilities built to look intimidating; they were now designed in styles that were not visually associated with defense. Armories designed in the Art Deco and Moderne styles were now in vogue, mostly funded by the WPA to create jobs for both skilled and unskilled laborers during the Depression.

The following list of architects, engineers and contractors was compiled from various sources including Robert M. Fogelson’s American’s Armories, State inventories and National Register of Historic Places Nominations.

4.4.1. Architects of the 1910-1932 Era

Architects:

Holabird & Roche, IL
J. J. Huddart, CO
Joseph F. Kuntz, PA
James E. McLaughlin, MA
Benjamin W. Morris, CT
Lewis F. Pilcher, NY
Tracy, Swartwout & Litchfield, NY
Harold Werner, NY
W. G. Wilkins Company, PA
August P. Windolph, NY
John W. Woollett & William L. Woollett, CA

Contractor
S. I. Construction Company, NY

4.5 NEW DEAL ERA: 1933-1942

It is important to note that during the New Deal Era, federal funding administered through the PWA and WPA, made it possible for all states to upgrade and improve their armory conditions. Also, with the entire country suffering financial hardship during the

37 Report of the Chief, 189.
Depression years, the enrollment into the National Guard increased substantially in the urban and rural regions of the nation. Young men that were out of work were able to make some money by serving in the National Guard. While armories were designed specifically for the gathering and training of the National Guard, this was not the only use during this period. The armories served their local communities, in urban and rural areas alike, as centers for social, cultural entertainment and recreational gatherings. While funding was universal, architectural type and materials used in construction varied from state to state.\(^{39}\)

Between 1933 and 1942, President Roosevelt’s New Deal for America set off a new wave of armory construction called the New Deal Armory Program. This program changed the way in which armories were built for decades. There were only 866 National Guard armories in the United States in 1934. Roosevelt established the PWA in 1933 and the WPA in 1935 as a way to put people back to work during the years of the Great Depression. The PWA and the WPA helped to remodel more than 500 armories and build 400 new armories by 1942.

In the beginning years of the PWA and WPA, there were distinctions between projects. The armories built by the PWA were the largest armories. These armories were cash funded, designed by professional architects and built by skilled labor. The WPA was in charge of building the smaller, local armories with unskilled labor. These small local armories were designed by local Guard members who were architects in their own right. Colonel Thomas H. Atherton, Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania, drew plans for eight armories from 1930 to 1939. Major Bryan Nolen drew the plans for armories built by the WPA in Oklahoma from 1936 through 1939; his three basic plans were repeated in more than 50 armories.\(^{40}\)

During the later years of the armory program, the WPA and PWA would reverse their project status. The PWA built medium-sized armories, while the WPA constructed some of the larger armories.\(^{41}\) Overall, the New Deal was able to breathe life back into the National Guard facilities.

Most of the "New Deal" armories were built west of the Mississippi River and in the poor southern states, where communities had been unable to afford armory buildings. This is illustrated by Fogelson when he states “Oklahoma alone was given fifty-two new armories and South Carolina forty-six.”\(^{42}\)

Armory architecture during this period followed a tendency “…towards simplification in architectural style.”\(^{43}\) Traditional styles such as a modified Medieval Gothic, Colonial Revival and Neoclassical were used. Regional “vernacular” styles included the Mission or Spanish Revival style, as seen in the Phoenix Armory (1936-1937) in Arizona that was built as an adobe brick complex. This armory had a hint of military/Deco vocabulary with stylized parapets and four crenellations.\(^{44}\) Many armories were constructed of

\(^{39}\) When at all possible, local materials were used in building construction. In the Central states, for instance, limestone and brick were prevalent, while in the southwest states, adobe and stucco were commonly used.\(^{40}\)
\(^{41}\) The majority of these one-company armories funded by the WPA were required to cost $25,000 or less.
\(^{42}\) Everett, 33.
\(^{43}\) Everett, 35.
\(^{44}\) Everett, 35.
concrete, such as the Darlington and Michigan City armories in Indiana, completed in 1937. The Darlington Armory was designed by John P. Parrish and was built entirely by WPA workers (unskilled). B. H. Bacon of Bacon & Tislow, Indianapolis, designed the

Modernistic armories were without region; however, the style was seldom employed in the South. In towns both large and small, Modernistic styles appeared with interpretations of Art Deco. By the end of the 1930s, the larger armories were to a great degree designed in the Moderne style. An excellent example of the New Deal armory can be found in the Minneapolis, Minnesota Armory (1936), known as the “PWA Moderne” (Figure 16). It is said to be the purest expression of the Moderne design built on a large scale.45 Designed by P.C. Bettenburg of Minneapolis (also the structural engineer on the project), the Minneapolis Armory features a modified flat-slab design, also known as the Smooth Ceiling system, developed and patented by Walter H. Wheeler, an engineer from Minneapolis.46

A unique design in armory construction is the Schenectady Armory (Figure 17) built in 1937, a collaboration between General Electric and J. R. Keays, the architect for the project. The armory was designed with “the largest welded plate girder and the largest welded arches of any building in the United States…”47

Although armories went through a complete revision of their exterior appearance, the interior space remained largely unchanged. As an example, the floor plan of the 1890s castellated armory is very similar to the floor plan of the Canonsburg Armory, Pennsylvania completed in 1938 by the PWA. Large armory construction retained the

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45 Everett, 39.
46 "Flat-Slab Design Produces Smooth Ceiling." Concrete, Vol. 44 (December 1936), 8-9. The article states that the floor slab over the garage constituting the floor of the drill hall is 12 1/2” thick and is designed for a live load of 150 pounds per square foot. The entire ceiling is a plane surface, without a single beam, panel or column capital.
administrative wing adjoining the drill hall on three of four sides, as illustrated by the Klamath Armory completed in 1939 in Klamath Falls, Oregon.

Another hold over from the past was the idea that, after WWI, armories served as community centers in small communities across the United States. The federal agencies, such as the PWA and WPA, retained the community center aspect.

Throughout the 1930s and 1940s, the drill hall, usually constructed with a raised stage at one end of the room, provided a venue for dances, concerts, plays and other civic events. Some armories included wooden floors and bleachers against one wall and often served as the arena for high school basketball games.48

Today there are 226 New Deal Era (1934-1942) armories that are extant; most of these facilities are generally located throughout the eastern half of the United States, in Washington State and California. One of the armories constructed within the New Deal architectural era and surveyed, was the Chattanooga (Tennessee) Armory, constructed in 1941 (Figure 18).

The Chattanooga Armory is an excellent example of the Art Deco style for military architecture. The property has undergone alterations such as an addition to the drill hall, new construction of several buildings on the property, replacement of the original windows on several buildings, the reroofing of the drill hall, and the addition of a perimeter metal fence. However, the historic property still retains an overall integrity of architectural style, design feeling, craftsmanship and materials.

In summary, due to the debt from WWI and the country’s overwhelming disillusion and general apathy toward military spending, there was also a slowdown in the construction of armories prior to the Depression. However, due to pressure from the National Guard, the WPA and the PWA launched hundreds of armory projects across the United States, especially in towns east of the Mississippi that previously could not afford to construct

48 Everett, 40.
accommodating facilities. By 1935, “the WPA took primary responsibility for construction of small, one-unit armories, leaving the larger headquarters buildings and multi-unit stations to the PWA.”\textsuperscript{49}

Many of these new armories were developed using Standardized Plans and, depending on available funding and regional tastes, adopted various architectural idioms (often combining several stylistic elements), including classical revivals, vernacular styles, and continued the traditions of Art Deco and Moderne that were introduced in the Post 1910 era of armory design.

4.5.1 Architects of the New Deal Era

The following list of architects, engineers and contractors was compiled from various sources including Robert M. Fogelson’s American’s Armories, State inventories and National Register of Historic Places Nominations.

**Architects**

Colonel Thomas H. Atherton, PA
B. H. Bacon, IN
P. C. Bettenburg, MN
William Haugaard, NY
Clarence T. and R. Bruce Jones, TN
J. R. Keays, NY
Maj. Bryan Nolen, OK
John P. Parrish, IN
Perkins, Chatten & Hammond, IL
Public Works Administration

\textsuperscript{49} Everett, 35. Everett states that by 1943, at the end of the WPA program, 400 armories had been built and had reconstructed 500 across the United States.
4.6 COLD WAR ERA: 1946-1989

While Alaska served national security, most of the National Guard units throughout the United States returned to monitoring civil needs. In contrast to Alaska, the Texas ARNG built armories that could serve the state as temporary shelters and hospitals during times of national disaster such as the flooding from hurricanes that were extremely devastating during the 1950s.

In 1957, President Eisenhower federalized the Arkansas National Guard and forced the integration of a high school in Little Rock. In 1963, President Kennedy compelled the segregationist governor of Alabama, George Wallace, to integrate the state's university system, a move that signaled the beginning of the end of the Jim Crow era. Many southern ARNG units, including some in Texas, were drawn into conflicts between their governor and the President during desegregation and the ensuing racial riots of the turbulent 1950s and 1960s. Since presidential orders superseded that of the Governor, the National Guard often quelled the incidents that were instigated by their own state government by their refusal to amend the outdated segregation or Jim Crow laws of the South.

After WWII, the ARNG was often requested to participate in federal programs. As an example, when the South Carolina ARNG took part in Operation Minuteman in 1955, they responded quickly and successfully. Subsequently, the South Carolina ARNG reorganized under the Pentomic Concept for fighting under nuclear warfare conditions. During this period, all state ARNGs underwent similar Pentomic Concept reorganization.

After the National Guard’s participation in operations such as Minuteman, supplying and outfitting ARNG units with the tools to provide for state and national defense became an issue of concern. When new military technology, armaments, and equipment became available, the equipment was first distributed to the Regular military. The ARNG have traditionally been the recipient of old, used, and at times, outdated equipment. An inventory of supplies and equipment could vary greatly from one ARNG unit to the next. The only generalization that can be made is that each unit is equipped as an individual for self-sustainability.

The ARNG, as a national organization, came of age during the Cold War years. Individual ARNGs continue to serve their states during civil emergencies while at the same time providing a reserve force on a national level. The identity of each unit of the ARNG seems to have maintained an individual spirit and identity that is deeply rooted in the history of the American militia system. This spirit of individuals working as a united force can be observed in the ARNG units serving their nation during the threat of terrorism that is being experienced globally today.
The design of armories drastically changed after WWII when the United States War Department and the Bureau of the Budget approved a $500 million armory construction program ($50 million/year for 10 years) for the National Guard and Organized Reserve Corps. The armory construction program, brought about by the introduction of the Gurney Bill in 1945, is described below:

“The States have long since taken the position that where units of the National Guard are required for the common defense in excess of those required by the States for their local security, that the Federal Government should bear at least its fair share of the cost of providing necessary housing, including armories, and such a provision is contained in the Approved War Department Policies of October 13, 1945. The armory construction program must of necessity be implemented by Congressional legislation. The Gurney Bill, introduced in the 1st Session of the 80th Congress, is now pending and one of the important objectives of this Association in the coming year will be to obtain the enactment of this measure.”

The Armories Construction Bill, as it was later called, was passed in 1950, but it took two more years for Congress to appropriate the funding. The terms of the 75/25 Federal/state funding split, initiated with the WPA armory projects, was formalized with this legislation. Called Public Law 783, 81st Congress, the Federal Government was participating, for the first time, in the construction of armories for the National Guard. Under this Act, the Secretary of Defense was authorized to construct armories for all civilian components and to contribute funds to States for the construction of National Guard Armories. During the fiscal year 1952, $16 million was appropriated for the support of these projects. Once the funding was obtained and distributed to the states, a flurry of new ARNG armory construction began throughout the country. Realizing that “mounting building costs” prohibited the design of the ideal “troop-use” facility, the ARNG produced several new designs that were less expensive to build and utilitarian in function and appearance.

These new facilities were designed using Standardized Plans, but seldom-employed high-style architectural vocabulary. In contrast to the armories built in preceding eras, these facilities “are often carbon copies” of each other, especially within individual states. In the spring of 1948, State Adjutants General of the National Guard nationwide were sent “drawings, outline specifications and pictures of four model armories…prepared by the Army Corps of Engineers in the hope that states financing their own construction programs might use them as guides in advance of any Federal

50 Walsh, General E.A. “President's Report,” The National Guardsman, Vol. 1 (October 1947), 7. According to a 1948 issue of the National Guardsman, there were several bills to authorize Federal armory construction, setting up various bases for sharing costs with the states that were introduced in the House and Senate. See Vol. 2, January 1948, 24.
52 Dieber, et al, 8. One source claimed that the first armory to be completed under the provisions of the Armory Bill (Public law 783) was the Ellicott City Armory in Maryland, completed in 1953, while another source stated that the first contract under this bill was for an armory in Arizona, approved August 27, 1952.
53 Everett, 43.
program.” Some states such as Illinois and Kentucky had implemented their own construction programs financed in total by their respective states.

The four “prototype armories”, as illustrated in the National Guardsman, would accommodate one to ten units of company size, at costs ranging from $444,000 to approximately $1.8 million. The designs were described as follows:

“Of modern design, all of the armories are centered on a demonstration and assembly hall which can be utilized for civic and athletic functions. They are designed so that additions can be made if required to take care of more units. Each has a 1,000-inch small arms range. Administrative space for individual and organizational equipment vary with the size of each armory.”

Variations of the four designs were directly related to the size of the company:

1. Type A, measuring 120 feet by 75 feet, was designed for one company size unit where the two-story administrative space and classrooms are on one side of the assembly hall.

2. Type B, measuring 150 feet by 100 feet, was designed with a one-story administrative space and classrooms on three sides of the assembly hall.

3. The Battalion-size armory was designed similarly to the Type B but with a capacity for a five-unit armory.

4. The most costly fourth style featured a demonstration and assembly area 200 feet by 100 feet with classrooms and administrative space on two sides.

Besides standardized plans for the growing needs of the ARNG, there were also standardized plans for support buildings including hangars, vehicle storage buildings, warehouses, and operational maintenance shops (OMSs). Generally speaking, these buildings were of corrugated metal or structural steel frame with masonry sidewalls, and flat or gable roofs.

These standardized plans were made flexible to accommodate varying activities, types of heating and cooling systems, and exterior materials. A new emphasis on the capacity for classrooms was a change because of the ARNG’s need for more technical training. Classroom instruction became more important than drill exercises.

The State Architects designated modified design types at the state or local level and hired firms that modified plans sent from Washington, DC. For example, the Cold War armories in California constructed from 1948 “have typically been constructed according

55 “Letting Out The Seams,” 17.
56 “Letting Out The Seams,” 16-17. The assembly hall replaced the drill hall of former architectural eras.
57 “Our Supplies, Vehicles, Need Housing, Too,” The National Guardsman Vol. 2 (May 1948), 22. In January 1950, the construction of these types of auxiliary buildings was restricted due to prorating to the states in ratio of troop strength.
58 “New-Type Armories are Designed For Expansion,” Architectural Record (June 1952), 14.
to one of ten standardized plans designed by the Office of the California State Architect. Between 1941 and 1961, there were eight standard plans designed by the letters A, B, D, E, H, I, J, and K. States including Kansas and Oklahoma developed their own version of the standardized plan, as well (see examples of these varied Standardized plans below).

After 25 years, under the 75/25 agreement between the federal and state governments, these armories were turned over to state ownership. Before legislation was passed in 1950, the Chief of the National Guard Bureau reported as late as 1949, that “inadequate armory facilities continue to be a major problem,” and that “approximately 574 of the present armories must be replaced.” Although the Armory Construction program finally commenced in 1952, the construction program was periodically delayed, partly due to a revision in procedure reference apportionment of Federal funds and partly to a national ceiling of $33 million dollars established by the Secretary of Defense.

The ARNG inventory includes 2,200 Cold War Era (1946-1989) armories, of these 983 were constructed during the early decades of the Cold War (1946-1960). The total ARNG inventory (1946-1989) consists of approximately 2,200 armories. Armories that were visited during the field survey and constructed within this architectural era include: Fort Deposit, Alabama (1957); Wetumpka, Alabama (1956), Gambell, Alaska (1972), Kipnuk, Alaska (1960), Sacramento, California (1957), Woodland, California (1951), Clay Center, Kansas (1955), Newton, Kansas (1955), Barnstable (Hyannis), Massachusetts (1958), Collins, Mississippi (1957), Jackson, Mississippi (1956), Rocky Mount, North Carolina (1957), Red Springs, North Carolina (1953), Elk City, Oklahoma (1950), Hobart, Oklahoma (1950), Hanover, Pennsylvania (1960), Edgeville, South Carolina (1955), McCormick, South Carolina (1959), New Braunfels, Texas (1959), and San Marcos, Texas (1954).

In Alabama, the Fort Deposit (Figure 19) and Wetumpka armories are examples of the one-unit design built throughout the state during the 1950s. Based on Standardized Plan B, these facilities have a two-story drill hall with a one-story administration wing on the main and side facades. The Fort Deposit Armory may be eligible for listing in the NRHP for its architecture and its association with the ARNG expansion program during the 1950s and 1960s. Further evaluation is needed to make a final determination. After additional research, it appears the

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60 Everett, 43.
62 Annual Report of the Chief National Guard Bureau for the Fiscal Year Ending 30 June 1956, (Washington, DC, Government Printing Office, 1957), 31. Public Law 302, 84th Congress aided the construction program, but it was, again, delayed several times through the end of the 1950s.
63 Although the Cold War ends in 1989, this study focuses on the armories that were built between 1947 (the date of the first extant Cold War facility) and 1960.
Geneva armory, located in Geneva, Alabama and built in 1956 by architect Evan Terry, may be the best representative sample of Cold War era armories in this state. The contractor did not conduct a site visit. Further evaluation is recommended prior to making a final determination.

Neither the Gambell nor the Kipnuck armories in Alaska are at all imposing or unique in design yet are clearly associated with Alaska’s early mission to watch Russian territory during the Cold War (Figure 20). The Gambell armory may be eligible for the NRHP. There are but a few of Alaska’s armories constructed in close proximity to the Soviet Union across the Bering Strait.

The armory located at Kipnuk (constructed in three phases beginning in 1960), was constructed by the Mason-Osberg Company under the supervision of the United States Army Corps of Engineers Pacific Ocean Division. Measuring 20 feet by 60 feet, the Kipnuk Armory was one of 47 armories built to serve the small detachments of “Eskimo Scouts” scattered around the coastal perimeter of Alaska in native villages. The Alaska ARNG, in with consultation with the Alaska SHPO, have concurred that the Kipnuck Armory is not eligible for listing on the NRHP. Approximately 30 percent of the armories in Alaska employ the use of the Triodetic™ foundation system design, an ecologically sound system for use on Alaska’s permafrost (Figure 21). This type of construction is a

three-point space frame of aluminum tubing that can withstand major shifting and settling and acts like a floating slab. The Triodetic system was chosen for Kipnuck because of its ability to help distribute building loads on unstable ground surfaces. It’s hub and strut assembly needs no excavation, concrete slab or piles. The Kipnuck Armory is an example of an armory constructed with the Triodetic™ foundation system.

Figure 21 - Kipnuk, Alaska Armory with Triodetic™ Foundation System
Source: AHR, LLC, 2004

Both the Sacramento (State Architect) and the Woodland armories in California were built using Standardized designs; Type K and Type A, respectively (Figure 22). The Sacramento facility administration wings completely surround the drill hall and the Woodland Armory administration sections are placed on the north and east facades. While the Woodland Armory is modest in style, the Sacramento Armory is designed in the International Style and may be eligible for the NRHP when the property reaches 50 years of age. Further evaluation is needed prior to making a final recommendation.

Figure 22 - Sacramento, California, Armory Standard Design Type K
Source: AHR, LLC, 2004
The armories located in Clay Center (Figure 23) and Newton, Kansas, were designed by architect John H. Brown from Standardized, Two-Unit Armory Plans, with administration wings wrapping around the main and south facades of the drill hall. Associated with General Nickell’s armory-building campaign in Kansas during the Cold War Era, both armories have served an important role as community centers in their respective towns. After consultation with the Kansas SHPO, the Kansas ARNG concurred that these armories, along with two other facilities, are eligible for the NRHP when they reach the 50-year age requirement.

![Figure 23 - Clay Center, Kansas Armory Standardized Two Unit Armory Plan](source: AHR, LLC, 2004)

One of the most unusual Cold War armories is the Barnstable (Hyannis Armory) (Figure 24) in Massachusetts, designed by Walter Gaffney Associates in the Art Moderne style. The Drill Hall is surrounded on the main and side facades with administrative offices. Unique to this standardized design are the solid laminated cedar beams of the drill hall proper. Due to its architectural design, its association with the beginnings of the Kennedy administration, and as the site of President-elect Kennedy’s acceptance speech in 1960, the Barnstable Armory is eligible for the NRHP for its exceptional significance in the areas of architecture, and government.

Designed in the One-Unit Standardized Plan (Type B), by John L. Turner and Associates, the Collins Armory in Mississippi consists of a two-story drill hall surrounded on three sides by a one-story administration complex. Because it no longer retains its integrity, the property is not eligible for listing in the NRHP. Additionally, the Jackson Armory (H.D. Shaw & Associates), Jackson, Mississippi, designed in the Standardized Two-Unit Plan, no longer retains integrity of design, materials, or feeling and is, therefore, also not eligible for listing in the NRHP.

According to the Michigan Department of Military & Veterans Affairs, In Michigan, seven out of ten armories built during the Cold War period employed the use of exposed laminated wood arches for the drill halls. This type of construction was introduced into the U.S. by Otto Hetzger, when his company, Unit Buildings, developed the laminated arch due to a shortage of steel during WWII. See: Andrew McNall and David Fischetti, “Glued Laminated Timber,” Twentieth Century Building Materials (Thomas C. Jester, ed.), New York: McGraw-Hill, 1995.
The Rocky Mount (Figure 25) and Red Springs armories in North Carolina, designed from standardized plans, may be eligible for the NRHP. Further evaluation of both of these armories is needed to make a final determination. The Rocky Mount facility complex is unique in North Carolina for having the only example of each stage of the building sequence still present on the property. The Red Springs Armory, which also is constructed from a standardized plan, may be eligible for the NRHP. It features a two-story drill hall surrounded on three sides by one-story administration wings. It was the first armory built in North Carolina using the 75/25 funding program mandated in the Defense Facilities Act of 1950. The Red Springs Armory is also the first example of the Reverse One-Unit armory to be built in the state.

Designed in the Standardized Plan by Nolen & Moore Architects, the Elk City (Figure 26) and the Hobart armories in Oklahoma were originally constructed as a two-story drill hall and motor vehicle storage unit, with a one-story administration wing added five years
after initial design. Only the Elk City Armory may be eligible for the NRHP; it is a representative example of a Standardized Plan and of the common strategy used by the Oklahoma Army National Guard for armory construction or expansion in the Cold War Era. Further evaluation is needed to make a final determination.

Another unique design of Cold War armories is the Hanover, Pennsylvania, facility, designed by Buchart Engineering Corporation in the Moderne style (Figure 27). This armory is an example of a 1-1/2 story administration building is linked to a Quonset-hut shaped drill hall. Because it meets the registration requirements as summarized in the Multiple Property Survey (MPS) Pennsylvania NRHP document, the Hanover armory is eligible for the NRHP for its exceptional architectural significance. It is the only one of its type to be constructed in the State of Pennsylvania.

While both the Edgefield and McCormick armories in South Carolina were designed by Heyward Singley/Parrott & Pearlstine in the Standardized Type A Plan, only the
McCormick Armory may be eligible for the NRHP. It is an excellent example of the Standardized Type A style of armory (Figure 28) and retains its historic integrity and good condition. Further evaluation is needed to make a final determination.

![Figure 28 - McCormick, South Carolina, Armory Standardized Type A](image)

Source: AHR,LLC, 2004

The architectural firm of Phelps, Dewees, & Simmons were responsible for the design of the New Braunfels and San Marcos, Texas, armories. While the latter was based on a standardized plan, the New Braunfels facility is unique in that it did not follow a typical standardized design (Figure 29). The New Braunfels armory retains its historic integrity and may be eligible for the NRHP. Further evaluation is needed to make a final determination.

![Figure 29 - New Braunfels, Texas, Armory Non-Typical Standardized design](image)

Source: AHR,LLC, 2004

4.6.1 Architects of the Cold War Era

Architects

John H. Brown, KS State Architect
Donald S. Guilman, Springfield, MA
Walter Gaffney Associates, MA
Heyward Singley/Parrott & Pearlstine, SC
Nolen & Moore Architects, OK
Phelps, Dewees & Simmons, TX
Wendell T. Phillips, Medford, MA
H.D. Shaw & Associates, Gulfport, MS
Evan M. Terry, Birmingham, AL
John L. Turner & Associates, Jackson, MS

Engineers

Buchart Engineering Corporation, PA
Mason-Osberg Company, AK
For more than a century and a half, National Guard armories have symbolized the dedication of citizens and citizen-soldiers to the defense of their community and their nation. The evolution of those armories in the United States has occurred over two centuries of the nation’s history. And, in the more recent past, many of these buildings have achieved the distinction of being architecturally or historically significant on a local, state, or national level under the criteria established by the National Park Service, discussed in further length in Section 1.0. Today the United States armed forces occupy and maintain over two thousand armories with close to 20% qualifying as “historic,” meeting NPS criteria as either eligible for listing or listed on the National Register of Historic Places.

Though many of the oldest armories no longer exist, there is a multitude continuing to embody their period of significance and speak to the historical fabric of our nation’s architecture. This Historic Context Study provided an overall historic look at the Army National Guard’s (ARNG) Armory construction and how that construction was associated with the basic history of the ARNG, presented an evaluation of ARNG events that occurred within geographic areas and specific states, defined and categorized property types and architectural styles, and discussed the work of known and significant architects who contributed to the construction of ARNG armories nationwide.

The Historic Context Study evaluated the history of the ARNG from a variety of different avenues. A basic history was provided in Section II, followed by a geographic overview of state specific histories in Section III. Here, the level of historic detail available for the study of the ARNG within each state was somewhat variable. States have not received equivalent degrees of historic and cultural resource investigation in previous years. For those states that do have specific histories, it was found that most only focus on specific time periods or certain topics within the overall history of that state. As a result, researchers found a somewhat uneven coverage of historic trends between the states. Section IV reviewed the architectural styles for different periods of history: Pre-Civil War, Post Civil War, Post-1910, New Deal Program, and Post-World War II and identified some construction patterns across states for armories building during these periods of history.

The architectural survey component of the historic context survey (survey forms are found in Appendix A) was used to develop an inventory of architecturally and historically significant buildings and structures, and to identify the range of property types within the sample of sites visited during the field survey. This survey also identified properties that may be eligible for the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) and those that may be adversely affected by future modifications. Furthermore, this survey was designed to be used as a tool in the identification of historic structures and for making decisions pertaining to engineering and architectural design and implementation by the ARNG, CRMs and respective SHPOs. Finally, this Historic Context Study provides an outline of the resources and history of the ARNG’s armories that allows the ARNG to make decisions regarding their historic properties on a nationwide basis.

It is the hope of the ARNG that this information will provide a baseline for which Cultural Resources Managers (CRMs) can evaluate the historical significance of those armories...
within their Real Property Inventory. Though this resource does not serve as end all for historical research and evaluation of any building within the ARNG’s property inventory, it provides a starting point from which CRMs can further ascertain the National Register eligibility and historic significance of their armories.
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