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Segregation in the Military Built Environment: Civil War to 1948

Susan I. Enscore, Madison L. Story, and Adam D. Smith

February 2023

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Cover Photo: A fire station at Fort Custer, Michigan in the segregated portion of the camp, 1941 (NARA).

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US Army Engineer Research and Development Center (ERDC)
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Abstract

In the United States, the former War Department and Navy Department utilized various methods of planning and construction to enforce racial and ethnic segregation of its personnel. The National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, requires federal agencies to inventory and evaluate their cultural resources, usually as the resources near 50 years of age. While many histories have been written regarding the extensive contributions of racial and ethnic groups of people to the history of the U.S. military, most of these did not cover how segregation practices affected the built environment. A broad historical overview from the Civil War to President Truman's desegregation memo in 1948 is provided to present the historical background of military units and their segregation. Also provided are descriptions of the segregated built environment related to those areas discussed in the historical overview, a sampling of what remains from these locations today, and recommendations for Cultural Resources Managers on how to reassess their installations for potential elements exemplifying segregation that currently remain. By providing a broad foundation of the U.S. military's segregation policies and activities, this report can be utilized to develop more detailed research that will lead to identification and evaluation of segregated facilities at Department of Defense military installations in the United States.

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Preface

This study was conducted for the Legacy Resource Management Program under Project Number 332112, “Inventory of Ethnic Segregation.” The technical monitors were Legacy Resources Management Program staff.

The work was performed by the Training Lands & Heritage Branch of the Operational Science & Engineering Division, US Amy Engineer Research and Development Center, Construction Engineering Research Laboratory (ERDC-CERL).

Unit Conversion Factors

Multiply	By	To Obtain
acres	4,046.873	square meters
feet	0.3048	meters
inches	0.0254	meters
miles (U.S. statute)	1,609.347	meters
square feet	0.09290304	square meters
yards	0.9144	meters

Abbreviations

Term	Meaning
AEB	Aviation Engineer Battalion
AFB	Air Force Base
CCC	Civilian Conservation Corps
ERDC-CERL	Engineer Research and Development Center—Construction Engineering Research Laboratory
HABS	Historic American Buildings Survey
MCB	Marine Corps Base
MIPR	Military Interdepartmental Purchase Request
NAACP	National Association for the Advancement of Colored Peoples
NARA	National Archives and Records Administration
NCO	Non-Commissioned Officer
NHPA	National Historic Preservation Act
NRHP	National Register of Historic Places
TAC	Tactical Air Command
OCS	Officer Candidate School
USCT	U.S. Colored Troops
USMC	U.S. Marine Corps
WAAC	Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps
WAC	Women’s Army Corps
WAVES	Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service
WWI	World War I
WWII	World War II

1 Methodology

1.1 Background

Congress codified the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (NHPA), the nation's most effective cultural resources legislation to date, to provide guidelines and requirements for preserving tangible elements of our past. This was done primarily through the creation of the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) in 1966. Contained within the NHPA (Sections 106 and 110) are requirements for federal agencies to address their cultural resources, which are defined as any prehistoric or historic district, site, building, structure, or object. Section 110 requires federal agencies to inventory and evaluate their cultural resources. Section 106 requires determination of the effects of federal undertakings on properties deemed eligible or potentially eligible for the NRHP.

The National Register Criteria for Evaluation define how historic properties are significant by categorizing a property's associations with important historic qualifiers. The *National Register Bulletin #15* lists four major criteria by which a historic property can be evaluated: Criterion A—association with important events, Criterion B—association with important persons, Criterion C—importance in design and construction, and Criterion D—information potential.[1]

The former War Department[2] and the Navy Department constructed buildings and structures at U.S. installations to enforce racial and ethnic segregation through the years has significance for the NRHP at the national level as well as possibly at the state and local levels.[3] All identified areas of the segregated built environment could be significant under Criterion A for association with important military operations, technological developments, or advances in ethnic minorities' civil rights.

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[1] National Park Service (NPS), *National Register Bulletin* #15: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of the Interior, 1991), 7.

[2] From 1789–1947, War Department was the cabinet-level agency that organized and maintained the U.S. Army. In 1947, it was reorganized into the Departments of the Army and Air Force; War Department, United States," Infoplease, accessed Feb. 2, 2022, https://www.infoplease.com/encyclopedia/history/north-america/us-government/war-department-united-states.

[3] "War Department, United States."

They also have the potential for significance under Criterion C for architectural or engineering design. For either criterion, the property must retain integrity from its specific period of significance. Properties constructed in the United States to support the segregated military must still convey a sense of historic and architectural cohesiveness through their location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association.

1.2 Objective

The project proposal had a focus on providing a more in-depth inventory of resources used by racial and ethnic minority military personnel than what was provided in the 1998 *An Historic Context of African-Americans in the Military*. It had four tasks: review and expand the existing 1998 context, review the archival construction record, compile an inventory of previously evaluated properties, and locate as many extant properties as possible.

1.3 Approach

1.3.1 Project funding

Under a Military Interdepartmental Purchase Request (MIPR), the Engineer Research and Development Center-Construction Engineering Research Laboratory (ERDC-CERL) was tasked by the DoD Legacy Resources Management Office to complete this project.

1.3.2 Source material

ERDC-CERL researchers conducted a review of scholarly texts, books, archival repositories, and online resources related to segregation of ethnic minorities in the U.S. military. The following places were contacted and/or searched:

- National Archives and Records Administration
    - Record Groups 24, 71, 80, 92
- Library of Congress
- University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Library
- ERDC Library
- Individual military installations and bases (phone calls and email)
- Online resources

1.3.3 Archives visited

Research trips were conducted to cull through the textual and photographic records at the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) in Washington, DC and College Park, MD, as well as the archival repositories for the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps in the Washington, DC region. Site visits to individual installations were not part of the scope of work since the intent was to review the construction history in the archival record.

1.3.4 Tasks

First, the researchers reviewed the 1998 *An Historic Context of African-Americans in the Military* to identify information missing from the historic context that was discovered in the intervening twenty years. During this phase, the researchers investigated the amount of original material reviewed by the initial researchers. This knowledge served as a guide to additional archival investigations for determining what facilities the Departments of War and the Navy constructed on their installations from the Civil War to the end of segregation in 1948. A list of preliminary sites was generated based on the 1998 inventory and from clues in the written context and other historic documents.

The second task was to use the list from the first task to evaluate the archival construction record for evidence of construction funded for other ethnic minority groups. This involved research at the National Archives as well as the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers History Office, the Naval Heritage Center, the U.S. Air Force Historical Research Agency, and the Historical Reference Branch, Marine Corps History Division.

The third task was to compile a summary of resources already evaluated by the NRHP for their significance to the ethnic minority military experience, to include resources transferred out of DoD control as feasible, as well as photographic, mapping, and construction documentation to be collected from the National Archives.

Fourth, the team determined what is left of the ethnic minority military built environment (buildings, landscapes, sites, etc.) on DoD installations. For example, in the military landscape, was the spatial relationship of these facilities consistently different than the facilities used by white military members?; were different construction materials used?; when

were the buildings demolished?; if not demolished, how many are left and were they determined historic?; if they are still extant, can current use be determined (determining condition would be contingent on physically inventorying the buildings and is beyond the scope of this project)?

1.3.5 Changes to approach over the course of the project

Through conducting archival research and contacting various installations throughout the DoD, the research team determined that compiling an inventory of previously evaluated properties was not possible over the course of this project for the following reasons: 1) no installation contacted maintained a comprehensive list of historically segregated facilities (either extant or demolished) at their location; 2) no national entity specifically keeps track of historically segregated facilities; 3) the DoD does not typically nominate properties to the NRHP, which hinders research on historic properties, and 4) very few known segregated facilities are extant today, and there is no known comprehensive list of segregated facilities that existed at any point in history or that are no longer extant. The primary studies and places have focused on Montford Point at Camp Lejeune, NC; Fort Huachuca, AZ; Fort Leonard Wood, MO; and Fort Bragg, NC.

1.3.6 Report Layout

Chapter 2 provides a summary of the history of ethnic segregation in the U.S. military. Chapter 3 provides historical examples of segregated facilities from various installations, and Chapter 4 contains a comparison with present-day areas at the same installations. Chapter 5 provides conclusions.

1.4 Authors

This project was conducted by a team of ERDC-CERL researchers from Champaign, Illinois. The authors were Susan I. Enscore, Ph.D. (Cultural Geography), Madison L. Story (M.S. Historic Preservation), and Adam D. Smith (M. Arch). Megan W. Tooker (M. Landscape Arch) gathered certain material at NARA.

2 Segregation in the U.S. Military

Members of multiple ethnic minorities have served in the military for every major conflict in U.S. history. During the first two centuries of the United States' existence, the military's stance on the inclusion of ethnic minorities ranged from complete segregation to complete integration, covering all perspectives in-between, including the idea that integration was a non-issue. Official policies reflected these sentiments, sometimes following the shifting national perspective and sometimes leading the way. Policy often differed from one ethnic minority to another, with some integrated into white units and others completely segregated. Policies regarding recruitment, enlistment, and utilization of individual ethnic minority groups also fluctuated over time. Most official policies that discriminated on the basis of race were concerned with Black soldiers, and these policies existed in some manner from the Revolutionary War through World War II (WWII). Due to the nature of various wars, official policies for excluding or segregating other ethnic groups were put in place for part or all of the conflict's duration.

This chapter provides a window into the history of ethnic segregation in the U.S. military. Policies and implementation impacts related to this topic are provided individually for the Department of the Army, the Department of the Navy, the Department of the Air Force, and the U.S. Marine Corps.

2.1 War Department/Department of the Army

2.1.1 Introduction

Although ethnic minorities served in local militias during the Colonial period (c. 1600–1775), formal policy on race and military service was set by individual colonies, all of which at various times enacted laws excluding Black individuals from being armed and serving in peacetime militias.[4] However, when the situation required increased manpower, these policies typically shifted to fit the circumstances, with the rolls expanding to include more Black soldiers, sometimes both freemen and enslaved

[4] Steven D. Smith and James A. Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, USACERL CRRC 98/87 (Champaign, IL: U.S. Army Construction Engineering Research Laboratories, 1998), 19.

individuals.[5] In times of armed conflict, Black soldiers sometimes saw combat action alongside white soldiers, most commonly during wars with Native American tribes.[6] Although free Black soldiers were integrated into white units during the Revolutionary War, Black soldiers were segregated per official Military Services policies from then on through the Civil War, Indian Wars, Spanish-American War, Philippine Insurrection, World War I (WWI), and WWII.

Native Americans fought in multiple Indian Wars during the Colonial period, both against settlers and in line with settlers to fight other tribes. Native Americans were also embroiled in European conflicts in North America, such as fighting with both the British and the French during the French and Indian War. There was no formal policy guiding enlistment or utilization of these fighters, and the Indigenous allies most often operated independently, but in concert with, the European powers.[7] During the Revolutionary War, Native Americans fought on both sides, usually on a tribal basis. After American independence, Native Americans in the western part of the country were often at war with the United States government. Significant numbers of Native Americans serving in the Army did not occur until WWI. In both that conflict and in WWII, Native Americans served in integrated units.

Hispanic soldiers were not a significant presence in the Army until after United States' acquisition of territory in the southwest and Florida. Approximately 3,550 Mexican Americans joined the armies during the Civil War; roughly 2,550 fought with the Confederate Army and 1,000 with the Union Army.[8] About the same number were part of the Army in volunteer units during the Spanish-American War. Immediately after the war, a unit of Puerto Rican soldiers was organized. It quickly expanded into a regiment and entered the Regular Army in 1908. By WWI, a sizable number of Hispanic individuals, mostly Mexican Americans, were

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[5] Captain Schulyer C. Webb and Master Sergeant William J. Herrmann (Ret.), *Historical Overview of Racism in the Military*, Special Series Pamphlet 02-1 (Patrick Air Force Base, FL: Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute, 2002), 1.

[6] Benjamin Quarles, *The Negro in the American Revolution* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1961), 80.

[7] Alexander M. Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military: An Encyclopedia*, Vol. 1 (Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO, LLC, 2013), 451.

[8] Col. Gilberto Villahermosa, "America's Hispanics in America's Wars," *Army Magazine*, September 2002, http://www.valerosos.com/HispanicsMilitary.html.

integrated throughout the military, with the exception of the units based in Puerto Rico, which largely remained segregated until 1953.[9]

Asian Americans have been involved in American conflicts since the Civil War, which saw a handful of Chinese immigrants fighting for the Union in integrated units. Ethnic Filipino soldiers were first brought into the Army as Philippine nationals at the start of the 20th century during the U.S. effort to quell the Philippine Insurrection. Ethnic Japanese soldiers did not enter the Army in large numbers until WWI. The roughly 1,000 who served were mostly Japanese immigrants from Hawaii. Chinese and Korean Americans also served during WWI in integrated units. Asian Americans were broadly represented during WWII. Filipino units defended their country from Japanese invaders for several months alongside American troops and the Philippine Army. During the first several years of WWII, Japanese Americans were subject to segregation in both training and duty stations. Chinese-American soldiers were never subject to formal segregation policies by the Army, nor Korean-American soldiers.[10]

2.1.2 The Constitutional and Expansion Eras, 1775-1860

During the Revolutionary War, Black troops supplied needed manpower to the Continental Army, Continental Navy, and British Army. The British Army and Navy promised freedom to the Black enslaved individuals that enlisted; hesitant about arming enslaved people, the Continental Army, for the most part, enlisted free Black individuals only.[11] By contrast, the Continental Navy enlisted both enslaved and free Black individuals, as many Black individuals had gained seafaring experience through serving with the British Navy and state naval militias, as well as on merchant vessels. More than ten percent of the Continental Navy was Black, though this number does not account for Black sailors serving in state navies or on private ships.[12]

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[9] Villahermosa, "America's Hispanics in America's Wars."

[10] U.S. Army Center of Military History, "The Army and Diversity," Reference Topics, accessed Nov. 4, 2021, https://history.army.mil/html/faq/diversity.html.

[11] Hazel Singer, "Memorial Day: A History of Honor and Service by Black Troops," Black Past, last modified May 27, 2016, https://www.blackpast.org/african-american-history/memorial-day-a-history-of-honor-and-service-by-black-troops/; Naval History and Heritage Command, "African American Sailors in the U.S. Navy: A Chronology," The African American Experience in the U.S. Navy, Jan. 14, 2022, https://www.history.navy.mil/browse-by-topic/diversity/african-americans/chronology.html.

[12] Naval History and Heritage Command, "African American Sailors in the U.S. Navy: A Chronology."

In the Continental Army, Black soldiers initially enrolled in militias; however, Black enlistment was discouraged after the battles at Lexington and Concord. By late 1775, already-serving Black soldiers could re-enlist, but new Black recruits could not enlist.[13] The Continental Congress prohibited further enlistment of Black soldiers in early 1776, and specifically excluded enslaved people from military service, a policy soon instituted by individual states as well.[14] By that summer, policy dictated that military service be restricted to whites at the local, state, and national level.[15] As the war progressed, however, manpower needs became critical and the exclusionary policies were relaxed. By the war's end, the Continental Army had enlisted 5,000 Black soldiers, and the British Army had enlisted over 20,000.[16] In the Continental Army, men often served in integrated units, mostly infantry, but they were also assigned as artillerymen, unarmed laborers, or musicians.[17]

Native Americans fought on both sides of the Revolutionary War, as some saw the British as protectors of their freedom and tribal lands, while others supported the Colonists, bound by ties of friendship to neighbors or to Colonial religious leaders.[18] Invitations from both sides to join the fight were most often presented to individual tribes, or confederations of tribes, on an informal basis, and were not proscribed by policy or law.[19] Enlistment in the Continental Army did occur, with Native Americans joining existing units, or serving as scouts in specialized units.[20]

War of 1812 (1812-1815)

After the Revolutionary War, the Continental Army was drastically reduced, and the Continental Navy was disbanded. The Second Militia Act

[13] Bruce E. Prum, "Where We Stand: A Study of Integration in the U.S. Armed Forces," Master's Thesis, (Monterey, CA: United States Naval Postgraduate School, 1964), 17.

[14] Prum, "Where We Stand," 17; Gerald Astor, *The Right to Fight: A History of African Americans in the Military* (Cambridge, MA: Da Capo Press, 2001), 7.

[15] Astor, *The Right to Fight*, 7.

[16] Singer, "Memorial Day."

[17] Morris J. MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, CMH Pub. 50-1-1 (Washington, DC: U.S. Army Center of Military History, 1981), 4.

[18] Collin G. Calloway, "American Indians and the American Revolution," Legends of America, last modified Feb. 2018, https://www.legendsofamerica.com/ah-revolutionindians/.

[19] Wilcomb E. Washburn, "Indians and the American Revolution," AmericanRevolution.org, accessed Nov. 4, 2021, http://www.americanrevolution.org/ind1.php.

[20] National Park Service, "American Indians at Valley Forge," Valley Forge, accessed Nov. 4, 2021, https://www.nps.gov/vafo/learn/historyculture/americanindians.htm.

of 1792 excluded Black individuals by omission, and the War Department applied the same policy in 1798, excluding Black individuals from serving in the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps. There remained three states that allowed integrated militias: North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. Only free Black individuals were allowed to participate, and only North Carolina allowed them in as combatants, with the other two states limiting participation to noncombatant status.[21]

However, as in past conflicts, when the need for manpower arose during the War of 1812, segregationist policies were not the priority.[22] The United States again found itself at war with Great Britain in an effort to end British attempts to restrict U.S. trade, particularly with France, and to expand the new nation's territory.[23] The recruitment effort was led by the State of New York, with 2,000 Black soldiers, both free and enslaved, enlisted. Philadelphia raised a battalion of Black soldiers, but their training was not complete when the war ended.[24] After the war, the federal government and states gradually put laws into effect that kept Black individuals from serving in the Army, Marine Corps, or state militias.[25] As institutional racism became entrenched during the antebellum period, the policy excluding Black individuals from the U.S. Army remained in place.

Mississippi Valley Native American tribes largely fought on the side of British and Canadian forces during the War of 1812 in a bid to retain their lands. Led by Chief Tecumseh, a Shawnee warrior who started a movement in 1809 against white encroachment on Indigenous land, the ensuing raids were supported by British agents in Canada. This conflict became embroiled in the War of 1812, and Tecumseh sided with the British, although some Native Americans aligned with those fighting on behalf of the United States.[26] In action, the tribes were mostly separate

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[21] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 21.

[22] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 21, 35-38, 255.

[23] History.com Editors, "War of 1812," History, accessed Oct. 18, 2021, http://www.history.com/topics/war-of-1812.

[24] Singer, "Memorial Day."

[25] U.S. Army Center of Military History, "The Army and Diversity."

[26] Brittany A. Kelley, "'Cracks in the Melting Pot': Native Americans in the Antebellum U.S. Military," PhD Diss. (San Bernardino, CA: California State University, 2017), 40-44; History.com Editors, "War of 1812."

groups, not formal military units, although the U.S. Army did set up Native American companies, detachments, and parties.[27]

Single tribes or groups of tribes continued to fight alongside U.S. troops during conflicts arising from European settlement, such as the Black Hawk War in 1832, and the First (1817-1818) and Second (1836-1842) Seminole Wars.[28] The Army recruited a mounted volunteer company of Texan Native Americans to fight in the Mexican War (1846-1848), and the New Mexico Volunteers had a company of Pueblo Native Americans immediately after the war.[29]

2.1.3 Civil War and Indian Wars

Approximately 186,000 Black soldiers served in the Union Army during the Civil War, all in segregated regiments.[30] At the beginning of the conflict, Black enlistment was not allowed in the Union Army. Consequently, free Black individuals in the north formed their own militias and prepared for a hoped-for opportunity to serve.[31]

The exclusionary policy began to change in the summer of 1862, when a manpower shortage, military setbacks, and President Abraham Lincoln's evolving personal views combined with the Second Confiscation Act of 1862 and the Militia Act of 1862.[32] The Second Confiscation Act followed the Confiscation Act of 1861, or the First Confiscation Act, which permitted the seizure of Confederate property by Union soldiers and the federal government while also freeing all enslaved people working with or for Confederate soldiers. The Confiscation Act of 1862, or the Second Confiscation Act, sought to compromise with Congressmen who had concerns about the seizure of private property; therefore, it permitted the federal government to free enslaved peoples in Union-occupied areas of

[25] James P. Collins, "Native Americans in the Antebellum U.S. Military," *Prologue Magazine* 39, no. 4 (2007), https://www.archives.gov/publications/prologue/2007/winter/indians-military.html.

[28] Alexander M. Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military: An Encyclopedia*, vol. 2, 488-489; Collins, "Native Americans in the Antebellum U.S. Military."

[29] Collins, "Native Americans in the Antebellum U.S. Military."

[30] Charles C. Moskos, Jr., "Racial Integration in the Armed Forces," *American Journal of Sociology* 72, no. 2 (Sept. 1966): 133; MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 4.

[31] Keith P. Wilson, *Campfires of Freedom: The Camp Life of Black Soldiers During the Civil War* (Kent, OH: The Kent State University Press, 2002), 1.

[32] Wilson, *Campfires of Freedom*, 1-2.

the South, prohibited the return of fugitive enslaved peoples, and allowed the confiscation of Confederate property via judicial action.[33]

The Militia Act of 1862, passed concurrently with the Second Confiscation Act, stated that "all able-bodied male citizens between ages of eighteen and forty-five" could enlist in military services. This was a significant change from the Militia Act of 1792, which limited service to "free able-bodied white male" citizens.[34] Thus, beginning in 1862, the enlistment of persons of African descent, including enslaved by Confederate owners (now considered free by the Union), for service as laborers, soldiers, and sailors was allowed by Congress.[35]

Not altogether altruistic, this policy shift reflected an increasingly desperate need for manpower in the Union Army as initial enlistments of white soldiers began to expire and the Army's poor performance led to fewer new troops signing up.[36] The Conscription Act of 1863, which required every male citizen between the ages of 20 and 45 to register for the first national draft system, evoked violent opposition from prospective white draftees;[37] however, drafted men of means could hire a substitute to serve in their place. Many of these substitutes were African Americans fleeing enslavement, seeking income, or both.[38] The combined impact of the Conscription Act of 1863 and the Emancipation Proclamation in January 1863, which freed all enslaved peoples in the parts of the Confederacy not under Union control, was the large-scale active recruitment of Black soldiers.[39]

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[33] Paul Finkelman, "The Revolutionary Summer of 1862: How Congress Abolished Slavery and Created a Modern America," *Prologue Magazine* 49, no. 4 (Winter 2017–2018), https://www.archives.gov/publications/prologue/2017/winter/summer-of-1862.

[34] Finkelman, "The Revolutionary Summer of 1862."

[35] Prum, "Where We Stand," 19.

[36] Prum, "Where We Stand," 19.

[37] Prum, "Where We Stand," 19; Senate Historical Office, "The Civil War: The Senate's Story," United States Senate, accessed Feb. 20, 2022, https://www.senate.gov/artandhistory/history/common/civil_war/ConscriptionAct.htm#:~:text=Senator%20Henry%20Wilson%2C%20chairman%20of,ages%20of%2020%20and%2045.

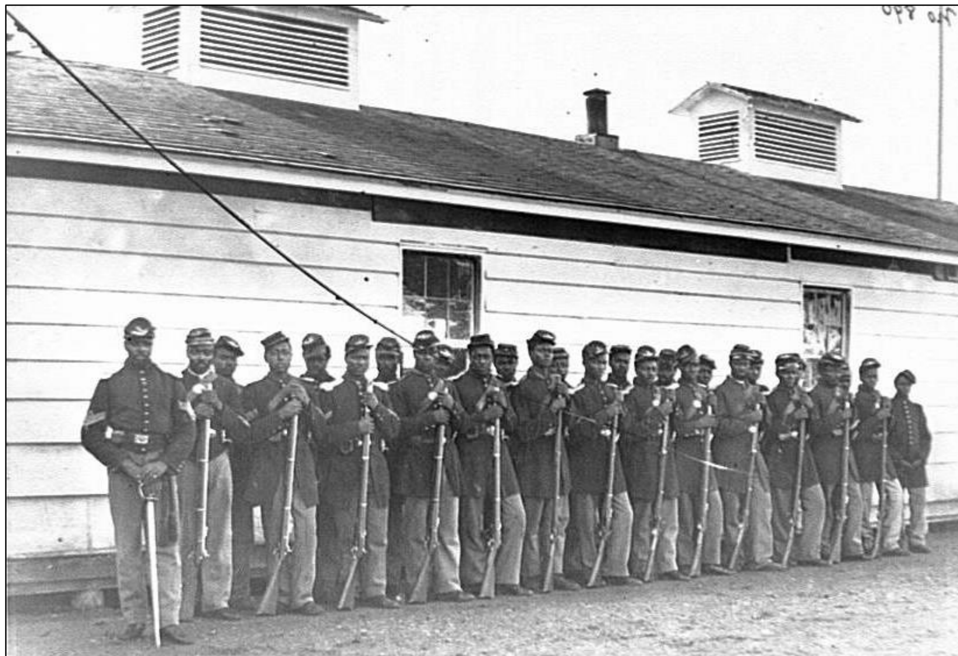
[38] Indiana Historical Bureau, "Black Civil War Substitutes," Indiana Historical Markers by County, accessed Feb. 20, 2022, https://www.in.gov/history/state-historical-markers/find-a-marker/find-historical-markers-by-county/indiana-historical-markers-by-county/black-civil-war-substitutes/.

[39] Prum, "Where We Stand," 19; National Archives, "Emancipation Proclamation," Online Exhibits, last modified Jan. 28, 2022, https://www.archives.gov/exhibits/featured-documents/emancipation-proclamation.

[39] Prum, "Where We Stand," 19;

This effort was formally organized on a national basis on May 22, 1863, with the establishment of the Bureau of Colored Troops by War Department General Order No. 143.[40] By this time, various states, including Connecticut, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Louisiana, and North Carolina, had raised regiments of Black soldiers.[41] All Black regiments were subject to a white-only group of officers. Although officially allowed to serve as combatants, Black troops were most often used for menial work supporting supply and construction activities throughout the war.[42] At least 180,000 African Americans served in the Union Army's U.S. Colored Troops (USCT) and made up approximately 160 separate units.[43] This included 138 Infantry, 11 Artillery, and 6 Cavalry units.[44] Among these were: the 4th U.S. Colored Infantry (Figure 1); the 1st U.S. Colored Infantry (Figure 2); and the 54th U.S. Colored Troops Infantry (Figure 3).

Figure 1. Company E, 4th U.S. Colored Infantry at Fort Lincoln, c. 1865 (LOC, LC-B8171-7890).



[40] "Theodore Roosevelt Island, Potomac River, Washington, District of Columbia, DC," survey (photographs, measured drawings, written historical and descriptive data), Historic American Landscapes Survey, National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, 2007, from Prints and Photographs Division, Library of Congress (HALS DC-12; https://www.loc.gov/pictures/item/dc1044/, accessed Sept. 16, 2021).

[41] Wilson, *Campfires of Freedom*, 2.

[42] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 21, 35-38, 255.

[43] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 22.

[44] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 21-22.

Figure 2. Mathew Brady photo of 1st U.S. Colored Troops Infantry Regiment, c. 1863-1865 (LOC, LOT 4173)

Figure 3. 54th U.S. Colored Troops Infantry Regiment, possibly at Fort Massachusetts, Mississippi, 1866 (LOC AMBTIN no. 3199).

The USCT were segregated units with Black enlisted men and non-commissioned officers (NCO). The commissioned officers, however, were white. Black Union soldiers were organized into units and trained at 18 segregated training camps. The first camp purposefully constructed for the training of Black soldiers was Camp William Penn, in LaMott, Pennsylvania. Opened on July 4, 1863, soldiers trained there would make up the 3rd, 6th, 8th, 22nd, 24th, 25th, 32nd, 41st, 43rd, 45th, and 127th USCT Infantry Regiments.[45] A tented camp originally, wooden buildings were later constructed. Training included target practice, hand-to-hand combat, and drill lessons.[46] Camp Nelson, Kentucky, trained approximately 10,000 Black soldiers including 12th and 13th Heavy Artillery, 5th and 6th Cavalry, and 5th, 72nd, 114th, 115th, 116th, 117th, 119th, 121st, 123rd, and 124th Infantry USCT.[47] The 28th Infantry Regiment was organized and trained at Camp Fremont, in Indianapolis, Indiana.[48]

There were several training camps in the Washington, DC, area. Camp Casey in Arlington County, Virginia, was the recruiting and training camp for the 23rd Infantry Regiment beginning in 1864. It hosted many USCT units as they moved south.[49] The 1st USCT Infantry Regiment (composed of free Black individuals and escaped enslaved people) were trained at a camp on Mason's Island (now Theodore Roosevelt Island) in the Potomac River during the summer of 1863.[50] This unit was the first Black regiment formally placed in federal service.[51] The island had been occupied by white Union troops two years earlier, and, rather unusually, the USCT troops had existing buildings to utilize, including long narrow barracks of wooden balloon framing.[52] By 1864, the former military camp was home to a group of "contraband" Black refugees (so called because they were legally considered the seized "property" of Confederate soldiers), who used the

[45] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 22.

[46] Donald Scott, *Camp William Penn* (Charleston, SC: Arcadia Publishing, 2008), n.p.

[47] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 22.

[48] State of Indiana, "28th Regiment, United States Colored Troops," Indiana War Memorials, accessed Oct. 12, 2021, https://www.in.gov/iwm/battle-flag-collection/28th-regiment,-united-states-colored-troops/.

[49] Chelsea Gilmour, "The Mystery of the Civil War's Camp Casey," *Consortium News*, Feb. 26, 2015, https://consortiumnews.com/2015/02/26/the-mystery-of-the-civil-wars-camp-casey/.

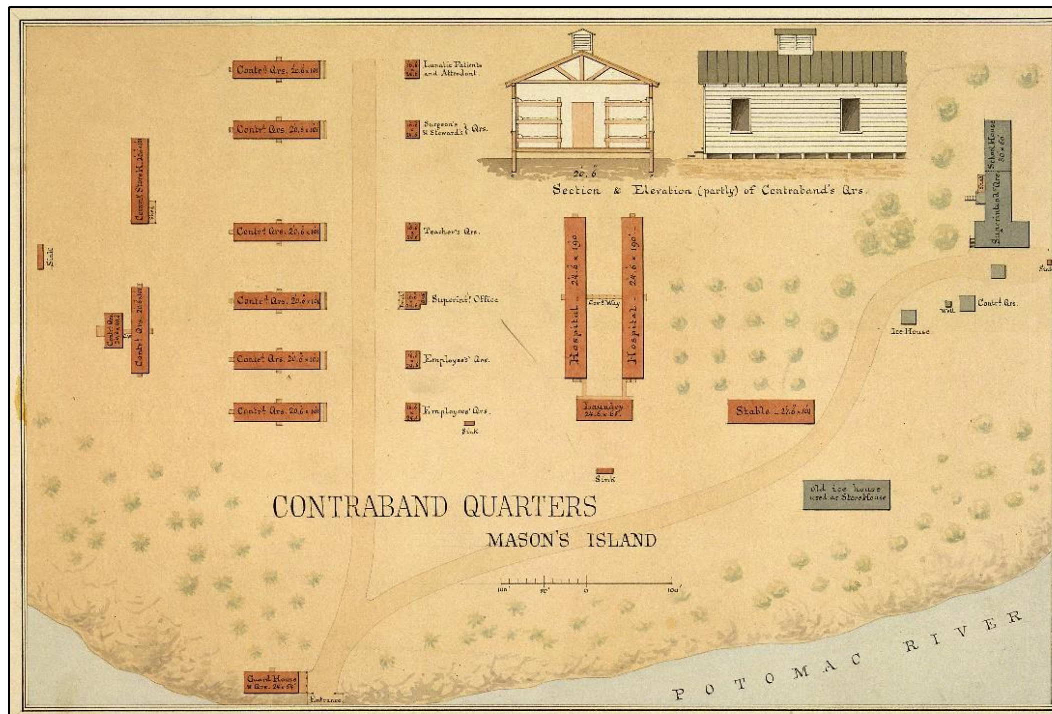
[50] "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

[51] "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

[52] "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

military barracks as housing. Other military facilities were likely used by the refugee camp's administrators and other workers (Figure 4).[53]

Figure 4. *Contraband Quarters, Mason's Island*, Washington, D.C., ground plan and building cross section, 1864 (NARA).



The vast majority of USCT units were placed in tent camps with bare minimum accommodations.[54] In camps with cold winters, makeshift log huts were sometimes constructed. The racial and hierarchical order of USCT units was visible in the standard layout of the camps, with spatial separation of the Black soldiers and the white officers. This also mirrored the standard Army practice of camp layout, where the lowest ranks were farthest away from the highest ranks. Enlisted men in company groups were located adjacent to the parade ground for training purposes.[55]

Segregation of Black soldiers also included restrictions on the types of duty they were assigned:

> Conscious of the intensely racist attitudes that pervaded the Union army and uncertain about the fighting capabilities of the black [*sic*] soldiers,

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[53] "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

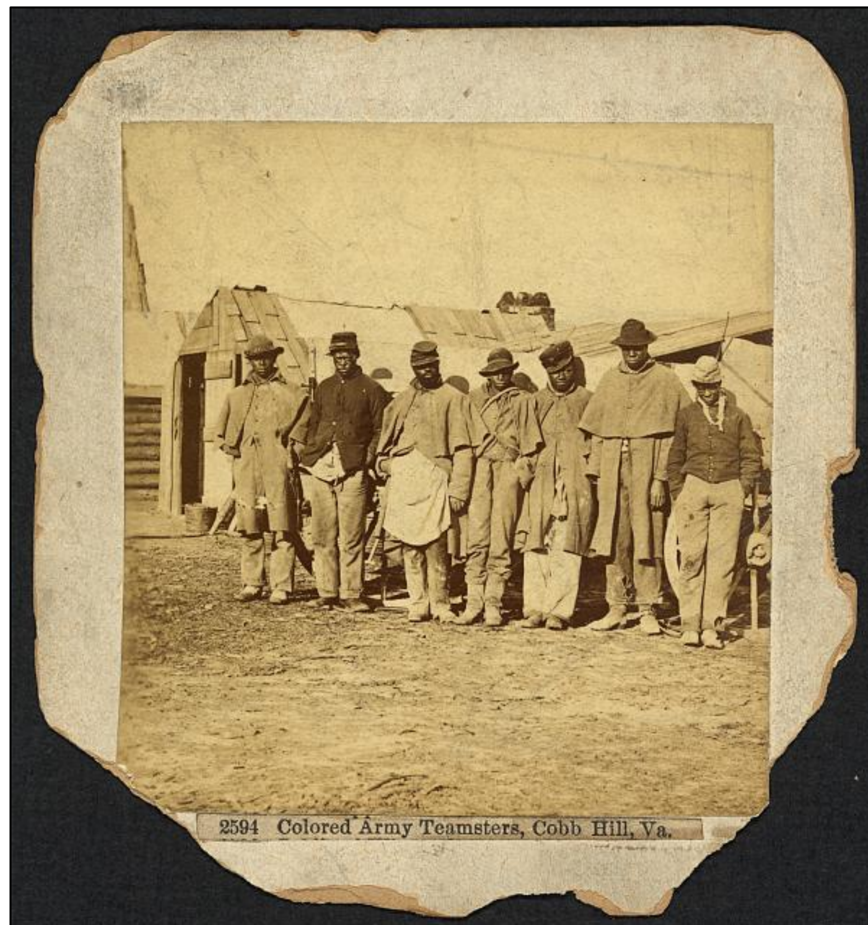
[54] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 63-64.

[55] Wilson, *Campfires of Freedom*, 8-10.

> the War Department not only confined black [*sic*] troops to racially segregated regiments but initially restricted them largely to noncombat duties. They served as guards, fatigue workers (that is, laborers), and garrison troops. Moreover, most of the black [*sic*] regiments were located no in vital combat zones but in areas where there were sizeable black populations, for example, in the Mississippi Valley…War Department policy, therefore, actually reduced the amount of contact black [*sic*] troops had with white civilians and white soldiers.[56]

In addition to USCT troops, another 200,000 Black troops supported the Union effort in service units. They worked as teamsters, dock workers, and other types of laborers (Figure 5).[57]

Figure 5. Black teamsters at Cobb Hill, VA, 1864 (LOC 11338).



[56] Wilson, *Campfires of Freedom*, 11-12.

[57] U.S. Office of Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Equal Opportunity and Safety Policy, *Black Americans in defense of our nation* (Washington, DC: Department of Defense, 1985), 21.

Black women worked as nurses for segregated units in the Civil War, although they were not allowed to join the Army. As many as 181 Black nurses, both female and male, served in convalescent and U.S. government hospitals in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina during the war.[58]

After the Civil War ended, the USCT was disbanded, and the Army was reorganized. In 1866, Congress authorized 61 white regiments (each 1,000 to 2,000 soldiers) and six regiments composed of Black soldiers, again almost exclusively commanded by white officers. Three years later, these six had been reorganized into four regiments: the 9th and 10th Cavalries, and the 24th and 25th Infantries. These regiments were posted to the American West and are best known today as the Buffalo Soldiers. Distanced from large urban areas of white citizens, they served for decades defending the border and suppressing Native American uprisings.[59] Buffalo Soldiers primarily spent time in the southwest, mainly Texas and Arizona, although some units were sent to the northern Plains states in the 1880s and 1890s (Figure 6).

Figure 6. 10th Cavalry Crow Creek Reservation, Wyoming, c. 1890s (Wyoming History.org).

[58] U.S. Army Medical Department, "African American Army Nurse Corps Officers," Office of Medical History, accessed Oct. 15, 2021, http://history.amedd.army.mil/ANCWebsite/articles/blackhistory.html.

[59] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 256; Prum, "Where We Stand," 21; Singer, "Memorial Day."

Infantry missions largely supported the cavalry, as foot soldiers were not well suited to chasing and fighting Native Americans. The most common infantry duties were guard duty, fort repair, escort assignments, and fatigue details. The cavalry units, by virtue of being more mobile, were tasked with protecting mail and stage routes, enforcing law and order in the border areas, preventing Native American raids, and controlling populations on reservations. The latter included both keeping settlers off the reservation and keeping Native Americans on them.[60]

The Buffalo Soldiers were stationed primarily at small Army posts and were frequently re-assigned between them based locales' need for defense. Commonly, companies from a regiment were scattered to several forts and camps simultaneously. Although the units were segregated in makeup, the Buffalo Soldiers were garrisoned with other white units in the constantly shifting rotations, and Black soldiers constituted about 20 percent of all Army troops in the West. Consolidation of regiments at one or two posts only occurred as Native American uprisings tapered off. The forts were usually very basic, and constructed, or, in the case of existing forts, repaired, by the troops themselves.[61]

Native Americans fought on both sides during the Civil War, with numbers reaching 20,000.[62] Reasons for joining the war effort included seeking redress for forced removal, depending on the government for financial and physical dependence, and supporting their neighbors in areas with settled Native American and European America populations.[63] Many units were entirely Native American, such as the 1st and 2nd Indian Home Guard, 2nd Cherokee Mounted Rifles, the Indian Cavalry Brigade, Company K of the 5th Pennsylvania Volunteer Infantry, and Company K of the 1st Michigan Sharpshooters. Many fought as members of the USCT. Some Native American soldiers rose in the general ranks, including Colonel Stand Watie, a Cherokee Chief who became a Brigadier General in the Confederate Army, and General Ely Samuel Parker, of the Seneca Tribe, who served as General Ulysses S. Grant's military secretary.[64]

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[60] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 83, 88.

[61] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 80-82.

[62] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 490.

[63] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 490.

[64] City of Alexandria, Virginia, "We are all Americans – Native Americans in the Civil War," last modified Oct. 25, 2021, https://www.alexandriava.gov/historic/fortward/default.aspx?id=40164.

Although the Civil War period and its aftermath was dominated in the West by conflict with Native Americans, there were also many Native Americans who served with the Army, particularly as scouts. Recruited from more than a dozen tribes, they served as guides and augmented regular Army troops during the Indian Campaigns of the Great Plains and Southwest. The Army authorized an Indian Scout corps of up to 1,000 on August 1, 1866. Among the more famous were the White Mountain and San Carlos Apaches, who took part in the campaign against the Chiricahua Apaches, led by Cochise. Later, Army Apache Scouts were instrumental in the campaign that culminated in the 1866 surrender of Geronimo. As this campaign effectively ended the Native American conflicts, the need for Army Indian Scouts decreased and their numbers were reduced. In 1922, the remaining Scouts were all transferred to Fort Huachuca, Arizona, where they served until the last four were ordered into retirement by the War Department in 1947. The Army built adobe huts for the Scouts at Fort Huachuca in an area that became known as Apache Flats. The Scouts, however, often preferred to camp with their families in an area near the Post Cemetery (Figure 7).[65]

Figure 7. Indian Scout camp near Fort Huachuca post cemetery, undated (Finley, Huachuca Illustrated, Vol. 2)

The Seminole-Negro Indian Scout Detachment had a different origin involving the border conflicts with Mexico. They were descendants of freed or escaped African American enslaved people who found refuge with Seminole Indians in Florida. In the early 1840s, the group was relocated to Oklahoma. By 1850, they had decided to move to Mexico, and between 1850 and 1870, the men of the tribe fought Native Americans for the

[65] Ruth Quinn, "Native American Scouts," Army.mil, Nov. 7, 2013, https://www.army.mil/article/114646/native_american_scouts.

Mexican government in northern Mexico. In 1870, looking to be repatriated to the United States, the men were recruited to join the U.S. Army as scouts. They were mustered into service at Fort Duncan that same year. They initially served as Indian Scouts for the African American 25th Infantry stationed there. Life for these scouts consisted of campaigns into Mexico with the 4th Cavalry and the 8th Cavalry in the 1870s, and a series of extended deployments in the Texas frontier region during the 1880s. The detachment served as protection against raids on settlers and along wagon roads and railroad lines. Most of the scouts were stationed at Fort Clark, as Fort Duncan went through a series of closures and re-openings over the years (Figure 8). With the western lands settled, their usefulness to the Army declined, and the detachment was disbanded in 1914. During their years of activity, the scouts took part in 26 expeditions and fought in 12 battles on both sides of the U.S.-Mexico border. The scouts, never numbering over 50, were full members of the Army, receiving rations, ammunition, arms, and pay of an Army private. They lived in their own villages near the forts.[66]

Figure 8. Seminole-Negro Indian Scouts near Fort Clark, Texas in the late 1880s (https://www.texasbeyondhistory.net/forts/clark/saddle.html)

Although Hispanic soldiers fought in the Revolutionary War, the War of 1812, and in the Mexican American War, their numbers were small. This

[66] Texas Beyond History, "Battle for Nueces Strip," Fort Clark and the Rio Grande Frontier, accessed Sept. 13, 2021, https://www.texasbeyondhistory.net/forts/clark/battles.html; National Park Service, "African Americans in the Frontier Army," Fort Davis, last modified Feb. 24, 2015, https://www.nps.gov/foda/learn/historyculture/africanamericansinthefrontierarmy.htm.

reflected the low numbers of Hispanics living in the United States before the end of the Mexican American War in 1848.[67]

Mexican Americans were first significantly present the military during the Civil War. Thousands of Hispanic soldiers fought on each side of the conflict. The 1848 Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo promised citizenship to the Mexican population in the territory now part of the United States. As citizenship at that time was only available to whites, this action essentially classified Hispanic soldiers as white Americans. As a result, they served in regular Army units, although there were also mostly Mexican American units, such as the 1st Regiment of Texas Cavalry.[68] The 4,000-strong New Mexico Volunteers quickly became part of the Union Army, formed into five regiments.[69] The 1st Battalion of Native Cavalry was formed in 1863 from 500 Native Hispanic Californians, and fought in Arizona and California as part of the Union Army. On the Confederate side, units with large Hispanic populations included "one independent infantry battalion and four independent infantry companies from New Mexico."[70] Hispanic soldiers also served in infantry and cavalry regiments including the 6th Missouri and 55th Alabama Infantries, and the 1st Florida and 33rd Texas Cavalries.[71]

2.1.4 Spanish-American War and Philippine Insurrection

Precipitated by the February 15, 1898, sinking of the battleship USS MAINE in Havana Harbor, the Spanish-American War began in April 1898. By June, a U.S. Army force of over 17,000 men invaded Cuba as part of an effort to liberate Caribbean and Philippine islanders from the Spanish. The four existing Black regiments were mobilized for the conflict, rejoining what had been widely dispersed troops. The regiments' troops were posted to an area near Tampa, Florida, for training in preparation of deployment to Cuba. In addition, four Army Volunteer regiments were raised along with several state volunteer militia units. Due to the brief duration of the conflict, none of these new units saw combat. The segregated Regular Army regiments, comprising nearly 5,500 men, fought

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[67] Lorena Oropeza, "Fighting on Two Fronts: Latinos in the Military," in *American Latinos and the Making of the United States: A Theme Study*, (Washington, DC: National Park Service Advisory Board, 2013), 251.

[68] Villahermosa, "America's Hispanics in America's Wars;" Oropeza, "Fighting on Two Fronts," 254.

[69] Villahermosa, "America's Hispanics in America's Wars."

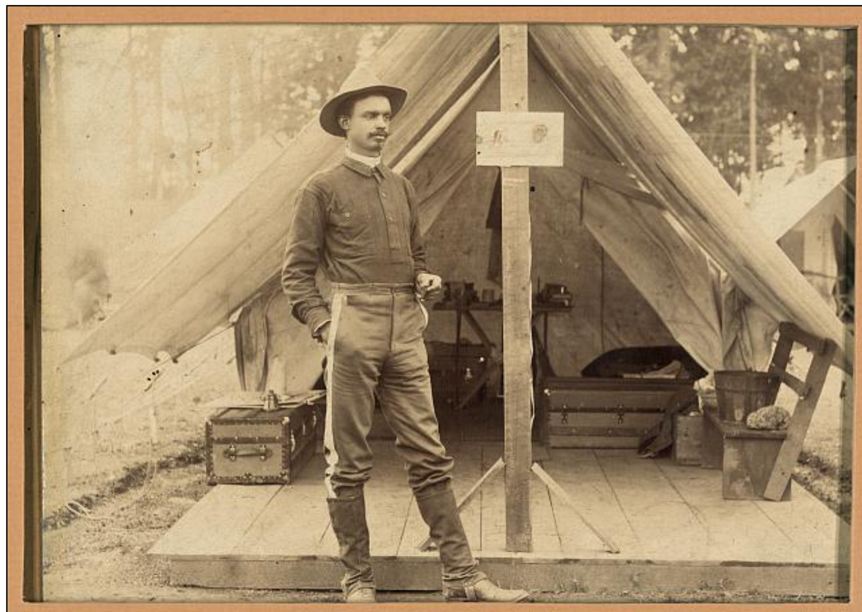
[70] Villahermosa, "America's Hispanics in America's Wars."

[71] Villahermosa, "America's Hispanics in America's Wars."

alongside white regiments for nearly three months, and displayed valor in multiple engagements, including supporting Theodore Roosevelt's Rough Riders (Figure 9 and Figure 10).[72]

Figure 9. Buffalo Soldiers serving during the Spanish American War, n.d (http://www.blackpastblog.org/).

Figure 10. T.R. Clarke, 8th U.S. Volunteer Infantry, during the Spanish-American War, Nov. 16, 1898 (LOC 11428).



[72] Office of Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Equal Opportunity and Safety Policy, *Black Americans in Defense of Our Nation*, 13; Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 130; National Park Service, "Buffalo Soldiers and the Spanish-American War," Presidio of San Francisco, last modified Feb. 28, 2015, https://www.nps.gov/prsf/learn/historyculture/buffalo-soldiers-and-the-spanish-american-war.htm.

During the Spanish-American War, 33 Black nurses were contracted to the Army and were sent to Santiago, Cuba to fight typhoid and yellow fever epidemics. Additional Black female nurses were contracted by the Surgeon General and a total of approximately 80 may have served in the conflict.[73] Along with their white counterparts, their performance led to the February 2, 1901, establishment of the Army Nurse Corps, although Black nurses were excluded from this organization until 1918.[74]

The war engulfed other Spanish overseas possessions, particularly Guam and the Philippines, as the U.S. military engaged Spanish forces on those islands as well. Naval battles commenced on May 1, 1898, and 15,000 troops arrived to capture Manila by the end of July.[75] Fighting in Cuba also ended in July, and the Treaty of Paris was signed on December 10, 1898, removing Spain's claim to Cuba and ceding Guam, Puerto Rico, and sovereignty over the Philippines to the United States. In 1899, a rebel insurrection led by nationalist leader Emilio Aguinaldo attacked Americans in Manila, who quickly defeated the rebels. U.S. troops established an occupation of the Philippines. All four Regular Army Black regiments served in the Philippines between 1899 and 1902, and again from 1906 to 1908 (Figure 11). After the second tour, they returned to multiple postings in the Western states.[76]

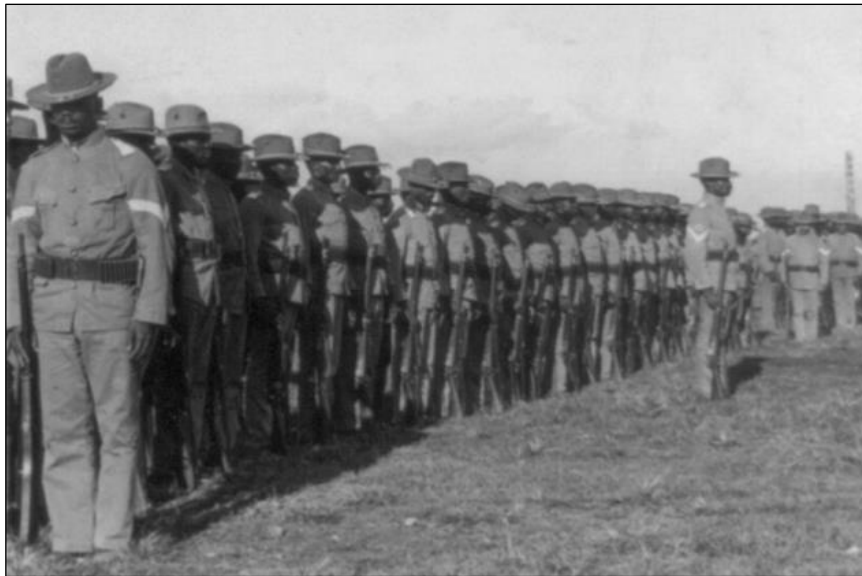
[73] Kathryn Sheldon, "Brief History of Black Women in the Military," Military Women's Memorial, accessed Oct. 9, 2021, https://beta.womensmemorial.org/history-of-black-women.

[74] U.S. Army Medical Department, "African American Army Nurse Corps Officers."

[75] Library of Congress, "Rough Riders," The World if 1898: The Spanish-American War, June 22, 2011, https://www.loc.gov/rr/hispanic/1898/intro.html.

[76] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 138-140.

Figure 11. 24th U.S. Infantry at drill, Camp Walker, Philippine Islands c. 1902 (LOC LC-USZ62-80519).



Hispanic soldiers participated in the Spanish-American War mostly in volunteer units. In fact, both Hispanic soldiers and officers served in the Rough Riders, the first volunteer cavalry in the United States. Unlike many other volunteer cavalries, the Rough Riders were so well supplied and trained that they were allowed into the action and served in Cuba during the war.[77]

After the war, Puerto Rico became a territory of the United States, and shortly thereafter military training was offered to Puerto Rican men. The Porto[78] Rican Provisional Regiment of the Infantry soon had 400 personnel, even though they were not U.S. citizens.[79] In 1908, the U.S. Congress approved the creation of the Porto Rico Regiment of Infantry, United States Army as a regular unit. The all-volunteer regiment was a segregated unit and trained at Camp Las Casas in Puerto Rico.

2.1.5 World War I

Between the end of the Spanish-American War and the start of WWI, race relations in the United States had greatly deteriorated. This was evident in the U.S. Army, where continued segregation and discrimination against

77 Villahermosa, "America's Hispanics in America's Wars;" Library of Congress, "Rough Riders."

78 This is the historically accurate spelling for the Porto Rican Provisional Regiment and Porto Rico Regiment of Infantry.

79 Oropeza, "Fighting on Two Fronts," 255.

Black soldiers remained the rule, mirroring civilian realities. As Jim Crow laws were tightened, there were several incidents in cities near Army camps where Black troops rioted and shot white citizens (Brownsville, Texas in 1906 and Houston, Texas in 1917). Partially as a consequence of these incidents, the Army was not interested in expanding the numbers of Black soldiers in its ranks before the war.[80]

In the second decade of the 20th century, the four post-Civil War Black infantry regiments (the 38th, 39th, 40th, and 41st) and two cavalry regiments (the 9th and 10th) were still in service. The 9th Cavalry was formed in Louisiana in 1866 and began occupying the previously abandoned Fort Davis, Texas, in 1867. The 10th Cavalry formed c. 1867 to guard the Kansas Pacific Railroad and was also stationed at Fort Davis by 1873.[81]

In 1869, the Army decided to reduce its overall number of infantry units to 25. Consequently, the four Black infantry regiments were consolidated to two: the 24th and 25th.[82] The former 38th and 41st Infantries became the 24th Infantry, and they served at Fort Davis from 1869 to 1872. They were then headquartered at Fort Sill, Oklahoma. The former 39th and 40th Infantries became the 25th, and they served throughout Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas prior to serving at Fort Davis from 1870 to 1880. At that point, they were transferred to the Dakota Territory and, in 1888, Montana. Finally, they served in Idaho and around the Northern Pacific Railroad during the 1890s.[83]

The 24th and 25th Infantries and 9th and 10th Cavalries were mobilized in 1916–1917 for the Mexican Punitive Expedition, the U.S. response to an attack on Columbus, New Mexico, led by Pancho Villa.[84] Villa was a revolutionary during the Mexican Civil War. The exact reason for Villa's attack on Columbus is unclear.[85]

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[80] Prum, "Where We Stand," 22.

[81] National Park Service, "African Americans in the Frontier Army."

[82] Dr. Paul-Thomas Ferguson, "A History of African American Regiments in the U.S. Army," U.S. Army, Feb. 11, 2021, https://www.army.mil/article/243284/a_history_of_african_american_regiments_in_the_u_s_army.

[83] National Park Service, "African American sin the Frontier Army."

[84] Ulysses Lee, *The Employment of Negro Troops*, CMH Pub. 11-4-1 (Washington, DC: U.S. Army Center of Military History, 2001), 5.

[85] History.com Editors, "Pancho Villa attacks Columbus, New Mexico," History, last modified March 8, 2021, https://www.history.com/this-day-in-history/pancho-villa-attacks-columbus-new-mexico.

As the United States entered WWI, the 24th Infantry and 10th Cavalry remained as defense along the Mexican border. The 25th Infantry and the 9th Cavalry were deployed to the then-territories of Hawaii and the Philippines and Hawaii, respectively.[86]

As in previous conflicts, manpower needs during WWI led to the inclusion of approximately 400,000 Black troops, with 1,300 Black commissioned officers. Training of these troops was strictly segregated. Separate draft calls went out for Black recruits. Due to prevailing beliefs within the Army that Black soldiers had a lower capacity to function in combat, only approximately 40,000 of the 200,000 Black troops sent to France were part of the combat force. Most of the Black troops deployed served in labor battalions, performing menial jobs.[87] There were two divisions of Black soldiers formed for service in WWI: the 92nd and 93rd. The 92nd was organized in November 1917 from selective service recruits across the United States. The Division received basic training at several camps: Camp Funston, Kansas; Camp Grant, Illinois; Camp Upton, New York; Camp Dix, New Jersey; Camp Meade, Maryland; Camp Dodge, Iowa; and Camp Sherman, Ohio.[88] The 92nd was brought to strength and concentrated at Camp Upton before being deployed to France in June and July 1918.[89]

The 93rd Infantry Division was organized at Camp Stuart, Virginia, in December 1917. It was formed from selective service recruits and existing Black National Guard units from New York, Illinois, Maryland, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Ohio, Tennessee, and the District of Columbia.[90] They departed the United States in groups between December 1917 and April 1918 for deployment in France.[91]

Black junior officers for these divisions went through segregated officers' training courses at Fort Des Moines, Iowa. The fort had previously housed two companies of the 25th Infantry in 1903. By 1916, the fort was empty, as cavalry troops had left for the Mexican border. Announced on May 19,

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[86] Lee, *The Employment of Negro Troops*, 5; National Park Service, "World War I and the Buffalo Soldiers," Presidio of San Francisco, last modified Feb. 28, 2015, https://www.nps.gov/prsf/learn/historyculture/world-war-i-and-the-buffalo-soldiers.htm.

[87] Prum, "Where We Stand," 23; Singer, "Memorial Day."

[88] American Battle Monuments Commission, *92nd Division Summary of Operations in the World War* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1944), 1.

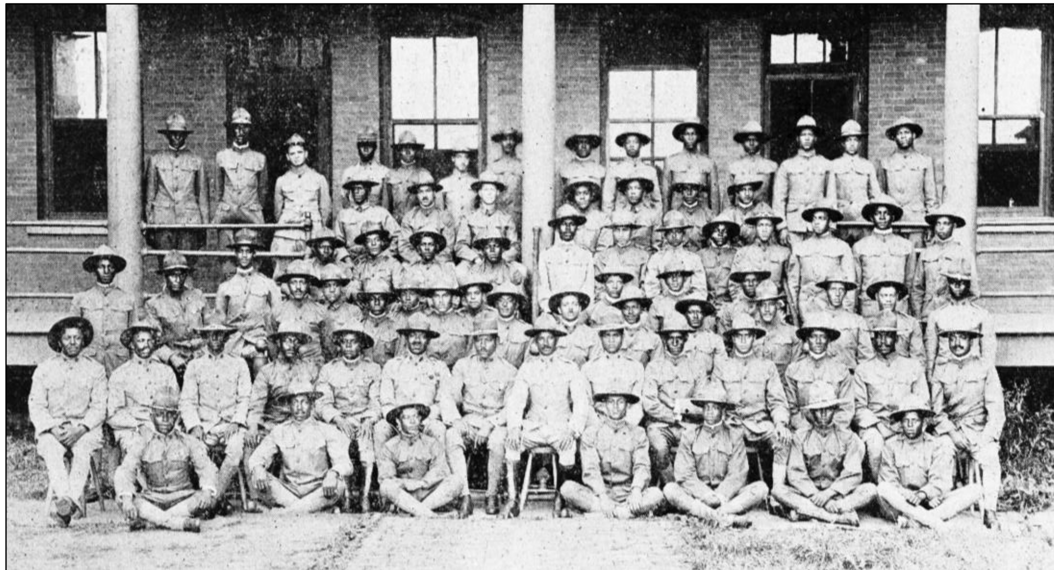
[89] American Battle Monuments Commission, *92nd Division Summary of Operations in the World War*, 4.

[90] American Battle Monuments Commission, *92nd Division Summary of Operations in the World War*, 1.

[91] American Battle Monuments Commission, *92nd Division Summary of Operations in the World War*, 4.

1917, the officers' training camp was opened for 1,250 officer candidates on June 17.[92] The resulting 17th Provisional Training Regiment class was a mixture of college graduates and faculty, along with NCOs from the four established Black regiments.[93] Over 600 Black officers were graduated on October 15, 1917.[94] An additional 300 Black officers trained at Western University in Kansas City, Kansas.[95] After receiving their commissions, the new officers were sent to various camps for basic training, if they were not already experienced soldiers.[96] The officers became part of the 92nd Division, serving under higher-ranking white officers (Figure 12).

Figure 12. United States Provisional Training Company No. 1, Colored Officers Training Camp, Fort Des Moines, Iowa, 1917 (Thompson, "History and Views").



For Black women, the only entrée into the Army at this time was as a nurse. Many enrolled as Red Cross nurses early in the war with hopes of joining the Army or Navy Nurse Corps, though the opportunity did not arrive until the war was almost over, during the influenza epidemic. There was a critical shortage of nurses, and 18 Black nurses were accepted into

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[92] MacKenzie Elmer, "Fort Des Moines was Home to US Army's First Black Officer Training School," *Des Moines Register*, October 8, 2017; Robert V. Morris, "Black Officers at Fort Des Moines in World War I," Iowa PBS, accessed Sept. 19, 2021, http://www.iptv.org/iowapathways/mypath/black-officers-fort-des-moines-ww-i.

[93] Morris, "Black Officers at Fort Des Moines in World War I."

[94] Library of Congress, "World War I and Postwar Society," African American Odyssey, accessed Oct. 9, 2021, https://memory.loc.gov/ammem/aaohtml/exhibit/aopart7.html.

[95] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 29.

[96] It is likely the black officers received basic training at the same installations where the black soldiers were training. Morris, "Black Officers at Fort Des Moines in World War I."

the corps. In December 1918, they were assigned to duty and posted to Camp Grant, Illinois, and Camp Sherman, Ohio. They lived in segregated quarters and were limited to caring for Black soldiers and German prisoners of war. All Black nurses were released from service by August 1919 as part of a post-war reduction in the Army Nurse Corps.[97]

Native Americans were accepted into the Army in WWI, and they served in integrated units. There were attempts in the decade before U.S. entry into the war to create all-Native American segregated Army units, but the War Department was mostly opposed to this idea, preferring to integrate Native Americans into white units. In one instance, the Army approved a request in 1916 for a unit of Apache Scouts during the pursuit of Pancho Villa. Legislative attempts to create regiments of Native American cavalry failed, as the Secretary of War Newton D. Baker and Bureau of Indian Affairs officials preferred an integrated approach as an aid to assimilation. Although U.S. citizenship for Native Americans was not yet universal, Native Americans served as both volunteers and draftees in WWI. It is estimated that 13,000 Native American men served in the war, roughly 20-30 percent of their numbers in the wider population, a very high percentage.[98]

Although Native Americans were not segregated, there were a few units with a large majority of Native American personnel. This was largely a result of the regional recruiting practices employed at the time. One example was Company E, 142nd Infantry Regiment, 36th Division, which contained mostly Native Americans from Oklahoma. Most Native Americans were, however, dispersed across the Army and across specialties. Several members of the 142nd participated in the inception of the use of Native American speakers as code talkers. The Choctaw Code Talkers were officially utilized beginning October 26, 1918, and they transmitted messages utilizing their native language to protect secrecy. This use of Native American languages went on to be utilized more extensively and famously in WWII.[99] In 1924, American citizenship was

[97] Sheldon, "Brief History of Black Women in the Military;" U.S. Army Medical Department, "African American Army Nurse Corps Officers."

[98] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 495-497.

[99] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 498-499.

granted to all Native Americans born in the United States by passage of the Indian Citizenship Act, also known as the Snyder Act.[100]

During WWI, 200,000 Hispanics served in the U.S. military. They fully integrated into the Army. The same is not true of Puerto Rican soldiers who had not migrated to the mainland United States. Based on geographic separation, mixed ethnic heritage, and a non-English common language, Puerto Rican troops experienced segregation. Although the island became a United States' territory at the close of the Spanish-American War in 1898, the Puerto Rican people were not yet citizens. That changed on March 2, 1917, when the Jones-Shafroth Act was signed by President Woodrow Wilson, granting citizenship to Puerto Ricans.[101] As citizens, the men were now eligible for the draft, and United States' involvement in WWI was about to begin. Approximately 18,000 Puerto Rican soldiers served in the war, as the "Porto Rico Regiment."[102] This unit existed as a local regiment before the war and were trained by the United States in Puerto Rico. This all-Puerto Rican unit spent the war stationed in Panama to help defend the canal, as U.S. Army policy "restricted most segregated units to noncombat roles."[103] Upon its return to Puerto Rico in 1920, the Porto Rico Regiment was redesignated the 65th Infantry Regiment. It remained segregated. There were also Puerto Rican soldiers in other Army units, with their assignments based partly on ethnicity. As Lorena Oropeza writes:

> Even before the war, U.S. military officials at Camp Las Casas, the main training facility on the island, had routinely divided Puerto Rican soldiers upon inspection into the categories of "black" [*sic*] and "white." Once the U.S. entered World War I, officials on the mainland followed suit, allowing light-skinned Puerto Ricans to join regular units while shunting dark-skinned Puerto Ricans to all-African American units.[104]

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[100] Nebraska Public Media, "Citizenship for Native Veterans," Nebraska Studies, accessed Sept. 27, 2021, http://www.nebraskastudies.org/en/1900-1924/native-american-citizenship/citizenship-for-native-veterans/.

[101] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 544.

[102] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 544.

[103] Army.mil, "History," Hispanics in the United States Army, accessed Oct. 3, 2021, https://www.army.mil/hispanics/history.html#2.

[104] Oropeza, "Fighting on Two Fronts," 256.

Of the mainland Puerto Ricans assigned to African American units, few saw combat in Europe. An exception was the 369th Infantry Regiment, known as the Harlem Hell Fighters. The 369th fought "for 191 days without losing a single soldier as a prisoner or an inch of ground."[105] The 369th is also credited, in part, with having introduced jazz to Europe during WWI, when the regimental band played a jazz rendition of "La Marseillaise" on the docks upon their arrival in Brest, France.[106] They later played a concert of patriotic music and jazz at the Théâtre des Champs-Élysées in Paris, though some Parisians had likely heard American jazz music previously.[107] The Puerto Rican servicemen who were assigned to this unit were recruited by the bandleader for their musical talent just before the unit was sent to France.[108]

In 1923, Camp Buchanan was created near San Juan to provide a training area for the 65th Infantry. It was also used by Army and National Guard troops as a target range and maneuver area from 1923 until 1939.[109] It is not known if the visiting troops were housed and fed in areas segregated from the Puerto Rican soldiers.

In a different example of segregation during WWI, the Army was faced with a much larger immigrant population drafted into the military than had previously existed. Concerned that many of these soldiers did not speak English well enough to be effective in combat, the Army instituted the "Camp Gordon Plan."[110] Non-English-speaking soldiers were grouped together at training camps and assigned to Development Battalions, comprised of soldiers temporarily unfit for service. These soldiers were not fully occupied and over time grew discontented, and national rivalries became an issue. To train the soldiers and reduce the problems stemming from rivalries and factions, the Army developed a plan to segregate these

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[105] Oropeza, "Fighting on Two Fronts," 256.

[106] Oropeza, "Fighting on Two Fronts," 256; Erick Trickey, "One Hundred Years Ago, the Harlem Hellfighters Bravely Led the U.S. Into WWI," *Smithsonian Magazine*, May 14, 2018, https://www.smithsonianmag.com/history/one-hundred-years-ago-harlem-hellfighters-bravely-led-us-wwi-180968977/.

[107] Trickey, "One Hundred Years Ago;" The United States World War One Centennial Commission, "Playing Jazz in 'No-Man's Land," The Harlem "Hellfighters" of the 369th Regiment, accessed Feb. 2, 2022, https://www.worldwar1centennial.org/index.php/the-emergence-of-jazz/james-europe-and-the-harlem-hellfighters.html.

[108] Oropeza, "Fighting on Two Fronts," 256.

[109] Army.mil, "History," U.S. Army Fort Buchanan Puerto Rico, accessed Oct. 17, 2021, https://home.army.mil/buchanan/index.php/about/history.

[110] Oropeza, "Fighting on Two Fronts," 257.

troops by nationality, i.e., all-Polish companies, or Italian, or Greek companies, while teaching them English and how to be a soldier. Camp Gordon, an Infantry Replacement camp in Georgia, was selected as the site to test out this program.[111]

A non-English-speaking group of 4,000 soldiers was gathered there, and the program was initiated by classifying each man by "nationality, loyalty, intellect, citizenship, and fitness for military service."[112] As a result, the men were divided into three groups: Development Battalion (all physically fit men), Labor Battalion (those classed as disloyal and enemy aliens), and Non-Combatant Service (physically unfit for deployment but proficient in a trade). Labor Battalion soldiers were divided into classes by ethnicity and language, and then taught English concurrently with their recruit training.[113] The men became ready for deployment, so the program was deemed a success and implemented at other training camps. For example, roughly 600 Mexicans and Mexican Americans were trained this way at Camp Cody, New Mexico, before departing for France.[114]

Approximately 838 first-generation Japanese Americans (Issei) were drafted in Hawaii during WWI, as Japanese Americans constituted nearly a third of the Hawaiian population at that time.[115] Even more Japanese Americans volunteered to serve, primarily in hopes of gaining U.S. citizenship, though requests for citizenship were typically turned down due to an 1870 revision of the Act of March 26, 1971, which restricted naturalization to "free white person(s) and "persons of African nativity or descent."[116] Enough Japanese Americans enlisted that the Hawaii National Guard formed an ethnically Japanese unit composed primarily of Issei; however, it was not deployed overseas.[117]

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[111] Captain G.B. Perkins, "Camp Gordon Plan," *Journal of the United States Artillery* 49 (1918), 265-267.

[112] Perkins, "Camp Gordon Plan," 265-267.

[113]Perkins, "Camp Gordon Plan," 265-270.

[114] Oropeza, "Fighting on Two Fronts," 257.

[115] Brian Niiya, "Japanese Americans in military during World War II," Densho Encyclopedia, last modified Jan. 25, 2021, http://encyclopedia.densho.org/Japanese_Americans_in_military_during_World_War_II/.

[116] Niiya, "Japanese Americans in military during World War II;" Franklin Odo and Kazuko Sinoto, *A Pictorial History of the Japanese in Hawaii, 1885-1924* (Honolulu: Bishop Museum Press, 1985), 208–09.

[117] 100th Infantry Battalion Veterans, "The 298th and 299th Story," 100th Infantry Battalion Veterans Education Center, accessed Feb. 8, 2022, https://www.100thbattalion.org/history/stories/298th-299th-story-2/.

2.1.6 World War II

German forces' rapid expansion Europe in 1940 solidified fears at the U.S. War Department that America might soon be party to the conflict. In preparation for entry to the impending war, Congress authorized the president to call up the National Guard and approved the Selective Service Act of 1940.[118] This required all men between 21 and 45 to register for the draft. Though previous drafts had been enacted in the United States, this was the country's first peacetime draft.[119]

As a result of the Selective Service Act, the Army increased in troop strength from a low of 230,000 to over 1.6 million by December 1941.[120] Vast sums of money were expended to recruit, house, train, supply, and feed this greatly enlarged Army. Twenty new cantonments were completed by the time America formally entered the war on December 7, 1941 (Figure 13).[121] At this point, the Selective Service Act of 1940 was amended to require all men between 18 and 64 to register for the draft.[122]

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118 David W. Hogan, Jr., *225 Years of Service: The U.S. Army 1775–2000*, (Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Library, 2000), 292-293.

119 David Vergun, "First Peacetime Draft Enacted Just Before World War II," DoD News, April 7, 2020, https://www.defense.gov/News/Feature-Stories/story/Article/2140942/first-peacetime-draft-enacted-just-before-world-war-ii/.

120 Hogan, Jr., *225 Years of Service: The U.S. Army 1775–2000*, 292-293.

121 John S. Garner, *World War II Temporary Military Buildings: A Brief History of the Architecture and Planning of Cantonments and Training Stations in the United States*, USACERL Technical Reports CRC-93/01 (Champaign, IL: U.S. Army Construction Engineering Research Laboratory, 1993), 16.

122 Vergun, "First Peacetime Draft Enacted Just Before World War II."

Figure 13. WWII Cantonment at Camp Hood, Texas, 1948 (NARA).

The vast scale of manpower necessary to combat the Axis Powers required implementation of a draft on a massive scale. Soldiers of many different ethnicities came together as Americans in an integrated Army, with four exceptions: African Americans, Japanese Americans, Filipino Americans, and Puerto Ricans.

African Americans

For African American soldiers, the racial divisions present in American society continued during the war. Issues involving quotas, separation of races, provision of equal facilities, level of training offered, and career advancement arose within the military, as they did in the civilian population. The Army was torn between crafting new policies and procedures to reduce these issues and trying to maintain the status quo so as to not detract energy and resources from the pre-war effort. This dichotomy was not fully resolved by the time the war ended.[123]

The Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 contained language providing that "there shall be no discrimination against any person on

[123] MacGregor, *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 12.

account of race or color."[124] The implementation of this language, however, led to difficulties throughout the war. [125]

At the time, the War Department's general positions on Black troops were:

- African American troops would be mobilized in representative numbers to their proportion of the general population's strength of military age men, approximately nine percent.
- African American soldiers would be utilized in all units for which they qualified, including combat arms.
- African American troops would be organized into all African American units but would likely be attached to larger white units.
- Officers for these units could be African American or white, but the African American units would have a higher number of officers. African American officers were to receive the same training, at the same schools, and to the same standards, as white officers. African American officers would only serve in African American units, only commanding African American troops.
- African American troops would be "trained, officered, quartered, clothed, and provided with all facilities in the same manner as white troops."[126]

These general policies held throughout America's entry into the war, and most of them held for the duration. The strength limit of African American soldiers as a percentage comparable to the general population was maintained throughout. The number of African Americans in the Army increased from 3,640 in 1939 to 467,883 by December 1942.[127] By the end of the war, 909,000 African Americans had served in the Army.[128]

Army basic training for African Americans was segregated "at the base or unit level."[129] By the fall of 1941, African American soldiers were receiving

[124] MacGregor, *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 12.

[125] MacGregor, *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 12.

[126] Lee, *The Employment of Negro Troops,* 49-50; Steven D. Smith*, A Historic Context Statement for A World War II Era Black Officers' Club at Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri*, research manuscript (Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina, 1998), 14-15.

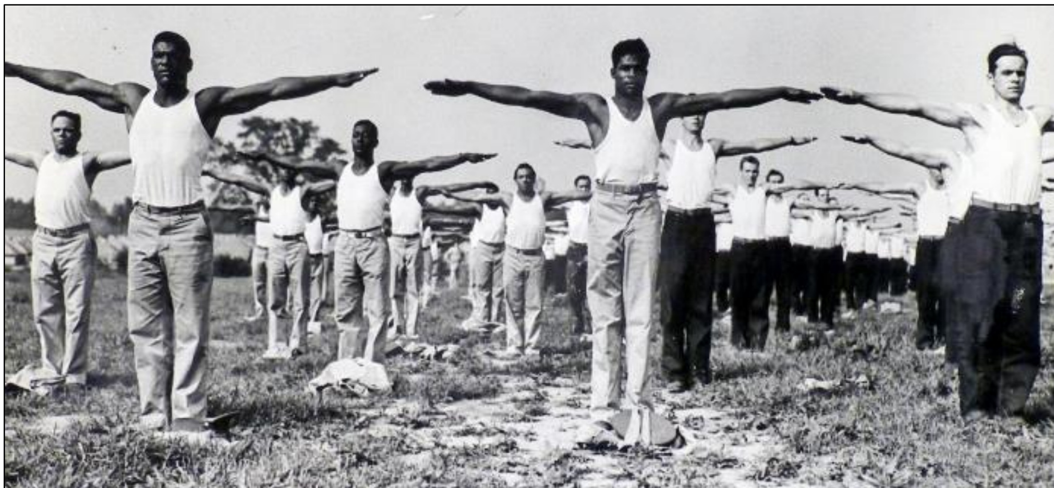
[127] Steven D. Smith, *The African American Soldier at Fort Huachuca, Arizona, 1892-1946* (Seattle, WA: U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Seattle District, 2001), 77.

[128] National WWII Museum, "African Americans in World War II," Topics, accessed Sept. 12, 2021, https://www.nationalww2museum.org/war/topics/african-americans-world-war-ii.

[129] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 34.

basic training at Army training bases including Camp Blanding, Florida; Fort McClellan, Alabama; Fort Devens, Massachusetts; Fort Benning, Georgia; Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri; Fort Knox, Kentucky; Camp Claiborne, Louisiana; and Fort Huachuca, Arizona (Figure 14 and Figure 15).[130] Upon completion of basic training, most African American soldiers were sent to other installations for further training, or were assigned to service or combat support units, often waiting for deployment overseas. These installations contained both white and African American troops, with the African American units often a small part of the overall number of soldiers at the installation. The African American units had white commanding officers, and the subordinate officers were a mix of white and African American. The unit NCOs were African American, as were all the enlisted personnel.[131] There were concentrations of Black troops at several installations, including Fort Bragg, North Carolina; Camp Livingston, Louisiana; Camp Davis, North Carolina; Fort Belvoir, Virginia; Camp Lee, Virginia; Fort Sill, Oklahoma; Fort Clark, Texas; Fort Indiantown Gap, Pennsylvania; and Aberdeen, Maryland.[132]

Figure 14. Recently inducted selectees performing calisthenics, 1941 (NARA College Park 111-SCA Album 223).



[130] Smith and Zeidler, *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 228-229; "Program of Construction and Estimated Cost, Recreational Facilities for Colored Troops," March 6, 1941, RG 92 Quartermaster General, General Correspondence 1936-45, Box 726, File: "631, 1941," National Archives and Records Administration, College Park, MD.

[131] Aldo H. Bagnulo and Michael J. Brodhead, ed., *Nothing But Praise: A History of the 1321st Engineer General Service Regiment*, EP 870-1-69 (Alexandria, VA: U. S. Army Corps of Engineers Office of History, 2009), vii.

[132] Smith and Zeidler, *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 228-229; "Program of Construction and Estimated Cost, Recreational Facilities for Colored Troops," NARA, College Park, MD.

Figure 15. 372nd Negro Infantry, Headquarters Company office workers, 1941 (NARA College Park 111-SCA Album 223).

Most (78%) African Americans were assigned to the service branches of the Army: engineer, quartermaster, and transportation (

Table 1 and

Table 2).[133] For example, Black soldiers at Fort Indiantown Gap trained as stevedores, whose role was to move supplies through ports, using mock ships (Figure 16).[134] Army leadership remained steadfast in the belief developed during WWI that African Americans would perform best in support roles behind the lines, not in actual combat. As a result, "by 1942, 42 percent of all engineer units were African American, whereas the Army's manpower was only 8.6 percent African American by 1943" (Figure 17).

Table 1. WWII Units at Camp Claiborne, LA, n.d. (Transcribed from NARA College Park 77-391-65).

Units	Officers	Enlisted Men
34th Division	906	17,945
151st Engineers	45	1,205
69th Q. M. Co. (L.M.)	4	169
10th Station Hospital	3	75
53rd Medical Bn. (Corps.)	34	476
367th Colored Inf. Reg.	115	2,660
254th Signal Bn. (Constr.)	19	503
28th Q. M. Co. (Trk.) Colored	6	200
69th Q. M. Co. (Refrs.)	2	52
33rd Engr. (Serv. Top.)	5	180
585th Colored Engr. Co. (Dp.Trk.)	4	150
33rd Engr. Co. (Dep.)	4	160
67th Engr. Co. (Top.) Corps	5	100
57th Engr. Co. (Shop)	4	160
57th Signal Bn. (Const.)	21	512
203rd Signal Co. (Dep.)	6	111

[133] National WWII Museum, "African Americans in World War II.."

[134] Andrew Brozyna, "Indiantown Gap in WWII," Longshore Soldiers, Sept. 8, 2010, http://www.longshoresoldiers.com/2010/09/indiantown-gap-in-wwii.html.

Units	Officers	Enlisted Men
3rd Signal Co. (Constr.)	6	232
2nd Signal Co. (Pigeon)	9	238
3rd Signal Co. (Dep.)	10	171
43rd Evac. Hospital	3	150
212th General Hospital	3	250
Post Complement (OH)	61	1,408
758th Tank Bn.	31	463
	1,306	27,570
		28,876

Table 2. WWII Units at Fort Belvoir, VA, n.d. (Transcribed from NARA College Park 77-391-33).

Replacement Center	Engineer Regiment (G.S.)
394th Engr. Co. (Depot)	Engineer Bn. (Sep.) Colored
56th Engr. Co. (Shop)	Engineer Bn. (Hv. Pont)
"B" Co. 80th CM Bn. (L.M.)	Engineer Co. (Lt. Pont)
5th Engrs. (Combat)	Engineer Bn. (Cam) less 1 Co.
30th Engr. Bn. (Top) less 1 Co.	Hospital
31st Engr. Co. (Combat)	Post Overhead (1320th Serv. Unit)
218th General Hospital	

Figure 16. Two Black stevedores receive training from a white instructor in winch operation at Fort Indiantown Gap, 1942 (NARA).

Figure 17. The 41st engineers at Fort Bragg in parade color guard ceremony. Photograph from the Office of War Information booklet “Negroes and the War,” n.d. (NARA College Park RG208NP Box 4).

There were some exceptions to the type of units to which African American soldiers were assigned, particularly in the case of combat infantry. The War Department had been discussing the idea of larger Black units in the fall of 1941.[135] As Army manpower increased, the proportionate rise in Black soldiers created a difficulty in assignment. The policy of assigning Black troops to smaller organizations was running up against the need to place more and more Black troops. Creating larger Black units was a potentially useful option as Army divisions would utilize a large number of soldiers in one place. Fort Huachuca, Arizona, in an isolated expanse of desert, provided an opportunity for the Army as the only installation that could house a complete African American combat division.[136] The 93rd Infantry Division was activated at Fort Huachuca, Arizona, on May 15, 1942, after completion of a new cantonment.[137] The 93rd was composed of "three infantry regiments, quartermaster and engineering battalions, a medical battalion and artillery and service units."[138] As a combat division, soldiers underwent combat training including assault and familiarity with several types of weapons (Figure 18 and Figure 19). The 93rd left Fort Huachuca in June 1943 and was later deployed to the South Pacific. Fort Huachuca was not empty for long, as a new African American Infantry Division, the 92nd, was stationed there for training shortly after the 93rd departed. The 92nd left in July 1944 for the front lines in Italy.[139]

Figure 18. Soldiers of Battery B, 93rd Division swing a 105mm Howitzer into position, Fort Huachuca, 1942 (NARA).

[135] Lee, *The Employment of Negro Troops,* 127.

[136] William R. Forstchen and Dale E. Wilson, "Segregation In The Military," in *History In Dispute, Volume 4: World War II, 1939-1943*, ed. Dennis Showalter (Detroit, MI: St. James Press, 2000), 221.

[137] "All-Negro Army Division, Second Air Unit Announced," *Atlanta Daily World*, January 23, 1942, 1.

[138] "Rush New Jim Crow Army Plan," *Chicago Defender,* December 20, 1941, 1.

[139] Lee, *The Employment of Negro Troops*, 494.

Figure 19. Soldiers of the 93rd Division in combat training, Fort Huachuca, Arizona, 1942 (NARA).

In addition to the 93rd and 92nd Infantry Divisions, African Americans saw action in the Army Ground Forces as artillery, armor, and engineer combat troops, including the 758th, 761st, and 784th tank battalions.[140] In the Pacific theater, African American combat units included the 24th Infantry Regiment, ten anti-aircraft battalions, and one coast artillery battalion.[141] Toward the end of the war, the thinning ranks at the front line in Europe necessitated opening more combat roles to African American soldiers. They were presented the opportunity to volunteer to reinforce white infantry companies. Many rushed to take advantage of this, and "served successfully in some thirty-seven black [*sic*] rifle platoons in the First Army and with a handful of black [*sic*] rifle companies in the Seventh Army."[142]

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140 Bagnulo and Brodhead, ed., *Nothing But Praise*, vii; Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 35.

141 National WWII Museum, "African Americans in World War II."

142 Forstchen and Wilson, "Segregation In The Military," 221.

Officer training for African Americans in WWII was held at Officer Candidate Schools (OCS) around the country, organized by branch. For example, Infantry OCS was located at Fort Benning, Georgia; Field Artillery OCS at Fort Sill, Oklahoma; Coastal Artillery OCS at Fort Monroe, Virginia; and the Signal Corps OCS at Fort Monmouth, New Jersey.[143] In a shift from segregation of enlisted men, it was Army policy beginning in 1942 that African Americans and whites would train together in OCS. The schools integrated training and housing, in effect becoming an experiment in racial integration in the Army.[144] After the integrated training, however, most newly minted African American officers were sent off to command segregated units. Specialist and technical training schools were integrated beginning in 1943.[145]

The Army created the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC) in May 1942 (Public Law 554), with an enrollment limit for women of two percent of the total Army numbers. The auxiliary corps became an active-duty branch of the Army on July 1, 1943 and was retitled the Women's Army Corps (WAC). Although admitted from the start, Black women had their own quota, limited to only ten percent of the WAAC/WAC population. This matched the proportion of Black individuals in the American population as a whole.[146] Over the course of the war, 6,520 African American women served in the WAAC/WAC.[147]

During the war, WAAC/WAC training took place at Fort Des Moines, Iowa; Fort Oglethorpe, Georgia; Fort Devens, Massachusetts; Daytona Beach, Florida; and Camp Ruston, Louisiana. The WAAC/WAC OCS was located at Fort Des Moines (Figure 20). The first group of officer candidates arrived on July 20, 1942, and comprised 400 white and 40 African American women.[148] The first several OCS classes segregated the African American WAACs/WACs, but pressure from the National

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[143] Army.mil, "Officer Candidate School (OCS)," Fort Benning, accessed Oct. 9, 2021, https://www.benning.army.mil/MCoE/199th/OCS/History.html; MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 30.

[144] MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 30.

[145] Bettie J. Morten, *The Women's Army Corp, 1945-1978*, CMH Pub. 30-14 (Washington, DC: Center of Military History, 1990), 16-17.

[146] Sheldon, "Brief History of Black Women in the Military;" Ray Kozakewicz, "Fort Lee WACs Helped Drive the Racial Integration of the U.S. Army in 1950s," Army.mil, last modified Feb. 25, 2014, https://www.army.mil/article/120464/fort_lee_wacs_helped_drive_the_racial_integration_of_the_us_army_in_1950s.

[147] Sheldon, "Brief History of Black Women in the Military."

[148] Morten, *The Women's Army Corp, 1945-1978*, 17.

Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), along with Army policy for integrated officer training, resulted in a switch to integrated training, recreation, and living arrangements for all the officer candidates by November 1942 (Figure 20). The specialist schools for WACs were integrated by 1943.[149]

Figure 20. WAC Officer Candidates at Graduation, May 20, 1944, Fort Oglethorpe, GA (Morden, *The Women's Army Corps*, 1990).

The enlisted Black women, both in training and in assigned stations across the country "served in segregated units, participated in segregated training, lived in separate quarters, ate at separate tables in mess halls, and used segregated recreation facilities."[150] In a sense, they were subjected to "double segregation" based on race and gender. WAAC/WACs lived in separate areas on military installations, with their own facilities for housing, recreation, messing, etc. African American WAAC/WACs

[149] Morten, *The Women's Army Corp, 1945-1978*, 17.

[150] Sheldon, "Brief History of Black Women in the Military."

lived in separate areas of the WAAC/WAC area, again with their own facilities. One group's experience was probably typical:

> The first group of Negro WACs to be assigned to any station were sent to Fort Huachuca. They arrived here 300 strong on the fourth of December in 1942. The WAC detachment was housed in their own barracks, with mess halls and administration building nearby, organized its own basketball and softball teams.[151]

In January 1941, the Army again began accepting Black nurses with an initial ceiling of 56. By April, 48 Black nurses were assigned to Camp Livingston, Louisiana, and Fort Bragg, North Carolina. Two years later, there were 183 Black Army Nurse Corps members with commissions, comprising 0.6% of the Nurse Corps. The quota system for admission of Black nurses to the corps was discontinued in July 1944. By the war's end, approximately 600 Black nurses had served both at home and overseas in all theaters of the war (Figure 21).[152]

Figure 21. WWII Nurses preparing to land in Greenock, Scotland on August 15, 1944 (U.S. Army Medical Department).

[151] "Fort Huachuca at War: From a Border Garrison to a Mammoth Training Ground," *Apache Sentinel*, March 9, 1945, 3.

[152] Sheldon, "Brief History of Black Women in the Military;" U.S. Army Medical Department, "African American Army Nurse Corps Officers."

The policy on facilities in essence required the War Department to construct or provide existing facilities for African American soldiers in a "separate but equal" fashion. The decision to house and support African American troops "as if the colored contingent formed the garrison of a separate camp or cantonment" created problems in stationing the African American troops.[153] The problem is succinctly expressed by Smith, Burt, and Walaszek:

> The Army policy of segregated housing for African American troops caused mobilization and training complications at installations and camps across the nation. Because so few blacks [*sic*] were in the Army at the war's beginning, camps and forts already built were not designed for, nor could they be adapted readily to separated, self-functioning housing, recreational, and in some cases, training areas for black [*sic*] units. Even when there were empty or underutilized barracks and recreational facilities awaiting troops, these spaces were not necessarily adaptable for housing black [*sic*] troops because of imposed black [*sic*] unit size restrictions. As noted, at the beginning of the war black [*sic*] units were restricted to brigade or smaller units. Traditionally, military units had always been housed by unit to maintain unit cohesion, control, and to build morale. Installation housing was designed with this in mind. However, where black [*sic*] units did not correspond in size and complexity to white units, housing and recreation facilities would either be crowded or underutilized in order to maintain the policy-driven separation of white and black [*sic*] units. Such complications often resulted in installations housing their newly formed black [*sic*] units in make-shift areas, after white troops had been fully housed. If there was no space available, they were tented until separate housing could be built.[154]

In most cases, the African American troops were billeted in existing barracks. These facilities were, however, usually spatially segregated from those of white troops, and formed self-contained housing areas with barracks, mess halls, latrines, and other necessary buildings. The decision to house and support Black troops in a "separate but equal" fashion posed the greatest problems in the distribution and use of recreational

[153] War Department, Adjutant General's Office, Washington, "War Department Construction Policy," 19 August 1941, RG 92 Quartermaster General, General Correspondence 1936-45, Box 699, File: "600.1 Misc. 1940," National Archives and Records Administration, College Park, MD.

[154] Smith, *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*.

facilities.[155] Separate housing was less of an issue on most of the WWII expansion posts, due to the recent nature of the construction and the identical nature of the barracks. Very rarely were there any added amenities to these buildings, so there was no need to investigate differences in quality between the barracks assigned to Black soldiers and those assigned to white soldiers.

Although living quarters were sometimes segregated, the most contentious issues arose with providing recreational facilities for African American soldiers. Early in WWII, few of these facilities were constructed, as most efforts went towards barracks, mess halls, and other facilities necessary for housing and sustaining the soldiers. The lack of recreational facilities became more pressing as increasing numbers of African American soldiers were inducted and were increasingly frustrated with the options for off-duty hours. On the few occasions when Black soldiers attempted entry to white-only facilities, they were generally refused and ordered to dress down. In a few instances, being turned away resulted in protests or riots.[156]

Recreational facilities were more varied in type, style, and quality than housing facilities. Recreational facilities, which included everything from libraries to swimming pools and ball fields to movie theaters, were allocated to installations during WWII based on unit size. The larger the units posted to the installation, the more recreational amenities they received, and certain types of facilities were allocated only when the installation population crossed certain thresholds. Since Black units were by policy smaller units attached to larger white units, they were at a distinct disadvantage in the allocation of these recreational amenities. While the allocation seems straightforward, there was also an exception that could be applied to provide additional facilities for posts in isolated areas that had no recourse to civilian recreational amenities. There were no clear guidelines for applying this exception. It seems to have been used on a case-by-case basis, when requested by post commanders. This program for additional facilities was established by order of the Secretary of War on March 31, 1941, with an initial appropriation from the 4th

155 War Department, Adjutant General's Office, Washington, "War Department Construction Policy," NARA, College Park, MD.

156 MacGregor, *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 45.

Supplemental National Defense Act of 1941.[157] These allotments were also based on troop strength, with set numbers for allocations of service clubs, theaters, guest houses, and recreation buildings.[158]

Even more disruptive than the lack of adequate recreational facilities was the fact that they were segregated, with Black soldiers denied the right to use recreation facilities assigned to white soldiers. The War Department took a step to address this issue by issuing a directive on March 10, 1943, "forbidding the assignment of any recreational facility, 'including theaters and post exchanges,' by race and requiring the removal of signs labeling facilities for 'white' and 'colored' soldiers."[159] The use of separate facilities by unit was still allowed, so the directive had little impact and resulted in enough confusion that local commanders often simply ignored it altogether. The flashpoints seemed to be theaters and post exchanges, and these two were addressed separately in a War Department directive issued July 8, 1944, that, although allowing separation by unit, insisted all post exchanges and theaters must be open to all.[160] Again, this directive was applied haphazardly across the installations, and the issue remained divisive for most of the war.

Following this directive, the War Department ramped up construction of recreational facilities for African American soldiers. Size, type, and number of facilities constructed at each post was based on the number of soldiers expected to utilize the buildings. The program of construction for recreational facilities for African American troops included Service Clubs (types SC-3, SC-4, and OM-1 [for officers]), Theaters (TH-2, TH-3, TH-4, and tents), and Guest Houses for visitors (OQ-7, OQM-10, and OQM-14) (Table 3 and Table 4).

[157] "Authorization of Construction of Recreational Facilities for Colored Troops," March 31, 1941, RG 394 Records of the U.S. Army Continental Commands 1920-1942, VII Corps Area, Adjutant General, General Administrative File 1920-1941, Box 255, National Archives and Records Administration, College Park, MD.

[158] "Authorization of Construction of Recreational Facilities for Colored Troops," NARA, College Park, MD.

[159] MacGregor, *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 45.

[160] MacGregor, *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 45.

Table 3. Table for "Program of Construction and Estimated Cost; Recreational Facilities for Colored Troops," WWII (Table is transcribed from NARA 77, Box 320).

CORPS AREA	STATION	Strength		SERVICE CLUBS		THEATERS		GUEST HOUSES		Rec. Bldg. Rb-1		Med. TOTAL STATION COST
		Off.	E.M.	Type	Cost	Type	Cost	Type	Cost	Off. Cost	E.M. Cost	
1	Ft. Devens, Mass.	124	2898	SC-4	$ 38,705	TH-4	$58,977	OQ-7	$ 6,082	$ 22,918	$ 22,918	$ 149,600
2	Ft. Dix, N.J.	115	3316	SC-4	36,112	TH-4	55,029	OQ-7	5,675	21,384		118,200
2	Ft. Ontario, N.Y.	75	1890					OQ-7	5,636	21,238		26,874
3	Aberdeen Prov. Gr., Md.	–	1050								22,400	22,400
3	Ft. Belvoir, Va.	–	4283	SC-4	33,645	TH-4	53,695	OQM-10	10,068			99,000
3	Ft. Eustis, Va.	–	840								22,175	22,175
3	Camp Lee, Va.	–	3150	SC-4	33,645	TH-4	51,268	OQ-7	5,287			90,200
4	Ft. Benning, Ga.#	–	3675	SC-4	27,050			OQ-7	4,250			31,300
4	Camp Blanding, Fla.	–	2963	SC-4	32,694	Tent	15,569	OQ-7	5,137			53,400
4	Ft. Bragg, N.C.	–	8012	SC-3	55,700	TH-3	81,958	OQM-14	11,617			149,275
4	Camp Claiborne, La.	–	3160	SC-4	33,060	Tent	15,745	OQ-7	5,195			54,000
4	Camp Croft, S.C.	–	1575			TH-2	17,630	OQ-7	5,290		19,930	42,850
4	Camp Davis, N.C.	–	4740	SC-4	33,675	TH-3	82,585	OQ-7	5,290			121,550
4	Camp Livingston, La.	–	6635			Tent	15,350					15,350

CORPS AREA	STATION	Strength		SERVICE CLUBS		THEATERS		GUEST HOUSES		Rec. Bldg. Rb-1		Med. TOTAL STATION COST
		Off.	E.M.	Type	Cost	Type	Cost	Type	Cost	Off. Cost	E.M. Cost	
4	Ft. Jackson, S.C.	–	685								16,475	16,475
4	Savanna Ord. Depot, Ill.	–	1033								22,770	22,770
4	Camp Shelby, Miss.	–	1741			Tent	15,040	OQ-7	4,960			20,000
4	Camp Wheeler, Macon, Ga.	–	1575			TH-2	16,745	OQ-7	5,025		18,930	40,700
6	Camp Custer, Mich.	69	2969	SC-4	33,160	TH-4	50,525	OQ-7	5,215	19,635		108,535
7	Ft. Riley, Kansas.	–	3343	SC-4	36,000	TH-4	54,850	OQ-7	5,650			96,500
7	Ft. F.E. Warren, Wyo.	–	1575			TH-2	23,535	OQ-7	7,060		22,605	57,200
7	Ft. Leonard Wood, Mo.	–	5102	SC-3	67,800	TH-3	99,750	OQM-10	11,620			179,170
8	Camp Bowie, Tex.	–	1551			Tent	15,600	OQ-7	5,100		19,500	40,200
8	Ft. Huachuca, Ariz.*	–	5586					OQM-14	11,800			11,800
8	Ft. Sill, Okla.	–	2635			TH-2	14,850	OQ-7	4,450		16,800	36,100
8	Camp Wallace, Texas.	–	2618			TH-2	15,000	OQ-7	4,500		17,000	36,500

CORPS AREA	STATION	Strength		SERVICE CLUBS		THEATERS		GUEST HOUSES		Rec. Bldg. Rb-1		Med. TOTAL STATION COST
		Off.	E.M.	Type	Cost	Type	Cost	Type	Cost	Off. Cost	E.M. Cost	
8	Camp Wolters, Texas.	–	2100			TH-2	17,400	OQ-7	5,200		19,675	42,275
9	Ft. Lewis, Wash.	–	504								14,520	14,520
Total		383	81204		$462,838		$771,101		$140,107	$85,175	$259,698	$1,718,919
*Existing Theatre Facilities												
Ft. Benning 1 Perm. Theatre – Capacity 398 Seats										Estimated Surplus –		159,978
Ft. Huachuca 1 Perm. Theatre – Capacity 574 Seats										GRAND TOTAL –		$1,878,897

Table 4. Table for "Revised Program of Construction and Estimated Cost; Recreational Facilities for Colored Troops," WWII (Table is transcribed from NARA 77, Box 320).

C.A.	STATION	Strength		SERVICE CLUBS		THEATERS		GUEST HOUSES		OFF. RECR. Cost OM-1	TOTAL STATION COST
		Off.	EM	Type	Cost	Type	Cost	Type	Cost		
1	Ft. Devens, Mass.	124	2898	SC-4	$ 38,705	TH-4	$ 58,977	OQ-7	$ 6,082	$ 22,918	$ 126,682
2	Ft. Dix. N.J.	115	3316	SC-4	36,112	TH-4	55,029	OQ-7	5,675	21,384	118,200
2	Ft. Ontario, N.Y.	75	1890	OM-1	21,238	Available		OQ-7	5,636	21,238	48,112

C.A.	STATION	Strength		SERVICE CLUBS		THEATERS		GUEST HOUSES		OFF. RECR. Cost OM-1	TOTAL STATION COST
		Off.	EM	Type	Cost	Type	Cost	Type	Cost		
3	Aberdeen Prov. Gd. Md.	-	1050	OM-1	22,400	-		OQ-7	4,950	-	27,350
3	Ft. Belvoir, Va.	-	4283	SC-4	35,237	TH-4*	53,695	OQM-10	10,068	-	99,000
3	Ft. Eustis, Va.	-	840	OM-1	22,175	-		-		-	22,175
3	Camp Lee, Va.	-	3150	SC-4	33,645	Available		OQ-7	5,287	-	38,932
3	Ft. Benning, Ga.		3675	SC-4	27,050	Available		OQ-7	4,250	-	31,300
4	Camp Blanding, Fla.	-	2963	SC-4	32,694	Tent	15,569	OQ-7	5,137	-	53,400
4	Ft. Bragg, N.C.	55	8012	SC-3	55,700	TH-3*	81,958	OQM-14	11,617	16,500	165,775
4	Camp Claiborne, La.	-	3160	SC-4	33,060	Tent	15,745	OQ-7	5,195	-	54,000
4	Camp Croft, S. Car.	-	1575	OM-1	19,330	TH-2	17,630	OQ-7	5,290	-	42,250
4	Camp Davis, N. Car.	-	4740	SC-4	33,675	TH-3*	82,585	OQM-10	9,580	-	125,840
4	Camp Livingston, La.	55	6635	Availa ble		Tent	15,350	Available		15,900	31,250
4	Ft. Jackson, S. Car.	-	685	OM-1	16,475	-		-		-	16,475
4	Camp Shelby, Miss.	-	1741	OM-1	19,500	Tent	15,040	OQ-7	4,960	-	39,500
4	Camp Wheeler, Ga.	-	1575	OM-1	18,930	TH-2	16,745	OQ-7	5,025	-	40,700
6	Savannah Ord., Ill.	-	1033	OM-1	22,770	TH-2	19,000	OQ-7	6,050	-	47,820
6	Camp Custer, Mich.	69	2969	SC-4	33,160	TH-4	50,525	OQ-7	5,215	19,635	108,535

C.A.	STATION	Strength		SERVICE CLUBS		THEATERS		GUEST HOUSES		OFF. RECR. Cost OM-1	TOTAL STATION COST
		Off.	EM	Type	Cost	Type	Cost	Type	Cost		
7	Ft. Riley, Kans.	-	3343	SC-4	36,000	TH-4	54,850	OQ-7	5,650	-	96,500
7	Ft. F.E. Warren, Wyo.	-	1575	OM-1	22,605	TH-2*	23,535	OQ-7	7,060	-	53,200
7	Ft. Leonard Wood, Mo.	-	5102	SC-3	67,800	TH-3*	99,750	OQM-10	11,620	-	179,170
8	Camp Bowie, Tex.	-	1551	OM-1	19,500	Tent	15,600	OQ-7	5,100		40,200
8	Ft. Huachuca, Ariz.	-	5586	Available		Available		OQM-10	11,800		11,800
8	Ft. Sill, Okla.	-	2635	OM-1	16,800	TH-3*	69,600	OQ-7	4,450		90,850
8	Camp Wallace, Tex.	-	2618	OM-1	17,000	TH-2	15,000	OQ-7	4,500		36,500
8	Camp Wolters, Tex.	1	2100	OM-1	19,675	Available		OQ-7	5,200		24,875
9	Ft. Lewis, Wash.	-	504	OM-1	14,520	-		-			14,520
	TOTAL				$735,756		$776,183		$155,397	$117,575	$1,784,911
									Estimated Surplus		93,986
									TOTAL		$1,878,897

* At these stations, theaters, considered as authorized for white troops at time estimates were made, have been since constructed, or are being constructed, in colored areas. Theaters indicated herein will be built for white troops to compensate for this condition and establish correct ratio of seats.

Japanese Americans (Issei and Nisei)

Many of the second-generation Japanese Americans, known as Nisei, who served in the U.S. military during WWII had relatives living in internment camps, or relocation centers. This was the result of Executive Order 9066, signed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt on February 19, 1942, which authorized the evacuation of all persons that were potentially a threat to the United States in its prosecution of the war.[161] Approximately 110,000 ethnic Japanese individuals were removed from the west coast by the Western Defense Command, the Army command in charge of the defense of the western part of the United States.[162] They were placed in internment camps across the country where they remained segregated until December 17, 1944, when they were allowed to return home.[163]

In addition to having family members in these relocation centers, Many Nisei who served during WWII enlisted directly from their new homes in the relocation centers. The sting of this forced segregation of Americans with Japanese ancestry was notable for these troops. In a wartime article in the Washington Post, veteran Wallace Hisamoto expressed this feeling:

> When my people tried to settle down in some places in this country they were driven out…I went to war because the Japanese rulers and the Nazis were trying to prove that there is a super-race. American doesn't believe that, and yet my people, who are American like me, can't stay put because their skin isn't white. It doesn't make sense.
>
> Our people feel just like Louis [Sergeant Joe Louis] does…When the heavyweight champion landed in England, somebody said to him "Why are you so happy to be in uniform, your country isn't so nice to your people." Joe looked at the man and said, "Mister I know that there are things wrong with my country, but it's nothing Hitler can fix." We Americans whose parents were born in Japan feel the same way. Maybe

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[161] History.com Editors, "FDR orders Japanese Americans into internment camps," History, last modified April 27, 2021, https://www.history.com/this-day-in-history/roosevelt-signs-executive-order-9066.

[162] History.com Editors, "FDR orders Japanese Americans into internment camps;" Densho, "Western Defense Command," Densho Encyclopedia, Oct. 8, 2020, https://encyclopedia.densho.org/Western_Defense_Command/.

[163] History.com Editors, "FDR orders Japanese Americans into internment camps."

> there is something wrong in America, but it's nothing Tojo can fix, either.[164]

Although Japanese Americans were integrated into white Army units before WWII, the Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, resulted in massive changes for this ethnic group. Prior to that date, the Army had been drafting and recruiting Japanese Americans as regular soldiers and as translators/interpreters. Over 5,000 Japanese Americans, primarily Nisei, had been inducted by the time of the Pearl Harbor attack. Many of them were from Hawaii, which had a large Nisei population and constituted large majorities in the Hawaii National Guard. The Military Intelligence Service Language School in San Francisco had opened a month earlier with "a class of sixty students—fifty-eight of whom were Japanese American—taught by four Nisei instructors."[165]

The Japanese American soldiers already serving continued, but on June 17, 1942, the War Department advised the selective service system to stop drafting Nisei. Many Nisei were barred from military service, and had their draft status changed from "draft eligible" to "enemy alien."[166] Just a few months later, a call went out to the internment camps for Nisei volunteers. A large group of Nisei from Hawaii was transferred to Camp McCoy, Wisconsin, for training as the 100th Infantry Battalion in June 1942. By January 1943, the Army had decided to form a Nisei combat team, with volunteers from the mainland and Hawaii. The 442nd Combat Team went into training at Camp Shelby, Mississippi, in April that year.[167] Concurrent to the formation of these two nearly all-Nisei units, Japanese American soldiers had been scattered across the country in integrated units. Most Nisei were Army (including air forces, parachute troops, and medical corps), but there were some Nisei Marines as well. The impetus for the new units seemed to be as a symbol of unity against prejudice, "united, and working together, you would become a symbol of something

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[164] Bob Considine, "On the Line With Considine," *Washington Post*, circa 1944.

[165] Niiya, "Japanese Americans in military during World War II."

[166] U.S. Department of the Interior, War Relocation Authority, *Nisei in Uniform* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1943), n.p.; Katie Lange, "Japanese-Americans were Vital to the WWII War Effort," DoD Live, Dec. 4, 2016, http://www.dodlive.mil/2016/12/04/japanese-americans-were-vital-to-the-wwii-war-effort/.

[167] Department of the Interior, War Relocation Authority, *Nisei in Uniform*, n.p.

greater than your individual selves, and the effect would be felt both in the United States and abroad."[168]

The 100th Infantry Battalion at Camp McCoy was housed in tents, as the camp was at that time a "tent city." The 100th trained for combat at the camp until January 1943, when they were moved to Camp Shelby to join up with the 442nd Combat Team.[169] At Camp Shelby, the 442nd was composed of volunteers from Hawaii, volunteers from the internment camps, and non-Japanese officers.[170] The 100th Infantry left from there in August 1943 for Africa and then Italy. The 442nd left for Italy in April 1944 to join the 100th Infantry Battalion. Nisei were once again accepted in the draft as of a policy shift announced January 20, 1944.[171]

While there was no formal policy of segregation for the Nisei, the 100th Infantry Battalion and the 442nd Combat Team were by nature a segregated unit. The authors, however, found no archival documentation of segregation in the built environment of the camps where they were stationed.

Another effort during WWII that involved a separate group of Nisei soldiers was the Military Intelligence Service Language School in San Francisco. The school had a dual purpose: to train Nisei soldiers to speak Japanese (many of the young Japanese American men did not speak the language, with only seven percent being fluent or proficient), and to train them in military intelligence.[172] After Pearl Harbor, the school was relocated from the west coast to Camp Savage, Minnesota. Minnesota was chosen because the population was found to be tolerant of non-white racial and ethnic groups. The 132-acre site was not previously a military installation but had been a Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) camp in the 1930s.[173] An advance group of Nisei soldiers arrived in spring 1942 to set up the camp, which had most recently been a group of stables. "We swept out the stables, set up bunks, assembled big 55-gallon stoves, and

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[168] Department of the Interior, War Relocation Authority, *Nisei in Uniform*, n.p.

[169] Saburo Nishime, "Memories: The 100th Infantry Battalion (Sep)," 100th Infantry Battalion Veterans Education Center, accessed Oct. 11, 2021, http://www.100thbattalion.org/archives/puka-puka-parades/mainland-training/camp-mccoy/memories-the-100th-infantry-battalion-sep/.

[170] Nishime, "Memories: The 100th Infantry Battalion (Sep)."

[171] Department of the Interior, War Relocation Authority, *Nisei in Uniform*, n.p.

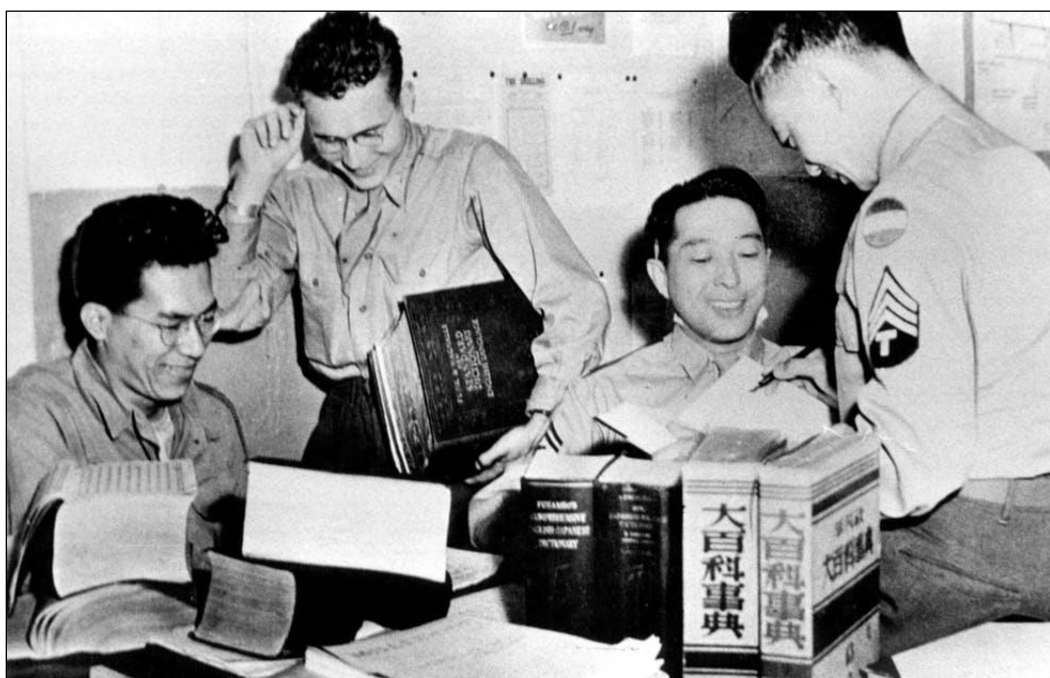
[172] City of Savage, Minnesota, "World War II Camp Savage," History, accessed Sept. 27, 2021, http://www.cityofsavage.com/history/item/689-world-war-ii-camp-savage.

[173] City of Savage, Minnesota, "World War II Camp Savage."

prepared the stables into classrooms. We were all Asians…unconsciously, we grouped separately—the mainland boys and the Hawaii boys."[174]

Newly named Camp Savage, the language school began classes on June 1, 1942, with 200 students. Two years later, the school had grown to "52 academic sections, 27 civilian and 65 enlisted instructors, and 1100 students."[175] The school outgrew the Camp Savage facilities and was moved to nearby Fort Snelling, Minnesota, in August 1944. The school continued there for two more years, closing in October 1946 (Figure 22). It reopened at Monterey, California, as the U.S. Army Language School.[176]

Figure 22. Nisei at the Military Intelligence Service Language School, Fort Snelling, MN, c. 1944 (Star Tribune, 10 May 2015).



While the school was in Minnesota, a total of 6,000 students trained there.[177] After graduation, soldiers were assigned to the Military Intelligence Service, where they were sent to the Pacific front to act as

[174] William Shinji Tsuchida, "Peek Into the Past: My Friend, Spud," 100th Infantry Battalion Veterans Education Center, accessed Nov. 4, 2021, http://www.100thbattalion.org/archives/puka-puka-parades/mainland-training/discrimination/peek-into-the-past-my-friend-sadao-spud-munemori/.

[175] City of Savage, Minnesota, "World War II Camp Savage."

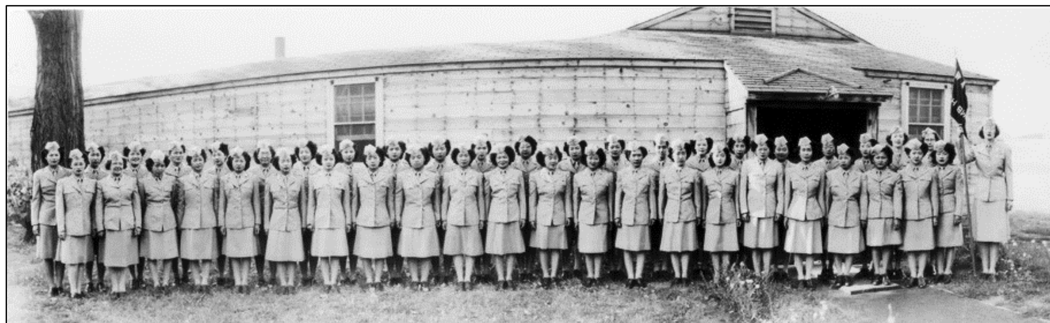
[176] National Park Service, "Breaking the Code," Fort Snelling, last modified Nov. 22, 2019, https://www.nps.gov/miss/learn/historyculture/langschool.htm.

[177] Beyond the Barbed Wire: Japanese Americans in Minnesota, "Military Intelligence Service at Fort Snelling," In the Military, accessed Sept. 24, 2021, https://pages.stolaf.edu/jam/mis-at-fort-snelling/.

interpreters and translators. They were very successful at breaking enemy codes, monitoring radio messages, translating intercepted documents, and prisoner interrogation.[178] Their utility was praised by Gen. Charles Willoughby, chief of military intelligence for Gen. Douglas MacArthur who said, “the Nisei shortened the Pacific War by two years and saved possibly a million American lives and saved probably billions of dollars.”[179]

Several hundred Nisei women served in the war as WACs. They were allowed to enlist after November 1943, when the restrictions on Japanese Americans in the Army had largely been lifted. They were not segregated from white WACs. Some of them received training at the Fort Snelling language school (Figure 23).

Figure 23. Nisei WACs at Fort Snelling, 1945 (Densho Digital Repository).



Filipino Americans

The Philippine Scouts had continued to serve primarily in Manila and numbered 8,000 when Japan attacked the Philippines in December 1941. After holding out for four months, the Scouts surrendered to the Japanese on April 9, 1942. After the war, the Scouts served occupation duty in the Philippines, but the country’s independence in 1946 put an end to the Philippine Scouts. The last unit was disbanded in 1949.[180]

WWII also saw the establishment of the 1st Filipino Infantry Regiment. The unit was made up of Filipino expatriates, Filipino Americans, and white Americans. The unit trained at several Army bases in California

[178] City of Savage, Minnesota, “World War II Camp Savage.”

[179] Curt Brown, “Minnesota History: Secret military language school at Fort Snelling getting recognition,” *Star Tribune*, May 10, 2015, http://www.startribune.com/secret-world-war-ii-military-language-school-at-fort-snelling-getting-recognition/303181451/.

[180] Army Historical Foundation, “The Philippine Scouts,” National Museum United States Army, accessed Feb. 20, 2022, https://armyhistory.org/the-philippine-scouts/.

before transferring to Camp Beale, California, in January 1943. The 1st Filipino Infantry remained at Camp Beale, minus a five-month stint, until January 1944 when it was sent overseas. As many of the personnel were not American citizens, the Army solved this problem by having a mass swearing-in ceremony for 1,000 men on the Camp Beale parade ground, February 20, 1943.[181] No evidence was found that the 1st Filipino Infantry was segregated at Camp Beale.

Other Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Native Americans

With one exception, Army ground personnel with ancestry among these ethnic groups were not segregated during WWII. They trained and served as part of the white troops as designated by the War Department. Integration was also the rule for female Asian Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Native Americans, with these groups providing personnel to the WACS.

The exception to this integration were Puerto Rican soldiers who enlisted in the 65th Infantry Regiment (Figure 24). As in WWI, the 65th Infantry Regiment was spatially and ethnically divided, and it was once again restricted to security and service roles, deployed to protect the Panama Canal Zone. The unit remained ethnically homogenous and segregated. Puerto Rican women did join the WACs and trained on the mainland but were sent back to Puerto Rico afterwards.[182]

[181] Danny Johnson, "Beale Air Force Base," Historic California Posts, Camps, Stations and Airfields, last modified June 23, 2017, http://www.militarymuseum.org/Beale.html.

[182] Oropeza "Fighting on Two Fronts."

Figure 24. Soldiers of the 65th Infantry training in Salinas, Puerto Rico, August 1941 (https://www.nps.gov/articles/latinoww2.htm)

On the mainland, Puerto Ricans served in both white Army units and Black Army units. Puerto Ricans in Black Army units were segregated along with the Black soldiers in these units. The Black Army units were primarily service oriented units, as opposed to the white units that were primarily combat units.[183]

2.1.7 Army Air Forces

The Army Air Corps was established in 1926 as the successor to the United States Army Air Service (1918–1926). The first troop expansion after the 1918 establishment was for WWI. The Army Air Service did not accept any African American personnel when the war began on account of it being impossible to form either entirely African American units or integrated units. This exclusion continued after the Army Air Corps was formed and

[183] Oropeza "Fighting on Two Fronts."

until the approach of American involvement in WWII.[184] In January 1941, the War Department announced that African American pilots would be trained, and an African American Pursuit Squadron would be formed.[185] By July 1941, shortly after the Corps had been reorganized as the Army Air Forces, this aerial combat arm of the Army started accepting African American men and formed several segregated combat units.[186] The Army Air Forces were reluctant to open the ranks to African Americans, but succumbed to outside pressure directed toward the War Department and the Army Air Forces themselves.[187]

The training and utilization of African American airmen at the Tuskegee Institute in Alabama is the most well-known example of segregation in the Army Air Forces. This was an Army Air Forces program created in 1941 to train African American soldiers as "pilots, navigators, bombardiers, maintenance and support staff, and instructors."[188] Black soldiers were also trained other specialties including "technicians, radio operators, supply personnel, medical personnel, parachute rigger…meteorologists, control tower operators/dispatchers, cooks, and much, much, more."[189]

The Tuskegee Institute in Alabama began a program to train African Americans as civilian pilots in 1939 and was therefore in an excellent position to host the new Army Air Forces program. The Institute already had an airport (Moton Field) and experienced instructors. Of the first thirteen cadets admitted in July 1941, five graduated in March 1942 as military pilots, including Captain Benjamin O. Davis, Jr., who would go on to be the first African American Brigadier General in the U.S. Air Force (Figure 25). By 1946, almost 1,000 African American student pilots completed the aviation course at the Tuskegee Institute.[190] Tuskegee

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[184] Alan M. Osur, *Separate and Unequal: Race Relations in the AAF During World War II* (Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama: Air Force Historical Research Agency, 2000), 9.

[185] Osur, *Separate and Unequal*, 8.

[186] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 34.

[187] Osur, *Separate and Unequal*, 3.

[188] Christopher Calvert, "III Corps, 1st Air Cav hold Black History Month observance," Army.mil, Feb. 15, 2014, https://www.army.mil/article/120796/iii_corps_1st_air_cav_hold_black_history_month_observance.

[189] National Park Service, "History & Culture," Tuskegee Airmen, last modified March 3, 2020, https://www.nps.gov/tuai/learn/historyculture/index.htm.

[190] Tuskegee University, "Tuskegee University's Leadership Role In Developing The Tuskegee Airmen and Aviation Opportunities For African Americans," Tuskegee Airmen, accessed Sept. 17, 2021, https://www.tuskegee.edu/support-tu/tuskegee-airmen/tus-leadership-role-in-developing-the-tuskegee-airmen.

Airmen also included Caucasian officers, Native Americans, Caribbean Islanders, Latinos, and people of mixed racial heritage.[191] Puerto Rican aviators were selected to assist in training the Tuskegee Airmen.[192]

Figure 25. Captain Benjamin O. Davis in a trainer at Tuskegee Institute, 1942 (U.S. Air Force).

Training for these aviators was segregated, with ground crews initially trained at Chanute Field in central Illinois and pilots trained at Tuskegee Institute, which was under contract with the military to provide the training. Moton Field became the primary aviation facility for African American pilot cadets during the war, with Army Air Forces officers overseeing the training (Figure 26 and Figure 27).[193] Once they had completed their primary flight training at Moton Field, the cadets transferred to the Tuskegee Army Air Field for more advanced training with Army Air Forces personnel. The Tuskegee Army Air Field was also a

[191] National Park Service, "History & Culture," Tuskegee Airmen.

[192] Oropeza "Fighting on Two Fronts."

[193] National Park Service, "Moton Field," American Visionaries: Tuskegee Airmen, last modified April 7, 2000, https://www.nps.gov/museum/exhibits/tuskegee/airmoton.htm.

segregated facility.[194] After all training was completed, the airmen were posted at various airfields around the country (Figure 28).

Figure 26. New Army Air Forces cadets reporting in at Tuskegee Institute, 1941 (NARA).

Figure 27. 302nd fighter squadron at Tuskegee, n.d. (NARA).

194 National Park Service, "Moton Field."

Figure 28. Tuskegee mechanic servicing a P-51 Mustang, 1941–45 (Smithsonian Museum),

The African American 99th Fighter Squadron was activated on August 24, 1942, at Tuskegee. They were under the command of Lieutenant Colonel Davis, Jr. The squadron was sent into combat in April 1943 escorting bombers, first in North Africa, then in Italy. They were joined overseas by the newer 100th, 301st, and 302nd Pursuit Squadrons, forming the 332nd Pursuit [Fighter] Group, also under the command of Lieutenant Colonel Davis, Jr.[195]

Aviation engineering (largely construction of airfields and related structures) was taught at four Aviation Unit Training Centers: MacDill Field, Florida; Geiger Field, Washington; March Field, California; and Westover Field, Massachusetts. The Center at MacDill Field trained only African American units. The March Field and Geiger Field centers trained both white and African American units.[196] On June 26, 1941, the 810th Aviation Engineer Battalion (AEB) was activated at MacDill Field. After six months of training, the unit was deployed to the South Pacific on January

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[195] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 692; Oxford African American Studies Center, *Tuskegee Airmen* (Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press, Dec. 1, 2006) https://oxfordaasc.com/page/2737.

[196] Blanche D. Coil, Jean E. Keith, and Herbert H. Rosenthal, *The Corps of Engineers: Troops and Equipment* (Washington, DC: Center of Military History, 1957), 324-325, http://tothosewhoserved.org/usa/ts/usatse01/index.html.

23, 1942, along with the newer 811th AEB. These were the first two African American AEBs to deploy overseas from the United States. All AEBs were trained as engineers and infantrymen, and the African American units saw combat in all theaters of the war.[197] A small number of African American officer candidates from fields other than aviation did attend the Air Forces integrated officer candidate school at Miami Beach, Florida.[198] African American Army Air Forces enlisted personnel also formed units that performed regular labor such as quartermaster truck companies and air base security battalions. These labor units were ubiquitous, so that "practically every American air base in the world had its contingent of black [*sic*] troops performing the service duties connected with air operations."[199]

In total, 996 pilots and over 15,000 ground personnel served in African American units. They were "credited with 15,500 combat sorties and earned more than 150 Distinguished Flying Crosses for their efforts in WWII."[200]

Although African American soldiers in the Army Air Forces were making progress against discrimination, racial tensions within the force did not disappear. The "separate but equal" doctrine espoused by the Army Air Forces did not always gain expression through the facilities provided, or the treatment carried out.[201]

Even though Army Regulation 210-10 required all buildings on bases to be open to all those qualified to have access, Black soldiers were still sometimes denied entry, which sometimes resulted in exacerbating racial tensions. Disruption occurred in multiple instances, though several involving African American members of the Army Air Forces both during and after the war. One problem centered around officers' and service clubs on several installations that refused entry to African American personnel in disregard of regulations. The 477th Bombardment Group was stationed at Selfridge Field near Detroit, where segregation was strictly enforced. After several incidents over the practice of segregation, the 477th was

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[197] Steven A. Williamson, *MacDill Air Force Base* (Schenectady, New York: Acadia Publishing, 2011), 9.

[198] MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 30.

[199] MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 30.

[200] Calvert, "III Corps, 1st Air Cav hold Black History Month observance."

[201] Osur, *Separate and Unequal*, 3.

transferred to Godman Field at Fort Knox, where African Americans freely used the officers' club.[202]

Upon transferal to Freeman Field in Indiana, the airmen found a different situation. The commander had established separate but not equal clubs for officers, with the club for the African Americans being of inferior quality. On March 10, 1945, three African American officers tried to enter the white officers' club and were refused. On April 5, another attempt to enter was made by 19 officers. They were not allowed entry, but refused to leave, leading to their arrest. After several days of attempts at entry, 162 African American officers in total were arrested. This incident became known as the Freeman Field Mutiny.[203]

Similarly, African American soldiers at Amarillo Army Air Field protested in late 1944 after not being allowed to use the service club because the Army Air Forces "alleged that club employees, who refused to wait on Negro personnel, stated that their presence would prevent the local white girls from entering the club."[204] Tensions boiled over into a full-scale race riot at MacDill Army Air Field in October 1946. The segregation and discrimination of African American troops sparked dozens more incidents during the war, especially on installations in the south where recreational opportunities for these troops were limited and discrimination was overt.[205]

After the war, the Army Air Forces found itself short of volunteers. To compensate, the ten percent quota of African American personnel in place during the war was allowed to be exceeded. The Army Air Forces also announced that "there would be equal training and assignment opportunity for all military personnel" with assignments based on skills and abilities equitably distributed.[206] In reality, jobs continued to be assigned by race with the less desirable assignments going to African American personnel, who were limited to a few specialties. The specialties in aviation limited personnel assignments to Lockbourne Air Force Base,

[202] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 251-252.

[203] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 251-252.

[204] Alan L. Gropman, *The Air Force Integrates, 1945-1964* (Washington, DC: Office of Air Force History, 1985), 32.

[205] Gropman, *The Air Force Integrates*, 65.

[206] Gropman, *The Air Force Integrates*, 72-73.

Ohio. Gropman explained the situation that resulted from the Army Air Forces racial policies:

> By the end of 1946, approximately 5,000 of the 18,000 enlisted men in the command were blacks [*sic*]. Even though the Army Air Forces suspended Negro enlistment in mid-1946-because of the extraordinary rise in enlistments-TAC [Tactical Air Command] still had more than it could absorb. The command acknowledged its inability to use elsewhere excess specialists assigned to Lockbourne, because segregation precluded their relocation.
>
> Like the Army Air Forces at large, TAC was in a difficult situation. All units needed skilled men, but trained blacks [*sic*] could not be employed to the extent of their abilities nor wherever needed. Segregation, therefore, proved burdensome for all. At Lockbourne, "Negro personnel could be employed as individuals in any unit [in] which their Military Occupational Specialties could be utilized," while on other bases blacks [*sic*] could be used only "on a unit basis."
>
> "Certain color differences made it impossible to assign officers to the Group except those who were recruited and trained for that Group." This meant that whites could not be assigned because the 332nd was commanded by a black [*sic*]. There were also too few blacks [*sic*] attending pilot training to meet the projected needs of the group. Since Negro aviators could only fly with that unit, they could not achieve a rank commensurate with their experience and skill, and everyone remained frozen in his grade. The Strategic Air Command also agonized over the employment of Negroes and tried to assign Negro personnel to all of its bases, but local community prejudice and pressures hindered ease of movement.
>
> Only at Godman Field and later at Lockbourne AFB were blacks [*sic*] fully utilized. Positions in flying, maintenance, and the inner administrative workings of the group and wing were all manned solely by blacks [*sic*]...Blacks were also employed at Tuskegee Field until it ceased operations in the spring of 1946. After the cessation of hostilities it was not a truly active base. Still, Tuskegee ended its career under a white commander and with whites holding nearly all leadership positions, although towards the end

> some blacks [*sic*] had worked their way into leadership and management positions.[207]

Japanese Americans were not allowed to pilot or navigate military aircraft, and few Japanese Americans were the Army Air Corps/Army Air Forces. After the war, Japanese Americans were no longer listed as a separate personnel category, and they were able to find assignments in any specialty of the Army Air Forces.[208]

There were several units in the Army Air Forces made up primarily of Chinese Americans (with white commanding officers).[209] The 14th Air Service Group was activated in 1942 to provide aerial support to the 14th Air Force (known as the Flying Tigers) in the China-Burma-India theater. The 14th Air Service Group was composed of Chinese Americans with fluency in both Chinese and English, and contained a Headquarters Squadron, Air Service Squadrons, a Signal Company, Ordnance Companies, and Quartermaster Companies. The Signal Corps unit was trained at Patterson Field, Ohio, where an existing group of Chinese American civilian communications specialists had enlisted to begin the unit. Other units of the 14th Air Service Group were trained in Florida. These units were stationed in China in 1944–1945 and specialized in aircraft maintenance and communications. There is no indication that the training facilities were segregated.[210] The WAC recruited Chinese American women in 1943 to form a unit of "Air WACs" that "served in a large variety of jobs, including aerial photo interpretation, air traffic control, and weather forecasting.[211] With these exceptions, and that of

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[207] Gropman, *The Air Force Integrates*, 74-76.

[208] Nisei Veterans Committee, "Japanese Americans Serving as Pilots and Navigators," *Japanese American Veterans Association* 57, iss. 11 (Dec. 2007), https://www.nvcfoundation.org/newsletter/2007/12/japanese-americans-serving-as-pilots-and-navigators/.

[209] Julian Guthrie, "WWII all-Chinese American unit reminisces," *SFGate*, Oct. 2, 2009, https://www.sfgate.com/entertainment/article/WWII-all-Chinese-American-unit-reminisces-3215751.php.

[210] Gary Goldblatt, "14th Air Service Group," CBI Order of Battle: Lineages and History, last modified Sept. 9, 2010, https://www.cbi-history.com/part_vi_14th_asg.html; Tan Vinh, "Historic WWII units will reunite," *Seattle Times*, September 15, 2005.

[211] Martha Lockwood, "Hazel Ying Lee: Showcased Asian American involvement in the war effort," *Air Force News Service*, March 6, 2013, https://www.af.mil/News/Article-Display/Article/109612/hazel-ying-lee-showcased-asian-american-involvement-in-war-effort/.

Japanese Americans, Asian Americans men were recruited into integrated units of the Army Air Service during WWII.[212]

2.2 Department of the Navy

2.2.1 Introduction

African Americans have served on both naval and merchant vessels since the Colonial period. While African Americans were welcomed aboard, the Continental Navy (and later the Department of the Navy) usually only offered low-level ratings executing menial tasks. As of WWII, the Navy installed quotas for African American sailors, and formally restricted ship service to the ranks of messmen and stewards. Those with shore duty were assigned menial tasks such as loading and unloading ships and providing labor for ammunition production and storage facilities. These restrictions began to change in 1942, when some other positions became available. African American women served at the ends of both the First and Second World Wars, first as Yeowomen (or Yeomanettes) and then as Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service (WAVES).

Native Americans have served the Navy for over two hundred years, with General George Washington enlisting them in 1776.[213] Native American sailors were never subject to formal segregation policies by the Department of the Navy and served in integrated units.

The Navy has had Hispanic sailors since the Revolutionary War when, for example, some Spanish immigrants volunteered to serve in state navies.[214] While never subjected to policies of segregation, Hispanic sailors were often assigned ratings involving menial labor, particularly during the first part of the 20th century.[215] Puerto Rican sailors were not subject to the segregation the Army's 65th Infantry Regiment received.

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[212] James McNaughton, "Chinese-Americans in World War II," U.S. Army Center of Military History, May 16, 2000, https://history.army.mil/html/topics/apam/Chinese-americans.html.

[213] Naval History and Heritage Command, "Contributions of Native Americans to the U.S. Navy: Serving the United States Since its Birth," Diversity, Nov. 15, 2021, https://www.history.navy.mil/browse-by-topic/diversity/american-indians.html.

[214] Joy Samsel, "Navy Celebrates Hispanic Heritage," Naval Education and Training Command, accessed Sept. 13, 2021, https://www.navy.mil/submit/display.asp?story_id=25694.

[215] Eric Lockwood, "Remembering Hispanic-Americans in the U.S. Navy," *Sextant*, October 15, 2015, https://usnhistory.navylive.dodlive.mil/2015/10/15/remembering-hispanic-americans-in-the-u-s-navy/.

Japanese Americans were banned by Navy policy from serving during WWII. The only other Asian Americans that were restricted to steward ratings were Filipino nationals.[216]

2.2.2 1775-1860

The Continental Congress authorized the creation of the Continental Navy in 1775. During the Revolutionary War, the need for manpower on naval vessels was so great that any qualified men were accepted, and many Black sailors served in the Continental Navy. This was accepted as it was already tradition; American merchant ships had a long history of integrated crews, and Black sailors were also common in the various state navies organized by eleven of the colonies around 1775, commonly converting merchant ships to armed vessels.[217] While there were no crews made entirely of Black sailors, nearly every crew contained Black members.[218] There were actually more Black sailors in the state navies, "because pay was better, the terms of enlistment were shorter, opportunity for advancement was greater, and the range of operations was often limited to the state's own coast."[219] The Continental Navy and the state navies often promised freedom and payment for those serving until the war's end.[220]

Both freemen and enslaved individuals were recruited for Continental Navy service, while enslaved people who had escaped to the British side often ended up serving on ships in the British Navy. For both forces, Black sailors served in a variety of jobs, including pilots in the state navies. Most Continental Navy Black sailors were laborers performing menial work, including cooks, gunners, and powder boys, as well as working in shipyards. As a result of tradition and necessity, Black individuals constituted a much greater percentage of personnel for the Navy than comparable figures for the Army. [221]

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[216] Jerrold M. Packard, *American Nightmare: The History of Jim Crow* (New York, NY: St. Martin's Griffin, 2003).

[217] Prum, "Where We Stand," 17; Charles Oscar Paulin, *The Navy of the American Revolution: Its Administration, Its Policy and Its Achievements* (Cleveland, OH: Burrows Brothers Company, 1906), 315; Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 21.

[218] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 21.

[219] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 33.

[220] Dennis Denmark Nelson, "The Integration of the Negro into the United States Navy: 1776-1947," Master's Thesis (Washington, DC: Howard University, 1948), 4.

[221] Kait Picco, "Blacks during the American Revolution," accessed Sept. 15, 2021, http://fas-history.rutgers.edu/clemens/AfricanAmericansRevolution.html; Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 33.

An undeclared war (known as the Quasi-War) erupted between the United States and France in 1798. The two-year conflict was almost entirely a naval war resulting from several causes, including the United States signing a trade pact with Great Britain and refusing to pay debts owed to the former French monarchy. French privateers were authorized to attack American shipping, and they were joined by the French Navy. The Continental Navy had been disbanded in 1785, so the United States formed the United States Navy Department in 1798. Navy vessels and privateers fought the French primarily in the West Indies, and the conflict was settled by treaty in 1800. The new U.S. Navy maintained the open enlistment policy used by the Continental Navy, and Black sailors served on integrated Navy ships.[222]

War of 1812 (1812-1815)

The United States was again at war with Great Britain in 1812 in an attempt to end British trade restrictions on American commerce with other countries, as well as to expand American territory.[223] The conflict was largely naval, and Black sailors constituted approximately 15% of naval personnel, as they had valuable skills learned by serving in previous conflicts and sailing on merchant vessels. Ships' crews were integrated, and Black sailors served in all ratings.[224] They also served as privateers, harassing British ships in support of the American Navy. As in the Revolutionary War, free Blacks were often recruited with offers of freedom and a bounty of land and payment.[225]

British Naval forces were active in the Chesapeake and along the southern Atlantic coast, and this proximity allowed enslaved individuals in coastal areas many opportunities for escape. The British Navy accepted escaped enslaved people as free refugees, and many chose to serve in the British forces as sailors or in one of three companies of Colonial Marines composed of refugee enslaved individual during the war. Others chose to

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222 Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 22; Kat Eschner, "This Unremembered US-France 'Quasi-War' Shaped Early America's Foreign Relations," *Smithsonian Magazine*, July 7, 2017, https://www.smithsonianmag.com/smart-news/unremembered-us-france-quasi-war-shaped-early-americas-foreign-relations-180963862/.

223 History.co Editors, "War of 1812."

224 History.co Editors, "War of 1812."

224 Nelson, "The Integration of the Negro into the United States Navy," 9; "Blacks in the War," Oct. 10, 2012, in *The War of 1812*, produced by PBS, video, 5:29, https://www.tpt.org/the-war-of-1812/about/; Singer, "Memorial Day;" Prum, "Where We Stand," 17.

225 Nelson, "The Integration of the Negro into the United States Navy," 6.

be sent to British possessions in the West Indies as free settlers. Over 4,000 former enslaved individuals were freed in this manner.[226]

After the war, Black sailors continued to constitute a significant number of personnel in the peacetime navy, successfully serving on integrated ships. In his "Integration of the Negro into the United States Navy: 1776-1947," Lieutenant Nelson provides an account of this in the years after the war, found in the writings of Surgeon Ushur Parsons, United States Navy:

> In 1816, I was surgeon of the Java under Commodore Perry. The white and Negro seamen messed together…In 1819 I was surgeon of the Guerriere under Commodore MacDonough…There seemed to have been an entire absence of prejudice against the blacks as shipmates among the crew.[227]

There is very little information available in the historic record concerning the proportion of African Americans in the Navy between the War of 1812 and the start of the Civil War. On September 13, 1839, the Secretary issued a circular stating that the number of Black naval personnel would immediately be reduced to five percent of the service, and enslaved people were to be excluded completely. This new policy may have been in response to an abolitionist critique of the Navy that argued that naval officers profited by employing their own enslaved peoples on naval vessels rather than freedmen and white individuals.[228]

In response to the September 13, 1839, circular, Commodore Lewis Warrington sent a letter to the Secretary of the Navy on September 17, 1839, reporting that a total of 1,016 men entered the naval service in the preceding year from recruiting stations at New York City, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Boston, and Norfolk. Of these men, 122 were African American, constituting 12% of the total. Twenty-six of these African American men enlisted in New York; 39 in Philadelphia; 25 in Baltimore; 13 in Boston;

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[226] "Blacks in the War."

[227] Nelson, "The Integration of the Negro into the United States Navy," 11.

[228] "Acting Secretary of the Navy Isaac Chauncey Circular," September 13, 1839, RG 45, Circulars and General Orders, I, 35, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, DC.

and 16 in Norfolk. It is unclear what their ranks were.[229] It is also unclear what happened to these Black seamen following the September 13, 1839, circular; however, it is likely that all enslaved peoples were discharged and that enlistment numbers of Black individuals dropped in subsequent years, though the five percent policy was not strictly enforced.[230]

The War of 1812 saw the first official record of Asian Americans fighting on behalf of the U.S. These individuals served on a non-segregated basis. By at latest the 1830s, U.S. Navy ships patrolling in East Asia had integrated crews that included Asian men.[231]

Native Americans likely served on naval vessels during this time, though exact numbers are unknown.[232] Similarly, exact numbers of Hispanic Americans who served in the U.S. Navy during this period are unknown. Minimal information regarding their service is available, though Hispanic Americans in the Navy at this time were likely often given menial job ratings and not subjected to segregation.[233]

2.2.3 Civil War

When the Civil War began, several hundred African American men were serving in the Navy, though exact numbers are not known.[234] As in previous wars, though, the need for manpower resulted in large numbers

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[229] The numbers provided here are correct per the historic record, though they do not add up to 122 (the sum of the enlisted African American men from New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Boston, and Norfolk is 119, not 122). It is unclear if this discrepancy was incorrect math as recorded in the letter, or if record of the unaccounted for 3 sailors has been lost. John G. Sharp, "The Recruitment of African Americans in the U.S. Navy, 1839," Naval History and Heritage Command, Feb. 28, 2019, https://www.history.navy.mil/research/library/online-reading-room/title-list-alphabetically/r/the-recruitment-of-african-americans-in-the-us-navy-1839.html; Warrington to Paulding, Sept. 19, 1839, M125, "Captains Letters," Sept. 1, 1839 – Sept. 30, 1839, letter number 58, 1-3, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, DC.

[230] Major Don A. Mills, Sr., "African American Sailors: Their Role In Helping The Union To Win The Civil War," Master's Thesis, (Quantico, VA: United States Marine Corps Command and Staff College), 2002, 4.

[231] Regina T. Akers, "Asian Americans in the U.S. Military with an Emphasis on the U.S. Navy," Naval History and Heritage Command, Aug. 22, 2019, https://www.history.navy.mil/browse-by-topic/diversity/asian-americans-pacific-islanders-in-the-navy/asian-americans-us-military.html.

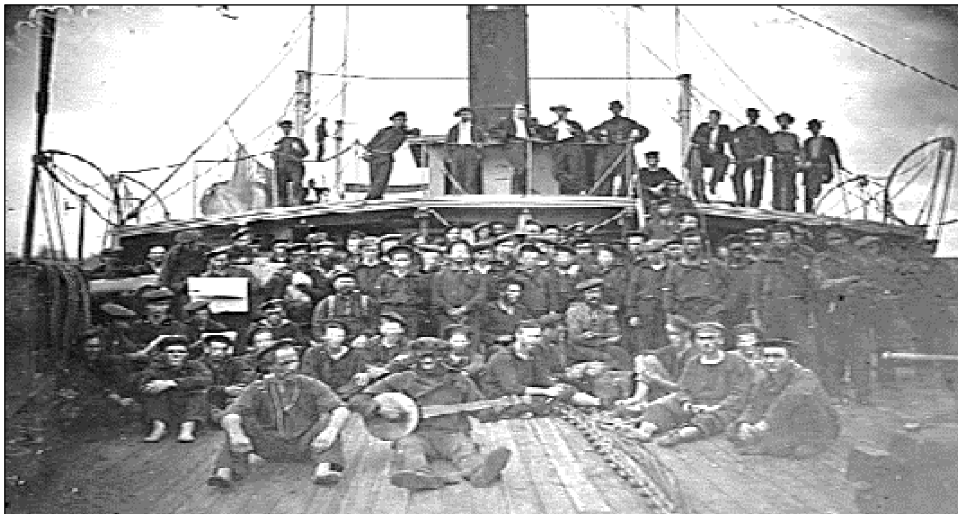
[232] Naval History and Heritage Command, "Contributions of Native Americans to the U.S. Navy: Serving the United States Since its Birth."

[233] Naval History and Heritage Command, "Hispanic Americans in the U.S. Navy," Naval Historical Foundation, accessed Feb. 18, 2022, https://www.history.navy.mil/browse-by-topic/diversity/hispanic-americans-in-the-navy.html.

[234] Joseph Reidy, "Black Men in Navy Blue During the Civil War," *Prologue Magazine* 33, no. 3 (Fall 2001), https://www.archives.gov/publications/prologue/2001/fall/black-sailors-1.html.

of Black naval personnel during the Civil War. At the start of the war, the existing Black naval personnel continued to serve, and, in contrast to the Army, politicians "rationalized blacks [*sic*] in the Navy because it was not yet a presence in the border region between North and South, and thus did not pose a threat to southern loyalists who might turn against the Federal government at the sight of armed blacks [*sic*]."[235] This rationalization was formalized by the Navy officially sanctioning enlistment of escaped Black enslaved people on September 25, 1861, beginning at the lowest rating, and free Black individuals joined under the same terms as other enlisted sailors.[236] The U.S. Navy offered sanctuary to slaves and economic opportunity to free Black individuals. As a result, thousands of African Americans volunteered to serve with the Navy. During the Civil War, the Navy included approximately 30,000 Black sailors, comprising roughly 25% of the Navy's strength.[237] To retain the essential manpower, the Navy remained an integrated force and provided a measure of equality and respect at sea for African American sailors, with messing and quarters integrated on ships (Figure 29).[238] Black sailors received "$10 a month, had complete control over their earnings, and had all the privileges of ships' crew."[239]

Figure 29. The crew of the USS Hunchback, n.d. (NARA).



[235] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 45.

[236] Smith and Zeidler, ed., A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience, 45; Prum, "Where We Stand," 20.

[237] MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 4.

[238] Mills, Sr., *African American Sailors*, i.

[239] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 46.

The "Contraband" Black individuals were enlisted at lower ratings than the free Black individuals, who were in some instances rated higher than fellow white sailors.[240] Some "Contraband" Black sailors assisted with piloting and served as navigators and engineers. Most, however, performed menial work such as stoking the furnaces and loading and unloading supplies and equipment. Even so, by the end of the war, African American sailors had been placed in all ranks short of petty officer.[241]

2.2.4 Spanish-American War and Philippine Insurrection

When the U.S. Navy battleship USS MAINE exploded near Santiago, Cuba, on February 15, 1898, 22 African American sailors lost their lives.[242] This event precipitated the Spanish-American War involving Spain and its possessions in Cuba and the Philippines. The Naval practice of integrated enlisted units continued during the war, but no officer ranks were available to Black sailors. They served on ships at Santiago, Cuba, and in the victorious squadron at Manila, Philippines.[243]

Over the years following the conflict, the Navy began to professionalize their manpower, and more white men joined up. As a result, the Navy curtailed the broad enlistment of Black sailors, limiting them to the Messmen Branch. This branch was purposefully created in the late 1800s for several ethnic minorities, primarily African Americans and Filipinos, and it codified the existing practice of assigning these sailors to duties with limited opportunity for promotion.[244]

After the United States gained control over the Philippines in the late 1890s, mess and stewardship positions increasingly went to Filipinos rather than African Americans. "Construction of a new, modern (and highly technical) fleet, changes in recruiting and training, increasing segregation, and growing preference for Asians as servants – all disfavored the enlistment of African Americans."[245] Filipino stewards began to

[240] Herbert Aptheker, "The Negro in the Union Navy," *Journal of African American History*, 32:2, 1947.

[241] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 48.

[242] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 129.

[243] Bruce E. Prum, "Where We Stand," 22.

[244] MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 5; Filipino American National Historical Society, "Filipino American History Month Theme: 70 Years Since the US-Philippines Military Bases Agreement & FANHS is 35!" Sept. 18, 2017, http://fanhs-national.org/filam/2017-filipino-american-history-month-theme-70-years-since-the-us-philippines-military-bases-agreement-fanhs-is-35/ WILLIAMS-THESIS.pdf (tamu.edu).

[245] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 147-148.

replace the Black sailors in the Messmen Branch, and by 1917, Filipino stewards were the majority.[246]

No record was found providing evidence of segregation among other ethnic minorities in the U.S. Navy during this period.

2.2.5 World War I

African Americans

By the onset of U.S. involvement in WWI, there were only about 6,750 Black sailors serving. During the conflict, they constituted 1.2% of total enlistment. They remained largely limited to mess duties. Enlistment was actively discouraged by the restrictions in ratings, leaving African American sailors in the least desirable positions.[247] "Stewards were responsible for providing cooking and cleaning for the ship and domestic service to officers and their families: food service, cleaning, laundry, and chores. Work as a steward was grueling and monotonous."[248] As a result, African Americans were much less likely to join the Navy, a reversal from the situation during the Civil War. Further, though no regulations barred integration on ships during this period, commanders frequently designated segregated eating and sleeping areas to avoid interaction and potential subsequent racial conflict. Thus, for the first time in U.S. Navy history, the sailors were confined to segregated conditions, which reflected the increased level of prejudice and segregation in Jim Crow America at the time.[249]

A few African American women were accepted into the Naval Coast Defense Reserve. Naval districts were advised on March 19, 1917, that women recruits would be accepted in a bid to undertake work necessary when able-bodied men had deployed. Most carried out administrative work and were classed as "Yeoman (F)." As the Navy had little experience with women sailors, several problems arose including creating a suitable uniform since they were all designed for men, and finding places to live, since no quarters for women existed on shore stations. Most of the Yeomanettes, as they became known, were assigned to the Washington

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[246] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 149.

[247] MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 5; Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 156.

[248] Filipino American National Historical Society , "Filipino American History Month Theme."

[249] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 148.

Navy Yard, and found their own accommodations off site. The program was discontinued after the war, and the last Yeomanette was discharged in March 1921. A unit of African American Yeomanettes was created and stationed at the Navy Yard (Figure 30). There is no record of segregated work facilities for this unit. As all Yeomanettes had to find their own living quarters, there were no Navy-provided segregated housing facilities either.[250]

Figure 30. The sole African American Yeomanette unit was assigned to the Navy Yard in Washington, D.C., to work at the Muster Roll Office, 1919 (U.S. Navy).

After the post-war drawdown, the Navy resumed enlisting sailors in 1923. While recruiting African Americans to serve as messmen was technically allowed, in practice, only Filipinos were recruited for this position until 1932. At that point, the Messman Branch began to actively offer positions to Black recruits between the ages of 18 and 26. Consequently, their

[250] Nathaniel Patch, "The Story of the Female Yeomen during the First World War," *Prologue Magazine* 38, no. 3 (fall 2006), https://www.archives.gov/publications/prologue/2006/fall/yeoman-f.html; Shaune Lee, "Women at War: The Navy's First African American Yeomanettes," *Boundary Stones*, Aug. 7, 2018, https://boundarystones.weta.org/2018/08/07/women-war-navys-first-african-american-yeomanettes.

numbers rose from a low of 411 in 1932 to 4,007 by June 1940. This latter figure represented 2.3% of the Navy's total strength.[251]

Japanese Americans (Issei and Nisei)

The Navy stopped enlisting Japanese Americans in 1907.[252] The exact reasoning for this is unclear; however, it may have been related to concurrent tension between Japan and the United States related to the immigration of Japanese workers to the United States. On February 24, 1907, President Theodore Roosevelt reached a "Gentlemen's Agreement" with Japan, which resulted in Japan denying passports to laborers seeking to enter the United States and the United States barring entry to Japanese immigrants holding passports issued for other destinations, primarily Canada, Mexico, and Hawaii, then a U.S. territory.[253] The potential impact of this agreement on the U.S. Navy is reflected by the July 1907 discharge of all Japanese laborers employed in the Navy Yard in the City of Olongapo in the Philippines, then also a U.S. territory.[254] This practice of not enlisting Japanese Americans seems to have continued until the end of WWII, despite not being codified. By 1935, there was only one Japanese American on the rolls, nearing retirement age.[255]

Filipinos/Filipino Americans

At the end of the war, African Americans were functionally barred from enlistment in the Navy due to racist sentiments. This lasted until 1932. In their absence, reliance on Filipinos as messmen increased. The Filipino

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[251] MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 5; Letter from Chief of Bureau of Navigation to Mr. Samuel S. Stewart, March 21, 1935, RG 24, Entry P14-4, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, DC; Naval History and Heritage Command, "The Negro in the Navy: United States Naval Administrative History of World War II #84," Navy Department Library, April 24, 2020, https://www.history.navy.mil/research/library/online-reading-room/title-list-alphabetically/n/negro-navy-1947-adminhist84.html.

[252] Letter from Chief of Bureau of Navigation to Mr. Tinkham, February 28, 1935, RG 24, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, D.C.

[253] History.com Editors, "Gentlemen's Agreement," History, last modified Aug. 21, 2018, https://www.history.com/topics/immigration/gentlemens-agreement; History.com Editors, "Americans overthrow Hawaiian monarchy," History, last modified Jan. 13, 2022, https://www.history.com/this-day-in-history/americans-overthrow-hawaiian-monarchy.

[254] Office of the History, "The Philippines, 1898–1946," History, Art & Archives: United States House of Representatives, accessed Feb. 20, 2022, https://history.house.gov/Exhibitions-and-Publications/APA/Historical-Essays/Exclusion-and-Empire/The-Philippines/; "Japanese Discharged From Navy Yard at Olongapo—Excitement in Philippines," *NY Times*, July 7, 1907, accessed via TimesMachine.

[255] Letter from Chief of Bureau of Navigation to Mr. Tinkham, February 28, 1935, RG 24, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, D.C.

messmen were restricted from employment in other ratings, a condition which remained until 1971.[256]

Native Americans

It is estimated that approximately 1,000 Native Americans served in the Navy during WWI. They were primarily assigned to transport and escort ships, although some were on battleships. They were not segregated.[257]

Hispanic Americans

Hispanic Americans served in the U.S. Navy during WWI; however, they were identified by military officials as "Black" or white upon entry and were treated accordingly.[258]

2.2.6 World War II

African Americans

By the time the next war arrived, segregation of Black seamen was fully entrenched in the Navy, with very few opportunities for service. In *The Integration of the Negro Into the United States Navy: 1776-1947*, Nelson described the state of affairs:

> In the early stages of World War II, there existed complete segregation of Negroes in Naval service. Negroes, for the most part, were still relegated to the Steward's Branch. Employment of Negroes in this limited field solely, which had long become a distinct division of labor set aside for specific racial groups namely Negroes and Filipinos, met with constant resentment from Negro Naval personnel in particular, and created considerable unfavorable criticism from the Negro public in general. There were no Negro enlisted personnel to be found in general service in any substantial number, or in any advance training schools, and there were no officer training schools that included Negro officer candidates. And, as the Navy finally relented and expanded its program, and correspondingly increased its liberality towards Negroes by accepting and training Negro enlisted personnel in other branches of the service besides the Steward's Branch, no attempt was made to organize even

256 Filipino American National Historical Society, "Filipino American History Month Theme."

257 Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 498.

258 Oropeza, "Fighting on Two Fronts."

> "experimental" integrated units. For the "separate" Negro units, white "volunteer" officers—usually Southerners, and men who manifested "complete knowledge of the Negro and his unique problems"—were selected. These factors only tended to further embitter the Negro against the Navy. Little wonder that the Negro felt he was not wholeheartedly wanted by white America in the Armed Forces even when he offered to fight for it![259]

Nevertheless, fight they did. During the attack on Pearl Harbor, Doris "Dorrie" Miller was a cook on board the battleship USS WEST VIRGINIA. While the ship was under attack, he left his duties, assisted injured crewmates, and manned an unattended anti-aircraft gun. Although he had no training on the weapon, he managed to shoot down Japanese planes. He was subsequently awarded the Navy Cross, becoming the first African American in the Pacific Fleet to be so honored (Figure 31). He died in combat nearly two years later.[260]

[259] Nelson, "The Integration of the Negro Into the United States Navy," ix.

[260] Naval History and Heritage Command, "Doris Miller," Naval Profiles, June 6, 2017, https://www.history.navy.mil/research/histories/biographies-list/bios-m/miller-doris.html.

Figure 31. Doris "Dorrie" Miller receives medal for valor during attack on Pearl Harbor, 1942 (National Museum of the Pacific War).

Pressures to increase the ratings for African American naval personnel had been increasing since the United States entered WWII. Initial efforts from government leaders to utilize African American sailors more effectively were rebuffed by the Department or put under study. The dam started to break in January 1942, when President Roosevelt ordered the Navy to enlist African Americans in general service positions.[261] Roosevelt wanted a wide dispersion of positions across the shore establishment, including small craft. In response, the Secretary of the Navy submitted a plan to implement the President's wishes. It contained the following provisions:

> (a) Increase the all-colored construction battalions from two to five; (b) Provide for 24 new construction battalions, all non-rated personnel to be colored; (c) Increase the numbers of colored crews in the harbor craft and local defense forces; (d) Create service companies at all ports of embarkation; (e) Increase the number of

[261] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 34.

> colored cooks and bakers in the commissary branch for shore establishments within the United States; (f) Increase the percentage of colored personnel at section bases, ammunition depots, net depots and naval air stations on this continent.[262]

The plan was approved as suggested. On April 14, 1943, the Secretary of the Navy sent the President further clarification of the U.S. Navy policy toward African American sailors. On large combat ships, the crews would not mix, except for Stewards Mates branch personnel. African American sailors would fill complements of all local defense and district craft. African American Seabees (the Navy construction unit) were to be placed in segregated stevedore battalions and assigned to construction battalions with white sailors. Lastly, "Negroes will be used at all shore stations, both inside and outside the continental limits of the United States, in varying percentages, averaging about 50% of the non-rated personnel at these stations."[263] These changes represented substantial progress toward more professional opportunities for African American sailors, but segregation was still largely in place (Figure 32 and Figure 33). Basically, outside of the Stewards branch, African Americans had no place in the fleet, and a majority of them were still performing unskilled labor such as loading and unloading at ammunition depots.[264]

[262] Navy History and Heritage Command, "The Negro in the Navy."

[263] Navy History and Heritage Command, "The Negro in the Navy."

[264] Naval History and Heritage Command, "The Negro in the Navy."

Figure 32. Berthing space on an aircraft carrier, 1945 (Naval Historical Center).

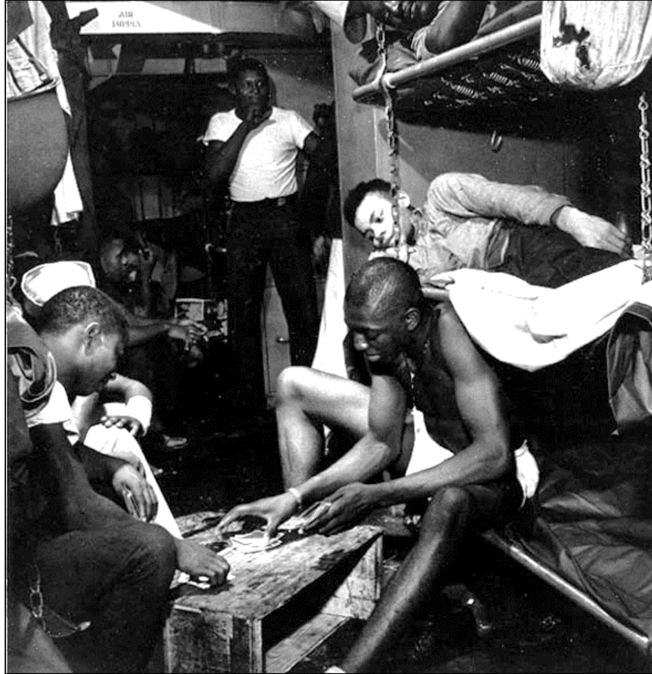


Figure 33. Officers Mess on Cruiser, WWII (Naval Historical Center).

No African Americans were given combat assignments during the war, and only a few were commissioned as officers with the first thirteen achieving that goal in March 1944.[265] Toward the end of the war, manpower needs resulted in the opening of twenty-five auxiliary ships with multiple types of assignments to African Americans, and due to the ensuing success of this policy, all such ships were made available by the time the war ended.[266] Additionally, there were two ships in the Navy with predominately African American crews, the USS Mason, a destroyer escort, and the USS PC-1264, a submarine chaser (Figure 34 and Figure 35).

Figure 34. USS Mason at Boston Navy Yard, n.d. (NARA).

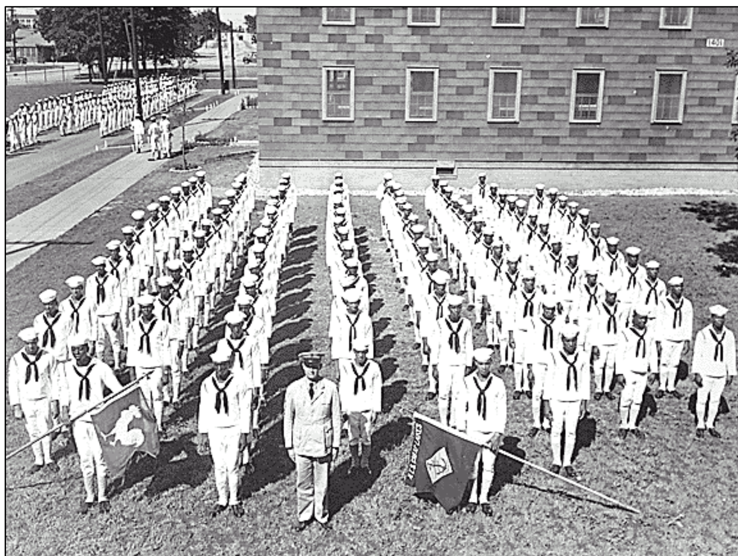
[265] National WWII Museum, "African Americans in World War II," Forstchen and Wilson, "Segregation in the Military," 216-222.

[266] Forstchen and Wilson, "Segregation in the Military," 222.

Figure 35. Crew of USS PC-1264 in New York City, 1944 (Naval Historical Center).

The Navy had many training facilities to prepare sailors for participation in WWII. All African American sailors went through basic training at the Great Lakes Naval Training Center near Chicago, Illinois. Once there, they were housed, messed, and trained at a segregated area known as Camp Robert Smalls (Figure 36). Smalls was a seaman in the Civil War, piloting a Confederate transport named Planter. He became famous for delivering the ship to the Union Navy at Charleston. The Great Lakes Naval Training Center also had some specialized schools for trainees (Figure 37).[267]

Figure 36. Company of African American recruits at Great Lakes Naval Training Center, Illinois, WWII (NARA).



[267] Prum, "Where We Stand," 20.

Figure 37. Training to operate a milling machine, Machinist's Mates School, Great Lakes Naval Training Center, WWII (NARA).

Once recruits had completed basic training, they were usually either sent to a shore installation, to a Navy Yard or other Navy industrial facility, to a ship, or to a school for specialized training. As Navy policy prevented their integration into white training schools, African American sailors were assigned to further their training at private educational facilities that were segregated. The Navy utilized many existing educational facilities around the country to provide educational services. The Navy referred to them as "contract schools," and had cognizance of the construction and alteration of facilities at these schools which would "constitute Public Works or Public Utilities if constructed at a Shore Establishment of the Navy."[268] The most well-known of these was the Hampton Institute, in Hampton, Virginia. The Institute was geographically close to the major concentration of naval facilities in the Norfolk/Hampton Roads area. At least some training or work conditions at the Hampton Institute were integrated (Figure 38).

[268] Letter from Chief of Naval Personnel to Chief of the Bureau of Yards and Docks, NARA, Washington, DC.

Figure 38. Supply and disbursing office: US Naval Training School, Hampton Institute, Hampton, Virginia, WWII (NARA).

After the ratings had opened up in 1942, some training took place on naval bases. For example, the Norfolk Naval Operating Base trained African American sailors for serving on a destroyer escort (Figure 39). Captions for official U.S. Navy photographs likely intended for press releases described the activities undertaken and the need for such training:

> Now in training at the Norfolk Naval Operating Base, Norfolk, Virginia, 160 Negro enlisted men are looking forward to the day when they put out to sea in their new destroyer escort, now under construction at Boston, Mass. Outside of 44 white enlisted men, with specialized training or experience, the 160 will constitute the entire crew. It is anticipated that the whites will be replaced as soon as other Negroes can qualify to fill their posts. Also building is a PC (patrol craft) which will have a crew of 52 Negroes and nine whites, the latter likewise to be replaced when qualified Negroes are available.[269]

[269] Naval History and Heritage Command, "The Negro in the Navy."

Figure 39. Trainees at the Destroyer Escort School, Norfolk, Virginia, being shown navigational problems, WWII (NARA).

Once finished with training, many African American sailors were sent to ammunition depots or assigned to the Seabee construction battalions (Figure 40 and Figure 41). Both assignments were labor-intensive, but ammunition depot workers were at high risk of injury or death. More than 6,000 African American sailors were stationed at these facilities and additional sailors from these units were deployed overseas.[270]

Figure 40. Passing 1.1 shell cans down a conveyor for stacking, St. Juliens Creek Naval Ammunition Depot, WWII (NARA).

270 Naval History and Heritage Command, "The Negro in the Navy."

Figure 41. Stacking empty 5-in. shell casings, St. Juliens Creek Ammunition Depot, Virginia, WWII (NARA).

The worst happened on July 17, 1944, at the Port Chicago Naval Magazine, California, when time pressure and unsafe practices resulted in the explosion of a munitions ship at the dock. The enormous explosion was felt hundreds of miles away and resulted in the instantaneous deaths of 320 sailors, including 202 African Americans that were on the ship or dock workers. When work resumed a month later, 258 African American sailors refused to take part over concerns about lax safety procedures when loading ammunition. Naval officials declared this a mutiny and arrested most of the men, of whom 208 were court-martialed and discharged. Fifty men were charged with mutiny and were sentenced to prison, but all the sentences were commuted in 1946. The explosion and the mutiny had lasting effects:

> The Navy recognized that its black [*sic*] sailors performed the vast majority of ammunition ship loading and unloading in segregated units with low morale and often led by bigoted or incompetent officers. The vast majority of these sailors, according to the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) investigators, saw themselves as little more than expendable laborers working under egregious conditions. These revelations prompted Navy officials to start to work towards full desegregation of their personnel by 1945, three years before

> President Harry Truman issues Executive Order 9981 which integrated the Armed Forces.[271]

Recruitment for African American Seabees began in April 1942 at Camp Allen near Norfolk, Virginia. They were trained at the U.S. Navy Seabee Advance Base Receiving Barracks Camp Rousseau, California, before shipping out for the Pacific. The first African American naval construction battalion, the 34th, deployed to the Solomon Islands. Upon their return to Camp Rousseau, they were subjected to segregated barracks, mess lines and mess huts, all due to their southern commanding officer. After the sailors staged a hunger strike, the first and second in command were relieved, along with some petty officers, and conditions improved.[272]

In terms of provision for segregated housing and recreation for African American sailors, there was a fair amount of variance among bases. A middle of the road approach was taken by the Commanding Officer of the Section Base, Little Creek, Virginia in 1943:

> We started by accepting as a known fact that a certain amount of racial feeling existed between the whites and blacks [*sic*] and that neither whites nor blacks [*sic*] desired to come into close personal association with one another; therefore, we realized that separation of the races was necessary to a certain extent, but we determined that we could make it voluntary or automatic, rather than compulsory in so far as possible.[273]

Separate housing was required at this base, either as separate barracks or a separate floor of a large barracks. Also, there was a separate barber shop, and a separate part of the athletic field. However, the races intermingled in other places and work areas were not segregated.[274]

The Navy's Bureau of Yards and Docks had specific policy specifications for construction, that "in any type of facility there should be more square

271 Michael Stolp-Smith, "Port Chicago Mutiny (1944)," *Black Past*, March 27, 2011, https://blackpast.org/aaw/vignette_aahw/port-chicago-mutiny-0/.

272 Frank A. Blazich Jr., "Building for a Nation and Equality: African American Seabees in World War II," *Seabee Magazine*, March 6, 2014, https://www.seabeemagazine.navylive.dodlive.mil/2014/03/06/building-for-a-nation-and-equality-african-american-seabees-in-world-war-ii/.

273 Naval History and Heritage Command, "The Negro in the Navy."

274 Naval History and Heritage Command, "The Negro in the Navy."

feet of building space per man where the races were mixed."[275] This was based on the assumption that, when in non-segregated buildings, less crowding led to less racial tension. This policy ran into the widely common material shortages that developed over the course of the war, and the policy was revised. In March 1944, it was put forward that, as in many places the goal was to have African Americans take over assignments from white sailors, temporary construction would suffice until that came about. In practice, though, the Bureau of Yards and Docks frequently approved requests for the construction of additional facilities if the existing facilities were used by both races. This additional construction allowed for African Americans to be stationed at bases that otherwise would have been considered too crowded (in which case sharing facilities would have been compulsory, which was believed to lead to increased racial tension).[276]

The Navy lagged behind the Army in admitting Black women into female reserve units but exceeded the Army policy in regard to integration. The United States Naval Reserve (Women's Reserve), more commonly known as WAVES began in 1942. Due to resistance from the naval establishment, however, Black women were not admitted until very late in the war. After a series of delays, President Roosevelt instructed Navy Secretary Forrestal to begin admitting Black women to WAVES in October 1944.[277] Within nine months, 72 Black enlisted and two officer WAVES had been trained in an integrated training program at Hunter College Naval Training School, Bronx, New York. WAVES officers trained at the Naval Reserve Midshipmen's School (Women's Reserve) at Northampton, Massachusetts (Figure 42 and Figure 43).[278] After training, the Black WAVES lived and worked in integrated facilities.[279] While all WAVES were given the same pay and benefits as regular sailors, they were not eligible for disability or retirement pensions. They were allowed to serve as far afield as Alaska and Hawaii, but not aboard combat ships.[280]

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[275] Naval History and Heritage Command, "The Negro in the Navy."

[276] Naval History and Heritage Command, "The Negro in the Navy."

[277] MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 87.

[278] Tina L. Ligon, "Pictorial History of Black Women in the US Navy during World War II and Beyond," Rediscovering Black History, March 10, 2015, https://rediscovering-black-history.blogs.archives.gov/2015/03/10/pictorial-history-of-black-women-in-the-us-navy-during-world-war-ii-and-beyond/.

[279] MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 88.

[280] Morten, *The Women's Army Corps, 1945-1978*, 6.

Figure 42. African American Hospital Apprentice WAVES, National Naval Medical Center, Bethesda, Maryland, 1945 (NARA).

Figure 43. Lieutenant (Junior Grade) Harriet Ida Pickens (left) and Ensign Frances Wills congratulate each other after being commissioned the first African American "WAVES" officers, 1944 (NARA).

The admittance of African American Navy nurses took a little longer. The color ban was discontinued by the Navy on January 25, 1945. Phyllis Mae Dailey was the first commissioned Navy nurse, being sworn in on March 9,

1945 (Figure 44). Only three other African American nurses served the Navy during the war.[281]

Figure 44. Phyllis Mae Dailey being sworn in as the first African American Navy Nurse, March 8, 1945 (NARA).

Native Americans

Since the passing of the Snyder Act in 1924, Native Americans were citizens of the United States and subject to the draft. Native American volunteers were disproportionately large in relation to their population. More than 44,000, out of a population of approximately 350,000 served in the Military Services. The Navy received 1,910 Native American sailors (Figure 45). They were not subject to segregation.[282]

[281] National Archives, "Document for March 8th: 'Cmdr. Thomas A. Gaylord, USN (Ret'd), administers oath to five new Navy nurses commissioned in New York...', 03/08/1945," America's Historical Documents, accessed Oct. 5, 2021, https://www.archives.gov/historical-docs/todays-doc/index.html?dod-date=308.

[282] Naval History and Heritage Command, "20th Century Warriors: Native American Participation in the United States Military," Navy Department Library, Sept. 14, 2017, https://www.history.navy.mil/research/library/online-reading-room/title-list-alphabetically/t/american-indians-us-military.html; Naval History and Heritage Command, "Contributions of Native Americans to the U.S. Navy: Serving the United States Since its Birth."

Figure 45. Native American sailors aboard a Navy Landing Ship, WWII (Naval History and Heritage Command).

Asian Americans

Japanese Americans were not allowed into the U.S. Navy during WWII. Well over 13,000 Chinese Americans served in the war. Only a small number of those were in the U.S. Navy. There were Chinese American sailors and WAVES. The sailors were restricted to the Steward's branch until ratings opened Navy-wide in 1942. Chinese Americans in the Navy were not subject to segregation.[283]

Filipinos

Unlike African American sailors that had a wide choice of assignments after 1942, Filipinos remained restricted to the Messman Branch until 1971. They served in the Steward rating throughout the war. In 1947, the United States and the Republic of the Philippines formed an agreement to permit U.S. recruitment of Philippine citizens to volunteer in the U.S. Military Services, including the Navy. It was not clear if the Filipino

283 McNaughton, "Chinese-Americans in World War II."

stewards were segregated, but it is likely they were quartered and messed together on board.[284]

Hispanic Americans

Over 500,000 Hispanic Americans served the U.S. military during WWII, with the vast majority of these being Mexican American. There were also significant numbers of Puerto Ricans in the military. Most Hispanic Americans served in the Army. Neither Hispanic American sailors nor Hispanic American WAVES were segregated.[285]

2.3 U. S. Marine Corps

Although a part of the Department of the Navy, the U.S. Marine Corps (USMC) had a different history of segregation regarding ethnic minorities. Although subject to Navy policy in many cases, the Marine Corps also created its own operating methods regarding segregation.

2.3.1 Pre-World War II

Upon the establishment of the U.S. Marine Corps on July 11, 1798, a discriminatory enlistment policy went into effect, with Secretary of War James McHenry specifying that "no Negro, Mulatto, or Indian [is] to be enlisted."[286] The rationale for this policy was rooted in British naval practice which "set a higher standard of unit cohesion for Marines, the unit to be made up of only one race, so that the members would remain loyal, maintain shipboard discipline and help put down mutinies."[287] On August 8, 1798, Secretary of the Navy Benjamin Stodden specifically excluded African Americans from serving in either the U.S. Navy or the U.S. Marine Corps.[288] The Commandant of the new U.S. Marine Corps, Major William Ward Burrows, instructed his recruiters that they could not enlist Black applicants.[289] Enlistment in the Marine Corps was simply not a possibility for Black Americans. The USMC maintained this policy until

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[284] Filipino American National Historical Society, "Filipino American History Month Theme;" Naval History and Heritage Command, "Filipinos in the United States Navy," Navy Department Library, Nov. 23, 2020, https://www.history.navy.mil/research/library/online-reading-room/title-list-alphabetically/f/filipinos-in-the-united-states-navy.html.

[285] Oropeza, "Fighting on Two Fronts," 258.

[286] Henry I. Shaw, Jr., and Ralph W. Donnelly, *Blacks in the Marine Corps* (Washington, DC: History and Museum Division, Headquarters, U.S. Marine Corps, 1975), 1.

[287] Shaw and Donnelly, *Blacks in the Marine Corps*, 1.

[288] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 746.

[289] Mills, Sr., "African American Sailors: Their Role In Helping The Union To Win The Civil War," 5.

1942.[290] As a result, issues of segregation within the service did not arise until WWII.

2.3.2 World War II

President Franklin D. Roosevelt issued Executive Order 8802 on June 25, 1941, establishing the Fair Employment Practices Commission and the formal policy of non-discrimination both in all Federal agencies and military policy.[291] The Executive Order stated that the Military Services would lead the way to end discrimination by affirming the policy of full participation in the defense program by all persons regardless of color, race, creed, or national origin.[292] With the stroke of a pen, Black Americans were authorized to enlist in the Marine Corps. Although the policy was in place, implementation varied in scope and intent. Major General Thomas Holcomb appointed Brigadier General Thomas E. Watson to represent the Marine Corps on the new commission. General Holcomb indicated that in addition to hostility within the Marine Corps toward African Americans, the Marine Corps did not have segregated facilities for training and housing for the new recruits. Many within the Marine Corps were not willing to accept African Americans into a "club that [didn't] want them."[293]

Pressure from the White House and public sources resulted in an announcement by the Secretary of the Navy on April 7, 1942, stating that the Navy, Coast Guard, and Marine Corps would soon accept African Americans for general service enlistment in active-duty reserve components. Actual recruitment would begin when segregated training sites were established. On May 20, 1942, the Secretary of the Navy announced that the USMC would form a battalion of 900 African Americans during June and July. The new African American Marine recruits would form a composite defense battalion, a unit consisting of seacoast artillery, anti-aircraft artillery, infantry, and tanks. Their task would be overseas base defense.[294] Recruiting of men between the ages of

[290] MacGregor, *Integration of the Armed Forces, 1940–1965*, 100–102.

[291] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 442.

[292] Shaw and Donnelly, *Blacks in the Marine Corps*, 1.

[293] Shaw and Donnelly, *Blacks in the Marine Corps*, 1.

[294] Shaw and Donnelly, *Blacks in the Marine Corps*, 1.

17 and 29 that met existing Marine Corps enlistment standards began on June 1, 1942.[295]

Colonial Samuel A. Woods, Jr., a Caucasian, was chosen to command the training of African American Marines.[296] Montford Point Camp, also known as Montford Point Marine Camp, was created as the segregated training camp for African American recruits. It was located at the far corner of the main USMC training base, Camp Lejeune, in North Carolina. The initial recruits were those with the necessary skills to build the new camp.[297] It initially consisted of a headquarters and service battery and one or more recruit training batteries. After 180 days of basic training, recruits would receive combat equipment and organize for composite defense battalion training.[298]

By December 1942, all voluntary enlistments into the Military Services were discontinued for men between the ages of 18 and 37 years of age. The Selective Service System would be the means of induction into the Military Services requiring that of those selected, ten percent would be African Americans. This resulted in a large increase of African Americans within the Marine Corps and the need for the expansion of training facilities.[299] By June 1, 1943, 1,000 African American Marines recruits were called up, a quota that continued every month (Figure 46).[300]

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[295] Shaw and Donnelly, *Blacks in the Marine Corps*, 4.

[296] Shaw and Donnelly, *Blacks in the Marine Corps*, 1.

[297] Anna Hiatt, "Who Were the Montford Point Marines?" *JSTOR Daily*, June 26, 2019, https://daily.jstor.org/who-were-the-montford-point-marines/.

[298] Shaw and Donnelly, *Blacks in the Marine Corps*, 4.

[299] Shaw and Donnelly, *Blacks in the Marine Corps*, 10.

[300] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 442.

Figure 46. African American recruits at USMC Montford Point Camp, North Carolina, April 1943 (NARA).

During WWII, all African American Marines trained under white officers at the segregated Montford Point Camp. The creation of a segregated training facility has been described as "a physical manifestation of the disdain held by the marine corps [*sic*] for African American recruits (Figure 47)."[301] Boot camp, specialist training, and field training were all segregated. Between 1942 and 1949, about 20,000 African American Marine recruits trained at Montford Point (Figure 48 and Figure 49).[302]

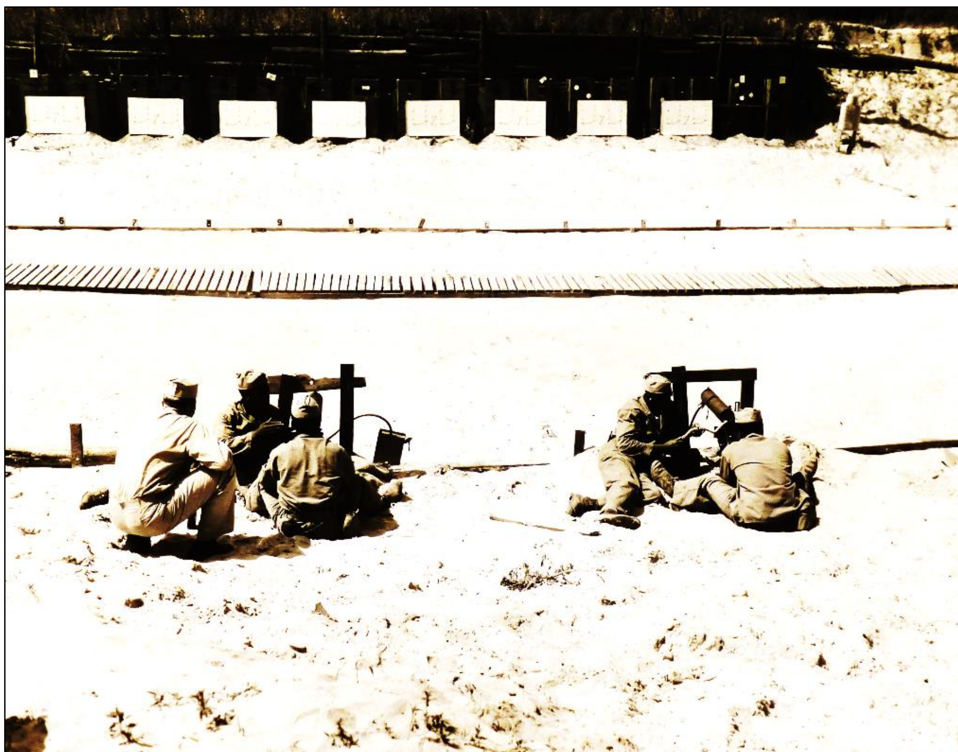
Figure 47. Montford Point Camp, 1957 (NARA).

[301] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 441.

[302] Hiatt, "Who Were the Montford Point Marines?"

Figure 48. Platoon of African American Marines at USMC Montford Point Camp, North Carolina, April 1945 (NARA).

Figure 49. African American Marines train on the .30 caliber machine gun, Montford Point Camp, 1944 (NARA).



In addition to segregated training, the new Marines were segregated in all-Black units, which were excluded from the main combat units. For the most part, Black Marines in WWII were limited to assignment to labor or service units, depot and ammunition companies, steward duties, or defense battalions that were not in the front lines. Unit officers were white, although there was an effort late in the war to train and assign Black NCOs to Black units.[303] Black instructors at Montford Point had largely taken over from white personnel by late 1943.[304]

The 51st and 52nd composite defense battalions were created during the war for African American Marines, although neither saw combat action. In the Pacific theater, they garrisoned captured islands. There were 63 depot or ammunition units comprised of African American Marines. Deployed overseas during the war, their support functions did often place them in contact with combat operations, and in some instances the men of these units did pick up rifles and join the fighting.[305]

As the Marine Corps increased in size during the war, there was a shortage of troops dedicated to providing labor support, particularly in logistics. Without an equivalent to the Navy's stevedores, the Marine Corps was forced to use combat troops for loading and unloading tasks. This need was filled by the creation of depot and ammunition companies consisting of African American Marines coming out of boot camp at Montfort Point, who were not allowed combat roles. The segregated companies began with activation of the 1st Marine Depot Company on March 8, 1943. Companies of African American Marines with duties specifically related to moving and guarding ammunition began on October 1, 1943, with the activation of the 1st Marine Ammunition Company. For both these types of companies, deployment overseas occurred as soon as training was finished. African American depot and ammunition companies were formed at Montford Point Camp at the rate of one ammunition company and two depot companies a month.[306]

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[303] Montford Point Marine Association, Inc., "History of Montford Point Marines," manuscript, 1971, RG 127, Records of the U.S. Marine Corps, Box 135, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, D.C.

[304] Hiatt, "Who Were the Montford Point Marines?"

[305] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 35; National WWII Museum, "African Americans in WWII."

[306] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 704-705.

In spite of the lifting of restrictions on enrollment, Black Marines were still denied advancement, with no commissions occurring during the war.[307] After trying for several years, Frederick C. Branch was accepted into the Officer Candidate School and earned a commission in the Marine Corps in November 1945.[308] He was the first African American to do so (Figure 50). By the end of WWII, 19,168 African Americans had served as Marines, with peak strength of 17,119 reached in September 1945.[309] Black females were not allowed to join the Women's Reserve during WWII.[310] The first Black women did not enlist in the Marine Corps until 1949, and they were integrated with other women Marines from the beginning.[311]

Figure 50. Second Lieutenant Frederick C. Branch, first African American commissioned in the Marine Corps, November 1945 (NARA).

307 Forstchen and Wilson, "Segregation In The Military," 222. 216-222.

308 Hiatt, "Who Were the Montford Point Marines?"

309 Montford Point Marine Association, Inc., "History of Montford Point Marines," NARA, Washington, D.C.

310 MacGregor, Jr., *Integration of the Armed Forces 1940-1965*, 171-172.

311 Women Marines Association, "Women Marines Milestones," Women Marines History, accessed Sept. 17, 2021, https://www.womenmarines.org/wm-history.

Native Americans

Although not segregated by policy on race, a special Marine Corps unit defined by their ethnicity was organized from Native Americans: Navajo Code Talkers. Building on the success of Choctaw code talkers in WWI, the use of Navajo to secure communications derived from it being an unwritten language of great complexity. In early 1942, Major General Clayton B. Vogel, commanding general of Amphibious Corps, Pacific fleet, and his staff conducted a test to see if Navajo could be used securely and rapidly. The successful test led to 200 Navajos being recruited by the Marine Corps. After boot camp in May 1942, the first 29 recruits created the code at Camp Pendleton, California. Once a recruit was trained, they were deployed to the Pacific theater. Their efforts to provide secure communications, transmitting information in an unbreakable code, provided a huge advantage to U.S. troops. By 1945, approximately 400 Navajo had been trained as code talkers.[312] They participated in every USMC assault in the Pacific from 1942 to 1945, serving in "all six Marine divisions, Marine Raider battalions and Marine parachute units."[313]

2.4 U.S. Air Force 1947-48

As the U.S. Air Force only became an independent service branch on September 18, 1947, its history of racial segregation is brief. Before 1947, the Army Air Forces was a semi-autonomous branch in practice, if not policy. General Dwight D. Eisenhower became the Army Chief of Staff in November 1945, and one of his first priorities was establishing a board of offices to separate the Air Forces from the Army. On January 29, 1946, the board agreed to a plan which involved dividing the Air Force into several commands: Strategic Air Command, Tactical Air Command, Air Defense Command, Air Materiel Command, and Air Transport Command.[314]

The Air Force inherited the racial segregation that had been practiced by the Army Air Forces. By late 1947, however, pressure was building for more integration in the armed services. When the Air Force was established, the 332nd Wing (the 99th, 100th, and 301st Fighter squadrons)

[312] Naval History and Heritage Command, "Navajo Cold Talkers: World War II Fact Sheet," Navy Department Library, April 16, 2020, https://www.history.navy.mil/research/library/online-reading-room/title-list-alphabetically/n/code-talkers.html.

[313] PBS, "Latino & Native Americans," Fighting for Democracy, accessed Sept. 21, 2021, https://www.pbs.org/kenburns/the-war/latino-native-americans/.

[314] Stephen L. McFarland, *A Concise History of the U.S. Air Force* (Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, OH: Air Force History and Museums Program, 1997), 40.

remained segregated, with over ten percent of the 15,437 African American airmen concentrated with the 332nd at Lockbourne Air Force Base (AFB). Tasked with training African American officers and enlisted personnel, they remained segregated even when on maneuvers, particularly in the southern states. They were housed and fed separately and could only attend separate segregated clubs.[315]

The lack of postings available for African American officers resulted in more than 75 percent of the total of 257 being stationed at Lockbourne AFB. The rest were scattered worldwide as commanders of still-segregated African American aviation squadrons.[316]

The segregation and concentration of Black Air Force personnel was prevalent in the Strategic Air Command. African Americans made up 18 percent of the command in 1947, but most were concentrated at MacDill AFB and Schilling AFB, both in Kansas. This led to serious overcrowding at MacDill with more than one-third of the personnel there being African American.[317]

2.5 End of Segregation in the U.S. Military

> The military ended segregation after World War II. Experts note that this was primarily a result of the military finally realizing the inefficiency of having segregated units requiring segregated housing and facilities. But the problem of inefficiency had not ended segregation in the military before World War II. What had changed? One major element in the end of segregation was America's recognition of its own racist attitudes. During World Wars I and II, thousands of white and blacks [*sic*] were forced to work side by side to win. The soldiers saw that they all bled red. Another element was the shock of the strident racism of the Japanese and Nazis, which awakened America to its own race problems. These changes, combined with civil rights efforts, played on the minds and attitudes of military policy makers, eventually ending segregation.[318]

It became apparent to U.S. military leadership that actions taken during the war illustrated the utility of African Americans in the Military Services,

[315] Gropman, *The Air Force Integrates, 1945-1964*, 80, 82.

[316] Gropman, *The Air Force Integrates, 1945-1964*, 80-81.

[317] Gropman, *The Air Force Integrates, 1945-1964*, 71.

[318] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 256.

such as the successful introduction of Black pilots and Naval officers. The success of very limited experiments with integrated units was also apparent. Even so, the military was still a segregated organization. It would take increasingly vocal protests from civil rights advocates, dawning awareness in the services, and a Presidential Order to change things.[319]

In fall 1945, the War Department commissioned a special board to study utilization of African American troops. The Gillem Board, as it was known, reported back that, if properly led, African American troops were very successful. As a result, the Army announced a policy to represent African American troops in the same ratio they were found in the larger population and eliminate the all-African American division. Although a step in the right direction, this policy did not remove segregation.[320]

Moving forward more strongly, in February 1946, the Secretary of the Navy ordered all racial segregation to end in the Navy. This was done by removing all race-based restrictions on assignments in all activities and ships, and by removing special provisions for African American sailors in housing, messing, and other facilities.[321]

2.5.1 Executive Order 9981

Increasing political and social focus on the issue resulted in President Truman issuing Executive Order 9981 in July 1948. The order states that:

> It is essential that there be maintained in the armed services of the United States the highest standards of democracy, with equality of treatment and opportunity of all those who serve in our (p. 28) country's defense. It is hereby declared to be the policy of the President that there shall be equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the Armed Services without regard to race, color, religion or national origin. This policy shall be put into effect as rapidly as possible, having due regard to the time required to effectuate any necessary changes without impairing efficiency or morale.[322]

[319] Prum, "Where We Stand," 26.
[320] Prum, "Where We Stand," 27.
[321] Prum, "Where We Stand," 26.
[322] Prum, "Where We Stand," 27.

The order established a committee to investigate levels of equality in the Military Services. Known as the Fahy Committee, it looked at all existing service regulations and practices with an eye toward improving them in support of the Executive Order. The committee concluded that equality of treatment would increase efficiency and laid out a basis for integration of the services.[323]

The Fahy Committee's findings, however, did not sway the Army. Still resisting integration, the Secretary of the Army's position was that African American soldiers were less qualified for combat duty and the Army "was not an instrument of social evolution."[324] In mid-1949, a new individual with a different mindset became Secretary of the Army, and by January 1950 the Army issued a policy statement that African American troops would be given assignments to units "without regard to race or color."[325] This statement began the Army's path to integration, though it would not be completed until increased manpower was necessitated by the Korean War.

The Secretary of Defense supported the push for integration, issuing an order on April 20, 1949, that the Military Services would end racial discrimination as ordered by the President. The policy stated that "all individuals, regardless of race, will be accorded equal opportunity for appointment, advancement, professional improvement, promotion."[326] The Air Force moved to integrate in 1949, with its last segregated unit, the 332nd Fighter Wing, eliminated in June of that year.[327]

323 Prum, "Where We Stand," 27.

324 Prum, "Where We Stand," 30.

325 Prum, "Where We Stand," 30.

326 Shaw, Jr. and Donnelly, *Blacks in the Marine Corps*, 54.

327 McFarland, *A Concise History of the U.S. Air Force*, 41.

3 A Brief Inventory and Description of Places with Ethnic Minority Personnel

The historical and archival record analyzed for this project indicated a widespread pattern of segregation in the built environment. Efforts to compile a complete inventory of installations with a history of segregation proved difficult due to the sheer numbers of military installations that had segregated groups and facilities. Developing a complete compilation of installations was not viable. Additionally, segregation was so ingrained in the military at this time that many records documenting segregated housing areas or duplicate facilities for multiple ethnic groups, were not retained as historical resources. Specific information on some installations where segregation occurred was simply not available. As a result, the final collection of information for this inventory was limited and draws from the surviving documents. What follows is a summary of military places that were revealed during the writing of the historic context.

3.1 War Department

In the early years, the Army had few permanent buildings, with most personnel in tent camps or appropriated buildings. More permanent installations appeared in the 1800s, especially by the Civil War. Large expanses of temporary buildings were the standard for the Civil War, WWI, and WWII.

3.1.1 Fort Apache, Arizona

While searching for Apache Tribal Peoples in the White Mountains of the eastern Arizona territory in the summer of 1869, Major John Green of the 1st Cavalry met and established a friendly relationship with the Cibecue Apaches and White Mountain Apaches living in the area. After consulting with Apache leaders, he established a military post at the confluence of the East and North Forks of the White River. The post was initially called Camp Ord and went through several names before being designated as Fort Apache in 1879.[328]

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[328] Lt. Col. Clayton R. Newell (Ret.), "Fort Apache, Arizona," National Museum of the U.S. Army, accessed Oct. 17, 2021, https://armyhistory.org/fort-apache-arizona/; White Mountain Apache Tribe, "Uniqueness Of The White Mountain Apache," Our Culture, accessed March 3, 2022, https://whitemountainapache.org/culture/.

Soldiers stationed at Fort Apache were primarily involved in campaigns against the Native people of southern Arizona and New Mexico; however, in 1871, the commander of the Department of Arizona found that his soldiers' fighting styles were no match for those of the area Native people. He therefore assembled approximately 50 White Mountain Apache men to serve as scouts. They later became known as the Apache Scouts.[329]

Over the next 15 years, the Apache Scouts participated in campaigns to subdue the Chiricahua Apaches who sought to maintain their ancestral homeland and were led by Geronimo.[330] After his 1881 surrender, Cibecue and White Mountain Apaches who had been relocated to reservations across the United States were able to return to Fort Apache and the surrounding area. On November 9, 1891, President Benjamin Harrison signed an Executive Order designating some of the land around Fort Apache as the Fort Apache Indian Reservation. The reservation underwent several expansions before being divided into the Fort Apache Reservation and the San Carlos Reservation in 1896. Today, the Fort Apache Reservation is called the White Mountain Apache Reservation.[331]

Throughout the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the importance of Fort Apache as a frontier post was decreasing. It officially closed in 1924. The Apache Scouts were transferred to Fort Huachuca, and the last three Apache Scouts retired in 1947. Fort Apache's facilities were transferred to the Bureau of Indian Affairs, who used them to establish the Theodore Roosevelt Indian Boarding School in 1923. Today, it is still active as a middle school.[332]

3.1.2 Camp Anza, California

Camp Anza was a WWII camp located near Riverside, California. Activated on December 2, 1942, it served as a staging area for troops being deployed from the Los Angeles Port of Embarkation. As on other WWII camps, temporary wooden buildings were constructed in large numbers. African

[329] Lt. Col. Clayton R. Newell (Ret.), "Fort Apache, Arizona," National Museum of the U.S. Army, accessed Oct. 17, 2021, https://armyhistory.org/fort-apache-arizona/; White Mountain Apache Tribe, "Uniqueness Of The White Mountain Apache."

[330] Kathy Weiser-Alexander, "Apache Wars of the Southwest," Legends of America, last modified June 2021, https://www.legendsofamerica.com/apache-wars/; White Mountain Apache Tribe, "Uniqueness Of The White Mountain Apache."

[331] White Mountain Apache Tribe, "Uniqueness Of The White Mountain Apache."

[332] Newell, "Fort Apache, Arizona;" White Mountain Apache Tribe, "Uniqueness Of The White Mountain Apache."

American troops stationed here were segregated from white soldiers. They were housed separately and used different facilities. The African American Service Club was housed in a building located on “B” Street (Figure 51).[333]

Figure 51. View of African American soldiers in the Camp Anza, CA, service club, n.d. (NARA).

3.1.3 Camp Beale, California

Camp Beale was created in 1942 as an Armored and Infantry training camp. The Army’s 1st Filipino Infantry Regiment, consisting of Filipino expatriates, Filipino Americans, and white Americans, trained at Camp Beale during 1943. The unit was first attached to the II Armored Corps, then to the Fourth Army, and then to the III Corps. Many members of the 1st Filipino were not citizens when activated. This issue was resolved by Army officers administering the oath of allegiance and granting citizenship to 1,000 Filipinos at Camp Beale on February 20, 1943.[334] There is no evidence this unit was physically segregated.

In 1943, the African American 777th Field Artillery Battalion was formed at Camp Beale as a 4.5″ gun unit. All the 777th’s training and most of its

[333] Robert B. Roberts, “Camp Anza,” Historic California Posts, Stations and Airfields, accessed Oct. 21, 2021, http://www.militarymuseum.org/CpAnza.html.

[334] Johnson, “Beale Air Force Base.”

operational service was conducted under the supervision of all-white groups—first the 181st Field Artillery Group and, beginning in November 1944, the 202nd Field Artillery Group. After training at Camp Beale for a year, the 777th shipped to Europe on August 1, 1944.[335]

After 1941, African American nurses were stationed at Camp Beale; before this time, only white women were allowed into the Army Nurse Corps.[336] In April 1941, Della H. Raney became the first African American nurse accepted into the Army Nurse Corps. Her rank was 2nd Lieutenant, and she led 24 nurses stationed at Fort Bragg. Six months later, she was promoted to 1st Lieutenant. By March 1942, she had become the first African American Chief Nurse in the Army Nurse Corps. In 1944, she was transferred to Camp Beale. After being promoted to Captain in 1945 (Figure 52) and Major in 1946 and completing a tour of duty in Japan, she became the Director of Nursing for the base hospital at Camp Beale. She retired in 1978 with the highest rank of any African American nurse who served in WWII.[337]

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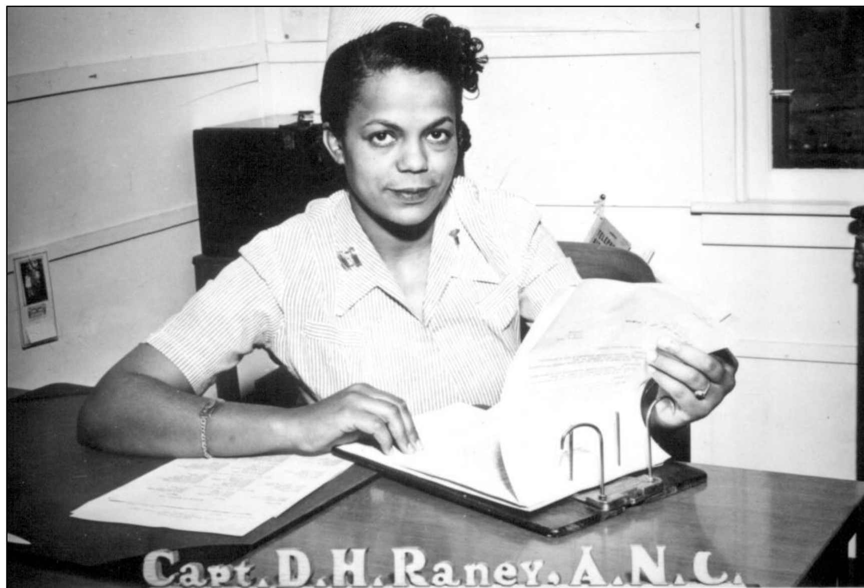
[335] Lee, *The Employment of Negro Troops*.

[336] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 21, 35-38, 255.

[337] "Capt. Della H. Raney," 1945, Still Photographs Collection, 208-PU-161K-1, National Archives and Records Administration, College Park, MD; Phoebe Politt, "Della Hayden Raney Jackson," North Carolina Nursing History, accessed Feb. 15, 2022, https://nursinghistory.appstate.edu/biographies/della-hayden-raney-jackson.

Figure 52. Capt. Della H. Raney, Army Nurse Corps in her office, April 11, 1945 (NARA 208-PU-161K-1).



3.1.4 Fort Belvoir, Virginia

In 1915, 8,656 acres of land belonging to the War Department were developed into a training camp and rifle range for the U.S. Army's Engineer School. More permanent construction arrived in 1917 with WWI. At this time, the Engineer Replacement & Training Camp, Engineers Officer Training School, Army Gas School, and School of Military Mining began on post. Previously named Camp A.A. Humphreys, the installation became Fort Belvoir in 1935. The Army Engineering School remained until the 1980s.[338]

There was a separate area of the installation set aside for African American soldiers (Figure 53 and Figure 54). A housing area was constructed for married African American soldiers and their families. Called Youngs Village, it was constructed on post in the early to mid-1940s. It was surrounded by drill fields, a hospital, and two chapels. Youngs Village remained until the late 1950s or early 1960s. The houses were described in 1956 as "frame-built bungalow-type houses."[339]

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[338] Post Housing, Inc., "Fort Belvoir, VA History," Fort Belvoir Housing, accessed Oct. 15, 2021, https://www.fortbelvoirhousing.com/history.

[339] Fort Belvoir Residential Communities, LLC, "Youngs Village," Villages, accessed Oct. 15, 2021, https://www.fortbelvoirhousinghistory.com/youngs-village.

Figure 53. Engineer Replacement & Training Camp Battalion Areas 10, 9, and 8 from north to south occupied by African American troops, c. 1941 (NARA College Park 77-391-65).

Figure 54. Guard house, c. 1941 (NARA College Park 77-391-65).

3.1.5 Fort Benning, Georgia

Camp Benning was created in 1918 to provide basic training for soldiers for WWI, and it became a permanent installation in 1920. The School of Infantry was soon established, and new construction occurred. In 1922, the camp was renamed Fort Benning, and it became the premier infantry post in the United States. During WWII, Fort Benning provided infantry, airborne, and officer candidate training.[340]

In 1933, the Indianhead housing area was constructed as housing for Black NCOs and their families.[341] African American units at Fort Benning in WWII included the 24th Infantry and the 555th Parachute Infantry Battalion, also known as the "Triple Nickles." The latter was the first all-African American paratrooper unit. They were deployed on the West Coast during the war as smokejumpers fighting forest fires ignited by Japanese incendiary devices.[342] The 25th Infantry was stationed at Fort Benning after the war. African American troops at Fort Benning were housed and messed in segregated facilities (Figure 55 and Figure 56).[343]

[340] Post Housing, Inc., "Fort Benning, GA History," Fort Benning Housing, accessed Oct. 16, 2021, https://www.fortbenninghousing.com/history.

[341] Alva James-Johnson, "Black Servicemen Tour Historic Sites at Fort Benning," *Ledger-Enquirer*, last modified February 19, 2016, https://www.ledger-enquirer.com/news/article61344462.html.

[342] Linton Weeks, "How Black Smokejumpers Helped to Save the American West," *NPR*, Jan. 22, 2015, https://www.npr.org/sections/npr-history-dept/2015/01/22/376973981/how-black-smokejumpers-helped-save-the-american-west; Jennifer Queen, "The Triple Nickles: A 75-Year Legacy," Forest Service, USDA, Feb. 28, 2020, https://www.fs.usda.gov/features/triple-nickles-75-year-legacy.

[343] Alva James-Johnson, "Black Servicemen Tour Historic Sites at Fort Benning," *Ledger-Enquirer*, last modified February 19, 2016, https://www.ledger-enquirer.com/news/article61344462.html.

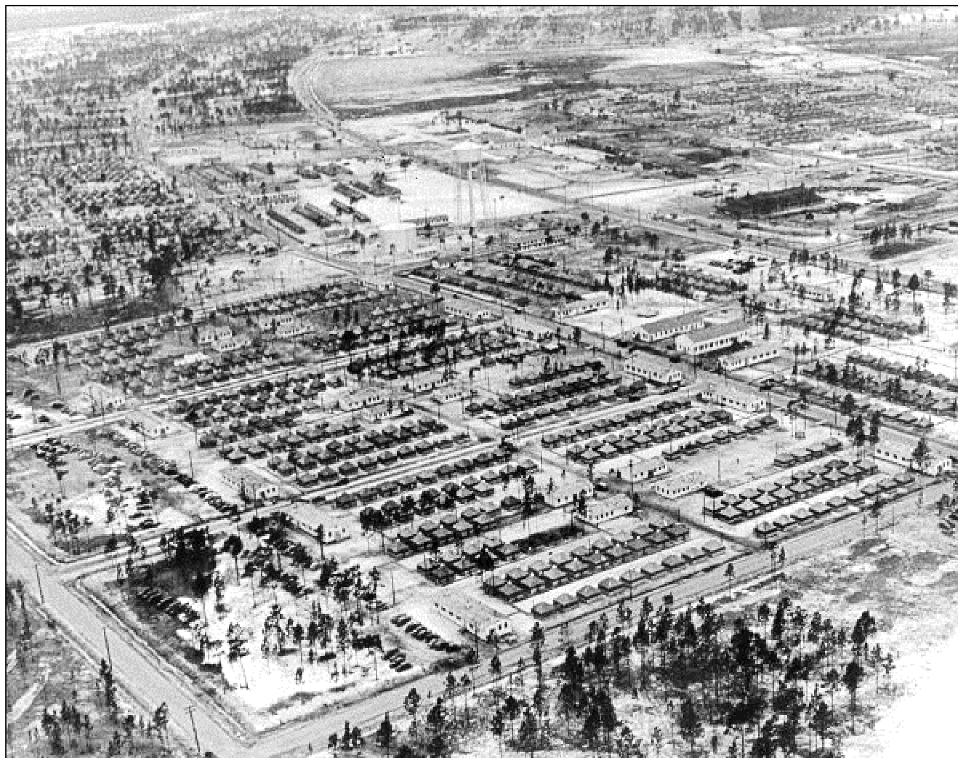
Figure 55. Members of Company E of the 25th Infantry stand in line waiting for their food to be served on their trays, Fort Benning, GA, 1947 (NARA College Park 111-SC Box 592 Photo Album 296182).

Figure 56. African American troops of Company E of the 25th Infantry are at chow in their mess hall at Sand Hill, Fort Benning, GA, 1947 (NARA College Park 111-SC Box 592 Photo Album 296183).

3.1.6 Camp Blanding, Florida

Camp Blanding served as a large training base in northern Florida during WWII. In 1940, the Army acquired 150,000 acres to construct the camp—this was enough land to train two infantry divisions (Figure 57). In August 1943, the camp was converted to an Infantry Replacement Training Center. Almost 175,000 replacement troops received training at the camp by the end of the war.[344] The primary African American unit to train at Camp Blanding during WWII was the 45th Engineer General Service Regiment, made up of 1,150 men.[345] The unit undertook trucking and construction activities in the India-Burma campaign.[346] There were also African Americans serving as part of the station complement at the camp. There was a separate area for African American troops at Camp Blanding (Figure 58).

Figure 57. Camp Blanding, FL, WWII (floridamemory.com).

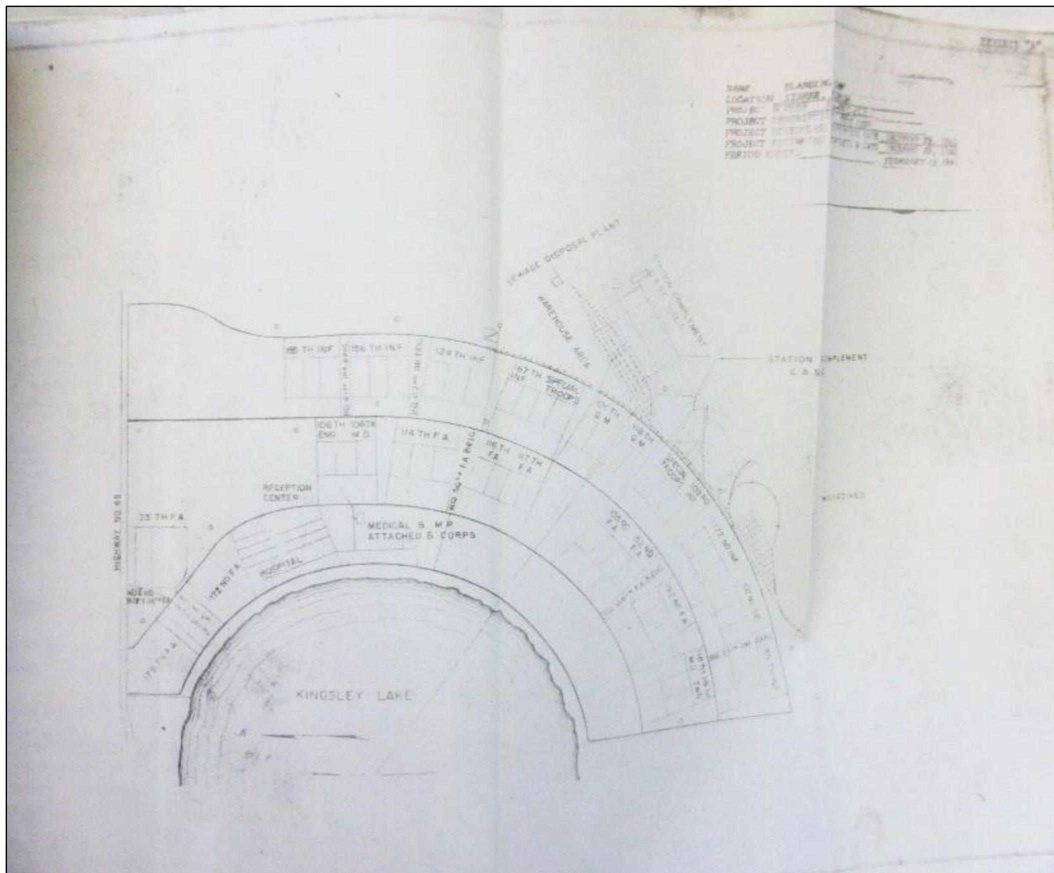


[344] Camp Blanding Museum, "History," accessed Oct. 30, 2021, https://campblandingmuseum.org/history.

[345] Mel Vasquez, The Narrative of Camp Blanding on the Second World War," Academia.edu, Feb. 20, 2018, https://www.academia.edu/36931354/The_Narrative_of_Camp_Blanding_on_the_Second_World_War.

[346] Goldblatt, "14th Air Service Group."

Figure 58. Plan of Camp Blanding, FL, showing “Station Complement C.A.S.C. (Col.) in the upper right quadrant of the plan, 1941 (NARA RG77, Box 9).



3.1.7 Fort Bragg, North Carolina

From 1940 to 1945, nine African American units were activated at Fort Bragg: 1) 34th Coast Artillery Brigade consisting of the 76th and 77th Coast Artillery Regiments; 2) 578th Field Artillery Regiment (Motorized) that was redesignated the 578th Field Artillery and the 999th Field Artillery Battalions; 3) 732nd and 795th Field Artillery Battalions; 4) 41st Engineer General Service Regiment (parent unit of the 358th Engineer Regiment); 5) 95th Engineer General Service Regiment; 6) 96th and 384th; Engineer General Service Battalions; 7) 555th Parachute Regiment; 8) Company L, 468th Quartermaster Truck Regiment; and 9) 16th Battalion of the Field Artillery Replacement Training Center. These units were in segregated facilities and had their own recreation facilities (Figure 59).

Figure 59. SGT Williams (*left*) with the USO talking to servicemen in the Fort Bragg service club, n.d. (NARA).

The 76th Coast Artillery Regiment was activated at Fort Bragg in August 1940. The unit departed in December 1941. The 77th Coast Artillery was activated at Fort Bragg in February 1941 and remained until December 1941.[347] Several dozen Black female Army Nurse Corps personnel were assigned to Fort Bragg by April 1941.[348]

Right after the end of WWII, the Triple Nickel parachute regiment was reactivated at Fort Bragg. They were segregated in a series of buildings in the northwest portion of the cantonment.[349]

3.1.8 Camp Claiborne, Louisiana

Camp Claiborne was constructed in 1930 and expanded in 1939. It was primarily a tent cantonment (Table 5). It was home to several African American Tank Battalions, including the 761st and the 784th, both with white and Black officers. The units were activated on April 1, 1942.[350] Three known temporary buildings were constructed for African Americans

[347] William C. Gaines, "Coast Artillery Organizational History, 1917-1950, Part I, Coast Artillery Regiments 1-196," *The Coast Defense Journal* 23, iss. 2 (May 2009), 46.

[348] U.S. Army Medical Department, "African American Army Nurse Corps Officers."

[349] Weeks, "How Black Smokejumpers Helped to Save the American West."

[350] Rickey Robertson, "America's Almost Forgotten Heroes," Stephen F. Austin State University Center for Regional Heritage Research, Feb. 2018, https://www.sfasu.edu/heritagecenter/9907.asp.

stationed at Camp Claiborne: a service club (Figure 60), a guest house (Figure 61), and a tent theater (Figure 62). The dates of construction are unknown, but the buildings were extant by c. 1941.[351]

Table 5. List of buildings constructed at Camp Claiborne, LA, n.d. (Transcribed from NARA College Park 77-391-65).

No. Built	Building	Type	Cost Each	Cost Total
4	Signal Communication School	63-M	$ 9,620	$ 38,480
186	Day Room	RB-2	2,895	538,470
4	Day Room (Special)	AC-1110	3,765	15,060
1	Service Club (Colored)	SC-4	35,410	35,410
2	Tent Theatre		23,355	46,710
1	Guest House (Colored)	GU.HO.-14	5,200	5,200
1	Depot Co. Building		29,640	29,640
1	Engineering Shop Building		89,500	89,500
12	Chapel	CH-1	25,775	309,300
521	Officers' Tent		57	29,697
8	Mess Hall	170-M	8,515	68,120
1	Mess Hall	250-M	8,895	8,895
1	Administration Building	A-10	7,675	7,675
1	Post Exchange	E-2	8,765	8,765
1	Infirmary	I-1	9,825	9,825

[351] List of buildings constructed at Camp Claiborne, LA, c. 1941, 77-391-65, National Archives and Records Administration, College Park, MD.

Figure 60. The African American Service Club at Camp Claiborne, LA, c. 1941 (NARA College Park 77-391-65).

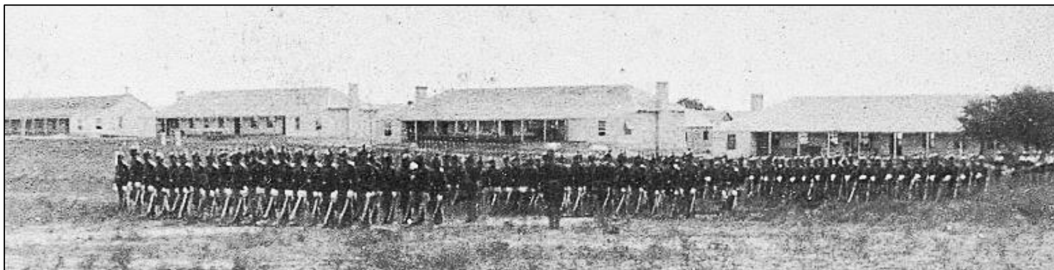
Figure 61. The African American Guest House at Camp Claiborne, LA, c. 1941 (NARA College Park 77-391-65).

Figure 62. The African American Tent Theater at Camp Claiborne, LA, c. 1941 (NARA College Park 77-391-65).

3.1.9 Fort Clark, Texas

An early frontier installation, Fort Clark was established in 1852 as a cavalry post. It remained a cavalry post until its closing just after WWII, serving as one of the last cavalry posts in the country.[352] Between 1868 and 1875, Fort Clark was at various points the home station of all four African American regiments active after the Civil War, the 9th and 10th Cavalry Regiments and the 24th and 25th Infantry Regiments (Figure 63). The 9th Cavalry was first to arrive in 1868 and has the most historical associations with the fort.[353]

Figure 63. Soldiers on the parade ground at Fort Clark, TX, 1870s (U.S. Army photo).



[352] Fort Clark Springs Association, "Fort Clark Springs History," Fort Clark.com, accessed Oct. 15, 2021, https://www.fortclark.com/history.html.

[353] Fort Clark Springs Association, "Fort Clark Springs History;" Texas Beyond History, "Battles for the Nueces Strip;" National Park Service, "African Americans in the Frontier Army;" Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 82-112.

From 1872 until 1914, Fort Clark was also home to the Seminole-Negro Indian Scouts and their families (Figure 64). The Seminole-Negro Indian Scouts were enlisted descendants of freed or escaped enslaved people who sought sanctuary in Spanish Florida, where freedom was granted to runaways in the 1700s. They were taken in by the Seminole Tribe. In the mid-1800s, the Seminole Nation was relocated to Oklahoma, and the Black Seminoles migrated to northern Mexico. By the early 1870s, the Black Seminoles began negotiating with the Army at Fort Duncan, Texas, to cross the border and reunite with the Seminole Nation. Ultimately, the Black Seminoles reached an agreement with the Army that they could migrate to Seminole Nation territory in exchange for military service. Each Seminole-Negro Indian Scout would be enlisted for six months. Notably, documentation of this agreement was lost and the government's promise of the Black Seminoles' reunification with the Seminole Nation was never fulfilled.[354]

Figure 64. Sgt. Ben July, Seminole-Negro Indian scout for the U. S. Army, shown at the village of Seminole Negroes near Fort Clark, TX, n.d. (https://www.texasbeyondhistory.net/forts/clark/images/benjuly.html).

[354] Army Historical Foundation, "The Seminole-Indian Scout Detachment, National Museum United States Army, accessed Feb. 20, 2022, https://armyhistory.org/the-seminole-negro-indian-scout-detachment/.

In 1872, a Seminole settlement of jacal thatched-roofed homes for scouts and their families was established at Fort Clark. It appears that regular use of this settlement was short-lived, however, as the Seminole-Negro Indian Scout Detachment was continuously deployed to the Big Bend region of Texas during the 1880s. They returned to Fort Clark in the early 1890s, but were then transferred to Fort Ringgold, Texas, where they remained until 1906. The scouts' families, though, continued to live at Fort Clark. In September 1914, the Seminole-Negro Indian Scouts was officially disbanded. Many of the discharged scouts moved to nearby Brackettville, Texas, where retired scouts had already established a community.[355]

3.1.10 Fort Concho, Texas

Fort Concho was established in 1867 primarily to protect frontier settlements. The fort was constructed of limestone and its 1,600 acres contained at least 40 buildings. Fort Concho was deactivated in June 1889, but the facilities remained (Figure 65).[356] The 10th Cavalry Regiment was headquartered at Fort Concho from 1875 until 1882, although some companies had been there since 1873, and some remained after the headquarters was relocated. Those who remained departed in 1885.[357] Elements of all four of the all-Black units that the Army retained following the Civil War, the 9th and 10th Cavalry Regiments and the 24th and 25th Infantry Regiments, spent some time at Fort Concho.[358]

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[355] Army Historical Foundation, "The Seminole-Negro Indian Scout Detachment."

[356] Fort Concho National Historic Landmark, "Our History," About Us, accessed Sept. 27, 2021, https://fortconcho.com/home/about/our-history/.

[357] Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 82-93.

[358] Fort Concho National Historic Landmark, "Our History."

Figure 65. Resting travelers at Fort Concho, TX, 1898 (http://www.texasbeyondhistory.net/forts/military.html).

3.1.11 Fort Custer, Michigan

Camp Custer was created in 1917 as one of the country's 16 large military training camps. During WWI, over 100,000 soldiers trained at the camp.[359] The installation was made permanent and redesignated as Fort Custer on August 17, 1940, and the post was reconstructed. The installation grew to encompass over 16,000 acres and had a capacity of 1,279 officers and 27,553 enlisted soldiers.[360] Construction began in January 1941, and the post soon began to receive recruits from all over Michigan, except for the Upper Peninsula. Among the early arrivals was the 184th Field Artillery, a unit of the 5th Infantry Division (Figure 66 and Figure 67).[361]

[359] Lt. Col. William Humes, "Fort Custer History Museum," Michigan.gov, Nov. 17, 2015, https://www.michigan.gov/som/0,4669,7-192--369569--rss,00.html.

[360] Colin Brevitz, "Fort Custer During World War II," Military History of the Upper Great Lakes, Oct. 11, 2015, https://ss.sites.mtu.edu/mhugl/2015/10/11/fort-custer-during-world-war-2/.

[361] Brevitz, "Fort Custer During World War II."

Figure 66. Visitors' Day for the 184th Field Artillery brings thousands of Chicagoans to the Army post to inspect the equipment and meet their friends and relatives, Fort Custer, June 1941 (http://www.history.army.mil/topics/afam/earlyww2.htm).

Figure 67. Visitors to the 184th Field Artillery at Fort Custer, MI, on Visitors' Day, 1941 (NARA College Park 111-SCA Album 204).

The 184th was an African American unit with African American officers that existed until 1954, when the policy permitting entirely segregated units was abolished. In addition to being a segregated unit, the 184th was geographically segregated on-post. They were assigned to an area located in the southeast corner of the post (Figure 68, Figure 69, and Figure 70). In this area, the 184th had its own barracks, mess halls, fire station (Figure 71), and recreation area (Figure 72). The recreation area included an officers' club and mess, an enlisted service club, guest house, theater, and chapel (Figure 73 and Figure 77).[362]

Figure 68. The Fort Custer cantonment (segregated area is *bottom right*), 1941 (NARA College Park 77-393-302).

[362] Brevitz, "Fort Custer During World War II."

Figure 69. Portion of the segregated area in the Fort Custer cantonment, 1941 (NARA College Park 77-393-302).

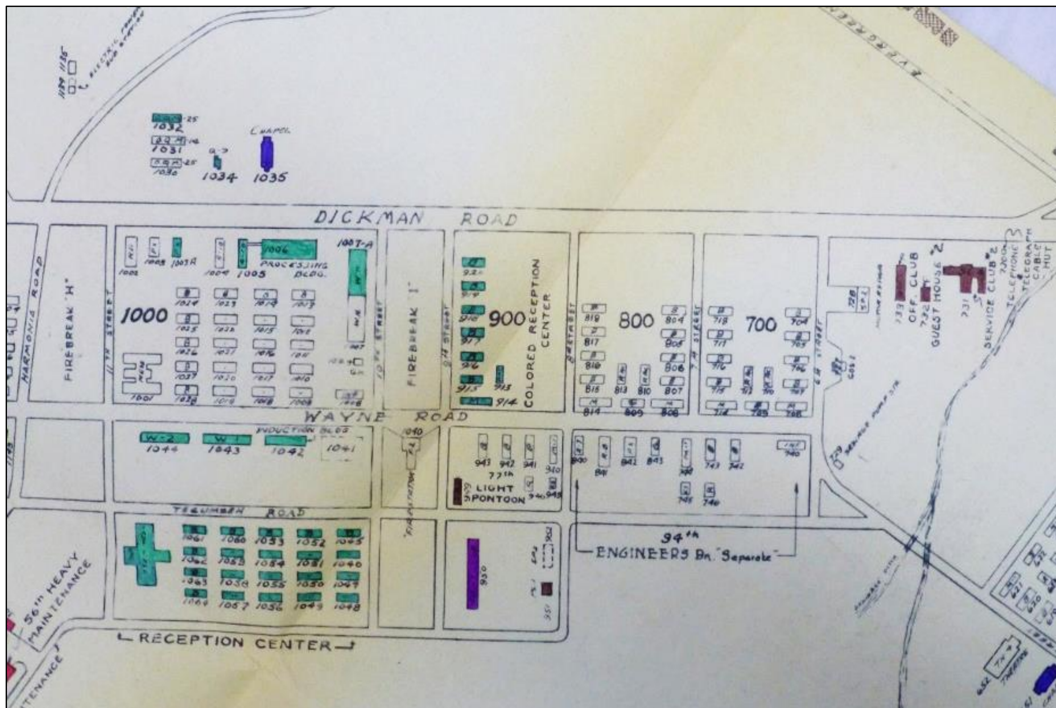


Figure 70. Detail of a portion of the segregated area in the Fort Custer cantonment, 1941 (NARA College Park 77-393-302).

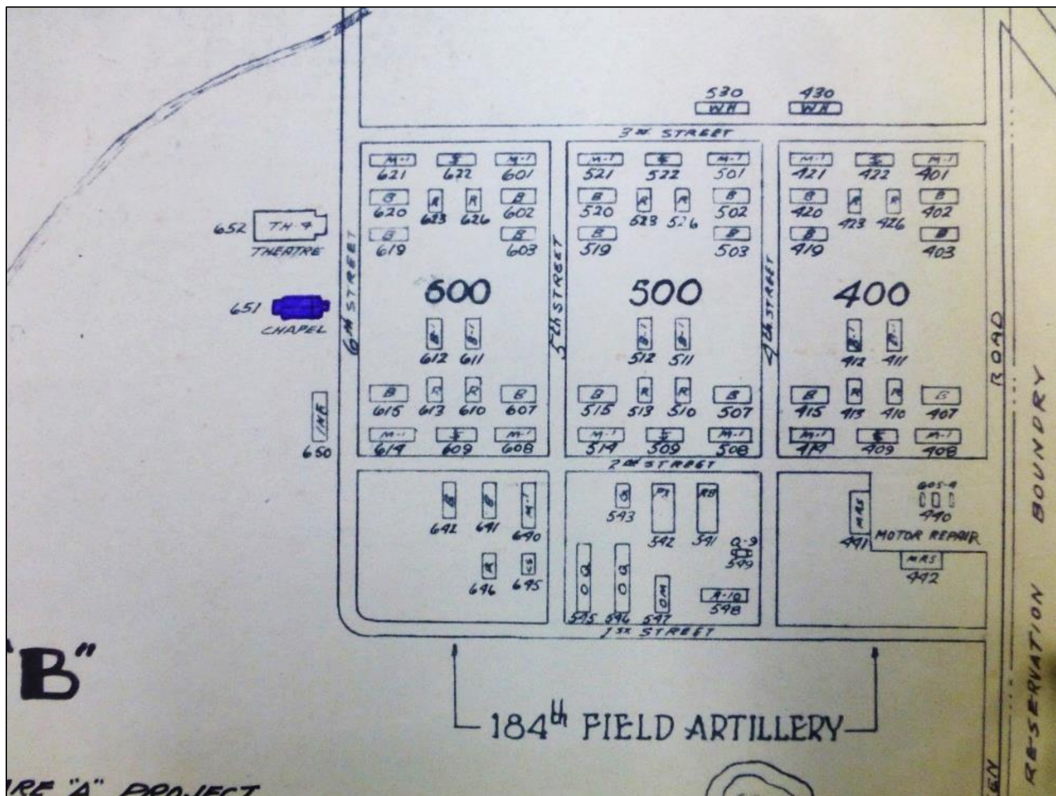


Figure 71. Members of Fort Custer Fire Department #1, with Asst. Chief H.P. White in command, start their fire trucks, 1941 (NARA College Park 111-SCA Album 204).

Figure 72. Detail of the recreation portion of the segregated area in the Fort Custer cantonment, 1941 (NARA College Park 77-393-302).

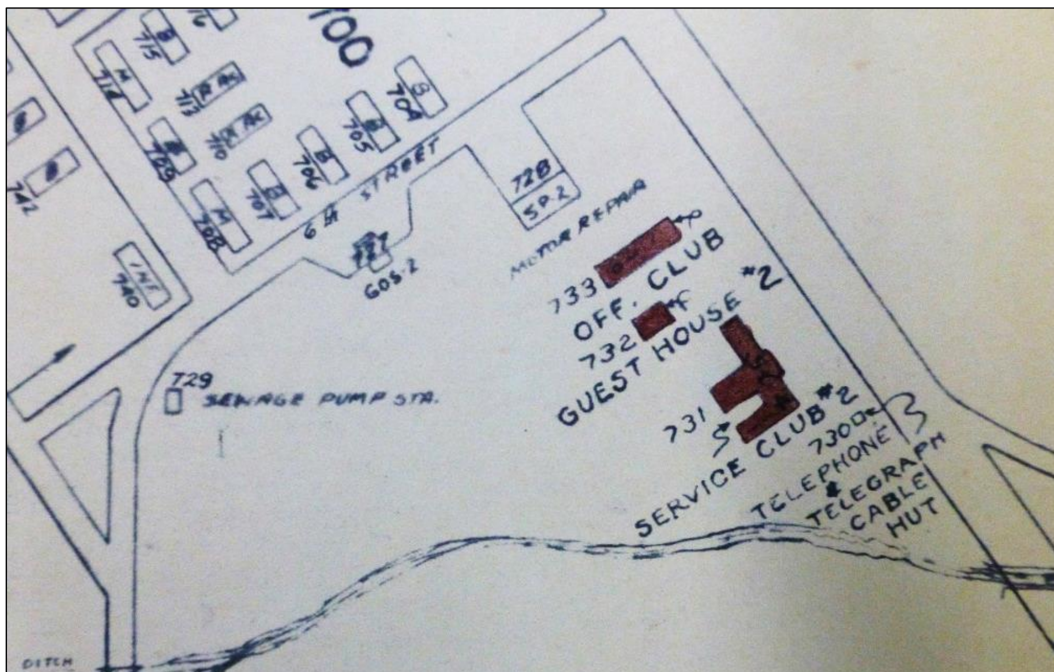


Figure 73. Officers' Club and Mess in the segregated portion of the Fort Custer cantonment, 1941 (NARA College Park 77-393-302).

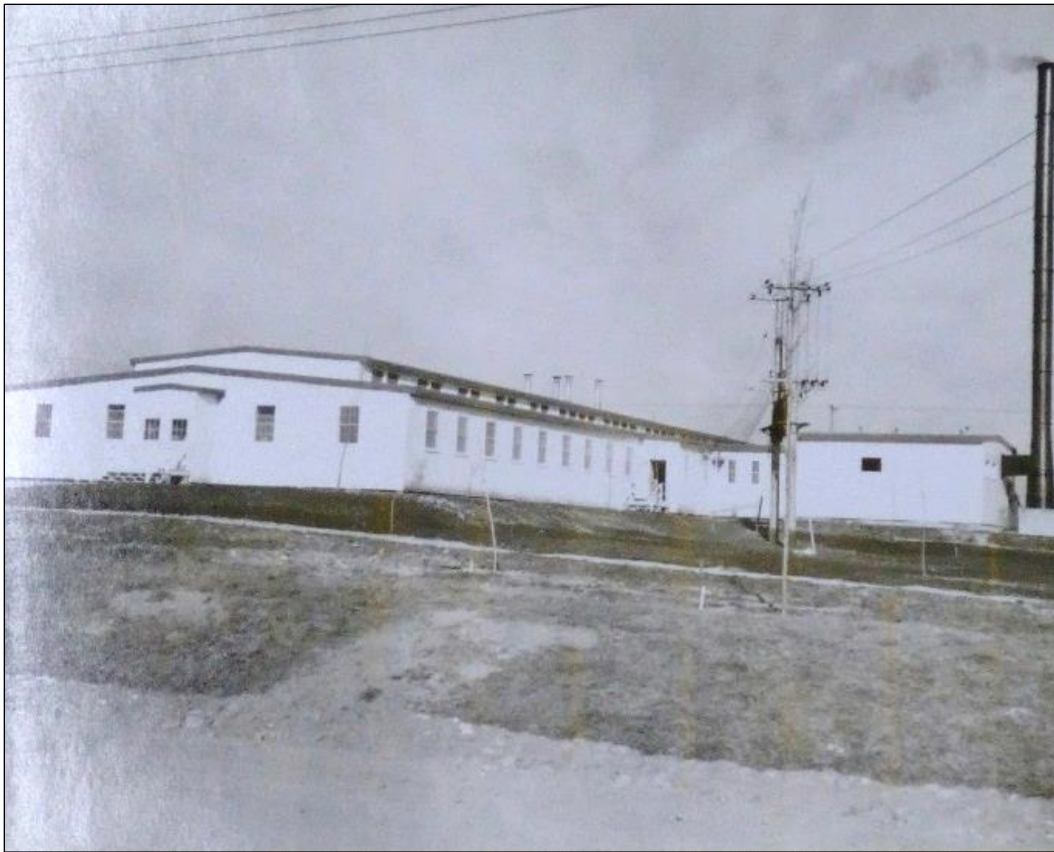


Figure 74. Service Club in the segregated portion of the Fort Custer cantonment, 1941 (NARA College Park 77-393-302).

Figure 75. Guest House in the segregated portion of the Fort Custer cantonment, 1941 (NARA College Park 77-393-302).

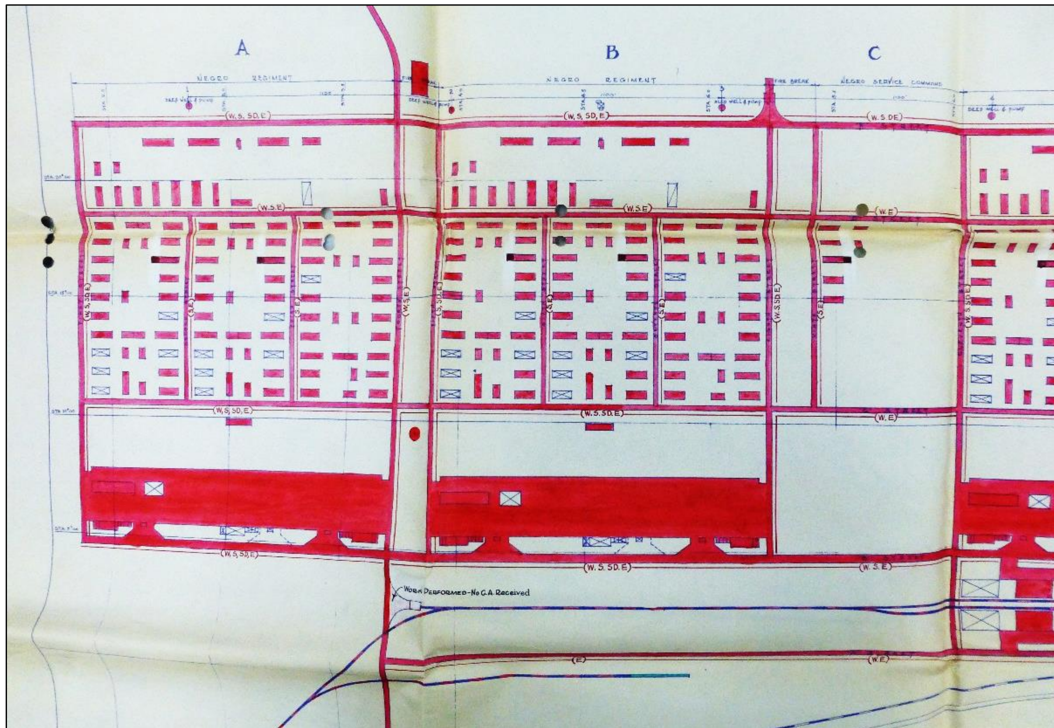
Figure 76. Movie Theater in the segregated portion of the Fort Custer cantonment, 1941 (NARA College Park 77-393-302).

Figure 77. Religious services in the Chapel of the 184th Field Artillery, Fort Custer, Michigan, during Visitors' Day, 1941 (NARA College Park 111-SCA Album 204).

3.1.12 Camp Davis, North Carolina

Camp Davis was constructed by the Army in early 1941 as an antiaircraft artillery training center.[363] The layout was a typical linear WWII cantonment type with motor pools on side of each regimental area. The southwest portion was reserved for the African American regiments (Figure 78). There were two African American regimental areas (Figure 79 and Figure 80). One African American service command for the two regiments was separated off from the white cantonment by a large open area (Figure 81). The 1,800-strong African American 54th Coast Artillery regiment arrived in 1941 from Camp Wallace, Texas. The regiment was a harbor defense unit. It was one of three African American units to train at Camp Davis at the time, though it is unknown which units these were.[364] A photograph from 1942 shows Black and white patients playing checkers in the camp hospital (Figure 82).

Figure 78. Segregated area of the Camp Davis cantonment, c. 1941 (NARA College Park 77-391-76).



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[363] Skylighters,org, "Camp Davis/Burgaw/Fort Fisher," History, last modified Nov. 10, 2010, http://www.skylighters.org/places/campdavis.html.

[364] WECT Staff, "Black history: the 54th Coast Artillery regiment at Fort Fisher," WECT News 6, last modified Feb. 15, 2017, http://www.wect.com/story/34513308/black-history-the-54th-coast-artillery-regiment-at-fort-fisher/.

Figure 79. Area A “Negro Regiment” of the Camp Davis cantonment, c. 1941 (NARA College Park 77-391-76).

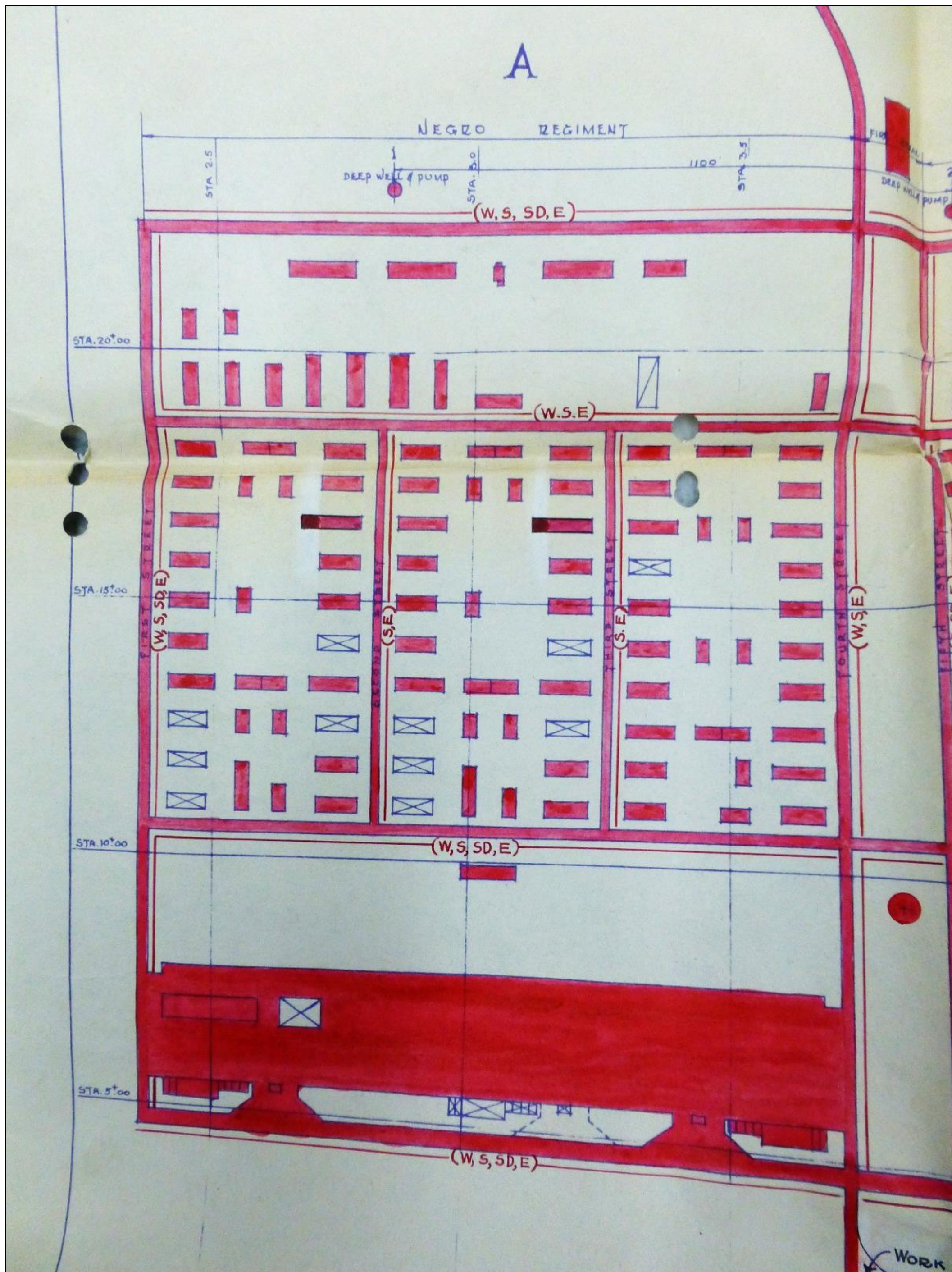


Figure 80. Area B “Negro Regiment” of the Camp Davis cantonment, c. 1941 (NARA College Park 77-391-76).

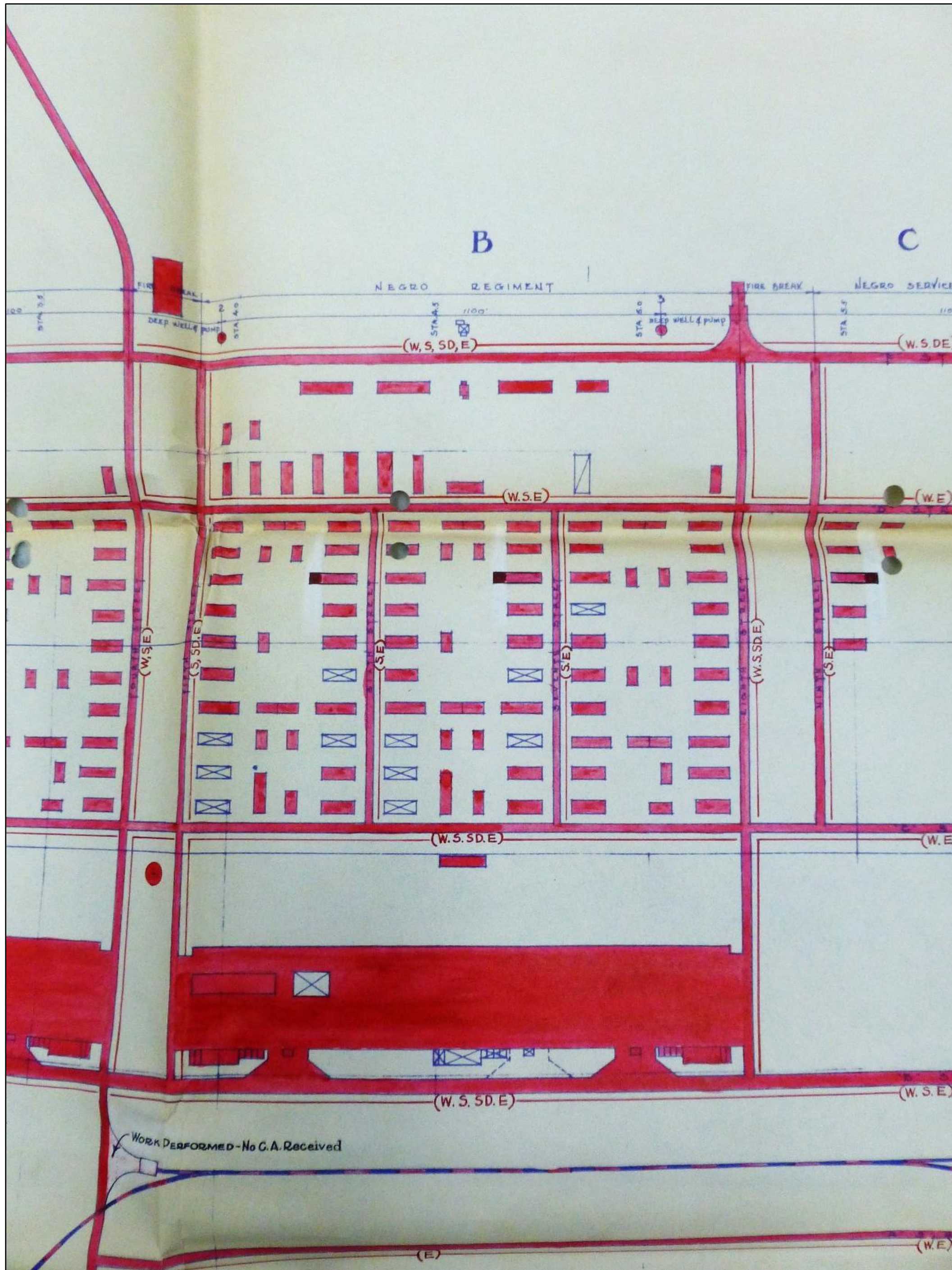


Figure 81. Area C “Negro Service Command” of the Camp Davis cantonment, c. 1941 (NARA College Park 77-391-76).

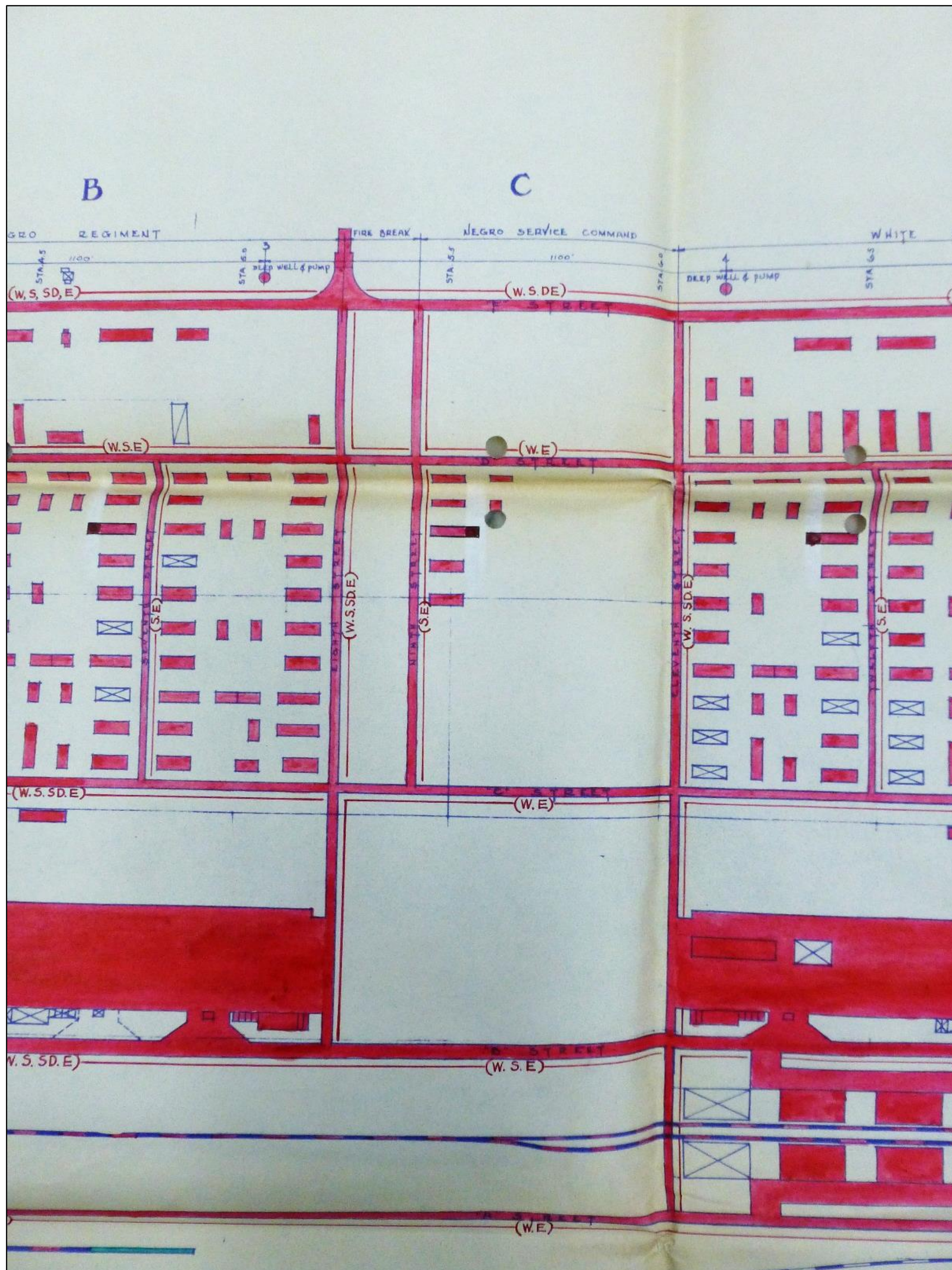
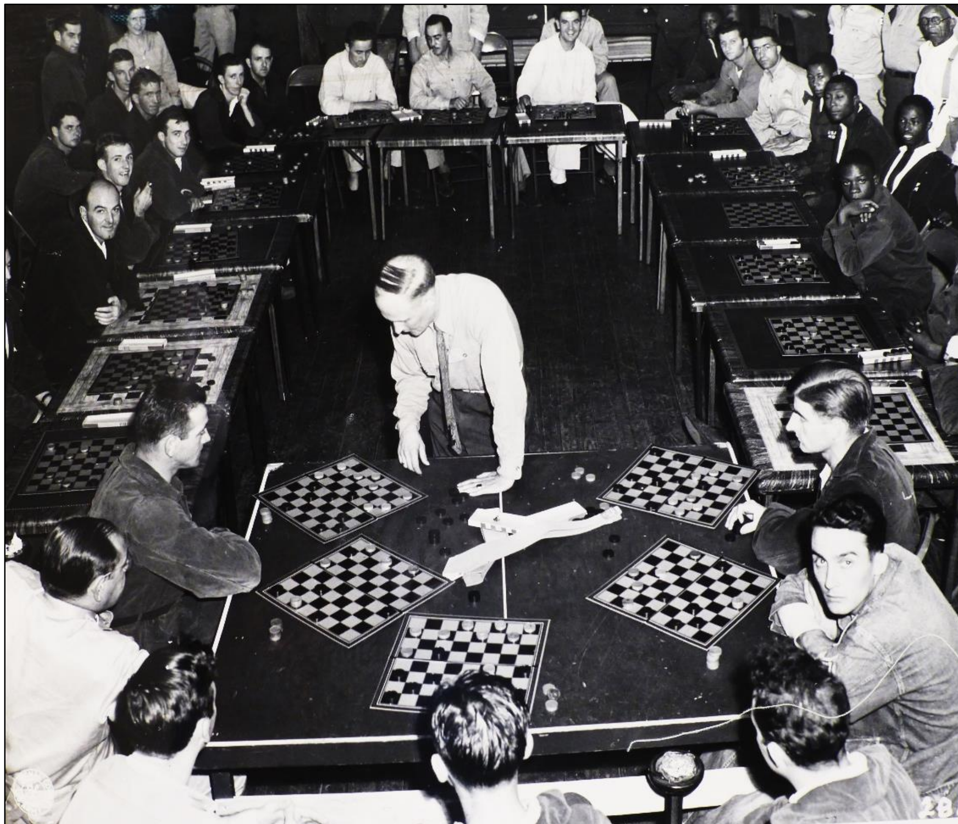


Figure 82. Patients at a hospital at Camp Davis play checkers, 1942 (NARA College Park 111-SCA Album 209).



3.1.13 Fort Davis, Texas

Fort Davis, Texas, was established as an infantry post in October 1854 and retained that function until April 1861. It served to protect the San Antonio–El Paso Road, part of a route to California. Federal troops did not occupy the fort during the Civil War, and it was reestablished in 1867 at a new site nearby.[365]

The fort was home at various times to all four of the Army's African American units. The 9th Cavalry was stationed at Fort Davis from 1867–1875 (Figure 83). They rebuilt the previously unoccupied fort. They were replaced by the 10th Cavalry in 1875, and that regiment stayed at Fort Davis until 1885. Between 1882 and 1885, Fort Davis was the 10th Cavalry Regimental Headquarters. The 24th Infantry had some companies of troops serving at Fort Davis from 1869-1872, and again in 1880. Several companies from the 25th Infantry were stationed at Fort Davis from 1870

[365] National Park Service, "The First Fort Davis, 1854-1862," Fort Davis, last modified Feb. 4, 2018, https://www.nps.gov/foda/learn/historyculture/firstfortdavis.htm.

until 1880. These four African American regiments' duties included forays chasing Native American tribes, scouting, and guarding infrastructure, travelers, and mail. They were also responsible for construction of roads, telegraph lines, and the fort.[366]

Figure 83. 9th Cavalry company on Parade at Fort Davis, c. 1875 (NPS, "African Americans in the Frontier Army).

3.1.14 Fort Des Moines, Iowa

Established in 1901, Fort Des Moines was dedicated as a cavalry post in November 1903 and soon came to be considered a premier cavalry post. During the winter of 1903, it housed two companies of the Black 25th Infantry. In the summer of 1917, it hosted the 5th Provisional Company officers reserve training camp, which was the first Army camp to train African American officers (Figure 84).[367] This training camp also included the Medical Officers Training Camp for Black medical officers.[368]

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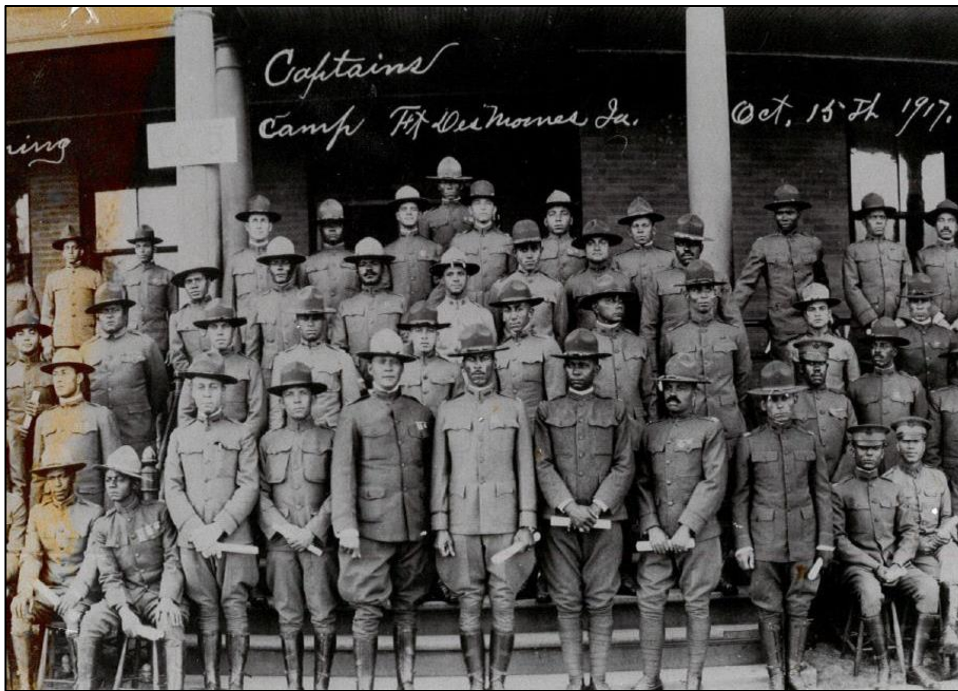
[366] National Park Service, "African Americans in the Frontier Army;" Smith and Zeidler, ed. *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 82-93.

[367] Elmer, "Fort Des Moines was Home to US Army's First Black Officer Training School."

[368] U.S. Army, "Black doctors train at Camp Meade during WWI," Army.mil, Feb. 22, 2013, https://www.army.mil/article/96860/black_doctors_train_at_camp_meade_during_wwi.

Figure 84. A portion of a panorama of the Officer Training School at Fort Des Moines, 1917 (Library of Congress).



3.1.15 Fort Devens, Massachusetts

Camp Devens was established in 1917 to prepare soldiers for combat in WWI.[369] At its peak during WWI, Camp Devens housed a total of 46,586 soldiers, 4,367 of whom were "non-white."[370] Besides this number, little is known about the experience of or built environment related to ethnic minority soldiers at the post during WWI.[371] The training camp occupied about 5,000 acres of land, and a cantonment was constructed soon after the post was established. Camp Devens trained more than 100,000 soldiers during the war. It was made a permanent fort in 1931.[372]

In 1940, Fort Devens began to receive recruits from the New England area. Additional construction included more than 1,200 barracks and an air field. Three infantry divisions trained here during the war, and schools for nurses, chaplains, cooks, and bakers were established.[373] The 366th

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369 Fort Devens Museum, "History," accessed Oct. 2, 2021, http://fortdevensmuseum.org/history/.

370 Janine Hubai, "Fort Devens: Civil Rights Unrest and African American Identity in a Northern Military Camp During World War I and World War II," Master's Thesis, Boston, MA: University of Massachusetts, 2013.

371 Hubai, "Fort Devens."

372 Fort Devens Museum, "History," accessed Oct. 2, 2021, http://fortdevensmuseum.org/history/.

373 Fort Devens Museum, "History."

Infantry Regiment, an all-Black unit at Fort Devens, was segregated in the southwest corner of the installation (Figure 85). This area likely contained housing, mess halls, and a recreation area.[374]

Figure 85. Map of Fort Devens showing segregated area in lower left for the African American 366th Infantry Regiment, 1941 (NARA RG 77, Box 84).

Figure 86. Detail of segregated area at Fort Devens, 1941 (NARA RG 77, Box 84).

[374] Map of Fort Devens, 1941, Record Group 77, Box 84, National Archives and Records Administration, College Park, MD.

3.1.16 Camp Dix, New Jersey

Camp Dix was established as a WWI training camp on July 18, 1917. It was constructed on 5,000 acres with an adjacent rifle range. By the end of WWI, Camp Dix contained over 1,655 buildings and was the largest military installation in the Northeast.[375] Between November 1917 and May 1918, units of the newly organized 92nd Infantry, an African American Army Division, trained at Camp Dix prior to being deployed to France in WWI.[376] They were segregated on post (Figure 87 and Figure 88).

Figure 87. Map of Camp Dix showing segregated Infantry area (*left center*), 1918 (U.S. Army Center of Military History).

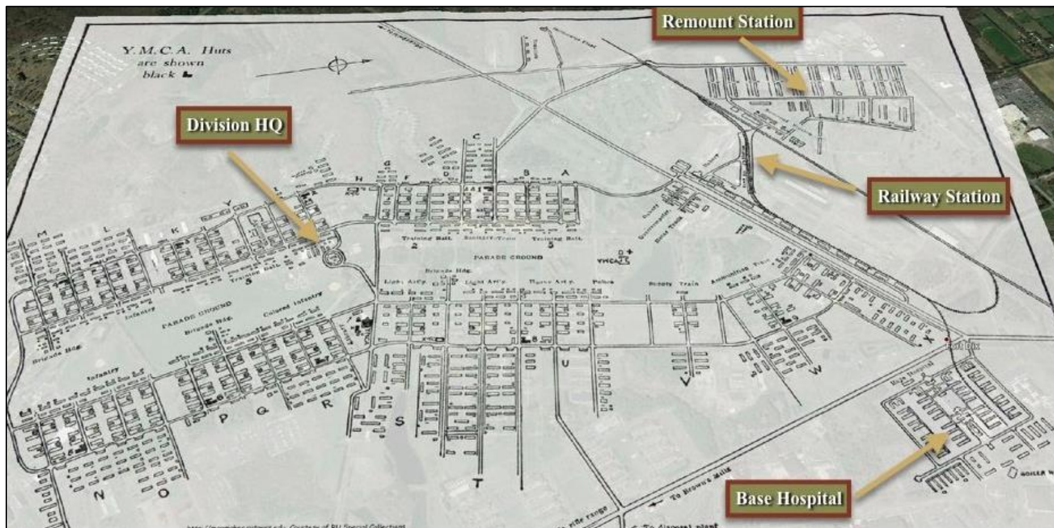
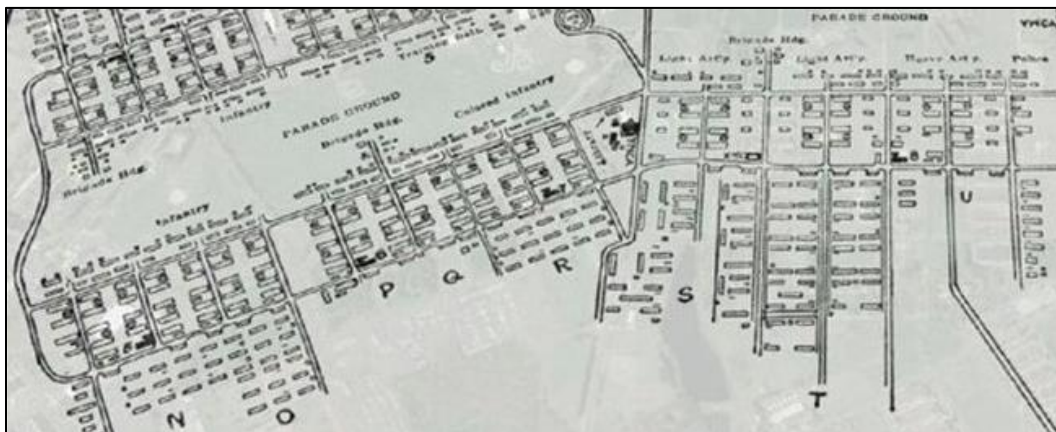


Figure 88. Detail of segregated area, labeled "Colored Infantry" (*center*), at Camp Dix, 1918 (U.S. Army Center of Military History).

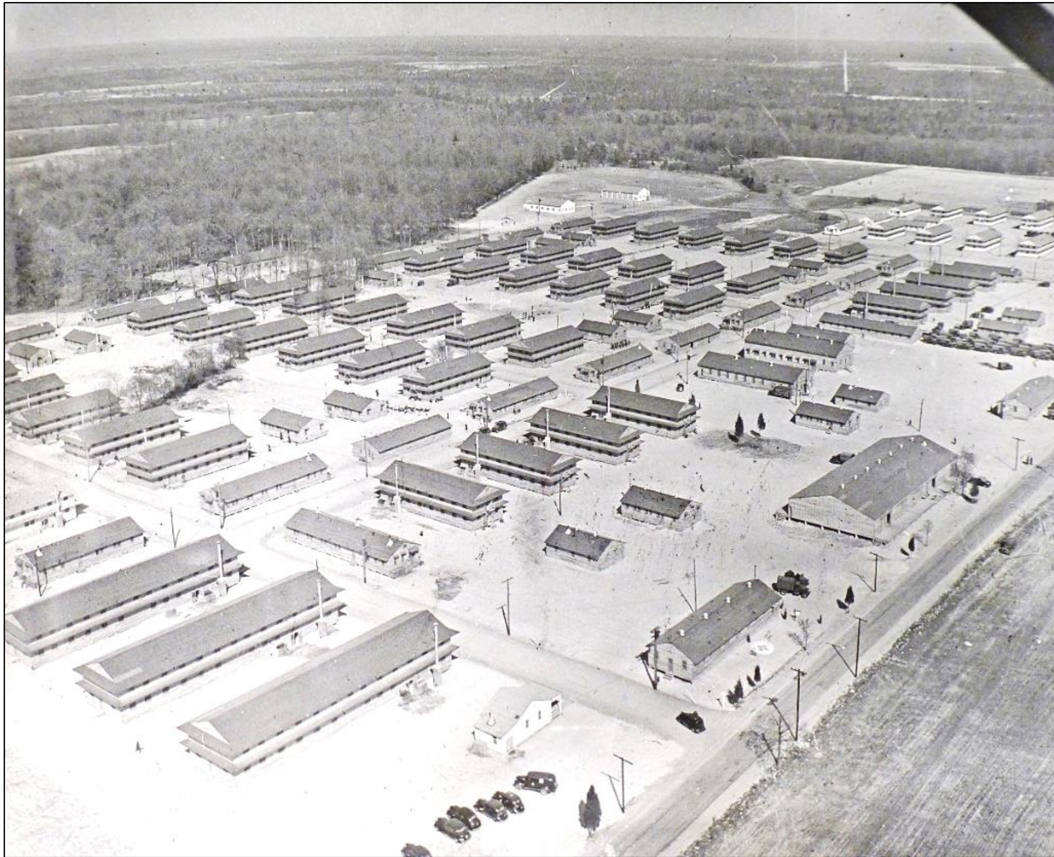


375 David Levinsky, "Timeline: Fort Dix through the years," *Burlington County Times*, Aug. 13, 2017, https://www.burlingtoncountytimes.com/news/20170813/timeline-fort-dix-through-years.

376 American Battle Monuments Commission, *92nd Division Summary of Operations in the World War*, 1.

In 1939, Camp Dix became a permanent Army post and was redesignated Fort Dix.[377] In preparation for WWII, it became a reception and training center. A total of 10 divisions trained at the post during the war.[378] The 372nd Colored Regiment was stationed there in 1941.[379] After the war, the 365th Infantry Regiment of the African American 92nd Division was stationed at Fort Dix.[380] The African American units were segregated on post (Figure 89), but some integration did occur (Figure 90).

Figure 89. Air view of the 372nd Colored Regiment, 1941 (NARA College Park 111-SCA Album 222).



[377] Post Housing, Inc., "Fort Dix, NJ History," Fort Dix Housing, accessed Feb. 16, 2022, https://www.fortdixhousing.com/history.

[378] Levinsky, "Timeline: Fort Dix through the years."

[379] Macartan McCabe, "Campbell Gonzalez," Center for U.S. War Veterans Oral Histories, June 19, 2002, https://njmilitiamuseum.org/cambell-gonzalez.

[380] Matthew Peek, "Pioneering African American Army Chaplain's Collection Available," *Humanities and Social Sciences Online*," Aug. 1, 2019, https://networks.h-net.org/node/12840/discussions/4386113/pioneering-african-american-army-chaplains-collection-available.

Figure 90. Services Sunday at the Station Hospital, Fort Dix, NJ, showing an integrated group or worshippers, 1943 (NARA College Park 111-SCA Album 224).

3.1.17 Camp Dodge, Iowa

Camp Dodge was established in 1909 as a training site for the Iowa Militia. It was named for Major General Grenville M. Dodge of Council Bluffs, Iowa’s most famous Civil War commander. Originally constructed on a 78-acre tract of land, the post had been expanded to 570 acres by 1917. On June 15, 1917, a delegation from the U. S. Army Selection Board chose Camp Dodge as one of sixteen regional training camps for the National Army of the United States. Expanded, through lease options, to 6,400 acres, Camp Dodge provided initial training to recruits (both volunteers and draftees) from Iowa, Nebraska, Minnesota, and North and South Dakota.[381]

[381] David L. Snook, “History of The Iowa National Guard: The Building of Camp Dodge,” last updated 2013, https://www.iowanationalguard.com/History/History/Pages/Building-Camp-Dodge.aspx.

Units of the newly organized 92nd Infantry, an African American Army Division, trained here between November 1917 and May 1918 prior to being deployed to France in WWI.[382]

3.1.18 Fort Duncan, Texas

The 9th Cavalry and the 24th Infantry, two of the four all-Black units retained by the Army after the Civil War, were stationed at Fort Duncan from 1868 until an unknown date. The 25th Infantry arrived in 1870 and remained until unknown date. The Seminole-Negro Indian Scouts military unit was organized at Fort Duncan in 1870 to serve as scouts for the 25th Infantry, and they remained there until 1914.[383]

3.1.19 Fort Fisher, North Carolina

Fort Fisher served as the main firing range for Camp Davis (see 3.1.12), which is located 50 miles north of Fort Fisher. The 54th Coast Artillery, the Army's sole African American 155-millimeter antiaircraft artillery unit, trained at Fort Fisher for two months in 1941. The units stayed in a tent camp on site.[384]

3.1.20 Camp Funston, Fort Riley, Kansas

Fort Riley was established in 1953 as a defense for the overland trails passing nearby. It became an important cavalry post, with the famed 7th Cavalry and General George Armstrong Custer arriving in 1866.[385] Both the 9th and 10th Cavalries, two of the all-Black post-Civil War "Buffalo Soldier" regiments, were stationed at Fort Riley at various times between the late 1860s and the start of WWII (Figure 91). The 9th Cavalry was stationed at Fort Riley as troop cadre for the Cavalry School during the 1920s and 1930s.[386]

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[382] American Battle Monuments Commission, "92nd Division Summary of Operations in the World War," 1.

[383] Texas Beyond History, "Battles for the Nueces Strip;" Smith and Zeidler, ed. *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 82-93, 100-112.

[384] Skylighters.org, "Camp Davis/Burgaw/Fort Fisher;"

[385] Army.mil, "History of Fort Riley and 1st Infantry Division," U.S. Army Fort Riley, accessed Oct. 7, 2021, https://home.army.mil/riley/index.php/about/history; WECT Staff, "Black history."

[386] Army.mil, "History of Fort Riley and 1st Infantry Division."

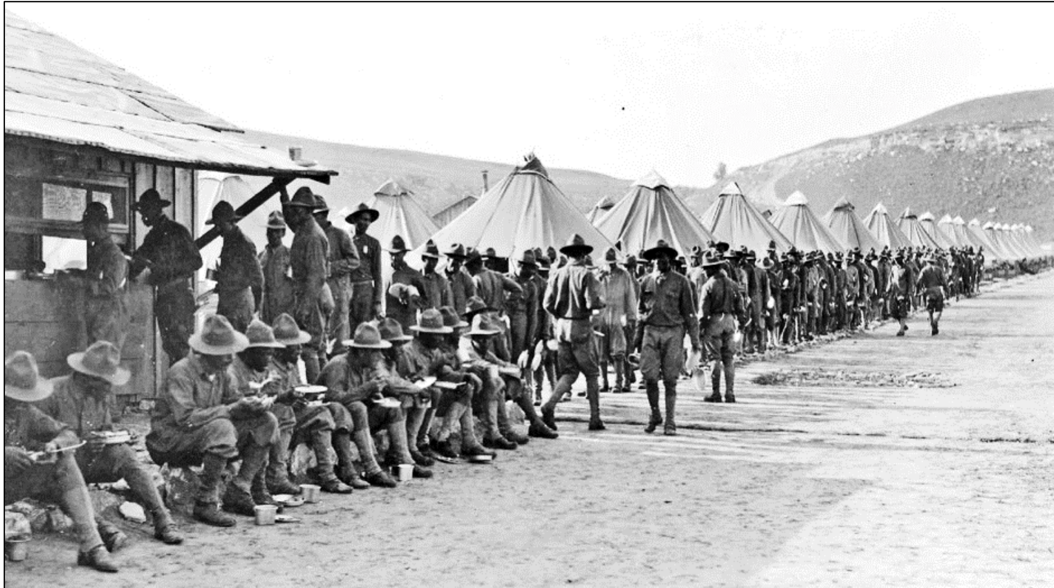
Figure 91. The 9th and 10th Cavalry Regiments — the famed "Buffalo Soldiers" — were stationed at Fort Riley several times during their history, n.d. (https://home.army.mil/riley/index.php/about/history).

Camp Funston was constructed in 1917 on Fort Riley as one of the sixteen division training camps to prepare soldiers for combat overseas in preparation. Over several months, thousands of buildings were constructed to house over 40,000 soldiers, making Camp Funston the largest of the training camps.[387] The African American 92nd Infantry Division was organized at Camp Funston in November 1917. Various division units trained here between November 1917 and May 1918 prior to being deployed to France in WWI (Figure 92).[388]

[387] Kansas Historical Society, "Camp Funston," Kansapedia, last modified Oct. 2018, https://www.kshs.org/kansapedia/camp-funston/16692.

[388] American Battle Monuments Commission, "92nd Division Summary of Operations in the World War," 1.

Figure 92. African American soldiers at Camp Funston, Fort Riley Kansas, WWI (NARA; https://history.army.mil/html/bookshelves/resmat/wwi/pt02/ch09/pt02-ch09-sec06.html).



Camp Funston was demolished in the early 1920s but was rebuilt for soldier training as part of the Army expansion just prior to the U.S. entry into WWII. In 1941, the 2nd Cavalry Division was fully activated at Fort Riley. Due to manpower constraints, the 2nd Cavalry Division consisted of the 3rd Cavalry Brigade, made up of the white 2nd and 14th regiments, and the 4th Cavalry Brigade, made up of the all-Black 9th and 10th regiments. This was the only racially mixed unit in the Army at the time.[389]

The division's units were physically split between the main post at Fort Riley and Camp Funston, though it is unclear if this was due to space restrictions or race. The 4th Cavalry was at Camp Funston and remained there for training when other divisional units were deployed to Arizona for Mexican border patrol.[390]

Segregation of African American troops continued at Fort Riley after the war ended. The 10th Division was stationed at Camp Funston, with local newspapers reporting in 1948 that the division had "2,100 trainees, of whom 450 are colored [*sic*] and 350 officers, of whom 25 are colored

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[389] Center for Military History, "2d Cavalry Division," last modified Oct. 3, 2003, https://history.army.mil/topics/afam/2cd.htm.

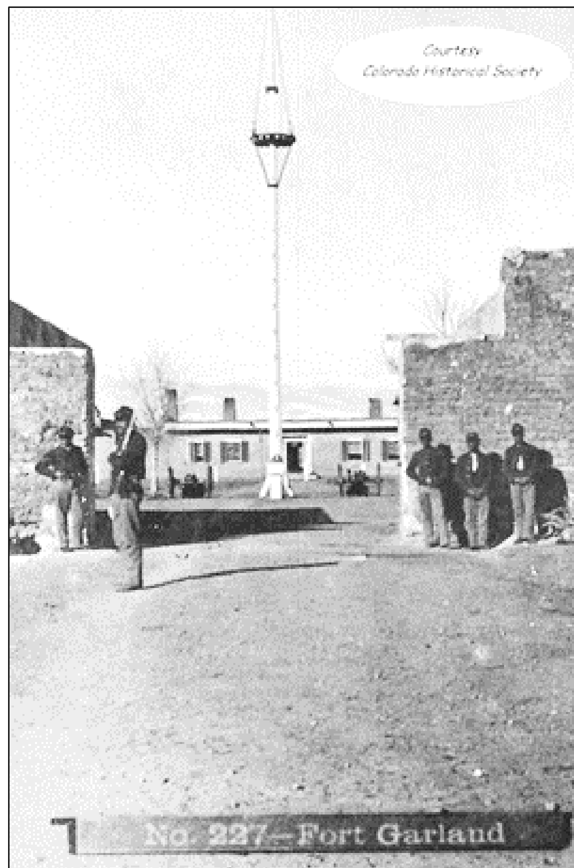
[390] Center for Military History, "2d Cavalry Division."

[*sic*].”[391] The article went on to discuss the need for local facilities to provide housing and recreational support for the African American enlisted and officers.[392]

3.1.21 Fort Garland, Colorado

The all-Black 9th Cavalry (Buffalo Soldiers) was stationed at Fort Garland between 1876 and 1879. They served to reduce conflict with the Ute Native Americans and to remove white settlers from reservation lands (Figure 93).[393]

Figure 93. Members of the 9th Cavalry (Buffalo Soldiers) at the entrance to Fort Garland, 1874 (Museums of the San Luis Valley).



[391] “Tells Plans For Tenth: Division Eventually To Have 9,000 Trainees, General Whitlock Reports,” *Junction City Union,* Nov. 5, 1948, 1.

[392] “Tells Plans For Tenth,” *Junction City Union*.

[393] Museums of the San Luis Valley and Southern Colorado, “The Story of Fort Garland: 1858–1883,” Colorado’s Museum Trail, accessed Sept. 19, 2021, https://www.museumtrail.org/the-story-of-fort-garland.html.

3.1.22 Fort Glenn, Alaska

Fort Glenn was constructed on Umnak Island in the Aleutian Islands of Alaska and was constructed in 1941. Its purpose was to provide air defense for nearby Fort Mears and Naval Operating Base Dutch Harbor. The fort's construction called for support facilities, quarters, and three runways, with the fort reaching peak capacity of 13,000 persons in April 1943.[394]

The African American 2nd Battalion of the 93rd Engineer General Service Regiment arrived in April 1943 and assisted in the construction of the Alaska Highway. The roughly 600 men were housed in a segregated compound designated Area N. The compound was located away from the other housing areas.[395]

3.1.23 Camp Grant, Illinois

Camp Grant was established on July 18, 1917, to train soldiers for deployment overseas during WWI. The 1600-acre cantonment contained 1,515 buildings and had a troop capacity of nearly 43,000. Camp Grant served as an infantry replacement and training center in 1918, then as a demobilization center.[396]

Units of the newly organized 92nd Infantry, a Black Army Division, trained here between November 1917 and May 1918 prior to being deployed to France in WWI.[397] Shortly after November 11, 1918, Black female Army Nurse Corps personnel were stationed here. They lived in segregated facilities and were only allowed to nurse Black soldiers and German prisoners. Their service ended in August 1919.[398]

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[394] National Park Service, "Fort Glenn National Historic Landmark," last modified Jan. 14, 2021, https://www.nps.gov/places/fort-glenn.htm.

[395] Mike Dunham, "Student locates segregated compound on WWII map," *Anchorage Daily News*, 2016, https://www.adn.com/our-alaska/article/student-locates-segregated-compound-wwii-map/2009/02/22/.

[396] Center for Military History, "The World War I Era, Part 2: Mobilizing for the War, Apr–Nov 1917," accessed Sept. 27, 2021, https://history.army.mil/html/bookshelves/resmat/wwi/pt02/ch09/pt02-ch09-sec04.html#lg=1&slide=0.

[397] American Battle Monuments Commission, "92nd Division Summary of Operations in the World War," 1.

[398] Sheldon, "Brief History of Black Women in the Military."

3.1.24 Camp Greene, District of Columbia

Theodore Roosevelt Island (formerly known as Analostan Island and, later, Mason's Island) is in the Potomac River and is part of the George Washington Memorial Parkway. Initially inhabited by Algonquin-speaking Indigenous peoples, it came to be owned by the Mason family of Virginia in 1717. It remained in their possession until 1833. Ownership of the island changed several times from 1833 until May 1861, at which point Union soldiers began occupying the island. They ceased occupation in May 1862, but the Army's Commissary Department arrived the same year to operate a storage or distribution camp at the north end of the island.[399]

By mid-May 1863, the island was known as Theodore Roosevelt Island and began to be used as the camp and training grounds for the 1st District of Columbia Colored Volunteers. Also known as the 1st United States Colored Troops, this regiment was "an African American regiment composed of free blacks [*sic*] and escaped slaves."[400] The regiment had white officers.[401]

While encamped on the island, most soldiers of the 1st USCT lived in typical military barracks. The officers likely lived in the mansion and outbuildings built by the Mason family. The 1st USCT left the island in July 1863; however, the military continued to occupy the island until the following year.[402]

By May 1864, Theodore Roosevelt Island was being used as a temporary refugee camp to house African Americans fleeing the Confederacy. Though refugees had been arriving in Washington, D.C., for at least a year and formed the 1st USCT, the increasing number of refugees caused the existing camps to become overcrowded. The recently vacated Theodore Roosevelt Island, still called Mason's Island, with existing infrastructure provided a ready solution to this problem (Figure 94). By this time, the island was sometimes informally referred to as Fort or Camp Greene, after Lieutenant Colonel Greene, the local quartermaster. This name does not appear in known military or civilian records. Additionally, the refugee camp was referred to as a "Contraband Camp." This name emerged from Union

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399 "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

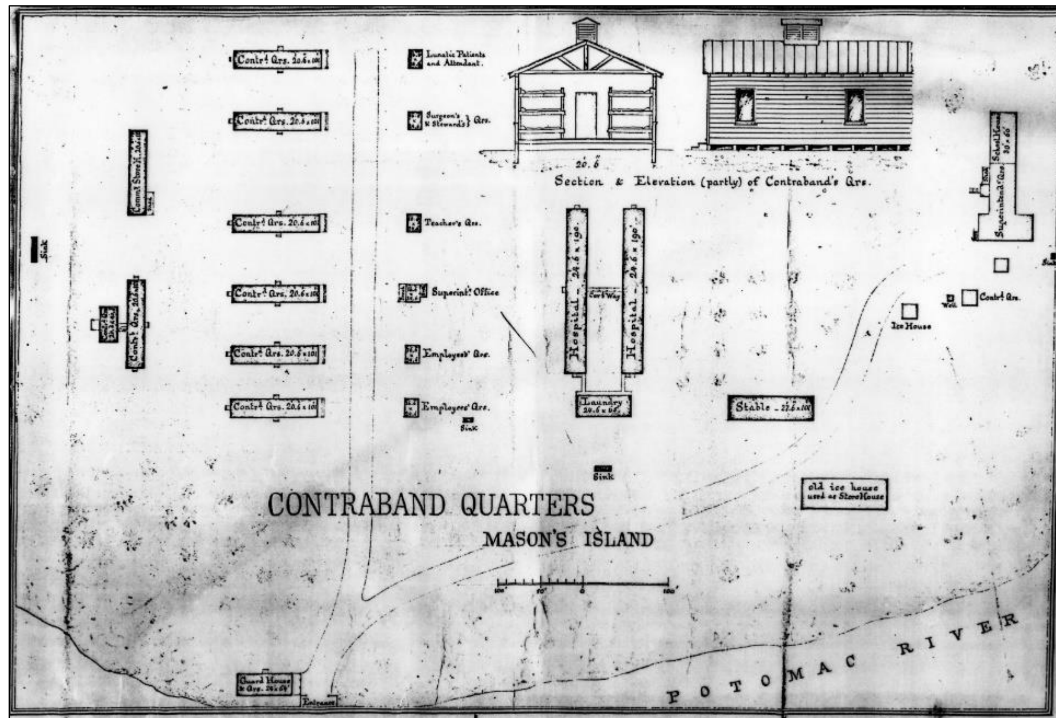
400 "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

401 "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

402 "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

General Benjamin F. Butler's declaration that employed refugees were "contrabands of war."[403]

Figure 94. After the 1st USCT Infantry Regiment Departed, a "Contraband Camp" took over the Army buildings (HALS DC-12).



Existing structures on the island were utilized as housing ("Contr. Qrs.," "Employees' Qrs.," "Teacher's Qrs.," "Surgeon & Steward's Qrs."), a store ("Comm. Store"), an office for the superintendent ("Superint. Office"), a hospital with attached laundry facility ("Hospital" and "Laundry"), a stable ("Stable"), an ice house ("Ice House"), a storehouse ("old ice house used as StoreHouse"), and housing for the superintendent with an attached schoolhouse ("Superintendent Qrs." and "SchoolHouse").[404]

Though the refugees had housing, there were minimal supplies to meet other basic needs. The War Department intended for the island to be "a short-term stopover until [the refugees] found work and moved on. Given the transitory nature of the camp, accommodations were deliberately spartan."[405] However, refugees were placed at the camp regardless of their

[403] "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

[404] "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.**Error! Reference source not found.**

[405] "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

likelihood of finding future employment, and the island quickly became overcrowded. "Jammed with people and lacking many basic supplies, Mason's Island quickly devolved into a state of disease-ridden squalor."[406]

The Association of Friends for the Aid and Elevation of the Freedman, a sub-branch of the Quaker-based Religious Society of Friends, offered aid to residents of the island. Conditions were subsequently improved drastically before the refugees were relocated and the island was returned to the owner prior to military occupation in June 1865.[407]

3.1.25 Camp Hood, Texas

In 1942, approximately 100,000 acres in Texas were planned as the site for a training tank destroyer training base. This was the primary activity on post until 1944, when the focus shifted to an Infantry Replacement Training Center and Field Artillery units.[408] Among the segregated African American units at Camp Hood were the 784th Tank Battalion and the 761st Tank Battalion, both of which had trained at Camp Claiborne, Louisiana, before being transferred to Camp Hood for advanced tank training.[409]

Due to the lack of facilities for Black officers at many installations, existing buildings often were repurposed into clubs. In some cases, attempts were made to construct Black officers' clubs from scratch, typically in instances where the installation had enough Black officers to justify a club. Camp Hood requested funds for the construction of "one (1) Officers' Club (colored), Type RB-A-TMod, 32' x 100'" along with a Black service club and a guest house for troops at North Fort Hood.[410] The response was to

[406] "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

[407] "Theodore Roosevelt Island," HALS No. DC-12.

[408] Post Housing, Inc., "Fort Hood, TX History," Fort Hood Housing, accessed Oct. 16, 2021, https://www.fthoodhousing.com/history.

[409] Edward G. Lengel, "Unstoppable: The African American 784th Tank Battalion," Aug. 7, 2020, https://www.nationalww2museum.org/war/articles/african-american-784th-tank-battalion; Edward G. Lengel, "The Black Panthers Enter Combat: The 761st Tank Battalion, November 1944," June 18, 2020, https://www.nationalww2museum.org/war/articles/black-panthers-761st-tank-battalion.

[410] Colonel C.M. Thirlkeld, Post Commander Camp Hood, Texas to Commanding General, Eighth Service Command, SOS, Dallas, Texas, March 9, 1943, RG 77: Chief of Engineers, Entry 393: Historical Record of Buildings 1905-42, Box 95: Fort Huachuca Thru Camp Huffman, National Archives and Records Administration, College Park, MD.

provide one service club, "modified to provide for both officers and enlisted men (colored [*sic*]) at this Post."[411]

3.1.26 Fort Huachuca, Arizona

Fort Huachuca was established in 1877 to protect the border and quell Native American uprisings. It was made permanent in 1882 and remained an active post after the frontier campaigns ended. The fort was garrisoned by the 10th Cavalry "Buffalo Soldiers" in 1913. They remained on post until 1933, successfully supporting the 1916 Mexican Expedition and border protection in WWI. Upon their transfer in 1933, the 25th Infantry Regiment, also an African American unit, replaced the 10th at Fort Huachuca.[412]

The Army employed numerous Native Americans as scouts during the post-Civil War period. They provided intelligence at many locations along the frontier. As the conflicts ended, the need for the scouts was reduced. In 1922, the remaining scouts were all transferred to Fort Huachuca, Arizona, where they served until the last four were ordered into retirement by the War Department in 1947. The Army built adobe huts for the scouts at Fort Huachuca in an area that became known as Apache Flats (Figure 95). The scouts, however, often preferred to camp with their families in an area near the Post Cemetery.[413]

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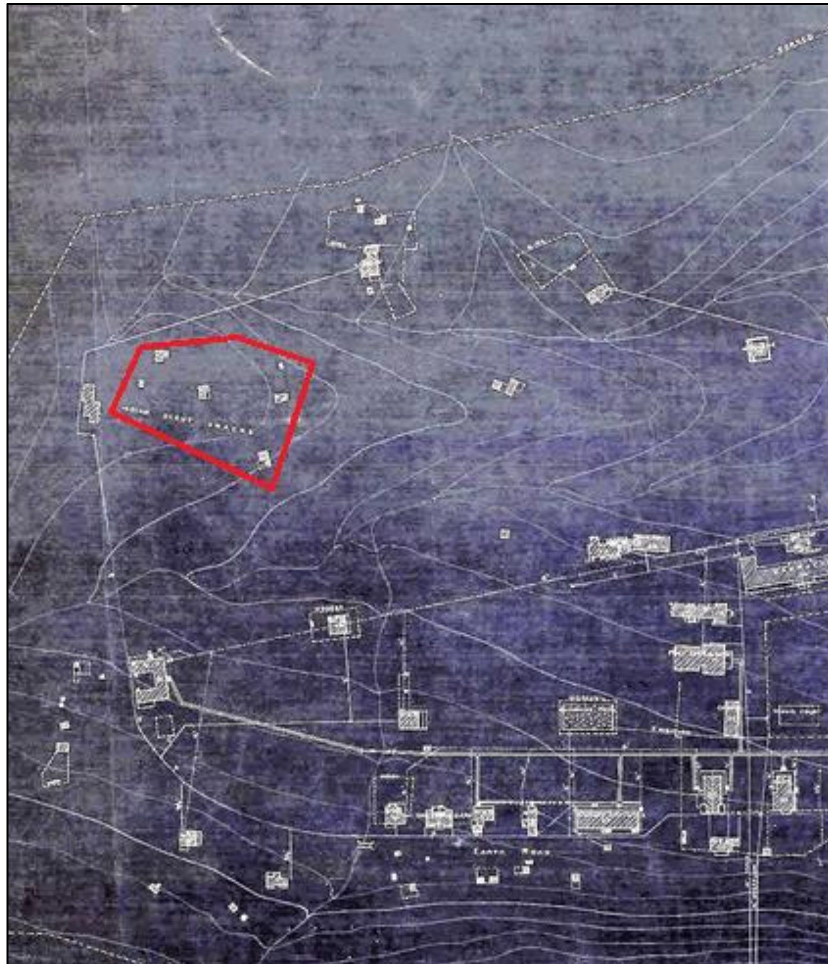
[411] Lieutenant Colonel L.O. Vogelsang, Corps of Engineers, Eighth Service Command, ASF, Dallas, Texas to Chief of Engineers, U.S. Army Washington, April 15, 1943, RG 77: Chief of Engineers, Entry 393: Historical Record of Buildings 1905-42, Box 95: Fort Huachuca Thru Camp Huffman, National Archives and Records Administration, College Park, MD.

[412] Army.mil, "History of Fort Huachuca," U.S. Army Fort Huachuca, accessed Oct. 11, 2021, https://home.army.mil/huachuca/index.php/about/history.

[413] Quinn, "Native American Scouts."

Figure 95. Map showing location of “Indian Scout Shacks” (outlined in *red*) at Fort Huachuca, c. 1910 (NARA; outline added by ERDC-CERL).



The 25th Infantry was absorbed into the 93rd Infantry Division in 1942 (Figure 96). The 93rd was reactivated at Fort Huachuca as an African American Infantry Division, the first one in WWII.[414] As Fort Huachuca occupies a large expanse of desert, it was the only installation that could house a complete African American combat division.[415] A new divisional cantonment was constructed for the 93rd Infantry (Figure 97).[416] The cantonment provided all necessary facilities, including those for training,

414 Army.mil, “History of Fort Huachuca;” “Maj. General Chas. P. Hall Heads Newly Organized 93rd,” *Bisbee Daily Review*, May 17, 1942, 1.

415 Forstchen and Wilson, “Segregation In The Military,” 221.

416 “All-Negro Army Division, Second Air Unit Announced.” *Atlanta Daily World*, 1.

housing, and recreation (Figure 98–Figure 100).[417] When housing the 93rd, Fort Huachuca was an all African American post.[418]

Figure 96. Soldiers of the 25th Infantry stand in front of a row of new buildings, Fort Huachuca, 1942 (NARA).

Figure 97. Partial view of area occupied by African American soldiers, east of WWII cantonment, 1948 (Fort Huachuca Museum).

417 Lee, *The Employment of Negro Troops*, 494.

418 "Talented Negress Joins Red Cross Activities," *Organized Labor* 43, no. 45 (Nov. 1942).

Figure 98. A post exchange at Fort Huachuca in full swing, 1942 (NARA).

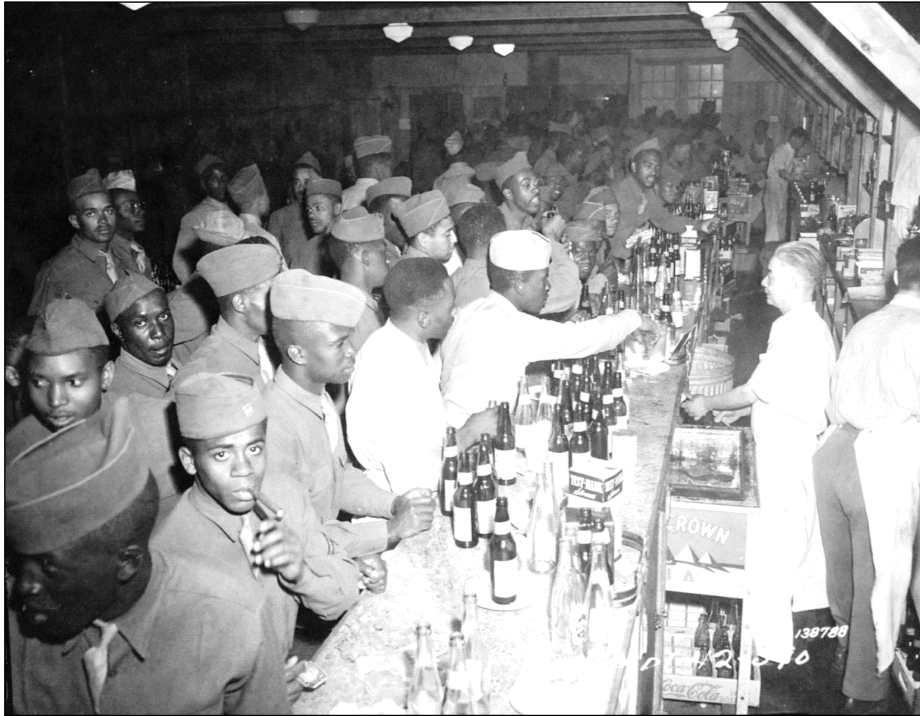


Figure 99. Auxiliaries Ruth Wade (*left*) and Lucille Mayo (*right*) demonstrate their ability to service trucks as taught to them during the processing period at Fort Des Moines and put into practice at Fort Huachuca, December 8, 1942 (Oster, 111-SC-162466).

Figure 100. WAAC cooks prepare dinner for the first time in new kitchen at Fort Huachuca, December 5, 1942 (Oster, 111-SC-162454).

Likely in association with the stationing of the 93rd at Fort Huachuca, at least three African American social workers were assigned to the post's Red Cross hospital in 1942. One of these social workers, Thelma Hawes, was assigned as the assistant Red Cross field director at Fort Huachuca. She was the first African American to be assigned to a Red Cross administrative post in the West. In this role, Hawes directed Red Cross hospital activities for Black soldiers and supervised two previously assigned African American social workers.[419]

The 93rd left Fort Huachuca in June 1943 and was later deployed to the South Pacific. Fort Huachuca was not empty for long, as a new African American Infantry Division, the 92nd, was stationed there for training shortly after the 93rd departed. The 92nd left in July 1944 for the front lines in Italy.[420] During WWII, over 30,000 African American men and women passed through Fort Huachuca.[421]

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[419] "Talented Negress Joins Red Cross Activities."

[420] Lee, *The Employment of Negro Troops*, 494.

[421] Army.mil, "History of Fort Huachuca."

3.1.27 Fort Indiantown Gap, Pennsylvania

Fort Indiantown Gap was established as a Pennsylvania National Guard installation in 1933, but it was leased to the U.S. Army in preparation for WWII in 1940.[422]

In 1943, the Transportation Corps Unit Training Center was activated at Fort Indiantown Gap for the purpose of training Post Battalions personnel. Post Battalions personnel consisted primarily of Black troops training for stevedore duties, which involved facilitating the movement of troops, equipment, and supplies from loading docks onto cargo ships.[423] Black stevedores were housed near their training area, while other Black troops were segregated in a separate area (Figure 101 and Figure 102).[424]

Figure 101. 1943 Fort Indiantown Gap cantonment map showing location of segregated Black stevedore barracks and dry-land ships outlined in *red* (Pennsylvania State Archives; outlines added by ERDC-CERL).

[422] Command Historian, "History," Fort Indiantown Gap, accessed Feb. 16, 2022, https://www.ftig.ng.mil/History/.

[423] Smoker, Jr., *Back at the Gap*, 60-61.

[424] Segregation of troops continued in the military until 1952; Smoker, Jr., *Back at the Gap*, 56.

Figure 102. Barracks for segregated Black troops, n.d. (Image from Pennsylvania National Guard Military Museum).

The training area used by Black stevedores consisted of dry-land ships constructed at the east end of the post. These ships were full-scale mock-up Victory ships used to teach stevedore duties to load and offload troops and cargo (Figure 103). These ships featured loading cranes and netting along the sides, which soldiers used to practice climbing down from the larger ship into a simulated smaller craft below. Along a lake at the west end of the post, wooden walls meant to simulate the sides of large cargo ships were built with heavy netting so soldiers could practice "going over the side" into lifeboats moored at the bottom of the netting.[425]

[425] Smoker, Jr., *Back at the Gap*, 61.

Figure 103. Stevedore training on dry-land ships at Fort Indiantown Gap, 1942 (NARA).

3.1.28 Fort Jackson, South Carolina

Camp Jackson was established in June 1917 as one of the sixteen divisional training camps for soldiers in WWI. Construction moved rapidly and over 1,500 buildings were in place by that December, with 550 more added in the following year.[426]

Camp Jackson was deactivated in 1922 but reactivated in 1939 for infantry training. At this point, it was redesignated as Fort Jackson. The following year, it also served as a replacement training center for combat units. Construction occurred to provide all necessary facilities, including over 3,000 buildings. In total, over 500,000 WWII soldiers received some training at Fort Jackson.[427]

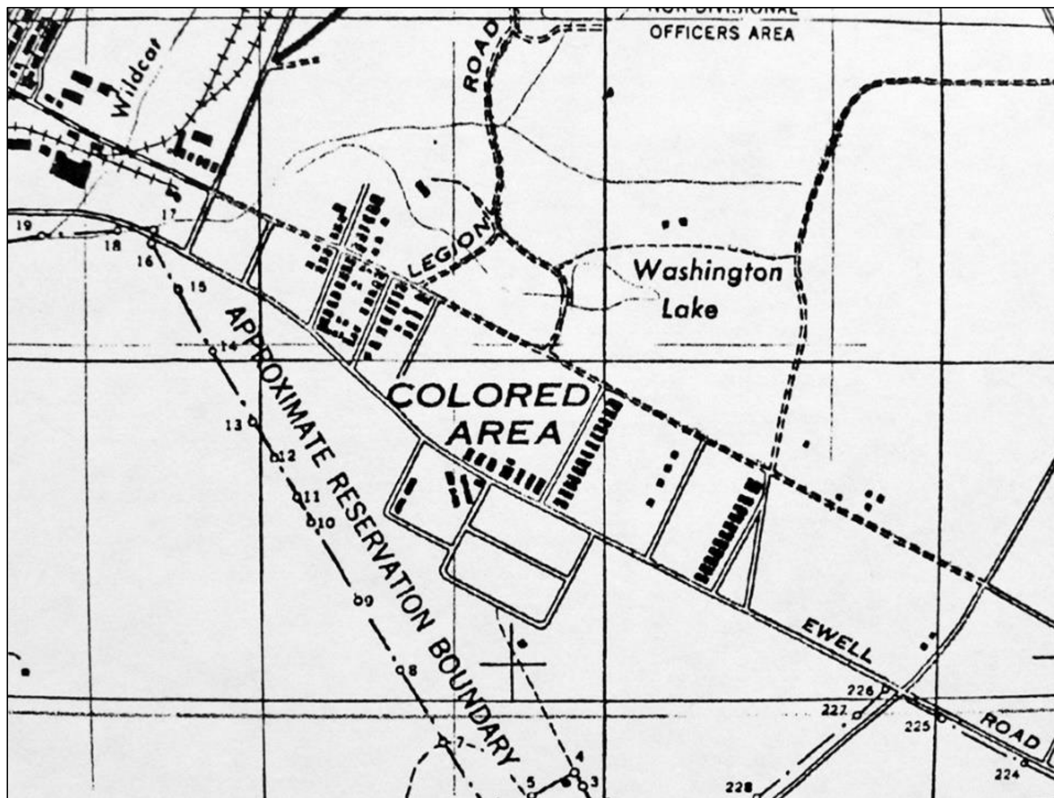
The African American 371st Infantry was organized at Camp Jackson on August 31, 1917, as the 1st Provisional Infantry Regiment (Colored). All

426 U.S. Army Training Center and Fort Jackson, "History," 2019, https://home.army.mil/jackson/index.php/about/history.

427 Gateway to the Army, "History," Fort Jackson, accessed Sept. 16, 2021, https://www.gatewaytothearmy.org/history.

officers of the unit were white. The first recruits for the 371st arrived in early September, but most arrived in October. Unit strength was 3,380 by late November. The unit saw service in France during the war as part of the 93rd Infantry.[428] In 1941, the African American 48th Quartermaster Regiment was stationed at Fort Jackson. They were quartered in a separate area on post (Figure 104).[429] There were also African American WACs at Fort Jackson (Figure 105).

Figure 104. Section of a 1943 map of Fort Jackson showing segregated area for African American troops (ERDC-CERL Collection).



[428] EbonyDoughBoys.org, “371st Infantry,” Ebony Doughboys, accessed Sept. 17, 2021, https://ebonydoughboys.org/index-10.html.

[429] Lee, *The Employment of Negro Troops,* 350.

Figure 105. Pfc. Johnnie Mae Welton, working in her laboratory at the Fort Jackson Station Hospital, March 20, 1944 (Jensen, 111-SC-341534).

3.1.29 Camp Lee, Virginia

Camp Lee was established in 1917 and served as a divisional training camp for WWI soldiers. When construction was completed, the capacity of the training camp was 60,000 men. Among the trainees were the 510th and 511th Engineer Service Battalions made up of African American soldiers from Virginia (Figure 106). The units formed at Camp Lee, trained there for a few months, and then went to France to provide construction labor.[430]

[430] Michael Buettner, "Black soldiers served with distinction despite obstacles," *The Progress-Index*, May 26, 2017, https://www.progress-index.com/news/20170526/black-soldiers-served-with-distinction-despite-obstacles.

Figure 106. Bakery at Camp Lee for African American troops, 1917 (NARA).

In preparation for WWII, Camp Lee was rebuilt and became home to the Quartermaster Replacement Training Center, providing basic and advanced training during the war.[431] Camp Lee became the home of the WACs Training Center and School in 1948. At that time, Army policy dictated that only 2% of the Army could be female, and only 10% of those could be African American. The Army segregation policies were still in full force. For the WACs at Camp Lee, this meant that African Americans made up every fifth class and were placed into segregated companies for basic training (Figure 107). After President Truman's Executive Order for desegregation, the WACs at Camp Lee integrated their training and facilities and the last segregated company completed training in early 1950.[432]

[431] MilitaryBases.com, "Fort Lee Army Base in Prince George, VA," Virginia Military Bases, accessed Sept. 16, 2021, https://militarybases.com/virginia/fort-lee/.

[432] Kozakewicz, "Fort Lee WACs helped drive the racial integration of the U.S. Army in the 1950s."

Figure 107. Camp Lee Training Center, Black WACs, Company B, 1st Battalion, in dayroom, September 9, 1949 (WAC Museum, Vertical Files, File: Segregation).

3.1.30 Fort Lincoln, District of Columbia

Fort Lincoln was built on the eastern edge of Washington, D.C., during the summer of 1861.[433] One of many forts built to defend the city during the Civil War, its site was chosen to prevent Confederate soldiers from crossing the Anacostia River and attacking the city from the east.[434] Today, little remains of Fort Lincoln aside from some earthworks.[435]

Company E of the 4th U.S. Colored Infantry (Figure 108) was assigned to Fort Lincoln during the Civil War to guard the nation's capital.[436] As part of the USCT, the 4th was a segregated regiment with white officers.[437] It was originally organized in Baltimore, Maryland, in 1863. Various companies of the 4th USCT served throughout Maryland, North Carolina,

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[433] HMdb.org, "Fort Lincoln," The Historical Market Database, accessed March 2, 2022, https://www.hmdb.org/m.asp?m=46714.

[434] CEHP, Inc., *A Historic Resources Study: The Civil War Defenses of Washington*, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, 2004.

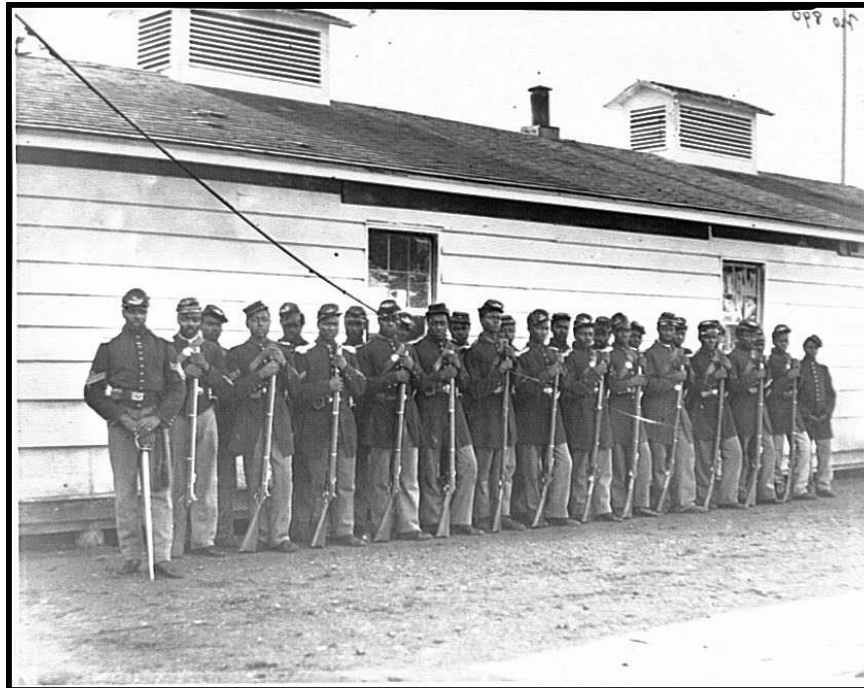
[435] HMdb.org, "Fort Lincoln."

[436] PBS, "Company E, 4th United States Colored Infantry," Africans in America, accessed March 2, 2022, https://www.pbs.org/wgbh/aia/part4/4h1526.html.

[437] Budge Weidman, "Black Soldiers in the Civil War," National Archives, last modified March 19, 2019, https://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/blacks-civil-war/article.html.

New Jersey, and Virginia; however, Company E is the only company known to have been stationed at Fort Lincoln.[438] It is unknown what facilities at Fort Lincoln were associated with the company, but they likely had barracks, mess halls, and a recreation area.

Figure 108. Company E, 4th USCT, 1863-1866, at Fort Lincoln, n.d. (LOC LC-B8171-7890).



3.1.31 Camp Livingston, Louisiana

After April 1941, before which only white women were allowed into the Army Nurse Corps, 24 Black female Army Nurse Corps personnel were assigned to work in the segregated hospital ward at Camp Livingston.[439]

3.1.32 Fort Leavenworth, Kansas

The 10th Cavalry was organized at Fort Leavenworth in September 1866.[440] The 1st Squadron of the 10th Cavalry returned to Fort Leavenworth from

[438] National Park Service, "United States Colored Troops 4th Regiment Infantry," Richmond National Battlefield Park Virginia, last modified Feb. 26, 2015, https://home.nps.gov/rich/learn/historyculture/4thusct.htm; PBS, "Company E."

[439] U.S. Army Medical Department, "African American Army Nurse Corps Officers;" Smith and Zeidler, ed., *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 21, 35-38, 255; Politt, "Della Hayden Raney Jackson; Robert J. Parks, "The Development of Segregation in U.S. Army Hospitals, 1940-1942," *Military Affairs* 37, no. 4 (Dec. 1973): 145-150, https://www.jstor.org/stable/pdf/1983778.pdf.

[440] Combat Studies Institute, *Buffalo Soldiers at Fort Leavenworth in the 1930s and early 1940s*.

1931 to 1940 to perform caretaking and housekeeping duties, and they lived in segregated facilities.[441]

3.1.33 Fort Macon, North Carolina

After training at Fort Fisher (see 3.1.19), the 2nd Battalion of the African American 54th Coast Artillery was stationed at Fort Macon from late July to early September before being deployed to the Southwest Pacific.[442]

3.1.34 Fort Massachusetts, Mississippi

Fort Massachusetts was constructed to protect a pass on the sea approach to New Orleans. It was held by Confederate militia for nine months in 1861, but Union forces took over the island in September of that year. Because of its remote location, it acted as a small city and was used as a prison for military convicts, political dissidents, and Confederate soldiers during the Civil War. Beginning in 1863, the prisoners were guarded by the 2nd Regiment of the Louisiana Native Guards.[443]

The 2nd Regiment was organized in October 1862 as one of three segregated regiments in the Louisiana Native Guards, which itself was formed to enlist free New Orleans' men of color and bolster Union troop numbers to maintain control of the city. When it was organized, all but one of the 2nd Regiment's officers were considered men of color. The regiment had ten companies, seven of which were deployed to Fort Massachusetts. The remaining three went to Fort Pike, Louisiana (see 3.1.41).[444]

Soon after the 2nd Regiment's arrival at Fort Massachusetts, in April 1863, they became the first segregated unit to engage in combat on the Gulf Coast when two companies of the regiment participated in a raid against Confederate forces in East Pascagoula, Mississippi.[445]

Despite their service in combat and on-base, most or all of the non-white officers of the regiment were asked to resign by the summer of 1863. In June 1863, the 2nd Regiment of the Louisiana Native Guard was re-

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441 Combat Studies Institute, *Buffalo Soldiers at Fort Leavenworth in the 1930s and early 1940s*.

442 WECT Staff, "Black history."

443 National Park Service, "Second Louisiana Native Guard," Gulf Islands National Seashore, last modified Oct. 29, 2018, https://www.nps.gov/articles/2la-guard.htm.

444 National Park Service, "Second Louisiana Native Guard."

445 National Park Service, "Second Louisiana Native Guard."

designated as the 2nd Regiment, Corps de Afrique. It was re-designated again in April the following year as the 74th Regiment of the USCT.[446] At the end of the Civil War, the companies of the then-74th Regiment were assimilated into the all-Black 25th Infantry to become part of the famed "Buffalo Soldiers."[447]

The 54th USCT Infantry Regiment may have also been stationed at Fort Massachusetts (Figure 109), though there is little support in the historic record to confirm or deny this.[448]

Figure 109. 54th U.S. Colored Troops Infantry Regiment, 1866, possibly at Fort Massachusetts, Mississippi (LOC AMBTIN no. 3199).

3.1.35 Camp McCoy, Wisconsin

In 1909, the Army acquired 14,000 acres of land for an artillery training area that would become Camp McCoy, with construction and other improvements occurring the following year. After the attack on Pearl

[446] National Park Service, "Second Louisiana Native Guard."

[447] American Battlefield Trust, "Fort Massachusetts on West Ship Island," Battlefields and Heritage Sites, accessed March 2, 2022, https://www.battlefields.org/visit/heritage-sites/fort-massachusetts-west-ship-island.

[448] "Major Samuel K. Thompson and unidentified soldiers of the 39th U.S. Infantry posted with a 10″ Rodman cannon at Fort Massachusetts, Mississippi], photograph, [United States], [between 1868 and 1869], ambrotype/tintype filing series (Library of Congress), Liljenquist Family Collection (Library of Congress), hand-colored tintype, https://www.loc.gov/item/2015647716/.

Harbor, the camp was expanded through construction of a new cantonment.[449]

Among the units trained at Camp McCoy during WWII was the 100th Infantry Battalion, made up of Japanese Americans. It was initially formed from Hawaii National Guard units, though formation continued after the ban on Japanese Americans entering the military took effect. After moving to the mainland, they were established as the 100th Infantry Battalion. They arrived at Camp McCoy in mid-June 1942 and remained there until they were transferred to Camp Shelby, Mississippi in January 1943. After advanced training there, the 100th deployed to Africa in August 1943, quickly moving on to Italy. The battalion was first housed in tents at Camp McCoy before moving into barracks several months later.[450] According to Kenneth Koji, a member of the 100th, the "new Camp McCoy cantonment was under construction during 1942 and was ready for use in September, at which time we moved to the new post. Everyone was tickled to be on the new Post after months of tent city life."[451] No evidence was found the 100th Infantry Battalion was physically segregated on post.[452]

3.1.36 Fort McKavett, Texas

Fort McKavett served as home station to all four African American regiments established after the Civil War. It became headquarters for the 41st Infantry in 1869, where it was combined with the 38th Infantry to form the 24th Infantry. Fort McKavett served as a regional supply depot for food and provisions and the 9th Cavalry was also stationed there (Figure 110).

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[449] Army.mil, "History," U.S. Army Fort McCoy, accessed Sept. 31, 2021, https://home.army.mil/mccoy/index.php/my-fort/all-services/fort-mccoy-guide/history.

[450] Nishime, "Memories: The 100th Infantry Battalion (Sep)."

[451] Courtesy, "100th Infantry Battalion among first to train at 'new' McCoy in 1942," Army.mil, July 24, 2020, https://www.army.mil/article/237837/100th_infantry_battalion_among_first_to_train_at_new_mccoy_in_1942.

[452] Nishime, "Memories: The 100th Infantry Battalion (Sep);" Army.mil, "History," U.S. Army Fort McCoy.

Figure 110. Map of Fort McKavett, TX, n.d. (texasbeyondhistory.net/forts/military.html).

3.1.37 Camp Meade, Maryland

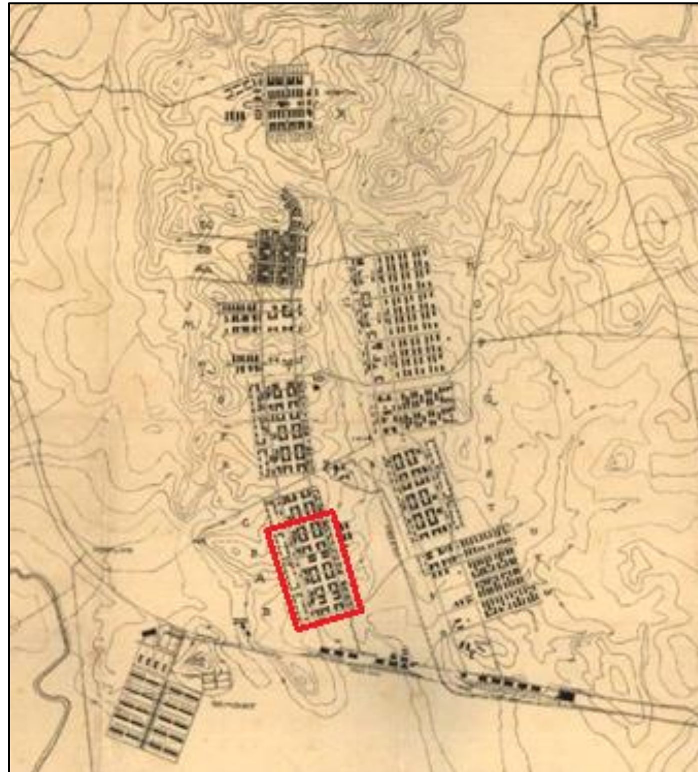
Camp Meade, redesignated as Fort Meade in 1929, was established in 1917 to prepare troops for deployment in WWI. During the war, Camp Meade served as a training site for more than 400,000 soldiers.[453] Approximately 15,000 of these men were part of the 92nd Infantry Division, one of two all-Black divisions to fight in the Army during WWI and WWII. The 368th Infantry Regiment and 351st Field Artillery of the 92nd Infantry Division trained at Camp Meade between November 1917 and May 1918 prior to deployment to France to fight in WWI.[454] They primarily participated in the Meuse-Argonne Offensive, which began in September 1918 and ended November 1918. The 92nd Division was deactivated following their return from Europe in February 1919. While at Camp Meade, all members of the 92nd Division lived in segregated barracks (Figure 111).[455]

[453] Army.mil, "History," Fort George G. Meade, accessed March 2, 2022, https://home.army.mil/meade/index.php/about/history.

[454] American Battle Monuments Commission, "92nd Division Summary of Operations in the World War," 1; Ephrem Yared, "92nd Infantry Division (1917-1919, 1942-1945), Black Past, March 9, 2016, https://www.blackpast.org/african-american-history/92nd-infantry-division-1917-1919-1942-1945-0/.

[455] Yared, "92nd Infantry Division."

Figure 111. Map of Camp Meade with segregated area outlined in *red*, 1917 (*Fort George G. Meade: The First 100 Years*, www.yumpu.com/en/embed/view/badW0c5ZBrnxlyif).



Eight Black doctors were also stationed at Camp Meade during WWI to receive specialized training and provide care for the troops of the 368th Infantry Regiment and the 351st Field Artillery. Before arriving at Camp Meade, the eight doctors attended the Medical Officers Training Camp at Fort Des Moines, Iowa (see 3.1.14). The doctors arrived at Camp Meade in November 1917 and trained at Camp Meade Hospital to learn how to treat war injuries. They were deployed with the remainder of the 92nd Infantry Division in May 1918.[456]

3.1.38 Fort Myer, Virginia

The Union Army began occupying the area that would become Fort Myer in 1861, just after the start of the Civil War.[457] At the same time, enslaved peoples began fleeing to Washington, D.C., for protection. To house these escaped enslaved individuals, as well as those freed by the Emancipation

[456] U.S. Army, "Black doctors train at Camp Meade during WWI."

[457] Samuel A. Batzli, *Fort Myer, Virginia: Historic Landscape Inventory*, USACERL Technical Report, 98/97 (Champaign, IL: U.S. Army Construction Engineering Research Laboratory, 1998), 22.

Proclamation, “the government established [a] village on what is now the southern most [*sic*] portion of Arlington Cemetery.”[458] The village, now known as Freedman’s Village, consisted of 100 1.5-story frame houses and a dormitory, as well as workshops for blacksmithing, carpentry, and wheelwrighting. By 1866, the village was dramatically overcrowded, and tuberculosis and dysentery were common. Nothing of this village remains, and it did not seem to impact the long-term development of Fort Myer.[459]

Adjacent to this village, the fort that would become Fort Myer was established as part of the defense system that encircled Washington, D.C.[460] Following the end of the Civil War, it was abandoned until the March 1869, when the Signal Corps began occupying the fort.[461]

In May 1891, Troop K of the 9th Cavalry arrived at Fort Myer as the first Black unit to serve east of the Mississippi River since the Civil War. They performed routine garrison duties. In October 1894, they left Fort Myer for Fort Robinson, Nebraska (see 3.1.43).[462]

In 1931, Machine Gun Troop, 10th Cavalry was stationed at Fort Myer (Figure 112). Their barracks and stables were located in the lower post area. They remained at Fort Myer until the Army was desegregated.

Figure 112. Soldiers of Machine Gun Troop, 10th Cavalry prepare for a horse show, n.d. (Equal Opportunity Office, Fort Myer Military Community, *Fort Myer Buffalo Soldiers*).

[458] Batzli, *Fort Myer, Virginia: Historic Landscape Inventory*, 25.

[459] Batzli, *Fort Myer, Virginia: Historic Landscape Inventory*, 25.

[460] Batzli, *Fort Myer, Virginia: Historic Landscape Inventory*, 25.

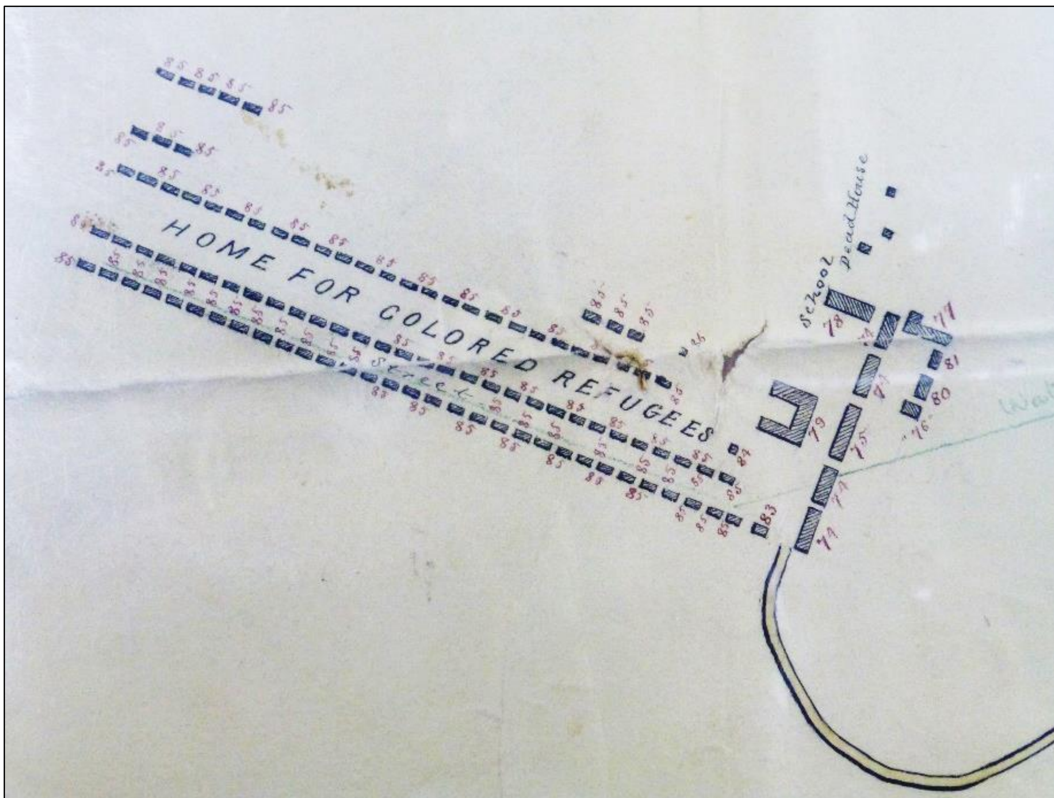
[461] Equal Opportunity Office, Fort Myer Military Community, *Fort Myer Buffalo Soldiers*, RG 22.25A Black Military History–9th/10th Cav., FF #6, Chamberlin Library, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center.

[462] 462 Equal Opportunity Office, Fort Myer Military Community, *Fort Myer Buffalo Soldiers*.

3.1.39 Camp Nelson, Kentucky

U.S. Army Major General Ambrose Burnside, in command of the Department of the Ohio, established Camp Nelson in 1963 to provide a central troop and supply depot in central Kentucky. By 1965, the camp had grown to nearly 4,000 acres, and “more than 300 buildings and tents that housed a quartermaster commissary depot, ordnance depot, recruitment center, prison, and a hospital” (Figure 113 and Figure 114).[463]

Figure 113. Map showing African American barracks (building #79) at Camp Nelson, n.d. (NARA RG 92).



[463] National Park Service, “History & Culture,” Camp Nelson, last modified Dec. 7, 2021, https://www.nps.gov/cane/learn/historyculture/index.htm.

Figure 114. African American barracks at Camp Nelson, KY, Civil War era (NARA RG165-C-183)

As the largest African American troop recruitment center in Kentucky, Camp Nelson was also the third largest USCT recruiting center in the nation. Beginning in June 1964, African Americans had no restrictions on enlistment. Since serving in the federal army provided emancipation, recruitment was vastly accelerated. In all, over 10,000 African American Union soldiers trained at Camp Nelson during the Civil War. The units trained here included the 12th and 13th Heavy Artillery, 5th and 6th Cavalry, and 5th, 72nd, 114th, 115th, 116th, 117th, 119th, 121st, 123rd, and 124th Infantry USCT.[464]

3.1.40 Fort Oglethorpe, Georgia

Fort Oglethorpe was established in 1902 on approximately 820 acres north of the Chickamauga and Chattanooga National Military Park. The fort was significant during the Spanish-American War, WWI, and WWII. The post was expanded during WWI when three contiguous camps were consolidated. By 1918, there were over 1,600 buildings on post, and 60,000 troops had been trained here. Many cavalry units were stationed at

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[464] Ron Crawley, "History," Fort Oglethorpe, Georgia, accessed Oct. 3, 2021, http://www.schistory.net/fortoglethorpe/History.htm.

Fort Oglethorpe during the war, including the 10th Cavalry composed of African Americans.[465]

Fort Oglethorpe remained in use during the inter-war years. By 1942, the cavalry had left the post and mechanized transport increased. The post was enlarged for troop training during WWII, and it served as an induction center. In 1943, it was home to the Women's Third Army Corps Training Center. This unit grew so rapidly that by September 1943 "all men had been removed from the post and 5,000 women were undergoing training."[466] The induction center for men did, however, remain. The WACs remained on post until July 1945.[467]

Fort Oglethorpe was home to African American WACs from November 1944, when 824 enlisted women and 31 officers formed the 6888th Central Postal Directory Battalion. They were the first and only all-female African American battalion deployed overseas during the war. They were commanded by Major Charity Edna Adams Earley, the first African American U.S. Army woman to achieve lieutenant colonel rank. The 6888th received their initial training at Fort Oglethorpe before deploying to England.[468]

3.1.41 Fort Pike, Louisiana

Fort Pike was a masonry fort built in coastal Louisiana to protect New Orleans from seaborne invasion following the War of 1812.[469] During the Civil War, Companies A, E, and H of the 2nd Regiment of the Louisiana Native Guard were stationed at Fort Pike to receive heavy artillery training.[470] It was officially abandoned in 1890.[471]

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[465] Crawley, "History."

[466] Crawley, "History."

[467] Crawley, "History."

[468] Beth A. Warrington, "New monument honors all-female, African-American battalion," Army.mil, Feb. 4, 2019, https://www.army.mil/article/216907/.

[469] Louisiana Office of Tourism & Office of the Lt. Governor, "Fort Pike State Historic Site," Louisiana State Parks, accessed March 3, 2022, https://wwww.lastateparks.com/historic-sites/fort-pike-state-historic-site.

[470] Louisiana Office of Tourism & Office of the Lt. Governor, "Fort Pike State Historic Site;" National Park Service, "Second Louisiana Native Guard."

[471] Louisiana Office of Tourism & Office of the Lt. Governor, "Fort Pike State Historic Site."

3.1.42 Fort Riley, Kansas

Fort Riley was established in May 1853. Construction of a permanent cavalry post began in June 1855, and Fort Riley was expected to become the Army's premier cavalry installation; however, it was minimally garrisoned from the 1860s to late 1880s.[472] Both the 9th and 10th Cavalries spent time at Fort Riley during this period—members of the 10th Cavalry were stationed at the post in 1868, and four companies of the 9th Cavalry were stationed at the post from 1881 to 1884. Troops' duties included:

> caring for horses, scouting and patrolling, building roads, protecting mail and travel routes, maintaining equipment, providing security for farmers, installing telegraph lines, guarding railroad workers, providing protection from outlaws and raiding parties, participating in drills, target practice, and inspections, going on reconnaissance missions to gather knowledge of area terrain, and returning Native Americans to reservations.[473]

The 9th Cavalry returned to the post in the early 1900s and 1920s.[474] In the early 1900s, the 9th Cavalry was garrisoned in barracks around the Cavalry Parade Field (Figure 115).[475] During the 1920s to 1930s, they served as the permanently assigned troop cadre for the School of Instruction for Cavalry and Light artillery, which was established at Fort Riley in 1891.[476] The 10th Cavalry was stationed at the post again in 1913, though their role at Fort Riley at the time is unclear.[477]

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[472] Susan I. Enscore and Julie L. Webster, *Comprehensive Inventory and Determinations of Eligibility for Fort Riley Buildings: 1857-1963*, ERDC-CERL MP-09-1 (Champaign, IL: U.S. Army Construction Engineering Research Laboratory, 2009): 11-12, 16-18.

[473] Katie Goerl, "Fort Riley's Buffalo Soldiers," *Junction City Union*, July 20, 2021, https://www.junctioncityunion.com/lifestyles/history/fort-riley-s-buffalo-soldiers/article_39b603b8-3fb1-53f9-8c9b-869f5c872a18.html.

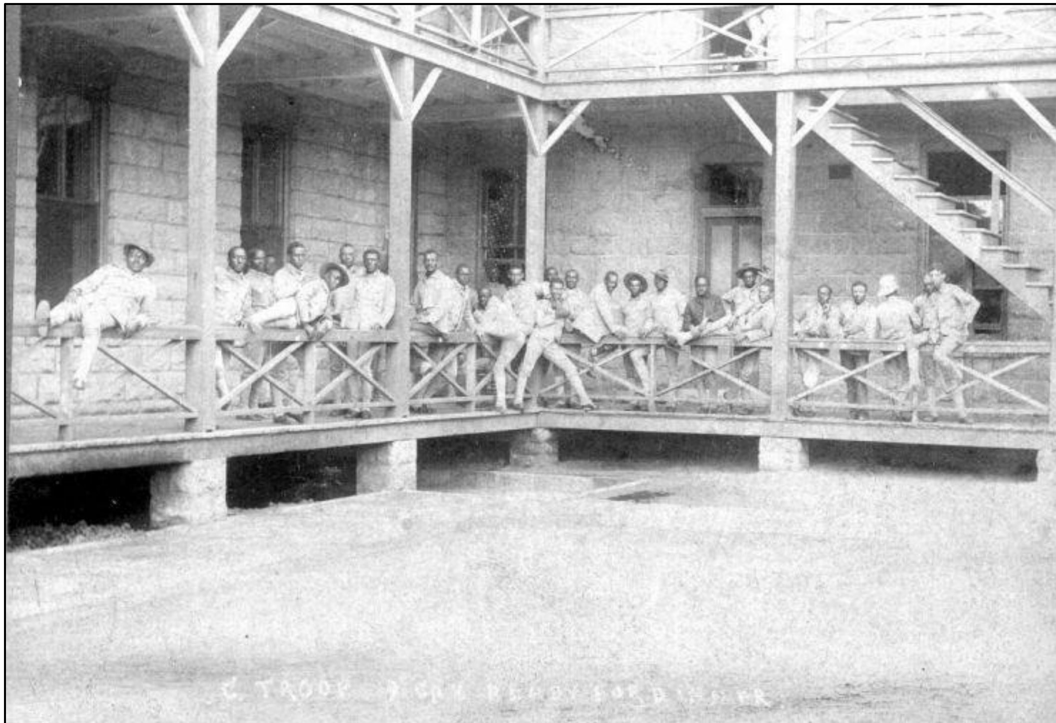
[474] Goerl, "Fort Riley's Buffalo Soldiers."

[475] Army.mil, "History of Fort Riley and 1st Infantry Division."

[476] David L. Dubois, *Military Training and Associated Land Use at Fort Riley, Kansas 1852-1839*, ERDC/CERL Report (Champaign, IL: U.S. Army Construction Engineering Research Laboratories, 1996), 12, 13; American Quarter Horse Association, "Buffalo Soldiers: The History Behind the African-American Regiments," AQHA, January 27, 2022, https://www.aqha.com/-/buffalo-soldiers.

[477] Goerl, "Fort Riley's Buffalo Soldiers;" Army.mil, "History of Fort Riley and 1st Infantry Division."

Figure 115. C Troop of the 9th Cavalry outside barracks, c. 1902 (https://home.army.mil/riley/index.php/about/history).



After being reassigned to the 2nd Cavalry Division in October 1940, members of the former 9th and 10th Cavalries again returned to Fort Riley from October 1941 to July 1942.[478]

3.1.43 Fort Robinson, Nebraska

Troop K of the 9th Cavalry, the all-Black Buffalo Soldiers, was stationed at Fort Robinson from 1885 to 1898.[479] The troops helped with construction during the post's 1887 expansion. They were also the first cavalrymen sent to Pine Ridge Reservation in South Dakota prior to the Wounded Knee

[478] 1st Cavalry Division Association, "9 Cavalry History," 9th Cavalry Regiment, accessed March 3, 2022, https://1cda.org/history/history-9cav/.

[479] Frank N. Schubert, "The Buffalo Soldiers at Fort Robinson," RG 22.25A Black Military History-9th/10th Cav., FF #6, Chamberlin Library, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center; Equal Opportunity Office, Fort Myer Military Community, *Fort Myer Buffalo Soldiers*.

massacre.[480] Buffalo Soldiers of the 10th Cavalry were headquartered at Fort Robinson from 1902 to 1907.[481]

3.1.44 Camp Savage, Minnesota

The Military Intelligence Service Language School was originally located at the Presidio in San Francisco, but it was moved inland after the Pearl Harbor attack. The school was located at Camp Savage from 1942 until it moved to Fort Snelling in 1944. Savage, Minnesota, was selected because the Army felt the citizens were likely to accept a large group of Japanese Americans without strife. The 132-acre site was not previously a military installation but had been a CCC camp in the 1930s.[482] An advance group of Nisei soldiers arrived in spring 1942 to set up the camp, which had most recently been a group of stables. “We swept out the stables, set up bunks, assembled big 55-gallon stoves, and prepared the stables into classrooms. We were all Asians…unconsciously, we grouped separately—the mainland boys and the Hawaii boys.”[483] The site eventually consisted of “barracks, mess hall, classrooms, radio shack, theater and auditorium, gymnasium, and an officers' mess” (Figure 116).[484] The first classes were held on June 1, 1942, with 200 students. By 1944, there were “52 academic sections, 27 civilian and 65 enlisted instructors, and 1100 students.”[485]

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480 NIC Nebraska, “Marker Monday: Buffalo Soldiers at Fort Robinson,” History Nebraska, accessed March 3, 2022, https://history.nebraska.gov/blog/marker-monday-buffalo-soldiers-fort-robinson; Gabriela Serrato, “The Ghost Dance and the Wounded Knee Massacre of 1890,” StMU Research Scholars, Feb. 7, 2017, https://stmuscholars.org/the-ghost-dance-and-wounded-knee-massacre/.

481 Schubert, “The Buffalo Soldiers at Fort Robinson;” NIC Nebraska, “Marker Monday: Buffalo Soldiers at Fort Robinson.”

482 City of Savage, Minnesota, “This is Savage: Sharing our History, Camp Savage,” News List, April 29, 2020, https://www.cityofsavage.com/Home/Components/News/News/160/.

483 Tsuchida, “Peek Into the Past.”

484 City of Savage, Minnesota, “World War II Camp Savage.”

485 City of Savage, Minnesota, “This is Savage.”

Figure 116. Camp Savage, autumn 1942 (McNaughton, *Nisei Linguists*, 2006).

3.1.45 Camp Shelby, Mississippi

One of the original sixteen National Army Training Camps established for WWI, Camp Shelby trained soldiers from West Virginia, Indiana, and Kentucky. The camp contained 1,206 buildings and had a capacity of 40,000 troops. Elements of the African American 92nd Division trained for a time at Camp Shelby.[486]

Closed after the war, it was reopened and rebuilt in 1940 with more than 1,800 buildings. The new camp was the second largest in the nation, after Fort Benning, and at its height in 1944 there were over 100,000 soldiers training here.[487] The all-Japanese American 100th Infantry transferred from Camp McCoy to Camp Shelby for training in January 1943. After advanced training at Shelby, the 100th deployed to Africa in August 1943, quickly moving on to Italy.[488]

Japanese American volunteers from Hawaii, as well as from internment camps on the mainland, formed the 442nd Regimental Combat Team. The

[486] Haskel Burns, "Camp Shelby: 100 years of history," *Hattiesburg American*, July 8, 2017, https://www.hattiesburgamerican.com/story/news/local/2017/07/08/camp-shelby-100-years-history/420019001.

[487] Burns, "Camp Shelby."

[488] Nishime, "Memories: The 100th Infantry Battalion (Sep)."

segregated team had non-Japanese officers. The team arrived for training at Camp Shelby in April 1943 (Figure 117). It included the "522nd Field Artillery Battalion, 232nd Combat Engineer Company, 206th Army Ground Force Band, Antitank Company, Cannon Company, Service Company, medical detachment, headquarters companies, and three infantry battalions."[489] They deployed overseas from Camp Shelby in February 1944. Due to its exemplary performance in overseas combat, and accounting for its size and length of service, the 442nd is the most decorated unit in U.S. military history.[490]

Figure 117. Company E of the 442nd Regimental Combat Team at Fort Shelby, 1943 (NARA).

[489] Go For Broke National Education Center, "442nd Regimental Combat Team," History: Military Units, accessed Sept. 19, 2021, https://www.goforbroke.org/learn/history/military_units/442nd.php.

[490] Go For Broke National Education Center, "442nd Regimental Combat Team."

3.1.46 Camp Sherman, Ohio

Units of the newly organized 92nd Infantry, a Black Army Division, trained here between November 1917 and May 1918 prior to being deployed to France in WWI.[491]

Shortly after November 11, 1918, Black female Army Nurse Corps personnel were stationed here. They lived in segregated facilities and were only allowed to nurse Black soldiers and German prisoners. Their service ended in August 1919.[492]

3.1.47 Fort Snelling, Minnesota

Fort Snelling was established with the arrival of troops in 1819 and construction of a stone fort the next year. Completed in 1825, the fort served to protect the fur trade and discourage further British incursions. In operation until 1858, the fort was by then no longer on the frontier, and was closed.[493] It was reopened to serve as a training base during the Civil War. In all "11 infantry regiments, two companies of sharpshooters, several units of artillery and cavalry, and several dozen sailors" were trained here. There were also 104 African American volunteers that served in the First Iowa African Infantry Regiment and the 18th and 68th Regiments of the USCT.[494]

After the Civil War, Fort Snelling served as a supply base and staging area for battles with Native Americans. It was garrisoned by the African American 25th Infantry Regiment from 1882 to 1888 (Figure 118). Fort Snelling was a recruit processing center during WWI and carried on this task during WWII.[495]

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491 American Battle Monuments Commission, "92nd Division Summary of Operations in the World War," 1.

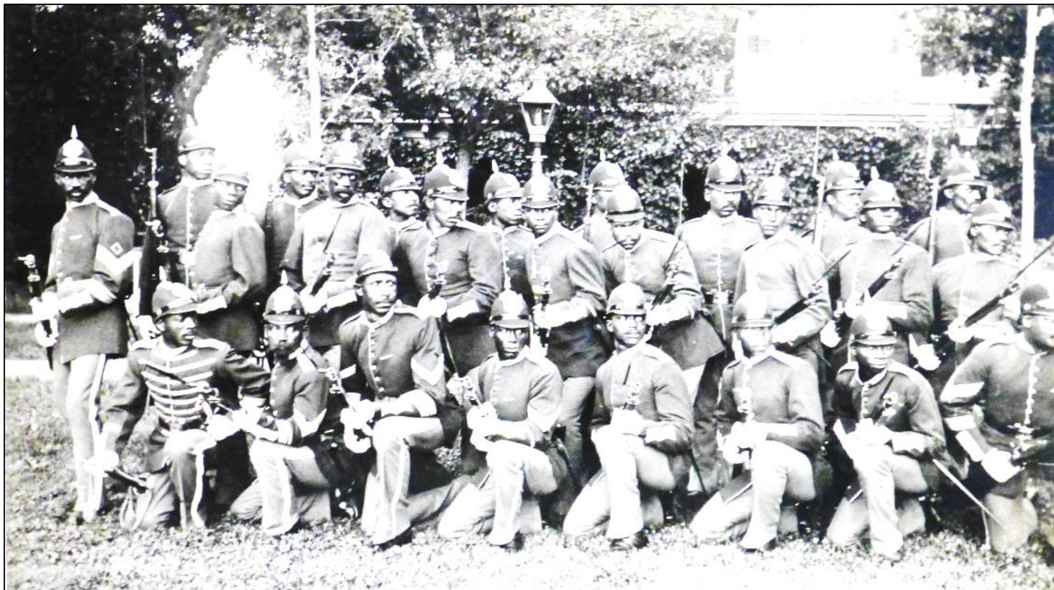
492 Sheldon, "Brief History of Black Women in the Military."

493 Minnesota Historical Society, "The Expansionist Era (1805–1858)," Historic Fort Snelling, accessed Oct. 3, 2021, https://www.mnhs.org/fortsnelling/learn/military-history/expansionist-era.

494 Minnesota Historical Society, "The Expansionist Era."

495 Minnesota Historical Society, "The Expansionist Era."

Figure 118. Members of the 25th Infantry band and NCOs at Fort Snelling, c. 1883 (NARA).



The Military Intelligence Service Language School staffed by Japanese Americans was located at Camp Savage before moving to nearby Fort Snelling from August 1944 to October 1946. The school provided knowledge on the Japanese language and culture, providing personnel to serve as translators, negotiators, and code breakers. Over 6,000 students had graduated from the school by the time it closed in 1946.[496]

3.1.48 Camp Stewart, Georgia

Camp Stewart, redesignated as Fort Stewart in 1956, was activated in 1940 as an anti-aircraft artillery training center. Following the attack on Pearl Harbor, activity at Camp Stewart increased, as numerous anti-aircraft crews were trained and deployed to overseas theaters.[497] In 1942, the 90th Coast Artillery Regiment, a segregated Black anti-aircraft unit, was activated at Camp Stewart in 1942.[498] The regiment trained there until departing for North Africa in 1943.[499]

[496] National Park Service, "Breaking the Code."

[497] Post Housing, Inc., "Fort Stewart, GA History," Fort Stewart Housing, accessed March 3, 2022, https://www.fortstewarthousing.com/history.

[498] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 1, 5; Gaines, "Coast Artillery Organizational History, 1917-1950, Part I, Coast Artillery Regiments 1-196."

[499] Gaines, "Coast Artillery Organizational History, 1917-1950, Part I, Coast Artillery Regiments 1-196."

3.1.49 Camp Stuart, Virginia

The 93rd Division (Provisional) was organized at Camp Stuart, Virginia, in December 1917 from African American National Guard units from the States of New York. Illinois, Connecticut, Maryland, Massachusetts, Ohio, Tennessee, and the District of Columbia, as well as from African American selective service men from South Carolina.[500]

3.1.50 Fort Stockton, Texas

Fort Stockton served as Regimental Headquarters for the 9th Cavalry from 1867–1875. The troops rebuilt the previously abandoned fort in a nearby location, constructing 35 buildings. The 10th Cavalry was stationed at Fort Stockton from 1875–1885.[501]

3.1.51 Camp William Penn, Pennsylvania

On June 26, 1863, Camp William Penn was established for training Black soldiers (Figure 119).[502] Though Philadelphia was considered an abolitionist stronghold, Camp William Penn's establishment was federally mandated, as state and local authorities both refused to start a camp for Black troops. This was despite the fact that many Black Pennsylvanians sought to serve the Union Army—approximately 1,500 African Americans traveled from Philadelphia to Massachusetts to enlist.[503]

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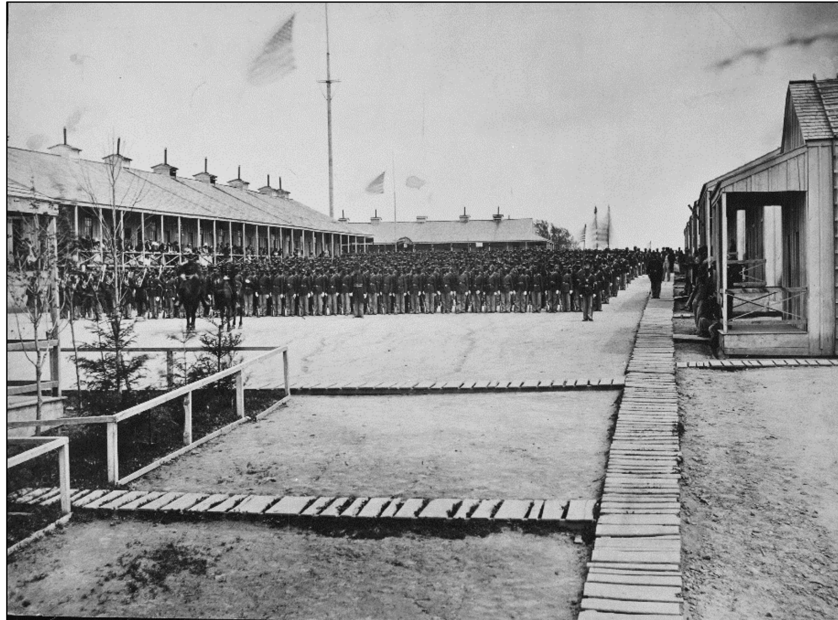
[500] American Battle Monuments Commission, "93rd Division Summary of Operations in the World War," 1.

[501] Kathy Weiser, "Historic Fort Stockton, Texas," Legends of America, last modified Nov. 2021, http://www.legendsofamerica.com/tx-fortstockton.html; Smith and Zeidler, ed. *A Historic Context for the African American Military Experience*, 82-93, 93-100.

[502] Steve Conrad, "Cheltenham Township and the Civil War: Camp William Penn," United States Colored Troops (USCT), accessed Sept. 3, 2021, https://www.usct.org/camp-william-penn/.

[503] Donald Scott, "Camp William Penn's Black Soldiers in Blue," Historynet, Sept. 23, 1999, https://www.historynet.com/camp-william-penns-black-soldiers-in-blue-november-99-americas-civil-war-feature/.

Figure 119. Camp William Penn, 26th Infantry USCT, 1865 (NARA).



Camp William Penn was one of eight Union camps to train Black troops; however, it was the only camp set up exclusively for this function. As a result, more African American soldiers trained here than any other Civil War Union Army camp. From 1963 to 1865, eleven USCT regiments, a total of 10,940 men, trained at Camp Penn.[504] Many of these troops were former enslaved individuals who sought to fight in the Union Army following President Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation.[505]

The post was located eight miles north of Philadelphia on an elevated piece of land near the home of abolitionists James and Lucretia Mott. It was less than one mile away from a depot of the North Pennsylvania Railroad, which facilitated travel to and from Philadelphia. Recruits and officers alike initially lived in tents arranged on intersecting streets. In September 1863, though, the Secretary of War ordered wood and other material for the construction of barracks and other buildings. In just a few months, barracks, officers' quarters, mess halls, guard houses, and a chapel had been constructed.[506]

While the post's commander, Lieutenant Colonel Louis Wagner was supportive of the Black troops—Wagner encouraged Black soldiers to

[504] Steve Conrad, "Cheltenham Township and the Civil War: Camp William Penn."

[505] Scott, "Camp William Penn's Black Soldiers in Blue."

[506] Scott, "Camp William Penn's Black Soldiers in Blue."

ignore segregationist policies on local trains and street cars—the soldiers faced significant racist sentiment from the local Philadelphia community.[507] The camp's white neighbors often complained about "uncivilized" Black visitors to the camp. In August 1863, a local white man approached sentinel Charles Ridley and began harassing him. After the man refused to leave the premises, Ridley fatally shot him. This infuriated white Philadelphians, and Ridley was convicted of murder.[508] Ridley was pardoned by the governor of Pennsylvania in 1864.[509]

The soldiers also faced racist sentiment from the Union and Confederate Armies at-large. USCT soldiers were initially paid much less than white Union soldiers, who viewed the Black soldiers with disdain. Confederate soldiers threatened USCT troops with death or enslavement if caught. And, although there is little evidence that the 400 white officers at Camp William Penn treated their soldiers poorly, they were harsh towards Black civilians.[510] In 1864, officers utilized public humiliation to punish women suspected of bringing alcohol to the camp by forcing them to wear a sign reading "I brought whiskey into camp" and parading them around the post. In one instance, officers shaved the head of a woman who resisted this shaming. She was then expelled from the installation.[511]

Most recruits trained at the camp for two months before heading to the front. Regiments formed and trained on a cyclical basis, with one regiment training while another recruited. Consequently, the camp typically hosted only two regiments at a time. The last regiment of USCT trained at Camp William Penn in May 1865, and the camp was dismantled shortly after.[512]

3.1.52 Presidio of Monterey, California

In November 1902, 425 troops of the 1st Squadron of the 9th Cavalry, one unit of the all-Black Buffalo Soldiers, arrived at the Presidio of Monterey

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[507] Scott, "Camp William Penn's Black Soldiers in Blue."

[508] Blake McGready, "Camp William Penn and the Fight for Historical Memory, *Journal of the Civil War Era*, Aug. 24, 2016, https://www.journalofthecivilwarera.org/2016/08/camp-william-penn-fight-historical-memory/; Jeffry D. Wert, "Camp William Penn and the Black Soldier," *Pennsylvania History: A Journal of Mid-Atlantic Studies* 46, no. 4 (Oct. 1979): 335-346, https://www.jstor.org/stable/27772625.

[509] McGready, "Camp William Penn and the Fight for Historical Memory."

[510] McGready, "Camp William Penn and the Fight for Historical Memory;" Wert, "Camp William Penn and the Black Soldier."

[511] McGready, "Camp William Penn and the Fight for Historical Memory."

[512] Wert, "Camp William Penn and the Black Soldier."

as the first cavalry unit to be stationed there following the Philippine Insurrection.[513] The soldiers, who had served in the Philippines and left their horses there, had the assignment of taming and training wild horses brought from ranches in Monterey County to become Army mounts.[514]

The Buffalo Soldiers initially pitched their tent camp on a rocky headland named China Point; however, they moved into four newly completed wood barracks in December 1903. These barracks were not geographically segregated, though they were only to be used by the soldiers of the 1st Squadron.[515] Corrals were also built for the Buffalo Soldiers, though it is unclear if these were on-post or at China Point.[516]

The 1st Squadron of the 9th Cavalry departed the Presidio of Monterey on November 1, 1904, to head to their new station at Fort Riley, Kansas (see 3.1.42).[517]

3.1.53 Camp Upton, New York

Camp Upton was one of sixteen cantonments constructed nationwide to train troops after the United States entered WWI.[518] The 367th Regiment of the 92nd Infantry Division, an African American Army Division, was organized at Camp Upton in November 1917.[519] The regiment trained at the camp from November 1917 to May 1918 before deployment to France.[520]

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[513] Letter from Margaret B. Adams to Eleanor Ramsey, Sept. 7, 1979, RG 22.25A Black Military History-9th/10th Cav., FF #1, Chamberlin Library, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center; James McNaughton, "A touch of glory: The 9th Cavalry in Monterey, 1902-04," *The Globe*, March 7, 1991, RG 22.25A Black Military History-9th/10th Cav., FF #2, Chamberlin Library, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center.

[514] Letter from Margaret B. Adams to Eleanor Ramsey, Sept. 7, 1979; Harold E. Raugh, Jr., "Buffalo Soldiers at the Presidio of Monterey," RG 22.25A Black Military History-9th/10th Cav., FF #2, Chamberlin Library, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center.

[515] Raugh, Jr., "Buffalo Soldiers at the Presidio of Monterey."

[516] Letter from Margaret B. Adams to Eleanor Ramsey, Sept. 7, 1979.

[517] Letter from Margaret B. Adams to Eleanor Ramsey, Sept. 7, 1979.

[518] Brookhaven Science Associates, "About Brookhaven," Brookhaven National Laboratory, accessed March 3, 2022, https://www.bnl.gov/about/history/campupton.php.

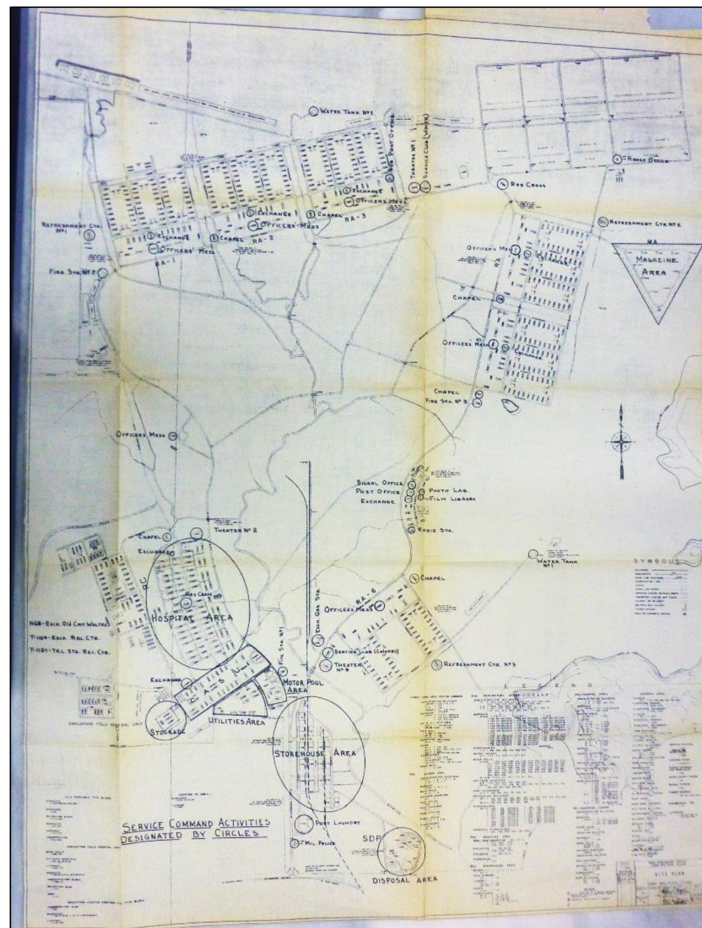
[519] Emmett J. Scott, "Scott's Official History of the American Negro in the World War," 1919, https://net.lib.byu.edu/estu/wwi/comment/scott/SCh13.htm.

[520] American Battle Monuments Commission, "92nd Division Summary of Operations in the World War," 1.

3.1.54 Camp Wolters, Texas

Camp Wolters, Texas, served as an Army training camp from 1925 to 1946.[521] Originally a National Guard summer training camp, it was an Infantry Replacement Training Center during WWII. At that time it contained about 7,500 acres including a target range.[522] During WWII, Camp Wolters was set up to house 18,000 white soldiers and 2,000 African American soldiers (Figure 120 and Figure 121).[523] The first troops to train at the replacement center were 181 African American troops transferred from Fort Sill, Oklahoma, in March 1941 (Figure 122).

Figure 120. 1942 site plan Camp Wolters showing African American troop area (*lower center*) distant from other troops (*upper part of map*) (NARA RG 77, Box 329).



[521] Spring Sault, “Fort Wolters: Former Military Base is a Treasure Trove for Urban Explorers,” Texas Hill Country, July 22, 2019, https://texashillcountry.com/fort-wolters-former-military/.

[522] David Minor, “Fort Wolters,” Texas State Historical Association Handbook of Texas, last modified Jan. 1, 1995, https://www.tshaonline.org/handbook/entries/fort-wolters.

[523] Mineral Wells Chamber of Commerce, “Facts about the U. S. Army Replacement Center, Mineral Wells, Texas,” The Portal to Texas History, last modified Nov. 7, 2011, https://texashistory.unt.edu/ark:/67531/metapth46562/.

Figure 121. Detail of 1942 site plan for Camp Wolters showing segregated area for African American soldiers (NARA RG 77, Box 329).

Figure 122. African American troops were the first arrivals to the Camp Wolters Infantry Replacement Training Center, March 1941 (Texas Star-Telegram Collection, AR406-6-1250, https://library.uta.edu/digitalgallery/img/10017755).

3.2 Army Air Corps

The Army Air Corps was a component of the Army from 1926 to 1941. Consequently, for the Army Air Corps resembled that of the Army. Temporary construction was the standard for both World Wars.[524]

3.2.1 Freeman Army Air Field, Indiana

Constructed in 1942 to train pilots during WWII, Freeman Army Air Field was home to the 477th Bombardment Group (Tuskegee Airmen) in March 1945. This unit was subjected to strict segregation due to the prejudicial views of the 1st Air Force Commander General, which were enforced by the 447th's white commander, Colonel Robert Selway. After arrival at Freeman Field, the 447th tried to integrate the existing officers' clubs. In opposition to direct orders, dozens of Black officers entered the white officers' club in an incident that is known as the Freeman Field Mutiny. When asked to sign a statement agreeing to the segregation of the clubs, 101 Black officers refused. They were charged with insubordination and detained at Godman Field, Kentucky (see 3.2.2) while awaiting court-martials. In the end, only one officer was convicted. Several months later, Colonel Selway was removed and what had become the 477th Composite Group (Colored) was commanded by Colonel Davis, an African American.[525]

3.2.2 Godman Army Air Field, Kentucky

Due to fear of rioting in response to poor or nonexistent segregated facilities at Moton Army Air Field, Alabama (see 3.2.5), the 477th Medium Bombardment Group was transferred to Godman Army Air Field in spring 1943; however, white soldiers and superiors continued to treat the African American 477th Group with hostility, and the group was transferred to Freeman Army Air Field, Indiana (see 3.2.1) in 1945. After the Freeman Field Mutiny, 101 Black officers were detained at Godman Field.[526]

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[524] Aviation: From Sand Dunes to Sonic Booms, "Maxwell Air Force Base Senior Officers' Quarters Historic District," National Park Service, last modified Aug. 29, 2017, https://home.nps.gov/articles/maxwell-air-force-base-senior-officers-quarters-historic-district.htm#:~:text=Almost%20all%20Army%20air%20stations%20and%20depots%20developed,strength%20of%20the%20Army%20air%20arm%20was%20deficient; History on the Net, "A History of the Army Air Corps," Army Air Corps, accessed March 2, 2022, https://www.historyonthenet.com/history-army-air-corps.

[525] U.S. Air Force, "Welcome to the Arctic Reserve," 477th Fighter Group, accessed Sept. 17, 2021, https://www.477fg.afrc.af.mil/About-Us/477-History/.

[526] U.S. Air Force, "477th Fighter Group History."

3.2.3 Maxwell Army Air Field, Alabama

Maxwell Army Air Field was established as Aviation Repair Depot No. 3–Montgomery in 1918.[527] It was redesignated as Maxwell Field in 1922.[528] During the buildup for WWII, Maxwell Field activated the 4th Aviation Squadron, an all-Black squadron with the mission of providing security and serving “as janitors, chauffeurs, truck drivers, foot messengers, drummers, buglers, military police, and hospital and mess attendants.”[529] The 4th lived in tent cities until six barracks, an administration building, and a mess hall were constructed in 1943. The following year, three more barracks, two recreation buildings, a movie theater, and a swimming pool were built. There was also a chapel associated with the area, though the date of construction is unclear. The 4th’s area was segregated from the living areas used by white troops (Figure 123). Maxwell Field was redesignated as Maxwell AFB in 1948.[530]

Figure 123. 1966 base plan of Maxwell AFB showing segregated area for the 4th Aviation Squadron (Maxwell AFB TR).

[527] Megan W. Tooker, Ellen R. Hartman, and Adam D. Smith, *Historic Landscape Survey, Maxwell AFB, Alabama*, ERDC/CERL TR-13-12, Champaign, IL: U.S. Army Construction Engineering Research Laboratory, 2013.

[528] Robert D. Kane, “Maxwell Air Force Base and the 42nd Air Base Wing through the Years,” Air University, Aug. 23, 2017, https://www.airuniversity.af.edu/News/Display/Article/1287636/maxwell-air-force-base-and-the-42nd-air-base-wing-through-the-years/#:~:text=In%201921%2C%20US%20Congressman%20Joseph%20Lister%20Hill%20from,in%20honor%20of%202nd%20Lieutenant%20William%20C.%20Maxwell..

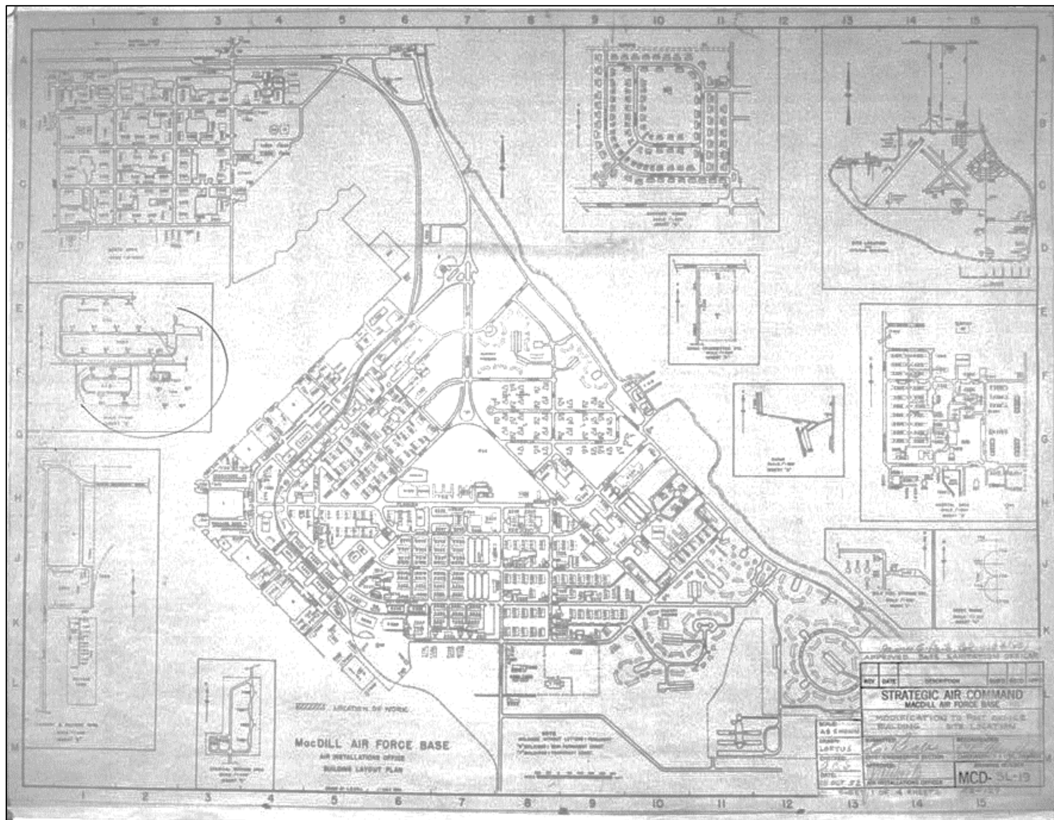
[529] Tooker, Hartman, and Smith, *Historic Landscape Survey, Maxwell AFB, Alabama*.

[530] Tooker, Hartman, and Smith, *Historic Landscape Survey, Maxwell AFB, Alabama*

3.2.4 MacDill Army Air Field, Florida

Located near Tampa, MacDill Army Air Field was established in 1939.[531] By 1942, the base was receiving African American soldiers. A second wave of base construction occurred in 1942-1943 to create a segregated area for housing these troops, mostly in the North Area of the base (Figure 124).[532]

Figure 124. Layout of MacDill AFB in 1957; the North Area on the *upper left* was the segregated African American area (Library of Congress).



By 1945, 3000 African American servicemen were stationed at MacDill AFB. These men made up 25% of the base's military population and was due to the limited options for stationing African Americans in the Army Air Forces because of racial prejudice. They were, therefore, concentrated at relatively few bases. Due to the high concentration of Black soldiers at

531 Stephen Ove, "History," MacDill Air Force Base, accessed Sept. 17, 2021, https://www.macdill.af.mil/About-Us/History/.

532 "MacDill Air Force Base, Bounded by City of Tampa North, Tampa Bay South, Old Tampa Bay West, & Hillsborough Bay East, Tampa, Hillsborough County, FL," survey (photographs, measured drawings, written historical and descriptive data, Historic American Buildings Survey, National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, compiled after 1933, from Prints and Photographs Division, Library of Congress (HABS No. FL-384; https://www.loc.gov/pictures/collection/hh/item/flo363/, accessed Oct. 13, 2021).

MacDill AFB, there was serious overcrowding in the African American part of the base. These troops also served under policies of strict segregation, along with a severe lack of Black officers.[533]

Tensions resulting from overcrowding reached a boiling point on October 27, 1946, when a riot erupted at the African American NCO club. In terms of the numbers of rioters and the amount of property damage, it was likely the largest riot on an Army Air Forces base to that point. Although efforts were made in the aftermath to improve conditions, by 1947 the percentage of African American airmen on base had increased to more than one-third with overcrowding still the norm.[534]

3.2.5 Moton Army Air Field, Alabama

African American Tuskegee pilot candidates received their initial training at Moton Field, constructed between 1940 and 1942 under a contract with the War Department (Figure 125). The field was part of the Tuskegee Institute, where the pilots trained under the oversight of Army Air Corps officers. The Army Air Corps also provided equipment for the trainee pilots. The Tuskegee Institute provided "facilities for the aircraft and personnel, including quarters and a mess for the cadets, hangars and maintenance shops, and offices for Air Corps personnel, flight instructors, ground school instructors, and mechanics."[535] Moton Field contained "two aircraft hangars, a control tower, locker building, clubhouse, wooden offices and storage buildings, brick storage buildings, and a vehicle maintenance area" (Figure 126).[536]

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[533] Paul Guzzo, "Racial tension was high at MacDill in 1940s when a black cemetery disappeared," *Tampa Bay Times*, Feb. 15, 2020, https://www.tampabay.com/news/tampa/2020/02/15/racial-tension-was-high-at-macdill-in-40s-when-a-black-cemetery-disappeared/.

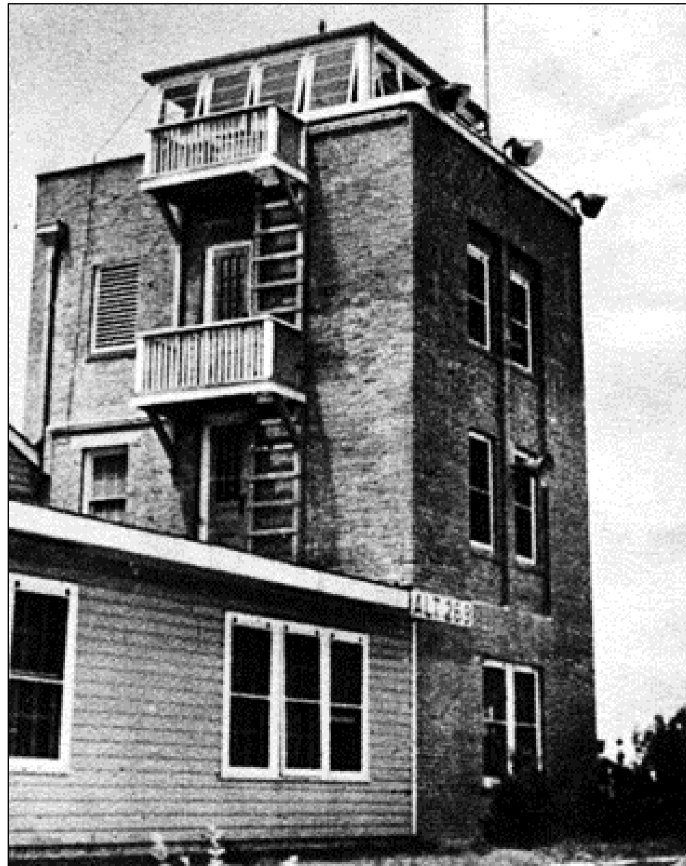
[534] Gropman, *The Air Force Integrates, 1945-1964*, 32, 65, 71.

[535] National Park Service, "Moton Field."

[536] National Park Service, "Moton Field."

Figure 125. Cadets arriving and departing Moton Field, n.d. (Air Force Historical Research Agency).

Figure 126. Control Tower at Moton Field, n.d. (Air Force Historical Research Agency).



3.2.6 Selfridge Army Air Field, Michigan

An existing aviation field was taken over by the Michigan National Guard on July 1, 1917 and named Selfridge Field. Flights from the field commenced seven days later.[537] During the war, the field was used to train aerial gunners and aircraft mechanics.[538]

In WWII, the 332nd Fighter Group, or Tuskegee Airmen, received advanced combat training at Selfridge Field from March through December 1943. Once they had departed, the 477th Medium Bombardment Group was the primary African American aviation group on base. The 477th was given substandard facilities and excluded from the Post Exchange and officers' club, stemming from 1st Air Force Commander General Frank O.D. Hunter's directive to avoid all mixing of races at bases under his command.[539] The Black officers at Selfridge protested the denied access to the club, and the base command decided a "separate but equal" club would be built for them. The unit, however, was transferred to Godman Field, Kentucky (see 3.2.2), before the club was completed.[540]

3.2.7 Tuskegee Army Air Field, Alabama

Tuskegee Army Air Field is the facility most often associated with the Tuskegee Airmen of WWII. The field was constructed in 1941 and was the site for flight training for all African American single or multi-engine aircraft pilot trainees from 1942 to 1946, both fighter and bomber. After preliminary training at Tuskegee Institute's Moton Field (see 3.2.5), the trainees transferred to the Army Air Forces facility. A total of 992 pilots trained at the Air Field. The African American ground crews that began training at Chanute AFB in 1941 were transferred to the Tuskegee Army Air Field in 1942 where ground crew training was subsequently based. Tuskegee Army Air Field was a full-fledged Army air field, but it was segregated and remained that way until its closure in 1946 (Figure 127 and Figure 128).[541]

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537 U.S. Air Force, "History & Heritage," 127th Wing, accessed Oct. 13, 2021, https://www.127wg.ang.af.mil/About-Us/History-Heritage/.

538 Selfridge Military Air Museum, "History of Selfridge Air National Guard Base and the Selfridge Military Air Museum," accessed Sept. 23, 2021, https://selfridgeairmuseum.org/selfridge-ang-history/.

539 U.S. Air Force, "Welcome to the Arctic Reserve."

540 J. Todd Moye, *Freedom Flyers: The Tuskegee Airmen of World War II*, (New York: Oxford University Press, 2010), 126-127.

541 U.S. Air Force, "Welcome to the Arctic Reserve."

Figure 127. Barracks for aviation cadets and enlisted men assigned to Tuskegee Army Air Field, n.d. (Air Force Historical Research Agency).

Figure 128. Aerial of Tuskegee Army Air Field, 1944 (Air Force Historical Research Agency).

3.3 Navy Department

The Navy began constructing shore installations in an organized fashion following the establishment of the Bureau of Naval Yards and Docks in 1842; however, the Navy's oldest shore station is the Washington Navy Yard, established in 1799.[542] Beginning in 1881, the Department of the Navy also began to establish shore training stations. Before this point, training occurred on-ship.[543] Like Army construction, Navy construction during the Civil War and both World Wars was temporary.[544]

3.3.1 Camp Allen, Virginia

African American Seabees were first recruited at Camp Allen in April 1942. As Seabee recruits were usually skilled craftsmen before entering the Navy, recruit training focused on military aspects. Camp Allen was the first base for training Seabees. It was constructed as part of the Naval Operating Base, Norfolk and was opened as the U.S. Naval Construction Training Center, Naval Operating Base, Norfolk in March 1942 (Figure 129).[545] The first group of 880 African American Seabee trainees arrived at Camp Allen that September. They had segregated facilities and were commanded by white officers.[546]

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[542] Jeffrey S. Gray, "A Glimpse Back at the Important Role of the U.S. Navy Shore Enterprise through History," Commander, Navy Installations Command, Oct. 1, 2021, https://www.cnic.navy.mil/news/news_releases/a-glimpse-back-at-the-important-role-of-the-u-s--navy-shore-ente.html.

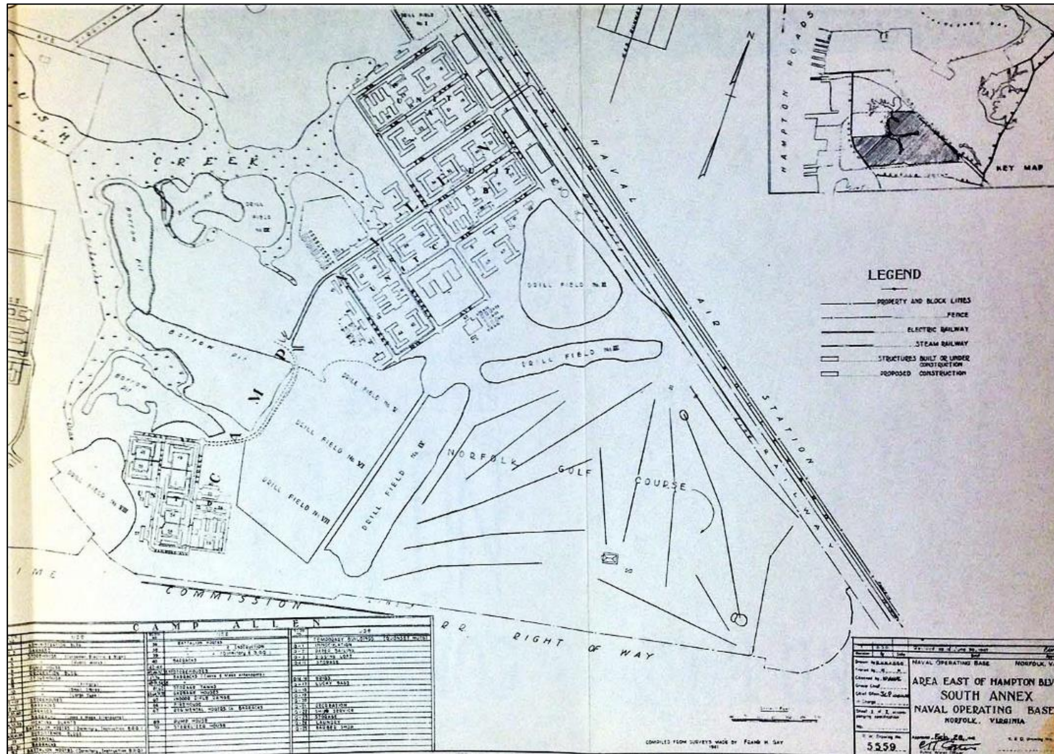
[543] Naval Facilities Engineering Systems Command, "Washington Navy Yard," Environmental, accessed March 5, 2022, https://www.navfac.navy.mil/products_and_services/ev/products_and_services/env_restoration/installation_map/navfac_atlantic/washington/washington_navy_yard.html#:~:text=The%20Washington%20Navy%20Yard%20%28WNY%29%20is%20the%20Navy%E2%80%99s,on%20approximately%2063%20acres%20in%20southeastern%20Washington%2C%20DC.

[544] Naval History and Heritage Command, "Building the Navy's Bases in World War II, vol. I (part I)," Building the Navy's Bases in World War II, Feb. 13, 2018, https://www.history.navy.mil/research/library/online-reading-room/title-list-alphabetically/b/building-the-navys-bases/building-the-navys-bases-vol-1.html.

[545] U.S. Bureau of Yards and Docks, *The Navy's Bases in World War II: History of the Bureau of Yards and Docks and the Civil Engineer Corps 1940-1946*, vol. I (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1947), 138.

[546] Blazich Jr., "Building for a Nation and Equality."

Figure 129. Map of Camp Allen, 1942 (Hampton Roads Naval Museum).



3.3.2 Camp Rousseau, California

After training, Seabees were transferred to the U.S. Navy Seabee Advance Base Receiving Barracks Camp Rousseau, California, for outfitting before shipping out for the Pacific. The camp was part of the Port Hueneme Naval Base and was completed in 1942. African American Seabees at Camp Rousseau were quartered in a segregated area with separate barracks, mess linens, and mess huts. When the first African American naval construction battalion, the 34th, returned from deployment to the Solomon Islands, they conducted a hunger strike in response to the segregated facilities. This resulted in a change of commanders and somewhat improved conditions.[547]

3.3.3 Hampton Roads, Virginia

Beginning in 1942, African American Naval recruits were able to serve as more than just messmen. From that point forward, upon completing training, the recruits were usually either sent to a shore installation, to a Navy Yard or other Navy industrial facility, or to a school for specialized

547 Blazich Jr., "Building for a Nation and Equality."

training. Though Black recruits could now do more duties in the Navy, Navy policy continued to prevent their integration into white training schools; therefore, African American sailors were assigned to further their training at segregated private educational facilities. The most well-known of these was the Hampton Institute, in Hampton, Virginia. The Institute was geographically close to the major concentration of naval facilities in the Norfolk/Hampton Roads area and was historically a university for the technical education and training of Black men.[548]

3.3.4 Hunter College Naval Training School, New York

The women's college located in the Bronx was loaned to the U.S. Navy starting in 1943 for the duration of WWII. It was the major training site for members of the Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Services (WAVES), and in 1944 began integrated training for Black WAVES.[549]

3.3.5 Naval Ammunition Depot Mare Island, California, and Port Chicago Naval Magazine, California

Two hundred African American seamen were transferred for duty at Naval Ammunition Depot Mare Island, California, in December 1942 as the Navy geared up to place African Americans in ratings other than steward.[550] An ammunition depot was created in 1942 as an annex to the Mare Island Naval Shipyard and Mare Island Ammunition Magazine. Named Port Chicago Naval Magazine, the facility was the site of a massive explosion during the war which killed or injured many African American naval personnel. Although African American sailors were stationed at Port

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[548] M.C. Farrington, "Hampton Institute and the Navy during the Second World War, Part I: The Crisis," Hampton Roads Naval Museum, March 5, 2018, https://hamptonroadsnavalmuseum.blogspot.com/2018/03/hampton-institute-and-navy-during.html; M.C. Farrington, "Hampton Institute and the Navy during the Second World War, Part II: The Compromise," Hampton Roads Naval Museum, March 28, 2018, https://hamptonroadsnavalmuseum.blogspot.com/2018/03/hampton-institute-and-navy-in-second.html.

[549] Janet Butler Munch, "Making Waves in the Bronx: The Story of the U.S. Naval Training School (WR) at Hunter College," *The Bronx County Historical Society* no. 1 (Spring 1993): 1-15, https://academicworks.cuny.edu/le_pubs/195/.

[550] Bureau of Naval Personnel, Memorandum to Naval Training Station Great Lakes, IL, November 30, 1942, RG 24, Bureau of Naval Personnel, General Correspondence 1941-1945, Box 1582, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, D.C.

Chicago Naval Magazine, nothing in the archival record indicated a geographically segregated area for African Americans.[551]

3.3.6 Naval Ammunition Depot Earle, New Jersey

Naval Ammunition Deport Earle was founded in August 1943 to provide an ammunition loading site for New York City. Located near the coast in New Jersey, it was far enough away to provide safety for the city in case of an explosion. The facility was opened in December 1943.[552] Although African American sailors were stationed at Naval Ammunition Depot Earle, an existing 1944 installation map shows no areas marked off for African American segregation purposes.

3.3.7 U.S. Naval Training Center Great Lakes, Illinois

In 1881, the Department of the Navy began establishing shore training stations. That year, A training center was established in Newport, Rhode Island, and this was followed by a new site in the Midwest in 1911. Located on the shore of Lake Michigan, the U.S. Naval Training Center Great Lakes was 172 acres in size. By the end of WWI, the center had grown to 1,200 acres. It had trained 125,000 sailors during the war. During WWII, that number rose to 1 million, and the installation had grown to 1,600 acres containing 17 separate camps.[553]

With the Navy opening some ranks to African Americans, U.S. Naval Training Center Great Lakes was designated as the recruit training installation for these sailors, and it also offered some training in Navy specialties. The first of these recruits arrived on June 5, 1942. Some of the boot camp graduates went on to “Negro Service Schools” on site.[554]

The desire to locate African American sailors in a spatially separate area led to the decision to utilize a section of buildings already partially under construction, located somewhat apart from others and easily bounded (Figure 130 and Figure 131). The initial composition of what became Camp

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[551] Concord Community Reuse Project, “History of the Concord Naval Weapons Station,” About, accessed Oct. 5, 2021, https://www.concordreuseproject.org/149/History-of-the-Concord-Naval-Weapons-Sta.

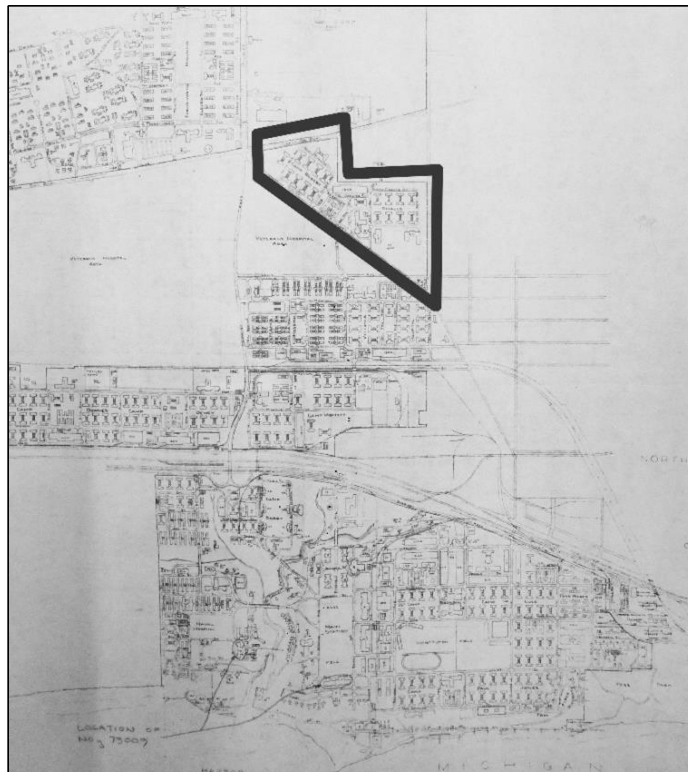
[552] MilitaryBases.com, “Earle Naval Weapons Station,” New Jersey Military Bases, accessed Oct. 9, 2021, http://www.militarybases.us/navy/earle-naval-weapons-station/.

[553] U.S. Navy, “History,” Naval Station Great Lakes.

[554] U.S. Navy, “History,” Naval Station Great Lakes.

Robert Smalls contained 16 barracks for 3,840 men with "two additional barracks of 400 men capacity for Ship's Company. In addition, there is the usual Subsistence Building, recreation building, Administration and Drill Hall, Dispensary, Guard House, etc...."[555] Initial occupancy of the camp was set for June 1, 1942. Over 7,000 sailors attended the Camp Smalls Service Schools. An experimental program in 1944 to integrate some African American students with the other Great Lakes Service Schools was successful, and all training was subsequently integrated. Another important event that year was the appointment of 13 African Americans as naval officers who were sent to Camp Smalls for training.[556]

Figure 130. 1953 map showing Camp Robert Smalls, U.S. Naval Training Center, Great Lakes (*outlined*) (NARA RG 71-CA, Box 144).



[555] John Downes, Commandant, Headquarters Ninth Naval District, Great Lakes, Illinois, letter to Chief of the Bureau of Navigation, April 17, 1942, RG 24, Bureau of Naval Personnel, General Correspondence 1941-1945, Box 1475, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, D.C.

[556] U.S. Navy, "History."

Figure 131. Detail of 1953 map showing Camp Robert Smalls, U.S. Naval Training Center Great Lakes (NARA RG 71-CA, Box 144).

3.4 Marine Corps

Marine Barracks Washington, D.C., is the oldest active Marine Corps Base (MCB), having been established in 1801.[557] The second oldest, Parris Island, was established in 1861. Like other branches of the Military Services, construction during the Civil War, WWI, and WWII was primarily temporary.[558]

3.4.1 Marine Corps Base Quantico, Virginia

Following the passing of the Selective Service Act in 1942, the number of Black Marines increased. As a result, the facilities at Montford Point Camp (see section 3.4.2) were no longer adequate to house of the African Americans enlisted in the Marine Corps. To remedy this problem, the Marine Corps constructed the segregated Chopawamsic Annex at MCB Quantico in 1943 to house Black Marines (Figure 132). "Chopawamsic Annex was intentionally located at the south end of the base, away from

557 "U.S. Marine Corps, "8th and I," Marine Barracks Washington, D.C., accessed March 5, 2022, https://www.barracks.marines.mil/.

558 U.S. Marine Corps, "History of Parris Island," Marine Corps Recruit Depot, Parris Island, accessed March 5, 2022, https://www.mcrdpi.marines.mil/About/History-of-Parris-Island/.

other barracks, administrative and Marine School buildings, and the main entrance."[559] In addition to its geographic segregation, the Annex was self-supporting, with housing, a dining facility, and a movie theater, which preventing African American Marines from going elsewhere on-base for off-duty needs.[560]

Figure 132. Chopawamsic Annex, 1945 (MCB Quantico).

3.4.2 Montford Point Camp (now known as Camp Gilbert H. Johnson), Camp LeJeune, North Carolina

African Americans had been denied the right to serve in the Marine Corps since its founding in 1798. By the time the United States entered WWII, social pressures and manpower needs resulted in opening the ranks to Black men. The Marine Corps kept these recruits strictly segregated, constructing an entire camp for them on a far corner of USMC Camp Lejeune, North Carolina (Figure 133 and Figure 134). All African American USMC recruits during WWII were trained at this facility, named Montford Point Camp. The camp remained the only USMC recruit training center exclusively for African Americans until the desegregation of the Military

[559] Geoffrey Burt, David Dubois, Susan Enscore, and Mira Metzinger, *Inventory and Evaluation of Historic Structures and Landscapes at Marine Corps Combat Development Command and Naval Regional Medical Clinic Quantico, Virginia, Volume 1*, ERDC/CERL Report, Champaign, IL: U.S. Army Construction Engineering Research Laboratories, 1994.

[560] Burt, et al., *Inventory and Evaluation of Historic Structures and Landscapes at Marine Corps Combat Development Command and Naval Regional Medical Clinic Quantico, Virginia, Volume 1*.

Services in 1948, with a total of approximately 20,000 new Marines passing through the camp.[561]

Figure 133. African American Marines outside a Battalion Headquarters building, Montford Point Camp, WWII (Montford Point Marine Museum).

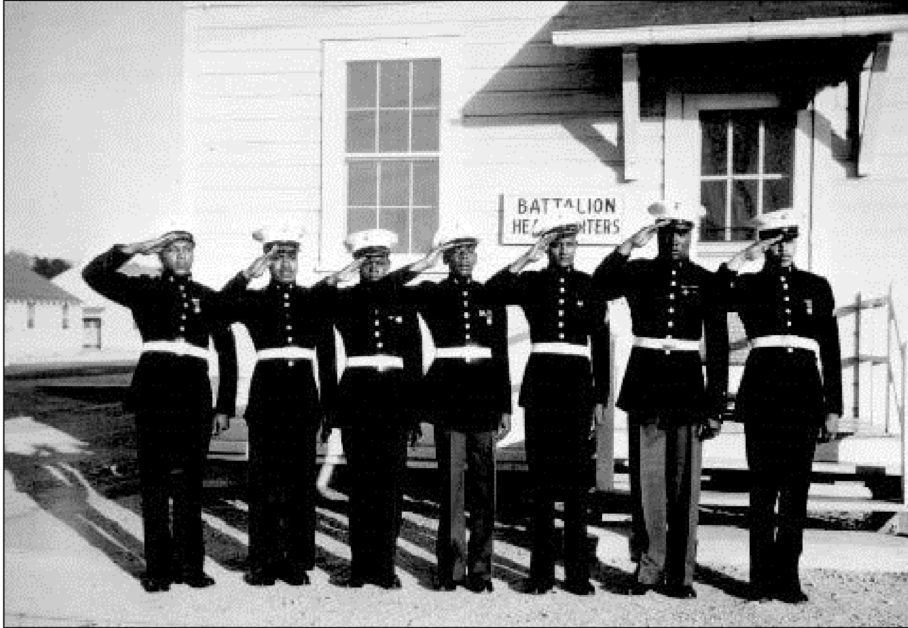


Figure 134. Marines train in vital methods of “life preservation,” 1944 (NARA).

[561] Bielakowski, ed., *Ethnic and Racial Minorities in the U.S. Military*, vol. 2, 441-442.

Montford Point Camp initially consisted of a headquarters building, a chapel, a mess hall, two warehouses, a dispensary, a steam generating plant, a motor pool, a barber shop, a snack bar, a small club, a theater, and 120 green-painted prefabricated huts for housing. There were also separate quarters and recreational facilities for the white men who initially staffed the camp. These white men were needed as administrators and instructors at the camp, as Black Marines were barred from taking administrative courses alongside white Marines. Therefore, there were not enough Black administrators to staff the camp after its construction.[562]

Additionally, to maintain a completely segregated camp commanded by white officers but with no enlisted white men, the Marine Corps was required to promote many African American recruits to NCO status. Promotions were based on classification tests, formal examinations, and ratings from superiors.[563]

Some of the units that trained at Montford Point Camp include the 51st Composite Defense Battalion, organized on August 18, 1942, and trained for combat duty until December 1942. The 51st became an anti-aircraft unit, as did the following 52nd Defense Battalion.[564] Numbers of African American Marines declined drastically after the war. In 1946, the USMC opened recruitment to African American volunteers. These recruits were also trained at Montford Point. The original huts housing the first recruits during the war were demolished, and training for the volunteers continued at Montford Point Camp in the Steward's Branch camp that had excess space.[565] The 1943 expanded construction at Montford Point Camp erected tile block buildings with stucco veneers along with standard WWII temporary wooden types.[566]

[562] Bernard C. Nalty, *The Right to Fight: African-American Marines in World War II*, RG 22.25A Black Military History-9th/10th Cav., FF #1, Chamberlin Library, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center.

[563] Nalty, *The Right to Fight*.

[564] Montford Point Marine Association, Inc., "History of Montford Point Marines," National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, D.C.

[565] Shaw, Jr. and Donnelly, *Blacks in the Marine Corps*, 49.

[566] Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, *ACHP 106 Success Story: Montford Point Camp Shares History of First African American Marines, Camp Lejeune, Jacksonville, North Carolina*, Washington, DC: Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, July 2018, https://www.achp.gov/sites/default/files/2018-07/Montfordfinal.pdf.

3.4.3 Naval Ammunition Depot, McAlester, Oklahoma

Black marines that had been trained at Montford Point Camp (see 3.4.2) in ammunition, depot companies, and Black security detachments were assigned here during WWII.[567]

3.4.4 Philadelphia Depot of Supplies, Pennsylvania

Black marines that had been trained at Montford Point Camp (see 3.4.2) in ammunition companies, depot companies, and Black security detachments were assigned here during WWII.[568]

3.4.5 Camp Pendleton, California

Camp Pendleton Marine Corps Base was established in April 1942 when a large ranch was purchased to provide amphibious force training. The training base joined Quantico, Virginia; San Diego, California; and Parris Island, South Carolina in training Marine recruits. It was declared a permanent installation in 1944, and subsequently has become the largest Marine Corps Base in the United States.[569]

A special Marine Corps unit defined by ethnicity was organized for Native Americans, the Navajo Code Talkers. Building on the success of Choctaw code talkers in WWI, the Marine Corps sought to use Navajo to secure communications because it is an unwritten language great complexity. Major General Clayton B. Vogel and his staff conducted a test in early 1942 to see if Navajo could be used securely and rapidly. The successful test led to the Marine Corps recruiting 200 Navajo men. After boot camp in May 1942, the first 29 recruits created the code at Camp Pendleton, California (Figure 135). Once a recruit completed training, they were deployed to the Pacific theater. Their efforts to provide secure communications, transmitting information in an unbreakable code, provided a huge advantage to U.S. troops. By 1945, approximately 400 Navajo individuals had been trained as code talkers.[570] They participated in every Marine Corps assault in the Pacific from 1942 to 1945, serving in "all six Marine

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567 MacGregor, *Integration of the Armed Forces, 1940-1965*, 109.

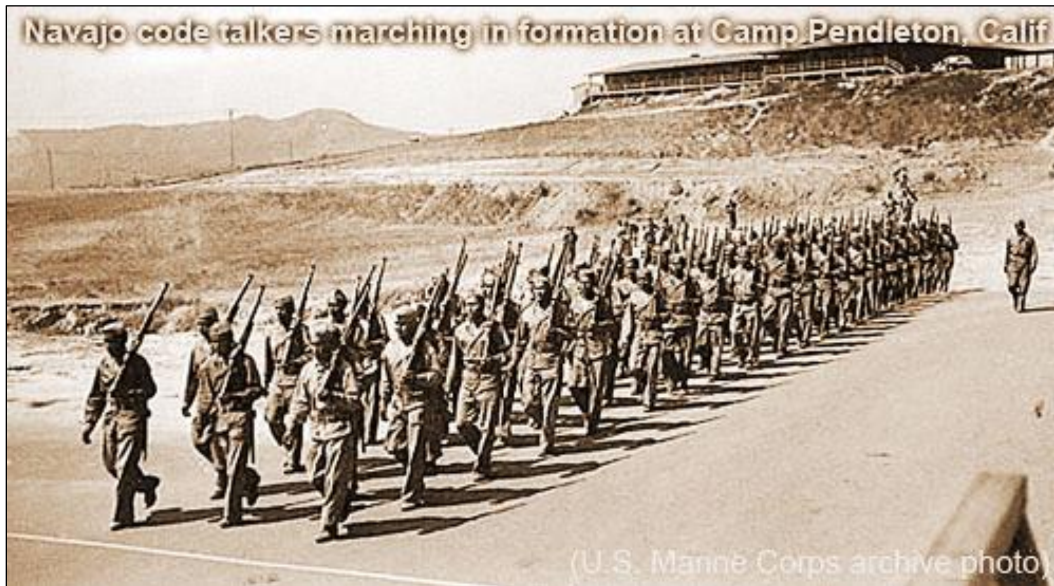
568 MacGregor, *Integration of the Armed Forces, 1940-1965*, 109.

569 U.S. Marine Corps, "History," Marine Corps Base Camp Pendleton, accessed Sept. 27, 2021, https://www.pendleton.marines.mil/About/History-and-Museums/.

570 Naval History and Heritage Command, "Navajo Cold Talkers: World War II Fact Sheet."

divisions, Marine Raider battalions and Marine parachute units."[571] The Navajo Code Talkers served in integrated units when deployed.[572]

Figure 135. Navajo Code Talkers training at Camp Pendleton, during WWII (U.S. Marine Corps).



[571] PBS, "Latino & Native Americans."

[572] PBS, "Latino & Native Americans."

4 Current Conditions

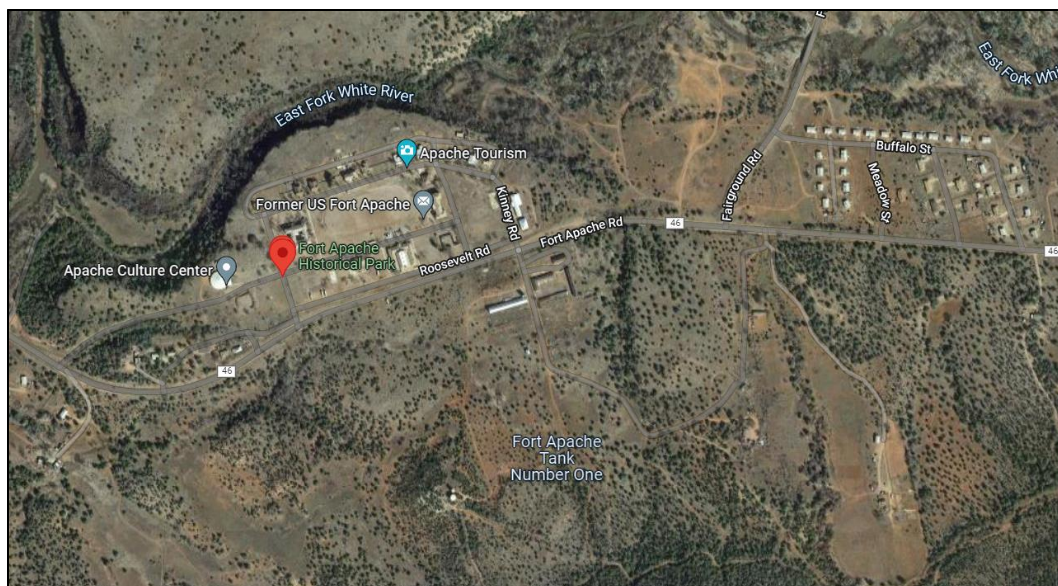
The following chapter discusses select places described in Chapter 3; reviews past research conducted on those places and their current listing status on the NRHP; and shows recent aerial images of those places.

4.1 War Department

4.1.1 Fort Apache, Arizona

Fort Apache is listed on the NRHP as the Fort Apache Historic District (Figure 136). It is not part of the DoD inventory. White Mountain Indian Reservation contains and manages the Fort Apache Historic District. The district contains more than 30 structures, including a headquarters building, barracks, corrals, storehouses, a guardhouse, a magazine, stables, and a cemetery related to Fort Apache.[573] It is unclear which, if any, of these structures were affiliated with ethnic minority soldiers.

Figure 136. Aerial image of the Fort Apache Historic District (Google Maps, accessed 3/10/2022).

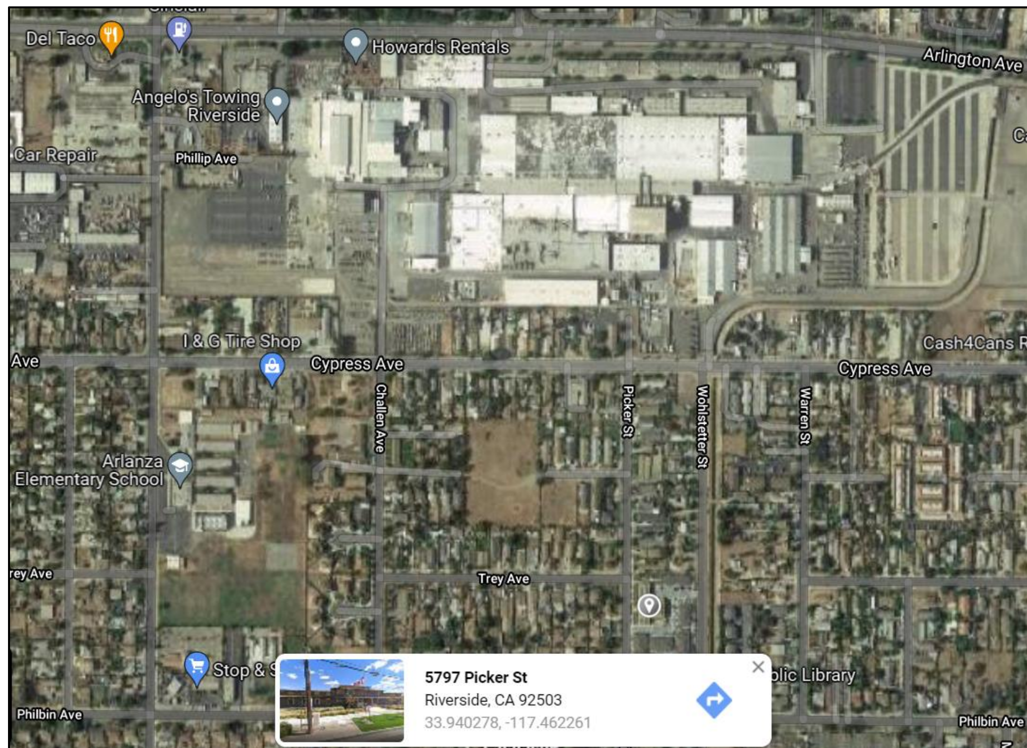


[573] National Park Service, "Fort Apache Historic District," American Southwest, accessed March 5, 2022, https://www.nps.gov/nr/travel/amsw/sw11.htm; White Mountain Apache Tribe, "Fort Apache Historical Park," Apache Cultural Center and Museum, accessed March 3, 2022, https://whitemountainapache.org/fortapache/.

4.1.2 Camp Anza, California

After Camp Anza was decommissioned in 1946, the buildings were sold to private owners. The barracks were primarily converted into private housing, though some were converted to commercial or religious uses. Many of these have been significantly modified, and new construction has been built as infill between the former barracks. The headquarters, officers' club, laundry facility, and chapel were also converted to other uses. One service club and two mess halls were demolished; however, many of the remaining non-barracks buildings retain their historic integrity. The white Officers' Club was restored as community club for a veterans housing facility. Today, Camp Anza, in what is now the Arlanza neighborhood of Riverside, CA, appears to be a typical post-WWII neighborhood, rather than a military base (Figure 137).[574] It is unclear which, if any, of the extant structures were affiliated with ethnic minority structures.

Figure 137. Aerial image of the Camp Anza cantonment today (Google Maps, accessed 1/28/2016).

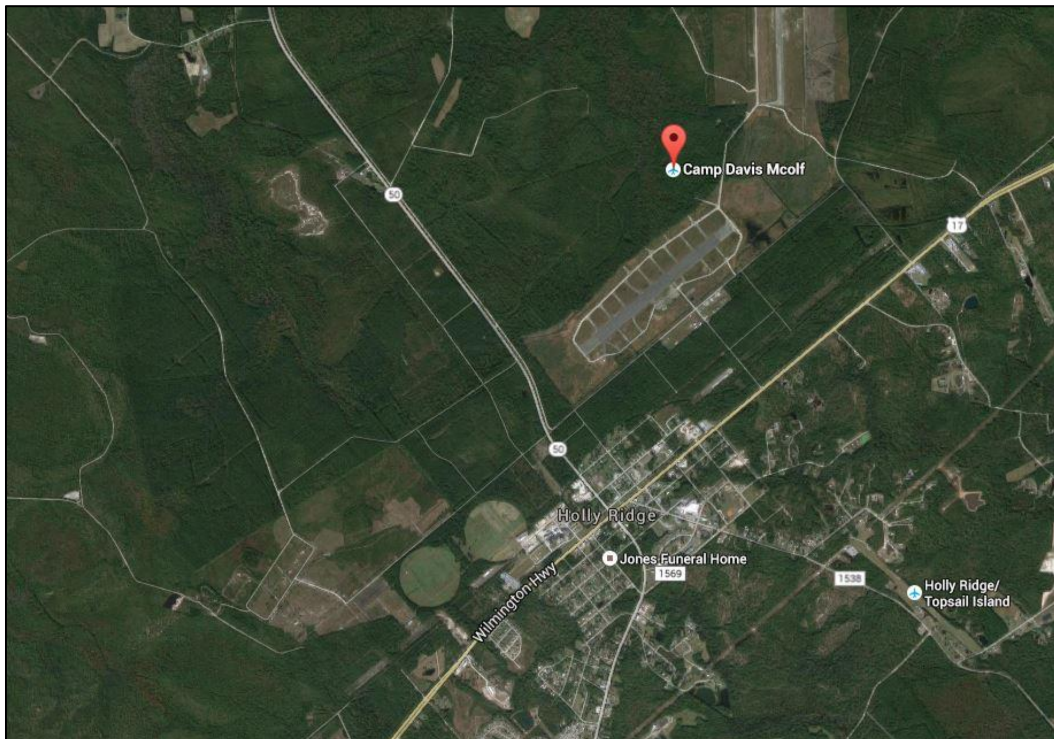


[574] Galvin Preservation Associates, "City of Riverside Camp Anza/Arlanza 2006-2007 Certified Local Government Grant Historical Resources Inventory and Context Statement," Riverside, CA: City of Riverside Planning Division, Sept. 2007, https://riversideca.gov/historic/pdf/Surveys/camp-anza.pdf.

4.1.3 Camp Davis, North Carolina

After Camp Davis was declared surplus to Army needs, it became a Naval Ordnance Test Facility. This was closed, though, in 1948. All leased properties were then returned to their original owners. Many buildings were auctioned off and dismantled. As of 1990, some buildings including a fire station and barracks remained; however, today, nothing is left of the WWII cantonment (Figure 138).[575] It is unclear which, if any, of the extant structures were affiliated with ethnic minority structures.

Figure 138. Aerial image of the Camp Davis cantonment today (Google Maps, accessed 1/28/2016).



4.1.4 Fort Davis, Texas

Today, Fort Davis is a National Historic Site (Figure 139). Numerous historic structures are extant in various conditions.[576] The relationship between these structures and the African American regiments who were

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[575] David A. Stallman, *A History of Camp Davis*, Camp Davis, TX: April 1990, https://texashistory.unt.edu/ark:/67531/metapth877302/m1/20/.

[576] National Park Service, "Historic Structures," Fort Davis National Historic Site Texas, last modified Nov. 12, 2021, https://www.nps.gov/foda/planyourvisit/historic-structures.htm.

stationed at Fort Davis is unclear, though many of the buildings were likely constructed by Buffalo Soldiers.[577]

Figure 139. Aerial image of Fort Davis cantonment area today (Google Maps, accessed 3/11/2022).

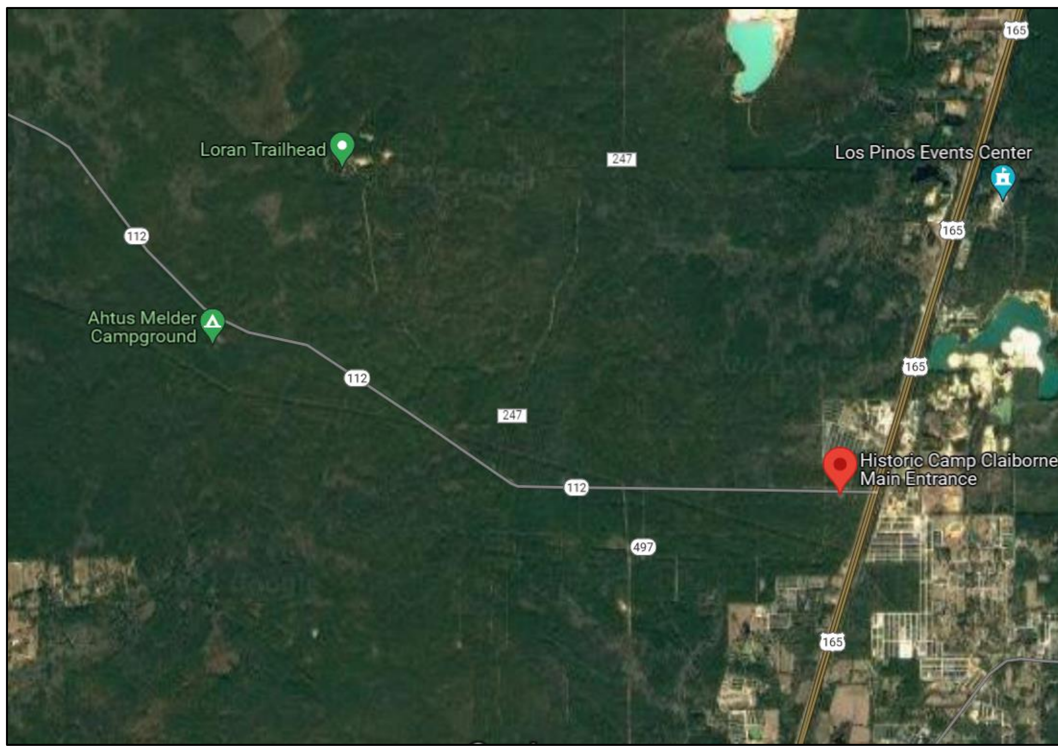
4.1.5 Camp Claiborne, Louisiana

Camp Claiborne was closed in 1946 and returned to the Kisatchie National Forest (Figure 140). Many of the structures were dismantled and sold as scrap. Remnants of the camp within the national forest include a marker to the former entrance, as well as markers indicating the former locations of buildings.[578]

[577] National Park Service, "African Americans in the Frontier Army;"

[578] Kali Martin, "Louisiana Spotlight: Camp Claiborne," The National WWII Museum, June 9, 2020, https://www.nationalww2museum.org/war/articles/louisiana-camp-claiborne.

Figure 140. Aerial image of the Camp Claiborne cantonment today (Google Maps, accessed 1/28/2016).



4.1.6 Fort Belvoir, Virginia

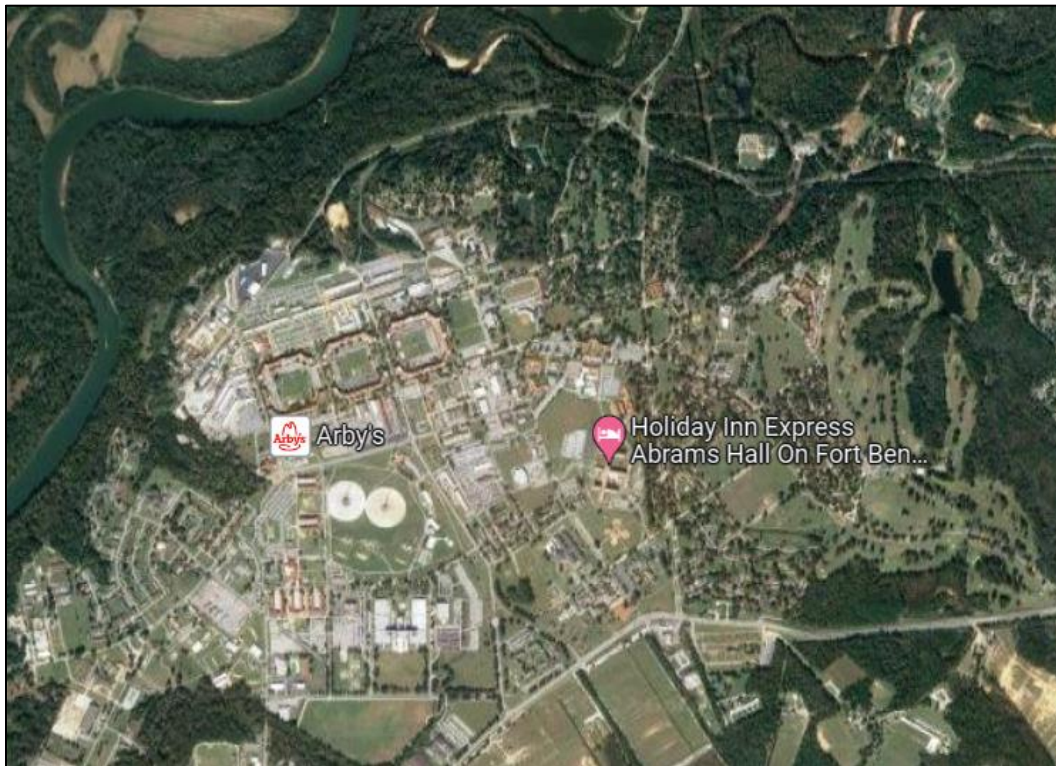
The segregated areas as marked on the historic maps in the archival record (see 3.1.4) have been built over through the years. The buildings are no longer extant.

4.1.7 Fort Benning, Georgia

Many buildings associated with the all-Black 24th Infantry Regiment at Fort Benning are still extant (Figure 141). Such structures include the regimental theater, which was constructed in 1933; the barracks and regimental headquarters, both built in 1935; the Indiantown Housing Area, consisting of 18 bungalows built in 1931 as segregated family housing for Black NCOs; and the 24th Infantry Regiment Post Exchange, built in 1937. The post exchange, theater, and barracks are located adjacent to each other at the west end of the post's "Cuartels." The Indianhead Housing Area is located just southwest of this area and also contains the quarters of 1SG Walter Morris. Morris was the first Black soldier selected for parachute duty and the first Senior NCO of the 555th Parachute Infantry Company. He lived at the house, constructed in 1931, from 1943

to 1944.[579] An online historic trail with detailed information regarding all the extant African American soldier-related sites at Fort Benning is available at: https://www.benning.army.mil/MCoE/Historic-Trail/.

Figure 141. Aerial image of the Fort Benning cantonment today (Google Maps, accessed 3/10/2022).



4.1.8 Fort Bragg, California

The African American NCO Service Club and Guest House were built as segregated recreational facilities at Fort Bragg between 1945 and 1946. Following the Military Services' integration in 1948, the buildings came to be used as an integrated NCO Club and administrative offices. These uses remained until 2001. Historic American Buildings Survey (HABS) documentation was completed in November 2003 prior to the buildings' demolition (Figure 142).[580]

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[579] Fort Benning, "Fort Benning Historic Trail," Army.mil, accessed March 8, 2022, https://www.benning.army.mil/MCoE/Historic-Trail/.

[580] Adam Smith, Steven D. Smith, and Martin J. Stupich, *Historic American Buildings Survey: African American World War II Noncommissioned Officer's Service Club Complex*, ERDC-CERL MP-03-6, Champaign, IL: U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Construction Engineering Research Laboratories, 2003.

Figure 142. African American NCO Service Club and Guest House HABS photo, 2001 (Smith, Smith, and Stupich, *Historic American Buildings Survey: African American World War II Noncommissioned Officer's Service Club Complex*).

4.1.9 Fort Custer, Michigan

Fort Custer was erected for WWI as Camp Custer. It was redesignated and built-up for WWII.[581] In 1968, the Michigan Department of Military and Veterans Affairs assumed management of Fort Custer.[582] The National Guard soon began to use the installation, though many existing structures were removed. In the 1970s, the installation was subdivided, with 7,500 acres left to the National Guard as the Fort Custer Training Center. Other segments of the fort were set aside as an industrial park, a state recreation area, and a national cemetery. The formerly segregated eastern portion of the fort appears to have been excessed and is now entirely in private ownership. There are a few segregated WWII-era buildings that remain in

[581] Trace Christenson, "Fort Custer reaches century mark," *Battle Creek Enquirer*, July 1, 2017, https://www.battlecreekenquirer.com/story/news/local/2017/07/01/fort-custer-reaches-century-mark/445820001/.

[582] Michigan National Guard, "Fort Custer Training Center," accessed March 8, 2022, https://www.minationalguard.com/fort-custer-training-center/.

private ownership (Figure 143–Figure 147), though none are listed on the NRHP.[583]

Figure 143. Former Fire Station #1 (Building 1040) now in private ownership (ERDC-CERL 2016).

[583] Christenson, "Fort Custer reaches century mark;" American Dreams, Inc., "Michigan – Kalamazoo County," NationalRegisterOfHistoricPlaces.com, accessed March 8, 2022, https://www.nationalregisterofhistoricplaces.com/mi/state.html.

Figure 144. Chapel (Building 651) now in private ownership (ERDC-CERL 2016).

Figure 145. Barracks (Building 603) now in private ownership (ERDC-CERL 2016).

Figure 146. Brookside Apartments on the site of the Officers' Club (Building 733), Service Club (Building 731), and Guest House (Building 732) (ERDC-CERL 2016).

Figure 147. Sewage Pump Station (Building 729) ownership unknown (possibly city of Springfield) (ERDC-CERL 2016).

4.1.10 Fort Indiantown Gap, Pennsylvania

Today, a few rusted remnants and concrete foundations of two of the three dry-land ships used to train Black stevedores at Fort Indiantown Gap remain (Figure 148 and Figure 149).[584] The barracks used by Black stevedores training on Fort Indiantown Gap's dry-land ships were extensively damaged during a blizzard in the winter of 1993-1994. At the time, the barracks were being used as a warehouse. The barracks have since been demolished.[585]

Figure 148. Location of segregated Black stevedore barracks area and dry-land ships outlined in *red*, 2021 (Google Maps, accessed 3/11/2022; outlines added by ERDC-CERL).

[584] Brozyna, "Indiantown Gap in WWII."

[585] Smoker, Jr., *Back at the Gap*, 61.

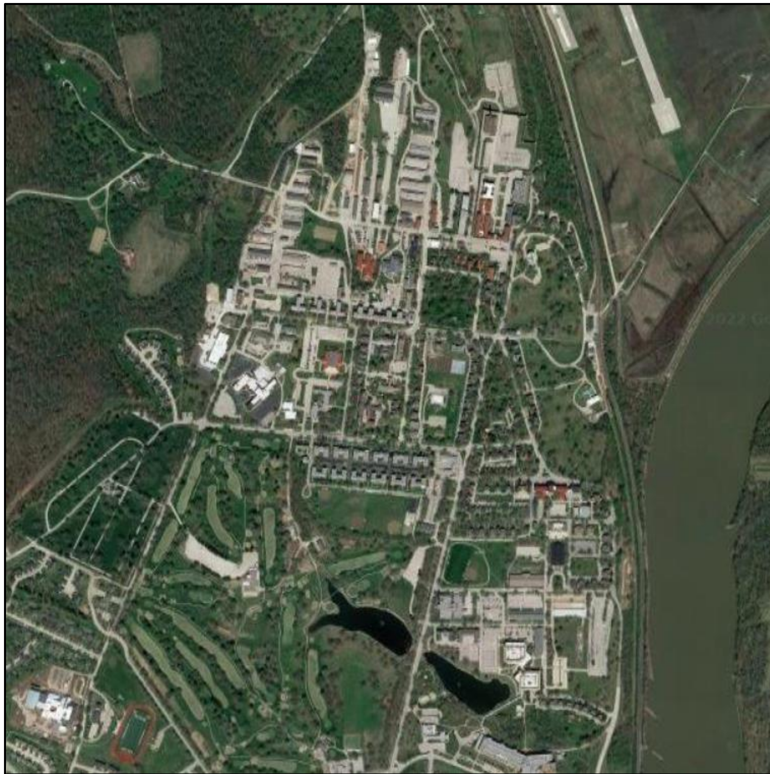
Figure 149. Concrete foundations of dry-land ships, 2020 (ERDC-CERL).

4.1.11 Fort Leavenworth, Kansas

While stationed at Fort Leavenworth between 1931 and 1940, the 1st Squadron of the 10th Cavalry lived and were headquartered in what are now Funston Hall and McNair Hall. Current Muir Hall, Flint Hall, and Gruber Gymnasium composed their stables (Figure 150).[586]

[586] Combat Studies Institute, *Buffalo Soldiers at Fort Leavenworth in the 1930s and early 1940s*, RG 22.25A Black Military History-9th/10th Cav., FF #6, Chamberlin Library, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center.

Figure 150. Aerial image of the Fort Leavenworth cantonment today (Google Maps, accessed 3/10/2022).

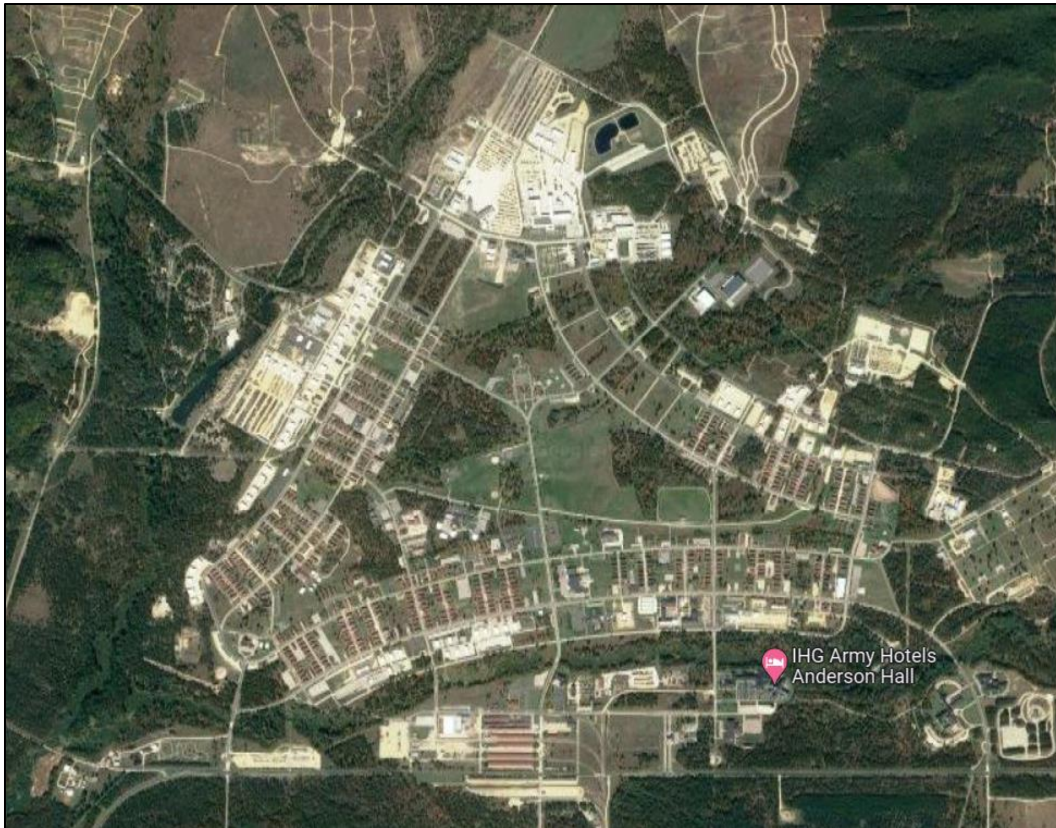


4.1.12 Camp McCoy, Wisconsin

A significant number of WWII structures remain extant at Fort McCoy (Figure 151); however, few retain integrity and are eligible for listing on the NRHP. Additionally, there is no evidence that the all-Japanese 100th Infantry Regiment from Hawaii was physically segregated at Fort McCoy, and it is unknown which barracks housed the 100th Infantry Regiment. Regardless, no extant WWII-era barracks at Fort McCoy are eligible for the NRHP.[587]

[587] Adam D. Smith and Sunny E. Adams, *Determination of NRHP Eligibility for 26 Buildings at Fort McCoy, Wisconsin*, ERDC/CERL TR-18-38, Champaign, IL: U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Construction Engineering Research Laboratory, 2018.

Figure 151. Aerial image of the Fort McCoy cantonment today (Google Maps, accessed 3/10/2022).

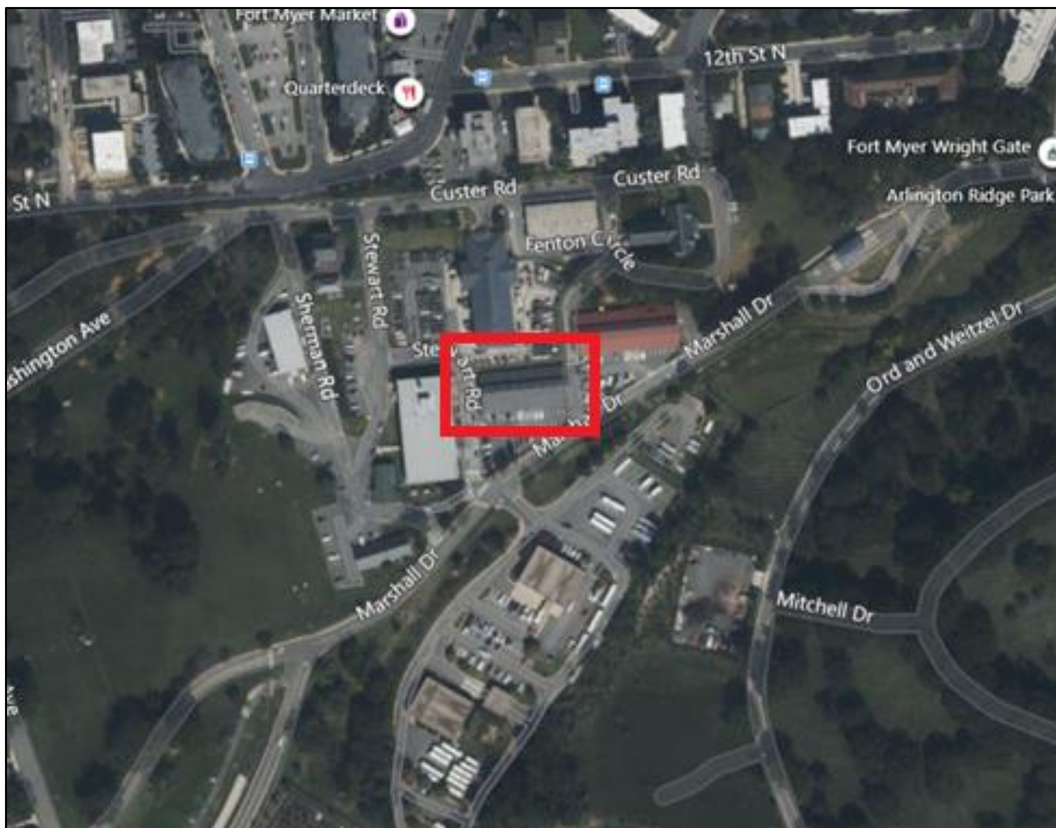


4.1.13 Fort Myer, Washington, D.C.

No buildings known to have been related to Troop "K" of the 9th Cavalry, who were stationed at Fort Myer from 1891 to 1894, are extant. One building that is believed to have served as a stable building for the Machine Gun Troop of the 10th Cavalry, stationed at Fort Myer from 1931 through the 1940s, remains extant at Fort Myer (Figure 152).[588]

[588] Batzli, *Fort Myer, Virginia: Historic Landscape Inventory*.

Figure 152. Stable building for Machine Gun Troop of the 10th Cavalry (Bing Maps, accessed 3/08/2022).



4.1.14 Presidio of Monterey, California

By 1918, China Point—the location of the Buffalo Soldiers' tent camp—was serving as Stanford University's Hopkins Marine Station. This use continues today. If corrals were located at China Point, they are no longer extant.[589] The troops' segregated barracks are still extant as Buildings 450, 451, 452, and 453. They serve as classrooms for the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center Asian School I, or the Chinese Mandarin School (Figure 153).[590]

[589] Stanford University, "Hopkins Marine Station," Stanford Libraries, accessed March 8, 2022, https://exhibits.stanford.edu/station; Letter from Margaret B. Adams to Eleanor Ramsey.

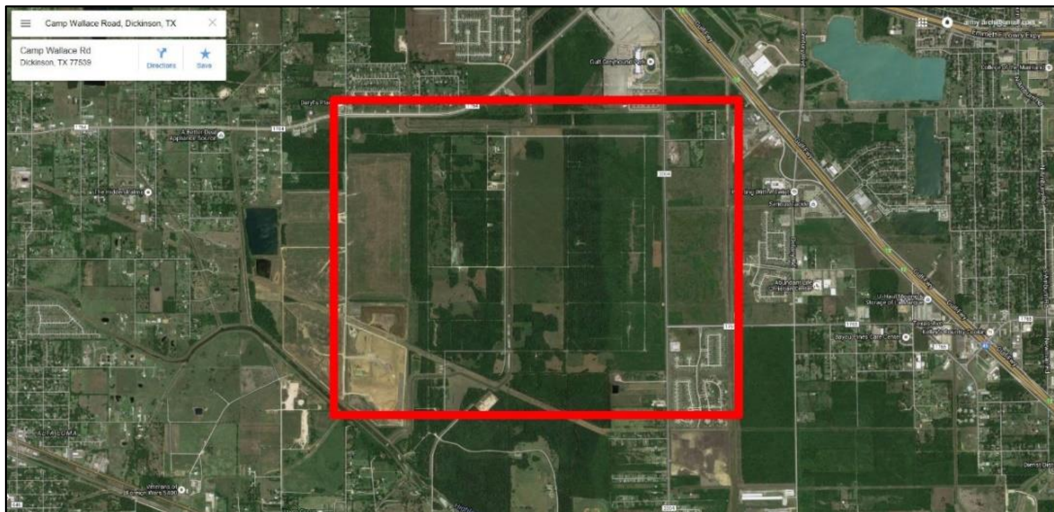
[590] Raugh, "Buffalo Soldiers at the Presidio of Monterey."

Figure 153. Aerial image of the Presidio of Monterey today (Google Maps, accessed 3/10/2022).

4.1.15 Camp Wallace, Texas

In 1946, the government declared Camp Wallace as surplus. All buildings were subsequently moved. Many were dispersed throughout adjacent communities, though what became of segregated buildings is unclear. Today, there is nothing left of Camp Wallace (Figure 154).[591]

Figure 154. Aerial image of the Camp Wallace cantonment today (Google Maps, accessed 10/9/2015).



[591] Alecya Gallaway, "Coast Country Memories of Camp Wallace," University of Houston-Clear Lake, last modified July 29, 2021, https://www.uhcl.edu/environmental-institute/research/publications/documents/2003-gallaway-coast-country-memories-camp-wallace.pdf.

4.2 Army Air Corps

4.2.1 MacDill Air Force Base (AFB), Florida

The North Area of MacDill was dismantled after the military was desegregated. Only two water pumping stations (Building 927-928) and the motor pool remain from the era of segregation at MacDill Army Air Field (Figure 155).[592]

Figure 155. Aerial image of MacDill AFB cantonment today. Formerly segregated African American area is *upper left* (Google Maps, accessed 3/11/2022).

4.2.2 Maxwell AFB, Alabama

The segregated area built for the 4th Aviation Squadron at Maxwell AFB is partially extant. The extant buildings include four barracks (Figure 156), a mess hall, and an administration building; however, as seen in historic maps (see 3.2.3), seven additional buildings were demolished in the 1970s. These buildings included three more barracks, two recreation buildings, a movie theater, and a swimming pool.[593] The six remaining buildings are listed on the NRHP as a historic district (Figure 157).[594]

[592] “MacDill Air Force Base,” HABS No. Fl-384.

[593] Tooker, Hartman, and Smith, *Historic Landscape Survey, Maxwell AFB, Alabama*.

[594] Tooker, Hartman, and Smith, *Historic Landscape Survey, Maxwell AFB, Alabama*.

Figure 156. 4th Aviation Squadron barracks, 2012 (ERDC-CERL).

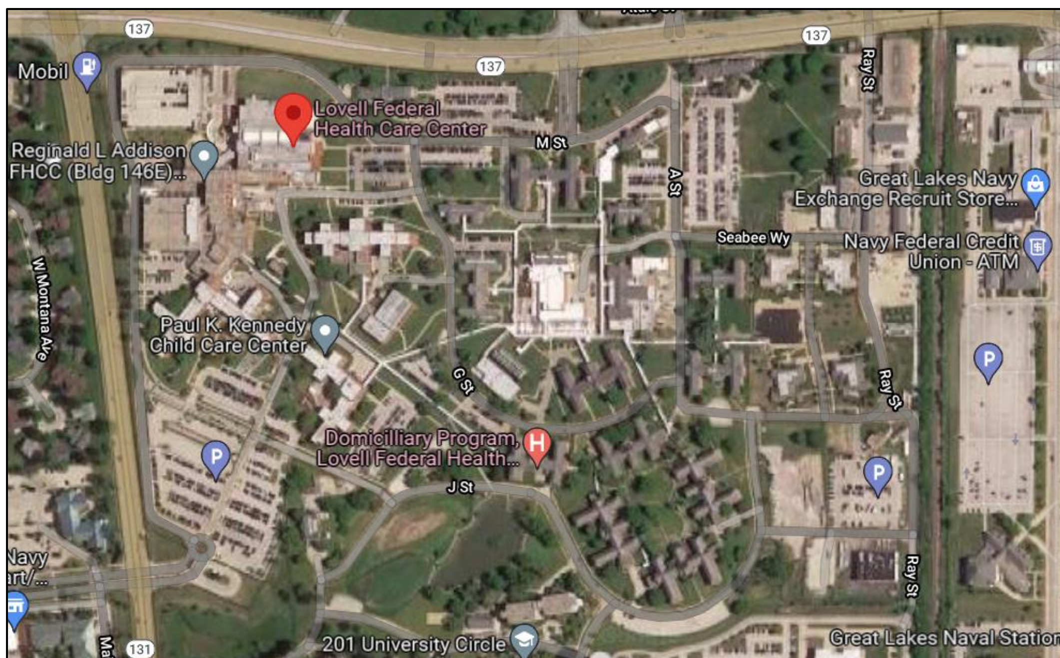
Figure 157. Eligible 4th Aviation Squadron historic district, 2012 ().

4.3 Navy Department

4.3.1 U.S. Naval Training Center Great Lakes, Illinois

The former location of Camp Robert Smalls in the western portion of the U.S. Naval Training Center was reutilized for the expansion of the North Chicago VA Medical Center (now the Captain James A. Lovell Federal Health Care Center) (Figure 158).

Figure 158. Aerial image of Camp Robert Smalls today (Google Maps, accessed 1/28/2016).



4.4 Marine Corps

4.4.1 Marine Corps Base (MCB) Quantico, Virginia

Eleven structures related to the Chopawamsic Annex at MCB Quantico are extant (Figure 159–Figure 161). This includes four barracks buildings, a former open mess and recreation hall, and administrative, office, and clinic buildings. They are listed on the NRHP as part of the Quantico Marine Corps Base Historic District.[595]

[595] Burt et al., *Inventory and Evaluation of Historic Structures and Landscapes at Marine Corps Combat Development Command and Naval Regional Medical Clinic Quantico, Virginia, Volume 1*; NRHP nomination; Susan I. Enscore, David L. Dubois, Mira Metzinger, Geoffrey Burt, and Samuel A. Batzli, "Quantico Marine Corps Base Historic District," National Register of Historic Places Nomination Form, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 2001.

Figure 159. Aerial image of MCB Quantico today. Chopawamsic Annex is outlined in *red* (Google Maps, accessed 3/11/2022).

Figure 160. Quantico MCB Historic District within Chopawamsic Annex. Buildings 3086, 3087, 3088, and 3089 were the African American barracks, 2012 (ERDC-CERL.

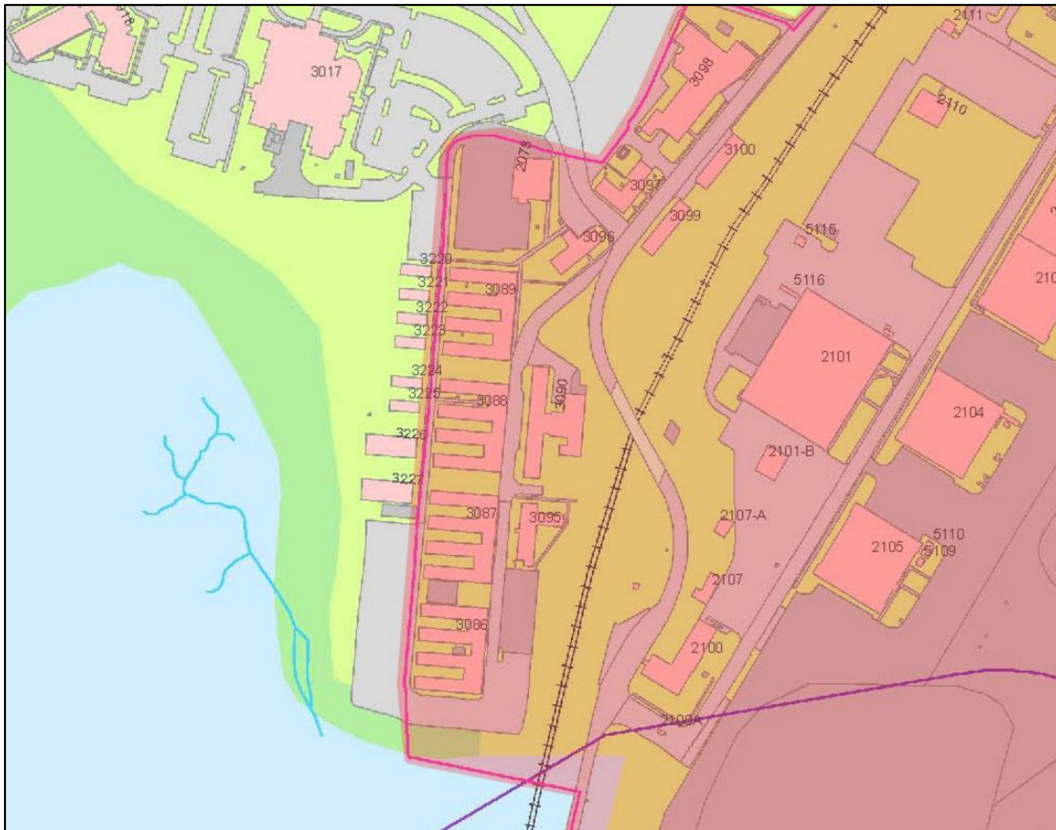


Figure 161. Detail of Chopawamsic Annex today (Google Maps, accessed 3/11/2022).

4.4.2 Montford Point, Marine Corps Base, Camp Lejeune, NC

The Montford Point area in the Camp Johnston portion of Camp Lejeune is now Camp Lejeune's Camp No. 1 Historic District and Camp Nos. 2/2a Historic District.[596] It is also home to the Montford Point Marines Museum, which is located in Building M101, a former mess hall.[597] Many of the original structures utilized for training African American Marines in the WWII period are extant and contained within the two historic districts (Figure 162 and Figure 163).[598]

Additionally, restoration projects slated for completion in 2022 have been ongoing since 2019, following the fall 2018 landfall of Hurricane Florence. These projects comply with the Infrastructure Reset Strategy, which was

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[596] Camp Lejeune Cultural Resources, "Establishment of the Historic Districts," ArcGIS.com, accessed March 8, 2022, https://storymaps.arcgis.com/stories/9b7920b1eaa64ca184acbff0ba332398.

[597] Camp Lejeune Cultural Resources, "Management Plan Montford Point Camp No. 1 Historic District MCB Camp Lejeune," accessed March 8, 2022, https://www.lejeune.marines.mil/Portals/27/Documents/EMD/Cultural-Resources/Historic_Districts_Buildings/d%20MP.pdf; Montford Point Marine Association, Inc., Montford Point Marines, accessed March 8, 2022, https://montfordpointmarines.org/Museum.

[598] Camp Lejeune Cultural Resources, "Management Plan Montford Point Camp No. 1 Historic District MCB Camp Lejeune."

signed in November 2016 by the 37th Commandant of the Marine Corps and aimed to “reduce excess and failing facilities across all Marine Corps installations and reduce operation and maintenance costs for facilities that no longer serve a mission-essential purpose or are in disrepair.”[599]

Decisions regarding which buildings to restore were made by Marine Corps Installations East, the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, North Carolina Historic Preservation Officer, Montford Point Marine Association, and Marine Corps Combat Service Support Schools. Decisions regarding which buildings to preserve considered Montford Point history, training priorities, infrastructure needs, and damage. Eleven buildings, including an academic building, the gymnasium, the auditorium, the chapel, and the mess hall including the Montford Point Museum, will be restored. Forty-six will be torn down.[600]

The preservation, rehabilitation, restoration, or reconstruction plan for each building is based on the needs of its users and the level of damage it received from Hurricane Florence. For example, the chapel had become structurally unstable due to a combination of hurricane and termite damage, so it was deconstructed and rebuilt to existing specifications.[601] Similarly, the wing of the mess hall that serves as the Montford Point Museum was upgraded to include a movie theater, library, and welcome desk, all of which were needed by the museum prior to renovations.[602]

Additionally, no new construction will occur over the footprints of the buildings that are torn down; instead, the land will remain as greenspace and new facilities will be built inland, providing a footprint of the historic landscape while protecting new construction from future hurricanes and other climate events.[603]

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599 Marine Corps Installations Command, “Montford Point Historical Restorations at Camp Johnson,” DVIDS, Feb. 28, 2022, https://www.dvidshub.net/news/416490/montford-point-historical-restorations-camp-johnson.

600 Marine Corps Installations Command, “Montford Point Historical Restorations at Camp Johnson.”

601 Marine Corps Installations Command, “Montford Point Historical Restorations at Camp Johnson,”

602 Calvin Shomaker, “‘Completely breathtaking’: Montford Point Marines Museum to reopen in the spring,” *JD News*, last modified Nov. 3, 2021, https://www.jdnews.com/story/news/2021/11/03/montford-point-marines-museum-upgraded-after-hurricane-damage/6192456001/.

603 Marine Corps Installations Command, “Montford Point Historical Restorations at Camp Johnson,”

Figure 162. Aerial image of Montford Point today (Google Maps, accessed 1/28/2016).

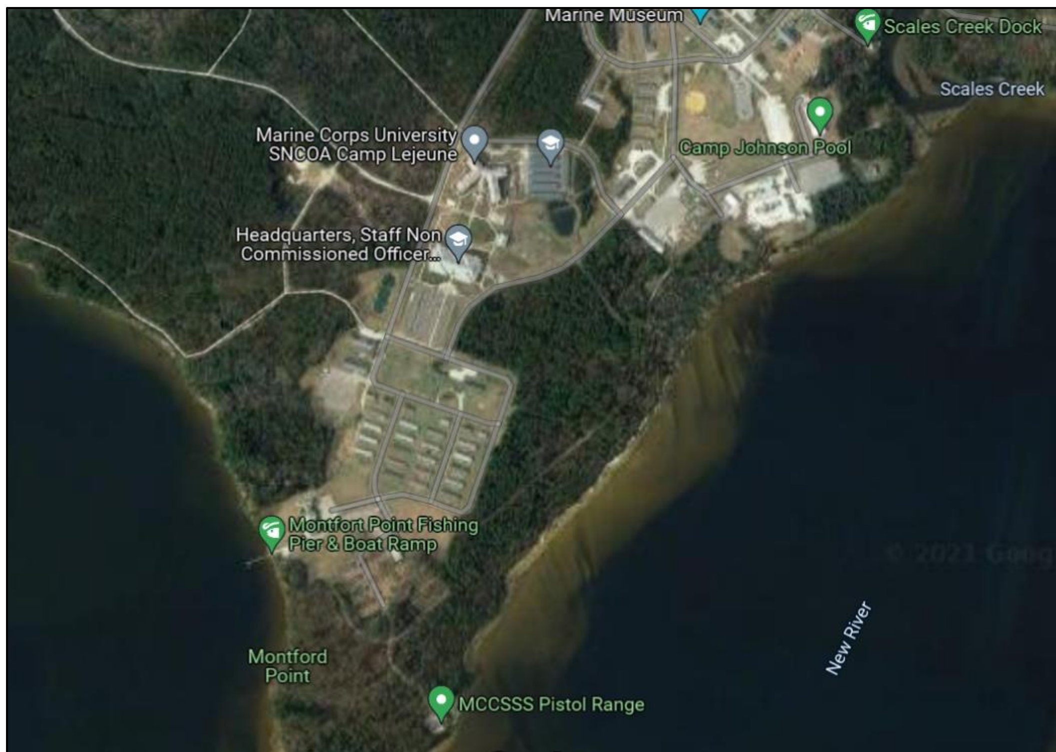

Figure 163. Recent photograph of a surviving building at Montford Point, n.d. (Marine Corps Installations East-MCB Camp Lejeune).

5 Conclusion

The original objective as outlined in the proposal was that the project would focus on providing an in-depth inventory of resources used by racial and ethnic minority military personnel.[604] The proposal had four tasks: review and expansion of the 1998 *An Historic Context of African-Americans in the Military*; review of the archival construction record; compilation of an inventory of previously evaluated properties; and locating as many extant properties as possible.

Prior to this research, most DoD cultural resource professionals thought that there was a limited built environment for the racial and ethnic minority military experiences. This report's researchers found that the stationing of racially and ethnically segregated units was more widespread across the country than anticipated. Particularly during times of conflict, units were moved frequently to take advantage of various training opportunities offered by individual installations. Also, commands held units for brief periods of time at stateside installations before deployment overseas. Due to the needs of the Departments of War and Navy, there were large numbers of segregated units being transferred across the country and in and out of installations. Contemporary accounts show that commands frequently did not specifically break down buildings for racial or ethnic assignments, but that the use of buildings by all units was very fluid. Units moved in and out, so maps often did not delineate which areas were assigned to segregated units, or for how long they were occupied by these groups.

This report's researchers maintain that there is insufficient information to create an inventory of buildings and structures known to have been used by racial and ethnic minorities in the military. The researchers' reasons for this are:

1. no installation contacted maintained a comprehensive list of historically segregated facilities (either extant or demolished) at their location;

[604] When compared to what was provided in the 1998 *An Historic Context of African-Americans in the Military.*

2. no national entity specifically keeps track of historically segregated facilities, and there is no known comprehensive list of segregated facilities;

3. the DoD does typically not nominate properties to the NRHP, which hinders research on historic properties;

4. existing nominations generally do not have enough information to discern the history of a specific building and not all buildings are described in a nomination; and

5. few known segregated facilities are extant today possibly due to the demolitions of many WWII temporary buildings per the 1986 *Programmatic Memorandum of Agreement Among the Department of Defense, the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, and the National Conference of State Historic Preservation Officers Regarding Demolition of World War II Temporary Buildings*, as amended May 1, 1991.

The authors endeavored to identify facilities through historical research and in the development of the historic context and discussion of known facilities' placement in the current landscape.

This report's researchers found that the archival record was rarely detailed enough to determine which locations on installations were utilized as segregated facilities. In addition, many of the installations presented in this report are no longer owned by the DoD. Through the excessing of both land and buildings on these former installations, the facilities may disappear from the landscape. For example, if the excessed buildings are still extant and currently owned by individual private entities (like at the excessed portions of Fort Custer, Michigan), out of federal ownership and without federal responsibilities under the NHPA, there is no incentive to research or review such facilities' histories. As mentioned previously, vast numbers of WWII temporary buildings, even on installations still controlled by the DoD, were demolished, as a result of the 1986 *Programmatic Memorandum of Agreement Among the Department of Defense, the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, and the National Conference of State Historic Preservation Officers Regarding Demolition of World War II Temporary Buildings*, as amended May 1, 1991. Due to

these reasons, there may be only a limited number of facilities utilized for a segregated military still extant on DoD installations.

This report's researchers concluded the few buildings (or group of buildings) that remain as DoD facilities include:

- The Fort Huachuca NHL significant to the Buffalo Soldiers.
    - 49 buildings are located within the NHL, but the nomination is unclear which buildings were segregated in use versus used solely by Black troops.
- Additional pre-WWII buildings located within the eligible Fort Huachuca Old Post Historic District.
    - Many were utilized by Black troops and are not characterized as segregated in use versus solely used by Black troops similar to the Fort Huachuca NHL.
- The NRHP-listed WWII-era Mountain View Officers' Club at Fort Huachuca, AZ.
- The NRHP-eligible WWII-era Black Officers' Club and a relocated WWII-era chapel at Fort Leonard Wood, MO.
- The NRHP-eligible 1930s era 24th Infantry Regimental Theater and PX at Fort Benning, GA.
- Six buildings used by the 4th Aviation Squadron at Maxwell AFB in Montgomery, AL, which are all listed on the NRHP.
- Eleven structures related to the Chopawamsic Annex at MCB Quantico near Triangle, VA are extant including four barracks buildings, a former open mess and recreation hall, and administrative, office, and clinic buildings, all of which contribute to the NRHP-listed Quantico Marine Corps Base Historic District.
- Four Buffalo Soldiers buildings at Fort Myer, VA, which are eligible for the NRHP.
- The NRHP-eligible WWII-era Montford Point Marines Museum at Camp Lejeune, NC.

This report provides an overview of segregation in the military, and a listing of known installations to which racially and ethnically identified personnel were assigned. Installation cultural resources managers can use the information found in this report as a starting point for examining the resources located on their installations to determine if any facilities used for segregated personnel still survive.

For further research into potential historic properties associated with the history of segregation at military installations, the authors of this report recommend:

- All current installations predating 1948 should assess their installation's history, verify whether racial or ethnic units were stationed there, and, if so, review the existing built environment for association with that history. Analysis of existing Section 110 building surveys showed that many did not adequately assess the racial and ethnic significance of an installation's history.
- Any surviving building or structure with proven linkages to a racial or ethnic unit should be considered at least potentially significant under NRHP Criterion A - association with important events; however, the property's integrity will still need to be analyzed to determine whether it is eligible for the NRHP.

Note that if a particular installation is not mentioned in Chapter 3 that is not evidence there were no segregated units posted there, since researchers did not review the historical record for every military facility.

Due to previous attitudes and biases related to minorities and segregation, the built environment history of racial and ethnic groups in the military has not always been researched and recorded to an adequate degree or understood to have significance; however, this history is extremely important to the history of the United States and for the military as a whole. As such, this report may be used as a basis for future research into segregation on U.S. military installations, as well as for the architectural and landscape evaluations of segregated facilities at the installation level.

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14. ABSTRACT

In the United States, the former War Department and Navy Department utilized various methods of planning and construction to enforce racial and ethnic segregation of its personnel. The National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, requires federal agencies to inventory and evaluate their cultural resources, usually as they near 50 years of age. While many histories have been written regarding the extensive contributions of racial and ethnic groups of people to the history of the U.S. military, most of these did not cover how segregation practices affected the built environment. A broad historical overview from the Civil War to President Truman's desegregation memo in 1948 is provided to present the historical background of military units and their segregation. Also provided are descriptions of the segregated built environment related to those areas discussed in the historical overview, a sampling of what remains from these locations today, and then recommendations for Cultural Resources Managers on how to reassess their installations for potential elements exemplifying segregation that currently remain. By providing a broad foundation of the U.S. military's segregation policies and activities, this report can be utilized to develop more detailed research that will lead to identification and evaluation of segregated facilities at Department of Defense military installations in the United States.

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