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New
Sec Army Michael P. W. Stone

Dept. of War
DAVIS/Simon

8-7-89

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Davis/Wallace
Aug. 4, 1989
Title: DOD
Draft: Two

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS: DEPARTMENT OF WAR/FORT MYERS
Aug. 7, 1989/((Time to come)) ✓

9:35 am

Secretary Cheney -- Dick -- I want to thank you for the splendid job you are doing at DOD. ((And by the way, Dick, I hope you are learning how to use the color-coded halls to find your way from the E-ring to your car without getting lost . . . Perhaps now you know why they made a movie about the Pentagon and called it "No Way Out."))

Matt
Frank

Bob
Simon

And Secretary Marsh -- Jack -- I want to thank you for your splendid performance in your service to the U.S. Army, and to your country.

I am pleased to join with you all in celebrating the 200th anniversary of an historic department, now part of the Department of Defense. In honoring the bicentennial of this Department, we are also honoring the heroes of America's past and present.

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The Department of War . . . The very name sounds antiquated, even bellicose. Certainly, today the title Department of Defense is more appropriate, since the purpose of our armed forces is to deter war, not to seek it.

And yet, the title was undeniably forthright, for the War Department fought and won five wars in its 158-year history. It was the War Department that waged the most tragic conflict in American history, a Civil War in which one secretary, Edwin

Almanac p. 756

War of 1812
Civil War
Mexico 1846
Spain 1898
WW I
WW II

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Stanton, was pitted against his predecessor, Jefferson Davis. It was also the War Department that trained and dispatched vast armies of Doughboys to France. And it was the War Department that served as America's nerve center in the struggle against the Axis powers, leading to the greatest military and moral victory in the history of Man. Kind

Winston Churchill gave much of the credit for this to Army Chief of Staff George Marshall, calling him the "true organizer of victory." We all remember George Marshall as a great Secretary of State. He deserves no less credit for his service to the Army, and later as Secretary of Defense.

None of us who served in the Second World War will ever forget the great leaders of the War Department. Nor we will forget the great lesson of those years -- only the strong can keep the peace.

It is to no discredit to the War Department that at the outbreak of the Second World War our armed forces were still drilling with wooden rifles, hauling massive, but useless radios, and planning to wage land warfare with horse cavalry.

Today, of course, it is not a shortage of rifles that threatens to undermine America's ability to keep the peace. To preserve the peace today, we must be strong in other ways. This means we must rely on advanced technology, not the strategic equivalent of horse calvary.

The United States today requires a closely integrated strategic program designed to enhance our strength, bolster

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deterrence and facilitate arms control. It demands that we modernize our ICBM force, redeploying the Peacekeeper missile in rail-garrison now. ((PAUSE)) And it means completing the development to deploy the new small ICBM. These mobile systems will bring improved survivability and stability to the land-based leg of our strategic triad.

A strong defense also means something else -- sufficient funding for the Stealth Bomber. ((PAUSE))

And it means one thing more -- support for the Strategic Defense Initiative. ((PAUSE)) SDI offers the promise of a stable nuclear balance that relies increasingly on defense. It will make any START treaty more effective. And it represents our best step toward stability -- the same goal we seek through offensive modernization and arms control. This is the program the country needs, and I will work to see that this is the program that the country gets.

Just as critical to our nation's defense are the men and women of the Department of Defense. You are called upon to do a difficult, often dangerous, job. And you perform your duty with distinction.

The history of this department is nothing less than the history of American bravery. Whether we call it the Department of War or the Department of Defense, this tradition of service to country lives on in each of you.

So, today, in commemorating the Department of War, we also salute you and every brave American who served in the two great

conflicts of this century, and those who served in Korea and Vietnam. And, whatever his fate may be, we salute a certain courageous U.S. Marine Lieutenant Colonel by the name of William R. ^{Richard} Higgins. ((PAUSE))

It is an inspiration to be among America's finest. And to honor a great department and it's great traditions. God bless you, and God bless the United States of America.

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FORT MYER

The neat brick barracks and quarters of Fort Myer (*open, in normal times, 9 a. m. to sundown*), standing at attention among well-trimmed and tree-planted lawns, represent a typical post of the United States Army. In addition to quarters for troops, the military establishment has a post office, chapel, hospital, post exchange, and fire house. A red-brick mansion within the cantonment is occupied by the Army's chief of staff. On Grant Avenue are the houses of fort officers, and opposite them is a broad lawn with a flagstaff and salute gun, where daily ceremonies are held at the raising and lowering of the flag.

The FORT MYER PARADE GROUND has an important place in aviation history. After their private experiments at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, and at Dayton, Ohio, the Wright brothers held their first public demonstration on this parade ground in 1909. Using facilities offered by the Army, they carried out a number of test flights, during one of which Lieutenant T. E. Selfridge was killed while flying with Orville Wright; a small monument on the spot commemorates this early martyr to aviation, for whom Selfridge Field, Michigan, is named. The first planes owned by the United States were accepted after demonstration here.

Fort Myer provides guards of honor, escorts, and squads for firing volleys at military funerals in Arlington National Cemetery. Negro soldiers, with other Fort Myer units, before the outbreak of World War II participated in most of the great parades in Washington. An annual horse show and occasional polo games are held at the post.

Visible from Fort Myer, and a landmark on the skyline south of Washington from the time they were built in 1912 until the summer of 1941, stood three orange-painted steel towers of the Naval Radio Station, the tallest 600 feet high and the flanking structures 450 feet high. A pioneer in high-frequency broadcasting, it was in its time the world's most powerful sending station. In 1941 the Navy awarded a contract to a New York firm to demolish the towers for and in consideration of a contract price of \$1. Removal of the towers improved the safety of air navigation to and from the Washington National Airport.

FEDERAL OFFICE BUILDING NO. 2

As part of a program for the decentralization of Government office structures, Federal Office Building No. 2 (*office hours 8-4:30 weekdays*) was completed in 1941 and occupied by some offices and divisions of the Navy Department. Standing on a suburban 17-acre tract at the intersection of N. Arlington Ridge Road and Columbia Pike, south of Arlington National Cemetery, the four-story buff-brick structure, with an office capacity of 7,000 employees, was designed by the Public Buildings Administration for general office use as needed by governmental agencies. The extended north façade, 781 feet long, has three entrances

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WPA

THE WPA GUIDE TO WASHINGTON, D.C.:

THE FEDERAL WRITERS' PROJECT
GUIDE TO 1930S WASHINGTON

WITH A NEW INTRODUCTION
BY ROGER G. KENNEDY



*Written and compiled
by the Federal Writers' Project
of the Works Progress Administration
for the District of Columbia*

PANTHEON BOOKS • NEW YORK

MARSHAL, a title of authority derived from medieval European courts, given to administrators of a royal household, military commanders, and other executive officers. In England the title dates to the late 12th century. It has survived to the present day in the title of earl marshal, hereditary with the dukes of Norfolk. In other European countries the title has survived in the military sense as the highest ranking army officer: English, *field marshal*; French, *maréchal*; German, *Generalfeld-marschall*; Italian, *maresciallo*; and Russian, *marshal*.

In the United States, a marshal in the federal government is an officer of the executive department appointed to execute the orders of the federal courts in each judicial district and to open and close court sessions. In some states, particularly in the South and West, marshals are police officers of municipal districts and boroughs, with powers generally corresponding to those of constable or sheriff. In New York City, marshals execute the orders of the municipal courts.

Marshal, as a title of authority, appears in various compounds. These include: provost marshal, a chief of military police; fire marshal, chief of a fire department; marshal (of the day), one who is responsible for ceremonial occasions; and earl marshal, a British officer of state who manages state ceremonies.

MARSHALL, Alfred (1842–1924), influential English economist, one of the founders of the “neoclassical” school. He was born in London on July 26, 1842, and spent most of his life at Cambridge University. From early interests in mathematics and philosophy, he moved to economics. Marshall took over many of John Stuart Mill’s ideas, but substantially altered his basic frame of reference. Instead of analyzing how goods were produced, and how distribution of income among different social classes shaped economic welfare, Marshall examined price setting in a static context. He asserted that consumers’ wants, tastes, and incomes (which he took as given) guided the system as a whole. He emphasized small, gradual changes and the complex interconnections by which market balance or “equilibrium” was achieved.

Marshall, like other neoclassical economists, believed he had shown that the economy would run most efficiently if left to itself, but he did not examine closely the problems of growth, development, or instability. Whereas earlier political economists such as Adam Smith and David Ricardo had identified *labor* as the source of the exchange value of goods, Marshall stressed the satisfaction of consumers’ desires, or *utility*.

At a time when socialists and trade unions were challenging the status quo, Marshall asserted that property owners were entitled to their incomes because they had postponed consumption, or “waited” for satisfaction, of their wants. Similarly, wages compensated workers for the “disutility” of labor. Each person chose among alternatives whatever maximized his satisfaction. This orderly picture, reflecting Victorian individualism, still influences orthodox economics, but its relevance to the present is questionable.

Marshall’s most influential work was his *Principles of Economics*, first published in 1890 and periodically revised up to 1920. He died in Cambridge on July 13, 1924.

H. JOHN THORKELOSON, *University of Connecticut*



General of the Army George C. Marshall was the chief strategist for the Allied powers in World War II.

MARSHALL, George Catlett (1880–1959), American general of the army, chief of staff, secretary of state, and secretary of defense. His career roughly paralleled the first 50 years of the 20th century. He saw his country grow from an isolated position to one of world leadership. As a global soldier-statesman, he was a leader in the victory over the Axis powers in World War II. Marshall was the only professional soldier ever awarded the Nobel Prize for Peace.

He was born in Uniontown, Pa., on Dec. 31, 1880, and graduated from the Virginia Military Institute in 1902, where he was first captain. Commissioned a lieutenant of infantry, Marshall served in the Philippines from 1902 to 1903. In 1907 he was first in his class at the School of the Line, Fort Leavenworth, Kans. After completing a more advanced course, he served as an instructor there from 1908 to 1910. From 1913 to 1916 he served a second tour in the Philippines, and then had brief tours in San Francisco and Governors Island, N. Y. In World War I he went with 1st Division units to France in 1917. As chief of operations, he helped plan the first U. S. campaigns in France. Later, at general headquarters, he helped plan the attack in the St. Mihiel salient and the Meuse-Argonne offensive, serving as chief of operations, First Army, in the final weeks of the war.

From 1919 to 1924, Marshall was senior aide to Gen. John J. Pershing. From 1924 to 1927 he was executive officer of the 15th Infantry Regiment in Tientsin, China. As chief of instruction at the Infantry School, Fort Benning, Ga., from 1927 to 1932, he trained many who later became key officers in World War II.

As a battalion commander in Georgia and regimental commander in South Carolina, in 1932–1933, Marshall helped build and develop camps for the Civilian Conservation Corps. He

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U. S. ARMY

George C. Marshall was the chief allied powers in World War II.

Catlett (1880-1959), American, chief of staff, secretary of defense. His career for the first 50 years of the 20th century grew from an isle of world leadership. As a man, he was a leader in the allied powers in World War II. Only professional soldier ever Prize for Peace.

Uniontown, Pa., on Dec. 31, 1901, from the Virginia Military Institute where he was first captain. Lieutenant of infantry, Marshall served from 1902 to 1903. In his class at the School of the Artillery, Kans. After completing his course, he served as an instructor from 1910. From 1913 to 1916 he served in the Philippines, and in San Francisco and Government. In World War I he went to France in 1917. As a general he helped plan the first U.S. offensive, the attack in the St. Meuse-Argonne offensive, operations, First Army, in the

4, Marshall was senior aide in Georgia and in South Carolina, he helped build and develop a Conservation Corps. He

was senior instructor with the Illinois National Guard from 1933 to 1936, and, as a brigade commander, served in Vancouver Barracks, Wash., from 1936 to 1938.

In Washington, D. C., in 1938, Marshall served briefly as chief of war plans and then as deputy chief of staff. Nominated by President Franklin D. Roosevelt in the spring to succeed Gen. Malin Craig as head of the Army, Marshall was acting chief for two months and then took full control on Sept. 1, 1939, the day war began in Europe. He held the position for more than six years, retiring in late November 1945.

As chief of staff, Marshall increased the Army (which then included the Army Air Corps) from a strength of some 200,000 to almost 8.5 million. He was present at all the great conferences of the war, from Argentia, Newfoundland, in the late summer of 1941 to Potsdam in the summer of 1945. He was the chief protagonist of the cross-channel invasion of Europe strategy. For his efforts in training, planning, and supplying the Allies, Britain's Prime Minister Winston Churchill called him the "true organizer of victory."

Shortly after retiring as Army chief, Marshall went to China in 1946 with the mission of ending the fighting between the Chinese Nationalists and Communists. After initial success, he saw his efforts end in failure. In late 1946 he accepted appointment to the office of secretary of state.

The years 1947 to 1950 saw increasing tension between the United States and the Soviet Union. Marshall concluded after lengthy negotiations in Moscow that the Soviet Union believed its plans for controlling Europe were helped by continuing economic chaos. Marshall, therefore, in a speech at Harvard University on June 5, 1947, outlined a plan for economic recovery—a plan that bears his name. In addition, Marshall worked diligently at the United Nations and in meetings in London and Paris for treaties with the defeated powers and for action that would strengthen western Europe against Soviet expansion. At Rio de Janeiro and Bogotá, he sought to develop greater cooperation between Latin America and the United States. Ill health led to his resignation early in 1949.

After the outbreak of the Korean War in 1950, General Marshall was asked to take up the task of heading the U. S. Department of Defense. In the year he served, he enlarged the Army, pushed a plan for universal military training, and helped develop the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). In Asia he helped to contain the expansion of the Korean War. While favoring a strong United States, he nevertheless sought peaceful solutions to the conflicts that threatened world order. In December 1953 he was awarded the Nobel Prize for Peace.

Marshall died on Oct. 16, 1959, and was buried in Arlington National Cemetery. In 1964 he was honored by the dedication of the George C. Marshall Research Library, in Lexington, Va., in ceremonies that included speeches by President Lyndon B. Johnson and former President Dwight D. Eisenhower.

FORREST C. POGUE

Director, Dwight D. Eisenhower
Institute for Historical Research

Further Reading: Bland, Larry I., ed., *The Papers of George Catlett Marshall* (Johns Hopkins Press 1981); Marshall, George C., *Memoirs of My Services in the World War, 1917-1918* (Houghton 1976); Mosley, Leonard, *Marshall, Hero for Our Times* (Hearst Bks. 1982); Pogue, Forrest C., *George C. Marshall*, 3 vols. (Viking 1963, 1966, 1973).

MARSHALL, John (1755-1835), chief justice of the United States from 1801 to 1835, who had a profound influence on the formation of American constitutional law and the establishment of judicial review. He was born in Prince William (now Fauquier) county, Va., on Sept. 24, 1755. Like so many men of action and thought who participated in the founding of the nation, Marshall was a Virginian, born in a log cabin. He was a third cousin of Thomas Jefferson.

Unlike the other leading Virginians—Jefferson, James Madison, and James Monroe—Marshall was early and lastingly committed to the need for a strong central government. Although he was not a Republican (Democratic-Republican, the predecessor of today's Democratic party), neither was he totally committed to the Federalists, as his vigorous condemnation of the Alien and Sedition Laws adequately demonstrated.

Like Civil War veteran and Supreme Court justice Oliver Wendell Holmes, his only rival for the accolade of greatest American judge, Marshall served with distinction in a war in which the existence of the United States was at stake. He took an active part as a Revolutionary officer in the critical battles of Brandywine, Valley Forge, Monmouth, and Stony Point. After the war he soon became one of the leaders of the Virginia legal profession, a bar of an intellectual quality hardly if ever matched in American history.

Marshall served in the Virginia House of Delegates intermittently from 1782 to 1790, and from 1795 to 1796. In 1795 he was compelled by personal financial problems to refuse President George Washington's request that he serve as attorney general of the United States, and a year later he rejected the appointment as American ambassador to France for the same reason. In 1797, however, he went to France as one of the special envoys to negotiate the X Y Z claims. This role earned him not only great popularity but a monetary reward from Congress large enough to ameliorate what had been a chronic economic problem, caused largely by his joint purchase of a Virginia estate. Nevertheless, in 1798 he refused an appointment as associate justice of the Supreme Court.

A year later he bowed to Washington's entreaties and was elected, thanks in part to the efforts of Patrick Henry, to the U. S. House of Representatives, where he soon assumed the burdens of spokesman for the Federalist bloc. His experience in Congress was a short one, however, for in 1800, after first refusing an appointment as secretary of war, he assumed the post of secretary of state in John Adams' cabinet.

One of Adams' last important acts as president, and perhaps his most important contribution to the welfare of the country, was the appointment of Marshall as chief justice on January 20, 1801. Jefferson's earlier expressed belief that the appointment of Marshall to a judicial post would remove him from the political scene and eliminate a thorn in the side of Republicanism underestimated both Marshall's capacities and the potentialities of the judiciary as a vital force in American government. If it is true, as Oliver Wendell Holmes once said, that "there fell to Marshall perhaps the greatest place that ever was filled by a judge," it is no less true that Marshall proved able to take full advantage of the opportunity afforded him by history. To quote Supreme Court Justice Felix Frankfurter: "When Marshall came to the Supreme

DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY
OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY
MEMORANDUM

4 Aug

Mark -

per our discussion

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THE WAR DEPARTMENT, 1789-1947

In August 1789, one of the first acts of the new Congress under the Constitution was to establish the Department of War. The basic principle underlying the department was civilian control of the military -- a concept well rooted by the time of the American Revolution (1775-1783). During the Revolution, the Continental Congress exercised its authority over the Continental Army first through a Board of War and Ordnance and, beginning in 1781, through a War Department headed by a Secretary of War. With the ratification of the Constitution in 1789, the Secretary became responsible to the President, who was the Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces. Congress retained the power to declare war and to raise and support an army.

The Department of War in 1789 was tasked with multiple responsibilities. Besides land and sea defense, the department had jurisdiction over Indian affairs and over government lands granted as bounties to veterans and others. This span of control was reduced in 1798 when the Department of the Navy was created, and in 1849 when the War Department transferred to the Department of the Interior its functions involving Indian affairs and lands.

The War of 1812 (1812-1815) provided the impetus for a departmental reorganization under Secretary of War John C. Calhoun (1817-1825). Calhoun developed a system of functional

bureaus as mandated by Congress. He also created the position of Commanding General of the Army. The bureaus, located in Washington, developed close ties to Congress. The Commanding General had charge of the field army, although his powers and authority were not well defined in relation to the Secretary of War. Nonetheless the Army's credible performance in the Mexican War was attributable partly to Calhoun's administrative reforms.

Continuous experimentation to create a working relationship between the War Department and the armies in the field marked the Civil War and characterized the remainder of the nineteenth century. Problems encountered during the conduct of the Spanish-American War highlighted the need for resolution of a means of internal Army control. Secretary of War Elihu Root (1899-1904) addressed these areas when he established a General Staff as a central planning organ under a Chief of Staff who would command and control the entire Army. Although the National Defense Act of 1916 limited the size of the General Staff, Secretary of War Newton D. Baker (1916-1921) implemented the act with minimum reduction of the General Staff's authority.

The great demands of World War I on the nation's resources made effective central control in the War Department an absolute necessity. As a result Secretary Baker appointed General Peyton C. March as Chief of Staff (1918-1921) and instituted reforms designed to increase the General Staff's authority. By war's end, Baker's measures had enlarged the power of the staff by gradually

absorbing the bureau apparatus.

Peace saw a resurgence of the bureaus and a reorganization of the General Staff under General of the Armies John J. Pershing. As Chief of Staff (1921-1924), Pershing realigned the staff according to the system he used in France during the war: G-1 (Personnel); G-2 (Military Intelligence); G-3 (Operations and Training); G-4 (Supply); and a War Plans Division. This structure remained basically the same ever since.

To meet the unprecedented needs of global conflict in World War II, greater centralization of authority was the key. The Chief of Staff, General George C. Marshall (1939-1945), realized that he had to decentralize operations or risk being overwhelmed by the increased workload. The resulting reorganization of the War Department witnessed the creation of three new major functionalized commands: Army Ground Forces, to train troops; Army Service Forces, to oversee the technical services; and Army Air Forces, to deal with the specialized needs of the air arms. An Operations Division replaced the War Plans Division and became the powerful nerve center of the General Staff. President Franklin D. Roosevelt sought military advice directly from General Marshall who enjoyed a friendly division of labor with Secretary of War Henry L. Stimson (1940-1945). The Secretary dealt primarily with matters of manpower, science, civil affairs, and atomic energy while Marshall oversaw the conduct of the war effort.

After victory in America's greatest war, the War Department reverted to a structure similar to its prewar organization. The nation's vastly increased international responsibilities demanded a comprehensive restructuring of the defense and security organization. Thus the National Security Act of 1947, as amended in 1949, established the Department of Defense. Within the new cabinet element were subcabinet Departments of the Army (replacing War), the Navy, and the Air Force (based on the former Army Air Forces), whose heads all reported to the Secretary of Defense. This structure remains in place today, with the Secretary of the Army being the lineal descendent of the Secretary of War.

War dept celebrates bicentennial

by MSgt. Mary A. Peterson, USA
American Forces Information Service

When the War Department was created on August 7, 1789, the first secretary, Gen. Henry Knox, oversaw an Army of a mere 800 officers and enlisted men — all stationed along the Ohio River except for one artillery company guarding West Point and another guarding a munition arsenal in Springfield, Mass.

Two hundred years and some important reorganizations later, its descendant, the Department of the Army, manages more than

2.25 million soldiers and civilians stationed around the globe.

Heading the new executive department of the young federal government under George Washington in 1789, Knox, who succeeded Washington as the commander of the Army, handled the military affairs without change in policy or personnel from the way Washington handled them in the original War Office created in 1781.

Knox's War Department was concerned mostly with the storage, transport and distribution of military supplies. Except during

a brief period when the secretary could execute contracts for clothing and food, the new government retained the civilian-controlled supply system formed by the previous government under the Articles of Confederation. The leadership considered an overseer of supplies — a quartermaster general — necessary only in time of war and discharged the quartermaster general and his assistants in 1785.

As the War Department evolved, so did its responsibilities. The department took on new

see WAR DEPT page 12

war dept

(continued from page 8)

responsibilities in 1815, when President James Madison appointed John Armstrong the seventh department secretary. Armstrong replaced the aging Revolutionary War veterans with younger, more aggressive field commanders. He also expanded the Army staff to help manage the War of 1812 by recreating the Adjutant General, Inspector General and Apothecary General offices — all which were dissolved after the Revolutionary War. A strategy needed to change the course of the war was the assignment of eight topographical engineers to the staff.

A massive reform in 1903 molded a War Department structure that laid the foundation for today's Defense Department.

Following the Spanish American War, Ellhu Root, the 43rd secretary of war, initiated fundamental changes in the department's organization, its administration and troop training. He established a general staff dedicated to military planning and redesignated the commanding general of the Army as the Army's chief of staff. Root felt this would solve the division of authority between the two positions. Along with the title change was the separation of responsibilities. The secretary was responsible for department administration and fiscal matters, while the chief of

staff exercised discipline and control over the troops. The chief also served as the adviser and executive agent of the president through the secretary of war.

The United States was at war with Germany and Japan when the military and civilian leaders again attempted to reorganize the War Department. The pace and urgency of the country's involvement in World War II prevented full implementation of then-Chief of Staff Gen. George C. Marshall's plan.

The National Security Act of 1947 put in place many of Marshall's ideas conceived in 1942 by establishing the National Military Establishment. The act created a position for the secretary of defense and positions for various military assistants to the secretary, a civilian personnel component, the Departments of the Army, Navy and Air Force, the U.S. Air Force, the War Council and the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

The act also created the National Security Council, the Central Intelligence Agency and the National Security Resources Board.

The National Security Act then redesignated the War Department as the Department of the Army.

On August 10, 1949, the National Military Establishment became the Department of Defense.

THE DEPARTMENTS OF WAR AND ARMY

Following the inauguration of George Washington and the establishment of the First Congress principal efforts focused on the tasks to "provide for the common defence." Although the Continental Congress established the American Army on June 14, 1755, by 1789 it was necessary to adapt the Army charter to the new Constitution. For this purpose a Department of War was created by an act of Congress. This act reaffirmed the functions of the War Department created under Articles of the Confederation. However, unlike the first act, it vested final authority over the Department's functions with the President rather than the Congress.

In 1947, our national defense structure was again altered in an attempt to achieve "optimum efficiency of military operations" and aid in the integration on military and non-military branches of the government. The National Security Act of 1947 created the Department of Defense and mandated that it be headed by a Secretary of Defense. In addition, it established that the Departments of Army, Navy, and Air Force would comprise the Department of Defense.

Our national military establishment has gone through many structural changes since 1789, but the constitutional principles of Presidential and civilian control remain the keystones of our country's defense structure.

CONSTITUTIONAL BASIS FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF WAR

An Act of August 7, 1789 Chapter VII, I Statute, p. 49

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That there shall be an executive department to be denominated the Department of War, (a) and that there shall be a principal officer therein, to be called the Secretary for the Department of War, who shall perform and execute such duties as shall from time to time be enjoined on, or entrusted to him by the President of the United States, agreeably to the Constitution, relative to military commissions, or to the land or naval forces ships, or warlike stores of the United States, or to such other matters respecting military or naval affairs, as the President of the United States shall assign to the said department, or relative to the granting of lands to persons entitled thereto, for military services rendered to the United States, or relative to Indian affairs; and furthermore, that the said principal officer shall conduct the business of the said department in such manner, as the President of the United States shall from time to time order or instruct.

SECTION 2. *And be it further enacted,* That there shall be in the said department an inferior officer, to be appointed by the said principal officer, to be employed therein as he shall deem proper, and to be called the chief clerk in the Department of War, and who, whenever the said principal officer shall be removed from office by the President of the United States, or in any other case of vacancy, shall, during such vacancy, have the charge and custody of all records, books and papers, appertaining to the said department.

SECTION 3. *And be it further enacted,* That the said principal officer, and every other person to be appointed or employed in the said department, shall, before he enters on the execution of his office or employment, take an oath or affirmation well and faithfully to execute the trust committed to him.

SECTION 4. *And be it further enacted,* That the Secretary for the Department of War, to be appointed in consequence of this act, shall forthwith after his appointment, be entitled to have the custody and charge of all records, books and papers in the office of Secretary for the Department of War heretofore established by the United States in Congress assembled.

CONSTITUTIONAL BASIS FOR THE ARMY

An Act of September 29, 1789, Chapter XXV, I Statute, p. 95

An Act to recognize and adapt to the Constitution of the United States the establishment of the Troops raised under the Resolves of the United States in Congress assembled, and for other purposes therein mentioned.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That the establishment contained in the resolve of the late Congress of the third day of October, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, except as to the mode of appointing the officers, and also as in herein after provided, be, and the same is hereby recognized to be the establishment for the troops in the service of the United States.

SECTION 2. *And be it further enacted,* That the pay and allowances of the said troops be the same as have been established by the United States in Congress assembled, by their resolution of the twelfth of April, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-five.

SECTION 3. *And be it further enacted,* That all commissioned and noncommissioned officers and privates, who are or shall be in the service of the United States, shall take the following oaths or affirmations, to wit: "I, A.B. do solemnly swear or affirm (as the case may be) that I will support the constitution of the United States." "I, A.B. do solemnly swear or affirm (as the case may be) to bear true allegiance to the United States of America, and to serve them honestly and faithfully against all their enemies or opposers what-soever, and to observe and obey the orders of the President of the United States of America, and the orders of the officers appointed over me."

SECTION 4. *And be it further enacted,* That the said troops shall be governed by the rules and articles of war which have been established by the United States in Congress assembled, or by such rules and articles of war as may hereafter by law be established.

SECTION 5. *And be it further enacted,* That for the purpose of protecting the inhabitants of the frontiers of the United States from the hostile incursions of the Indians, the President is hereby authorized to call into service from time to time, such part of the militia of the states respectively, as he may judge necessary for the purpose aforesaid; and that their pay and subsistence while in service, be the same as the pay and subsistence of the troops above mentioned.

SECTION 6. *And be it further enacted,* That this act shall continue and be in force until the end of the next session of Congress, and no longer.

*WWTI
Recollection
more on
people*

Davis/Wallace
Aug. 3, 1989
Title: DOD
Draft: One

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS: DEPARTMENT OF WAR/FORT MYERS
Aug. 7, 1989/((Time to come))

Thank you Secretary Cheney -- Dick; Secretary Marsh -- Jack.

((Dick, I hope you are learning how to use the color-coded halls to find your way from the E-ring to your car without getting lost . . . Perhaps now you know why they made a movie about the Pentagon and called it "No Way Out."))

I am pleased to join you in celebrating the 200th anniversary of an historic department, now part of the Department of Defense. In honoring the bicentennial of this Department, we are also honoring the heroes of America's past and present.

The Department of War . . . The very name sounds antiquated, *even* bellicose. ~~It grates on modern ears.~~ Certainly, the title Department of Defense is more appropriate, since the purpose of our armed forces is to deter war, not to seek it.

And yet, the title was undeniably forthright, for the War Department fought and won five wars in its 158-year history. It was the War Department that waged the most tragic and bloodiest conflict in American history, a Civil War in which one secretary, *EDwin Stanton,* *mommy* was pitted against his predecessor, Jefferson Davis. It was also the War Department that trained and dispatched vast armies of Doughboys to France. And it was the War Department that served as America's nerve center in the struggle against the Axis

powers, leading to the greatest military **and** moral victory in the history of Man.

Winston Churchill gave much of the credit for this to Army Chief of Staff George Marshall, calling him the "true organizer of victory." We all remember George Marshall as a great Secretary of State. He deserves no less credit for his service to the Army, and later as Secretary of Defense.

~~We should also note the department's failures. John Armstrong, Secretary of War under President Madison, neglected the defenses of the capital, allowing Washington to fall into enemy hands. He was replaced with another secretary, James Monroe, who reorganized and restored the strength of the Department. It was on the basis of this accomplishment that Monroe was able to run for, and win, the Presidency. He also won by promising an "Era of Good Feelings" . . . ((And I thought my "kinder, gentler nation" idea was original.))~~

2
Winston
Secretary of War
under President Madison

In modern times, all the services have been a part of the Department of Defense. Our military might has also been deployed for a single purpose -- to keep the peace. Will we be able to ensure the peace in the future?

The United States today has a closely integrated strategic program designed to enhance our strength, bolster deterrence and facilitate arms control. It demands that we modernize our ICBM force, **redeploying the Peacekeeper missile in rail-garrison now.** ((PAUSE)) And it means completing the development to deploy the new small ICBM. These mobile systems will bring improved

MS

survivability and stability to the land-based leg of our strategic triad.

A strong defense also means something else -- **sufficient funding for the Stealth Bomber.** ((PAUSE))

And it means one thing more -- **support for the Strategic Defense Initiative.** ((PAUSE)) SDI offers the promise of a stable nuclear balance that relies increasingly on defense. It will make any START treaty more effective. And it represents our best step toward stability -- the same goal we seek through offensive modernization and arms control. This is the program the country needs, **and I will work to see that this is the program that the country gets.**

Let me make one final point. I can't help but note that the history of the Department of War is the history of American bravery. It is in the memory of heroes that Fort Myer provides honor guards, escorts and squads for firing volleys in Arlington National Cemetery. It was here that military aviation suffered its first casualty -- Lieutenant T.E. Selfridge, who was killed here in a test flight with Orville Wright.

We will never fail to honor the veterans of the two great conflicts of this century, and those who served in the Korean War and Vietnam. And, whatever his fate may be, **we will never forget a certain courageous U.S. Marine Lieutenant Colonel by the name of William R. Higgins.** ((PAUSE))

Handwritten notes:
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1957
THAT ALSO
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DOW COME

It is an inspiration to be among so many patriotic Americans. And it is a delight to celebrate the bicentennial of the Department of War.

God bless you, and God bless the United States of America.

#

Secretary of Labor

William B. Wilson 1913-1921
 James J. Davis 1921-1930
 William N. Doak 1930-1933
 Frances Perkins 1933-1945
 Lewis B. Schwellenbach 1945-1948
 Maurice J. Tobin 1948-1953
 Martin P. Durkin 1953
 James P. Mitchell 1953-1961
 Arthur J. Goldberg 1961-1962

W. Willard Wirtz 1962-1969
 George P. Shultz 1969-1970
 James D. Hodgson 1970-1973
 Peter J. Brennan 1973-1975
 John T. Dunlop 1975-1976
 W.J. Usery, Jr. 1976-1977
 F. Ray Marshall 1977-1981
 Raymond J. Donovan 1981-

Secretary of Defense

James V. Forrestal 1947-1949
 Louis A. Johnson 1949-1950
 George C. Marshall 1950-1951
 Robert A. Lovett 1951-1953
 Charles E. Wilson 1953-1957
 Neil H. McElroy 1957-1961
 Robert S. McNamara 1961-1968

Clark M. Clifford 1968-1969
 Melvin R. Laird 1969-1973
 Elliot L. Richardson 1973
 James R. Schlesinger 1973-1975
 Donald H. Rumsfeld 1975-1977
 Harold Brown 1977-1981
 Caspar W. Weinberger 1981-

Secretary of Health,
Education and Welfare

Oveta C. Hobby 1953-1955
 Marion B. Folsom 1955-1958
 Arthur S. Flemming 1958-1961
 Abraham A. Ribicoff 1961-1962
 Anthony J. Celebrezze 1962-1965
 John W. Gardner 1965-1968
 Wilbur J. Cohen 1968-1969

Robert H. Finch 1969-1970
 Elliot L. Richardson 1970-1973
 Caspar W. Weinberger 1973-1975
 Forrest D. Mathews 1975-1977
 Joseph A. Califano, Jr. 1977-1979
 Patricia R. Harris 1979

Secretary of Housing
and Urban Development

Robert C. Weaver 1966-1969
 Robert C. Wood 1969
 George W. Romney 1969-1973
 James T. Lynn 1973-1975

Carla A. Hills 1975-1977
 Patricia R. Harris 1977-1979
 Moon Landrieu 1979-1981
 Samuel R. Pierce, Jr. 1981-

Secretary of Transportation

Alan S. Boyd 1967-1969
 John A. Volpe 1969-1973
 Claude S. Brinegar 1973-1975
 William T. Coleman, Jr. 1975-1977

Brock Adams 1977-1979
 Neil E. Goldschmidt 1979-1981
 Andrew L. Lewis, Jr. 1981-1982
 Elizabeth H. Dole 1982² 1987
Nom. 1/5/83

Secretary of Energy

James R. Schlesinger 1977-1979
 Robert W. Duncan, Jr. 1979-1981
 James B. Edwards 1981-1982

Donald P. Hodel 1982-1985
 John S. Herrington 1985-

Secretary of Health
and Human Services

Patricia R. Harris 1979-1981
 Richard S. Schweiker 1981-1983

Margaret M. Heckler 1983-

936). His other works include (1949), a novel of the West set in the Northwest in the *Woke Me and Other Stories*; *Music* (1957), a family saga, though uneven, is general and realistic. He died in on Oct. 31, 1960.

Ray (1823-1916), American political leader. He was born on Nov. 16, 1823. For 14 years he worked for the railroad. He then launched mining ventures in Piedmont, North Carolina. He was active during the Civil War and the movement that made North Carolina a state. He served in the U.S. House (1855-1870) and, as a Democrat (1871-1883). Moving back, he resumed banking and became West Virginia Central Railroad president. Davis Coal and Coke Co. was a successful Democratic candidate in 1904. He died in Washington, D.C., on Nov. 11, 1916.

DAVID LINDSEY
Davis College at Los Angeles

Jefferson (1817-1865), American politician who favored a harsh Reconstruction policy in the post-Civil War South. He was born in Md., on Aug. 16, 1817, and attended the University of Virginia. He served in the U.S. House from 1855 to 1861 and from 1863 to 1865. In the last term he was the chairman on foreign relations.

He was the brother of Abraham Lincoln, and during the President's wartime he helped write and pass legislation which sought to contravene the program by giving Congress more power over Reconstruction. When Lincoln published the "Wade-Davis Bill" which charged the President with unconstitutional powers. Davis resigned his presidency himself, but was re-elected in Md., on Dec. 30, 1865.

Harding (1873-1947), American politician. He was born in Tredegar, S.C., in 1873. He went to Pennsylvania and began an apprenticeship in the steel industry at the age of 16. He was a member of the Loyal Order of Moose and served as its director general. In 1912 he was appointed Davis by Woodrow Wilson and retained in that position by Harding and Hoover. As secretary he enforced restrictive immigration laws, proposed a "saving wage" plan, and signed in 1930 on his election from Pennsylvania to a Senate seat. Re-elected in 1932, he was one of the early New Deal advocates of social reform. He died in Takoma Park, Md., on Dec. 22, 1947.

DAVIS, Jefferson (1808-1889), American political leader, who was president of the Confederate States of America during the four years of its existence (1861-1865). A senator and for a time secretary of war (1853-1857) in the United States government but a spokesman for the South, he reluctantly abandoned the Union during the secessionist movement. As president of the Confederacy, he led the South in the Civil War and was personally blamed for its failures. After the Confederate defeat, however, he was widely admired in the South for his unrelenting devotion to the Southern cause.

Over six feet tall, strong-jawed and hollow-cheeked, his body worn thin by work, worry, and disease, Davis was blind in one eye, had an acutely sensitive nervous system, and suffered from neuralgia. In contrast to Abraham Lincoln, he was graceful and highly educated, but, though he pushed himself unmercifully, he could not approach Lincoln's simplicity, sincere eloquence, humanity, and insight into fundamental problems. Criticism stung Davis deeply, and lacking Lincoln's singleness of purpose, he was unable to dismiss detractors and concentrate on his goals.

Early Life. Davis was born in Christian (now Todd) county, Ky., on June 3, 1808, the youngest of 10 children of Samuel and Jane Cook Davis, who were respectively of Welsh and Scotch-Irish heritage. A few years after his birth the family settled in the new but prosperous cotton region of Wilkinson county, Miss.

Because the frontier schools were inadequate, young Jefferson studied for a few years at a Dominican school in Kentucky and then returned home and attended nearby private academies. At the age of 13 he entered Transylvania College in Kentucky, and he had completed his junior year there when his already prominent oldest brother, Joseph, secured his appointment to West Point in 1824. Jefferson's record at the Military Academy was not distinguished; he was graduated 23d in a class of 33, and his drinking in a public tavern and other escapades brought more than the average number of demerits. However, he developed an abiding interest in military affairs, philosophy, and history.

After graduation in 1828, Davis served as a lieutenant on the northwestern frontier. There he met and fell in love with Sarah Knox, daughter of his commander, Col. Zachary Taylor. But Jefferson's attentions to an Indian girl at a dance and his opposition to Taylor's policies angered the colonel, and the marriage was delayed. The Black Hawk War (1832) gave Davis some military experience, but in 1835, having secured Taylor's reluctant consent, he resigned his commission to marry Sarah Knox. The young couple settled on a 1,000-acre (400-hectare) cotton plantation in the Mississippi delta given them by Joseph, but less than three months after the wedding Sarah Knox was dead of malaria.

Davis found release in developing the plantation, which was known as Brierfield. A beneficent master to his own slaves, he always saw slavery in its most ideal light, holding himself accountable both for the well-being of his slaves and for their training in responsibility. Yet he believed that God created Negroes inferior to whites, and that neither education nor environment could counteract the divine intent. Rather than seeing the conflict between Christianity and human bondage, Davis found justification in the Old Testament for slavery. The profits from Brierfield



U.S. SIGNAL CORPS PHOTO (BRADY COLLECTION), NATIONAL ARCHIVES
Jefferson Davis (daguerreotype by Mathew Brady)

and the relative contentment of his slaves supported his convictions.

Political Beginnings. By 1843, Davis' reputation as a scholar together with the tradition of planter participation in politics, won him a last-minute Democratic nomination for the Mississippi legislature. His brief but intensive campaign gained an impressive, though not victorious, vote in a strong Whig county. He broke with his party's stand on repudiation of the Union Bank bonds, but political enemies later repeatedly and falsely accused him of being a repudiator. Campaigning for James Polk in 1844 and advocating territorial expansion, he canvassed the state and proved himself a popular orator.

The following year Davis married Varina Howell, a member of the local Mississippi aristocracy. He received the Democratic nomination for the House of Representatives and won election by advocating sound currency, a low tariff, and territorial expansion. In Congress he joined forces on the question of expansion with Southerners who urged moderation and compromise rather than war with Britain. But his stay in the House was short, for he resigned in 1846 to command the Mississippi Rifles in the Mexican War.

At the Battle of Monterrey, Colonel Davis won respect for his personal bravery; at Buena Vista, he demonstrated both courage and ability, but was wounded and returned home. Now a hero, his political career was advanced.

Service as Senator. In 1847, Davis was appointed by the governor of Mississippi to a vacancy in the U.S. Senate, and the next year the state legislature elected him for the remainder of the unexpired term. As a member of the Committee on Military Affairs he supported expansion and enlarging the army. Already the young Mississippi senator foresaw a transcontinental railroad and a Panama railway to promote commerce and secure Pacific coast defenses.

Yet, little by little, Davis became more a sectionalist and less a nationalist. The Wilmot Proviso and the Compromise of 1850 (qq.v.)

turned his energies toward the defense of slavery. He envisioned no relief in Calhoun's discredited doctrine of nullification, but held that the Union was composed of sovereign independent states, voluntarily confederated and free to resume their sovereignty. Thus secession was not revolution but a legal remedy. Davis favored preservation of the Union, if the Constitution remained "in the form and with the meaning it had when it left the hands of its authors." The federal government should respect the right of property in slaves; any interference with it was unconstitutional and a threat to state sovereignty. Davis voiced his convictions well and was an excellent debater, but in his constitutional theories he closed his eyes to custom and practice that had already brought a changed interpretation of the Constitution to a majority of Americans. He opposed the Compromise of 1850, contending that a strict fugitive slave law could not be enforced in face of adverse public opinion, that the states alone could exclude slavery from the territories, and that the Missouri Compromise line should be extended to the Pacific.

After passage of the Compromise of 1850, Davis signed a vigorous protest and, notwithstanding his recent election to a six-year term in the Senate, resigned (1851) to accept the Democratic nomination for governor of Mississippi. He waged a strong campaign, but lost to Henry S. Foote. Discredited and dismayed, Davis returned to his plantation until his interest in Franklin Pierce's presidential candidacy brought him back to politics. After his election, Pierce urged Davis to accept a cabinet position.

Secretary of War. Davis reached the apex of his national career as secretary of war. In his direction of the War Department he was more a nationalist than a sectionalist. He revised military regulations, replaced wood gun carriages with iron, adopted a better system of infantry tactics, provided rifles, pistols, and the Minié ball, used large-grain powder, and created the medical service. The Military Academy was enlarged, four regiments were added to the army, and coastal and frontier defenses were strengthened. These reforms, plus increased pay, endeared Davis to the military, but he failed in the attempt to make merit rather than seniority the basis for promotion. His introduction of camels for transportation in the West was interesting but ineffectual.

As secretary he had charge of enlarging the Capitol building and constructing a viaduct that provided a better water system for Washington. Undoubtedly his greatest contribution was the survey of routes for western railways and the resulting detailed reports, which not only laid the basis for future railroads but also emphasized the importance of the great West. Though a strict constructionist, Davis advocated federal land grants and bonds to encourage railroad construction, on the ground that transcontinental routes were necessary for national defense and thus within the war powers of the president. Davis favored the Southern route to the West and was instrumental in securing the Gadsden Purchase from Mexico. He favored the acquisition of Cuba and territorial rights in Nicaragua.

Return to the Senate. On the expiration of his term as secretary in 1857, Davis was elected to the Senate. He returned to that body as the recognized spokesman of the South, proclaiming slavery an economic and moral good and openly

supporting its extension. At the same time he evidenced a sincere love of the Union and an unwillingness to see it broken by radical Northern or Southern action.

Representing the Southern wing of the Democratic party, on Feb. 2, 1860, Davis introduced resolutions that became the platform of most Southern men. In them he reiterated his position that the federal Constitution was adopted by free and independent sovereign states and protested that Negro slavery was recognized as legitimate and that attacks on it were manifest breaches of good faith. He further declared that neither Congress nor a territorial legislature could impair the right of a citizen to move freely with his property in the territories and that therefore it was the duty of Congress to provide adequate protection for slave property. This doctrine of congressional protection of slavery in territories was accepted as the minority platform at the Charleston Democratic Convention; upon adoption of the majority report supported by Stephen A. Douglas, eight Southern states left the convention.

Davis eventually favored John C. Breckinridge in the presidential campaign of 1860, and after the election of Abraham Lincoln, he was no more than a cooperative secessionist. He held that the Southern states should meet to determine a new policy and repeatedly warned that there could be no peaceful secession. Davis served on the Senate Committee of Thirteen and favored the Crittenden Compromise (q.v.), but, seeing no prospects for effective compromise, he voted against it. On Jan. 5, 1861, he joined other Southern senators in urging each state to secede as soon as possible and to provide the means of organizing a Southern Confederacy. Yet even at this late date he realized the danger in leaving the Union and saw advantage to the South in keeping Southern senators and representatives in Congress.

After Mississippi seceded, Davis resigned and returned home, where he accepted the rank of major general and the command of his state's military forces before he was informed of his selection by the Provisional Congress as president of the Confederacy. Reluctantly he left for Montgomery, Ala., and the impossible task ahead, for he would have preferred an army command.

President of the Confederacy. Davis took office as president of the Confederacy on Feb. 18, 1861. He selected his cabinet with due regard to geography, personality, political connection, and ability. In Judah P. Benjamin, first attorney general, then secretary of war, and finally secretary of state; Stephen R. Mallory, secretary of the navy; and John H. Reagan, postmaster general, he found men of outstanding ability who remained with him throughout the Confederacy. Christopher G. Memminger and George A. Trenchum as secretaries of the treasury directed the department well—considering the financial deficiencies of the South. Eleven other men served in the cabinet, and most of them resigned because of personal ambition or congressional opposition.

Though confident that law and right were on his side, President Davis was equally convinced that the major force was on the other. Behind him he had little more than 9 million people, including slaves, and woefully inadequate industrial facilities in contrast to the North's population of 22 million, extensive industry, and almost unlimited possibilities for men and matériel. The South did, however, have certain advantages, including a citizenry accustomed to outdoor

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life and trained in the use of firearms, excellent military officers, a defensive position, and slaves who remained loyal and economically productive.

Davis pressed military preparation, but planned no overt act to give the North cause for war. Though anxious to avoid a test of strength, the course of events forced him to consent to the bombardment of Fort Sumter, S. C. (April 12-13, 1861), which gave Lincoln the opportunity to accuse the South of aggression.

Fighting the Civil War. Davis and his cabinet used Southern resources well. Approximately 900,000 men volunteered or were conscripted for the army; ordnance and munition works were constructed so rapidly that no Southern army really suffered a lack of these supplies; a poor transportation system was improved; and scrap iron and captured steam engines were converted into a modern navy, whose ironclad ships and torpedoes lessened the effectiveness of the Northern blockade, thereby enabling the South to obtain essential supplies by blockade runners from abroad. Confederate cruisers roamed the seas, effectively destroying the Union's carrying trade.

Excess cotton and the failure of England and France to demand it at the possible cost of war created a problem, because the blockade limited cotton's expected value as a source of exchange and made it impossible for the debtor South to finance an extended war. Yet cotton became the medium of exchange for matériel secured by blockade-running.

Southern opposition to heavy taxation, together with an inability to buy bonds, forced the financing of war with fiat money. The resulting depreciation of the currency created a morale problem and made necessary taxation in kind and impressment of commodities at fixed prices.

In foreign affairs Davis and Benjamin pushed every conceivable advantage, but for many reasons, including its critical need of Northern wheat, Britain refused recognition, and France feared to act alone.

From first to last, severe criticism fell on Davis. His accusers blamed him for the inadequacies of the South, charged him with being a dictator, condemned him for interfering with military commanders, criticized his appointments, and demanded an offensive rather than a defensive military policy.

With few exceptions, including his blind faith in Braxton Bragg and the removal of Joseph E. Johnston, Davis selected his officers intelligently; and the army of Robert E. Lee, which he visited and with which he interfered most often, had more successes than any other. Perhaps his greatest mistake lay in overemphasis on the defense of Richmond, Va., and failure to recognize the importance of the West. He probed the relative merits of East and West in 1863 and eventually supported Lee's planned invasion rather than the reinforcement of Vicksburg, Miss.

The degree of congressional opposition was indicated by Davis' 39 veto messages, and, although the Congress could not override these vetoes, by 1865 the President had lost the confidence of Congress and the public. Opposition of Georgia's and North Carolina's governors, widespread desertions, and capture of the last port of entry, forced approval of arming Negroes. But before this became reality, the Confederacy fell.

In Defeat. On April 3, 1865, Davis and his cabinet fled Richmond (stopping briefly in Dan-

ville, Va., and Greensboro, N.C.) and at Charlotte, N.C., operated as a government for the last time. Davis sped through South Carolina and into Georgia. Ostensibly headed for the trans-Mississippi region and continued resistance, he actually loitered in Georgia awaiting capture, knowing that the Confederacy was at an end.

On May 10 he was taken at Irwinville, Ga. Accused of treason and of participation in planning the assassination of Lincoln, he was imprisoned at Fortress Monroe, Va. For a time he wore leg shackles and this, with other harsh treatment, restored his popularity in the South and made him, second to Lee, a symbol of the Confederacy. Though twice indicted, he was never brought to trial, and in two years (on May 13, 1867) he was released. That only Capt. Henry Wirz, commandant of Andersonville prison, was executed as a result of so long and bloody a war is remarkable in the annals of history.

The Remaining Years. For the rest of his long life, Davis was a defender and apologist of the South. Failure of several business ventures left him in straitened financial circumstances, which the gift of the Beauvoir plantation at Biloxi, Miss., partially eased. There he collected material for his *The Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government* (1881) and wrote an excellent exposition of the Southern point of view and a justification of secession. Yet, much of his writing was special pleading rather than history and was disappointing in its meager revelations of intimate associations during the war years. Davis accepted few of the numerous invitations for speeches; but, whenever he spoke, he stressed the right of secession, the justice of the Confederate cause, and on occasion disparaged the federal government. Acrimonious controversies with former Confederates such as Gen. Joseph E. Johnston and Northerners such as Gen. William T. Sherman clouded his declining years, but in 1886 he received triumphal ovations after appearances in Montgomery, Ala., Atlanta, Ga., and Savannah, Ga.

Although he remained the sharp-tongued defender of the Confederacy, Davis apparently had mellowed by his 80th year. He never requested or received a pardon, yet stated in a speech at Mississippi City, Miss.: "The past is dead; let it bury its dead, its hopes, and its aspirations; before you lies the future—a future full of golden promise, a future of expanding national glory; before which all the world shall stand amazed." In November 1889, while visiting Brierfield, he became ill and returned as far as New Orleans, La., where he died on December 6.

See also CIVIL WAR; CONFEDERATE STATES OF AMERICA.

REMBERT W. PATRICK

Author of "Jefferson Davis and His Cabinet"

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Sept. 18, 1907. Educated at Institute of Technology and in 1932 received an M.S. from the University of California. He remained for his entire career in the field of war work.

His most noteworthy research, for which he received the Nobel Prize in chemistry in 1951, was the discovery of the elements neptunium and plutonium, the first known transuranium elements. These were important in laying the basis for harnessing nuclear energy and the development of nuclear physics. His contribution to nuclear physics was developed simultaneously with that of the Russian Vladimir Veksler, who was capable of giving much higher energies than were possible with cyclotrons. During World War II, McNamara worked on radar and sonar projects, and on the development of the atomic bomb.

ELIZABETH BARNABY KEENEY
University of Wisconsin-Madison

McMURDO, mak-mûr'dô, an inlet of the Ross Sea, due south of New Zealand, 145 km (90 miles) long and 10 km (6 miles) wide, it extends between Victoria Land and ends at the Ross Sea.

It is the best sea approach to the continent of Antarctica. Since its discovery by the British explorer Sir James Clark Ross, it has been the starting point for many scientific investigations, notably by the British, the New Zealanders, and Americans.

McMURDO, mak-mûr'dô, in Anglo-American law, a standard by which an accused is held responsible for a crime if he is fit or unfit for trial on the basis of the law promulgated in Britain in 1843. The standard holds an accused responsible so long as he is sane at the time of the act and the nature and quality of his act is wrong.

McNAB, Lesley James (1883-1944), an American officer, who was responsible for the training of U.S. troops in World War I. He was born in Verdale, Minn., and after graduating from the U.S. Army in 1904, he was commissioned as a captain in the artillery. He served with the Punitive Expedition into Mexico and with the U.S. Army in World War I, when he was promoted to major general and received the Distinguished Service Medal.

McNair was given the responsibility of combat training of U.S. troops at the general headquarters. In 1942 he was promoted to lieutenant general, army ground school of lieutenant general. That he imposed was rigorous, and his exercises with live ammunition involving armies under simulated conditions. In 1943, McNair was promoted to major general while observing artillery fire in Normandy. In July 1944 he requested field orders to observe the English Channel to observe the landing of the American forces near St.-Lô, in Normandy. He died on July 25, 1944, when American forces were attacking their targets.

McNAMARA, mak'nə-mar-ə, Robert Strange (1916-), American business executive and public official. He was born in San Francisco, Calif., on June 9, 1916. A brilliant student, he graduated with honors from the University of California at Berkeley in 1937 and from Harvard University's graduate school of business administration in 1939. During World War II he developed and conducted a course at Harvard for the Air Force on statistical systems to control the flow of matériel, men, and money.

Ford Motor Company. After the war, McNamara was hired by the Ford Motor Company. As controller and later as vice president, he induced the company to compete in the middle- and higher-income auto market, developed a compact car, and promoted seat belts. Chosen president of Ford in 1960, McNamara served only a month, until President-elect John F. Kennedy invited him to become secretary of defense.

Secretary of Defense. Serving seven years in the post, McNamara consolidated and centralized the Pentagon's structures and processes, applied systems-analysis techniques to decision making, established elaborate controls over the use of departmental resources, and (angering many congressmen) closed down uneconomical military bases, and refused to spend money appropriated for weapons systems of which he did not approve.

His probing intelligence and broad background made McNamara a favorite, wide-ranging adviser to Presidents Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson. His influence extended into domestic questions. For example, he reduced racial discrimination in the armed forces.

Vietnam commanded much of McNamara's attention. He was the president's chief deputy in overseeing the war. In 1964 the conflict was spoken of as "McNamara's War," but by 1967 he had become increasingly aware of opposition to the war and was known to doubt the efficacy of continued bombing of North Vietnam. Expressions of hope for an early peace gave way to a restlessness that by 1967 had led him to view the economic development of nations as more promising for peace and security than arms.

The World Bank. This conviction led McNamara to resign as secretary and in 1968 to assume the presidency of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (the World Bank). In this post McNamara advocated continuing and increased aid to the poor, particularly in the Third World, and was instrumental in gaining admission of China to World Bank membership. In 1980 he announced his retirement effective in mid-1981.

McNamara published *The Essence of Security: Reflections in Office* in 1968 and *One Hundred Countries, Two Billion People* in 1973.

LOUIS W. KOENIG^o, *New York University*

McNARY, mak-nâr'ē, Charles Linza (1874-1944), American lawyer, legislator, and vice-presidential candidate. He was born near Salem, Oreg., on June 12, 1874. He was educated at Stanford University and by private tutors and was admitted to the Oregon bar in 1898. He practiced law in his brother's office until 1913, when he was named to complete an unexpired term on the Oregon supreme court. Defeated for election to the bench in 1914, he was chairman of the Republican state central committee for a year and on June 1, 1917, was appointed to the U.S. Senate for two years of an unexpired term.

McNary was elected five times successively to the Senate, where he was known for his efforts to aid farmers. Between 1926 and 1928, bills he sponsored with Rep. Gilbert Haugen of Wisconsin, designed to meet the problem of surplus crops, were vetoed by President Coolidge.

After 1933, McNary was minority leader of the Senate. A skillful negotiator with a pleasing manner, he was regarded as a liberal and was generally moderate in his opposition to President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal measures, although he directed the vigorous strategy that defeated the plan to enlarge the Supreme Court of the United States. In 1940, he was Wendell Willkie's vice-presidential running mate. McNary served in the Senate until his death on Feb. 25, 1944, in Fort Lauderdale, Fla.

McNAUGHTON, mak-nô'tən, Andrew George Latta (1887-1966), Canadian army officer and scientist. He was born in Moosomin, Saskatchewan, on Feb. 25, 1887, and educated at McGill University. He served with the Canadian Army in World War I, was wounded twice, and was promoted to brigadier general in 1918. In 1929 he was named major general and chief of the Canadian general staff.

A distinguished scientist, he was joint inventor in 1926 of the cathode-ray direction finder. From 1935 to 1939 he was president of the Canadian National Research Council.

At the beginning of World War II, McNaughton went overseas as commander of the 1st Canadian Division and he was commander of the 1st Canadian Army in 1942-1943. He was promoted to general in September 1944 and retired from the army in November because of poor health. He then served as minister of national defense until August 1945. McNaughton was the Canadian representative on the UN Atomic Energy Commission (1946) and president of the Atomic Energy Board of Canada (1946-1948). In 1948-1949 he was Canada's permanent delegate to the United Nations and its representative on the Security Council. He died on July 11, 1966, in Montebello, Quebec.

McPHERSON, mak-fûr'sən, Aimee Semple (1890-1944), American evangelist, whose theatrical style, reputation as a faith healer, and masterly use of public relations brought her fame and wealth. Aimee Elizabeth Kennedy was born near Ingersoll, Ontario, on Oct. 9, 1890. Her father was a Methodist farmer, and her mother, known as "Ma" Kennedy, was a Salvation Army worker. Aimee left high school before finishing and in 1908 married a traveling Pentecostal evangelist, Robert Semple. In 1910 they went as missionaries to Hong Kong, where Robert died of typhoid fever. With their daughter Roberta, Aimee joined her mother in New York and continued her revival work. In February 1912 she married Harold McPherson, a grocery salesman. Their son Rolf later became Aimee's successor.

With her mother and children, Aimee moved to Los Angeles in 1918, and from there went on extensive revival tours through the United States, Canada, and Australia. She was divorced from McPherson in 1921. Meanwhile, her "Foursquare Gospel" movement was attracting both audiences and donations, and her Angelus Temple, seating over 5,000 persons, was opened in Los Angeles on Jan. 1, 1923. Later that year a Bible school—the Lighthouse of International Foursquare Evan-

where his father died, leaving him to support his mother and 9 younger children. He became wealthy as a trader and cotton planter.

When the Civil War began Forrest enlisted as a private, then raised and equipped a cavalry unit at his own expense. At Fort Donelson, Tenn., in February 1862, Colonel Forrest refused to surrender with the garrison and escaped, leading his entire command and other troops who followed him, to safety without losing a man. At Shiloh (April 6-7, 1862) he fought with vigor and gallantry. Promoted to brigadier general, he established a reputation as the most resourceful and brilliant cavalry leader in the Confederate Army.

In December 1862 he undertook an incredibly long raid into Union territory, which played a significant part in halting Maj. Gen. U. S. Grant's first attempt to reach Vicksburg, Miss. One of his most remarkable feats occurred in May 1863, when he pursued and captured, near Rome, Ga., a force three times the size of his own. After the battle of Chickamauga (Sept. 19-20, 1863), he was dissatisfied with Gen. Braxton Bragg's leadership. Forrest strode into Bragg's tent and told him what he thought of him, in explosive terms. He then accepted a command in northern Mississippi and western Tennessee and was promoted to major general.

For the third time, Forrest raised a new command and equipped it (largely with captured weapons). Expeditions outnumbering his army were repeatedly sent against him; all failed, although one became famous because of Forrest's victory at the Battle of Brice's Cross Roads, Miss., in June 1864, regarded as one of the best examples in history of a perfectly fought battle.

After the disastrous Battle of Nashville (Dec. 15-16, 1864), Forrest saved the remnants of the army by his heroic rearguard action. In February 1865 he was promoted to lieutenant general. But the war was almost at an end; he finally surrendered in May 1865.

When some of his command were involved in the Fort Pillow massacre of Negro troops (April 12, 1864), Forrest was accused of being personally responsible. Later investigation proved this to be untrue and the accounts to have been exaggerated. Forrest died at Memphis, Tenn., on Oct. 29, 1877.

JOSEPH B. MITCHELL
Author, "Decisive Battles of the Civil War"

FORREST CITY, in eastern Arkansas, the seat of St. Francis county, is about 80 miles (128 km) east of Little Rock. It is in a hardwood forest and diversified farming area that raises corn, peaches, rice, and sweet potatoes. The city manufactures television equipment, materials-handling equipment, electric motors, farm machinery, and textiles. It has timber-planing mills.

Forrest City was settled about 1868 and incorporated in 1871. Government is by mayor and council. Population: 13,803.

FORRESTAL, for'as-tal, James Vincent (1892-1949), American public official. He was born in Beacon, N. Y., on Feb. 15, 1892, and attended Dartmouth and Princeton. In 1916 he joined the Wall Street firm later known as Dillon, Read and Company as a bond salesman. He enlisted in the Navy after U. S. entry into World War I.

Forrestal returned to Dillon, Read as head of its department of bond sales, was made a partner

in 1923, and become the firm's president in 1937. In June 1940 he became an administrative assistant to President Franklin D. Roosevelt and in August was appointed undersecretary of the navy. In that post he was instrumental in building up the Navy prior to World War II. He became secretary of the Navy in May 1944.

Although Forrestal had strongly opposed an Army-Navy merger, he loyally supported unification after President Truman decided in its favor. Appointed the first secretary of defense in September 1947, he strove to bring about real unity among the three armed services. He advocated a strong line toward the Soviet Union and pushed for strengthening the armed forces. But he came under increasing attack because of his alleged failure to halt what many regarded as air force insubordination over questions of combat strength and appropriations, and because of his reputed pro-Arab, anti-Israel views. In March 1949 he resigned as secretary of defense. Depressed by what he regarded as unfair attacks, Forrestal entered the Navy hospital at Bethesda, Md., in April to be treated for nervous exhaustion. He appeared to be recovering but suffered a relapse and leaped to his death from a high window in the hospital on May 22, 1949.

JOHN BRAEMAN, *University of Nebraska*

Further Reading: Forrestal, James V., *Diaries*, ed. by Walter Millis (New York 1951); Rogow, Arnold A., *James Forrestal: A Study of Personality, Politics, and Policy* (New York 1963).

FORSSMANN, fôrs'män, Werner (1904-1979), German physician, who shared the 1956 Nobel Prize in physiology or medicine with the American physicians André Cournand and Dickinson W. Richards, Jr., "for their discoveries concerning heart catheterization and pathological changes in the circulatory system." These discoveries made possible the diagnosis of complex heart diseases and paved the way for modern surgical treatment.

Contributions to Science. In 1929, Forssmann began searching for a method of administering medicine directly into the heart. After working on cadavers and finding that a tube could be passed into the heart from a vein at the elbow, he experimented on himself. He opened a vein in one of his arms, introduced a catheter, pushed it a distance of 2 feet (60 cm), and then had an X-ray taken that showed the tip of the catheter lying in his heart.

Forssmann showed that the introduction of a catheter into the heart was painless and did not damage the blood vessels or cause clots to form. He also realized the potential use of such a procedure in measuring intracardiac pressures and in injecting opaque material for X-ray studies inside the heart. Many physicians regarded his work as a stunt and unethical for patient use, but 12 years later Cournand and Richards put the technique into practice.

Life. Forssmann was born in Berlin on Aug. 29, 1904. He completed his medical studies at the University of Berlin in 1928. After a surgical residency and further training in urology, he became chief of the city hospital in Dresden-Friedrichstadt. After World War II he practiced urology in Bad Kreuznach. In 1958 he became chief of the Surgical Division of the Evangelical Hospital at Düsseldorf. He died in Schopfheim, West Germany, on June 1, 1979.

JOHN T. SHEPHERD, M. D., *Mayo Clinic*

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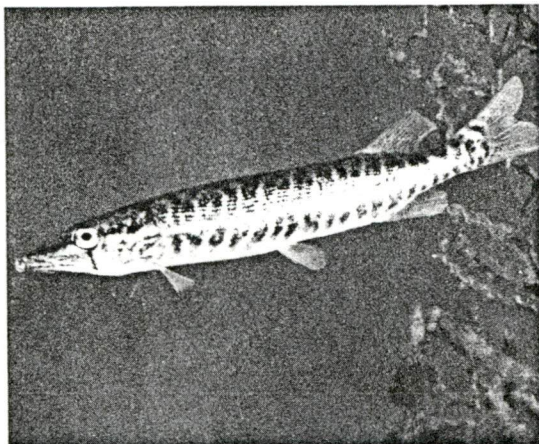
(1964; reprint.

PICKEREL, pik'ər-əl, any of three small, slender species of North American freshwater fishes valued as sport and game fishes. The pickerels are classified in the genus *Esox* of the family Esocidae.

The most important species is the chain pickerel (*E. niger*), which attains a length of about 2 feet (60 cm) and has chainlike markings on its sides. A valued sport fish, it is found in the Atlantic coastal drainage system from the St. Lawrence River southward and in the lower Mississippi Valley and Texas. The barred, or redfin, pickerel (*E. americanus*), also of the Atlantic coastal drainage, and the little, mud, or grass, pickerel (*E. vermiculatus*) of the Mississippi Valley and Gulf Coast drainage systems are both somewhat smaller fishes, with most adults being less than 1 foot (30 cm) long. The grass pickerel is sometimes considered a subspecies of the barred pickerel.

All pickerels resemble the northern pike and are often mistaken by anglers for the young of that species. Like the pike, pickerels have duck-like shovel bills and sharp teeth. They all prefer quiet, mud-bottom pools, where they hide in the weeds or near submerged logs to ambush their prey. All are efficient predators, feeding chiefly on other small fishes and crayfish and occasionally on other small animals. Females lay their eggs in the weeds in shallow waters.

JOHN D. BLACK
Northeast Missouri State University



TREAT DAVIDSON, FROM NATIONAL AUDUBON SOCIETY

The grass pickerel is a popular freshwater sport fish.

PICKERING, pik'ər-ing, Edward Charles (1846-1919), American astronomer, who pioneered in using photometric and spectroscopic techniques in the field of astronomy. Pickering was born in Boston, Mass., on July 19, 1846. He graduated from Harvard University in 1865, became a professor of physics at Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1867, and while there established the first physics laboratory in the United States designed for teaching. In 1876, he was named director of the Harvard College Observatory, where he started some of the most ambitious and fruitful projects of his time. He introduced new equipment and methods for accurately measuring stellar brightness, thereby starting the extensive series of photometric studies for which Harvard Observatory became noted. He revived the use

of celestial photography in 1882 and initiated a spectroscopic study of the stars in 1885.

Aware of the importance of adequate observations in the Southern Hemisphere, Pickering established a Harvard observatory station at Arequipa, Peru, in 1891. Extensive classification of the spectra of stars observed in the Northern and Southern hemispheres resulted in the publication of the nine-volume *Henry Draper Catalogue* (1924). It gave the positions, magnitudes, and spectral types of 225,300 stars. Pickering died in Cambridge, Mass., on Feb. 3, 1919.

SIMONE DARO GOSSNER
Formerly, "Natural History Magazine"

PICKERING, pik'ər-ing, Timothy (1745-1829), American political leader. He was born in Salem, Mass., on July 17, 1745. He graduated from Harvard College in 1763 and was admitted to the bar in 1768. An avid student of military history and tactics, Pickering was commissioned a lieutenant, later a colonel, in the militia. In 1775 he wrote *An Easy Plan of Discipline for a Militia*, adopted by Massachusetts and used for a time by the U. S. Army. Pickering actively supported the revolutionary movement in Massachusetts. He commanded a regiment during the winter campaign of 1776-1777 in New York and New Jersey, served as adjutant general of the Continental Army (1777-1778), as a member of the Board of War and Ordnance (1777-1780), and as U. S. quartermaster general (1780-1783).

In 1785 he established residence in Philadelphia but moved two years later to the Wyoming Valley in Luzerne county. He represented the county in the convention that ratified the U. S. Constitution in 1787 and in the Pennsylvania constitutional convention of 1789-1790.

A staunch Federalist, Pickering served in George Washington's cabinet from 1791 to 1797 as postmaster general, secretary of war, and secretary of state. Continuing as secretary of state under John Adams, Pickering played an important role in diplomatic negotiations with France. His effort, with Alexander Hamilton, to thwart Adams' peace efforts with France led to his dismissal from the cabinet in May 1800.

He subsequently returned to Massachusetts and served in the U. S. Senate (1803-1811) and in the House of Representatives (1813-1817). He vigorously opposed Jeffersonian republicanism, the Louisiana purchase, and American participation in the War of 1812. At one time he favored the peaceful separation of New England, New York, and New Jersey from the Union. He died in Salem, Mass., on Jan. 29, 1829.

EDWIN A. MILES
University of Houston

PICKETING is the act of marching at the entrance to a business establishment or other place of employment by striking employees. One or more of the pickets usually carry signs stating their grievances. By picketing, strikers hope to persuade other employees to join their action against management, to discourage suppliers and others from servicing their employer, and to gain publicity for their demands. Picketing also is widely used in nonlabor situations by demonstrators seeking to promote a cause or to air a grievance.

In general, picketing is protected by the First Amendment's guarantee of freedom of speech. However, the U. S. Supreme Court has not handed down any clear-cut guidelines on the issue. In

wing their support on election and effect—to sympathetic candidates at they “knew nothing” about nativists wreaked havoc with in the existing party system. ng victories at the state and els. They attracted many their point of view along with ber of Democrats. Southern because of growing sectional the reintroduction of the slav- ional politics in 1854. For a the Know-Nothings (officially y) would be the main opposi- nated States. Publicly backing as a presidential candidate in ore than 21% of the popular ctoral votes.

hings wanted to use govern- erve their vision of a particu- lo-Saxon Protestant society. ional platforms demanded that mited, that politics be “puri- officeholding to native-born at a 21-year wait be imposed nt could become a citizen and ight to limit the sale of liquor, chool teaching to Protestants, rotestant version of the Bible rooms.

trength and appeal, the Know- eady in decline as a national leset by differences over the y members joined the Repub- eemed sympathetic to much nd offered additional appeals t issues. Know-Nothing par- ng in a number of Northern 850's, but the party was spent before the election of 1860. hing movement illustrated two nt ethnoreligious hostility in t often intruded into politics y for political disruption when l to deal adequately with vola- itical tensions. Although the / lost out to the Republicans, nd they formed one aspect of eal for more than a genera-

JOEL H. SILBEY
Cornell University

ry of. See EPISTEMOLOGY.

n, Charles (1800–1850), Ameri- o published the first popular an on birth control. Born in , on May 10, 1800, Knowlton ine by apprenticeship and by lectures at the Medical De- outh College, where he re- 1824. While practicing med- Massachusetts after graduation, t freethinking led him to pub- s of *Modern Materialism* in ng Robert Dale Owen's tract on control, Knowlton decided that a more natural means of birth l couples than those discussed lton advocated his method in *uits of Philosophy; or the Pri- of Young Married People* ual enjoyed widespread popu-

arity throughout most of the 19th century, and although Knowlton was prosecuted three times for obscenity, his medical practice flourished, and he became a respected member of the Massachusetts Medical Society. In the 1870's his book achieved worldwide circulation after its English distributors were unsuccessfully prose- cuted for obscenity in a well-publicized trial. Knowlton died in Winchendon, Mass., on Feb. 20, 1850.

CHARLOTTE G. BORST
University of Wisconsin

KNOX, noks, Frank (1874–1944), American jour- nalist, vice-presidential candidate, and cabinet officer. William Franklin Knox was born in Bos- ton, Mass., on Jan. 1, 1874. Graduated from Alma College in Michigan in 1898, he enlisted in the army and became one of Theodore Roose- velt's Rough Riders in the Spanish-American War. In 1901 he bought a half interest in the Sault Sainte Marie (Mich.) *News*, which he pub- lished until 1912. A Republican, he was Theo- dore Roosevelt's preconvention campaign man- ager in the Midwest in 1911 and supported the former president in his Bull Moose campaign. In 1912 he moved to Manchester, N.H., where he became half owner of the *Leader*.

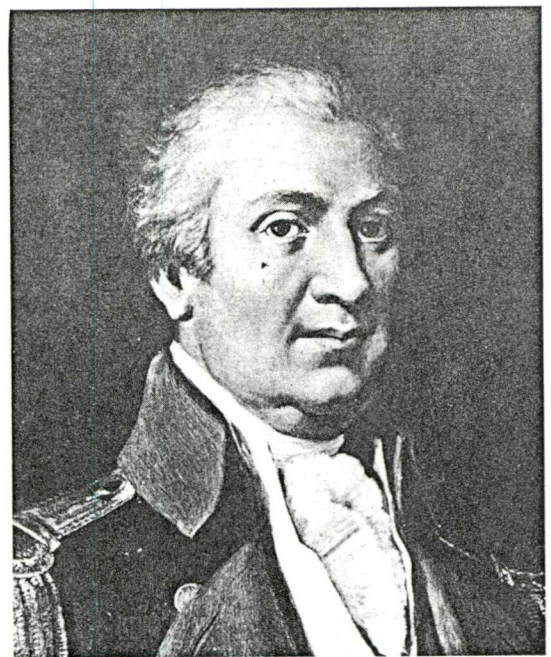
Soon after the United States entered World War I in April 1917, Knox enlisted as a private at age 43. He went overseas with the 78th Divi- sion and eventually reached the rank of major.

After the war Knox continued to publish the Manchester paper. In 1927 he joined the news- paper system of William Randolph Hearst as publisher of the Boston *American* and *Advertiser* and the following year became general manager of all the Hearst newspapers. Resigning in 1931, he bought a controlling interest in the Chicago *Daily News*. His editorial policy was firmly against the New Deal. He objected to govern- ment economic intervention as exemplified in the Wagner Act and the Social Security Act. His prominence in the battle against the Franklin Roosevelt administration led to his nomination by the Republicans for vice president in 1936.

As World War II began to threaten, Knox emphasized the need for U.S. naval supremacy. In the summer of 1940, Knox was named secre- tary of the navy, as one of two Republicans appointed by President Roosevelt in an effort to form a coalition cabinet. Charged with creating a strong two-ocean navy, he was instrumental in making the U.S. fleet the most powerful in his- tory. He died while in office in Washington, D.C. on April 28, 1944.

KNOX, noks, Henry (1750–1806), American Revolu- tionary general and Washington's first secre- tary of war. He was born in Boston, Mass., on July 25, 1750. He was employed by a Boston bookseller at the age of 12 and in 1771 opened his own shop, the London Bookstore, which be- came a gathering place for British officers. Knox spent much of his spare time studying military science. He had joined a local military company when he was 18, and in 1772 he became second in command of the newly formed Boston Gren- adier Corps.

Knox joined the American colonial army in 1775 and participated in nearly every important military engagement throughout the Revolution. In November 1775 he was commissioned colonel of artillery. With the sanction of Gen. George



BROWN BROTHERS

Gen. Henry Knox participated in nearly all of the major military engagements of the American Revolution.

Washington, he went to Fort Ticonderoga, near the Canadian frontier, to transport to Boston a large store of cannon captured by Ethan Allen from the British. The fortification of Dorchester Heights with these 55 captured guns compelled the British evacuation of Boston on March 17, 1776.

Knox became Washington's trusted adviser and friend. He organized the American artillery and fought in the battles in and around New York in 1776. It was under his supervision that Wash- ington's troops crossed the Delaware River on Christmas night, 1776, to attack the Hessian sol- diers in Trenton. For this he was rewarded with a commission as brigadier general. Under his direction the artillery was effective in the battles of Princeton (Jan. 3, 1777), Brandywine (Sept. 11, 1777), Germantown (Oct. 4, 1777), and Mon- mouth (June 28, 1778), and in the siege of York- town (October 1781). Knox had been with Washington during the cruel winter of 1777 in Valley Forge, and, while in winter quarters in New Jersey in 1779, he organized a temporary military academy. Knox served on the court- martial that condemned Maj. John André as a spy in 1780.

After the British surrender at Yorktown, Knox was made a major general. In 1782 he was placed in command of West Point. At his urging a group of Revolutionary officers founded the Society of the Cincinnati in 1783 to perpetuate their mutual friendships and to assist needy offi- cers and their families.

Knox was appointed secretary of war in 1785 under the Articles of Confederation. A firm be- liever in a strong federal government, he wel- comed the new Constitution and was retained as secretary of war (Aug. 7, 1789) in the cabinet of President Washington. A plan for a national mi- litia, advanced by Knox in 1790, failed to win congressional approval. He retired from public life in 1794 and in 1796 settled on his estate, Montpelier, in Thomaston, Me., where he died, on Oct. 25, 1806.

Name	Dates	President
Humphrey, George M.	1953-57	Eisenhower
Ingham, Samuel D.	1829-31	Jackson
Jones, William	<i>ad int.</i> , 1814	Madison
Kennedy, David M.	1969-70	Nixon
McAdoo, William G.	1913-18	Wilson
McCulloch, Hugh	1865	Lincoln
McCulloch, Hugh	1865-69	A. Johnson
McCulloch, Hugh	1884-85	Arthur
McLane, Louis	1831-33	Jackson
MacVeagh, Franklin	1909-13	Taft
Manning, Daniel	1885-87	Cleveland
Mellon, Andrew W.	1921-23	Harding
Mellon, Andrew W.	1923-29	Coolidge
Meredith, William M.	1849-50	Taylor
Mills, Ogden L.	1932-33	Hoover
Morgenthau, Henry, Jr.	1934-45	F. D. Roosevelt
Morrill, Lot M.	1876-77	Grant
Richardson, William A.	1873-74	Grant
Rush, Richard	1825-29	J. Q. Adams
Shaw, Leslie M.	1902-07	T. Roosevelt
Sherman, John	1877-81	Hayes
Shultz, George P.	1972-74	Nixon
Simon, William E.	1974	Nixon
Simon, William E.	1974-77	Ford
Snyder, John W.	1946-53	Truman
Spencer, John C.	1825	Tyler
Taney, Roger B.	1833-34	Jackson
Thomas, Philip F.	1860-61	Buchanan
Vinson, Frederick M.	1945-46	Truman
Walker, Robert J.	1845-49	Polk
Windom, William	1881	Garfield
Windom, William	1889-91	B. Harrison
Wolcott, Oliver, Jr.	1795-1800	Washington
Woodbury, Levi	1834-37	Jackson
Woodbury, Levi	1837-41	Van Buren
Woodin, William H.	1933-34	F. D. Roosevelt

SECRETARIES OF WAR* **CHRON**

Name	Dates	President
*Alger, Russell A.	1897-99	McKinley
Armstrong, John	1813-14	Madison
Baker, Newton D.	1916-21	Wilson
Bancroft, George	(acting) 1845	Polk
Barbour, James	1825-28	J. Q. Adams
Belknap, William W.	1869-76	Grant

*Position merged with that of Secretary of the Navy into the National Military Establishment under Department of Defense by the National Security Act of 1947.

Name	Dates	President
Bell, John	1841	W. H. Harrison
Butler, Benjamin F.	<i>ad int.</i> , 1836-37	Monroe
Calhoun, John C.	1817-25	Monroe
Cameron, James D.	1876-77	Grant
Cameron, Simon	1861-62	Lincoln
Cass, Lewis	1831-36	Jackson
Conrad, Charles M.	1850-53	Fillmore
Crawford, George W.	1849-50	Taylor
Crawford, William H.	1815-16	Madison
Dallas, Alexander	<i>ad int.</i> , 1815	Madison
Davis, Dwight F.	1925-29	Coolidge
*Davis, Jefferson	1853-57	Pierce
Dearborn, Henry	1801-09	Jefferson
Dern, George H.	1933-36	F. D. Roosevelt
Dexter, Samuel	1800-01	Adams
Dickinson, Jacob M.	1909-11	Taft
Eaton, John H.	1829-31	Jackson
Elkins, Stephen B.	1891-95	B. Harrison
Endicott, William C.	1885-89	Cleveland
Eustis, William	1809-12	Madison
Floyd, John B.	1857-61	Buchanan
Garrison, Lindley M.	1913-16	Wilson
Good, James W.	1929	Hoover
*Grant, Ulysses S.	<i>ad int.</i> , 1867-68	A. Johnson
Holt, Joseph	<i>ad int.</i> , 1861	Buchanan
Hurley, Patrick J.	1929-33	Hoover
Johnson, Reverdy	<i>ad int.</i> , 1849	Taylor
*Knox, Henry	1785-94	Washington
Lamont, Daniel S.	1893-97	Cleveland
Lincoln, Robert T.	1881	Garfield
Lincoln, Robert T.	1881-85	Arthur
McCrary, George W.	1877-79	Hayes
McHenry, James	1796-1800	Washington
Marcy, William L.	1845-49	Polk
*Monroe, James	1813-14; <i>ad int.</i> ,	Madison
*Monroe, James	1814-15	
Patterson, Robert P.	1945-47	Truman
*Pickering, Timothy	<i>ad int.</i> , 1795-96	Washington
Poinsett, Joel R.	1837-41	Van Buren
Porter, James M.	1843-44	Tyler
Porter, Peter B.	1828-29	J. Q. Adams
Proctor, Redfield	1889-91	B. Harrison
Ramsey, Alexander	1879-81	Hayes
Rawlins, John A.	1869	Grant
Root, Elihu	1899-1904	McKinley
Royall, Kenneth C.	1947	Truman
Schofield, John M.	1868-69	A. Johnson
Sherman, William T.	1869	Grant
Southard, Samuel L.	<i>ad int.</i> , 1828	J. Q. Adams
Spencer, John C.	1841-43	Tyler

Name	Dates	President
Stanton, Edwin M.	1862-65	Lincoln
Stanton, Edwin M.	1865-67; 1868	A. Johnson
Stimson, Henry L.	1940-45	F. D. Roosevelt
Stimson, Henry L.	1945	Truman
Stoddert, Benjamin	<i>ad int.</i> , 1800	J. Adams
Taft, Alphonso	1876	Grant
*Taft, William H.	1904-08	T. Roosevelt
Taney, Roger B.	<i>ad int.</i> , 1831	Jackson
Weeks, John W.	1921-23	Harding
Weeks, John W.	1923-25	Coolidge
Wilkins, William	1844-45	Tyler
Woodring, Henry H.	1936-40	F. D. Roosevelt
Wright, Luke E.	1908-09	T. Roosevelt

SECRETARIES OF THE NAVY*

Name	Dates	President
Adams, Charles F.	1929-33	Hoover
Badger, George E.	1841	W. H. Harrison
Bancroft, George	1845-46	Polk
Bonaparte, Charles J.	1905-06	T. Roosevelt
Borie, Adolph	1869	Grant
Branch, John	1829-31	Jackson
Calhoun, John C.	<i>ad int.</i> , 1818-19	Monroe
Chandler, William E.	1882-85	Arthur
Crowninshield, Benjamin W.	1815-17	Madison
Crowninshield, Benjamin W.	1817-18	Monroe
Daniels, Josephus	1913-21	Wilson
Dearborn, Henry	<i>ad int.</i> , 1801	Jefferson
Denby, Edwin	1921-24	Harding
Dickerson, Mahlon	1834-38	Jackson
Dobbin, James C.	1853-57	Pierce
Edison, Charles	1939-40	F. D. Roosevelt
Forrestal, James V.	1944-47	F. D. Roosevelt
Gilmer, Thomas W.	1844	Tyler
Goff, Nathan, Jr.	1881	Hayes
Graham, William A.	1850-52	Fillmore
Hamilton, Paul	1809-12	Madison
Henshaw, David	1843-44	Tyler
Herbert, Hilary A.	1893-97	Cleveland
Hunt, William H.	1881-82	Garfield
Jones, William	1813-14	Madison
Kennedy, John P.	1852-53	Fillmore
Knox, W. Frank	1940-44	F. D. Roosevelt
Long, John D.	1897-1902	McKinley
Mason, John Y.	1844-45	Tyler

*Positions merged with that of Secretary of War into the National Military Establishment under Department of Defense by the National Security Act of 1947.

Name	Dates	President
Mason, John Y.	1846-49	Polk
Metcalf, Victor H.	1906-08	T. Roosevelt
Meyer, George Von L.	1909-13	Taft
Moody, William H.	1902-04	T. Roosevelt
Morton, Paul	1904-05	T. Roosevelt
Newberry, Truman H.	1908-09	T. Roosevelt
Paulding, James K.	1838-41	Van Buren
Preston, William B.	1849-50	Taylor
Ramsey, Alexander	<i>ad int.</i> , 1880-81	Hayes
Robeson, George M.	1869-77	Grant
Smith, Robert	1801-09	Jefferson
Southard, Samuel L.	1823-25	Monroe
Southard, Samuel L.	1825-29	J. Q. Adams
Stoddert, Benjamin	1798-1801	J. Adams
Swanson, Claude	1933-39	F. D. Roosevelt
Thompson, Richard W.	1877-80	Hayes
Thompson, Smith	1819-23	Monroe
Toucey, Isaac	1857-61	Buchanan
Tracy, Benjamin F.	1889-93	B. Harrison
Upshur, Abel P.	1841-43	Tyler
Welles, Gideon	1861-65	Lincoln
Welles, Gideon	1865-69	A. Johnson
Whitney, William C.	1885-89	Cleveland
Wilbur, Curtis D.	1924-29	Coolidge
Woodbury, Levi	1831-34	Jackson

SECRETARIES OF DEFENSE*

Name	Dates	President
Brown, Harold	1977-1981	Carter
Clifford, Clark M.	1968-69	L. B. Johnson
*Forrestal, James V.	1947-49	Truman
Gates, Thomas S., Jr.	1959-61	Eisenhower
Johnson, Louis M.	1949-50	Truman
Laird, Melvin R.	1969-73	Nixon
Lovett, Robert A.	1951-53	Truman
McElroy, Neil H.	1957-59	Eisenhower
*McNamara, Robert S.	1961-63	Kennedy
McNamara, Robert S.	1963-68	L. B. Johnson
*Marshall, George C.	1950-51	Truman
Richardson, Elliot L.	1973-74	Nixon
Schlesinger, James R.	1974	Nixon
Schlesinger, James R.	1974-76	Ford
Wilson, Charles E.	1953-57	Eisenhower
Wenburger, Casper	1981-86(?)	Reagan
Carlucci, Frank	1986-1989	"

*Position created by the National Security Act of 1947, merging Departments of War and Navy into the National Military Establishment under Department of Defense.

Secretary of the Treasury

Alexander Hamilton 1789-1795	Walter Q. Gresham 1884
Oliver Wolcott, Jr. 1795-1800	Hugh McCulloch 1884-1885
Samuel Dexter 1801	Daniel Manning 1885-1887
Albert Gallatin 1801-1814	Charles S. Fairchild 1887-1889
George W. Campbell 1814	William Windom 1889-1891
Alexander J. Dallas 1814-1816	Charles Foster 1891-1893
William H. Crawford 1816-1825	John G. Carlisle 1893-1897
Richard Rush 1825-1829	Lyman J. Gage 1897-1902
Samuel D. Ingham 1829-1831	Leslie M. Shaw 1902-1907
Louis McLane 1831-1833	George B. Cortelyou 1907-1909
William J. Duane 1833	Franklin McVeagh 1909-1913
Roger B. Taney 1833-1834	William G. McAdoo 1913-1918
Levi Woodbury 1834-1841	Carter Glass 1918-1920
Thomas Ewing 1841	David F. Houston 1920-1921
Walter Forward 1841-1843	Andrew W. Mellon 1921-1932
John C. Spencer 1843-1844	Ogden L. Mills 1932-1933
George M. Bibb 1844-1845	William H. Woodin 1933
Robert J. Walker 1845-1849	Henry Morgenthau, Jr. 1934-1945
William M. Meredith 1849-1850	Frederick M. Vinson 1945-1946
Thomas Corwin 1850-1853	John W. Snyder 1946-1953
James Guthrie 1853-1857	George M. Humphrey 1953-1957
Howell Cobb 1857-1860	Robert B. Anderson 1957-1961
Phillip F. Thomas 1860-1861	C. Douglas Dillon 1961-1965
John A. Dix 1861	Henry H. Fowler 1965-1968
Salmon P. Chase 1861-1864	Joseph W. Barr 1968-1969
William P. Fessenden 1864-1865	David M. Kennedy 1969-1971
Hugh McCulloch 1865-1869	John B. Connally 1971-1973
George S. Boutwell 1869-1873	George P. Shultz 1972-1974
William A. Richardson 1873-1874	William E. Simon 1974-1977
Benjamin H. Bristow 1874-1876	W. Michael Blumenthal 1977-1979
Lot M. Morrill 1876-1877	G. William Miller 1979-1981
John Sherman 1877-1881	Donald T. Regan 1981-1985
William Windom 1881	James A. Baker, III 1985-
Charles J. Folger 1881-1884	

Secretary of War *ALPHABETICAL*

Henry Knox 1789-1795	James McHenry 1796-1800
Timothy Pickering 1795	Samuel Dexter 1800

Henry Dearborn 1801-1809	Alphonso Taft 1876
William Eustis 1809-1812	James D. Cameron 1876-1877
John Armstrong 1813-1814	George W. McCrary 1877-1879
James Monroe 1814-1815	Alexander Ramsey 1879-1881
William H. Crawford 1815-1816	Robert T. Lincoln 1881-1885
John C. Calhoun 1817-1825	William C. Endicott 1885-1889
James Barbour 1825-1828	Redfield Proctor 1889-1891
Peter B. Porter 1828-1829	Stephen B. Elkins 1891-1893
John H. Eaton 1829-1831	Daniel S. Lamont 1893-1897
Lewis Cass 1831-1836	Russell A. Alger 1897-1899
Joel R. Poinsett 1837-1841	Elihu Root 1899-1904
John Bell 1841	William H. Taft 1904-1908
John C. Spencer 1841-1843	Luke E. Wright 1908-1909
James M. Porter 1843-1844	Jacob G. Dickinson 1909-1911
William Wilkins 1844-1845	Henry L. Stimson 1911-1913
William L. Marcy 1845-1849	Lindley M. Garrison 1913-1916
George W. Crawford 1844-1850	Newton D. Baker 1916-1921
Charles M. Conrad 1850-1853	John W. Weeks 1921-1925
Jefferson Davis 1853-1857	Dwight F. Davis 1925-1929
John B. Floyd 1857-1861	James W. Good 1929
Simon Cameron 1861-1862	Patrick J. Hurley 1929-1933
Edwin M. Stanton 1862, 1867	George H. Dern 1933-1936
Edwin M. Stanton 1868	Harry H. Woodring 1937-1940
John M. Schofield 1868-1869	Henry L. Stimson 1940-1945
John A. Rawlins 1869	Robert P. Patterson 1945-1947
William T. Sherman 1869	Kenneth C. Royall 1947
William W. Belknap 1869-1876	

Attorney General

Edmund Randolph 1789-1794	Benjamin F. Butler 1833-1837
William Bradford 1794-1795	Felix Grundy 1838-1840
Charles Lee 1795-1801	Henry D. Gilpin 1840-1841
Levi Lincoln 1801-1804	John J. Crittenden 1841
John Breckenridge 1805-1806	Hugh S. Legare 1841-1843
Caesar A. Rodney 1807-1811	John Nelson 1843-1845
William Pinkney 1811-1814	John Y. Mason 1845-1846
Richard Rush 1814-1817	Nathan Clifford 1846-1848
William Wirt 1817-1829	Isaac Toucey 1848-1849
John M. Berrien 1829-1831	Reverdy Johnson 1849-1850
Roger B. Taney 1831-1833	John I. Crittenden 1850-1853

WAR, Articles of. See ARTICLES OF WAR.

WAR, Department of, a former executive department of the United States government with supervision over the military establishment. Until the organization of the federal government in 1789, military affairs were managed by a War Office (created in 1781). The act of Aug. 7, 1789, which in effect continued the activities of the War Office unchanged, established a Department of War headed by a civilian secretary of cabinet ranking. Originally, the department's jurisdiction included the navy, but in 1798 that function was taken over by the new Department of the Navy. Numerous changes in organization and responsibilities occurred during the War Department's 158 years of existence, notably during the periods of World Wars I and II.

The move toward unification of the armed services was climaxed by the National Security Act of 1947 (as amended in 1949), which combined the nation's defense organizations into the National Military Establishment, later redesignated the Department of Defense. The War Department thus became the Department of the Army (within the Defense Department), headed by a civilian secretary who is subordinate to the secretary of defense and who does not hold cabinet rank. The reorganization also transferred certain of the War Department's functions and property, including the Army Air Forces, to the new Department of the Air Force. See also DEFENSE, DEPARTMENT OF.

WAR, Laws of. Operations of war by civilized countries are governed by rules known as the laws of war. Some of these, like the British or American common law, are unwritten, although generally recognized. Others are set forth in treaties and conventions to which many nations are parties. This article deals with the principal subjects of both written and unwritten laws of war. Many of the important written laws are contained in the Geneva conventions of 1929 relating to the treatment of prisoners of war, and to the care of the wounded and sick, and the Hague conventions of 1899 and 1907. The latter deal specifically with such questions as the opening of hostilities, the laws and customs of war on land, the duties and rights of neutrals,

submarine mines, bombardment by naval forces and projectiles from balloons. Earlier customs, while still effective, are largely superseded by these conventions. The written rules are general a formal application of principles of unwritten laws of war.

The bases of the laws of war are military necessity, humanity, and chivalry. It has been said that the unwritten rules are binding on civilized nations, and it is recognized that signatories to the conventions are bound by their terms, possibly subject to certain exceptions, when the enemy is not a signatory.

In early days, the customs of armies depended on might, rather than right. There were no laws of war as we know them today. Prisoners of war were slain or made slaves. Captured towns were sacked and ravished. The conqueror's will was supreme. However, over the centuries the influences of civilization, and especially Christianity, brought ameliorating changes. The proper and decent treatment of prisoners of war, the sick and wounded, and the civil population became increasingly recognized, sometimes by special agreement or convention between belligerents or local commanders, sometimes because of a more civilized influence on the victor.

While certain rules have been the subject of different interpretations by signatory nations and although some of them have been violated by some belligerents recently, the laws of war generally have been followed, more especially on land. They are well known to trained officers and have been set forth in a number of military and naval manuals of the defense forces of civilized countries.

Armed Forces.—The laws of war, and the rights and duties, apply to regular armies, navies, and air forces. They also apply to militia and volunteer corps which are properly commanded, have distinctive emblems, carry arms openly. Even a *levée en masse* (mass uprising) in unoccupied territory, if carried out openly but without time to organize, resist invasion, and are recognized as having the rights of belligerents if they respect the laws and customs of war. However, those who rise against an occupying army are not entitled to the protection of the laws of war.

Hostilities.—The Hague conventions call for a previous and explicit warning, either in the form of a reasoned declaration of war or of an ultimatum before the commencement of hostilities. This provision was complied with by Great Britain in the famous ultimatum to Germany Aug. 4, 1914, and again at the start of hostilities with Germany in September 1941. The provision was disregarded by Japan when her carrier planes attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. In view of the invention of atomic bombs and guided missiles, there will be a need for more specific provisions, but conventions unfortunately do not always prevent nations from violations.

While military necessity is held to justify the destruction of life or limb of armed enemies and enemy property, it never justifies cruelty. No torture, wounding (except in combat), nor the imposition of unnecessary suffering are permitted.

For this reason the Hague convention prohibits the use of poison or poisoned weapons. The killing or wounding of an enemy who has laid down his arms and surrendered, the re-

According to an early visitor, Indians in Florida declared war by planting arrows to which hair had been attached.

The Bettmann Archive



DEFENSE, Department of, an executive department of the U. S. government directed, and represented in the president's cabinet, by the secretary of defense. It was created in 1949 by amendments to the National Security Act of 1947, from which the basic structure of U. S. defense agencies derives. This act had already created the office of secretary of defense to head a "National Military Establishment."

By the 1949 amendments the Army, Navy, and Air Force became military departments within the Department of Defense instead of executive departments as they had been formerly. Congress at the same time stated that its intention was to provide for the authoritative coordination of the military departments under civilian control, but not to merge them.

By amendments in 1953 and 1958 the secretary's authority was extended so that, both in theory and in practice, he exercises nearly unlimited power. By statute he is still forbidden to merge the departments or to appoint a super chief of staff, but otherwise his hands are practically free in supervising one of the largest administrative units in the world. Each of the three component military departments—Army, Navy, or Air Force—has a larger number of personnel than any other single government department. In the late 1960's, during the Vietnam War, the secretary of defense spent about half the total annual budget of the government, controlled more than 600 major installations containing more than \$150 billion in real property and equipment, and directed supply and communications systems employing millions of people.

Organization and Functions. The agencies of the Department of Defense may be grouped into four main categories: the office of the secretary, the military departments, the Joint Chiefs of Staff, and the unified and specified commands. The secretary's line of authority is direct to both staff and fighting forces.

In the office of the secretary there are the deputy secretary, seven assistant secretaries, the director of defense research and engineering, and the general counsel of the department. The heads of these offices perform such functions as are assigned by the secretary of defense in accord with existing laws.

Each military department has its own secretary. As the powers of the secretary of defense increased during the 1960's, the powers of the service secretaries correspondingly decreased. By the Reorganization Act of 1958 the military departments were removed from the operational chain of command. The chain of command now runs from the president to the secretary of defense, and through the Joint Chiefs of Staff to the commanders of forces in the field. Despite these centralizing tendencies the military departments retain considerable responsibilities. They still organize, train, and equip personnel for the various commands, and they administer and support the forces so assigned. By statute the service secretaries retain their right of direct access to Congress and the president.

The chief of staff of the Army, the chief of naval operations, and the chief of staff of the Air Force serve in dual roles as heads of their respective services and as members of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (JCS). The commandant of the Marine Corps attends meetings of the JCS regularly, and he participates as an equal member when matters directly concerning the Marine

Corps are being discussed. The JCS is presided over by a chairman, an additional member appointed by the president; during his tenure the chairman ranks above all other officers of the armed forces. The JCS is served by the Joint Staff, which is composed of not more than 400 officers selected in approximately equal numbers from the Army, the Navy (including the Marine Corps), and the Air Force.

The JCS is the principal military advisory body to the president, the National Security Council, and the secretary of defense. It also directs the operations conducted by the commanders of the unified and specified commands.

The term "unified command" is used to designate a force under a single commander operating under a broad continuing mission and with assigned personnel from two or more services. The unified commands include: Alaskan, Atlantic, Continental Air Defense, European, Pacific, Southern, and Strike commands. A "specified command" has a broad continuing mission but normally represents but one service. The only example is the Strategic Air Command.

Centralization and Unification. The highly centralized structure of defense arrangements evolved after World War II in response to rapid developments in weapons technology and to the worldwide commitments of the United States. During the 19th century the shoreline divided the functions of the Army, which fought on land, from those of the Navy, which fought on the water. The acquisition of overseas territories and the gradual breakdown of American isolation early in the 1900's, however, suggested the need for better coordination between the services.

The advent of air power and the operational and organizational problems posed by it brought the question of unification to a head. Between World Wars I and II the Air Corps struggled unsuccessfully to attain equal status with the Army and Navy. With the outbreak of World War II the Air Force continued nominally to be a part of the Army but was practically independent. Operationally, the three services were, with certain exceptions, under one commander.

Between 1921 and 1945 no fewer than 50 legislative measures pertaining to the unification of the armed forces were introduced in Congress. High-ranking military and civilian officials of each service held varying opinions. In general, the Navy felt that its problems were unique and that it had little to gain and possibly much to lose by unification. However, James V. Forrestal, the secretary of the navy from 1944 to 1947, felt that it was tactically better to support a positive plan than simply to oppose ideas advanced by others. Accordingly, he advocated a confederation of the Army and Navy departments, tied together by interlocking boards and committees. Forrestal informed Congress that he was not yet willing to accept the Air Force as a separate and equal service. The Army advocated a single department of armed forces and a super chief of staff, who would have all the armed forces under his command. Air Force views, while not identical, were like the Army's.

President Harry S. Truman and Congress mediated between these opposing views and produced the National Security Act of 1947, which represented a compromise. The Navy had to accept the idea of a single secretary of defense and a separate and equal Air Force, but the Army had to forgo a super chief of staff.

SECRETARIES OF DEFENSE OF THE UNITED STATES

Name	Term of service	Presidents under whom served
James V. Forrestal	1947-1949	Truman
Louis A. Johnson	1949-1950	Truman
George C. Marshall	1950-1951	Truman
Robert A. Lovett	1951-1953	Truman
Charles E. Wilson	1953-1957	Eisenhower
Neil H. McElroy	1957-1959	Eisenhower
Thomas S. Gates, Jr.	1959-1961	Eisenhower
Robert S. McNamara	1961-1968	Kennedy, Johnson
Clark M. Clifford	1968-1969	Johnson
Melvin R. Laird	1969-1973	Nixon
Elliot Richardson	1973	Nixon
James R. Schlesinger	1973-1975	Nixon, Ford
Donald H. Rumsfeld	1975-1977	Ford
Harold Brown	1977-1981	Carter
Caspar W. Weinberger	1981-1987	Reagan
Frank C. Carlucci	1987-	Reagan

The aim of the National Security Act of 1947 was not merely to reform the military organization in order to eliminate waste, duplication, and undesirable interservice rivalry. Congress also sought to create machinery that would coordinate the country's diplomacy, economic strength, and scientific knowledge. Hence several interlocking boards and agencies were created, among them the National Security Council, which was to advise the president on all aspects of foreign and military policy, and the Central Intelligence Agency, under the NSC, which was to coordinate all intelligence functions.

The Secretaries. The Department of Defense has been transformed from the original confederation to a more unified structure not merely by amendments to the original legislation but also by the ideas and methods employed by successive secretaries. Although they varied widely in their backgrounds and personalities, these secretaries were all men of strong character who added to or maintained the powers of the office.

Secretary Wilson, who before his appointment had been president of General Motors Corporation, attempted to carry out President Eisenhower's campaign promise of a "new book" by reducing defense expenditures and strengthening civilian control. He did this by building up the forces of massive retaliation to the neglect—so critics of the administration alleged—of conventional forces capable of a flexible response. Civilian control was strengthened mainly through budgetary controls, which were further refined by secretaries McElroy and Gates.

The secretary who carried out the most thoroughgoing reforms was Robert S. McNamara. He produced a revolution in defense department management and military strategy, as well as in upholding the principle of civilian control. In the field of management, he introduced a planning-programming-budgeting process that attempted to tie together in terms of national objectives the requirements and projected activities of all the military agencies and commands. In the field of strategy, McNamara, with the full backing of presidents Kennedy and Johnson, strengthened the deterrent forces but at the same time built up conventional forces.

HARRY L. COLES, *Ohio State University*

Further Reading: Coles, Harry L., ed., *Total War and Cold War: Problems in the Civilian Control of the Military* (Ohio State Univ. Press 1962); Kanter, Arnold, *Defense Politics: A Budgetary Perspective* (1979; reprint, Univ. of Chicago Press 1983); Korb, Lawrence J., *The Fall and Rise of the Pentagon* (Greenwood 1979); Pursell, Carroll W., ed., *The Military-Industrial Complex* (Harper 1972); Rosi, Eugene J., ed., *American Defense and Détente* (Dodd 1973).

DEFENSE MECHANISMS are unconscious mental reactions that protect the individual's ego, or self, from damaging conflict, guilt, or anxiety. These mechanisms modify unconscious impulses that, usually because of social conventions, cannot be expressed directly. Although psychologists disagree about the number and precise nature of the defense mechanisms, several common ones are generally recognized, and their importance is well established.

The concept of the defense mechanism was introduced by Sigmund Freud in his earliest writings on psychoanalysis, and especially in a paper, "The Defense Neuro-Psychoses," published in 1894. One of the reactions he considered was *repression*, the most general defense mechanism, which occurs when a disturbing impulse or realization is rejected by the conscious mind and relegated to the unconscious, so that the individual is no longer aware of the conflict engendered by it. After 1894, Freud concentrated his attention on the role of repression in mental conflicts and rejected the notion of numerous defense mechanisms; for some 30 years he maintained that the theory of repression could account for all mental defenses. Finally, in *The Problem of Anxiety* (1926), he explained that he had found it necessary to return to the theory of several different mechanisms of defense. He had also come to recognize that the major function of such mechanisms was to deal with anxiety and guilt, usually rising from sexual or aggressive impulses.

According to Freudian psychologists, all neurotic mechanisms have a repressive factor in that they protect the individual from awareness of unacceptable impulses or insights. Any of the other defense mechanisms may substitute for repression in excluding unacceptable materials from consciousness; a few attempt to integrate such materials, in some transmuted form, with the rest of the personality. Some of these other major defense mechanisms are the following:

Rationalization guards against awareness of unacceptable impulses by inventing explanations of the resulting behavior that are superficially plausible and convincing to the individual.

A reaction formation is a pattern of behavior that is opposed to an anxiety- or guilt-producing impulse. Thus a mother who feels hostile to her child may spoil the child and make a display of sweet and tender affection, as if to convince herself of her lack of hostility. Such patterns of behavior are seldom perfectly consistent.

Projection assigns the unacceptable impulse to another person or persons. In Freud's classic example, a patient, anxious and guilty because of homosexual impulses, came to feel unconsciously that he was not fit to live. By projecting this concern, he succeeded in consciously feeling comfortable about himself but began to suspect others of plotting to destroy him.

Other mechanisms include *regression*, in which the individual retreats from stressful situations by reverting to childish behavior patterns; *displacement*, in which an impulse that is dangerous in one situation is later released in a different and safer situation; *sublimation*, in which the energy of an unconscious impulse is rechanneled to some creative activity; *isolation*, in which behavior is dissociated from the impulse causing it and is thus made acceptable; and *intellectualization*, in which a conflict is stripped of its personal meaning and dealt with abstractly.

AUSTIN E. GRIGG, *University of Richmond*

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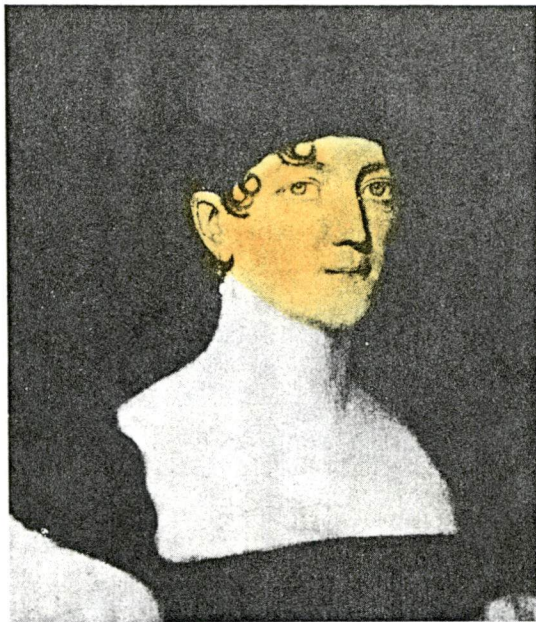
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Mrs. James Monroe, by Benjamin West

of the Mississippi River. He also helped lay the groundwork for territorial government embodied in the Northwest Ordinance of 1787. While in Congress, Monroe joined the advocates of a stronger government, continuing the work of his friend James Madison. Yet as a member of the Virginia ratifying convention he joined Patrick Henry and George Mason in opposing the ratification of the U. S. Constitution. He considered it defective in the excessive power granted the Senate and in authorizing direct taxes.

In 1789, now a married man, he settled in Albemarle county to be close to Jefferson. Monroe's wife, the former Elizabeth Kortright of New York, was regarded as one of the great beauties of the day. Reserved and rather cold in her manner, she was to bring to the White House a formality not always relished by Washingtonians. Here in Albemarle their two daughters, Eliza and Maria Hester, were born. A son died in infancy.

Opponent of the Federalists. Elected to the United States Senate in 1790, Monroe joined Madison (then in the House) in combating Hamilton's domestic measures, which emphasized centralization of powers in the federal government. He also opposed Washington's seemingly pro-British foreign policy. Monroe worked with Jefferson and Madison in organizing the Republican party. His contribution lay in the realm of political strategy and in establishing liaison with anti-Hamilton forces in other states. He also ably assisted Madison in defending the Republican position in the press.

In 1794, when Washington dispatched Federalist John Jay on a mission to Britain, Monroe was named minister to France in the hope that this would appease Republican critics of the administration who feared a diplomatic rupture with France. Because Monroe conceived the purpose of his mission as the preservation of Franco-American amity in the face of Washington's pro-British stance, he acted more as a Republican party spokesman than as the representative of

his government. Dissatisfaction with his conduct led to his recall in 1796, engineered by Secretary of State Timothy Pickering. Monroe defended himself by publishing a harsh attack on Washington's foreign policy.

From 1799 to 1802, Monroe served as governor of Virginia, demonstrating great administrative ability and winning praise for his decisive action to suppress a slave uprising (Gabriel's Insurrection) in 1800.

Diplomat for Jefferson. President Jefferson sent Monroe to France in 1803 as a special envoy to assist Minister Robert R. Livingston in purchasing a port of deposit on the lower Mississippi River, because Spain was closing the river to American navigation in preparation for the recently negotiated retrocession of Louisiana to France. On his arrival Napoleon presented Livingston and Monroe with the choice of buying all of Louisiana or nothing. Although not authorized by their instructions they promptly accepted, a decision approved by Jefferson in spite of his doubts about the constitutionality of such an extensive territorial acquisition. Popular approval of the Louisiana Purchase established Monroe securely as a national figure, whose elevation to the presidency was but a matter of time.

From 1803 to 1807, Monroe served as minister to Britain. In 1805 he went to Madrid in a fruitless attempt to persuade Spain to acknowledge the American claim that West Florida should be included in the Louisiana Purchase. In 1806 he and William Pinkney (sent as a special envoy) negotiated a treaty providing for some relaxation of Britain's commercial restrictions. Because the treaty lacked provisions for ending the impressment of American seamen, Jefferson did not submit it to the Senate for ratification. Monroe, convinced that the treaty contained the best obtainable terms, was deeply offended.

In 1808, Monroe ran against Madison, whom he blamed for the rejection of the treaty, for the presidency in Virginia, more as a protest than as a serious candidate. He received little support, and Madison was elected president.

Member of the War Cabinet. Monroe served in the Virginia assembly in 1810 and 1811 and as governor again in 1811. In the latter year President Madison, facing a Federalist resurgence and divisions in the Republican party, appointed Monroe secretary of state. The appointment restored Monroe's friendship with Madison and Jefferson.

Admired as a practical man by younger congressmen, Monroe formed excellent working relations with Congress and obtained the cooperation of the so-called War Hawks in advancing administration programs. After the outbreak of the War of 1812 with Britain, Monroe's desire for a military command was frustrated by Secretary of War John Armstrong. The latter believed that Monroe had deprived Robert R. Livingston, Armstrong's brother-in-law, of his rightful claim to be the negotiator of the Louisiana Purchase.

In 1814, after the British invasion of Washington, which was widely laid to Armstrong's failure to mount a proper defense of the city, President Madison replaced the disgraced secretary of war with Monroe, who thus held two cabinet posts. A capable and active administrator, Monroe restored the morale of Washingtonians. The war ended, however, before the full effect of his reorganization of the War Department could be felt.

PRESIDENCY

His service in the cabinet had made Monroe an obvious choice for president in 1816. The Republican congressional caucus chose him as the party's candidate over William H. Crawford, who had succeeded Monroe as secretary of war. The Federalist party had been badly damaged—fatally, as it turned out—by its opposition to the War of 1812. Monroe easily defeated Sen. Rufus King (N. Y.), the Federalist candidate for president, by 183 to 34 in the voting of the Electoral College.

The new president adopted a conciliatory policy toward the Federalist critics of the war. Immediately after his inauguration, Monroe toured the New England states, where there had been talk of secession during the war. The Federalists rushed to welcome him and demonstrate their loyalty. Monroe did everything he could to promote the "Era of Good Feelings," a term first used in a Boston newspaper to refer to the mood created by his New England trip. Monroe believed that this new "era" would place free government on a solid footing by eliminating party rivalry. The experiment, however, did not outlast his second term, because sectional hostility and individual political rivalries shattered the brief unity.

Once he rejected the two-party system, Monroe could not use party loyalty as a means of advancing administration measures. Instead he had to rely on his own considerable personal contacts with congressmen and on the support of cabinet members with substantial congressional followings. He drew into his cabinet some of the most influential men of the day. The four most important were all in their posts by late 1817

and served until 1825. The secretary of the treasury, William H. Crawford, had been Monroe's rival in 1816 and was regarded as his most logical successor. The secretary of state was the experienced diplomat John Quincy Adams. The secretary of war, John C. Calhoun, had been a notable War Hawk. Attorney General William Wirt was a popular figure, famed as a lawyer and writer.

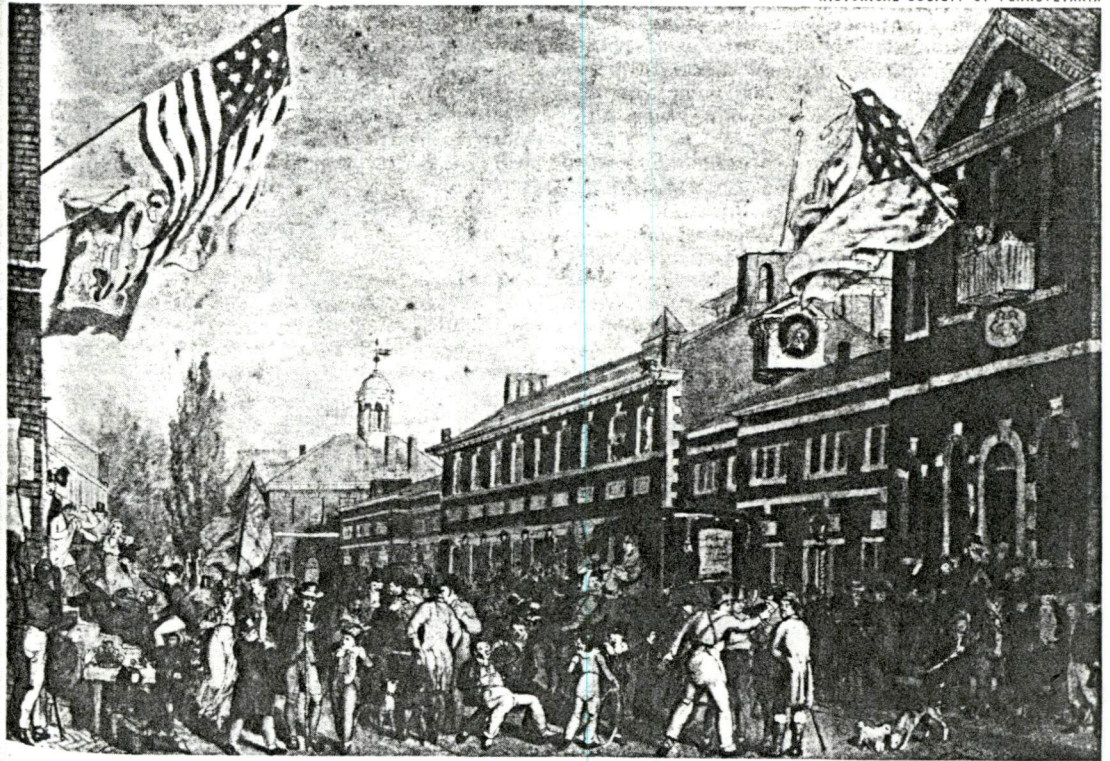
The Navy Department was headed by men of sectional rather than national influence: Benjamin Crowninshield of Massachusetts (1817–1818), Smith Thompson of New York (1818–1823), and Samuel Southard of New Jersey (1823–1825).

Acquisition of Florida. Monroe's greatest achievements as president lay in foreign affairs. Aply supported by Adams, he made substantial territorial additions and gave American policy a distinctly national orientation. Monroe welcomed an opportunity to press Spain to cede Florida and define the boundaries of Louisiana. His chance came when Gen. Andrew Jackson invaded Florida in 1818. In pursuit of hostile Indians, Jackson seized the posts of St. Marks and Pensacola, acts that many persons regarded as violations of congressional war powers. In the cabinet, Adams, an expansionist, urged Jackson's complete vindication, while Crawford and Calhoun demanded that he be reprimanded for exceeding his instructions.

Monroe chose a middle course—the posts were restored to Spain, but the administration accepted Jackson's explanation that his action had been justified by conditions in Florida. The incident led Spain to cede Florida and define, favorably to American claims, the boundary of the Louisiana Purchase in the Adams-Onís Treaty negotiated in 1819.

Election day in Philadelphia in 1816. Monroe's election led to the "Era of Good Feelings."

HISTORICAL SOCIETY OF PENNSYLVANIA



ment. Dissatisfaction with his conduct recalled in 1796, engineered by Secretary Timothy Pickering. Monroe defended publishing a harsh attack on Washington policy.

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GAF CORPORATION, HISTORICAL COLLECTION

GRANT, Ulysses Simpson (1822-1885), American general and 18th president of the United States. Grant, the most capable of the Union generals during the Civil War, was a master strategist. He won the first major Union victories. President Abraham Lincoln staunchly defended him against critics and promoted him to command all Union forces. Grant accepted Gen. Robert E. Lee's surrender at Appomattox Court House.

However, Grant had no disposition for political leadership, and as president (1869-1877) he scarcely attempted to control events. He made injudicious appointments to public office, and official corruption tainted his administration, although Grant himself was not involved in the peculations.

Early Years. Grant was born in Point Pleasant, Ohio, on April 27, 1822, and baptized Hiram Ulysses. The eldest son of Jesse Root Grant and Hannah Simpson Grant, he came from a family that, he proudly declared, had been American "for generations, in all its branches, direct and collateral." In 1823 his father moved his tanning business to Georgetown, Ohio, where "Lyss" spent his boyhood. His education at a grammar school in Georgetown, at Maysville Seminary in Maysville, Ky., and at the Presbyterian Academy of Ripley, Ohio, was superficial and repetitious, and the boy showed no scholarly bent. He became noted, however, for his sturdy self-reliance and for his ability to ride and control even the wildest horses.

In 1839, Jesse Grant secured for his son an appointment to the U. S. Military Academy. When he arrived at West Point he learned that he was on the muster roll as Ulysses Simpson Grant, through an error of the congressman who had nominated him. Finding it impossible to change this official listing, Grant accepted the inevitable and dropped Hiram from his name.

MILITARY CAREER

"A military life had no charms for me," Grant said later, and his only purpose at the academy was "to get through the course, secure a detail for a few years as assistant professor of mathematics at the Academy, and afterwards obtain

18th President of the United States (1869-1877)

Born—April 27, 1822, in Point Pleasant, Ohio.
Higher Education—U. S. Military Academy (1839-1843).

Religion—Methodist.

Occupation—Soldier.

Marriage—Aug. 22, 1848, to Julia Boggs Dent (1826-1902), in St. Louis, Mo.

Children—Frederick Dent Grant (1850-1912); Ulysses Simpson Grant (1852-1929); Ellen Wrenshall Grant (1855-1922); Jesse Root Grant (1858-1934).

Political Party—Republican.

Legal Residence when Elected—Illinois.

Principal Writings—*Personal Memoirs* (2 vols., 1885-1886).

Died—July 23, 1885, at Mount McGregor, N. Y.

Burial Place—Grant's Tomb, New York City.

a permanent position as professor at some respectable college." Understandably, his West Point record was not spectacular. In 1843 he graduated in the middle of his class (21st in a class of 39), was commissioned brevet 2d lieutenant, assigned to the 4th U. S. Infantry, and sent to Jefferson Barracks, near St. Louis, Mo. There he began to learn his army duties and, even more important, met his future wife, Julia Dent, sister of a West Point classmate. The orders that sent Grant's regiment to the Southwest frontier in May 1844 temporarily interrupted his romance.

Mexican War to 1860. Grant served with distinction in the Mexican War (1846-1848), a conflict that he privately deplored as an unjust war to extend slavery. Promoted on Sept. 20, 1845, to full 2d lieutenant, he took part in the battles of Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, and Monterrey. Grant's commanding general in all these engagements was "Old Rough and Ready," Gen. Zachary Taylor, whose informal dress and lack of military pretension he was to copy in later years. In 1847, Grant's regiment was transferred to the army of Gen. Winfield Scott, and he participated in all the battles that led to the capitulation of Mexico City—Veracruz, Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Churubusco, Molino del Rey, where he was made 1st lieutenant for his bravery, and Chapultepec, where he was brevetted captain. Besides teaching Grant the practical lessons of warfare, the Mexican conflict gave him a personal acquaintance with most of the men who were later to command the Confederate armies.

After the Mexicans surrendered, the American military establishment was drastically curtailed, and Grant was assigned to routine garrison duty. His four years at Sackets Harbor, N. Y., and Detroit, Mich., were pleasant, because Julia, whom he had married on Aug. 22, 1848, was with him. But in 1852, when the regiment was transferred to Fort Vancouver on the Columbia River, his wife and young family had to be left at home. Grant's next two years, spent in barracks life on the West Coast, were the most miserable in his career. His duties were dull and routine; his superior officer, Col. Robert



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169-1877)

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Buchanan, rode him hard; his income was inad-
quate, and efforts to increase it by farming and
cattle raising were unsuccessful. Most of all, he
missed Julia, the one woman in his life. Like so
many other peacetime officers of the period,
Grant began drinking. Though he was promoted
to a captaincy, he continued forlorn and un-
happy, and a quarrel with Colonel Buchanan
helped to precipitate his decision, on April 11,
1854, to resign his commission.

Returning to Missouri, Grant settled his fam-
ily on 80 acres of land given him by his father-
in-law and tried to farm. With grim humor he
called the place "Hard Scrabble," for he had to
bear all the work of clearing the land, hauling
wood, plowing, and cultivating his crop. After
four years he abandoned farming and set up an
unsuccessful real-estate business in St. Louis. In
1860 he moved to Galena, Ill., where he worked
in his father's leather shop.

Secession and Civil War. Not particularly in-
terested in politics, Grant was nominally a
Democrat at this time; but when the South se-
ceded, he had no trouble in making up his mind
to support the Union cause. He helped organize
the first company of Union volunteers in Galena
and accompanied the men to Springfield. At the
request of the Illinois governor, Richard Yates, he
remained to muster in the new volunteer regi-
ments, for his experience as quartermaster, com-
missary, and adjutant in the field made him in-
valuable. Grant longed for active duty, however,
and on May 24, 1861, tendered his services to
the U. S. government, suggesting modestly that
he was "competent to command a regiment."
Failing to secure such an appointment, he ac-
cepted from Governor Yates the command of
the 21st Illinois Regiment, quickly brought it
under excellent discipline, and did good service
against guerrillas in Missouri.

On Aug. 7, 1861, President Lincoln appointed
Grant brigadier general of volunteers, and he
took up headquarters at Cairo, Ill. Only a
few days after he assumed his new command,
he occupied Paducah, Ky., at the strategic junc-
tion of the Ohio and Tennessee rivers. On No-
vember 7 he attacked the Confederates at Bel-
mont, Mo., in an assault that was not well
planned or executed. The arrival of Confederate
reinforcements compelled him to retreat. The
general was still learning his trade.

Rise to National Prominence. In February 1862,
after much persuasion by Grant, Gen. Henry W.
Halleck, Grant's superior officer, authorized him
to move against Forts Donelson and Henry, the
Confederate positions guarding the Cumberland
and Tennessee rivers. With 17,000 men and a
flotilla of gunboats under the command of Com-
modore Andrew Hull Foote, Grant captured Fort
Henry on February 6 and promptly moved
against Donelson 12 miles (19 km) away. When
the Confederate commander there, Brig. Gen.
Simon B. Buckner, asked for terms of capitula-
tion, Grant replied tersely: "No terms except an
unconditional and immediate surrender can be
accepted. I propose to move immediately upon
your works." On February 16, Buckner surren-
dered with over 14,000 men. The capture of
Forts Henry and Donelson, the first major Union
victories in the war, opened up Tennessee to the
Federal armies. For the first time "Unconditional
Surrender" Grant became prominent on the na-
tional scene. Despite Halleck's jealousy, Lincoln
made him major general of volunteers.

Grant's next important battle was at Shiloh,
or Pittsburg Landing, Tenn., on April 6-7, 1862.
Early in the morning of April 6, Gen. Albert S.
Johnston's Confederate army burst through the
unfortified Union lines near Shiloh meeting-
house and threatened to drive Grant's men back
into the Tennessee River. Historians differ on
almost every aspect of the battle: whether Grant
was at fault in being at Savannah, 9 miles (14
km) from Pittsburg Landing, at the beginning of
the battle; whether Grant was surprised by John-
ston; whether Union troops should have been en-
trenched; whether Grant was personally respon-
sible for checking the Confederate advance; and
whether the arrival of Maj. Gen. Don Carlos
Buell's army saved the day for the Union cause.

At any rate, on April 7 the Union forces re-
captured the initiative and drove the Confed-
erates back in great disorder. When the news
reached the North, a storm of abuse broke out
against Grant, who was blamed for this bloodiest
battle yet to occur on the American continent,
and it was falsely whispered that he had been
drunk and negligent of his duty. But Grant also
had defenders, among them Lincoln, who said
simply, "I can't spare this man—he fights."



Julia Dent Grant
(from a photo
by Mathew Brady)

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

On April 11, General Halleck arrived at
Pittsburg Landing and took personal command
of the army. In the ensuing campaign against
Corinth, Miss., Grant occupied an ambiguous
and humiliating position. Nominally second in
command of the army, he was in fact ignored
during the slow advance that occupied the Union
troops until the end of May. When Halleck was
called to Washington in July, Grant was left in
command of the District of West Tennessee,
holding a wide territory with few troops. He
was, nevertheless, able to drive Maj. Gen. Ster-
ling Price's Confederates from Iuka, Miss., on
September 19-20, and a part of his army, under
Brig. Gen. William S. Rosecrans, defeated Price
and Maj. Gen. Earl Van Dorn at Corinth on
October 3-4.

Vicksburg Campaign. On Oct. 25, 1862, Grant
was made commander of the Department of Ten-
nessee and was charged with taking Vicksburg,
Miss., the principal Confederate stronghold on
the Mississippi River. He first followed a rather
conventional strategy, advancing with 30,000
men overland through Mississippi while sending
Brig. Gen. William T. Sherman's troops down the

river from Memphis. On December 20, Van Dorn destroyed Grant's principal supply base at Holly Springs; nine days later Sherman was bloodily repulsed at Chickasaw Bayou.

Grant now faced the most important decision of his career. To pull back to Memphis and mount a new expedition would be an admission of defeat and a severe blow to Union morale. To any retreat Grant had an instinctive aversion: "One of my superstitions," he wrote, "had always been when I started to go anywhere, or to do anything, not to turn back, or stop until the thing intended was accomplished." He decided, therefore, "There was nothing left to be done but to go forward to a decisive victory." That is precisely what he did, in a plan as brilliant in conception as in execution.

Abandoning the overland approach, Grant moved his army to the position Sherman had occupied across the Mississippi from Vicksburg and ostensibly busied his troops during the rainy winter months in constructing a canal bypassing Vicksburg, while beginning to gather supplies for a daring experiment. By April 1863 he was ready. He ran his provisions down the river under the guns of Vicksburg, marched his men through the backcountry, reached a position on the west bank of the Mississippi below Vicksburg, crossed over to high ground on the eastern side, and commenced operations behind the Confederate lines. Grant had cut himself off from communications and supplies from the North; his troops had to subsist on the country until victory. He drove inland to Jackson, Miss., held off a threatened attack from Gen. Joseph E. Johnston's army to the north, and pushed Lieut. Gen. John C. Pemberton's troops on the west into the defenses of Vicksburg. After a regular siege, on July 4, 1863, Pemberton was obliged to surrender his 30,000 men.

The victory was one of the most decisive in the war. It eliminated a major Confederate army from the conflict; it cut off the trans-Mississippi states from the rest of the Confederacy (the capture of Port Hudson, La., by Maj. Gen. Nathaniel P. Banks promptly followed); and it brought to the attention of the Northern government and people the ablest Union general of the war. President Lincoln wrote Grant a personal letter of congratulations and nominated him major general in the Regular Army.

Grant's next major engagements saw him in a different field of operations. In September the Confederate general, Braxton Bragg, defeated Rosecrans at Chickamauga and placed the Union army in Chattanooga under virtual siege. Grant was summoned to the rescue. He acted promptly: Rosecrans was replaced by Maj. Gen. George Henry Thomas; Sherman's troops were ordered to march east; a "cracker line" was opened to bring in desperately needed food for the garrison; and reinforcements from the Army of the Potomac were speedily moved west by rail. By the end of November, Grant was prepared to take the offensive. On November 24, Brig. Gen. Joseph Hooker cleared Lookout Mountain of Confederates, and on the following day Thomas' men stormed Missionary Ridge. Bragg retired, demoralized, to Dalton, Ga.

Commander of the U. S. Armies. Grant's new victory made him the man of the hour, and he was brought to Washington to receive the personal thanks of the President, a gold medal voted by Congress, and the newly created rank of lieu-

tenant general commanding all the armies of the United States. Grant looked anything but a hero. He was, as Richard Henry Dana observed, "a short, round-shouldered man, in a very tarnished . . . uniform . . . There was nothing marked in his appearance. He had no gait, no *station*, no manner, rough, light-brown whiskers, a blue eye, and rather a scrubby look withal." But behind the unprepossessing exterior and the modesty of manner lay a powerful strategic genius.

Grant now gave to the Union armies something they had never had before, a concerted plan of action. He ordered simultaneous movements (commencing May 4, 1864) of all the Union armies—Maj. Gen. George G. Meade's Army of the Potomac, which he personally accompanied; Maj. Gen. Benjamin F. Butler's Army of the James; Sherman's Army of the Tennessee; and Banks' troops in Louisiana. Throwing enormous concentrated force against the enemy, Grant planned to batter the Confederates constantly and, if only through attrition, to compel their surrender. The advance of Meade's army into the Virginia Wilderness was skillfully parried by Gen. Robert E. Lee's strategy, but undeterred by the appalling loss of 17,666 men, Grant gave the enemy no rest. At Spotsylvania Court House and on the North Anna, Lee again fended off Grant's sledge-hammer blows. At Cold Harbor, Grant ordered a direct assault on the Confederate lines, only to lose 6,000 men in an hour's fighting. Though he was wearing down the Confederates, he had failed to defeat Lee in a single engagement. His prestige plummeted, and enemies in the North began to call him "Grant the Butcher," careless of his men's lives.

Grant continued to hammer away. On June 12 he shifted his base, adroitly withdrew from Lee's front, and crossed the James River. Failing to capture Petersburg by surprise, he settled down to a regular siege. From June 18, 1864, to April 2, 1865, the Army of the Potomac was engaged chiefly in mining, sapping, assaulting, cutting Lee's transportation lines, and sending out flanking expeditions. But while Grant was starving Lee in Richmond, Maj. Gen. Philip H. Sheridan was devastating the valley of Virginia, and Sherman's army, far to the south, was burning a trail of desolation through Georgia.

In the spring of 1865, Grant was ready for the final push. Sheridan's victory at Five Forks (April 1, 1865) was the beginning of the end. The next day when Grant assaulted the Confederate right, Lee was obliged to abandon Richmond and Petersburg and march west, hoping to join the army of Gen. Joseph E. Johnston. Grant cut off his retreat, and a series of running battles made it clear that further resistance was useless. On April 9, 1865, at Appomattox Court House, Lee capitulated. Grant's terms were magnanimous, and Lee accepted them without question. Seventeen days later Johnston surrendered his army to Sherman, and the Civil War was over.

PRESIDENCY

Given the grade of full general (newly created) in 1866, Grant oversaw the sale of war-time surpluses, had the Indian frontier policed, and protected the gangs constructing the trans-continental railroad. The most ticklish part of

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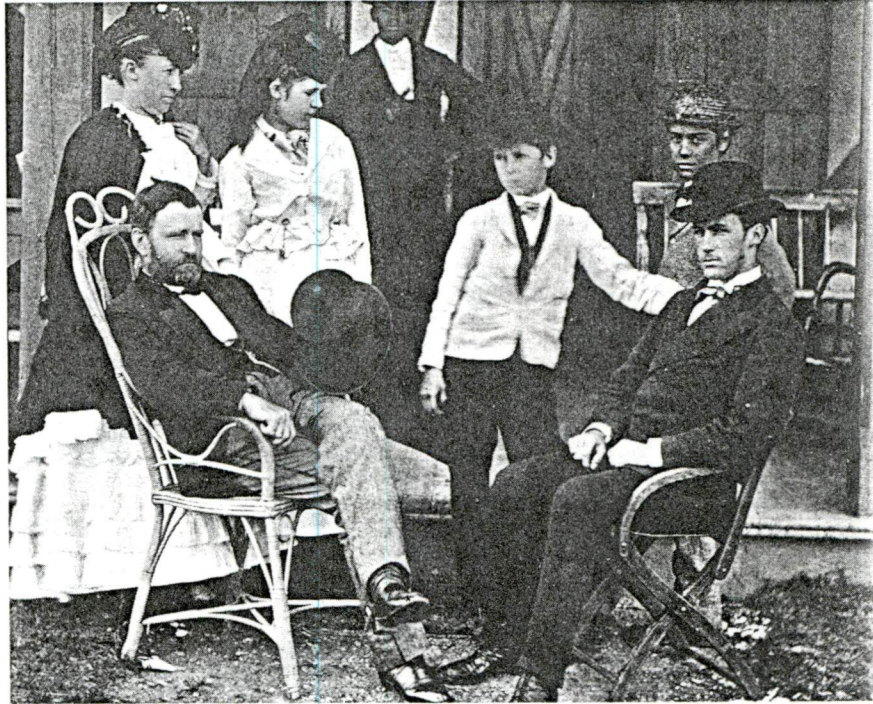
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GENERAL GRANT sat for this photograph with his family about 1868. In that year he became the Republican presidential nominee.



BROWN BROTHERS

his postwar duties related to the reconstruction of the Southern states. At first he was inclined to be easygoing with the ex-Confederates; and when President Andrew Johnson, Lincoln's successor, sent him on a fact-finding tour of the South in 1865, he reported that the "mass of thinking men of the south" were willing to accept their defeat. But Johnson's pro-Southern policy and the outbreak of renewed violence and rioting in the former Confederacy disturbed the peace-loving general.

Despite growing doubts, Grant accompanied Johnson on his "swing round the circle" in 1866, an attempt to publicize presidential reconstruction plans. On Aug. 12, 1867, when Johnson suspended Secretary of War Edwin M. Stanton, Grant agreed to act as secretary ad interim. During the next five months he served rather uncomfortably in the cabinet; but when the Senate refused to concur in the suspension of Stanton, he resigned.

While the President publicly accused him of bad faith, Grant drifted into the Radical Republican camp, supported the impeachment of Johnson, and became the obvious Republican candidate for the presidency in 1868. He easily defeated the Democratic candidate, Horatio Seymour, and won 214 out of the 294 electoral votes.

First Administration. Grant was not a politician, and he entered the presidency with no real comprehension of the powers and duties of his office. For his cabinet he picked not the strong leaders of his party but personal friends, such as Secretary of War John Aaron Rawlins, or wealthy men who had contributed to his campaign chest, such as Secretary of the Navy Adolph Edward Borie. His famous motto, "Let us have peace," was a slogan, not a program of executive action. Grant explicitly denied any intent to exert leadership over Congress and his party; he had no policy "to enforce against the will of the people," he declared. For the

eight years that he occupied the White House, therefore, one is obliged to speak of the events of Grant's administration, not of the actions of the president.

Domestic Policy. On questions of Southern reconstruction, Grant acquiesced in the plans of the Radicals to enfranchise the Negro. Half-hearted efforts to enforce the 14th and 15th amendments proved futile, and not even the Force Acts (q.v.) of 1870-1871 put down Ku Klux Klan violence in the South. By 1876 most Negroes had been driven from the polls, and the former Confederate states were becoming the solidly Democratic South.

In financial matters Grant followed conservative Republican economic theorists who deplored the inflated paper money issued during the war. One of the first important measures to receive his signature was an act declaring the government's ultimate intention to redeem these greenbacks in coin. Grant's financial ignorance led him to serve as a dupe of the unscrupulous Jay Gould and James Fisk in their attempt to corner the gold market in 1869. But when he discovered their scheme, he ousted the lesser officials whom they had bribed, ordered prompt sale of government gold, and on Black Friday (September 24) broke the corner. Later, not even the panic of 1873 shook Grant's distrust of inflation, and in 1875 he signed a bill pledging the resumption of specie payments in January 1879.

Foreign Policy. On foreign policy, Grant generally followed the advice of his cultivated, aristocratic secretary of state, Hamilton Fish. Through Fish's caution, Grant's desire to recognize the belligerence of Cuban insurgents (who had set up a republic in 1869) was curbed. His one independent effort at making foreign policy, his plan to annex Santo Domingo (Dominican Republic), led to a rupture with Charles Sumner, powerful chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee and annexation was defeated in

the Senate (1870). In a treaty with Great Britain in May 1871, Fish settled the *Alabama* and other claims arising from British aid to the Confederacy during the Civil War. Later, he also secured a peaceful adjustment of the *Virginius* crisis with Spain in 1873.

Second Administration. Grant's Southern policy alienated the former Confederates; his financial policy discouraged debt-ridden Western farmers who desired inflation; and his foreign policy outraged Sumner and some other Republican leaders. Nevertheless, his popularity with the masses was unimpaired in 1872, and the regular party bosses enthusiastically urged his renomination. Dissident Liberal Republicans and Democrats joined in nominating Horace Greeley as his opponent, but Grant was triumphantly elected for a second term, receiving 286 of the 349 electoral votes.

Grant's second four years in the White House were not happy ones. A storm of scandal, which had started while the campaign was still under way, broke about his head. Leading Republican congressmen and officials were involved in railroad scandals; his whole party was implicated in the "salary grab" act (February-March 1873), which retroactively increased the pay of congressmen and the executive; and his secretary of war, William Worth Belknap, shared in Indian agency frauds. The president's private secretary, Orville E. Babcock, had a hand in the Whiskey Ring speculations, and Grant, refusing to doubt his integrity, supported him to the last. Grant himself was not involved in the corruption, but when his close advisers proved faithless, the popular conviction grew that he was a failure as president.

The more completely the Republican party was discredited, however, the more firmly did party stalwarts like Roscoe Conkling, Zachariah Chandler, and Oliver P. Morton cling to Grant as the one man who could bring victory at the polls. Their attempt to run him for a third term had Grant's assent and Mrs. Grant's enthusiastic approbation, but the Republican National Convention of 1876 refused to break with precedent and nominated Rutherford B. Hayes. In the disputed election that followed, Grant's presence in the White House had a steadying effect and discouraged hotheaded supporters of both Hayes and the Democratic candidate, Samuel J. Tilden.

LAST YEARS

Upon leaving office, Grant made a tour of the world with his wife and youngest son, during which he was treated not as a discredited president of the United States but as the triumphant victor of the Civil War. After two years of travel, he returned more than ever interested in a third term, which now seemed possible because Hayes did not seek reelection. At the Republican National Convention in 1880 in Chicago he had 306 supporters, organized by Conkling; but a coalition of his opponents gave the nomination to James A. Garfield on the 36th ballot, and Grant's political career was ended.

The last years of Grant's life were sad ones. Admirers collected a fund of \$250,000, which they placed in trust for him; when the securities in which the fund was invested became worthless, however, he was so hard up for money that he had to sell his wartime swords and souvenirs.

He became a partner in the brokerage firm of Grant & Ward, but like all his previous business ventures, it failed (May 6, 1884) and he went into bankruptcy. A move to have him restored to the rank of general, which he had resigned to run for the presidency, met political opposition and was not approved until the last day of Chester A. Arthur's administration (March 3, 1885). Grant had only a few months to enjoy the salary that Congress thus voted him.

Afflicted with a cancer of the throat, the general was heroically trying to provide for his family during these last years. The success of an article on the Battle of Shiloh, which he wrote for the *Century Magazine* in 1884, led him to plan writing his own account of the war in which he had played so large a part. In his sickroom at Mount McGregor near Saratoga, N. Y., he composed the two volumes of personal recollections that remain one of the great war commentaries of all times. Published by Mark Twain, the *Personal Memoirs* ultimately brought the Grant family nearly \$450,000 in royalties. Grant himself did not live to reap the reward. Exhausted from his heroic battle, he died quietly at Mount McGregor on July 23, 1885, and his body eventually found its last resting place in the great mausoleum (dedicated 1897) in New York City overlooking the Hudson River (see GRANT'S TOMB).

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number by j shall be noncommutative: $ij = -ji$; $(a + bi)j = j(a - bi)$.

If a and b are real, and if we set $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$, the following multiplication table:

	1	i	j	k
1	1	i	j	k
i	i	-1	k	$-j$
j	j	$-k$	-1	i
k	k	j	$-i$	-1

number in the set of quaternions can be written in the form

$$x_0 + x_1i + x_2j + x_3k \quad (x_i \text{ real})$$

Such numbers can be multiplied, by using the multiplication table, to obtain a new number of the same form. Scalar multiplication, addition, and multiplication are done in the usual way; addition and multiplication are distributive. Thus, quaternions form a ring. If we make

$$i \sim \begin{pmatrix} -i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix}, j \sim \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, k \sim \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ -i & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$, and these elements are independent. Quaternions can thus be used as an algebra of two-rowed matrices. It can be proved that every linear algebra of order n with a unit element is isomorphic to a subalgebra of $n \times n$ matrices. Material that has been presented is introductory. Modern algebra has been undergoing changes in scope and character as a result of research in a number of fields. This is referred particularly to the books in the bibliography that deal with representation theory, homological algebras, Lie algebras, associative algebras, and commutative

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ALGEBRAIC GEOMETRY, al-jā-brā'ik jē-om'ā-tre, the study of algebraic sets and their classification. In plane analytic geometry, the main problem is to set up a coordinate system and then associate with an equation $f(x,y) = 0$ the set of all points (a,b) such that $f(a,b) = 0$. If $f(x,y)$ is a polynomial, the resulting set of points is called an *algebraic curve*. These points and their generalizations to higher dimensions are the concern of algebraic geometry. At first only points with real-number coordinates were allowed in algebraic geometry. Later it became necessary to allow points with complex-number coordinates. Once the transfer to complex numbers was made, the visual realization of geometric objects became little more than an aid in finding or understanding theorems.

The fundamental objects of study in modern algebraic geometry are *algebraic sets*. For any field K , we define an affine n -space $A_n(K)$ over K to be the set of n -tuples (x_1, \dots, x_n) with x_1, \dots, x_n belonging to K . Such an n -tuple is called a *point*. An *algebraic hypersurface* is the set of all such points satisfying a polynomial equation in n variables with coefficients in K . An *algebraic set* (often called an *algebraic variety*) is the intersection, or common locus, of a finite collection of algebraic hypersurfaces. The modern period in algebraic geometry starts with the work of R.L. van der Waerden, Chow, Oscar Zariski, and André Weil. The publication of Weil's *Foundations of Algebraic Geometry* in 1947 was particularly important. The modern theory of algebraic groups starts with C.C. Chevalley and Weil; the works of Rosenlicht, A. Borel, and J.P. Serre on this subject are of basic importance. See ALGEBRA.

ALGECIRAS, āl-hā-thē'rās, is a city in Spain, in Cadiz province, on the western side of Algeciras Bay, 6 miles west of Gibraltar. Its name in Arabic is *al-Jazirah al-Khadra*. The city is a port, used primarily by vessels trading with North Africa, and a railway terminus. A mild climate, bathing beaches, and the Fuente Santa mineral springs have made it a winter resort. Tourism and fishing are the principal industries. There are also fish- and cork-processing industries and shipyards. Grain, tobacco, oranges, and livestock are raised in the surrounding area. The city is reputedly on the site of the ancient Roman town of *Portus Albus*. The region was occupied by the Moors in 711 and ruled by them until 1344, when Alfonso XI of Castile captured the city. It subsequently was destroyed and later was colonized by Spanish refugees from Gibraltar in 1704. The modern city was built by Charles III in 1760. During the Napoleonic Wars a British fleet defeated the French and Spanish off Algeciras in 1801. In 1906 the city was the scene of the Algeciras Conference, called to settle the Moroccan crisis. Population: (1981) 86,042.

ALGECIRAS CONFERENCE, a 1906 international diplomatic conference in Algeciras, Spain. President Theodore Roosevelt intervened on behalf of the Germans to initiate discussion about the partition of Morocco by Spain and France, which was delayed until 1912.

ALGER, al'jər, Horatio (1832—1899), American author, who wrote a series of successful novels for boys on the rags-to-riches theme. He was

born in Revere, Mass., on Jan. 13, 1832, the son of a Unitarian minister. His father wanted him to become a minister and, for this purpose, sent him to Harvard and to Harvard Divinity School, from which he graduated in 1860. Illness and a twice-broken arm kept Alger from joining the Union Army during the Civil War. He finally was ordained in 1864 and became minister of a Unitarian church in Brewster, Mass.

In 1866, Alger resigned from his church and moved to New York City, where he became associated with the Newsboys' Lodging House. The homeless waifs who lived there became the Ragged Dicks and Tattered Toms of his stories. He died in Natick, Mass., on July 18, 1899.

Alger was one of the New England moralizers who, though not necessarily rich or virtuous themselves, told others how to translate virtue into fortune in the rising commercial cities. He wrote about 135 books, with such titles as *Fame and Fortune*, *Struggling Upward*, and *Strive and Succeed*. The "Horatio Alger hero" became a symbol of success in an age when the legend was established that any poor boy could become president or a millionaire if he was intelligent, hard-working, and honest. Boys of the period delighted in Alger's tales of young men who won fortune's favor by leading virtuous lives and performing heroic deeds.

Cotton Mather, Benjamin Franklin, Freeman Hunt, and others had extolled the rewards of industry, frugality, and sobriety before Alger. He differed from his predecessors mainly in aiming at an audience of boys, in using the fictional form, and in setting his stories in New York City, the great mecca of success. His novels contain flimsy plots, wooden characters, and stilted conversations, which betray their hasty composition and expose the lack of imagination that made it impossible for Alger to fulfill his desire to write adult fiction.

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ALGER, al'jər, Russell Alexander (1836—1907), American public official. He was born in Lafayette Township, Medina County, Ohio, on Feb. 27, 1836, and was admitted to the Ohio bar in 1859. He moved in the following year to Michigan, where he eventually amassed a large fortune in the lumber industry. Serving in the Civil War, he rose from private to colonel, and in 1865 was breveted major general of volunteers for gallantry. After the war he was active in Republican politics, serving as governor of Michigan from 1885 to 1887.

In March 1897, Alger was appointed secretary of war by President William McKinley. The War Department, as he inherited it, was poorly organized and grossly inefficient, and the new secretary did nothing to improve it. This situation, which might have been tolerated in peacetime, became a matter of grave concern after the outbreak of the Spanish-American War in 1898. Poor food, inappropriate clothing, and inadequate medical services aroused widespread criticism. Finally, in July 1899, McKinley requested the secretary's resignation. A presidential commission failed to establish the extent of Alger's responsibility for the maladministration, and in 1901 he published *The Spanish-American War*, defending his conduct in office. He served as United States senator from Michigan from 1902 until his death in Washington, D.C., on Jan. 24, 1907.

sized control of Washington in 1814. It h the yard no longer builds ships, visitors ed destroyer *U.S.S. Barry*, which saw now been moored to Pier 2 in the Navy

corner of the yard is the **Navy Museum** ld Naval Gun Factory. Exhibits include rom the frigate *Constitution*, a submarine pes, and naval guns which visitors can). For the less aggressive visitor, there l on *Old Ironsides* in 1854, and a bottle et of John Paul Jones.

ne Museum (433-4882), with displays War-era submarines to a modern-day Po-building is the 1898 model basin where ; of its new ships.

ne to the Marine Corps Historical Center, s **Museum (433-3840 or 433-3534)** at ilding, which issued new canvas, twine, paint to naval crews before it was de-ors can take a trip through the museum's display cases chronicling 200 years of olutionary War to today's high-technol-

Naval Yard is the **Marine Corps Bar- .E. (433-4073)**, the service's oldest post ng, manicured lawn is the historic stone : corps commandant. President Thomas ve around the swampy capital city, hand- ; within marching distance of the Capitol tection was needed.

o has a branch **35 miles to the south in : Quantico Marine Base**. Three hangars : **Ground Museum's (433-3840 or 433-** aircraft, armor, and artillery.

post in America—**Fort Lesley J. McNair**, ; a stately setting for the **National War st prestigious of the schools for senior**

military officers and an important training ground for top-ranking military leaders.

More than a century ago, Fort McNair housed a prison where, on July 7, 1865, four inmates were hanged for conspiracy in the assassination of President Abraham Lincoln. The body of John Wilkes Booth lay secretly buried nearby until 1867. The prison remains have been remodeled into living quarters for junior officers and their families.

On the other side of the Potomac in **Arlington, Virginia**, is the U.S. Army's **Fort Myer, Arlington Boulevard and Pershing Drive (696-3510)**, once the Civil War home of Confederate General Robert E. Lee. It was seized by Union forces in 1864. Fort Myer is now the home of the Third U.S. Infantry, more commonly known as the "Old Guard," the military's preeminent ceremonial unit and the Army's oldest active infantry outfit. **The Old Guard Museum (696-3633)** is just inside the main gates.

High on a bluff overlooking the Potomac River, opposite Mount Vernon on the Maryland side of the river, sits **Fort Washington Park at Potomac River and Fort Washington Road**, off Indian Head Highway (**301-763-4600***). Although the fort was intended to protect the river route into the capital, it was not finished in time to stave off the 1814 British attack. Its steep ramparts, walls, and moat remain preserved, however.

A much more modest site, a tiny one-block park at **Piney Branch Road and Quackenbos Street** in northwest Washington, marks the site of **Fort Stevens**, where youngsters can climb over old cannons and picnickers can relax under huge trees. It was here in 1864 that Lieutenant Colonel Oliver Wendell Holmes barked at a tall civilian towering atop the ramparts, "Get down, you fool!" It was none other than President Lincoln, who, oblivious to the bullets whizzing overhead, had been watching the Confederates advance on the city.

Modern Times

Just as much a part of the Washington military as the official government bureaucracy are the hundreds of defense contractors, who have brought their glass high-rise offices to the suburbs of Washington.

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A GUIDE TO THE NATION'S CAPITAL
BY THE PEOPLE WHO KNOW IT BEST

Guide to Washington

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SECTION: TRIBUNE BOOKS; Pg. 3; ZONE: C; Nonfiction

LENGTH: 1002 words

HEADLINE: The Wrights' stuff
Why Wilbur and Orville were men made to fly

BYLINE: Reviewed by F. Clifton Berry, Jr., a pilot and aviation writer

BODY:

The Bishop's Boys: A Life of Wilbur and Orville Wright
By Tom D. Crouch
Norton, 586 pages, \$22.50

Eighty years ago, in August, 1909, the United States Army bought its first airplane. The price: \$25,000, plus a \$5,000 performance bonus. To win the business, the manufacturers - Wilbur and Orville Wright of Dayton, Ohio - spent their own money to prove by flight demonstrations that the airplane would meet all of the Army's specifications.

The Wright Model-B exceeded what the Army thought was possible - in endurance, carrying capacity and speed. It was the speed that brought the bonus. Army specifications required an average speed of 40 miles per hour over a 10-mile course, with \$2,500 to be paid for each mile-per-hour above that. Flying from Fort Myer, near Arlington Cemetery, to Alexandria, Va., and back, Orville Wright achieved an average speed of 42.583 miles per hour, as clocked with two stopwatches by his passenger, Lieutenant Benny Foulois.

At the moment of the sale of their Model-B to the Army, the Wright Brothers were undisputed kings of the air. Where others had failed, they had shown that man could fly - having flown powered, heavier-than-air flying machines for nearly six years. Beginning from scratch and conducting much original research, they had overcome centuries of ignorance and decades of flawed experimentation by others. But when the United States entered the great World War eight years later, its combat aviators had to fly French and British machines. Not only did the Army and Navy have no Wright aircraft to fly to war, but they also had no U. S.-built combat aircraft at all.

The Wrights had been the first to fly, and once they had led the pack. But after only a few years, their designs were obsolete. Even the manufacturing company they founded to exploit their patents was forced to merge with another. So as aviation developed and expanded, both at home and abroad, it did so largely without Wright airplanes. But if Curtiss, Douglas, Lockheed, Cessna, Piper, and Martin were the companies that built airplanes by the hundreds of thousands, it was the Wrights who made the dream of flight come true.

Earlier biographers have admirably sketched the lives of Wilbur and Orville Wright. But in his fascinating multiple biography, "The Bishop's Boys," Tom Crouch has delved more deeply than ever before into the Wrights' ancestry and

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the nature of the immediate family, clarifying their motivations and the underlying bonds that made them such a successful team.

Crouch leads us through their research, which truly was original. Not only did they invent a machine that would fly, but they also built the engine that provided the motive power and invented the propellers that turned the engine's power into the thrust that moved the whole machine through the air. Finally, in the essential intellectual breakthrough that literally lifted their work off the ground, they achieved true control of their flying machine in three axes: roll, pitch and yaw.

Those were truly original achievements, a testimony to the Wright Brothers' determination, character and intellectual curiosity. And those qualities were instilled in them by their parents, Milton and Susan Wright.

A power in the United Brethren church, Bishop Milton Wright traveled widely, always making sure to bring back souvenirs. And in the fall of 1878, he returned with a souvenir that would change history.

It was one of the world's most popular mechanical toys, a rudimentary helicopter that consisted of a stick with a four-bladed rotor on the top. The stick was inserted into a spindle and spun by means of a string. When the string was pulled, the rotors spun, and the tiny craft lifted out of the spindle into the air.

"The toy," Crouch writes, "is a perfect illustration of play as the inspiration for technological innovation. From the time of Leonardo, when portrait painters used the little helicopter to quiet fidgety young sitters, to that day in 1878 when Milton Wright presented the gadget to his sons, rotary wing toys were to intrigue and inspire generations of children, a few of whom would, as adults, attempt to realize the dream of flight for themselves."

Soon after receiving the toy from their father, Orville and Wilbur built and flew copies of it. When Orville's school teacher caught him fiddling with the wood pieces of one of those copies, Orville explained that he was "assembling parts of a flying machine." Crouch reports that "to her credit, Miss Palmer reprimanded Orville but did not confiscate the craft."

"The Bishop's Boys" contains many such anecdotes that illuminate the Wrights' motivations and characters. It also includes the technical details of their quest for powered flight, explains them clearly to the lay reader and goes beyond technology to explore Wrights' relationships (and disputes) with Octave Chanute, Samuel P. Langley, Glenn Curtiss and other experimenters in the U. S. and Europe. The courts eventually upheld the Wrights' patents, but because the legal battles diverted their inventive energies, others were able to make the improvements and build the production lines that advanced aeronautics.

Crouch says that Bishop Wright once told a reporter that his sons were as inseparable as twins. They certainly remain so, in the public memory and in history. One always thinks of them as the Wright Brothers, not as Orville Wright and Wilbur Wright; and while they were different men, their essential inseparability was, says Crouch, "one of the secrets of their success. Each of them was prepared to rely on the other's strengths and to compensate for his weaknesses."

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Bishop Wright, born in 1828, flew with his son Orville on May 25, 1910. The Wright Brothers flew together only one time, for 14 minutes on that same day. But because they unlocked the secrets of flight for mankind, in our minds they will always soar together. Theirs is a fascinating tale, and Tom Crouch does a splendid job of telling it.

GRAPHIC: PHOTO: Wilbur Wright practices in a glider at Kitty Hawk, N. J. in 1901. Photo from the National Air and Space Museum, Smithsonian Institution.

TERMS: AVIATION; BIOGRAPHY; BOOK; REVIEW