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TolTest Project No. 21524

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**Subject: Contract No. FA8903-04-D-8720, Task Order 0019  
Historical Context Study of Military Sites in  
Wyoming from 1920 to the End of the Cold War  
F. E. Warren Air Force Base, Wyoming  
Historical Context Study – Final Document**

Dear Mr. Perez:

Enclosed is the final document of the historical context study and bibliography. As required per the contract 25 compact disks and 2 hard copies were delivered to F.E. Warren Air Force Base. Should you have any questions or require any additional information, please do not hesitate to contact me at 419-794-3648.

Sincerely,

**TOLTEST, INC.**

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads "Brett Boyce".

Brett Boyce  
Project Coordinator

Enclosed: Historical Context Study (Final Document)

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Mr. Mark Miller – State Archeologist  
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# Wyoming Military Historic Context, 1920-1989

Contract No. FA8903-04-D-8720 Task Order 0019



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**October 2009**



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## LIST OF ACRONYMS

AAF	Army Air Force
AFB	Air Force Base
AMSA	Area Maintenance Support Activity
ANG	Air National Guard
ARCOM	Army Reserve Command
ARDC	Air Research and Development Command
BOQ	Bachelor Officer's Quarters
BOR	Bureau of Reclamation
CCC	Civilian Conservation Corps
CEBMCO	Corps of Engineers Ballistic Missile Construction Office
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
DOD	Department of Defense
FIS	Fighter Interceptor Squadron
FUDS	Formerly Used Defense Site
HABS	Historic American Building Survey
HAER	Historic American Engineering Record
ICBM	Intercontinental Ballistic Missile
ISU	Italian Service Unit
MAD	Mutually Assured Destruction
MAP	Municipal Airport
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NCO	Non-Commissioned Officer
NG	National Guard
NHL	National Historic Landmark
NHPA	National Historic Preservation Act
NOSC	Naval Operations Supply Center
NRHP	National Register of Historic Places
POW	Prisoner of War
PX	Post Exchange
ROTC	Reserve Officers Training Corps
SAC	Strategic Air Command
SHPO	State Historic Preservation Office
TOE	Table of Organization and Equipment
UN	United Nations
USACE	US Army Corps of Engineers
USAF	US Air Force
USARC	US Army Reserve Command
USFS	US Forest Service
USO	United Service Organization
VA	Veterans Administration
VE	Victory in Europe
VJ	Victory in Japan
WAAC	Women's Auxiliary Army Corps
WAC	Women's Army Corps

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**LIST OF ACRONYMS (Continued)**

WADC	Wright Air Development Center
WPA	Works Progress Administration
WRA	War Relocation Authority
WWI	World War I
WWII	World War II
WYCRO	Wyoming Cultural Records Office

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## MANAGEMENT SUMMARY

Wyoming has a rich military heritage, ranging from 19<sup>th</sup>-century explorations and Indian Wars to 21<sup>st</sup>-century nuclear missile installations. Multiple publications and historical contexts address the state's early military history, and substantial historical research has been accomplished regarding some 20<sup>th</sup>-century military activities and sites. This historical context addresses military activity in Wyoming from 1920 to 1989, or roughly the period from the end of World War (WW) I to the end of the Cold War era. This document is a compilation of information currently available regarding military activities in Wyoming, rather than an exhaustive treatment of particular activities or sites. This document is a companion to *A Context for Military Sites in Wyoming: Historical and Archaeological Evidence for Military Activity From the Protohistoric Period to World War I (A.D. 1700-1920)* which is currently in preparation by the Wyoming State Archaeologist (Mark Miller, Personal Communication 2008).

The objective of this study is to identify historical themes, property types associated with the themes, specific properties associated with the themes and types, and criteria for evaluating the significance of properties to relevant historic themes. Military activity addressed herein includes the U.S. Army, Army National Guard, U.S. Air Force (USAF), Army Air Force (AAF), Air National Guard (ANG), Reserve forces, Civil Defense, and veterans affairs of the state and federal governments in Wyoming. Other quasi-military themes addressed herein include the WWII State Guard, military involvement with the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), and the Selective Service System.

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Writers collected historical information through archival and documentary research using historical or cultural resources studies relating to military bases that were active during the 1920-1989 period. Previous investigations were reviewed and summarized. Property types were identified, including archaeological and standing military cantonments, bases, institutions, cemeteries, hospitals, training areas, Prisoner of War (POW) camps, Relocation Center camps, CCC projects and camps, Veterans Administration (VA) hospitals, and National Guard retirement residences.

The extent and quality of available information varies considerably among military branches, activities, and installations. This historical context reflects those variances in available information and the writers recommend additional research where data gaps have been identified. Two previously prepared historic contexts are largely incorporated in this document and contribute significantly to the current document: *Historical Context Statement for F.E. Warren Air Force Base* (Cassity 1998) and *Military Context and Property Types* (Rosenburg 1989).

This historical context was prepared by Kurt Schweigert and Carrie Schomig of TEC Inc., under contract from F.E. Warren Air Force Base and the Air Force Center for Engineering and the Environment, and under subcontract from TolTest, Inc.

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## **CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 PURPOSE AND GOALS**

#### ***1.1.1 Definition of a Historic Context***

A historic context “identifies patterns or trends in history or prehistory by which a specific occurrence, property or site is understood and its meaning and ultimately its significance, within history or prehistory is made clear.” From this, the historic context outlines themes, geographical limits of the identified theme, and the historic developments during the defined period of the theme (Wyoming SHPO 2008).

#### ***1.1.2 Uses of a Historic Context***

Historic contexts provide (1) a general understanding of historical themes and their associated physical manifestations; (2) a basis for determining the relative historical significance of individual sites, structures, or objects related to historical themes; (3) direction for further research needed to illuminate historical themes and associated physical resources; and (4) information for development of materials for public education and appreciation of historic sites. An illustrated booklet that correlates with this Historic Context (to be completed following approval of the Final Historic Context) will provide a public education tool for use by the State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) and statewide military installations.

#### ***1.1.3 Need for 1920-1989 Military Sites Context for Wyoming; Previous Research***

The need for a statewide historic context for military activity in Wyoming during the 1920 to 1989 period arose from the desire to update and expand the previous statewide military

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context that was completed in 1989 (Rosenberg 1989). During the 20 years following the preparation of the previous context, federal agencies have begun documentation and evaluation of Cold War era resources, also known as Cold War Assets, from the period between the end of WWII in 1945 and the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1989. This context also includes the Interwar period, 1920-1940, and the WWII period, 1941-1945, and serves to round out the greater portion of historical military activity in Wyoming during the 20th century, notably excluding extensive treatment of activities at Fort D.A. Russell, now F.E. Warren AFB, and the Wyoming National Guard prior to and during WWI. Extensive survey and evaluation of historic resources has occurred in recent years at Wyoming's military installations and the current context draws heavily on those studies to address the overarching need for a general historical overview for the state.

## **1.2 METHODOLOGY AND SOURCES**

Information for this historic context originated from a variety of available sources. Writers identified military installations and military-related organizations active during the 1920-89 period prior to and during the research phase of the project, initially from references in the previous statewide historical context and published documents such as T.A. Larson's *History of Wyoming* (1978) and *Wyoming's War Years, 1941-1945* (1993). Research locations for primary and secondary sources, historical documents and records, and photographs and other illustrations include Wyoming SHPO, Wyoming State Archives, University of Wyoming American Heritage Center and Coe Libraries, Wyoming Army National Guard Command Headquarters in Cheyenne, Wyoming Air National Guard Environmental Office, F.E. Warren Air Force Base (AFB) Office of Historic Preservation, Veterans Administration, Denver Public Library, Laramie County Public Library, Sheridan County Fulmer Public Library, Natrona County Public Library, and using Prospector, an interlibrary loan service serving Wyoming and Colorado. Additional

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information for some subjects came from internet web sites when other sources failed to produce needed information.

Research initially focused on developing general histories of the military services in Wyoming during the 1920 to 1989 period and then focused on identifying historic properties that others had identified, recorded, and evaluated for eligibility for nomination to the National Register of Historic Places. National Register inventory forms maintained by the SHPO in Cheyenne and the Wyoming Cultural Records Office (WYCRO) in Laramie provided substantial information, both for development of historic themes and for identification of specific sites associated with historic themes. WYCRO maintains a computer database of properties recorded throughout the state, and writers searched this database by means of key words for properties associated with particular themes or property types. For example, a search of the WYCRO database returned several locations of WWII POW camps, some of which did not appear in published treatments of WWII in Wyoming.

The WYCRO database also provided reports of previous cultural resources investigations regarding military sites and activities in Wyoming during the 1920-1989 period. Writers reviewed pertinent reports and summarized them in the current document. These investigations addressed archaeological and standing military cantonments, bases, institutions, cemeteries, hospitals, training areas, POW camps, Relocation Center camps, CCC projects and camps, VA hospitals, and National Guard retirement residences. Researchers greatly appreciate comments from Air Force reviewers, SHPO staff, and the Wyoming State Archaeologist on a preliminary draft report produced in February 2008.

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### ***1.2.1 Limitations of Current Study***

The purpose of this historic context is to be a compilation of available information from existing sources, mostly secondary published and unpublished materials (secondary meaning written materials that compile or draw from primary sources such as military records). Although some research in primary sources filled obvious data gaps for historical themes and sites, readers should not consider this context to be exhaustive for any historical theme, property type, or historic resource site. Furthermore, some sites, structures, and objects may exist and possibly even professionally recorded, yet do not appear herein. Searches of the WYCRO database revealed varying nomenclature for historic properties. For example, searches for “POW,” “prisoner,” and “prisoner of war” yielded different results and many CCC camps may have served as temporary POW work sites but do not appear as such in the database. However, the writers again remind the reader that this historic context provides guidance rather than a complete and exhaustive accounting of all known and possible sites, structures, or objects associated with any historic theme.

## **1.3 ORGANIZATION OF THIS CONTEXT**

Historic contexts typically include identification of historical themes and subthemes, geographical parameters for the themes or subthemes, property types associated with the themes or subthemes, and identification of significance and integrity criteria that guide evaluation of the relative importance of individual physical resources for representing the respective themes or subthemes.

The major divisions of this document are listed below:

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## **Historical Themes and Subthemes (Narrative)**

Writers could have organized this document according to three major periods (Interwar, WWII, and Cold War), including separate discussions of each of the military services under each of these periods. For continuity in the historical narratives and because use of many of the sites associated with the military and quasi-military services overlap the three time periods, writers primarily organized this context according to the individual services, then by the three time periods, and then by subthemes. The major narrative divisions of this document, which are Chapters 3 through 8, are as follows:

### **The U.S. Army in Wyoming, 1920-1989**

- Origins and Service Before 1920
- The Army in Wyoming in the Inter-war Period, 1920-1940
- The Army in Wyoming During World War II and Post-war, 1940-1947
- Fort F.E. Warren During World War II
- Casper Army Air Base
- Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10
- Douglas Prisoner of War Camp and Other POW Camps
- Heart Mountain Japanese Relocation Camp

### **The U.S. Air Force in Wyoming, 1947-1989**

- Post World War II and the Technical Training Wing, 1947-1959
- The Missile Era, 1958-1989

### **The National Guard in Wyoming, 1920-1989**

- The Wyoming Guard Before 1920
- The Wyoming Guard in the Interwar Period, 1920-1940
- The Guard in WWII, 1940-1946
  - The Wyoming State Guard in WWII
- The Wyoming Army Guard in the Cold War, 1947-1989
- The Wyoming Air National Guard, 1947-1989

### **Army, Navy and Air Force Reserves in Wyoming, 1920-1989**

- Origins and Service Before 1920
  - Army Reserves in Wyoming, 1920-1989
  - Army ROTC in Wyoming, 1920-1989
  - Air Force Reserves in Wyoming, 1948-1989
  - Air Force ROTC in Wyoming, 1948-1989
  - Naval Reserves in Wyoming, 1920-1989
  - Marine Reserves in Wyoming, 1920-1989
-

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**Veterans Affairs, 1920-1989**

- Background to Veterans Affairs
- The Veterans Affairs Hospital at Sheridan, 1921-1989
- The Cheyenne Veterans Medical Center, 1932-1989
- The Wyoming Veterans Home, 1903-1989

**Ancillary Military Activities, 1920-1989**

- Selective Service, 1920-1989
- Civil Defense, 1940-1989

**Geographic Parameters/Context**

Much of the military activity in Wyoming during the 1920 to 1989 period occurred at or near four locations: (1) Fort F.E. Warren\F.E. Warren Air Force Base and the airport at Cheyenne, (2) Pole Mountain Maneuver Area between Cheyenne and Laramie, (3) Camp Guernsey near the town of Guernsey, and (4) at what is now the Natrona County Airport at Casper. However, military and related activities occurred throughout Wyoming, including National Guard armories that the government intentionally spread across the state, CCC and POW camps, the Japanese internment camp at Heart Mountain, and three veterans facilities. Geography played some part in the location of military and quasi-military facilities during this period, such as the location of Camp Guernsey in lowlands so that training could take place year round, and the location of the Veterans Hospital in Cheyenne ostensibly so that it could serve surrounding areas of Nebraska and Colorado. However, general patterns of military activity based on geography are not evident. Therefore, this context considers the entire state of Wyoming to be the geographical setting for each of the historic themes and associated property types.

**Property Types and Significance and Integrity Criteria**

A property type is a “grouping of individual properties on shared physical or associative characteristics” (National Park Service 2001). That is, property types physically embody or

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represent the events or patterns identified for the historic themes. Many of the property types associated with military activity in Wyoming during the 1920 to 1989 period are common among the military services and among the three sub-periods (interwar, World War II, and Cold War) and are likely to have similar general functions and physical characteristics. For example, aircraft runways are/were associated with the Air Force in the Cold War, the Army during and after World War II, and the Army and Air National Guard in the Cold War era. Some exceptions to shared property types and multiple sub-periods exist, perhaps most prominent of which is intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs) and missile sites that are associated only with the U.S. Air Force during the Cold War era. However, because the dominant majority of property types are common to more than one military service and/or sub-period, the writers addressed the property types together in Chapter 9, rather than after the narrative histories for each military or quasi-military service.

Writers address property significance and integrity criteria, previous research, and known property examples for each property type in Chapter 9. Presentation in this manner avoids redundant descriptions of property types, focuses on physical characteristics of property types, and allows easy reference of known property types across time and service associations.

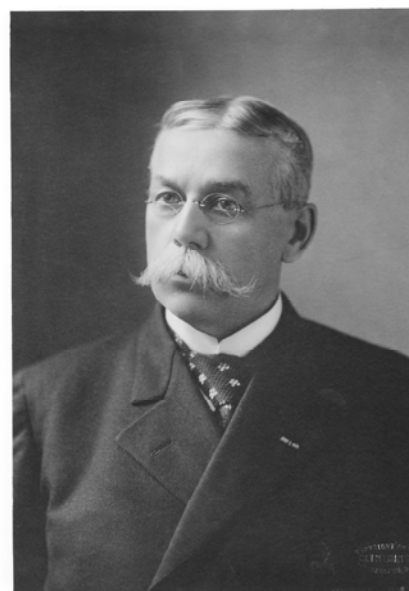
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## **CHAPTER 2 – BRIEF SUMMARY OF MILITARY HISTORY IN WYOMING, 1920-1989**

### **2.1 WORLD WAR I AND THE INTERWAR YEARS**

Wyoming was a sparsely-populated state whose economy largely depended on agriculture and coal mining at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The government had closed nearly all of the 19<sup>th</sup> century Indian Wars era military posts in the state by that time, but Wyoming had learned well the economic value of military presence. Wyoming's powerful senators were both willing and capable of ensuring continued federal funding for military installations. The chief benefactor of Wyoming was former governor Francis E. Warren, who won election to the U.S. Senate in 1890 and remained in the Senate until his death in 1929. He became Chairman of the Senate Military Affairs Committee, favored a large standing Army, and worked diligently to have as many troops as possible stationed in Wyoming. From 1921 to 1929, he served as Chairman of the Senate Appropriations Committee.



**Senator Francis E. Warren**

Photograph Courtesy Wyoming State  
Archives, Department of State Parks  
and Cultural Resources

Senator Warren's friends and supporters included Theodore Roosevelt, who attended the wedding of Warren's daughter to John J. Pershing in 1905. At the previous suggestion of Roosevelt, Pershing jumped in rank from captain to brigadier general over 862 more senior





**General Pershing at Fort D.A. Russell, date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

officers. The Army assigned Pershing to lead U.S. forces along the Mexican border in 1916 and then to lead American Expeditionary Forces in Europe during WWI.

The principal federal military presence in Wyoming in the early years of the 20th century was at Fort D.A. Russell near Cheyenne. The Army established the fort in 1867 to provide protection for construction of the Union Pacific Railroad and, with its surrogate Camp Carlin, also known as Cheyenne Depot, to serve as perhaps the largest supply depot for the U.S. Army at that time. Soldiers stationed at Fort D.A. Russell participated in the last campaigns against hostile Indians on the Northern Plains in the 1870s, but by 1890 the original need for the post ceased to exist. The post's domestic actions thereafter included custody of about 50 hired gunmen who had been besieged by homesteaders and small ranchers in



**Commanding Officer's Quarters, Fort D.A. Russell,  
date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Clayton Fraser, HABS

the Johnson County War of 1892, thwarting movement of unemployed “Coxey Army” citizens along the Union Pacific line in 1894, protection of railroad property during the Pullman Strike of 1894, and suppression of labor unrest in Canon City in 1914-1915. Units from the post also served on the Mexican border in 1911 and again in 1916-1917 (Larson 1978, 268-284).

The United States declared war on Spain in April 1898. Army infantry units from Fort D.A. Russell participated in the invasion of Cuba, and a volunteer cavalry unit assembled at the fort but did not see action. Wyoming National Guard units trained at Fort D.A. Russell and then deployed to the Philippines, initially to fight the Spanish and later to fight the native insurgency. In July 1900, a cavalry troop from Fort D.A. Russell participated in an international expeditionary force sent to China to suppress the Boxer Rebellion against foreign domination (Adams 1996, 129).

At the conclusion of the Spanish American War in 1900, the Army began a modernization program that included closure of many obsolete posts and subsequent consolidation of forces and training in larger posts. As a result of the influence of Senator Warren, Fort D.A. Russell survived the threat of closure and, in fact, substantially expanded in both troop strength and physical facilities. The fort housed approximately 2,700



**Infantry Leaving Cheyenne for the Philippines, 1898**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

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officers and enlisted men by 1910 (Adams 1996, 158).

Troop strength at Fort D.A. Russell increased to as many as 5,000 officers and enlisted personnel during World War I. Wyoming citizens strongly supported U.S. entry into the war, and Wyoming's state representatives unanimously approved resolutions for a call to arms and for President Wilson to sever all diplomatic ties with Germany. About 12,000 men from Wyoming served in military services during World War I, which was approximately six percent of the state's population at that time (Holland 1987, 7-3). However, Wyoming had limited enthusiasm for continuing foreign involvement after the war. At the close of the war, President Wilson proposed a League of Nations that supposedly would help avoid similar wars, but Wyoming Senators Francis E. Warren and John B. Kendrick joined other senators in opposing provisions for U.S. membership in the organization that they believed were not in the best interests of the nation (Holland 1987, 7-3. Cassity 1998, 12).

The Spanish American War and WWI brought changes to the military organization in the nation and in Wyoming. The nation continued on a course of maintaining a relatively small standing Army and Navy, but the need had become evident for better training of National Guard troops and better coordination with the regular Army. Senator Warren repeatedly derailed plans to close Fort F.E. Warren, and the post stabilized in the 1920s with about 1,500 officers and enlisted men. The post continued routine garrison duties and special duties such as providing security during labor strikes, but it also became home to a variety of schools and training programs for support operations and general education of officers and soldiers. Training of Quartermaster Corps personnel became a key component of the fort's operations during WWII. Some Fort F.E. Warren personnel also provided and supervised CCC camps in various parts of the state.

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The Dick Act of 1903 and the National Defense Act of 1916, with amendment in 1920 and 1933, radically changed the nature of the National Guard in the nation and in Wyoming. The acts incrementally expanded the size of the peacetime National Guard, brought the National Guard into conformity with regular Army training, provided federal equipment and funding for National Guard operations, and ultimately reinterpreted the U.S. Constitution to allow mobilization of National Guard units as units of the regular Army in times of national emergency. Wyoming welcomed these changes because of the increased federal funding for the National Guard that flowed into the state during the depression years of the 1920s and 1930s. These changes allowed Wyoming National Guard units to serve together, rather than dividing them and assigning personnel individually to regular Army units as had happened in the Spanish American War and again in WWI (Davis 1994, 104).

Wyoming's National Guard was at heart a horse-mounted cavalry regiment, both before and after WWI, but that war clearly demonstrated that future wars would involve motor-driven vehicles. The Wyoming National Guard began receiving motorized vehicles from the federal government in the early 1920s, but some Guard units retained horses until WWII. Many of the armory construction projects in the 1920s and 1930s focused on providing stables and indoor



**Wyoming National Guard at Camp William B. Ross, July 1926**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

riding arenas for horse-mounted drills. The state legislature chose sites and provided funding for new armories during the interwar period, and these choices often reflected pork-barrel politics rather than need or utility to the National Guard as a whole. Consequently, Casper and other politically powerful towns received large and expensive armories, while the National Guard units in smaller towns languished in rented halls or otherwise inadequate facilities. Storage of federal property provided to the Guard, particularly vehicles and weapons, became a major concern for the Wyoming National Guard.

The complement of officers and enlisted men generally continued to rise after the initial post-WWI years. To provide more adequate training facilities, the National Guard established Camp Guernsey near the town of Guernsey and began construction with Works Progress Administration (WPA) personnel in 1938. Camp Guernsey became a year-round training facility as a replacement for the former training camp at Pole Mountain near Laramie, which could not be used during winter months.

## **2.2 WORLD WAR II**

Nazi Germany invaded Poland on September 1, 1939 and thereby set off WWII in Europe. Germany subsequently invaded France, Belgium, Norway, western Russia, multiple eastern European nations, and North Africa. Japan began expanding its empire by force in 1936, and by 1940 it threatened U.S. interests throughout southern Asia and the western Pacific.

The United States began preparing for war as early as 1936, when the armed forces began a substantial buildup in weapons, equipment, and personnel. In September 1940 the Selective Service Act authorized the War Department to begin a military draft that initially registered 34,000 men between the ages of 18 and 35 years. Wyoming was no more interested in going to war than the rest of the nation, but it quickly and efficiently established local Selective Service boards. In March 1941 Congress passed the Lend-Lease Act with the support of both Wyoming

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senators; this law authorized the President to “sell, transfer, exchange, lease, lend” any defense articles “to the government of any country whose defense the President deems vital to the defense of the United States.” Under the Lend-Lease program, the United States would eventually provide more than \$50 billion in war materials to Britain, France, China, and Russia (Larson 1993, 2. Morrison, Commager, Leuchtenburg 1969, 545-547).

Preparation for war and support of the war immensely impacted Wyoming. In early 1941, the Army’s Fort Francis E. Warren in Cheyenne commenced a multi-million dollar conversion into a Quartermaster Corps Training Center. The fort doubled its size and became the center of military-focused activity in Wyoming during the war. It also brought as many as 26,000 personnel to the base, making it the second largest city in the state at that time, while boosting the local economy with over 5,000 men engaged in construction and service jobs (Larson 1993, 2).

The Army Air Force created the Cheyenne Modification Center at the Cheyenne Municipal Airport (MAP) in 1942 for the modification of the military’s B-17 bombers after their initial assembly in California. The airport offered a strategic location along the established transcontinental air route and United Airlines’ existing commercial aviation maintenance facilities. The Modification Center prepared bombers for their war missions, including installation of gun mounts and camouflage painting for the respective war theater, which allowed the primary aircraft factories to produce as many aircraft as possible. Between 1942 and 1945, the Cheyenne Modification Center employed 1,642 men and women and prepared over 5,000 bomber aircraft for combat (Rosenberg 1989, 29).

On September 1, 1942, the Casper Army Air Base opened in Natrona County for additional flight training of bomber crews and some fighter crews. A veritable army of workmen built more than 300 buildings in little more than three months at the new base on the western

outskirts of Casper. The Casper complex also included at least six bomb and gunnery ranges in remote areas away from the base. About 16,000 crew members passed through the base before the government deactivated it in 1945, and at least 130 officers and enlisted men died in crashes during training exercises there.

The national defense program stoked industries in Wyoming that had been in recession since the end of WWI. Renewed demand for agricultural products, transportation, oil, and coal brought employment to the state. Manufacturers of fireworks diverted their explosives to the production of flares, smoke bombs, and ammunition. Meanwhile, small-town residents gravitated to larger centers of employment, principally Cheyenne and Casper, and to mobilized military bases out of state. In November 1941, a national defense office opened in Casper to distribute defense contracts among the local small businesses (Larson 1993, 4-5).

The Wyoming National Guard entered federal service beginning in September 1940 and went mostly to Fort Lewis, Washington for training. Much of the Wyoming National Guard remained in the United States during the war, providing shore protection in the Northwest and then in California, but other units deployed to Europe and saw action there. Despite the promise of unit cohesion provided within the amendments to the National Defense Act of 1916, many Wyoming Guardsmen received individual assignments to regular Army units, and Wyoming National Guardsmen, as well as volunteers and draftees, participated in campaigns in Europe and in the Pacific.

To serve the domestic duties of the departed National Guard troops and provide for homeland defense, Wyoming organized a State Guard under the Wyoming Military Department and its leader, the adjutant general. The State Guard received funding, guns, and ammunition from the federal government, and its members drilled and trained somewhat in the same manner

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as the National Guard. The adjutant general also nominally headed a variety of civil defense programs, including a system of observers throughout the state who identified and reported any aircraft they saw.

Construction of the Heart Mountain Relocation Center beginning in the early summer of 1942 reflected the nation's paranoia regarding internal enemies. The U.S. government built and operated the concentration camp, located between Cody and Powell, as one of ten such camps for the confinement of persons of Japanese descent who were removed from California and Oregon under provisions of an executive order issued by President Roosevelt. Construction of the extensive camp employed over 2,000 laborers through September 1942. By January 1, 1943, 10,767 Japanese detainees occupied the camp, which made the camp the third largest town in Wyoming. Wyoming residents and the governor resisted the relocation of Japanese to Wyoming partly in fear the Japanese would then stay in Wyoming and/or would undermine labor rates if allowed to work in coal mines. The camp remained in operation until November 10, 1945, which made it one of the longest operating internment camps in the nation (Miyagishima 2004, 16).



**Remaining Building at WWII Heart Mountain  
Japanese Relocation Camp**

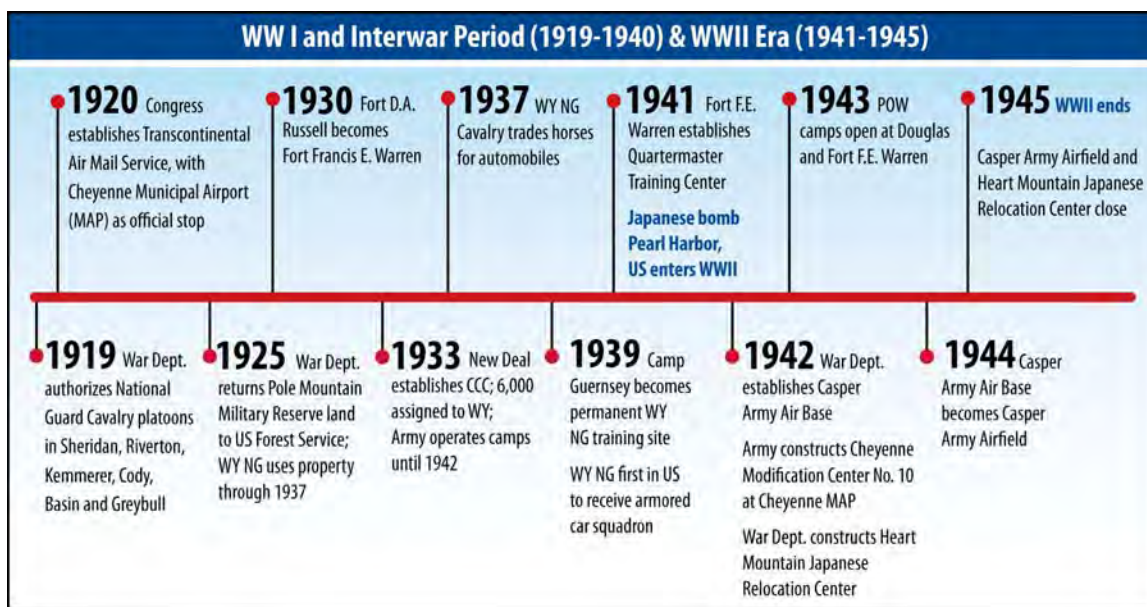
Photograph courtesy of Richard Collier, Wyoming State Historic Preservation Office



Allied victories in North Africa in 1943 resulted in the relocation of tens of thousands of German and Italian POWs to camps in the United States, including two primary and 16 secondary POW camps in Wyoming. The largest of the Wyoming camps appears to have been at Fort F.E. Warren outside Cheyenne, which held nearly 900 POWs near the end of the war in 1945. Prisoners at this camp existed behind barbed wire fences and only rarely emerged from the enclosure for work details (Listman, Baker and Goodfellow 2007, Appendix C-72, 73). A second camp at Douglas initially held Italian POWs, but it also held German POWs during the last year of the war. Some POWs provided farm labor, timber cutting, and other work to help relieve the labor shortage caused by the war; these POWs often headquartered at former CCC camps.

Figure 2-1 shows major national and international events that influenced Wyoming military history during the 1919-1945 period. Major international events appear in bold type.

**Figure 2-1. Wyoming Military Timeline 1919-1945.**



## 2.3 POST WWII AND COLD WAR ERA

Leaders of the United States, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union (the “Big Three”) met at Yalta and Potsdam during the latter stages of WWII to plan strategies for defeating Germany

and Japan. At these meetings, the three leaders essentially divided much of the world into two political and economic spheres of influence. Much of the division was inevitable, because the Soviet armies and their allies pushed the Germans out of eastern Europe and helped in the final defeat of Japan in southeast Asia. The British and Americans and their multiple allies, pushed the Germans out of western Europe and the Japanese out of their conquered territories in Asia and the Pacific. The Big Three leaders agreed that elections would be held in all of the liberated areas after the war.

Tensions among the Big Three began to mount even as the war was coming to a close. Contrary to expectations in the West, the Soviet Union did not remove its armies from liberated territories in Eastern Europe and Eastern Germany. The Soviet Union actively supported establishment of national governments with communist ideologies and direct economic and security ties to the Soviet Union. British Prime Minister Winston Churchill reacted to this situation by describing an iron curtain that had descended between the Soviet-dominated territories and those of the West in 1946. In the face of threats of Soviet forces in eastern Europe and real possibilities that other nations, including Greece and France, would become communist, the United States responded with the Marshall Plan for economic stabilization of Western Europe. Both sides continued to support development of allied governments throughout the world, including competing governments in China, Korea and Southeast Asia.

The competition between the Soviet Union and its communist allies and the United States and its capitalist allies, not always democracies on either side, came to be called the Cold War because the leading nations of the two sides resisted direct armed conflict with each other. The development of atomic weapons by the United States during WWII and the demonstrated willingness at Hiroshima and Nagasaki to use those weapons both substantially influenced the

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nature of this standoff from 1946 to 1989. The United States alone had atomic weapons from 1945 to 1949, during which time the overwhelming superiority of Soviet forces was held in check against advancement into Western Europe in part by the threat of nuclear retaliation by the United States. By the time the Soviet Union developed nuclear weapons capability in 1949, both sides had the ability to deliver such weapons to the other nation by means of long range bombers, and both sides were actively working on missile delivery systems. Both sides built up massive arsenals of nuclear weapons during the 1950s and 1960s, to the point where both the Soviet Union and the United States would likely destroy one another in a nuclear exchange. The nuclear standoff became known as the concept of Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD) (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 2).

The Cold War was not always cold. On January 25, 1950, troops from communist northern Korea invaded to the south in an attempt to unify the nation. Taking advantage of a boycott of the United Nations (UN) Security Council by the Soviet Union, the United States sponsored a resolution in which the UN authorized military action to combat the invasion. The northern Koreans overran most of Korean Peninsula before allied forces under General MacArthur drove the communist forces northward nearly to the Chinese border. Communist China then committed large numbers of troops to the fight and again drove southward. UN forces then regained the offensive and drove the communist forces back. The UN and the North Koreans signed a cease fire agreement on July 27, 1953, and the two Koreas became separate nations.

France held colonial control over areas of Southeast Asia, some of which came under Japanese control during WWII. After the war, France attempted to resume its control of Vietnam until 1954, when Vietnamese armies defeated the French forces. The nation was then portioned

into northern and southern sections and, as in Korea, the northern section aligned with the Soviet Union and the southern section with the United States. A series of corrupt governments in South Vietnam fueled a communist insurgency and North Vietnam eventually actively supported it with troops and materiel. The United States began overt military involvement in 1950 when President Truman sent military advisors to help train and direct South Vietnam's forces. In following years, the U.S. vastly expanded support to South Vietnam; 190,000 U.S. troops were in Vietnam by 1966 and 550,000 U.S. troops were there at the height of U.S. participation in 1969 (Anonymous, Infoplease, 2009). The United States began withdrawing its forces from Vietnam in 1973, and the nation ultimately reunited under communist rule in 1975.

The Cold War resulted in massive changes to the nature and scale of military operations in Wyoming. The National Guard Bureau reorganized the National Guard in 1946 on a much larger scale than had existed before WWII, and each state received an air unit in addition to multiple ground units. Wyoming immediately organized the 187<sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron, and the National Guard Bureau officially recognized the unit in August 1946 as one of the first four such units to become active in the nation (Esmay 1948, 4). When Congress created the Department of Defense in 1947, it included a new USAF and its National Guard component, the Air National Guard (ANG). The Wyoming ANG then technically became a reserve component of the USAF primarily responsible for homeland protection of the United States, but the Wyoming ANG remained under the administration of the Wyoming Military Department unless called into federal duty.

The Wyoming ANG initially flew F-51 (P-51) Mustang propeller driven fighters and a variety of other aircraft left over from WWII. The unit received its first jet aircraft in 1953, the F-80 Shooting Star previously used by the U.S. in Korea. In subsequent years the Wyoming ANG

regularly updated its aircraft, so that their combat and other capabilities lagged only slightly behind those of most active Air Force units of similar mission. The unit's primary mission changed from fighter defense to medical transport support in 1961, to general airlift transport during the Vietnam War in 1965, back to medical transport support in 1968, and back to general airlift transport in 1972. The Wyoming ANG operated primarily from the Cheyenne MAP but also trained at the former Casper Army Air Base in Natrona County (Schomig 2007, 8-11). In 1954, the Department of Defense converted a portion of the former WWII training facility into a permanent training station for Air National Guard units for many states. Training activities continued at the Casper facility until the 1960s (Rosenberg 2001, 29).

The Wyoming Military Department quickly reorganized the Wyoming Army National Guard in 1946, and Wyoming became the first state to organize and stand up all of the units allotted to it by the National Guard Bureau. Artillery and mechanized cavalry reconnaissance units dominated the post-WWII Wyoming Guard, and the National Guard Bureau also assigned a tank battalion to Wyoming. Wyoming National Guard strength continued to grow throughout the 1950s; in 1952 the National Guard had 713 officers and enlisted men, and in 1958 it had 1,648 officers and enlisted men (Esmay 1952, 7; 1958, 12). Nearly every town of any size throughout the state established Guard Units, and the federal government funded construction of 20 new armories during the 1946-1989 Cold War era (Esmay 1950; 1952, 9; 1954, 7.4; 1958, 12. Wyoming Cultural Resource Database). The National Guard also expanded facilities at Camp Guernsey in part to accommodate artillery and tank training for National Guard troops from Wyoming and other states.

Wyoming Army and ANG units served with distinction in combat in Korea. Wyoming's 300<sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion saw action around Sovang and Hongchon and at battles

named the Punchbowl, Bunker Hill, Bloody Ridge, and Heartbreak Ridge. The unit received two Presidential Unit Citations, and soldiers and officers of the unit received more than 75 medals (Berebitsky 1996, 124-129. Wyoming Army National Guard n.d.). The Wyoming ANG entered federal service for the Korean Conflict on April 1, 1951. Eighteen Wyoming ANG pilots flew more than 1,500 combat missions in the following year, and eight Wyoming ANG pilots died in action. The squadron ended active federal duty on December 18, 1952. Wyoming Army National Guard units did not participate in the Vietnam conflict, but Wyoming ANG's F-100 fighter squadron deployed to Phan Rang Air Base, Vietnam for eleven months in 1968-1969.

Wyoming's military presence during the Cold War era changed dramatically with the conversion of Fort F.E. Warren to F.E. Warren AFB and the basing of ICBMs around the base. The Army again threatened to close Fort F.E. Warren after WWII, but it remained in operation with approximately 5,000 personnel engaged primarily in training of Army Air Corps engineers and other specialties. The new USAF assumed control of the post in October 1949, resuming and expanding training activities for airmen. F.E. Warren AFB expanded to around 12,000 personnel by 1951 (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-18). The base faced closure several more times throughout the 1950s, but each time Wyoming's congressional delegation with support of the governor and concerned Cheyenne business groups lobbied successfully to save it.

The Soviet Union launched the world's first artificial satellite, Sputnik, on October 4, 1957, signaling that the Soviet Union had an advanced missile development program. This action set off not only a race to space but also a massive, frantic effort by the United States to develop and deploy ICBMs that could strike the Soviet Union with nuclear weapons. In November 1957, the Department of Defense announced that it would locate an ICBM missile complex at F.E. Warren Air Force Base, which would cost an estimated \$65 to \$100 million and bring thousands

of construction jobs to Cheyenne. Construction of the Atlas missile system and supporting facilities began in the summer of 1958, and the original plan grew to include installation of 24 Atlas missiles by November 1961 (Cassity 1998, 24-26).

Atlas missiles were stored in above ground concrete “coffins” until erected for firing, and these missiles were already obsolete by the time the Atlas complex was completed. In December 1962, the Air Force announced that F.E. Warren AFB would also be the home for 200 Minuteman ICBMs in underground concrete silos spread over a wide area of Wyoming, Colorado, and Nebraska. Construction of the 200 silos and support facilities began almost immediately, and all of the sites were completed by July 1, 1964 at an estimated cost of \$150 to \$200 million. The Air Force then phased out the Atlas system, removing the last Atlas missile in February 1965 (Cassity 1998, 34-36).

The Air Force upgraded the Minuteman missile system in the 1970s with the Minute III warheads, so that each missile could launch three independently targeted nuclear weapons. In 1978 the Carter Administration sought to again expand the delivery system to ten warheads per missile and to better insure the survivability of the missiles from nuclear attack. The Air Force proposed a number of scenarios for basing systems, including a large “racetrack” system in which missiles constantly moved on rails so an enemy would not be able to locate and destroy all of the missiles (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-32).

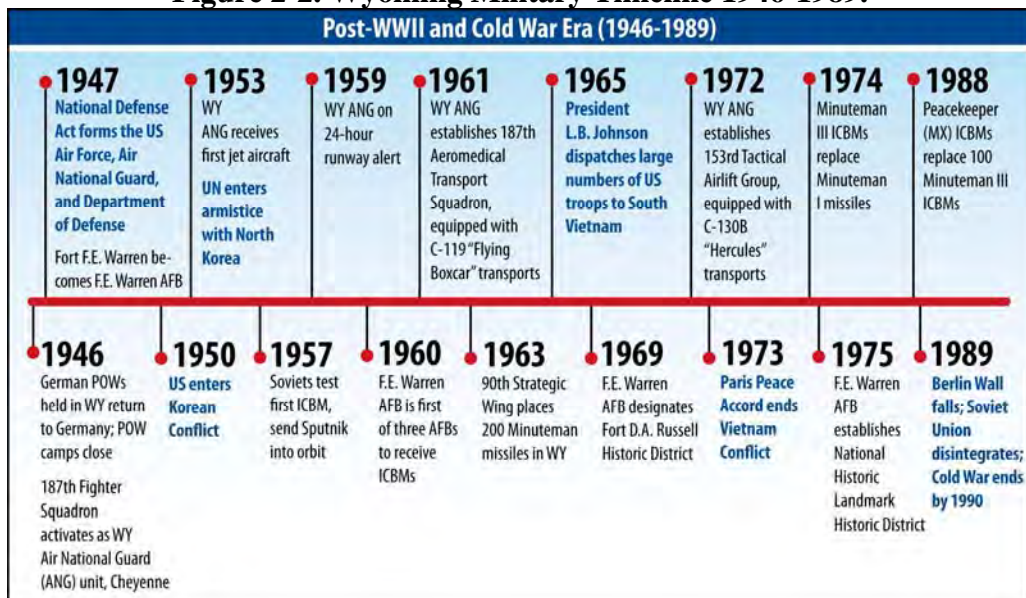
President Reagan dismissed the racetrack proposal, and the Reagan administration proposed to install the ten-warhead (MX) missiles in existing missile silos. In 1982 Reagan announced the planned deployment of 200 of these “Peacekeeper” missiles in a dense configuration at F.E. Warren AFB; however, Congress blocked funding after hearing opposition from constituents. Over opposition from many in Wyoming, including Governor Ed Hershler, the

Reagan Administration began installation of a reduced MX/Peacekeeper missile program. The Air Force installed the first armed Peacekeeper missile and prepared it for launch in the late spring of 1986. By 1988, the Air Force completed installation of 50 Peacekeeper missiles in former Minuteman III silos around F.E. Warren AFB (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-33).

Deployment of ICBMs at F.E. Warren AFB ensured the survival of the base and brought hundreds of millions of dollars into the local economy from the late 1950s through the end of the Cold War in 1989. However, not all Wyoming residents applauded the presence of the missiles and even the existence of such weapons. While Cheyenne businessmen championed every new development and missile installation, landowners chafed at the taking of their lands for the silos and launch facilities, and other citizens complained that the missiles both made them ground zero for a Soviet nuclear attack and made the world as a whole a much more dangerous place. The Soviet Union dissolved in a series of steps beginning in 1989, and the Cold War ostensibly ended with that dissolution, but the missiles remained in Wyoming.

Figure 2-2 shows major national and international events that influenced Wyoming military history during the 1946-1989 period. Major international events appear in bold type.

**Figure 2-2. Wyoming Military Timeline 1946-1989.**







## **CHAPTER 3 – THE U.S. ARMY IN WYOMING, 1920-1989**

### **3.1 ORIGINS AND SERVICE BEFORE 1920**

The U.S. Army's early efforts in Wyoming involved assistance with overland emigration and later with construction of the transcontinental railroad across the southern portion of the state. Army engineers also accomplished the earliest mapping and geographical studies of the area. In 1845 Colonel Stephen Kearny led an expedition along the Platte and North Platte Rivers to impress Indians not to bother overland wagon traffic on the Oregon Trail, and in 1849 the Army purchased and occupied the old American Fur Company trading post known as Fort Laramie. The Army conducted numerous campaigns against hostile Indians in northern Wyoming until the close of the Indian Wars era in 1878, and the Army bought or built and manned a series of forts over time mainly to protect the Bozeman, Overland, and Oregon/California/Mormon trails and the transcontinental telegraph line. The Army also pursued a rather disastrous campaign against the Mormons in 1857, when church leaders refused to accept a governor for the Utah Territory appointed by the President of the United States.

The railroad system of the United States reached westward to the Mississippi River by 1853, and Congress charged the Army with surveying four potential routes for railroad connections to the West Coast. Army surveyors completed initial route surveys in 1855 for the north-central route through the area that would become southern Wyoming, but economic recession in 1857 and the Civil War delayed construction of the Union Pacific/Central Pacific transcontinental rail system until 1867-1868. The Union Pacific Railroad established the town of

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Cheyenne in 1867, and the Army established Cheyenne Depot, also called Camp Carlin, that would supply military posts in a wide region as well as Fort D.A. Russell to the west of Cheyenne.

The Army established other smaller military posts throughout Wyoming to protect travelers and residents from the Indians and, in the case of Fort Washakie, to control the Eastern Shoshone and later the Northern Arapaho people who settled on the Wind River Indian Reservation in the west-central area of Wyoming (Larson 1978, 34). Intermittent warfare between the Army and hostile tribes started in 1854 and effectively terminated in Wyoming by 1878. The concluding event of the Indian Wars era in the Central and Northern Plains occurred at Wounded Knee Creek in South Dakota in late 1890, and the Army abandoned many of the military posts in Wyoming between 1878 and 1890 (Junge 1978, Item 9, 2).

The absence of an Indian threat and other factors led the Army to consolidate into larger regional posts, notably Fort D.A. Russell. The last post built in Wyoming to address a supposed Indian threat was Fort Mackenzie near Sheridan. The Army established a temporary post there in 1898 and commissioned the fort as a permanent post later that year. Although the need for Fort Mackenzie was questionable at best, the Army built a series of brick structures at the post beginning in 1902, largely as a result of the “pork barrel” efforts of Wyoming Senator F.E. Warren. The Army largely abandoned Fort Mackenzie in 1913, but it was not decommissioned until 1918. The War Department transferred the post complex and much of the military reservation lands to the Public Health Service in 1921, which then transferred the property to the new Veterans Bureau in 1922. The property has served as a veterans hospital since that time (Junge 1978, n.p.). Chapter 6 of this document contains additional history of Fort Mackenzie.

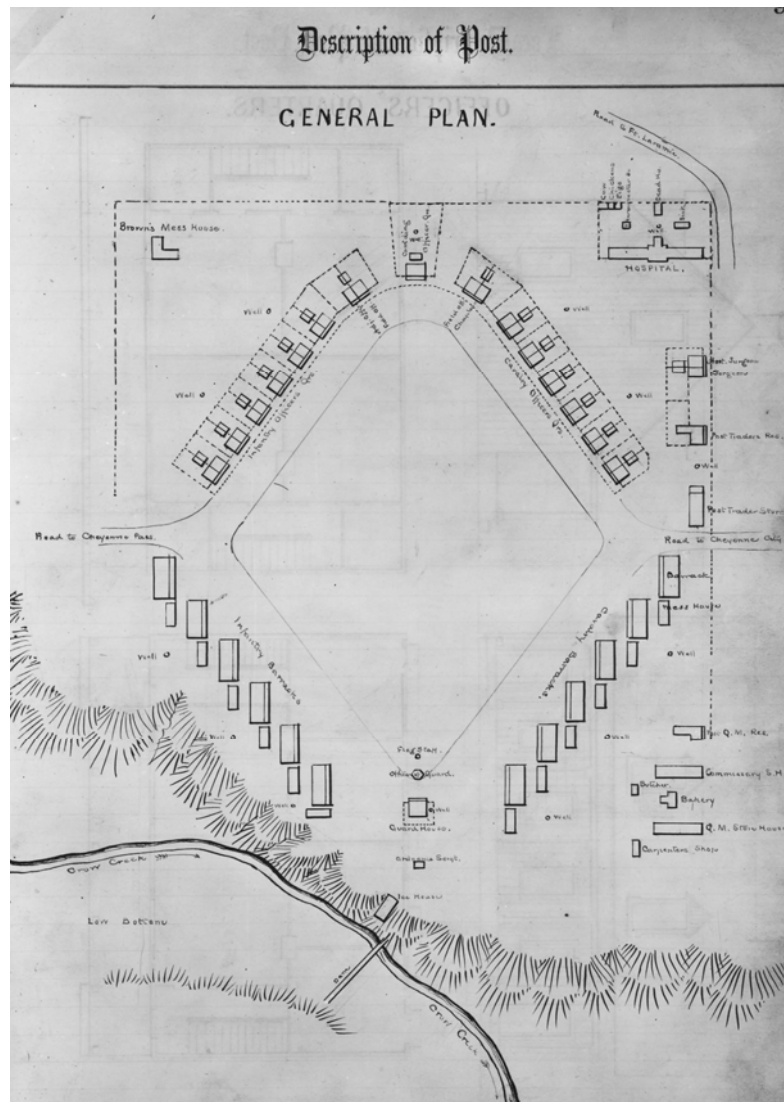
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Besides Fort D.A. Russell, discussed at length below, two other Indian Wars-era military posts in Wyoming remained active into the 20th century. The Army finally abandoned Fort Washakie on the Wind River Indian Reservation in 1909. The Army established Fort McKinney in 1878 about two miles west of current Buffalo, Wyoming, to help contain the Indian tribes on their respective reservations and protect them from each other. However, the most prominent event associated with Fort McKinney was the Johnson County War, in which troops from the post rescued a large group of gunmen who had been hired by large ranching interests to drive out homesteaders and small ranchers. The War Department transferred the Fort McKinney post area and a large amount of land to the State of Wyoming in 1903, and the state has operated a veteran's retirement home at the site since that time (Murray 1975, 8:1-3). Chapter 6 of this document contains a more thorough discussion of the history of Fort McKinney.

A fourth Army installation in Wyoming also survived into the 20th century, but its founding had nothing to do with the Indian Wars. The Army established Camp Sheridan at the base of Mammoth Hot Springs Terrace in 1886, when the Army assumed administration of Yellowstone National Park from the Department of the Interior. The Army renamed the post Fort Yellowstone in 1891, and it remained in operation until October 1916, when the National Park Service assumed administration of the park. Fort Yellowstone had a complement of 324 officers and enlisted men in 1910. Troops constructed more than 70 wood frame and sandstone buildings, fought forest fires, protected visitors from bandits, and protected timber and other park resources from poachers and vandals (Frazer 1965, 186; Rosenberg 1989, 24-25).

The history of Fort D.A. Russell, later named Fort F.E. Warren in 1930 and F.E. Warren Air Force Base in 1949, is the topic of several previous publications, including *Historical Context Statement for F.E. Warren Air Force Base* (Cassity 1998), "History of Fort Francis E.

Warren” (Kendall 1946), and *The Post Near Cheyenne: A History of Fort D.A. Russell, 1867-1930* (Adams 1966). Writers found much of the following information within those documents.



### Fort D.A. Russell, Early General Plan

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

The Army initially constructed wood frame buildings at Fort D.A. Russell, but 43 substantial brick structures were built between 1885 and 1900. The Army accomplished a third major period of construction from 1903 to 1914, when it replaced all of the original wood frame structures with brick buildings, and the post grew to include 2,700 officers and enlisted personnel. Troops at the post initially built the structures and conducted patrols in surrounding

territory. The troops participated in the 1876 campaign to constrict the Sioux, Cheyenne, and Arapaho to their respective reservations. Fort D.A. Russell troops also participated in the convergence of forces to quell the Ghost Dance Indian revival that ended in the Wounded Knee



**Quarters 73, F.E. Warren AFB**



**Quarters 130, F.E. Warren AFB**

**Buildings from this era are referred to as "The Bricks"**

Photographs courtesy TolTest, Inc.

massacre in South Dakota in 1890 (Cassity 1998, 6-11).

However, the principal activity of the Army in Wyoming had already begun to change by 1877, when soldiers from the post went to Omaha and Chicago to suppress property loss from railroad strikes. They performed the same function in Rock Springs in 1885 after a massacre of Chinese laborers in Union Pacific coal mines and in Pueblo, Colorado and Pocatello, Idaho during the 1894 Pullman Strike. Troops escorted and loosely guarded a group of hired gunmen from the Johnson County War in 1892, and in 1894 they “extradited” to Idaho a group of unemployed men who were making their way to Washington, D.C. along the Union Pacific Railroad to demand assistance from the federal government (Larson 1978, 174; Adams 1996, 87). The Army at Fort Russell clearly acted as the arm of the federal government at that time,

and the federal government was far more sympathetic to large ranchers, railroads, and mining companies than to farmers and laborers.

The United States declared war on Spain in April 1898 and the Eighth Infantry at Fort D.A. Russell almost immediately left for Georgia, where the forces for invasion of Cuba were assembled. When the Wyoming National Guard was called into federal service, it trained at Fort D.A. Russell and then deployed mostly to the Philippines to first fight the Spanish and then the Philippine insurrectionists. Colonel Jay Torrey, a Big Horn Basin rancher, organized a volunteer cavalry unit of 842 men who trained at Fort D.A. Russell and then travelled by train to Florida, but did not see action (Larson 1978, 310-312).

The Army began to reorganize and restructure after the Spanish American War. Fort D.A. Russell survived potential closure in 1901 and actually expanded to include an infantry regiment and an artillery battery. In 1905 Secretary of War William Taft recommended that the post become a brigade-sized installation. An expansion program that had begun in 1902 continued until 1914, including construction of many of the red brick quarters, offices, and stables that still exist at F.E. Warren Air Force Base and are included in the F.E. Warren Historic District and National Historic Landmark (Rosenberg 2002, *passim*). Troops from Fort D.A. Russell participated in American occupation and pacification in Cuba and the Philippines from 1899 to 1907. From 1913 to 1916 troops from the post performed patrol (and invasion) duties along the Mexican border in response to Pancho Villa's revolutionary and banditry activities there (Adams 1996, 158-159).

When the United States entered WWI in 1917, Fort D.A. Russell became a major training site for cavalry and field artillery units. The post swelled from 3,000 to 5,000 military personnel and at its height had more than 3,000 horses. Their training completed, virtually all of the troops

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**F.E. Warren AFB Quarters 2: General Pershing's House**

Photograph courtesy Travis Beckwith  
of Senator F.E. Warren in a ceremony in Washington, D.C. attended by President Theodore

Roosevelt. He subsequently jumped in rank from captain to brigadier general over 862 senior officers. The Army subsequently assigned Pershing to command forces patrolling the Mexican border, and then made him commander-in-chief of American Expeditionary Forces in Europe when the United States entered WWI in 1917. Although he did not serve at Fort D.A. Russell, he was assigned quarters there. His wife and three daughters died in a fire at their quarters at the

at the post deployed for combat or support duties, so that only five officers and a hundred enlisted men remained at Fort D.A. Russell in late 1917. Troops from the post served in Europe under the ultimate command of General John J. Pershing, who had a special relationship with Cheyenne and Fort D.A. Russell. Pershing married the daughter



**Bell of Balangiga Taken by the 11<sup>th</sup> Infantry in the Philippines in 1904, shown at FE Warren AFB 1991**

Photograph Courtesy of Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources.



**Bells of Balangiga display at F.E. Warren AFB**  
Photograph courtesy of TolTest, Inc.



daughters were buried in the Warren family plot in Lakeview Cemetery in Cheyenne (Adams 1996, 159-169, 172; Holland 1987, 7-3).

Operation of Fort D.A. Russell pumped millions of dollars into the economy of Cheyenne and Wyoming. The departure of almost all troops during WWI caused concerns of post closure. Again Senator F.E. Warren intervened by asking the Army to assign additional troops to the post during the last phases of the war in Europe and the post served as a demobilization site at the end of the war. The post processed more than 35,000 men from federal service in the eight months following the end of the war in November 1918. Other than demobilization, Fort D.A. Russell settled into routine training and

garrison duties after the war, including operating coal mines at several Wyoming locations during a labor strike in 1919. Five hundred ninety-two (592) officers and enlisted men served at Fort D.A. Russell at the end of 1919; this number increased to nearly 1,000 officers and men by the end of 1920 (Adams 1996, 162, 167; Holland 1987, 7-3, 7-4).



**Fort D.A. Russell Hospital and Ambulance, ca. 1918**

Photograph from J.E. Stimson Collection, Wyoming State Archives,  
Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

The return to normal garrison operations immediately after WWI resulted in very little physical change to Fort D.A. Russell, in part because the facilities at the post had extensively expanded from 1902 to 1914 and because the post accommodated only about one-third as many military personnel as it had immediately before the war. For a period of 16 months in 1919 and

1920, the installation gained a new airfield for testing aircraft. The site was called the O'Neil Airfield, and the War Department hoped it would serve as a stopover for cross-country mail flights. The Army closed the airfield in 1920 after the Secretary of War vetoed a plan for development of a joint military-civilian airfield at the post. The airfield was located along what is now Randall Avenue at F.E. Warren AFB. Cheyenne then found a location on the north side of town and built its own airfield for mail and commercial flights, a development that would be critical for the future history of the town and the military base both during and after WWII (Rosenberg 2002, 27; Holland 1987, 7-4).

### **3.2 THE ARMY IN WYOMING IN THE INTERWAR ERA, 1920-1940.**

The National Defense Act of 1916 and amendments in 1920 substantially changed the military forces of the United States. Under this revision, the military forces consisted of a relatively small professional regular Army of 200,000 officers and enlisted men, the National Guard, and the Organized Reserves. The Organized Reserves consisted of Officers Reserve Corps and Enlisted Reserves Corps. The reorganization rested on a premise that the National Guard and Reserves would be most effective if they could rapidly integrate with regular Army forces, and that meant that the National Guard and Reserves needed training and equipment similar to those of regular Army personnel. The Utah and Wyoming National Guards trained at Fort D.A. Russell in 1920 and the National Guards of other states also trained at the main post and the ancillary Pole Mountain Maneuver Area in succeeding years. More than 1,000 National Guardsmen from Wyoming, Colorado, and Utah trained at Fort D.A. Russell in the summer of 1922, and the next year Fort D.A. Russell hosted the two-week training sessions of National Guard troops from Wyoming, Utah, Idaho, and Washington State (Adams 1996, 178; Wyoming Adjutant General's Office 1940, xxxii). Figure 3-1 shows key Army locations during this era.

**Figure 3-1. Key U.S. Army Locations in Wyoming, 1920-1989****Key U.S. Army Locations in Wyoming, 1920-1989**

1. Fort D.A. Russell/Fort F.E. Warren, 1920-1947
2. Pole Mountain Maneuver Area, 1920-1947
3. Cheyenne Modification Center #10, 1942-1945
4. Camp Guernsey 1942-1945
5. Casper Army Air Base/Army Air Field, 1942-1945
6. Heart Mountain Japanese American Relocation Camp, 1942-1946
7. Douglas POW Camp, 1942-1946

Map courtesy TEC, Inc.

In the reorganization of the Army in 1920, the Army initially assigned a single regiment, the 15<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Regiment, to Fort D.A. Russell, rather than a full brigade-size complement of three regiments that the post could accommodate. Colonel Thomas Dugan, who initially commanded the 15<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Regiment and Fort D.A. Russell, both successfully recruited cavalry soldiers to fill his allotted ranks and instituted innovative training in ethics, discipline, and maneuvers. He also encouraged social and recreational activities at the post, including polo, marksmanship contests, horse racing, hunting, and indoor social events. Through some of these efforts he encouraged a development of interaction with Cheyenne's social elite. Colonel

Dugan's tenure was not long; the Army relegated the 15<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Regiment to the inactive list in 1921 and reassigned him to a post in Maryland (Adams 1996, 176).

The Army slated Fort D.A. Russell and more than 70 installations across the country for closure and sale as part of post-war adjustment in 1921. Senator F.E. Warren again came to the rescue of the base and Cheyenne; the Army reassigned the 13<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Regiment to Fort D.A.

Russell from Fort Clark, Texas.

The new unit arrived at Fort D.A.

Russell in September 1921, absorbing some of the soldiers and officers of the 15<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Regiment who had not transferred earlier. Later that fall, the Army assigned the 53<sup>rd</sup> Infantry Regiment to Fort D.A. Russell, and in June 1922 the Army reassigned the 76<sup>th</sup> Field Artillery Regiment from Fort Lewis, Washington to Fort D.A. Russell. The post then attained full brigade strength and came under the command of a brigadier general. In September 1922, the Army deactivated the 53<sup>rd</sup> Infantry Regiment as part of further reduction of the Army, and its officers and troops went to posts in Colorado and Utah. The Army partially mitigated this loss with the re-posting of half of the 4<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Regiment, about 300 officers and men, from Fort McIntosh, Texas to Fort D.A. Russell in October 1924. At the close of that year, Fort D.A. Russell supported one full cavalry regiment plus one squadron of another, a battalion of field artillery



**Mess Line at Field Camp, 1926**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources



### **Fort D.A. Russell, 1923**

Photograph courtesy U.S. Air Force, F.E. Warren AFB

consisting of 68 officers and 1,500 enlisted men, and 1,440 horses and mules. The post occupied 5,920 acres and included approximately 210 buildings (Adams 1996, 176-178, 186).

Troops at Fort D.A. Russell also trained at the Pole Mountain Target and Maneuver Area, also known as the Pole Mountain Military Reservation, located about six miles east of Laramie, Wyoming. At the request of the Secretary of War in 1879, President Hayes set aside a tract of land as a wood and timber reservation for the use of Forts Sanders and D.A. Russell and the Cheyenne Depot. In 1900, President McKinley authorized creation of the Crow Creek Forest Reserve, which later became the Pole Mountain Division of the Medicine Bow National Forest. In October 1903, President Theodore Roosevelt transferred Crow Creek Forest Reserve to the War Department for use as a military reserve, under the condition that military use would not interfere with Forest Preserve objectives. The War Department and the agencies that became the U.S. Forest Service jointly administered the area until 1910, and the War Department alone managed the reservation from 1910 to 1925. After a re-evaluation of the property in 1924, Congress reduced the military reservation from approximately 62,448 acres to 3,317 acres, but the entire area of former military reservation remained available to the Army for training purposes (Grasso et al. 1981, 235-240).

The Army used the Pole Mountain area for artillery training and large-scale cavalry and infantry maneuvers. In 1925, summer activities at Pole Mountain included war maneuvers using Army Air Service airplanes for reconnaissance and practicing artillery fire. (Hutchison 2001, 48). The Wyoming National Guard also used the Pole Mountain Reservation for two-week summer training as early as 1910. The National Guard continued summer training at Pole Mountain until 1938, when the National Guard began using Camp Guernsey, near the town of that name, for its annual training sessions. The Army at Fort D.A. Russell and later Fort F.E. Warren continued to use the Pole Mountain facility for ordnance training until 1945, and the property thereafter became primarily a military hunting and fishing preserve. The U.S. Air Force assumed control of the property in 1947 as part of the F.E. Warren AFB. The Department of



**Troops Training at Pole Mountain, 1936**

Photograph courtesy of U.S. Air Force, F.E. Warren AFB

Defense relinquished the facility to the Department of Agriculture in 1959, and in 1961 the property became part of the Pole Mountain Division of the Medicine Bow National Forest. The military complex at Pole Mountain included at least 24 structures, some of which were constructed by the Wyoming National Guard (Coyle et al. 1999, 4-15).

The cavalry era at Fort D.A. Russell, at least for the regular Army, ended in 1927 when the Army re-posted the 13<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Regiment to Fort Riley, Kansas, and the Army ordered the 4<sup>th</sup> Cavalry units at Fort D.A. Russell to rejoin the other half of their regiment at Fort Meade, South Dakota. Once again, Senator F.E. Warren



**Fort D.A. Russell Parade Ground, Machine Gun Company, ca. 1927**

Photograph courtesy of Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

convinced the War Department to assign troops to Fort D.A. Russell to augment the remaining artillery regiment. The Army assigned the 4<sup>th</sup> Infantry Brigade to the post in 1927, including the 1<sup>st</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> Infantry Regiments. These units remained the principal occupants of Fort D.A. Russell until 1940 (Adams 1996, 192-193).

The post's long-time friend and benefactor, Senator F.E. Warren, died on November 29, 1929, and Congress renamed the post Fort F.E. Warren on January 1, 1930. The loss of Senator Warren was probably less problematic at that time than if it had occurred earlier, because the post-WWI constriction of the armed forces had taken place by 1930. In fact, the Army began a modest building program at the post in 1929. A 1931 report on the state of the buildings and construction stated that at that time the post comprised 259 permanent buildings, 26 temporary buildings, mainly comprised of warrant officers' and non-commissioned officers' quarters, and 10 permanent buildings under construction. The new buildings then under construction primarily comprised replacement housing for the warrant and non-commissioned officers, but the building

program also included plans for a new school, theater, central heating plant, and improvements to the 1880s barracks. Many of the new buildings did not follow the strong curvilinear or linear design precedents at the base, but instead applied generally modest architectural designs that were generated from the Office of the Quartermaster General from Fort Belvoir, Fairfax County, Virginia. Designs featured simplified Colonial Revival architectural aesthetic in all of the new buildings to varying degrees (Rosenberg 2002, 27-28).

Soldiers at Fort D.A. Russell experienced a relatively quiet period during the 1920s and 1930s in terms of military actions. In 1929 more than 800 members of the 20<sup>th</sup> Infantry spent a month in Arizona to guard against spread of Mexican political unrest to the United States; otherwise the troops saw little action. The base continued to house cavalry and artillery units, which included some of the finest horses and mules in the state. Base personnel spent their time undertaking beautification programs on base grounds and keeping the buildings in working condition. In the late 1920s, a reforestation program at the installation brought yellow pine saplings from Pole Mountain and 2,000 evergreens from Colorado to the base for planting and landscaping (Adams 1996, 199; Holland 1987, 7-4, 7-5). The weekly schedule for the servicemen included recreational activities every Wednesday afternoon. Leisure activities for the officers involved playing polo on the installation's two polo practice fields and one exhibition field or inside a 28,000 square-foot indoor riding arena. The servicemen enjoyed cordial relations with the Cheyenne residents during this time and often participated in the city's annual Frontier Days rodeo in the summers (Adams 1994, 7; Holland 1987, 7-4, 7-5).

The base continued its course of slow but steady growth and improvement during the 1930s. The rifle range expanded by 1,600 additional acres in 1934. Toward the end of the decade, base improvements included a barracks, four officers' quarters, eleven noncommissioned





**Fort F.E. Warren, ca. 1934**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

officers' quarters, a theater, a gymnasium, and medical barracks (Hoagland 2004, 245; Holland 1987, 7-6). The base still housed over 3,000 animals at that point, but the Army began phasing out animal transport and the associated facilities. Troops converted many of the stables into administrative offices, dining halls, and storage facilities (Rosenberg 2002, 28).

Fort F.E. Warren took on a different role from 1933 to 1942, when it became the state headquarters for the CCC. In 1933 President Franklin D. Roosevelt established the CCC as a New Deal program designed to create jobs for young men during the height of the Great Depression. Congress approved funding on March 31, 1933 as "Emergency Conservation Work," for unmarried men between the ages of 17 and 28. The CCC operated under the cooperation of four federal departments: Labor, Agriculture, Interior, and War/Army. The Department of Labor enrolled the participants, Agriculture and Interior (mainly the National

Park Service and U.S. Forest Service, but also other federal and state agencies) served as technical advisors, and the Army supplied and ran the CCC camps (National Park Service 2007).

For a six-month term, enrolled men earned \$30 a month, \$25 of which was required to be sent home. Of the 250,000 men nationwide who participated in the CCC, about 6,000 initially



**“Historic Fort Casper” CCC Reconstruction, Casper**

Photograph courtesy Richard Collier, Wyoming State Historic Preservation Office

worked on Wyoming forestry and public infrastructure projects. The men recruited locally from Wyoming and nearby mountain states participated in public improvement projects across Wyoming. Veterans also participated and other local, enlisted men worked as camp foremen. During their service, CCC enrollees lived in tent camps or in barracks often built by the corps members themselves.

The CCC maintained headquarters at Fort F.E. Warren in Cheyenne, but CCC troops established 19 Forest Army Camps throughout the state for reforestation projects (Gillen 1990, 86). In Wyoming, CCC work included refurbishing parks and forests, firefighting, construction, and planting trees in some areas while thinning or removing trees elsewhere. The CCC was also referred to as the Forest Army or Forestry Corps in light of their primary role in reforestation clear-cut lands across the nation (Coyle et al. 1999, 4-15). The CCC contributed to improvements to National Park Service land by building picnic shelters, foot trails, and water fountains.

They also constructed roads, bridges, dams, and reservoirs, and provided maintenance for telephone lines, ranger stations, and fire lookout stations (Gillen 1990; Coyle et al. 1999, 4-15).

The CCC created one of its first camps, called Camp Fremont, on the south shore of Fremont Lake in Sublette County. Under the direction of Lt. Byron H. Lytle, CCC workers from



**CCC Camp Fremont, Sublette County**  
Photograph courtesy Museum of the Mountain Man

Camp Fremont built telephone and electric lines, drift fences, campgrounds, ranger stations, a boathouse on Fremont Lake, and roads, in addition to numerous other improvements. Although the bitter winter cold sent the CCC troops from this camp to Oregon during the first two winter seasons,

the camp remained open during subsequent winters and worked through the season. CCC enrollees also gained access to educational and vocational programs through the University of Wyoming and other institutions (Noble 2007).

In 1933 the CCC also began work at Pole Mountain, where it built stone buildings for Forest Service use. They also planted seedling trees, installed latrines, and added shelters and picnic tables to the site. Some of the extant buildings include stone masonry outhouses (latrines) and a ranger's residence. They also constructed fences at Pole Mountain to keep the public out of the military's Target and Maneuver Range (Hutchison 2001, 50; U.S. National Forest Campground Guide 2007).



**CCC Camp Fremont, Barracks Interior**  
(Note Similarity to WWII Temporary Barracks Structures)

Photograph courtesy Museum of the Mountain Man



**CCC tent camp, Sublette County**

Photograph courtesy Museum of the Mountain Man

The CCC also constructed the Ryan Park campground in the 1930s near Saratoga in the Snowy Mountain Range in south-central Wyoming, which was later used as a prisoner of war camp for Italian and German soldiers during WWII. The CCC also built structures at South Brush Creek near

Saratoga and multiple other locations throughout Wyoming (McKee 1992; U.S. National Forest Campground Guide 2007).

CCC activity reached its height nationwide in 1936, with over 500,000 participants. Although President Roosevelt originally planned to make the CCC permanent, the young men participated in the vast WWII mobilization, and the Roosevelt administration abolished the program in 1942. After a decade of depression, the coming of the war had generated an economic resurgence that began to pull the nation out of its economic slump. CCC's human



**Tongue CCC Camp, Bighorn National Forest, 1939**

Photograph courtesy U.S. Forest Service

resources began funneling toward the war effort (National Park Service 2007; Coyle et al. 1999, 4-15).

Deteriorating military and political conditions in Europe and Asia led Congress to pass the largest peacetime defense appropriation to that date in June 1936, aimed at vastly enlarging and modernizing the armed forces. Fort F.E. Warren's military population grew from about 2,500 men in mid-1936 to more than 4,000 by late 1939, mainly through recruitment to fill vacancies in existing units at the post. Modernization at the post included replacement of horses and mules with trucks and other motorized vehicles and replacement of 1903 Springfield bolt-action rifles with new Garand semiautomatic rifles. The 4<sup>th</sup> Infantry Brigade moved to Camp Jackson, South Carolina for winter maneuvers in late 1939, returned to Fort F.E. Warren in mid-1940, but then permanently transferred in March 1941. Remaining units of the 76<sup>th</sup> Field Artillery Regiment transferred from Fort F.E. Warren later in 1941, thus removing the last combat units of the Regular Army from Wyoming (Adams 1996, 206-207).

### **3.3 THE ARMY IN WYOMING DURING WORLD WAR II AND POST-WAR, 1940-1947.**

The bombing of Pearl Harbor by Japanese forces brought the United States formally into WWII, but as indicated above, the nation and Wyoming had begun preparing for potential war as early as 1936. Wyoming's contributions to the war effort caused a strain on agricultural and other industries, but the state also benefited financially from vast expansion of training at Fort F.E. Warren and establishment of four other military facilities: Casper Army Air Base, the Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10, the Douglas Prisoner of War Camp, and the Heart Mountain Relocation Center. The War Relocation Authority (WRA) technically operated the Heart Mountain Relocation Center, but the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) supervised construction of the relocation center.

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### ***3.3.1 Fort F.E. Warren During World War II***

The temporary transfer of most regular Army troops from Fort F.E. Warren in 1939 again brought the specter of base closure, and a powerful Wyoming senator again responded. Senator Joseph C. O'Mahoney had close connections with the War Department and U.S. Army Chief of Staff George C. Marshall. He lobbied not only for retention of the post but for substantial expansion of military training at Fort F.E. Warren. Senator O'Mahoney was not alone in his support, as members of Chambers of Commerce, businessmen, and political leaders lobbied to maintain and open new military installations in Wyoming in hopes of providing employment and boosting local economies (Holland 1987, 8-1). The Cheyenne Chamber of Commerce drafted a 16-page proposal to the War Department entitled, "Fort Francis E. Warren as Headquarters and Station for a Streamline Division" in hopes that the installation could seize upon the nationwide military buildup and bring economic growth to the community (Adams 1994, 8). Their efforts were successful. Instead of closing the base, the War Department invested heavily in Fort F.E. Warren for the wartime mobilization effort. In its conversion, the installation experienced a massive build-up that changed the landscape of the installation.

In October 1940, Army Chief of Staff Marshall announced plans to convert Fort F.E. Warren into a Quartermaster Training Center, making it one of 22 such training centers planned for initiation throughout the nation. At that time, nine corps areas nationwide divided the Army, with Fort F.E. Warren belonging to the 7<sup>th</sup> Corps Area based in Omaha, Nebraska. Although most of the Army installations reported to the major general of their corps area, the Quartermaster Corps units reported directly to the Quartermaster General in Washington, D.C. Other than the Quartermaster Corps unit, Fort F.E. Warren's two regimental commanders and the post commander reported to the 7<sup>th</sup> Corps Area commander. In the fall of 1940, Marshall

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informed Senator O'Mahoney that he would replace the two regular infantry regiments with two National Guard field artillery regiments from Idaho and North Dakota and that there would be a Quartermaster Corps Training Center for 7,000 men at Fort F.E. Warren (Adams 1994, 8, 9).

In addition to the traditional Quartermaster issues of supply and food services, the F.E. Warren center would train motor vehicle drivers, mechanics, gas handlers, dispatchers, and motor operations non-commissioned officers. The operations of the center glaringly reflected the abrupt change at F.E. Warren from horses to motorized warfare and the importance of motorized transport to the modern Army. About 62 percent of the graduates of the Quartermaster training facility during the war trained in motor operations and motor maintenance, 26 percent in supply and food service, and the remaining approximately 12 percent in various other specialties. In addition to their specialty training, the soldiers underwent strenuous basic combat training during their 13 week stay at the fort, shortened to eight weeks for all trainees for a period in early 1942 and retained at eight weeks for African-American trainees thereafter (Larson 1993, 207-208).

The Quartermaster Center at F.E. Warren underwent name changes throughout the war that reflected changing roles or approaches to training. The initial name, Quartermaster Replacement Training Center, signified that the schools of the center trained soldiers for individual placement in Quartermaster units. In March 1943 the Army changed the facility's name to Quartermaster Unit Training Center to signify that the schools were thereafter training groups of soldiers to operate as discrete Quartermaster units. The schools at F.E. Warren became the Army Service Forces Training Command in April 1944 (Larson 1993, 207).

Construction of the Quartermaster facilities commenced in October 1940 under an initial budget of \$3 million. The Ed Honnen Construction Company of Colorado Springs and the Mead & Mount Construction Company of Denver immediately began building 217 wood-frame

barracks and associated administration, recreation, and dining facilities according to plans prepared by the Office of the Quartermaster General and local Cheyenne architect-engineer Walter W. Flora. The Quartermaster training area was a whole new addition to the post, located on a 300-acre parcel on the south side of Crow Creek. The Replacement Center followed a biaxial configuration oriented to the northeast-southwest axis. Five groups of buildings fronted a central, rectangular-shaped parade ground on three sides. The First and Second White Regimental Area were at the northwest axis, the Colored Regimental Area was at the southeast axis, and the Third White Regimental Area was at the northeast axis. The Hospital Area served as the focal point at the center of the complex (Adams 1994, 9; Rosenberg 2002, 29).



**Fort F.E. Warren, ca. 1955**

**WWII Quartermaster Training Center is within the circled area**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

A force of 5,000 construction workers built 282 temporary wood buildings for the Quartermaster Corps Replacement Training Center's basic training facilities during the first six months of construction. By the time the United States declared war on Germany and fully entered the war in 1942, the post included 387 buildings and could accommodate as many as



20,000 soldiers at one time, which unofficially made it the second largest city in Wyoming (Hoagland 2004, 245; Holland 1987, 8-1).

Contractors for construction of the facilities experienced difficulties in finding enough workers in order to complete facilities within the 60-day period allowed by the Army. Many of the construction crews worked a 70-hour work-week to meet the demanding schedule. The War Department ameliorated other potential building delays by ordering expedited delivery of building materials and by issuing permission to retrieve materials from the open market when necessary (Rosenberg 2002, 29). Since they were not to be permanent structures, architects devoted little attention to conforming the architectural character of the new structures to the earlier buildings and organization of the base. Instead, the Replacement Center buildings used current temporary building plans and new materials and technologies such as Quonset huts, which could be built quickly en masse using mass-produced materials such as corrugated metal and plywood panels (Rosenberg 2002, 30).

Congress enacted the first peacetime military draft in 1940, and the first servicemen drafted under the Selective Service and Training Act began arriving to Fort F.E. Warren in mid-November 1940, nearly three months before the Quartermaster Corps officially opened. Fort F.E. Warren activated the new Quartermaster Training Center, as it was initially called, on February 1, 1941 (Adams 1994 10; Cassity 1998, 14). Construction continued at a swift pace after the Quartermaster Corps' opening to accommodate the growing number of arriving soldiers. In March 1941, the number of buildings in the new cantonment included 121 two-story, wood-frame barracks for 63 men each, 30 mess halls, a post office, a post exchange, warehouses, repair shops, two recreation centers, a fire house, five administration buildings, three guard houses, an infirmary, and officers' quarters. By March 15, 1941, 165 officers and 7,000 enlisted men in the

Quartermaster Corps resided at the base, participating in over 100 different specialized training schools (Adams 1994, 12).

The new training facility gave rise to two separate commands at the base: the older post headquarters on the north side of Crow Creek and the Quartermaster Replacement Training Center on the south side. Although the two commands retained separate identities in 1941, they shared some basic services, such as housekeeping. The post headquarters on the north side of the creek also absorbed overflow from the Quartermaster Replacement Training Center when necessary. Tensions existed between the two divisions until they consolidated on October 28, 1942. Administration of the main post and the Quartermaster Center again split in February 1943 and then finally reconsolidated in March 1945 (Holland 1987, 8-2). After the Quartermaster Training Center was established, Fort F.E. Warren also obtained motor operations and motor maintenance schools (Holland 1987, 8-2).

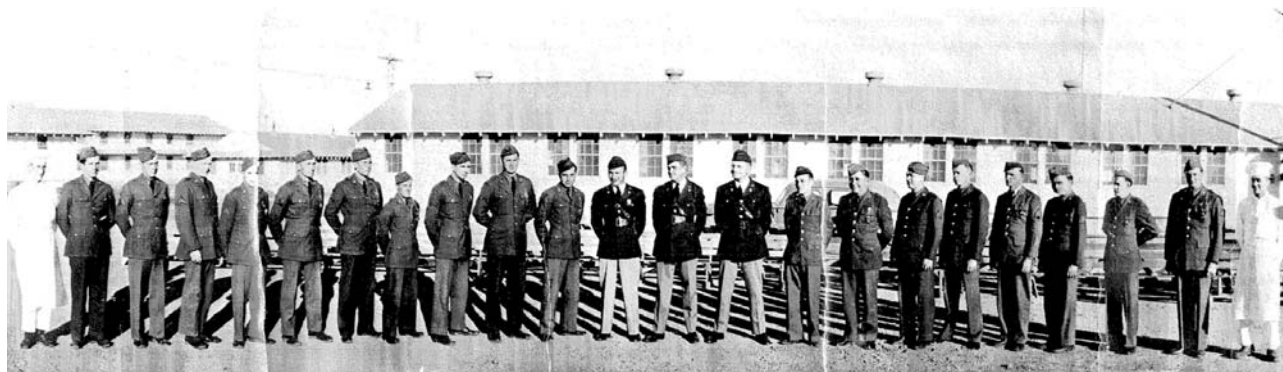
The Quartermaster Corps at Fort F.E. Warren made special effort to build a good relationship with the Cheyenne community. The other 22 Quartermaster training centers nationwide were plagued by poor community relations inflamed by bad press and a lack of recreational facilities at the bases. In contrast, the Quartermaster Corps at F.E. Warren enjoyed friendly communications with Cheyenne and eventually constructed five service clubs and two United Service Organizations (USO) Recreation Centers in Cheyenne's downtown, earning the installation high marks on these two concerns. The Cheyenne community participated extensively in the operation of the two USO centers. The city's African-American population of about 500 persons supported a USO center located at 18<sup>th</sup> Street and Thomes Avenue that included bowling alleys, billiards, and photography laboratories for hobbyists. The second USO center was located at 20<sup>th</sup> Street and Capitol Avenue in the Consistory Temple. By May the local

daily newspaper, the Wyoming Eagle, included a weekly supplement called the Ft. Warren Sentinel reporting the latest news from the installation. The weekly insert later became a separate newspaper for the base (Adams 1994, 14, 15).

By March 1941, more than eight months before Pearl Harbor, over 4,500 draftees had arrived at Fort F.E. Warren's Quartermaster Corps center for training. Later that month, the 183<sup>rd</sup> National Guard Artillery Regiment from Idaho and the 188<sup>th</sup> National Guard Artillery Regiment from North Dakota arrived to fill the vacancy left by departure of the 1<sup>st</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> Regiments. The new regiments added 2,200 servicemen to the base (Adams 1994, 13).

By July 1941 the number of draftees training at the Quartermaster center numbered over 9,500 (Cassity 1998, 14), and 71 more buildings were built on the Cantonment south of Crow Creek to accommodate the scheduled arrival of 10,000 more men to the base. The base newspaper described the new development as a city within a city, complete with all of the public services and a multitude of recreational facilities that included a nine-hole golf course, polo grounds, tennis courts, sports arena, gymnasium, riding hall, skating rink, service clubs, bowling alleys, swimming pool, and officers' clubs. By November 1941, the base housed 12,517 officers and enlisted men (Adams 1994, 16-18). The Army assigned an additional five regiments of Quartermaster trainees, service command units, and Second Army members to the base by the end of the year. By early 1943, the base population had grown to 26,000 personnel, which was probably the high point of WWII mobilization at the post, but training continued to expand there. Railroad battalions from the Transportation Corps assigned to the base took over use of the existing Union Pacific Railroad facilities for training in 1944 (Rosenberg 2002, 123).

The Army opened a Quartermaster Officer Candidate School and a school for Reserve Officer Training Corps at Fort F.E. Warren in 1942. The Officer Candidate School had mixed



**Quartermaster Training Cadre, Fort Francis E. Warren, November 1941**

Photograph courtesy U.S. Air Force, F.E. Warren AFB

results. In the eleven months before deactivation in February 1943, the school processed about 6,000 candidates and graduated about 3,800. Local draft boards selected candidates for the school, and many of the candidates proved to be too old or otherwise physically unfit for the strenuous combat training. The Army established an advanced specialty training school, called the Officer Replacement Pool, in March 1942 to further Quartermaster training in supply, administration, laundry, refrigeration, salvage, sterilization and bath, and baking. A portion of the graduating class from the Quartermaster Officer Candidate School at Fort Lee, Virginia also deployed to Fort F.E. Warren for this four-week advanced training (Larson 1993, 210).

Women joined the wartime activities at Fort F.E. Warren in 1943 by serving in the Women's Auxiliary Army Corps, also known as the WAACs. An estimated 350,000 women participated in the entire WWII effort, including overseas in the Atlantic and Pacific theaters. Many of them took jobs that helped free men for combat duty. The WAAC began on May 14, 1942 and later became the Women's Army Corps (WAC) in September 1943. The 56<sup>th</sup> WAAC Post Headquarters Company arrived from Daytona Beach, Florida in March 1943 and assumed service club, theater, hospital and clerical duties. The First Sergeant of the unit described Wyoming as "cold as a kraut" (Larson 1993, 210).

The military presence in Cheyenne boosted the local economy during the war. An editorial in the Wyoming Eagle newspaper in April 1942 reported that one-third of the pedestrians in Cheyenne wore military uniforms, and that on Saturday evenings that number rose to two-thirds. Many of the military servicemen and servicewomen participated in local community activities. During Cheyenne's Frontier Days, soldiers took part in battalion parades, mobile field unit displays, WAAC drills, scaling walls, trick drill squads, motorcycle and jeep drill squads, in addition to a small group of soldiers who competed in the rodeo itself. Still, many soldiers at Fort F.E. Warren felt that Cheyenne treated them poorly, especially in comparison to the friendly reception they received in Denver (Holland 1987, 8-3; Larson 1993, 212).

When raw materials grew scarce during the war, Wyoming citizens and soldiers contributed to the War Department's scrap metal fund. The Army itself donated a Civil War era cannon and two WWI howitzers, which were artillery that stood at the Fort F.E. Warren entrance. By 1944, Cheyenne and Fort F.E. Warren had contributed enough war bonds to purchase a B-29 Superfortress aircraft for action in the Pacific front (Holland 1987, 8-3).

The Army sent most of the officers and enlisted men from Fort F.E. Warren to other bases across the country for further training before deployments to the European and Pacific theaters. Others on base served duty outside the war and most often to conduct firefighting on the home front. In 1943 and 1944 over 300 base soldiers fought fires and assisted in blizzard relief in Wyoming and South Dakota. Although the installation was secure, it was not completely cut off from the community during the war years. Visitors to the base included members of local American Indian reservations, University of Wyoming students, town tours given on Army Day, and other local groups toured the base during the wartime years. Celebrities including Robert Young entertained the servicemen and women (Holland 1987, 8-3).

The Army ordered deactivation of the Quartermaster Center on July 1, 1943, largely because the Center had accomplished its missions. Although some Quartermaster training continued at Fort F.E. Warren, the enlisted population at the Center fell from a high of 19,251 soldiers in December 1942 to only 2,331 soldiers in October 1943. During the primary period of operations, the center graduated more than 122,000 trained specialists, as listed in Table 3-1.

**Table 3-1**  
**F.E. Warren Quartermaster Center Graduates**

School	Number of Graduates
Motor Maintenance	31,052
Motor Operations	44,184
Supply Training	
Administrative and Personnel	8,375
Supply	12,409
Trade Schools	16,041
Mess Sergeants, Cooks, and Bakers	10,226

Fort F.E. Warren became a redeployment center for Quartermaster and Transportation Corps troops on June 2, 1945, which kept many military personnel and civilian employees at the post for years after the war ended (Larson 1993, 206).

### **3.3.2 *Casper Army Air Base***

After the attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941, the newly formed AAF began planning to increase military base facilities nationwide to support efforts overseas. The AAF intended to create a force of 273 combat groups of pilots, air crews, and ground crews by the end of 1943 (Webster et al. 1999). After learning of the War Department's plans, the city of Casper solicited the AAF to establish an Army Air Base at or near the city. In November 1941 the local newspaper, the Casper Tribune-Herald, listed the town's attributes for use as a base: its geographical isolation, favorable weather conditions, and access to supplies such as gasoline (Larson 1993, 4). The War Department selected Casper for its large number of annual sunny

days that made it an ideal location for flight training, while Wyoming's strong winds prepared pilots for difficult conditions on the warfront (Kukura and True 1986, 123).



**Casper Army Air Base Hangar**

Photograph courtesy Richard Collier, Wyoming State Historic Preservation Office

The War Department officially opened the new Casper Army Air Base on September 1, 1942, two weeks ahead of schedule. The AAF established the base to accommodate the final phases of the airmen's training regimen before sending the pilots and flight crews to combat. The base was just outside of Casper on a site that is now the Natrona County International Airport. Within three and a half months, 4,000 workers were busy constructing more than 400 buildings, roads, and infrastructure for administrative quarters, barracks, hangars, and airstrips for 3,000-4,000 residents on the new installation. The building project served as a boon to the local economy by bringing construction and service jobs for many local men. In turn, the men and women stationed at the base helped support Casper through the war years by patronizing local businesses (Kukura and True 1986, 123).

The windy and dusty conditions on the base caused morale problems, with personnel having to clean and sweep most of the day just to have space to work in. Base personnel

implemented an intensive vegetation stabilization project in the spring of 1943, including planting lawns, building sidewalks, and other landscape improvements. In addition to the dust and sand issues, expansion of operations created a housing shortage in Casper within two months of the activation of the base. The base provided no guest or family quarters, and those persons



**Civilians Heading to Lunch at Casper Army Air Base, ca. 1943**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

necessarily sought living quarters in town. As a result of the housing shortage, the government imposed rent controls on all rentals, hotels and camps in October of 1942. Although the civilian population did what they could to find space for base-related personnel, rationing and shortage of building materials prevented a solution to the housing shortage.

Casper Army Air Base trained bombing groups and combat crews prior to deployment overseas. The AAF assigned most base operations to the 221<sup>st</sup> Army Air Force Base Unit, which consisted of 21 officers and 165 enlisted personnel. In addition to the 221<sup>st</sup>, the 351<sup>st</sup> Base Headquarters Squadron, the 906<sup>th</sup> Guard Squadron, the 902<sup>nd</sup> Quartermaster Detachment, and the Base Hospital occupied the base. The 331<sup>st</sup> Bomb Group was formed at the Casper Army Air Base. Pilots enrolled in an intensive schedule of six to eight consecutive weeks, during which they received their final phase training in B-17s, B-29s, and B-24 Liberator heavy bomber aircraft. Early in 1943 the B-24 Liberator and the B-24 replaced B-17s at this facility, although the AAF continued to use the B-17 throughout WWII. To train new combat crews on these new bombers, experienced combat crews from overseas came to Casper Army Air Base (Former





**Former Servicemen's Club, Casper Army Air Base**

Photograph courtesy Richard Collier, Wyoming State Historic Preservation Office

Bases 2007; Kukura and True 1986, 123). Bomber crews at the Casper Army Air Base trained in part by bombing and strafing targets at six large ranges located in remote, unpopulated territory to the west and southwest of Casper, designated Casper Precision Bombing Ranges #1, #2, #3, and #4, the Casper Air to Ground Gunnery Range, and the Casper Ground Gunnery Range (U.S. Department of Defense 2002).



**General "HAP" Arnold's Visit to Casper Army Air Base, July 11, 1943**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

Women participated at Casper Army Air Base in a variety of support roles. The Red Cross formed an all-women volunteer force called the Gray Ladies. A Gray Lady volunteer committed to a service of 50 hours a year for four years. Many of the women provided non-professional counseling services for servicemen for the duration of the war. An undated historic photo of the Casper Army Air Base Gray Ladies shows a group of 30 uniformed women in this role (Kukura and True 1986, 123). The WAAC also served at the Casper Army Air Base. The WAAC unit, consisting of twelve enlisted women and one officer, arrived at the base in May of 1953. It wasn't long before "auxiliary" was dropped from their name and they became the WAC. Their numbers soon grew to 150 and they became the 768<sup>th</sup> WAC Headquarters Company. While some of the women worked as administrative clerks, others worked in traditional roles for men, such as mechanics on the flight line, which allowed more men to be available for combat roles (Kukura and True 1986, 123).

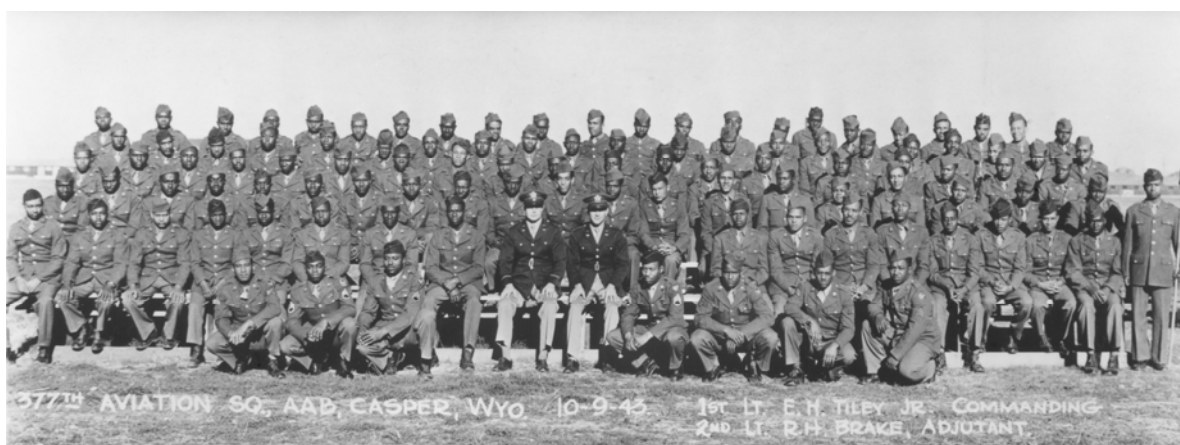
In 1943 Special Services assigned an artist, Corporal Leon Tebbetts, the task of decorating the interior of the Servicemen's Club. Tebbetts along with others decided



**Murals in Former Servicemen's Club at Casper  
Army Air Base**

Photographs courtesy Richard Collier, Wyoming State Historic  
Preservation Office

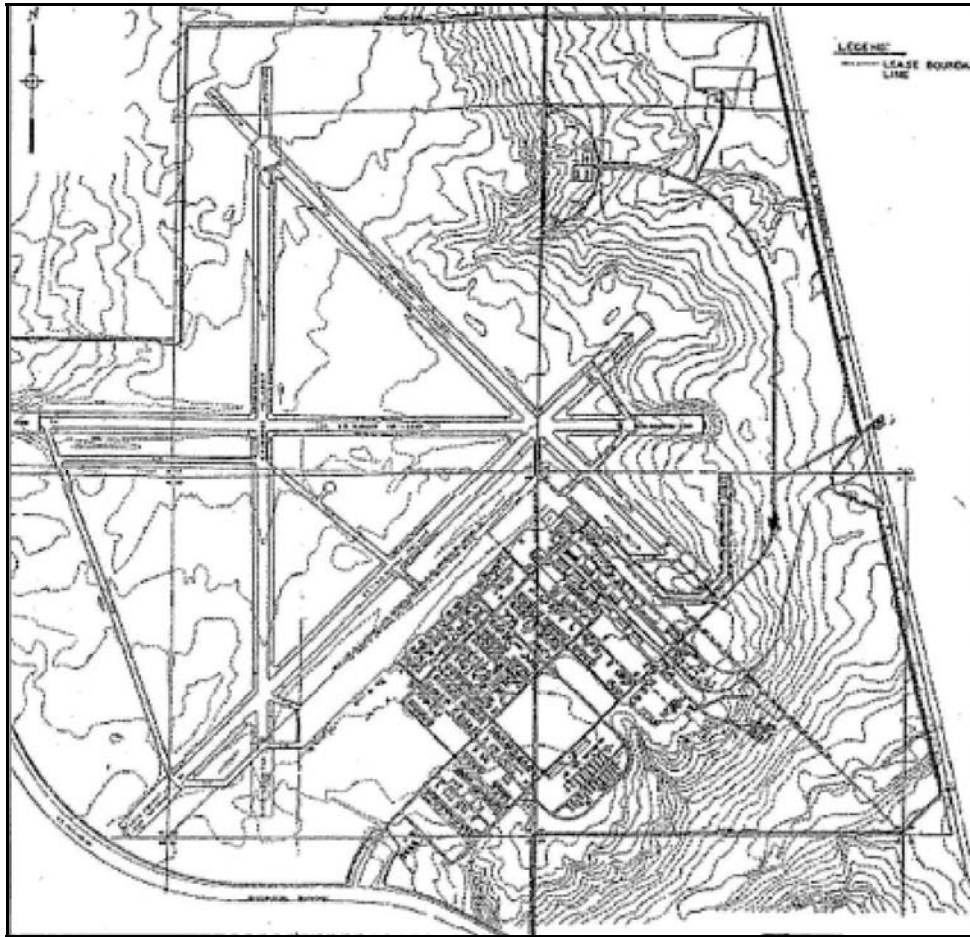
to portray Wyoming history as a way to acquaint personnel with Wyoming and as a thank you to the civilians for their warmth and hospitality. Tebbetts, with the help of Sergeant J.P. Morgan, Private David Rosenblatt, and Sergeant William Doench, completed the murals, which depict an Arapaho legend, Shoshone buffalo hunters, Yellowstone National Park, the fur trade, laying track for the Union Pacific Railroad, Native American/Pioneer conflict and other activities and people important to Wyoming history. The base conducted a formal dedication of the murals in June 1944. The officers club and a chapel also contained murals, but the chapel has been moved and the officers club razed, leaving the murals in the Servicemen's Club the only remaining murals on the base.



**377th Aviation Squadron at Casper Army Air Base, October 1943**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

The first African-American Army units arrived at the base in June 1943. The Army assigned the 377<sup>th</sup> Aviation Squadron to the base to provide support services such as maintenance and motor vehicle operation. Morale problems among the 377<sup>th</sup> personnel developed as a result of segregation and cultural isolation; Casper at that time had fewer than 100 resident African-Americans. In an effort to improve morale, the base command frequently provided members of the 377<sup>th</sup> with two day passes and trucked them to Denver where there was a larger African-American community.



**Casper Army Air Field in 1953, Showing Cantonment Area and Runway Complex**

From Rosenberg 2001

The African-American servicemen's isolation was further diminished in May 1944, when a non-commissioned officers (NCO) club for them and their families opened in downtown Casper.

In February 1944, Casper Army Air Base became Casper Army Air Field. By that time the installation had expanded to accommodate 3,000 to 4,000 men at one time. In August 1944 the base reached its maximum personnel strength with 3,393 military and 922 civilian personnel. A total of 164 combat crews were training there at that time. By October of that year, the base added a Search and Rescue Detachment. Previously various agencies provided loosely organized search and rescue efforts with whatever personnel were available. The formal Search and Rescue

unit became necessary because of the high number of accidents involving the bombers. The base operated at full training capacity for two years. The last combat crews graduated in February 1945, and the base deactivated the Air Field on March 7, 1945. An estimated 16,000 combat crew members trained at the base during its period of activation (Rosenberg 1989, 29).

The Army scheduled Casper Army Airfield for demolition and sale in 1948 as part of the nation's post-WWII demobilization. Brigadier General Roy "Bud" Cooper, who served as the first general of the Wyoming Air National Guard, convinced military and government officials to keep WWII-era military sites open as assets for Wyoming. The airfield became the Natrona County Airport, which is now the Natrona County International Airport (Wyoming Department of Transportation 2007). A portion of the former Army airfield complex also became a major training area for Air National Guard units from Wyoming and several other states in the 1950s and 1960s (see Chapter 5).

### ***3.3.3 Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10***

Advances in aviation at Cheyenne's municipal airport during the interwar years later contributed to the role of the Army Air Force at the airport during WWII. Cheyenne first drew national attention as an aviation hub in 1920, when Congress established the first Transcontinental Air Mail Service and designated the Cheyenne Municipal Airport, Cheyenne MAP, as an airfield along the route. The Cheyenne MAP became the division point halfway between Omaha, Nebraska and Salt Lake City, Utah, as well as one of fourteen terminal cities located between New York City and San Francisco (Centennial Historical Committee 1967). However, in 1920, the airfield was little more than a 200-acre field with a small, wood-frame hangar.

With the introduction of lighting for night landings, the Cheyenne MAP gained prominence along the transcontinental airmail route in the early 1920s. By 1926 the airport had four hangars and an administration building. In 1927 the Boeing Air Transport Company began flying airmail between Chicago and San Francisco, flying in and out of Cheyenne MAP as a stopover. In July 1929 the United Aircraft and Transport Company, later known as United Airlines, became a holding company for Boeing Air Transport. United selected the Cheyenne MAP as the site of its central maintenance facility and moved all of its major maintenance operations to the airport by p1933, garnering a newfound status to the expanding airport (Schomig 2007, 31. Rosenberg 1985, 3).

The increase in operations led to a major



**Cheyenne Municipal Airport Terminal, April 2009**

Photograph courtesy TolTest, Inc.

expansion in facility construction, which by one account, created “one of the largest overhaul maintenance base[s] in the world” (Rosenberg 1985, 5). By the mid-1930s, Cheyenne MAP became an important transcontinental hub with as many as 16 flights arriving and departing every 24 hours. In 1933 the city replaced the airfield’s dirt and grass runways with three paved airstrips to accommodate United Air Lines’ new twin-engine Boeing 247, and later the new Douglas DC-3 in 1936 (Centennial Historical Committee 1967, 77-80; Rosenberg 1985, 5). The United Air Lines passenger service continued regular flights in and out of Cheyenne MAP.

Between 1938 and 1943, the City of Cheyenne purchased adjacent properties to expand the airport, which would later become part of the Air National Guard property after WWII (ANG 2001a). In 1939 the Wyoming legislature allocated \$10,000 for the establishment of a National Guard Air Squadron in the state (Wyoming Adjutant General's Office 1940, XXXIX).

Approximately 35 combat planes from the Army Air Corps stopped at the Cheyenne MAP for fuel while en route to Minnesota to practice maneuvers in 1940. The planes comprised 21 pursuit aircraft, nine Martin B-10 twin-engine bombers, and five four-engine B-17 bombers, also known as the Flying Fortress. The event attracted local attention since it was the first time that a large number of military planes had gathered for military maneuvers (Adams 1994, 8).

When the Army Air Corps considered rapid expansion of operations at the beginning of WWII, the Cheyenne MAP was an attractive location for military air operations because of the already established United Air Lines aircraft maintenance facilities, its proximity with the nearby Fort F.E. Warren, and its position along the transcontinental air route. When wartime flight restrictions along the Pacific Coast made commercial pilot training there difficult, United Airlines relocated its pilot training school to Cheyenne in 1942. The influx of instructors and students of aviation, along with United Airlines' repair and maintenance facilities at the Cheyenne MAP, helped make Cheyenne a major aviation hub between the coasts (Rosenberg 1985, 5).

The Army contracted with United Airlines in 1942 to construct and operate the Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10, which would complete modifications to bombers, including fitting with armament and other equipment. The "No. 10" indicated that this was one of a series of modification centers that allowed the primary aircraft factories to produce as many basic airplanes as possible, which then flew to the modification centers for preparation for combat or



other missions. To this end, the United Airlines personnel added modifications such as cheek guns, rebuilt tail assemblies, manufactured more than four million airplane parts, installed gun mounts, and camouflaged the aircraft exteriors to suit the various war theaters. To accommodate larger military aircraft, USACE constructed a new concrete runway and taxiway system in 1942, extending the existing runways to 8,000 feet (Rosenberg 1989, 29; Rosenberg 1985, 5).



**Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10 Hangar**

Photograph courtesy Richard Collier, Wyoming State Historic Preservation Office

United Airlines constructed the Modification Center's facilities throughout 1942 and 1943 at a cost of over \$4.8 million, including equipment and machinery. The complex included two large hangars (Buildings 101 and 116), four nose hangars for work on engines and navigation equipment, a cafeteria, a garage, a boiler house (Building 117), a guard house, a target butt for testing the guns, and a control house. John Latenser & Sons of Omaha, Nebraska completed Phase I of the complex construction, and R.J. Tipton of Denver, Colorado completed Phase II (Rosenberg 1985, 7).

Operations at the Center were classified and the local press reported nothing about its activities until late in the war. However, on March 24, 1944, the facility held a celebration



marking its completion of modification of the 3,500<sup>th</sup> B-17 bomber, in which Wyoming Governor Lester Hunt and Colorado Governor John Vivian participated. Center workers covered the plane with signatures and inscribed “3500<sup>th</sup> Headache for Hitler” on the plane’s nose (Rosenberg 1985, 8).

The Cheyenne Modification Center reached its peak of operations in 1943, when B-17 Bombers flew in and out of Cheyenne daily. Women played a major role in the daily operations of the Center, making up nearly half of the plant’s 1,642 workers. To keep the plant continuously operating 24 hours per day, six days per week, the workdays were divided into three shifts. By the end of the war, about 5,000 airplanes had gone through the Cheyenne Modification Center (Rosenberg 1989, 29). In 1944 the Modification Center changed its operations from basic modifications to special projects, as the manufacturers took over most finishing modifications themselves. The work force at the Center gradually declined, and the Center gradually closed down in the early months of 1945. On August 8, 1945, the Army leased a portion of the facility to United Airlines, which then re-established major commercial training and overhaul operations there (Rosenberg 1985, 9). The City of Cheyenne obtained other portions of the facility for airport use. The city and United Airlines leased portions of the old Center to the Air National Guard in 1946. Cheyenne Municipal Airport is still the home of the Wyoming Air National Guard in 2009.

### ***3.3.4 WWII Prisoner of War Camps in Wyoming***

Between the years of 1942 and 1946, several camps for German and Italian POWs existed within the borders of Wyoming. Primary or base POW camps in Wyoming were at Douglas and at Fort F.E. Warren near Cheyenne. Secondary POW camps were located at or near Basin, Centennial, Clearmont, Deaver, Dubois, Esterbrook, Huntley, Lingle, Lovell, Pine Bluffs,

Riverton, Ryan Park, Torrington, Veteran, Wheatland and Worland. Most of these POW camps in Wyoming had been CCC camps prior to WWII, so that barracks and other accommodations were already available. A primary POW camp at Scottsbluff, Nebraska also supplied many of the POWs for the secondary camps listed above (Larson 1993, 217-221).

#### **3.3.4.1 Douglas POW Camp**

The War Department established Camp Douglas as one of 155 base camps and 511 branch camps for German and Italian enemy captives. Camp Douglas, had 180 barrack-style buildings and a 150-bed hospital, surrounded by a wire stockade as fortification. The camp cost the government an estimated \$2 million to construct in 1943. The 2,500 Italian and German prisoners housed at Camp Douglas included 50 officers. Some of the prisoners worked in nearby camps for agriculture or lumbering. When the war ended in 1945, the prisoners interned at Camp Douglas returned to their respective homelands (Larson 1993, 220). The Douglas POW Camp officially closed in 1946, and the War Assets Administration took possession of the property (Listman, Baker, and Goodfellow 2007, 1-1).



**Douglas POW Camp, ca. 1944**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming Pioneer Memorial Museum – Randy George

Rena Delbridge wrote a good description of the creation of the Douglas Camp:

“As the Allied nations’ prisoner counts grew, more space was needed outside of Europe to house the captives. Defense leaders turned to locations within the U.S. with enough acreage to build camps. Douglas proved an ideal site, with nearly 700 acres of open land within a mile of the railroad depot. Nearly 500 workers arrived to start construction in February 1943, using the 4-H dorms at the fairgrounds for lodging during the 95-day job. The three-compound camp was surrounded by rows of electrified wire fence, a 151-bed hospital, guard towers and a large outdoor recreation area. The camp turned the small town on end, as the mayor encouraged citizens to open their guest rooms to camp officials and their families. Reaction from the locals was mixed. However, the lure of low-cost labor by the prisoners was seen as a sensible means to alleviate a manpower shortage in Wyoming during those war years. In May 1942, Army officials arrived to manage the camp, opening the gates for one day to the public. That day, more than 2,000 people from 17 counties visited the site, according to the National Register of Historic Places application.

In August 1942, the first prisoners [who] arrived by train [were] 412 Italians who’d rode the rail from New York City. Inquisitive locals lined up to watch the prisoners make the mile trek from the tracks to the camp, marching in units of 50. By year’s end, the camp housed 1,900 Italian prisoners of war, including some of officer rank. In 1944 the prisoners were shipped home as Italy surrendered. Deactivated in July, the camp was brought back to life a month later to accept more than 2,000 German POWs in October.

Of course, the location of the Douglas camp was incentive enough for most prisoners to stay put, surrounded as it was by an empty, rugged landscape stretching as far as the eye could see. And those who behaved had their time away from the fenced perimeter, working cropland in Clearmont, Wheatland, Basin, and Lovell, and harvesting timber near Esterbrook and into the Snowy Mountains. By November 1945, camp officials began releasing the prisoners before closing the facility in February 1946.” (Delbridge 2008).

The U.S. generally treated POWs well. The following description of life in POW camps in western Nebraska probably mirrors the experience in the Douglas POW camp, with the exception that many Douglas POWs performed labor at locations away from the camp.

“In an effort to help alleviate the strain on Great Britain, thousands of Axis prisoners of war streamed into the United States during WWII. When they began arriving in 1943, the war in Europe and the Pacific was far from over. But American POW camps were vastly superior to conditions on the front.

Many POW camps were located near military posts and Fort Robinson, Nebraska, was no exception. Nestled in the rolling, pine-covered hills and tall buttes in the northwest corner of Nebraska, the fort had played a major role in the Indian Wars. During WWII, it served as a remount depot and a K-9 Dogs for Defense training center. But it was an ideal

location for a prisoner of war camp. Far away from any metropolis, it had excellent railway connections and an endless supply of labor projects for the POWs.

Located a few miles south of the fort, the POW camp was built to house 3,000 prisoners. The first prisoners to arrive at Fort Robinson came from Rommel's Tenth Panzer Division in North Africa. Riding the train from Northampton, Virginia, the German POWs arrived on November 19, 1943.

All prisoners were given a physical examination and searched under an officer's supervision. According to the Guard Regulations handbook, several items were considered contraband. These included money, cameras, flashlights, binoculars, weapons, and any paper items with pictures or maps of a military or naval nature. But perhaps the strangest item found at the Fort Robinson camp processing was a Chihuahua in a prisoner's overcoat pocket.

The Geneva Convention dictated the regulations for the POW's daily schedule. First call was at 6 a.m. with roll-call at 6:30 a.m. Breakfast was served at 6:45 a.m., lunch at noon, and dinner at 5:30 p.m. Only allowed thirty minutes to eat, the POWs were also ordered not to waste any food. The barracks were inspected every day at 10 a.m. Showers and shaves were required twice a week, and bedding was aired every Friday morning. Religious services, both Protestant and Catholic, were offered on Sunday morning.

While there were plenty of jobs available in the camp and at the fort, it was not mandatory that prisoners work. But after being confined behind the barbed wire for a few weeks or a month, many prisoners were eager to keep their minds and bodies busy. A small wage offered more incentive. The Geneva Convention guaranteed the POWs eighty cents an hour.

Since Fort Robinson was a thriving military base, prisoners found an assortment of jobs available at the fort itself. The remount depot and the K-9 dog training site created work for nearly 100 prisoners. Other jobs included working at the dairy barn, helping in the veterinary section of the post, and the wood shop.

In the POW camp, prisoners worked in mess halls, the supply warehouse, and hauling coal and trash. They also built a baseball diamond, volleyball court, and horseshoe pits.

Even though there was a sharp agricultural labor shortage, prisoners from Fort Robinson did not work on area farms due to the demand of jobs at the fort and the camp. This differed greatly from Camp Scottsbluff, located approximately 80 miles south of Fort Robinson, where Italian and German POWs worked in the bean and sugar beet fields. Only after the war ended did fort-labor ease and POWs started working with area farmers.

When prisoners were not kept busy with work, recreation and education filled the empty hours. Prisoners had the opportunity to participate in a myriad of activities from sports to music to theater. Courses in English were also available and later, an entire program devoted to the denazification became an integral part of the POW's daily life.

Few prisoners who were interred at Fort Robinson complained of their circumstances. Most generally felt that their situation at Fort Robinson was much better than being in the German Army. Wolfgang Dorschel, a German POW who became camp translator and later camp spokesman, wrote in his diary on Sunday, December 10, 1944, 'Everything is quite like a vacation compared to life in the barracks.'" (Marsh 2008).



**Italian Prisoners of War at Douglas POW Camp, ca. 1943**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

The International Geneva Convention Agreements provided guidelines for POW treatment, and many American camps exceeded these requirements because regular military standards guided construction of the camps (Weidel 2001). Camp Douglas comprised officers' quarters, a clubhouse, softball field, a football field primarily for the prisoners, as well as a motor pool, a heat plant, warehouses, and corrals for the U.S. military. The Douglas POW camp



**Douglas POW Camp, Murals in Former Officers Club**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

officially closed in 1946. The War Assets Administration acquired the property and sold the buildings and land to various parties. Only a few buildings remain at the site. The Independent Order of Odd Fellows purchased the former officer's club in 1963 (Weidel 2001, n.p.). This building appears on the National Register of Historic Places, due in part to the elaborate murals painted on the walls by Italian POWs (Weidel 2001, n.p.).

### **3.3.4.2 Fort F.E. Warren POW Camp**

Although the Army didn't establish it as a POW base camp, Fort F.E. Warren may have actually exceeded the Douglas POW camp in the number of prisoners it held at one time during the war. A documentation report prepared for the Department of Defense Legacy program extensively addresses the history and description of the F.E. Warren camp (U.S. Department of Defense 2007, Appendix C, 72-78):

“On November 12 1943, Camp F.E. Warren received its first group of German prisoners, all of who were members of General Rommel's Afrika Corps captured in Tunisia (Wyoming State Tribune 1943). Serving initially as a branch camp, the camp consisted of a small compound of buildings once used as stables, and subsequently adapted as housing for American soldiers. Less documented is the assignment of an Italian Service Unit (ISU) to the camp. It is believed that the ISU was housed in barracks at the south end of the base, near the current base exchange complex (Bryant 2007; F.E. Warren AFB n.d.a); however, no independent verification of this latter compound could be found in the records at the NARA or in the lists of ISU assignments at military installations do not include Camp F.E. Warren.

F.E. Warren's POW camp is thought to have been unique among Wyoming's many POW camps as the longest, continuously serving detention camp in the state and for not sending prisoners into the community for day labor (Bangerter 1979). The first group of German POWs numbered 350. By June 1944, the camp was occupied by 500 prisoners and, by February 1945, the camp's population had increased to 742. It peaked at 894 prisoners prior to the camp's closure in April 1946. About 5 percent of the prisoners might have been Austrians.

The German POW camp fronted Fourth Avenue between Sixth and Ninth Streets on the floodplain of Crow Creek. Its location was somewhat remote, away from F.E. Warren's cantonment and beyond (south of) the base railroad tracks. The site had been the post's former trash dump. By the time the POW camp was established, the trash dump was sealed beneath the quartermaster's stables that had been erected ca. 1910. The stables

were remodeled as vehicle garages in the mid-1930s and again in the early 1940s to serve as barracks for American troops.

Guards occupied two buildings north of the camp across Fourth Avenue (Buildings 347 and 348). From the guard towers at the northwest and southeast corners of the compound, guards watched over the five or more long and narrow brick or frame structures aligned north/south in the fenced compound. A June 1944 field report concerning the POW camp described 500 prisoners being housed in two barracks buildings, one brick and the other frame. Steel cots were double-decked. When the numbers of prisoners increased, a third barracks building became necessary. Support buildings included a 50-by-190-foot frame building used as a mess hall and a 20-by-110-foot frame building used as a recreation center. A historic exterior photo of the camp shows additional buildings, likely built later when the camp population increased to 894 prisoners. In the small camp dispensary were beds for 12 prisoners. The compound also had a soccer field (National Archives June 1944 Field Report).

While in camp, the prisoners tried to make life as pleasant as possible. They sang German songs, played instruments, and formed an orchestra. A camp theater group performed Shakespearean plays such as *Romeo and Juliet*. Some prisoners wrote for and published two camp publications, *Der Zuangast* and *Lager-Magazin*. Using equipment donated by Argentina, they played soccer (Ledford 1997). Other sports were popular also, and the camp newspapers published the rules of baseball and football so the prisoners could learn to play American sports. The internees attended Catholic and Lutheran church services on Sundays, or could play football in the base stadium on Sunday mornings (National Archives 1945 Field Report). The recreation hall was outfitted with comfortable chairs, tables for crafts and card games, and a radio. In 1945, there was reported to be three radios in camp. Some POWs beautified the compound by building concrete bird baths and fish ponds (National Archives 1944 Field Report) and planting small shrubs and trees, although none of these features remain today.

Shortly after their arrival, the POWs set up a camp school. Initially, there was a dearth of materials and a lack of space. For the first year of its existence it served only a handful of students. In 1945, the ranking officer among the prisoners ordered all POWs to attend the school. Shortly thereafter, 241 men enrolled in classes. A few months later 150 students were still participating in classes. With assistance from the Americans, more space was provided for education and additional materials were acquired. The curriculum included such subjects as German, English, Latin, history, geography, botany, zoology, physics, chemistry, mathematics, business, political science, drafting, carpentry, masonry, cabinet work, statistics, and economics (Bangerter 1979).

German POWs received regular, if small, payment to work 6 days per week on the post. POWs worked at the base motor pool and hospital, did grounds maintenance, and stoked the coal-burning furnaces in various buildings. One Inspection Report admonished the camp commander for paying the prisoners for working 7 days per week, interestingly noting the payment irregularity but not that labor for all 7 days was against policy. The POWs could use their earnings to purchase items at the camp canteen. The POWs were dressed in blue uniforms with the letters P and W emblazoned on their pant knees.

POWs did escape from the camp. Ms. Alice Grange, supervisor of the camp warehouse, recalled two prisoners escaping to the mountains and later being found. POWs who violated the rules were put on a starvation diet for 2 or 3 days and not allowed to sleep (Wyoming Tribune Eagle 1993).

Extant features of F.E. Warren AFB's German POW camp include four brick buildings and surrounding landscape, building foundations and retaining walls, artifacts, and the graves of eight German and one Italian POWs within the base cemetery. Buildings 354 and 356, both located within the fenced compound, remain; Buildings 347 and 348, across Fourth Avenue, housed the camp guards. All four buildings lie within the Fort D.A. Russell Historic District, which is listed on the National Register of Historic Places. The buildings are just outside the National Historic Landmark historic district boundaries. Buildings 347, 348, 354 and 356 are contributing elements of the National Register-listed historic district for their associations with the cavalry period of the post's history. Thus, although they are contributing elements of the National Register-listed district, they are not officially recognized for their contributions to F.E. Warren AFB's German POW camp or World War II-era history. "

The presence of POWs at F.E. Warren was classified and generally unknown to the citizens of Cheyenne and Wyoming until the Wyoming State Tribune reported on December 1, 1943 that a U.S. soldier passing the POW compound recognized his cousin, a German POW who had been captured in North Africa. The Army finally formally activated a POW camp at F.E. Warren on February 1, 1945 and a German POW Patient Detachment soon thereafter (Adams 1994, 39; Larson 1993, 207).

The European war ended on May 8, 1945, and the U.S. celebrated Victory in Europe (VE) Day. Taverns in Cheyenne closed that day, and troops were restricted to post at F.E. Warren, in part because officials feared that German POWs would react to the news of the end of the war. However, most POWs accepted the news with little reaction. One German POW hanged himself when he heard of Hitler's death. One of the base chapels held funeral services for him, and he was buried in the POW cemetery at the base. The Army closed the POW camp at Fort F.E. Warren in the spring of 1946, and the last German prisoners returned to Germany (Adams 1994, 49, 56). The Army deactivated the camp on April 27, 1946 (Holland 1987, 8-2).



The branch POW camps were much less elaborate than the base camps at Douglas and Fort F.E. Warren. In some cases, the branch camps comprised tent houses within a large reinforced wire fence. The more permanent structures built by the CCC became camp administration facilities. (McKee 1992; Coutant 1989). Unfortunately, a significant portion of the structures directly related to the POWs now only exists in the form of archaeological resources. For example, at Ryan Park, all that remain are concrete sidewalks, gravel alignments, and earthen depressions (McKee 1992). Interpretive signage provides an educational experience to the public.

### ***3.3.5 Heart Mountain Relocation Center***

During the months that followed the bombing of Pearl Harbor, the U.S. government relocated 112,000 Japanese-Americans from their homes to Japanese internment camps. In 1942, the War Department created a Japanese Internment Camp in the rural northwest region of Wyoming near Cody. The camp, called the Heart Mountain Relocation Center, housed as many as 11,000 people of Japanese descent living in America. Two-thirds of the internees were American-born citizens (Kukura and True 1986, 126).

Most of the imprisoned Japanese-Americans at the Heart Mountain camp were from the Pacific Coast states and not from Wyoming. Fewer than 1,000 residents of Asian descent were living in Wyoming in 1940, at a time when the state's population was 250,742. Given the state's small Japanese-American population, only a few periods of nativist sentiment in Wyoming occurred when some state residents tried to limit or block the arrival of Asian immigrants. Compared with the West Coast where Japanese populations were substantially larger, anti-Japanese-American campaigns were generally not a major issue in Wyoming during the decades leading to WWII. Wyoming residents expressed little anti-Japanese sentiment immediately after

the bombing of Pearl Harbor, even while national stories of alleged sabotage attempts in California inflamed ethnic relations there (Nelson 1976, 2-3).

Wyoming's period of relative indifference to the Japanese-American population in the state came to end in February 1942. On February 12, 1942, the Union Pacific Railroad dismissed 75 workers of Japanese descent as a result of allegations of sabotage on the company's railroad line between Laramie and Cheyenne. The Federal District Attorney would later describe the firings as "purely precautionary" and tried to urge the general public in Wyoming to refrain from unwarranted prejudices against Japanese-American citizens (Nelson 1976, 3).

However, on February 19, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed Executive Order No. 9066 to authorize the mandatory evacuation and relocation of Japanese-Americans from California, Oregon, and Washington to designated military camps on the nation's interior. Rumors had been circulating that the War Department was looking to the Rocky Mountain States to establish an internment camp and that Wyoming would be one of the sites. Wyoming residents, like many other people across the nation, seemed to accept the notion that Japanese-Americans posed a threat to national security. At the same time, a majority of the public and Wyoming's political leaders vocally disapproved of the proposal to relocate the Japanese to the state. Governor Nels Smith eventually conceded to allow the deportation of the evacuees to the state, but only under the condition that the Army would hold them under the strictest surveillance. This viewpoint agreed with that of politicians from both parties and the local newspapers (Nelson 1976, 5).

Despite Governor Smith's demands for containment and security for the located Japanese-Americans, on March 2, 1942, the relocations from California, Oregon, and Washington began without much supervision. The U.S. Army only required that Japanese-

Americans vacate identified zones within a defined period of time, but the Army initially did not specify the methods of evacuation or the evacuees' destination. In protest, officials from the Rocky Mountain States, including Wyoming, refused to assist in the evacuation. Evacuees passing through Wyoming were subjected to surveillance and some possibly harassment until they crossed over the state line. Some Wyoming residents, including the editors of the Wyoming State Tribune, found the unmanaged evacuation "preposterous" since the Army was simply moving people from one location within the U.S. to another. Instead, the newspaper suggested, the evacuees should be "behind barbed wire in concentration camps." Governor Smith appealed to the Army with that same request, but the Army had already begun revising the relocation process (Nelson 1976, 5).

The ineffectiveness of the Army's voluntary evacuation policy became evident during the first two weeks in March 1942. The inability or unwillingness of the evacuees to move without assistance and the Mountain States' resistance to the plan also proved to be unforeseen impedances. On March 18, 1942, President Roosevelt issued Executive Order No. 9102 to create the War Relocation Authority (WRA), a quasi-military civilian agency, to oversee the evaluation and remove the responsibility of the evacuees from the Army. The first action undertaken by the WRA was to organize a meeting of governors and officials from ten of the Western states in Salt Lake City on April 7. The WRA had hoped that the officials would agree to receiving the evacuees in loosely supervised "reception centers" rather than in armed concentration camps, but the general consensus among states like Wyoming was to secure the evacuees in the former. The WRA felt that it had no choice but to comply with the states. President Dwight D. Eisenhower later confessed that the administration had no conception that the relocation centers would eventually evolve into armed internment camps (Nelson 1976, 10).

The WRA had identified a list of potential sites for their planned evacuee reception centers. As demands for facilities clarified, the list narrowed to towns with 3,000 to 10,000 people, sites on federal lands, the ability to accommodate 5,000 evacuees, provide year-round employment in agriculture or public works projects, have access to public utilities and infrastructure, and whose location provided a safe distance from “strategic points” (Nelson 1976, 11). After considering more than 300 locations, the WRA selected the Heart Mountain Division of the Shoshone Irrigation Project in north-central Wyoming. Despite the location’s cold winters and short growing season, the Heart Mountain site met all of the WRA’s requirements. The WRA announced the site selection on May 22, 1942 and the WRA immediately took steps to acquire 20,000 acres from the Bureau of Reclamation’s Heart Mountain Irrigation Division (Nelson 1976, 13, 14). The WRA also built two relocation camps in each of California, Arizona, and Arkansas, and one camp in each of Utah, Idaho, and Colorado (Larson 1993, 297).

Contrary to their initial negative reaction to the news of a potential camp in Wyoming, state residents took the announcement in stride. This was in part due to the WRA’s reassurance that the camp would be isolated, controlled by armed guards, and surrounded with barbed wire, as Governor Smith had requested. The change in public sentiment was also due to the state’s receding population during the war and the tenuous state of the economy at the time. Agriculture had been suffering from a labor shortage and tourism was in decline. Some Wyoming residents hoped that the evacuee camp would revive the economy by employing the Japanese-Americans as field hands. Residents from Cody and Powell, the two nearest towns to the site, were the most optimistic about Heart Mountain’s potential to boost the local economy (Nelson 1976, 14, 15).

The chosen site was 12 miles west of Powell and 13 miles east of Cody in Park County. The area encompassed 21,521 acres, or nearly 33 square miles, of land managed by the Bureau

of Reclamation and transferred to the WRA. A barbed-wire perimeter fence enclosed about 740 acres containing the camp (Miyagishima 2004, 4). It was a flat, treeless stretch of land spotted with sagebrush and buffalo grass in the shadow of Heart Mountain, a bare mountain peak with a chamfered top at the northwest end of the camp. The south boundary of the campsite was State Highway 14 and a railroad spur to the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad (Nelson 1976, 13). Construction began on June 8 under the supervision of the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE). However, private contractors designed and constructed most of the buildings and structures. Two days later, USACE's chief engineer learned that the camp needed to house up to 11,000 people and that they had 60 days to complete construction (Miyagishima 2004, 3; Nelson 1976, 16).

To meet the demand, contractors constructed the buildings in haste using flimsy materials. USACE offered high wages to attract the necessary labor and by the end of July 3,000 construction workers were at the site. Over \$5.5 million in government funding paid for the construction. The workers worked double-shifts and 12-hour days to maximize the manpower, while architectural draftsmen simplified the building designs to expedite construction. The relocation center was ready to open for operations in just 62 days (Nelson 1976, 17).

Designers organized the camp into districts including the housing quarters consisting of barracks, an administrative area, warehouse, and a hospital complex. The 450 rectangular barracks were 120'x20' and were built of uninsulated wood frame clad in tar paper on the exterior. The barracks formed 20 blocks framed by unpaved roads. Each building contained one-room apartments measuring 16'x20' to 24'x20'. Each of the 20 blocks included two 40'x100' mess halls, two 20'x100' recreation rooms, and buildings for both toilets and laundry facilities.

Later on, two buildings for grade schools and a high school were added to the camp (Nelson 1976, 18).

Many of the buildings utilized prefabricated materials to save time and savings. The workmanship was regularly poor in the effort to expedite construction. Inspectors allowed the poor workmanship and overlooked shortcuts because of the urgency of construction and the dearth of available, skilled labor. Government advertisements for labor promised overtime pay and “if you can drive a nail, you can qualify as a carpenter” (Larson 1993, 297).

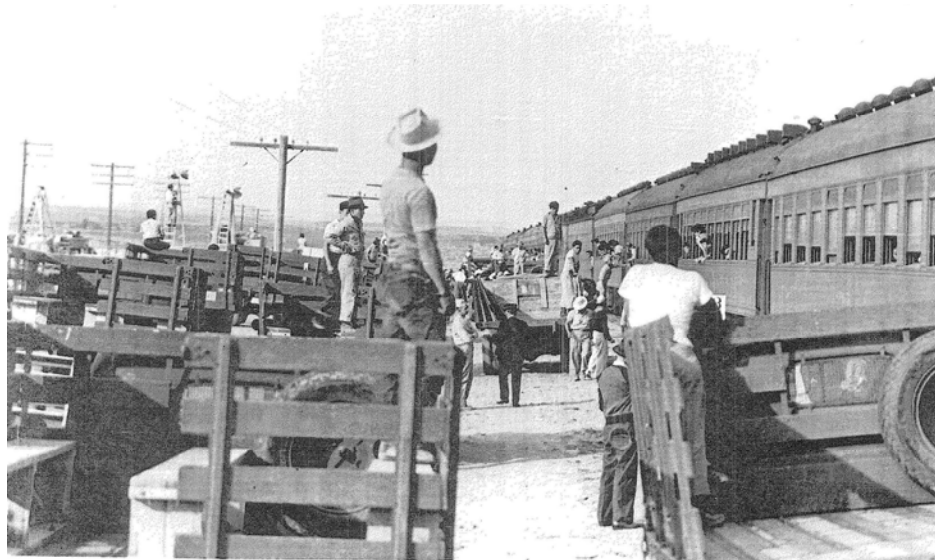
The administrative area comprised eight office buildings, a building for recreation and mess hall, a 150-bed hospital, a sewage treatment plant, a power station, and several warehouses. A few apartments were added for administrative housing soon after the camp opened. The administrative buildings were constructed in the same flimsy manner as the barracks area, except that they had shingle siding on the exterior, which gave them a more finished appearance than tar paper (Nelson 1976, 18). The Warehouse area comprised 20 buildings arranged in rows parallel to the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad tracks.



**Heart Mountain Japanese Relocation Camp, ca. 1943**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

Next to the camp's main gate was the military police area, headquarters of the 331<sup>st</sup> Escort Guard. The 124 soldiers and three officers of the 331<sup>st</sup> built barbed wire stockades around



**Railroad Serving Heart Mountain Relocation Camp, date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

the entire camp's perimeter and operated the eight 40-foot guard towers along the border. High-beam lamps lit the fenceline at night and an additional tower on the mountain ridge improved surveillance of potential escapees (Nelson 1976, 17; Rosenberg 1989, 30).

Two hundred administrative personnel operated the Heart Mountain Relocation Center, most of whom were Wyoming residents who had previously served as government employees. A high level of employee turnover existed at the camp throughout its three years of operation. Many of the workers came for the money and left when they received a better offer. Some came compelled by a sense of duty to participate in the war effort. A minority of workers came out of concern for the well being of the Japanese-Americans detained there. Such staff members could establish close friendships with the evacuees, while others maintained their distance and operated within a separate sphere from the evacuees. Most of the workers chose to live in Cody or Powell

rather than at the center and all but one employee sent their children to schools outside of the camp (Nelson 1976, 20).

The first 292 evacuees who arrived at Heart Mountain on August 12, 1942 were skilled workers or professionals who volunteered to come to the camp early. Over the course of the following two months,



**Japanese Internees Arriving at Heart Mountain Relocation Camp, date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

train cars continued to bring Japanese-Americans to the site in groups of 500 to 1,100 persons per day, until the camp's population reached 10,767, making it the third largest city in Wyoming at the time. Of the ten relocation centers nationwide, the Heart Mountain Relocation Center was the fourth largest (Miyagishima 2004, 5. Larson 1993, 297).



**Heart Mountain Internees with Luggage, ca. 1942**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources



About one-third of the evacuees were Japanese-born people who were prohibited from obtaining American citizenship. Two-thirds were American-born Japanese entitled to the status of American citizenship. They were all ages, from children to elderly, and their previous lives included all professions and livelihoods and economic strata (Nelson 1976, 23). Most of the evacuees came from assembly centers in Pomona and Santa Anita, California and Portland, Oregon (Miyagishima 2004, 5).

A detailed description of the Heart Mountain facility can be found on the National Park Service website entitled “Confinement and Ethnicity: an Overview of WWII Japanese-American Relocation Sites.”

“The central area of the relocation center covered two terraces of the Shoshone River, which flows northeasterly along the eastern boundary of the reserve. The administration and residential areas were on the upper terrace. Support facilities and the hog and chicken farms were on the lower terrace. All were within the fenced area, guarded by nine watch towers. There was a sentry post at the main entrance and gate houses on the north, west, and south sides of the central area.

The hospital complex, on the upper terrace at the far eastern edge of the central area, included 17 buildings with connecting covered walkways. Two of the buildings, a hostel and a garage, were former CCC buildings. The administration and staff housing area, just southwest of the hospital complex, included eight office buildings, a fire station, a store, the post office, a garage, a storage building, 15 apartment and dormitory buildings, a recreation building, and a mess hall. Buildings of both the hospital complex and the administration area were laid out adjacent to Central Avenue, which ran southwest-northeast, roughly following the contour of the terrace.

The residential area, laid out on a north-south grid, was divided into 30 blocks, with 20 actually used for barracks. All but Block 7 were twice the size of blocks at the other relocation centers, with each block having 24 barracks, instead of the usual 12, and two mess halls, two recreation halls, and two toilet/laundry buildings. In all, there were 468 20-by-120-ft barracks. Blocks 5 and 20 were open areas, labeled "play areas" on WRA blueprints. Blocks 3, 4, 10, 11, 18, and 19, along the interior of the west side of the fenced area, also were never used for barracks. Victory gardens were located in blocks 10 and 11, and the center's cemetery was located west of block 19. A large pit was dug for use as swimming pool east of the residential area, on the lower terrace near a canal that ran through the center.

A high school, completed by the evacuees May 27, 1943, was constructed in Blocks 13 and 16. It included a large building with several wings and three smaller buildings. At

least one of the smaller buildings was moved to the relocation center from a nearby CCC camp.

On the lower terrace, next to the railroad, were the warehouse and motor pool area, with 60 buildings. Fifteen of the buildings were from a nearby CCC camp, and one was formerly a Works Progress Administration (WPA) building. Nearby to the northeast were three root cellars, a tool shed, and a relocated WPA shelter. The military police area was located at the entrance from State Highway 11 (now U.S. Highway Alt. 14). The WRA map indicates there were 19 buildings there, including a visitor building recycled from the CCC camp. Later, the military police contingent was reduced and four buildings were relocated to the administration and staff housing area.

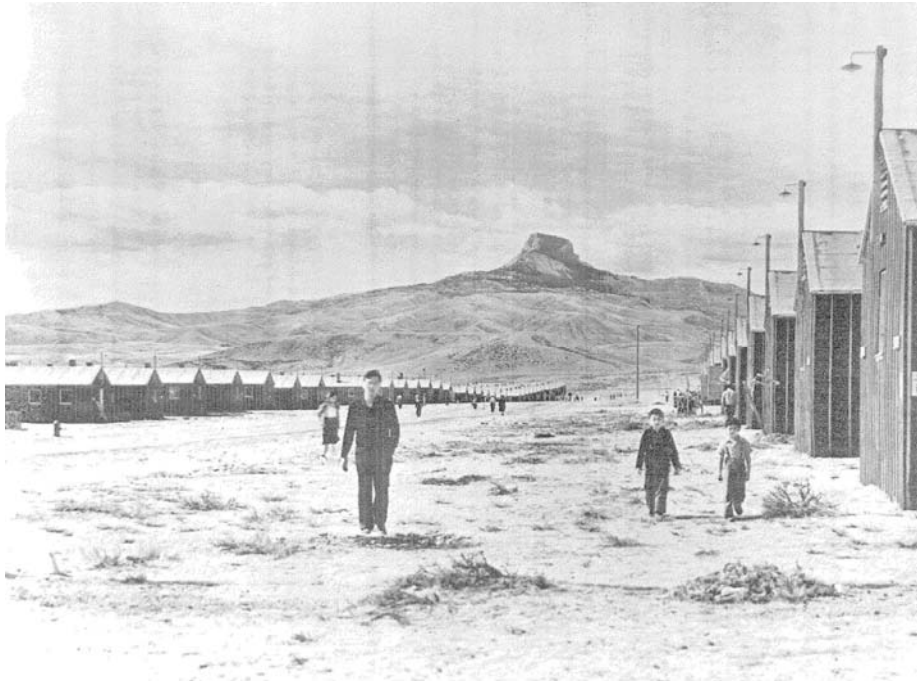
Also on the lower terrace, in the northeast portion of the camp, were the hog and chicken farms and the sewage disposal plant. At the hog farm, the WRA blueprint lists 13 hog sheds, loading chutes, and other facilities. At the chicken farm there were at least 23 chicken houses, a warehouse, a granary, a grain bin, some privies, and a lunch shelter. All of the sizable buildings were from a CCC camp. The sewage disposal plant included sludge beds, a pump house, a chlorination house, and a large buried "Imhoff" tank.

Water for domestic use was pumped from the river (at the "low-level pumping plant") to a filter plant and pumping station (the "high-level pumping plant") across the highway from the warehouse area. Water was then pumped to a concrete reservoir on a low ridge northwest of the residential area.

Water for farming came from canals, most already in place from the Bureau of Reclamation's (BOR) Heart Mountain Reclamation Project. Evacuees, however, did construct 1 mile of canal, and used 850 tons of bentonite to waterproof some of the existing canal sections that leaked (Mackey 1998). A little over 1,000 acres were cleared for farming. Fields were located adjacent to the south and east of the central area, including across (east of) the highway. Other fields were located to the north and along both sides of the highway from the central area to 3-1/2 miles south." (Farrell and Lord 2000)

The Japanese-Americans detained at Heart Mountain struggled to get by on the harsh landscape. Efforts to create gardens proved futile in the high, arid landscape and the frigid cold winter came as a shock, particularly to the Californians who had never experienced extreme cold. The WRA was also unprepared to deal with providing adequate supplies and the evacuees did not receive winter clothing until well after winter had set in. There was also a shortage of coal for fuel and heat, exacerbating the harsh winter cold. Wood that was burned in the barracks stoves posed a fire hazard, and fires were not uncommon in the wooden barracks. To make matters worse, the barracks walls were uninsulated and riddled with gaps between the board

siding. Even though the original construction drawings called for insulated walls, the expedited building program eliminated this feature, leaving the barracks walls feeble to the penetrating



**Heart Mountain Barracks Area, ca. 1942**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

winds and frequent sub-zero temperatures (Nelson 1976, 25, 27).

A shortage of food also maligned the center's first months due to the WRA's lack of preparation. Many detainees suffered hunger from poor and inadequate nourishment for the first four months until late January 1943, when the WRA raised food standards to the level of the Army. Nevertheless, sickness through the camp was rampant from the beginning and it kept the camp hospital overcrowded (Nelson 1976, 26).

Like the apartments, Heart Mountain's schools were sparsely furnished with backless benches and crude tables made in the camp wood shop. The number of children attending the camp's two schools exceeded Wyoming's maximum occupancy standards by 80 to 100 percent. In January 1943, Heart Mountain School Superintendent Clifford D. Carter reported that the 20'x100' barracks that served as the schools were not fit to be called schools at all since they

lacked study halls, toilets, cloak rooms, drinking fountains, and had a shortage of textbooks and supplies (Nelson 1976, 28).

Conditions at the camp slowly began to improve over time. By the end of December 1942, the WRA supplied the camp with celutex insulation to install in the barracks. In the Spring of 1943, the food shortage problem decreased partly due to better supply from the WRA but also from an agricultural project near the camp. A new high school constructed the following summer relieved some of the overcrowding problems in the schools. Incidences of fires at the camp decreased due to a volunteer fire department and education on fire prevention. Although the physical hardships became less problematic, the social and psychological stresses on the Japanese-American internees who lived at Heart Mountain continued throughout the camp's three-year existence (Nelson 1976, 29).

Wyomingites greeted the arrival of the Japanese-American evacuees to Heart Mountain with a mix of reactions that ranged from bitter hostility fueled by suspicion, to quiet tolerance, to a courteous welcome. The latter hospitality was usually broached with quid pro quo motivations when the shortage of farm workers during the war suggested that the Japanese could fill in the labor gap. This suggestion came from the Wyoming newspapers and local officials. As early as August 1942, the internees could apply as farm laborers outside of the encampment provided that the employer agreed to provide wages and decent working conditions, and to



**Internees Making Furniture in Camp Wood Shop, ca. 1942**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives,  
Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

detain the internees. Employers throughout Wyoming showed eager interest in participating in the program. Governor Smith, on the other hand, took steps to ensure the return of the Japanese workers to Heart Mountain after the harvest season and expressed concern that allowing some of the internees to live and work outside of the camp would encourage them to establish permanent residences in Wyoming. On this premise, Governor Smith proposed that there be a restriction placed on the Japanese people in the Heart Mountain Relocation Center. After several weeks of refusing to accept the governor's conditions, the WRA yielded under pressures from the state's agricultural interests (Nelson 1976, 39).

Over 1,100 Japanese-American internees enrolled in the farming program during the 1942 harvest season. About two-thirds of them worked on farms in Wyoming, while the remaining third worked in Montana. Although the living conditions provided to the internees were sometimes substandard, many evacuees welcomed opportunities to participate in the war effort, earn a wage, however meager, and to be working outside. Many of the towns near the farms where the internees worked expressed gratitude to the Japanese workers (Nelson 1976, 41, 42).



**Heart Mountain Internees Volunteering to Work in Sugar Beet Harvest, September 1942**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

A degree of sympathy for the internees grew among Wyomingites who came in contact with them, either directly or indirectly. Editors of the newspapers in Cody and Powell made an effort to truthfully report on the living conditions in Heart Mountain. The Powell Tribute and the Cody Enterprise also carried columns written by a resident internee at Heart Mountain that effectively provided propaganda that the internees were American citizens just like everyone else in Wyoming. Local religious leaders worked to establish mutual understanding between the camp residents and Wyomingites and led pledges to donate books and church-related materials to Heart Mountain's religious organizations that had formed there. The Park County American Legion, an organization with strongly anti-Asian chapters on the West Coast, toured Heart Mountain and reported back with a surprising amount of fairness and empathy for the detainees (Nelson 1976, 43). The local post went on to participate in a funeral of Clarence Uno, a Heart Mountain detainee who was a veteran of WWI and member of the Legion. The relative friendliness on the part of the Legion was possibly due in part to its Department Commander, E.J. Goppert, an attorney in Cody who was skeptical of the constitutionality of the Heart Mountain Relocation Center and the military's evacuation, and expressed sympathy for them. The University of Wyoming in Laramie also expressed sadness at the injustice of the detainees in an open invitation encouraging students at Heart Mountain to apply to the university. Racial discrimination and prejudices against the Japanese-Americans at Heart Mountain still existed throughout Wyoming, but the public voices that previously illustrated them as potential saboteurs seemed to soften from understanding and tolerance (Nelson 1976, 43-45).

Governor Smith was a notable exception to the sympathetic regard for the internees, however. He still held the anti-Japanese opinion that Wyoming should restrain the "Californian Japanese" and restrict their freedom during their stay in Wyoming and regarded their presence as

a “social problem.” The governor was defeated by Democrat Lester C. Hunt, who defended the WRA and, unlike his predecessor, became an ally to the agency. When the WRA came under political fire for mismanagement, Governor Hunt defended Heart Mountain from investigation and disagreed with the proposal to transfer the camp from the WRA to the War Department. Governor Hunt was also more supportive to Wyoming farmers during the 1943 harvest season and allowed for the full utilization of farm labor from the internees. Governor Hunt did express concern over the potential tax burden from the Japanese-Americans, particularly with regard to hospitals and prisons. Like his predecessor, Hunt also discouraged the permanent settlement of internees following the war (Nelson 1976, 47-49).

Incidents of discrimination against the Japanese-Americans interned at Heart Mountain were pervasive. Teaching certificates for Japanese teachers at the camp’s school restricted them to teach only at Heart Mountain, even though they met state certification requirements. Similarly qualified professionals, such as medical doctors, were unable to obtain state licensure on the basis of race. After January 18, 1943, a bill that unanimously passed in the state legislature barred the Heart Mountain residents from the right to vote in state elections. The bill became a law on February 10, 1943. Although there were no outright attacks of violence against the Japanese during the war in Wyoming, authorities passed and accepted these violations of basic civil rights without much protest or public concern (Nelson 1976, 51, 52).

By the late spring of 1943, rumors of the camp’s alleged luxurious conditions during the period of wartime rationing overshadowed sympathies for the Japanese at Heart Mountain. The WRA’s administrators tried to dispel the false descriptions of the camp, but to no avail. The issue received national attention when Wyoming’s U.S. Senator Robert Reynolds brought the public concerns to the U.S. Congressional floor in a speech calling for an investigation of the WRA.

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Senator Reynolds alleged that the internees had modern, tiled bathrooms, an abundance of food, cigarettes, and candy, and were enjoying high wages for their work. U.S. Senator Edward V. Robertson from Cody charged that the internees were lazy, fattened from the abundance of food they were given, even though the senator himself had never visited the site (Nelson 1976: 55-56. Larson 1993, 308).

The WRA and Japanese-authored columns in the local newspapers attempted to refute the accusations. From the standpoint of Republican Senator Reynolds, the attacks on the WRA were also political, aimed toward the largely Democrat-staffed agency. The Denver Post, which held a staunchly anti-Roosevelt viewpoint, encouraged the allegations and even brought new attacks on the Japanese detainees and the WRA. Reynolds' Republican colleagues in the Senate supported his stance and tried to block the construction of a Chinaware factory at Heart Mountain for fear that the internees would return to Japan, taking their new skills with them. The attack was successful and the WRA withdrew its plans for the factory (Nelson 1976, 55-56, 60-61).

In the wake of the barrage of false accusations against the WRA's alleged misuse of spending and "coddling" of the evacuees at Heart Mountain, a full-scale Congressional investigation of the Heart Mountain Relocation Center began in April. The majority of the false accusations originated from one writer for The Denver Post, Jack Carberry, whose criticisms of Heart Mountain amounted to a slanderous campaign filled with anti-Japanese rhetoric (Larson 1993, 308-310). The WRA's defensive rebuttal to Carberry's accusations came too little, too late. Democratic Wyoming Governor Hunt and Senator Mahoney viewed Carberry's attacks with contempt, but did not pursue much public action against the inflamed public opinion fanned by The Denver Post. The Congressional probe, led by Representative Martin Dies, chairman of the House Committee on Un-American Activities, kept Heart Mountain in the national spotlight



while Dies' investigators reported that many of the exaggerations and falsehoods were essentially true (Nelson 1976, 66-68).

The long-lasting effect of the investigation led to considerably cooler regard from Wyoming citizens for the Japanese-Americans held at Heart Mountain. Town officials in Cody and Powell wanted to revoke visiting passes that internees received to visit the city. Angered by this, the WRA retaliated by suspending all passes, including those that permitted internees to work as farm hands, which the local farms and ranches still badly needed and benefited from. After two months, the WRA's tactic worked and the evacuees regained their visitation privileges, along with the right to volunteer for agricultural service. Tensions subsided slightly by the fall of 1943. An open house at Heart Mountain aided this in part by allowing newspaper reporters from throughout Wyoming to visit the camp and interview the detainees. All of the press reporters found the conditions to be nothing of the luxurious conditions reported by Carberry and Senator Robertson and for the side of the WRA, successfully revealed the simple and meager facilities at the camp (Nelson 1976, 77).

By January 1943, nearly one and one-half years after the first Japanese-Americans were brought by train to Heart Mountain, WRA administrators had begun to recognize that the vast majority of the internees did not pose a threat to national security. In light of this, the WRA began to take steps in allowing the internees to express their American loyalty and gradually regain degrees of freedom. The first phase to the new policy was brought about by President Roosevelt's declaration on February 1, 1943 that every loyal American should be given the opportunity to serve his or her country, regardless of race or ancestry. A call for volunteers from the relocation camps to enter military service applied only to Nisei, or American-born men of Japanese descent (Miyagishima 2004, 32).

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But first, the Japanese-American soldier would need to pass a loyalty questionnaire created by the War Department. At first, few internees came forward to volunteer, but more registered after the WRA applied pressure to complete the required loyalty questionnaire, which was in fact voluntary. Many of the internees considered the loyalty oath to be both insulting and hypocritical, and many were skeptical of the Army's motives and of the treatment they would endure as soldiers. An informal boycott of the registration ensued on the grounds that the government denied to the internees the rights and treatment of American citizens. The protestors maintained their resolve. Only 38 of the Nisei at Heart Mountain volunteered for service, and half of those failed their physical examination. The program ended in a near-total failure and resulted in deepening mistrust and resentment of the American government. The general disgust to their treatment was shown by the number of Heart Mountain internees who made formal requests to return to Japan, rising from 42 before February to 800 by August 1943 (Nelson 1976, 101-112).

Relations worsened with the WRA's introduction of the segregation program at Heart Mountain. The segregation program sought to do what the loyalty questionnaire already challenged, that is, to separate the disloyal internees from the loyal. The WRA stressed that such a separation would benefit the loyal internees by removing suspicion of them and by some accounts, would allow the WRA to punish the disloyal internees more harshly. The WRA also hoped that it would allow Heart Mountain to operate in harmony once the "trouble-makers" were removed. The plan took effect on July 15, 1943, when the WRA separated all of the evacuees suspected of questionable loyalty from the population at Heart Mountain and moved them to the relocation center in Tulelake, California. The majority Japanese-Americans considered "disloyal" included all of the internees who had previously requested repatriation to Japan or

who had answered the registration questionnaire ambiguously. Also, any family member who wished to accompany a “disloyal” internee was allowed to join them to Tulelake. The internees at Heart Mountain seemed to take the program in stride and without outward challenge. In August and September, 903 internees left Heart Mountain for Tulelake. Ironically, most of the most outspoken anti-WRA internees were left at Heart Mountain simply because they answered the loyalty questionnaire to the satisfaction of the WRA (Nelson 1976, 114, 115, 117).

The Fair Play Committee formed in November 1943 at Heart Mountain and centered on the legality and immorality of internment of the Japanese-Americans. In January 1944, U.S. Secretary of War Henry L. Stimson reinstated the draft for Nisei internees under the Selective Service selection process (Miyagishima 2004, 32). Many viewed the opening of the draft as the first step closer to being granted full American citizenship, but the military’s invitation to fight for the war brought to mind the injustices imposed one year earlier and unfair treatment of the internees up to that point. The Fair Play Committee organized around the issue and began a draft resistance movement in protest. With a membership of 275, the Fair Play Committee became the best organized and focused opposition group that formed out of Heart Mountain. Under the advice of retained legal counsel, the group protested the draft by demanding clarification to the status of their citizenship in order to test the legality of the draft to Japanese-Americans held in internment camps. At the request of Heart Mountain’s director, Guy Robertson, the FBI investigated the Fair Play Committee, but found no evidence of wrong-doing (Nelson 1976, 120-125).

In March 1944 the Fair Play Committee protested the draft by not reporting for physical examinations required of the draftees. The month was filled with debate on the fairness and legality of the Fair Play Committee and their influence. Young men interned at Heart Mountain

increasingly refused to appear for the draft physical. On March 27, the WRA determined that one of the draft protesters, Kiyoshi Okamoto, was disloyal and sent him to Tulelake. The WRA continued to find methods to report the emerging leaders among the Japanese-American community at Heart Mountain, particularly that of the Fair Play Committee, to be “disloyal” and to subsequently extract them for segregation to Tulelake (Nelson 1976, 131, 132).

On May 10, 1944 a federal grand jury in Cheyenne returned an indictment against 63 draftees who refused to comply with their service induction notices during the preceding months. An attorney hired by the Fair Play Committee defended the protesting draftees, all of whom were Committee members, arguing that the draft orders required clarification of the men’s citizenship status, in light of their evacuation to Heart Mountain. The government prosecution won the trial, and each of the 63 defendants was sentenced with three years in a federal prison. The Fair Play Committee’s attorney appealed the case in March 1945, but the conviction was upheld (Muller 2001, 108-111; Nelson 1976, 142, 143). The trial received little public attention outside of Heart Mountain. In the newspapers that did carry the story, public opinion reflected both sympathy for the 63 draftees and resentment for their refusal to serve in the war. The Heart Mountain Sentinel published at the camp harshly criticized the draftees for doing the loyal Nisei a disservice in their effort to regain full American citizenship (Nelson 1976, 145).

In addition to the 63 men convicted of draft evasion, in May 1944, a federal grand jury indicted six Fair Play Committee leaders and a Japanese language newspaper editor for conspiracy to counsel, aid, and abet young men at Heart Mountain to evade the draft. Federal District Court judge Eugene Rice sentenced the seven men to four years in prison at the Leavenworth federal penitentiary in Kansas. The men spent a year and a half in the penitentiary before their appeal was heard in the U.S. Court of Appeals in Denver, which reversed the

convictions. President Harry Truman signed a presidential proclamation on December 23, 1947 that granted a full pardon to the Nisei draft resisters (Mackey 2001, 117. Miyagishima 2004, 38-39).

The draft resisters were a distinct minority at Heart Mountain; more than 900 men from the camp served in the armed forces, and 20 of them died in combat (Bille 1989, n.p. Mackey 2000, 112). Volunteers and draftees from Heart Mountain served in the 442<sup>nd</sup> Regimental Combat Team, which combined with the 100<sup>th</sup> Infantry Battalion of the Hawaii National Guard to form a segregated fighting unit. This combined force became the most decorated unit of its size and length of service in U.S. history, with 18,143 individual decorations and 9,486 casualties in a regiment with an authorized strength of 4,000 men (Miyagishima 2004, 32).

The WRA began to allow the “loyal” evacuees to leave the Heart Mountain Relocation Center and move to new homes located outside of the military’s Pacific defense zone in 1943. However, only a few of the people at Heart Mountain took the opportunity to move, despite financial aid and employment assistance offered by the government. By the end of 1944, more than 8,500 people, most of whom were eligible to leave, were still living at Heart Mountain (Miyagishima 2004, 32). Many Japanese-Americans were reluctant to leave the camp for the uncertain world that lay outside the fence. The psychological



**Visiting Soldiers Entertained at the Heart Mountain USO Club, June 1943. This was the only USO Club established at a Japanese Internment Camp.**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives,  
Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

consequences of their evacuation and internment at the center left many of the evacuees feeling dispirited, cynical, or hopeless. At first the WRA believed that the evacuees' hesitation to leave the camp was due to a desire to return to their original homes before the war rather than the new, government-issued home. When officials lifted the Pacific defense zone in January 1945, by July more than 6,000 residents continued to stay at Heart Mountain, despite the urging of the administrators (Nelson 1976, 169).

By September, the WRA began dismantling the Heart Mountain Relocation Center, shutting down utilities and closing the facilities. Between September and November, the remaining evacuees had no choice but to board the government-operated trains to California and Oregon. According to records, during its three years of operation, the camp's population reached a maximum of 10,767 Japanese-American internees (Miyagishima 2004, 5). Over the course of the center's tenure, the hospital saw the birth of 550 babies. During the three-year period, 128 internees died and were buried near the camp (Nelson 1976, 86-87, 169).

After Heart Mountain closed, the WRA tore down most of the buildings and salvaged the materials. The WRA transferred the land back to the Bureau of Reclamation. Some of the land became available to veterans and local homesteaders for agriculture and farming. The site's transition to agricultural uses was an easy one, because internees had cleared most of the



**Remaining Building and Site Area, Heart Mountain  
Relocation Camp**

Photograph courtesy Richard Collier, Wyoming State  
Historic Preservation Office

native grasses and dug an irrigation ditch as one of their projects. The WRA had already dismantled or removed many of the buildings to be used elsewhere as farm structures or housing. Some of the buildings were demolished and scrapped for their raw materials. After the Bureau of Reclamation resumed control of the land, it resumed its previous work on the Shoshone Irrigation Project and used some of the Heart Mountain Relocation Center buildings as administrative offices until the late 1950s. From 1960 until 1985, the buildings transferred to the Shoshone-Heart Mountain Irrigation District. In 1991, the Bureau of Reclamation regained management of the site and the remaining buildings (Miyagishima 2004, 5).

The majority of the land that encompassed the Heart Mountain Relocation Center is now under private ownership and used for agricultural purposes, such as farming barley and sugar beets. Only a few buildings from the hospital complex and administrative area are extant at the site. The 73.93 acres owned by the Bureau of Reclamation retain the camp's original roadways, building foundations, and other remnants of the camp's three-year period as an internment camp (Miyagishima 2004, 5).



**Original Honor Roll of Heart Mountain internees who served in U.S. Armed Services in World War II. This memorial deteriorated over time and has been replaced.**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

## **CHAPTER 4 – U.S. AIR FORCE IN WYOMING, 1947-1989**

Fort F.E. Warren's demobilization following the WWII period and the dramatic decline in personnel and on-base activities stirred renewed fears in Cheyenne that the base would become a casualty of the War Department's base closings. The Cheyenne Chamber of Commerce even went so far as to send seven representatives to Washington on a lobbying mission to keep the base open and "fight for the fort" (Cassity 1998, 15). The fort survived because of the [Harry S] Truman Administration's decision to convert it into an Air Force Base under the nation's newly formed USAF and the Department of Defense (DOD). The National Defense Act of 1947 established the DOD, formerly the War Department, and the USAF in a major military realignment (Weitze 1999).

When the Air Force was beginning to establish its own identity as a separate military branch, Fort F.E. Warren still showed signs that it grew out of the organization of an Army base. At first, the installation continued to call itself "Fort" Francis E. Warren, the units were called battalions and companies and military personnel were called soldiers. Nationwide, the USAF gradually emerged as its own branch of service and the base gained a new name, the F.E. Warren Air Force Base (F.E. Warren AFB) (Holland 1987, 9-1).

For a brief time during the late 1940s, an alarming rate of rheumatic fever cases reported in Wyoming and Colorado prompted military officials to consider closing F.E. Warren AFB. Congressional representatives and military policymakers decided to keep the base open on account of the economic consequences that the base's closing would have on the local economy.

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Later in 1948, the USAF created a research laboratory at the base to examine the increased incidence of rheumatic fever and other respiratory diseases in the region (Denny and Houser 1994, 231-234). In May 1948, the installation's continuation was assured when the existing Aviation Engineer School became the USAF Technical School. The USAF's Air Training Command organized the new technical school. Less than one month later, on June 6, 1948, President Truman visited F.E. Warren AFB. It was the first presidential visit since President F. D. Roosevelt's stopover in 1936 (Holland 1987, 9-1).

The installation expanded under its newfound status under the USAF, with post-war personnel increasing from 5,000 immediately after the war to more than 9,000 by the end of 1949. The first USAF units to arrive at the F.E. Warren AFB were the 463<sup>rd</sup> Air Force Base Unit and the Aviation Engineer School in 1949. Both units were previously a single unit under the Army at Geiger Field, Washington. The Aviation Engineer School provided training in engineering, construction, and related skills (Holland 1987, 9-1). In August 1948, the USAF moved the Department of Administration and Supply Training from Lowry AFB in Colorado, to the F.E. Warren AFB. Shortly thereafter, the 463<sup>rd</sup> Air Force Base Unit reorganized into the 3450<sup>th</sup> Technical Training Wing, a change that allowed the wing to double its personnel strength. In September 1948, the DOD added the Department of Automotive Training, also arriving from Lowry AFB (Holland 1987, 9-1).

A record-breaking blizzard struck Wyoming at the beginning of 1949, prompting President Truman to declare a national emergency in the region. As soon as they were able, F.E. Warren personnel assisted in providing emergency relief to the broader southeast region of Wyoming in the disaster's aftermath (Holland 1987, 9-2).

In June 1949, the installation added the Technical School to the Department of Fixed Wire Communication Training from Scott AFB, Illinois, giving the school a total of four departments: 1) Administration and Supply Training, 2) Automotive Training, 3) Fixed Wire Communication Training, and 4) Utilities Training. Under the direction of the USAF's Air Training Command, USAF airmen and officers, foreign nationals, and Air Reserve personnel received training from these departments. The foreign nationals were allied personnel from nations such as Belgium, Turkey, Canada, Greece, Egypt, Norway, and the Philippines. The Technical School also ran a system of technical training schools under civilian contracts with universities across the country (Holland 1987, 9-2).

In November 1949, Fort Francis E. Warren officially changed its name to Francis E. Warren Air Force Base (F.E. Warren AFB). The re-designation kept the base's primary function of the Technical School, but added new missions and tenant units. New organizations included the 521<sup>st</sup> Air Force Band for performing at both on-base and local community functions. F.E. Warren AFB personnel assisted military installations in other parts of Wyoming in the early 1950s. For example, when the nearby 187<sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron of the Wyoming Air National Guard activated in April 1951 during the Korean Conflict, F.E. Warren AFB provided logistical support for the installation. One month later, the base also provided support for the Filter Center in Casper, which was an information center for monitoring friendly and enemy aircraft using radar systems (Holland 1987, 9-2).

Base population increased to 12,000 people by 1951, causing a housing shortage on the base and in the Cheyenne community. Overcrowded living conditions hampered morale and exacerbated the spread of infectious illnesses among the residents. As the military facilities were constantly adapted and reconstructed to accommodate the installation's ever-changing missions,

the housing stock was also in need of renovation. To meet the need, the DOD built 500 new military family Wherry housing units at the installation in 1951 and 1952. The construction was part of the DOD's nationwide family housing construction campaign, where all of the military branches pursued an aggressive building program of enlisted and officer family housing. The widespread family housing construction came to be known as Capehart-Wherry housing after two congressmen who sponsored legislation for the program. The housing projects at F.E. Warren AFB also boosted Cheyenne's local economy by supporting local contractors and builders (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-18). Beyond this, however, the USAF changed relatively little at the base during its first decade (F.E. Warren AFB 1984, 3-67).



**Wherry Housing, F.E. Warren AFB, ca. 1951**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

Architecturally, military housing during the Cold War era continued the precedent set forth during the WWII mobilization effort. The DOD constructed many of the buildings erected during WWII quickly and efficiently and usually intended them to be temporary. Like the construction programs during WWII, the buildings built during the Cold War era were built en masse, utilizing master plans and standardized designs. Inevitably, intentionally or not, the large scale of the plans created architectural continuity throughout the mission-centered buildings and



**F.E. Warren AFB, ca. 1952, Showing New Wherry Housing**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

this continuity extended to the residential building (Foster Wheeler Environmental and JRP 2000, 8-17). Large-scale “community” residential development became common at military bases. Like most Wherry housing developments nationwide, the residences at F.E. Warren AFB followed the mid-century Ranch style, which differed greatly from the base’s pre-WWII era of building between 1899 and 1912 (Hoagland 2004, 245).

Like its Army predecessor, the Air Force also assisted in non-military activities during emergencies. In 1952, F.E. Warren AFB personnel provided firefighting support to the National Park Service in battling a blaze in the Roosevelt National Forest in Colorado (Holland 1987, 9-3).

In August 1953, Colonel William A. R. Robertson took command of the F.E. Warren AFB. In May 1956, Colonel Hilbert F. Muentert assumed the command and served the position until deactivation of the Technical Training Wing in May 1959. At that time, the base’s subunits

relocated to other sites such as Chanute AFB, Illinois and the base's original function largely ended (Holland 1987, 9-3).



**Aerial Photo of F.E. Warren Air Force Base, ca. 1955**

Photograph courtesy F.E. Warren AFB

There was some discussion in 1956 that the 3450<sup>th</sup> Technical Training Wing would relocate to Lackland AFB in San Antonio, Texas. The news came at a time when 14,336 students had graduated from F.E. Warren AFB's training schools and new dormitories and service clubs were under construction (Cassity 1998, 16). Rumors circulated within Cheyenne of a possible transfer of military personnel, sending the Cheyenne Chamber of Commerce into a letter-writing campaign. However, in August 1957 Wyoming Congressman Keith Thompson reported to Cheyenne that there would be no change in the status of F.E. Warren AFB, putting to rest concerns over economic repercussions over immediate base closings. Contrary to these reassurances, the Technical Training Wing deactivated in May 1959 and the Wing's subunits relocated to Chanute AFB in Illinois and other installations (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde

1999, 3-19, 3-20). By that time the Cold War had escalated into a nuclear standoff in which ICBMs would play a major role.

During the early 1950s, President Dwight D. Eisenhower's administration pursued a military approach that presented a change from preceding administrations. The new approach emphasized the threat of nuclear attack over maintaining a large force of ground troops. At the same time, however, the Eisenhower Administration sought to reduce military spending as much as possible. The ensuing nuclear arms race and the DOD's missile development programs contributed greatly to the tone of the Cold War era and figured prominently in the future of F.E. Warren AFB. At that time, the nation became dominated by fear that the Soviet Union could turn an atomic weapon of mass destruction against the U.S. and that once both superpowers possessed nuclear weapon capabilities a war could escalate to the point of global devastation and ultimate annihilation. Fueled by fear of each other, the U.S. and the Soviet Union became locked in a bitter conflict whose outcome was a matter of national survival. In America this fear was widespread and shared by policymakers and citizens alike. In the end, it culminated in the concept of Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD) and kept the U.S. and Soviet Union from pursuing direct aggression against one another.

There was widespread belief that the Soviets had orchestrated North Korea's invasion into South Korea in 1950. The conflict fueled the U.S.'s acerbic relations with the Soviet Union and only increased fears of attack at home. In response, DOD spending increased rapidly during the Korean War period between 1950 and 1953. Homeland defense cost the nation \$13 billion in 1950, but increased to \$50 billion just three years later, consuming nearly 40 percent of the federal budget. Much of the spending went into unmanned weapon development of missiles capable of intercontinental range. In 1950 the USAF pursued a new program called the Air

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Research and Development Command (ARDC) for the creation of ICBMs capable of being launched from the United States at targets virtually anywhere in the world. In 1951 the first missile project was the MX-1593, also known as the Atlas ICBM. Research and development between the ARDC and the Air Force continued for the next fifteen years (Mead & Hunt et al. 2003, 23).

The Air Force put into place its first accelerated ICBM-building program in 1954, through which the Air Force intended to develop a series of state-of-the-art missiles over the following decade. Made by the Wright Air Development Center (WADC), a private company contracted under the USAF, the Atlas ICBM single-stage missile became the first of its kind. By April 1955, the Western Development Division began work on the next generation Titan, a two-stage rocket. The early missile development mission was truly a transcontinental undertaking. Under the Consolidated Vultee Aircraft Corporation (Convair) in Downey, California, 30 subcontractors, 500 secondary subcontractors, and 5,000 suppliers located in 32 states across the country participated in the effort (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 67).

The U.S. was desperate to learn of the technological advances of the Soviet Union. In 1952 repatriated German scientists from the Soviet Union informed U.S. intelligence that the Soviets were in steady pursuit of a long-range ballistic missile. The intelligence prompted the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) to begin monitoring Soviet test sites from a radar station in Turkey. The news was grim for the Americans. On the basis of data gathered from reconnaissance and from the German scientists, U.S. analysts predicted that the Soviet Union would be ready to launch a ballistic missile with a range of 2,300 miles sometime between 1955 and 1957 (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 65). The weaponry would become more powerful into the height of the cold war in the late 1950s and 1960s.

The Soviet Union claimed to have successfully tested the first ICBM in August 1957. Two months later, on October 4, the Soviets launched the Sputnik orbiting satellite, cementing military fears that the Soviet's ability to use rockets for launching satellites into space indicated that they would soon be able to develop rocket-propelled missiles capable of reaching the U.S. Together, the two events sent a shock-wave of fear through the backbone of the nation. More blatantly, Sputnik demonstrated that Soviet technology was more advanced than that of the Americans at that point, causing panic among military strategists and policymakers. On October 23, 1957, a board of civilian consultants informed the Central Intelligence Committee that the U.S. was "two to three years" behind the Soviets in missile technology, thus confirming the realization. They warned that operational Soviet ICBMs could be in place by the close of 1958, little more than one year away.

In reaction to this startling testimony, President Eisenhower endured powerful criticism from policymakers who believed that a so-called "missile gap" existed. The President's policies and his inattention to national security, they argued, were responsible for the Americans' disquieting lag behind the Soviets. What was not publicly known at that time was that in 1956 aerial photographs taken during U-2 reconnaissance flights over Soviet land had indicated to American intelligence that no such gap existed. This information was classified, however, precluding President Eisenhower from publicizing the information in support of his position to keep the current ICBM program in place. President Eisenhower succumbed to political pressure and quickly increased DOD spending for more aggressive missile development. Rather than simply overhaul the existing missile building programs, Eisenhower proposed to continue building the Titan II ICBM, to add the Thor and Jupiter ICBMs, develop the Navy's Polaris submarine-launched ICBM, and allow the Air Force to develop a solid-fuel Minuteman ICBM.



In November 1958, after a series of well-publicized failed launches, the U.S. performed its first successful satellite launch into space (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 65, 66).

Under increasing pressure from the Democratic Congress, the Eisenhower Administration approved plans on November 22, 1957 to place the first operational ICBM base at F.E. Warren AFB (Holland 1987:9-3). The ICBM development at F.E. Warren AFB was welcome news to the Cheyenne Chamber of Commerce. The local newspaper announced estimates ranging from \$65 to \$100 million for building and maintaining the new facilities. The city was relieved to gain what they believed to be an economic surge to the regional marketplace. The construction would begin at the turn of 1958 (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-22).

In 1958 operations at F.E. Warren AFB were in the midst of a period of transition during its realignment from the Technical Training Schools to its new role under the DOD's Strategic Air Command (SAC). On February 1, 1958, the DOD activated the 4320<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing at the base as the new ICBM wing, replacing the technical schools. The DOD intended to arm the tactical ICBM wing with the first operational Atlas ICBM site of its kind nationwide in July 1960 (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 79). Soon after this, the 4320<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing became the 706<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing, comprised of the 549<sup>th</sup>, 564<sup>th</sup>, and 565<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Squadrons, all of which the DOD intended to arm with Atlas D missiles (Holland 1987, 10-1).

Construction began in April 1958 on the first two launch control sites that would each prepare facilities to launch three armed missiles, for a total of six missiles under the control of the base; as amended, the ultimate plan was to install six launch sites with six missiles each. The missiles were in remote locations apart from but in the vicinity of the city and F.E. Warren AFB. General Nathan Twining, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, along with other dignitaries,

attended the ceremonial groundbreaking event. While most of Cheyenne, including the city's mayor, celebrated the missile command's arrival to Cheyenne, a handful of local protestors voiced concerns over the effectiveness and safety of a nuclear and missile defense system (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-22).

The city of Cheyenne followed suit by boosting its local development in anticipation of the new missile command. Both commercial and housing developments brought employment to the region, as well as unemployed people who were looking for work. As Cheyenne constructed the nuclear weapon program, the city came into the national spotlight. While many Americans supported the program, others from across the nation feared nuclear holocaust and tried to gain support for their cause. A minority of protestors at the construction sites tried to impede the transportation routes to the missile sites. In one case, a protestor who was blocking a construction roadway was hit by a military construction vehicle that did not stop. The protests did not bring the missile program construction to a close, however, and the building continued (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-23, 3-24).

As construction on the missile base commenced, the Atlas D missile itself was undergoing development and testing at Cape Canaveral, Florida. By mid-August 1958, the USAF decided to broaden its plans for the missile base in Cheyenne, increasing the number of missiles from four sites each with six missiles to seven sites with six missiles, totaling 42 missiles. An additional \$200 million in construction funds and additional personnel that brought the total to 6,000 would supplement the proposed expansion. The increase in the missiles never materialized, and instead the original plans for 36 missiles moved forward (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-24).

In September 1959, the first Atlas D tested at Cape Canaveral, Florida, demonstrated that the missile had a flight range of 6,350 miles. The DOD quickly shuttled three Atlases into place at Vandenberg AFB, California on October 31, 1959, mounted them precariously on unprotected launch pads and operated them by contractor personnel. The design of the shuttle launcher would become increasingly more protected with each subsequent generation in the Atlas series (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 65, 68).

In November 1959 F.E. Warren AFB began receiving its assignment of two squadrons armed with six operational fourth-generation Atlas D ICBMs. The missiles' arrival symbolized a new era of space-age technology and its distance from the installation's origins as a horse cavalry Army fort of the nineteenth century. The first Atlas missile arrived by vehicular convoy. The second missile arrived at the base in a C-133 airplane, marking the first time a missile was transported by air (Holland 1987, 10-1). By September 1960, Atlas missile crews also deployed at Vandenberg AFB, California, and Offutt AFB, Nebraska, each armed with three squadrons totaling nine missiles at each base (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 65, 68).

Construction on the Cheyenne launch sites progressed throughout most of 1960 and by that fall, the 564<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Squadron at F.E. Warren became the first certified and operational ICBM unit in the SAC. The 564<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Squadron Site A, also referred to as Warren I, contained six Atlas D missiles set at the launch pads in pairs (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-24). Atlas Ds were stored in an above-ground horizontal chamber or "coffin" with a roof that rolled back for launching. A mechanism then raised the missile upward to the vertical position of 82 feet in height for launching. Due to the highly volatile nature of the pressurized liquid fuel required, the missile remained un-fueled at its alert site. The missile had to be kept in a pressurized chamber while on alert because the missile's steel shell exterior was

very thin to allow for its flight and reduced load. Once technicians filled the missile with fuel, the liquid oxygen in the missile cavity allowed it to maintain its shape after launching (Mead & Hunt, Inc. 2003, 25).

The two Atlas D missile squadrons' above-ground launchers had minimal blast protection. The missile was armed with a one-megaton thermonuclear warhead, was propelled by a one-and-a-half stage rocket with a range of 5,000 miles, and had a target error of only 1,500 feet (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 65, 68). As the project neared completion, trained combat crews came from Vandenberg AFB to man the launch sites (Holland 1987, 10-1).

The novelty of the Warren I missile site garnered a considerable amount of public curiosity and attention. The New York Times reported that, unlike Vandenberg AFB's missile launch sites, F.E. Warren AFB's ICBM mission was to be "the first clear-cut, unequivocal combat mission" without "practice shots to dilute its military readiness" (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-24. New York Times Magazine April 17, 1960). The article also noted that the F.E. Warren AFB squadron was the most vulnerable site to attack since the pairs of missiles were grouped so closely together that one enemy ICBM could destroy the entire squadron using only one nuclear warhead (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 2-24).

The second missile squadron at F.E. Warren AFB, the 565<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Squadron, called Warren II, became fully operational on March 7, 1961. The 565<sup>th</sup> squadron also used Atlas D missiles, totaling nine missiles with three missiles in three different locations. The three locations housed the missiles in above-ground coffins at some distance outward from the city of Cheyenne and the AFB. The third ICBM squadron, the 549<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Squadron or Warren III, had Atlas E missiles. The sites were spread farther out than the previously established sites because they no longer used a central launch facility as the ICBM guidance

system. The ICBM locations were near Pine Bluffs, LaGrange, and Chugwater in Wyoming, as well as one near Kimball, Nebraska and five near Colorado towns Grover, Briggsdale, Nunn, Greeley, and Fort Collins. Unlike the previous Atlas D launcher, most of Atlas E's launcher was in an underground chamber that could absorb pressures of 25 pounds-per-square-inch (psi), making it a safer storage compartment than the Atlas D's above-ground launcher. When all of the ICBM sites became operational, there were a total of 24 missiles (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-25).

Progress on the construction of the Atlas sites was a constant problem for all three missile squadrons operating out of F.E. Warren AFB. When Warren I opened in the fall of 1960, the USAF announced that the project was six months late according to original schedule. A variety of factors impeded the progress, including the remote locations of the missile sites, the novelty of the construction plans, the inexperience of the construction personnel, and constant modifications to the construction documents. Moreover, work stopped due to unrest in the work force's pay, hours, and conflicts with unions in the companies and contractors that supplied the necessary materials (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-25).

Meanwhile, at F.E. Warren AFB, a housing shortage problem became prolonged, prompting the installation to expand and modernize its facilities. In 1961, the installation began constructing Capehart Military Housing on base for 100 families (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-25).

Recognizing the Atlas' shortcomings, including its untested airframe, the USAF began developing the Titan ICBM as early as 1955. Built with a rigid frame and a two-stage propulsion system, the Titan was a more compact and more powerful missile than the Atlas. By 1962, Titan squadrons deployed at Lowry AFB, Colorado; Mountain Home AFB, Idaho; Beale AFB,

California; Larson AFB, Washington; and Ellsworth AFB, South Dakota. One significant problem with both the Atlas and Titan ICBMs was that their volatile liquid fuel systems required oversized silos to accommodate them. Fueling and launching the rockets was a dangerous task, as disasters in both the U.S. and the Soviet Union (and earlier in Germany during WWII) had demonstrated.

In March 1957, USAF scientists succeeded in developing a solid-fuel missile propellant system for a more stable, compact, and versatile missile that would be called the Minuteman. When the Minuteman's chief designer, Col. Edward Hall, gave a convincing brief to the DOD in Washington on the merits of his concept for the Minuteman ICBM, the Air Force swiftly went to task to develop the new missile. The Minuteman would be smaller and more compact than previous ICBMs and capable of tactical, intermediate, and intercontinental range. Compared with the 82-foot-tall Atlas, the Minuteman rose only 53 feet, weighed only 65,000 pounds, and was a three-stage missile. It was also better suited for mass-production, relatively inexpensive to build, and a more efficient, reliable weapon than its predecessors. Because they were housed in underground, hardened silo launchers, the DOD could potentially deploy hundreds of the Minuteman missiles from low-maintenance, unmanned launch sites dispersed across vast land areas (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 71, 74).

After Sputnik rattled the Washington leadership in 1957, the SAC commander recommended installation of as many as 10,000 Minuteman missiles across the nation. After testing, the Minuteman missiles proved to be so effective that vast numbers of missiles were unnecessary. Instead, in 1964 Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara set the number of active Minutemen at 1,000 nationwide. That number stayed fixed for the next 25 years of the Cold War (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 77. Mead & Hunt 2003, n.p.).

By the summer of 1958, some intelligence estimates indicated that the Soviet Union might have as many as 500 ICBMs by 1961. Officials were unable to confirm these estimates since the Kremlin did not publicize the actual state of their technology at any point. Soviet military missile research and development also had an advantage of freedom from constraints, while DOD and the Pentagon depended on U.S. Congressional funding approval. Estimates of Soviet power were slowly revised downward to indicate that virtually no missile gap existed, and rather that the U.S. was likely ahead of the Soviet technology on many fronts. In response to public and congressional pressure to aggressively pursue advanced ICBM development, the Eisenhower administration increased funding for nuclear build-up by the end of 1960 (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 65, 66). The administration proposed a Minuteman program armed with 445 Minutemen missiles by January 1965 and 400 more by the following June (Mead & Hunt 2003).

After the USAF received approval for the development of Minuteman missiles, it faced the task of selecting the strategic locations of the new squadrons. At the beginning, the first generation of Minuteman missiles encountered a flaw that reduced their flight range to as little as 4,300 miles. Since the missiles would hypothetically fly northward over the North Pole to reach the Soviet Union, the USAF selected launch sites at Malmstrom AFB near Great Falls, Montana, to shorten the distance to potential Soviet targets. Malmstrom's high elevation at 3,500 feet above sea level helped shorten the gap between the distances and its inland location placed it out of reach from submarine attack (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 78).

As the Minuteman increased its range to 5,500 nautical miles, the positioning of the launch sites broadened. USAF's approach to selecting the strategic positions of ICBM launch sites was fourfold, to maximize operational capability, minimize the missile site's vulnerability, minimize danger to the people of the U.S. and Canada, and utilize the taxpayers' money

efficiently for the program. To comply with these guidelines, the missiles were located at or near previously established military installations. Given that military bases already had infrastructure in place and support personnel on hand, locating missiles there was a cost-saving measure. The USAF spread individual ICBM launch sites over a large area and spaced them apart to prevent collateral damage to neighboring facilities in the event of an enemy attack (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 78).

The USAF began to study the plains surrounding Cheyenne and F.E. Warren AFB in 1961 for compatibility for the Minuteman ICBM missile silos. The base possessed many of the same attributes of Malmstrom AFB. It was far enough inland to thwart attack from sea, located in a sparsely populated area, and in a high-altitude, northerly position. That F.E. Warren already was commissioned with the Atlas ICBM furthered the base's case for the upgraded silo program (Holland 1987, 11-1).

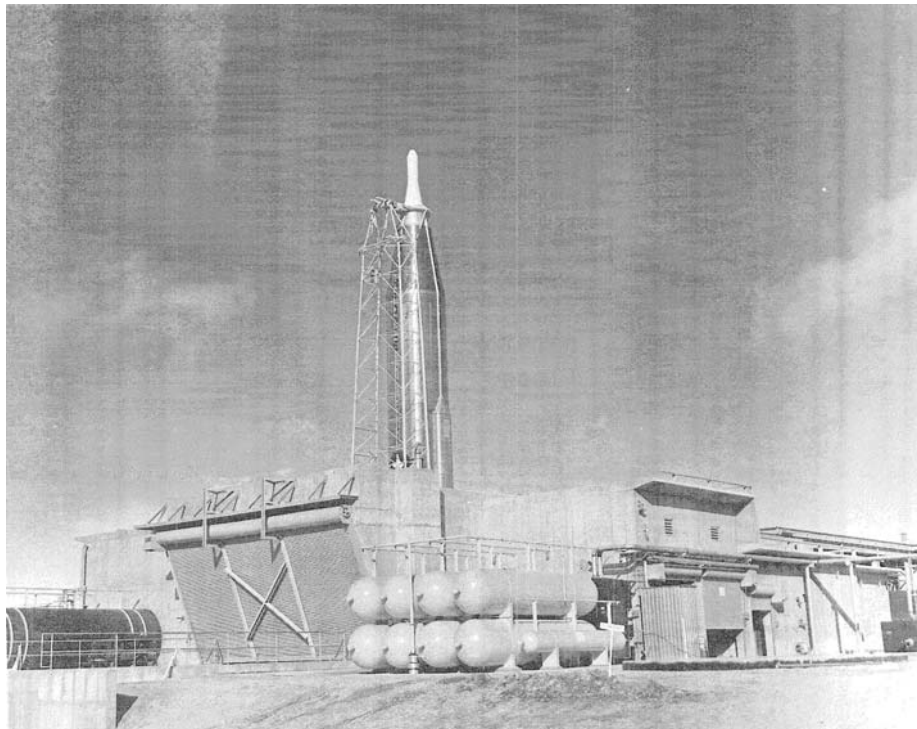
Transition from the Atlas to the Minuteman led to demolition of the former launchers and construction of new Minutemen ICBM silos to accommodate the new missiles' unique design. Construction on the Minuteman silos was conducted under the supervision of USACE. Following initiation at Vandenberg AFB, USACE began their work at F.E. Warren in July 1958. To ensure that the ICBMs would be operational as early as possible, the construction ensued while the missile design was still under research and development. Often this meant that newly built launch facilities had to be demolished and rebuilt to accommodate new design adjustments to the missiles. In August 1960, USACE created the Corps of Engineers Ballistic Missile Construction Office (CEBMCO) to work as an independent organization under the Chief of Engineers, but to allow greater coordination between USACE and the USAF. By 1962, USACE



had issued 2,676 contract modifications and change orders to keep up with changing orders, resulting in costly budget overruns for the DOD (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 79).

In May 1962 the USAF announced that Cheyenne, “the hub of the nation’s largest Atlas intercontinental ballistic missile complex, will also be the center of 200 Minuteman silos. On completion they will make up the biggest base of that type in the country” (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-28. New York Times May 2, 1962, 10). In October 1962, the estimate for the construction of 200 missile silos and 20 launch control sites for the Minuteman Missile Project was \$150 million. Over 2,000 contractors flocked to Cheyenne to bid on the project. Boeing and Morrison-Knudsen were the major contractors for the project. The construction force comprised skilled and unskilled laborers who lived in trailers and mobile homes near the project sites (Holland 1987, 11-1).

As the conversion from Atlas missiles to Minuteman ICBMs at F.E. Warren AFB was in the planning stage, the base experienced its first lock-down and went on full alert status (Holland



**F.E. Warren AFB Missile Launch Site, ca. 1970**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

1987, 11-1). Within one year after installation of the final Atlas ICBMs, in August 1962, the Soviet Union began placing its own medium-range missiles on Cuba, aiming them toward the U.S. The ensuing Cuban Missile Crisis in October of that year tested the readiness of the Strategic Missile Squadrons, including the three units at F.E. Warren. When the U.S. formed a blockade around Cuba in an effort to secure the removal of the Soviet missiles, the USAF's SAC went on full alert status. Activities at F.E. Warren AFB at that time buckled down with tight security (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-26).

On October 20, 1962, F.E. Warren AFB was about to sign a contract for the construction of the new Minuteman missiles on the ICBM sites surrounding Cheyenne, when the base received the first warning about the Cuban crisis. All of the senior commanding officers at the base were directed to remain on alert. On that day, 21 of the 24 missiles under the control of F.E. Warren AFB were in commission. The base immediately worked to bring the three missiles currently out of commission to alert status and succeeded in doing so within 17 hours of the warning message from Washington. Instructions from the DOD to base commander Colonel E.B. Daily were simply to close the installation's west gate until further notice (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-26, 3-27).

Although the alert was sent to F.E. Warren AFB on October 20, President John F. Kennedy informed the nation in a public address on October 22. The commander of the Combat Defense Squadron, Captain Roger A. Moineau, noted shortly afterward that during this period of national emergency, military morale and alertness reached an all-time high, with all personnel focused on the task at hand. Captain Moineau also reported that base incidents fell to zero during the alert period, indicating that base personnel comprehended the seriousness of the mission in

the state of emergency. After the Cuban Missile Crisis ended, the installation slowly returned to its pre-alert levels (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-26).

Brigadier General William S. Rader, Commander of the 13<sup>th</sup> Air Division, observed that the increased level of readiness during the Cuban Missile Crisis was not a great strain on the F.E. Warren AFB installation because the missile units are constantly on alert status. He did note, however, that some of the supporting units were on duty for inordinate extended periods of time, causing some personnel fatigue among these units (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-26).

In the civilian community of Cheyenne, the Cuban Crisis had a greater effect. Before events took place, President Kennedy had scheduled a visit to Cheyenne as part of a campaign tour for the upcoming mid-term elections, but his staff cancelled the appearance. Meanwhile during the alert, the SAC at F.E. Warren called all of its personnel back from leave to report to the base immediately. Local residents concerned about the threat of a nuclear attack bombarded the local Laramie County Civil Defense office with phone calls. In response, the office handed out pamphlets called "Fallout Protection," outlining precautions during the alert events. The director informed the public that, since the closest missile silo to the city was 20 miles away, Cheyenne residents would have about 10 to 15 minutes to seek shelter from nuclear fallout (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-27).

As the state of alert continued, Cheyenne residents hoarded canned goods, bottled water, radio and flashlight batteries, and portable stoves, among other items, for supplies for a fallout shelter. The *Casper Tribune-Herald*, the largest newspaper in Wyoming at that time, may have stirred the local panic by reporting that Cheyenne would be a possible target for the Soviets in light of the Atlas squadrons housed near the city (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-27).

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On October 28<sup>th</sup>, the Cuban Missile Crisis ended with the Khrushchev-Kennedy Pact, but F.E. Warren AFB continued to operate in a heightened state of security and operational readiness. The installation seemed to have fared well and according to plan during the event. The only Atlas base to receive scrutiny for its readiness was the Walker AFB near Roswell, New Mexico. Walker AFB had recently received the Atlas F ICBM, which was a later generation of Atlas missiles that were the first to be stored vertically in underground silos. (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-28). Atlas Fs were never housed at F.E. Warren. Instead, F.E. Warren continued its pursuit of the new Minuteman missile program following the state of emergency.

Construction of the Minuteman silos was substantially smaller in scale and less demanding when compared with the launch sites for the Atlas ICBM. Minuteman silos were 80 feet high, 12 feet in diameter, and did not need the fuel loading system that the previous Atlas missiles required (Lonnquest and Winkler 1996, 83). The above-ground site required for the Minuteman was less than two acres (Holland 1987, 11-1).

Construction on the first silo began on October 25, 1962 and was completed approximately one year later on October 2, 1963. The ground for the underground silos was excavated using updated techniques applied to old well-drilling methods. Large rotary augurs with 15-foot-wide drill bits bore into the soil to a depth of 94 feet. Each cylindrical shaft had a steel lining and was filled with concrete. The final, 200<sup>th</sup> missile silo, Site A-6, was dug on June 10, 1963, located several miles north of Egbert, Wyoming. The sites received electronic equipment for missile check-out and assembly the following year (Holland 1987, 11-2).

Missile silo construction progressed in fits and starts due to unfavorable weather conditions, worker strikes and labor disputes, and the remote location of many of the sites. Anti-nuclear protesters were sometimes present at construction sites. By July 1, 1964 all 200 missile

silos were in place within a 150-mile radius of Cheyenne. The missiles were dispersed at three- to seven-mile intervals over an expanse of 8,300 square miles, making it the largest missile complex in the world. The deployment area spread out from southeastern Wyoming into Nebraska, Colorado, and South Dakota (Holland 1987, 11-2).

The Minuteman missile squadrons operated under the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing, which had relocated to the Cheyenne base from Forbes AFB, Kansas. On July 1, 1963, the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Reconnaissance Wing became the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing under the SAC, becoming the first Minuteman unit with as many as 200 missiles. Each of the four squadrons under the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing had 50 LGM-30B missiles and five launch control centers. Each launch control center commanded ten missiles. All of the missile launchers and the control facilities interconnected via 2,300 miles of hardened, pressurized cables (Holland 1987, 11-2, Sprong 1990, 6). A two-officer crew operated each launch control center. The fail-safe system required two officers to launch a missile and maintained security requirements so that no one person could arm and launch a missile (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-30).

During the development of the Minuteman ICBM and the construction of its launch sites, F.E. Warren AFB remained armed with Atlas D and E missiles under the 706<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing, which was redesignated the 389<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing on July 1, 1961. In December 1963, the 389<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing received notice of the DOD's plans to deactivate the Wing in January 1965 (Holland 1987, 10-1).

Construction on the Minuteman ICBM sites went more smoothly than the previous Atlas missile facilities, in part because a Missile Site Labor Committee reduced the impact of labor unrest on the construction progress (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-29). A little more than one week after completion of the last Minuteman silo on June 9, 1964, railroad flatcars

brought the first Minutemen ICBMs to the base. When the new missiles arrived, the USAF began to decommission the Atlas ICBMs. By the end of July 1964, the last Atlas D was removed from its silo and from F.E. Warren AFB. The final Atlas E was removed the following February (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-29).

On March 25, 1965, the 365<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing officially deactivated. The conversion to the Minuteman ICBM site meant that many of F.E. Warren's Atlas program's personnel underwent a shift to the Minuteman program. On the same day, the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing assumed command of the base and infrastructure for the 200 ICBM missiles. The four squadrons under the 90<sup>th</sup> Wing were the 319<sup>th</sup>, 320<sup>th</sup>, 321<sup>st</sup>, and the 400<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Squadrons (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-29).

On July 1, 1965, 200 dignitaries gathered at F.E. Warren AFB's front gate in official ceremony of the base's conversion from the Air Force Systems Command to the SAC. From 1965 through the end of the Cold War, maintenance and readiness of the Minuteman missiles were critical components of F.E. Warren AFB operations. In turn, as the largest missile wing in the U.S., F.E. Warren AFB assumed a new key role within the DOD's national defense system for the next 20 years (Holland 1987, 11-2. Rosenberg 1989).

In November 1965, F.E. Warren AFB gained aircraft for the first time. Sixteen UH-1F helicopters arrived to the base for transportation between the installation headquarters and the widely dispersed missile launch sites. A landing pad built for the helicopters constituted the first aircraft strip on the installation since the aborted attempt by the Army to establish a joint Army-City airfield after WWI (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-31).

While F.E. Warren AFB was undergoing its conversion to the SAC's 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing during the 1960s, the USAF began to demolish the temporary buildings and

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structures of the WWII Quartermaster Replacement Training Center site on the south bank of Crow Creek (Hoagland 2004, 245). The Army post's older, pre-1920 buildings remained in place and in 1969 the F.E. Warren AFB's post received the honor of nomination to the National Register of Historic Places as an historic district (Frost 1969). After the rush of construction and preparation in the late 1950s and first half of the 1960s and once the Minuteman ICBMs were in place, F.E. Warren AFB took on a low level of activity for the remainder of the 1960s as the missiles waited in their silos for a notice of an alert.

Shortly after the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing came into operation, Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara included F.E. Warren AFB on a list of bases eligible for closure. The Cheyenne Chamber of Commerce responded to the threat of losing the city's economic base by trying to appeal to the national chamber. However, the president of the national chamber of commerce supported Secretary McNamara's recommendations, which he viewed was for the greater good of the nation. Cheyenne's fears proved to be unfounded, and F.E. Warren AFB remained open. (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-30).

Whether the local residents of Cheyenne were knowledgeable or even concerned about the presence of the 200 Minutemen in the surrounding landscape of southeastern Wyoming may be illustrated by a 1969 study of Malmstrom AFB in Montana, which also housed 200 missiles on the landscape surrounding the city of Great Falls. People who participated in the study interviews reported feelings of numbness about the existence and potential consequences of living in an area filled with nuclear missiles. The technicians who worked at the base also reported that they avoided dwelling on the political and life-threatening ramifications of nuclear war on a larger scale other than the immediate needs of their daily duties (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-31).

During the early 1970s, the Minuteman ICBM system underwent a modernization that brought changes to the missiles, the silos, and the political climate of the region. In November 1972 the USAF's SAC, including F.E. Warren, began the Minuteman Integrated Improvement Program. By 1973 the USAF began to phase out the existing Minuteman I missiles, replacing them with Minuteman III missiles. The new program also made strategic adjustments that would allow a missile's target to be readjusted remotely from the launch site, which was referred to as Command Data Buffer capability. The program hardened silos and the launch control centers for greater safety and modified silos to accommodate the new Minuteman III missile. While the Minuteman I had one nuclear warhead, each Minuteman III was armed with three independently targetable warheads. In September 1974 the USAF removed the last Minuteman I missile from F.E. Warren AFB (Holland 1987, 12-2). The USAF replaced all 200 of the former Minuteman I silos with 200 Minuteman III ICBMs (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-31).

In January 1971 Wing Commander Harold A. Strack became a Brigadier General and the first general-level commander of the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing. In April of that year, a base C-47 aircraft crashed near the runway at the Cheyenne Municipal Airport, killing its five passengers from F.E. Warren AFB. In July 1971 F.E. Warren AFB received the 4<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Division, which would command all of the Minuteman ICBM wings in the nation (Holland 1987, 12-1, 12-2). F.E. Warren AFB's new elevated status under the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing attracted visits from dignitaries in the early 1970s. In May 1971 Japanese Ambassador Nohuhiko Ushika visited the base, followed by Princess Margriet of the Netherlands in September 1972. In November 1972 the Commander in Chief of the SAC, General John C. Meyer, toured the installation (Holland 1987, 12-2).



Shifting demographics of the U.S. Military in the 1970s prompted changes in military housing stock. After the military draft ended in 1973, the military returned to all-volunteer status. To boost military numbers, the DOD actively recruited women. Consequently, the percentage of women in the military branches rose dramatically after the 1970s. In 1973, the USAF assigned the first female officer to the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing (Holland 1987, 12-2). Construction at military bases began to focus on adding new facilities that enhanced the quality of life on military bases. Improvements, it was thought, would help attract civilians to volunteer and entice them to stay. Providing decent on-base housing for enlisted personnel and their families was one such method (Foster Wheeler Environmental and JRP 2000, 8-13, 8-14).

In 1974, USAF transferred the F.E. Warren Target and Maneuver Area, consisting of 1,135 acres near the north side of the installation, to Laramie County School District No. 1. Crews had cleared the land for public use two years prior (U.S. Department of Defense 2002). On September 1977 the base opened a new hospital, the Composite Medical Facility, making it the second hospital established at the installation.

Shortly after installation of the Minuteman III ICBMs, the Air Force began pursuing a newer and better ICBM model that would eventually supplement the Minuteman III missile. In 1978 President Carter's Administration became interested in designing an ICBM capable of delivering more than three nuclear warheads. The build-up was controversial at that time, even among Carter's own political party. The concept for the new missile was called the MX, but it was also more positively known as the Peacekeeper (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-32).

The early plans for the MX were elaborate and expensive to build and operate. Each MX missile was to be capable of carrying 10 nuclear warheads, presenting a major increase in the destructive load of each missile. Initial concepts planned for the MX to be constantly in motion

around a racetrack in a remote part of the country, so that it could dodge incoming warheads.

The state governments in Nevada and Utah rejected this scheme after learning that the DOD was targeting the two states as potential sites for the mobile missile sites. Other ideas included hiding the MX missiles in vernacular buildings, tunnels, airplanes, or trucks in constant motion (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-32). In most of the initial scenarios, the plans appeared to be impractical and unrealistic.

Three years after the Carter Administration's proposal for deploying the moving MX ICBM system, the Ronald Reagan Administration announced in October 1981 its decision to deploy MX missiles. Instead of using mobile missile sites, the new missiles would use existing Minuteman missile silos but harden them to make them more resistant to attack. By process of elimination, the first location for the MX missiles was targeted for the southeastern Wyoming area, where F.E. Warren AFB's Minuteman missiles were already deployed in a dispersed pattern (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-33). Another proposal was the development of a "dense pack" configuration that would place 100 MX missiles in a concentrated cluster that could combat repeated destruction of multiple enemy missiles in the event of an attack. The cluster site would need to be one mile wide and 14 miles long. On November 4, 1982 the USAF announced that this latter concept would indeed be the plans pursued by the DOD, but the Reagan Administration had one month to consider the proposal and the alternatives (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-34).

Ranchers and other rural residents within this zone became concerned about the possibility of the DOD taking more private land for an expansion of the existing silo facilities in the proposed large-scale, land-based system for the MX program. Ranchers Rod and Mae Kirkbride from the Meriden area, northeast of Cheyenne, wrote an open letter in the New York

Times to DOD Secretary Casper Weinberger urging him to cancel plans for expanding the existing missile defense system in the F.E. Warren AFB region. The Kirkbrides already had three Minuteman III missiles sites within their ranchland at that time. In their letter, they cited the potential for negative impacts to the water rights and water resources and other natural resources as a result of the expansion and development that the DOD was considering at that time (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-33).

Many other rural residents living in close proximity to the existing Minutemen silos in southeastern Wyoming, northeastern Colorado, and nearby Nebraska shared the Kirkbrides' sentiment that the clustered development could harm the region. On the other hand, Cheyenne's Chamber of Commerce saw the project's economic potential and rallied behind the DOD's plans for expansion. In other words, the chamber maintained its stance that what was good for F.E. Warren AFB was good for Cheyenne. Cheyenne's mayor and many Cheyenne residents appeared to share this support for the development plans. Their support stemmed from the estimated \$217.5 million that F.E. Warren AFB fed annually into Cheyenne's local economy (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-34).

On November 22, 1982 the Reagan Administration officially announced the deployment of the "Peacekeeper" ICBM, renamed from the MX, using the dense pack plan at F.E. Warren AFB. The initial proposal was for 100 Peacekeepers, with the potential for adding another 100 later on. Protests continued from the ranchers and farmers who lived in the greater rural areas closest to the locations of the missile silos and the areas of proposed development, while city officials in Cheyenne generally supported the plans. Concerns grew locally when the USAF cited several hundred square miles of land in areas northeast and northwest of Cheyenne as potential locations for the proposed sites. All of that land was privately owned at that time. Congress

blocked the controversial deployment for the time being by stopping further spending on the Peacekeeper development (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-35).

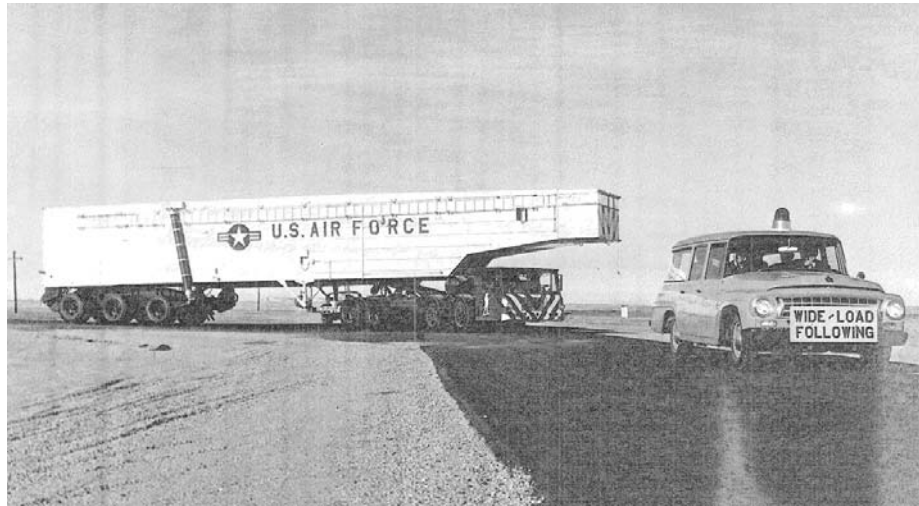
In response to the impasse, President Reagan charged the Scowcroft Commission with studying the problem and making a recommendation. Led by Commission Chairman retired Air Force Lieutenant General Brent Scowcroft, the Commission recommended in April 1983 that the Peacekeeper use existing Minuteman silos. Even though the Reagan Administration had previously rejected this plan, it endorsed the commission's recommendation (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-35).

In 1984 the USAF made plans to install 50 Peacekeeper ICBMs in and around the southeast corner of Wyoming and into Nebraska's northwest corner. The 50 planned ICBMs were a reduction from the original plan of 100 Peacekeepers. Under the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing's command, the Peacekeeper missiles would round out the TRIAD programs that comprised a three-part defense strategy of land, air, and sea during the Cold War. The Peacekeeper ICBMs would comprise the land-based defense, in addition to submarines equipped with missiles and manned missile-carrying aircraft (Holland 1987, 13-1).

Construction of the Peacekeeper's new support facilities at F.E. Warren began in 1984. One of the new facilities included a Reentry System Assembly, Surveillance, and Inspection building, the first of which was completed in September 1985. Conversion of the first Minuteman III sites to the new Peacekeeper missile under the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing took place after Congress approved funding to modify 15 existing Minuteman III silos in December 1985 (Holland 1987, 13-1).

During this time, Wyoming Governor Ed Herschler, who had previously supported the arrival of the Peacekeeper missiles, joined Nebraska Governor Bob Kerrey in a request to

President Reagan to delay the missile deployment by one year. The Governors were concerned that the debates about whether to deploy the more powerful Peacekeeper ICBMs had not included input from the Soviet Union. President Reagan refused the Governors' request and the conversion of the missile silos in Wyoming and Nebraska moved forward as planned (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999, 3-36).



**First Minuteman Hauler/Erector at F.E. Warren AFB, January 1964**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

The USAF placed the first Peacekeeper ICBM into position in its hardened Minuteman III missile silo by late spring of 1986. Contractors under Boeing Aerospace performed the modifications to the Minuteman missile sites. The base came under the scrutiny of the USAF during construction, resulting in a series of six inspections at the base to ensure the readiness of the new Peacekeeper missile system (Holland 1987, 13-2).



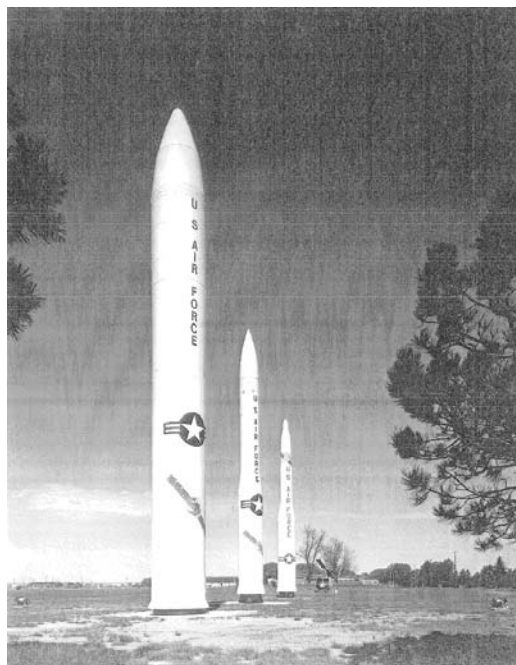
**F.E. Warren AFB Missile Hauler, 2009**

Photograph courtesy TolTest, Inc.

The Peacekeeper ICBM was the most powerful unmanned missile created by the DOD to date. It was a four-stage missile capable of carrying 10 nuclear warheads and delivering each to independent targets. Three of the four stages used solid propellant through an adjustable nozzle that guides and directs the missile on its flight path. The fourth missile stage served as a booster for the velocity and altitude necessary for the missile to reach space, where the missile could maneuver into position to release and launch each of the ten re-entry warheads back to earth toward their targets. The Peacekeeper included an independent, inertial navigation system, which allowed it to fly free from interference during flight. Stage IV contained the flight guidance and control system, electronics and computer, a cooling system, power supply, and shields (Sprong 1990, 22).

The Peacekeeper was the first ICBM to use a cold launch method. The missile was to be launched from its canister by a high-pressure steam to propel the missile to a height of between 150 to 300 feet before the first stage ignited. This system allowed the Peacekeeper to be housed in hardened Minuteman III silos, even though the Peacekeeper was nearly three times as large as the Minuteman III ICBM (Sprong 1990, 9). Like the Minuteman III, each fully assembled Peacekeeper was transported to the missile launch site and placed in cylindrical, concrete silos as a protective canister. Also like the Minuteman III, the Peacekeeper was kept on alert in a vertical orientation mostly underground with the missile inside pointing straight up toward the sky. The top of the silo had a concrete cap with a hatch door at the top for access (Holland 1987, 13-2).

Two hundred Peacekeeper launch facilities were built over a range of 12,600 square miles across Wyoming, Nebraska, and Colorado. The launch facilities were remote, unmanned missile sites about three miles apart. Located in sparsely populated areas, the facility consisted of a launcher, launch support building, security system, and service area. The launcher itself contained a launch tube, the steam canister for the Peacekeeper, a launcher closer, a dual-level equipment room, and a personnel access



**Missile Display at F.E. Warren AFB**

Photograph courtesy Richard Collier, Wyoming SHPO

hatch/entry way. The launch tube was the underground, steel-lined cylinder in which the missile was stored. The cylinder was enclosed by a steel-reinforced concrete slab door weighing 110 tons. In the event of launch, a ballistic actuator would open the door in sling-shot fashion using

fast-acting ballistic gas generators. A launcher equipment room completely encircled the upper launch tube with a bi-level cylindrical concrete structure. A multi-sensory security system protected each launch facility to detect any unauthorized activity near the site (Sprong 1990, 25).

In September 1986 the first Peacekeeper sites were completed and handed over to F.E. Warren's 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Wing. The first 10 Peacekeeper missiles were operational by December 1986 to meet the Initial Operation Capability goal at the base (GeoMarine 2005, 112-114. Holland 1987, 13-2). The remaining 40 missiles went into operational status at F.E. Warren AFB by 1988, bringing the total number of Peacekeepers under the control of the base to 50 (Morgan n.d., 5, 6). In control of the ICBMs, the 90<sup>th</sup> Strategic Missile Squadron continued to operate under the SAC's highest alert (Sprong 1990, 9). Although the missiles have been removed, F.E. Warren AFB continues to maintain the 50 Peacekeeper sites. In addition, F.E. Warren AFB houses 150 Minuteman III missiles in the missile silos dotting the greater region of Southeastern Wyoming as well as in Nebraska and Colorado.





## **CHAPTER 5 – THE NATIONAL GUARD IN WYOMING, 1920-1989**

### **5.1 ORIGINS AND SERVICE BEFORE 1920**

The State of Wyoming organized the First Regiment, Wyoming National Guard in 1888. The Regiment served as federalized volunteers in the Philippine Islands during the Spanish-American War and Philippine Insurrection in 1898 and 1899. After being mustered out of federal service the regiment reorganized as the 2<sup>nd</sup> Regiment Infantry, Wyoming National Guard. In 1905 the designation again changed to 3<sup>rd</sup> Regiment Infantry, Wyoming National Guard.

In 1917 the regiment entered federal service for WWI. Headquarters Company, Supply Company, and 1<sup>st</sup> Battalion went with other troops to form the 148<sup>th</sup> Field Artillery; the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> Battalions became the 116<sup>th</sup> Ammunition Train of the 41<sup>st</sup> Division. The machine gun company became part of the 146<sup>th</sup> Machine Gun Battalion, 41<sup>st</sup> Infantry Division. All of these units served overseas. The 146<sup>th</sup> Machine Gun Battalion and the 116<sup>th</sup> Ammunition Train did not see action. The 148<sup>th</sup> Field Artillery served in defensive sectors in Champagne and participated in the Champagne-Marne, Aisne-Marne, St. Mihiel, and Meuse-Argonne operations. The Army disbanded these units after the war (Davis 1925, 17-19).

### **5.2 THE WYOMING GUARD IN THE INTERWAR PERIOD, 1920-1940**

#### **5.2.1 *Historical Narrative***

The United States reorganized the National Guard under provisions of the Militia Act of 1903, and the National Defense Acts of June 16, 1916 and June 4, 1920. These acts essentially pulled the National Guard of each of the states into a coordinated national defense policy, rather

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than the disparate state policies that had previously existed. This change gave the National Guard a more definite role in national defense, but it also shifted most of the financial burden of recruiting, training, equipping, and administering the Guard units from the states to the federal government. The Army defined a consistent scheme of training for the National Guard, and assigned Regular Army officers to lead this training. However, the National Guard units remained under control of the respective states. The Militia Act of 1903 also created a small section of the War Department that was specifically responsible for National Guard affairs. This organization became the Division of Militia Affairs under the 1916 act and the National Guard Bureau under the National Defense Act of 1933 (Davis 1925, 16. Rothstein 2008).

The Army divided the United States into nine corps areas, each containing twelve million people, and assigned each corps area one Regular Army, two National Guard, and three Organized Reserve divisions. The Ninth Corps Area included the 41<sup>st</sup> National Guard Division with units from Wyoming, Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and Montana. The Army allocated the following units to Wyoming:

- Regiment of Cavalry
- Cavalry Brigade Headquarters
- Cavalry Brigade Headquarters Troop
- Squadron of Machine Guns
- Motor Transport Company
- Motor Transport Repair Section
- Military Police Company
- Ambulance Company (Animal Drawn)

The National Defense Act of 1920 allotted 800 National Guardsmen for each senator or representative in Congress, which ostensibly gave Wyoming allocation for 2400 officers and enlisted men. Wyoming had a tradition of strong participation in the National Guard; in 1910 Wyoming had the second highest participation among all states based on the number of Guardsmen per the male population aged 18 to 45 years (Wyoming Adjutant General 1910, 11).

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However, the Wyoming Guard struggled with recruiting in the years immediately following WWI, as did Guard organizations in most of the states. Problems included conflicts with State Guards that had been temporarily formed to replace the National Guard units deployed to Europe. The State Guards retained possession of some of the armories and wanted to become part of the postwar National Guard structure. Also, many of the Guardsmen who had served in WWI were discontent with their treatment essentially as draftees into the regular Army during the war and they were disenchanted with military service. Fourteen states still did not have organized National Guard units by 1920, but this number decreased to one state, Nevada, by 1922 (Davis 1994, 104).

The Wyoming Guard could not muster enough men to qualify for annual training camp in 1919 and the number of men participating in camp fell from 25 officers and 216 enlisted men in 1920 to 20 officers and 177 enlisted men in 1921. With a change in Adjutant Generals, Wyoming met its recruitment quota in 1921 and, in the following years, participation in camp rose to 43 officers and 437 enlisted men by 1924. In July 1924 the Wyoming Guard included a total of 48 commissioned officers, one warrant officer, and 669 enlisted men, which represented a gain of 15 officers, one warrant officer, and 317 enlisted men since March 1923 (Davis 1925, 17).

The Adjutant General, Lieutenant Colonel Walter F. Davis, explained the renewed popularity of the National Guard in Wyoming.

“The units comprising the Wyoming National Guard are stationed in eleven communities in the state [see below] and in a great majority of cases are supported adequately by the various businessmen’s clubs. Those communities having a unit of the National Guard consider it a very valuable asset on account of the financial aid received from the federal government, thus bringing considerable sums of money into the community. This has proven of considerable aid during the period of depression which has prevailed during the past two years.

During the past two years it has only been necessary to muster out one unit of the National Guard of Wyoming. At present time there has been received in this office

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applications from eleven communities of the State for units of the National Guard to be stationed therein.” (Davis 1925, 15)

The federal government and the Wyoming state government split the expenses of maintaining the National Guard. The federal government paid salaries or wages, and provided arms and equipment. The state government paid for rent, light, and heat of the armories; physical examinations for guardsmen; and other maintenance expenses. In 1924 the federal government provided approximately \$185,000 to Wyoming, and the state appropriated \$50,000 (Davis 1925, 16). Communities struggling with the growing agricultural and industrial depression in the 1920s welcomed this source of income. In the period March 1, 1923 to March 1, 1925, these communities received the money shown in Table 5-1 from National Guard operations (Davis 1925, 22).

**Table 5-1**  
**Federal and State National Guard Expenditures, 1923-1925**

Troop	Town	Federal Funds	State Funds	Total
Troop A	Lander	38,459.77	6,579.82	45,039.59
Troop B	Sheridan	37,887.04	5714.18	43,601.22
Troop C	Riverton	38,325.58	6,682.74	45,008.32
Troop E	Torrington	37,928.21	7,100.48	45,028.69
Troop F	Douglas	38,722.41	6,777.43	45,499.84
Troop G	Lovell	38,269.44	5,668.99	43,938.43
HQ Troop <sup>[1]</sup>	Laramie	46,815.28	5,165.79	51,981.07
Service Troop	Wheatland	36,555.25	5,084.06	41,639.31
Troop F <sup>[2]</sup>	Cody	5,753.93	1,623.07	7,377.00
HQ Detachment <sup>[3]</sup>	Yoder	6,729.51	176.01	6,905.52
HQs	Cheyenne	8,993.61	6,603.30	15,596.91
Troop A <sup>[4]</sup>	Newcastle	18,833.80	397.13	19,230.93

<sup>[1]</sup>Organized 2/28/1924, Expenditures are 3/1/1924 to 3/1/1925

<sup>[2]</sup>Disbanded 2/28/1924, Expenditures are 3/1/1923 to 2/28/1924

<sup>[3]</sup>Organized 6/11/1924, Expenditures are 6/11/1924 to 3/1/1925

<sup>[4]</sup>Organized 6/11/1924, Expenditures are 6/11/1924 to 3/1/1925

In 1920 Major George M. Slinery of Thermopolis commanded the state’s regimental cavalry complement, choosing sites for cavalry platoons at Sheridan, Riverton, Kemmerer, Cody, Basin, and Greybull. Within the year, the Wyoming National Guard recognized most of these

platoons as units of the First Regiment Cavalry. During the early 1920s the Wyoming National Guard actively recruited American Indians in Wyoming, almost all of whom resided on the Wind



**Wyoming National Guard Cavalry Troops, ca. 1920s**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

River Indian Reservation. Two troops, Troop A at Lander and Troop C at Riverton were populated almost entirely by American Indian Guardsmen who were noted to be skillful horse-mounted troops (Wyoming Adjutant General's Office 1940, XXXVIIIZQ).

The Army redesignated Wyoming National Guard's 1<sup>st</sup> Cavalry as the 115<sup>th</sup> Cavalry and assigned it to the 24<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Division in 1922. In June 1924 the Wyoming National Guard consisted of eight cavalry troops and one squadron of machine gunners, dispersed across 11 sites in the state (Wyoming Adjutant General's Office 1940, XXXVIIIZQ; Wyoming Army National Guard 2000, xii). In 1925, the Army appointed Brigadier General Burk H. Sinclair to command the 58<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Brigade, stationed at Casper, and he organized a Brigade Headquarters Troop that year at Casper. The 58<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Brigade included cavalry regiments from Wyoming and

Idaho (Davis 1925, 5). Locations of Wyoming National Guard units in 1924-1925 are shown on Figure 5-1 below; the locations varied little during the remainder of the interwar period, with a medical detachment added in Casper, a machine rifle platoon added in Lusk, and a quartermaster regiment organized at Cheyenne (Esmay 1936, 5).

The manpower strength of the Wyoming National Guard generally rose in the remainder of the interwar era until the last of the Wyoming National Guard entered federal duty in February 1941. However, the numbers of officers and enlisted men sometimes varied substantially from year to year, as shown in Table 5-2 below. The Wyoming Guard never approached its authorized allotment of 1,200 officers and enlisted men until just before U.S. entry into WWII (Davis 1925, 1928; Esmay 1930 to 1942).

**Figure 5-1. Wyoming National Guard Units, 1924.**



Map courtesy TEC, Inc.

**Table 5-2**  
**Wyoming Guard Strength 1920-1941**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Officers</b>	<b>Enlisted Men</b>
1920	22	548
1921	24	363
1922	39	440
1923	34	427
1924	46	602
1925	45	613
1926	42	730
1927	43	676
1928	46	751
1929	41	626
1930	48	571
1931	50	580
1932	50	577
1933	54	593
1934	53	534
1935	54	575
1936	54	627
1937	54	633
1938	52	634
1939	65	826
1940	63	892
1941*	65	1020

\*When mobilized into national service 2/24/1941; also,  
one Warrant Officer (band leader).

For most Guardsmen service in the interwar period consisted largely of attending up to 48 drills per year, usually on a weekly basis at the respective troop's local facility. Guardsmen also attended two weeks of annual field training with other Wyoming National Guard members and sometimes with National Guard troops from other states and/or regular Army troops from Fort D.A. Russell/F.E. Warren. The 115<sup>th</sup> Cavalry held an encampment at Fort D.A. Russell alongside troops from Utah, Idaho, and Washington State in 1923.



**National Guardsmen shoeing horses, ca. 1925**

Photo courtesy National Guard Bureau



The Wyoming National Guard established a temporary camp at Pole Mountain in 1924. The Guard chose this location in part because they had previously participated in war games and exercises at the site.

The National Guard held encampments at Pole Mountain annually until 1937, with the exception of 1933 when the summer exercise consisted of a march from Laramie to



**National Guard Camp at Pole Mountain Reserve, 1936**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

Mountain Home (Esmay 1934, 6. Wyoming Adjutant General's Office 1940, xxxii). As discussed in Chapter 2, Congress had set aside the Pole Mountain facility as a training and maneuver area for the regular Army at Fort D.A. Russell. The Wyoming National Guard held its annual summer encampments at Camp Guernsey about 80 miles north of Cheyenne in 1938 and 1939; in 1940 the Wyoming Guard encamped at Centralia, Washington as part of the 4<sup>th</sup> Army maneuvers.

In addition to its national defense role, the Wyoming National Guard functioned as the state's peace-keeping force, available as needed to respond to domestic disorder, which in Wyoming in the interwar period primarily consisted of mining- and railroad-related strikes and disputes. The National Guard may have been called to readiness for such policing actions, but Adjutant General's reports for the interwar period do not indicate use of National Guard troops

for these types of disturbances. As discussed in Chapter 2, regular Army troops from Fort D.A. Russell protected railroad and mine properties during this period. However, by 1930 a Cheyenne National Guard detachment of one officer and 22 enlisted men had received training in the use of gas to quell riots (Esmay 1930, 12). The National Guard did provide security during several major urban fires in this period, particularly after an explosion in Torrington's downtown in 1933 and on occasion assisted other law enforcement agencies.

Far more often than quelling riots, the National Guard fought forest fires, provided tents and camping equipment to the Boy Scouts and national groups visiting the state, and provided bedding and other property to communities and charities to help alleviate the effects of unemployment. Wyoming National Guardsmen also participated in non-military activities such as filmmaking. The Guardsmen served as a variety of extras in Westerns or military movies during the 1920s and 1930s. In 1925 and 1927, National Guard troops were used in filming along the Little Wind River. Movies produced using Guardsmen as extras included Columbia Pictures' "The End of The Trail" in 1932 and Paramount's "Plainsman" in 1936 (Hutchison 2001, 34).



**Wyoming National Guard Football Team, ca. 1920s**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

WWI clearly heralded mechanized warfare, but the Wyoming National Guard remained steadfast in its attachment to its horses. The federal government provided the 115<sup>th</sup> Cavalry with ten trucks, two five-ton tractors, six Dodge touring cars, four motorcycles, and a GMC motor ambulance by 1926. The federal government provided additional motorized vehicles in succeeding years, but it wasn't until 1937 that the Wyoming Guard cavalry finally fully traded its horses for motorcycles, cars, and trucks. The U.S. National Guard officially abandoned horse cavalry in 1940 under the direction of the War Department as American involvement in WWII approached. In 1942, the Wyoming National Guard gave up its last horses at units at Lovell, Sheridan, and Riverton-Lander. The men of the 115<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Regiment were among 50,000 National Guardsmen who lost their horses in favor of mechanization (Larson 1993, 16).

The Wyoming National Guard became the first in the nation to receive an armored car squadron in 1939. The armored vehicles effectively raised the level of technology and equipment to that of the regular Army at that time and prepared the Guardsmen for possible military engagement. Two troops with 43 men each received new armored scout vehicles. The following year the Reconnaissance Squadron in Cheyenne received 11 more armored vehicles. By 1938 the regular Army began upgrading the arms of the Wyoming National Guard, including supplying new, air-cooled .30 caliber machine guns to each rifle troop in the state (Esmay 1926, 14; 1938, 5. Wyoming Adjutant General's Office 1940, XXXIX).

The state's responsibilities under the 1920 reorganization of the National Guard included providing adequate facilities for training troops and storage of equipment supplied by the federal government. By 1924 Wyoming had only two state-owned National Guard armories, which were stone and brick structures at Newcastle and Lander. In March 1923 the Adjutant General signed a contract for construction of three more armories, but the succeeding Adjutant General

renegotiated the contract so that two armories were constructed in 1924 at Wheatland and Lovell. The Omaha Steel Company built the armories at a cost of \$9,300 each; these armories were steel frame and sheet metal, 60 feet wide and 140 feet long, and “of the portable type.” Other National Guard units occupied rented halls that the Adjutant General described as unattractive, unsuitable for drill, and unfit for adequate storage of federal property (Davis 1925, 13).

Wyoming’s Adjutant General, who commanded the National Guard, constantly lobbied the legislature during the 1920s and early 1930s to provide funding for armory construction around the state, reminding the legislature that the federal contribution for National Guard operations was always at least five times that of the state. The federal government did not fund armory construction at that time, and federal funding for salaries, wages and equipment could be lost if the state did not provide adequate structures. In 1926 the Adjutant General also warned that the state would be required to reimburse the cost of federal property lost because of inadequate facilities, and that the cost of reimbursement to the federal government might well exceed the cost of an armory (Esmay 1936, 27).

The Wyoming legislature chose where to build armories and the level of funding for such construction. The size of the host town and the political power of its legislators often influenced the funding for armories, and this resulted in substantial inequalities in the armories. The legislature appropriated only \$7,500 for construction of an armory in Riverton, and the officers and enlisted men in Riverton had to raise an additional \$1,800 of their own money in order to complete the structure adequately for occupation in 1926. In contrast, the legislature funded construction of an armory in Sheridan in 1927 at a cost of \$46,255 and an armory in Casper in 1930 at a cost to the state of \$44,188 (Davis 1928, 4. Esmay 1930, 6; 1932, 6).

The Wyoming legislature funded construction of the larger armories by a mill levy enacted by the legislature in 1927, but the Adjutant General and his military department had little control over the actual funding of armory construction. When the legislature contemplated discontinuing armory construction during the extreme economic depression in 1932, Adjutant General Rhodolph Esmay didn't disagree, however he proposed another use for the mill levy:

“This department recognizes the necessity of reduction of expenditures for all public purposes. In this connection it is respectfully suggested that should the legislature decide to discontinue our present armory building program, that the provisions of Chapter 50 Session Laws of Wyoming 1927 be amended to suspend this levy until the next legislature. This suggestion is urged to avoid a return to the ‘spoils system’ in armory construction which usually results in the construction of armories at stations without consideration for military merit or necessity. Often such a policy results in the construction of buildings of freak design, inadequate facilities and at excessive cost. It is the opinion of your Adjutant General the better policy for curtailment of expenditures would be to reduce or eliminate the direct appropriation for the support and maintenance of this department and retain the mil levy making the proceeds available for all operating costs of the department.” (Esmay 1932, 13)

The Adjutant General's Biennial Report of 1932 lists the armory and other facilities used by the National Guard at that time:

**Casper** – A large brick armory with riding hall and stables was erected in 1929 at a cost of \$44,188 and used by Headquarters Troop and Medical Detachment.

**Cheyenne** – There is no armory in this city although two units are organized and federally recognized. The Band, 115<sup>th</sup> Cavalry uses one of the school buildings for drill while the state detachment uses the Cathedral Hall for drill. Both of these buildings are rented. Neither facility is considered adequate but is the best that are available. Two warehouse buildings are owned and occupied by the National Guard; one an old tin building used for the storage of trucks and tentages and the other a brick building erected in 1930 at a cost of \$7,788 and used for the storage of clothing, fire arms, and expensive instruments.

**Douglas** – A large brick and wood armory was constructed in 1931 at a cost of \$26,416.78 without riding hall, but with adequate stables, drill hall, and space for the safe storage of federal property. This facility will not be completed until sufficient funds become available for the building of the riding hall, however it is so constructed that this cost will be much lower than the cost of building a riding hall separately.

**Laramie** – This unit has no armory, but uses a building rented from the County Fair Association.

**Lander** – A brick armory erected in 1925 at a cost of \$12,000. This building is suitable only for a dismounted unit. The stables are rented and extremely unsatisfactory for military use.

**Lovell** – A tin building with stables erected in 1924 at a cost of \$9,615.91 and is inadequate for a National Guard unit as there is no means by which sufficient heat can be maintained to allow a comfortable period of drill and instruction.

**Lusk** – A brick armory erected in 1927 at a cost of \$15,000 is satisfactory for a dismounted unit, but has no stables or riding hall.

**Newcastle** – A stone armory erected in 1915 at a cost of \$15,000 has no stables or riding hall. Stables are rented, but not considered adequate or satisfactory for the unit now occupying it.

**Riverton** – A frame building erected in 1925 at a cost of \$7,396 with stables and dismounted drill hall. This building is adequate for the unit now using it except for mounted drills which must be held outside.

**Torrington** – A large brick and wood armory erected in 1932 without riding hall is of the same plan as the armory in Douglas and cost approximately the same.

**Sheridan** – A large brick armory with stables and riding hall was erected in 1927 at a cost of \$46,255.68. Adequate and satisfactory except for a very destructive and troublesome seepage condition.

Construction of a suitable armory at Lovell and Laramie and stables at Lander and Newcastle would greatly reduce the cost of rentals to the state and provide proper housing for those units (Esmay 1932, 6).

Wyoming had at least partially addressed some of the deficiencies listed in the 1932 report by 1934:

**Lander** – The construction of a stable at the cost of \$3,200 has eliminated the necessity of renting. This stable is of stone and contains a saddle room, forage room, and wagon shed, and stall space for 32 animals. It is considered entirely adequate and satisfactory for the unit.

**Laramie** – The construction of the basement unit of the standard armory plan and stables has been completed at a cost of \$9,444. This now provides this station with a satisfactory stables, storeroom, drill hall, orderly room, and locker room. Rent of the building from the County Fair Association has been discontinued.

**Lovell** – The basement unit of the standard armory plan has been completed at a cost of \$8,904. This provides the same facilities as at Laramie. This unit also retained the old tin armory which is now used as a stable and riding hall.

**Newcastle** – A stone stable, similar to that of Lander, was started at this station. As yet it is not complete. To date \$2,500 has been expended on this building. An additional state expenditure of approximately \$1,000 will be required to complete the building (Esmay 1934, 5).

Wyoming continued to improve its National Guard facilities throughout the interwar period. Note the continuation of horse-related facilities into 1938 which may be due in part because construction of these facilities began in 1937 or earlier, prior to the phasing-out of the horse cavalry by the Army.

- **Douglas** – completion of a riding hall at the armory in 1937-1938
- **Laramie** – construction of a riding hall in 1936-1937
- **Newcastle** – completion of the stone stables by 1936, construction of a riding hall in 1936
- **Torrington** – construction of a riding hall in 1937-1938
- **Cheyenne** – construction of a stone addition to the existing warehouse and a large stone garage to house trucks in 1936-1937 (Esmay 1936, 5; 1938, 5)

The buildings weren't the only deficiency for the Wyoming National Guard during the interwar period. The Adjutant General also pointed out that in 1930 the average value of furnishings in each of the 47 armories in Massachusetts was more than the combined value of furnishings in all armories in Wyoming (Esmay 1930, 13).

Another facility critical for most troops was a rifle range for training and practice. This need was generally addressed early in the interwar period. By 1940 National Guard units had approximately 4,300 acres dedicated to rifle ranges in the state, including 24



**National Guard armory and stable,  
Newcastle, built 1933-1936**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of  
State Parks and Cultural Resources

targets at Lander, Sheridan, Riverton, Torrington, Douglas, Lovell, Laramie, Wheatland, and Newcastle (Wyoming Adjutant General's Office 1940, XXXIX).

During the interwar period, the Wyoming National Guard generally held two-week summer encampments at Pole Mountain near Laramie until 1937, then at the new permanent training site at Camp Guernsey in 1938 and 1939. As noted above, the Wyoming Guard held its 1940 encampment in Washington State in conjunction with larger forces, and the Wyoming Guard held summer training in some years before 1938 at Fort D.A. Russell.

Pole Mountain is the site of the former Pole Mountain/F.E. Warren Target and Maneuver Area that the military used between 1903 and 1961. The area comprises 62,448 acres located in



**Torrington Armory and Riding Hall, built 1932**  
Photograph courtesy Richard Collier 1995, HABS No. WY-120

Albany County about six miles east of Laramie and 24 miles west of Cheyenne. It is now called the Pole Mountain Division of the Medicine Bow National Forest as part of the Laramie Ranger District (Coyle et al. 1999, S-1).

Federal involvement in the Pole Mountain region of the Medicine Bow National Forest began in 1903 when President Theodore Roosevelt set aside the forest reserve's land, then called the Crow Creek Forest Reserve, for the War Department's use as a military reserve. Military use of the Pole Mountain Reserve was subject to a stipulation that the military activities would not interfere with the objectives of the forest reserve. In 1906 the U.S. Forest Service (USFS) and the War Department entered into joint ownership. At that time, the commanding officer from nearby Fort D.A. Russell, located 20 miles to the east, assumed supervision over the lands that were



used for military activities while the USFS managed all other areas. The War Department also enjoyed the use of Pole Mountain to raise livestock and to retrieve natural resources, such as timber, without compensation to the USFS (Coyle et al. 1999, 4-13).

In 1908 the War Department arranged a land trade by swapping private lands within the reserve for public land outside of the reserve boundaries and restricting the private landowners from establishing private homesteads within the reserve. By that time, the reserve's boundaries encompassed over two million acres and stretched southward into Colorado until the land was split between Wyoming and Colorado. In 1910, by executive order, President Taft gave the War Department control of the entire reserve. The Army renamed the Crow Creek Forest Reserve the Fort D.A. Russell Target and Maneuver Reservation (Coyle et al. 1999, 4-13).



**Wyoming National Guard Machine Gun Company  
Regimental Headquarters Unit, ca. 1924-1926**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

From 1910 until 1925 Pole Mountain Military Reservation continued its joint administration under the USFS and the War Department, with the latter taking on the more dominant role. During this time, Fort D.A. Russell personnel used the site for large-scale Army

war games using as many units as possible including infantry, artillery, and cavalry. Target practice and large-scale maneuvers also took place there. Wyoming National Guard and Guardsmen from neighboring states also conducted annual summer encampments at the reservation (Hutchison 2001, 48).

The War Department denied funding for a permanent Army camp on the reservation citing that the land was not to be used for year-round training or mobilization functions. However, between 1923 and 1925, Congress appropriated \$25,000 for improvements at the camp for the use of the Wyoming National Guard. The Wyoming Adjutant General reported in 1926,

“During the spring of 1925 the federal government appropriated \$10,000 for the first phase of permanent construction at Pole Mountain. ...In order to stimulate interest and promote more efficient training the War Department has authorized the expenditure of certain federal funds to be spread out over a period of years. It is estimated that approximately \$100,000 will be expended at Pole Mountain, Wyoming for the purpose of establishing a permanent camp for the Wyoming National Guard. This area presents the most ideal maneuver ground for all branches of the Army and particularly for the cavalry. Five double kitchens and mess halls have been constructed meeting all the requirements of the War Department. ... From time to time as federal funds become available additional buildings will be constructed to take care of an increased National Guard. A board from the War Department made an inspection of the buildings and site during May 1925 and approve the present construction and recommended the following buildings:

- One Bath House capable of accommodating 50 men at one time
- Five Latrines
- One Administration Building
- One Warehouse

The approximate cost of these buildings would be \$25,000. In 1914 the federal government constructed a reservoir of 100,000-gallon capacity and the water is piped to each mess hall and picket lines.” (Davis 1928, 7. Wyoming Adjutant General’s Office 1940, XXXVI, XXXIX)

In 1925 an executive order from President Coolidge returned all of the reservation’s land to the USFS as the Medicine Bow National Forest with the exception of 3,317 acres retained by the War Department for continued training use by Fort D.A. Russell. In 1930, with the renaming of Fort D.A. Russell to Fort Francis E. Warren in honor of Wyoming’s U.S. Senator, the Army

renamed the Pole Mountain facility the Fort Francis E. Warren Target and Maneuver Reservation (Coyle et al. 1999, 4-14).

In 1931 the Wyoming Adjutant General R.L. Esmay suggested that the existing camp at Pole Mountain was inadequate because the camp's high altitude and cold conditions did not meet federal regulations that required mobilization year round. Because of the National Guard's expanding enrollment during the Depression the existing facilities at Pole Mountain became inadequate for such large numbers of trainees. Consequently, Adjutant General Esmay recommended the construction of a new training camp on a larger site with more favorable year-round conditions (Humstone et al. 2007, 18, 19).

In the summer of 1938 the National Guard moved its training operations to a site near the town of Guernsey in southeast Wyoming and called it Camp Guernsey. Although no facilities existed at the camp yet, the site was attractive for its hilly terrain, abundant water supply, lower and warmer altitude (4,264 to 5,258 feet above sea level), and the large areas of adjacent state-owned land near the camp (Gillen 1990, 86, 127). Explorer John C. Fremont noted in his diary in 1842 that the left bank of the North Platte River through the site would be a good location for a military post, and that the ample timber and rock on the site would provide good building materials. In 1938, 100 years after Fremont observed the site, Camp Guernsey also had the advantage of being located near a major railroad line (Humstone et al. 2007, 19).

The National Guard Bureau provided funding to purchase the site as a permanent training facility in 1939. The WPA, a New Deal public works agency, also provided additional funds for the construction and maintenance of the camp. Included in the acquisition were a garrison area and a firing range located south of the Platte River. The vast acreage allowed for artillery ranges

large enough for the testing of even the U.S. Army's most powerful artillery at the time (Gillen 1990, 86, 127, Wyoming Adjutant General's Office 1940, XXXIX).

Construction at the camp began after the summer training session in 1939. The work commenced using \$126,494 from WPA funding under the War Department's National Defense Project initiative. The WPA grant specified building projects such as mess halls, latrines, warehouses, various infrastructures, and the creation of a quarry for the source of building materials. The National Guard Bureau and the State of Wyoming undertook the project as a joint effort. The collaboration resulted in the state providing the labor force and the National Guard Bureau providing the plans and supervision in the construction (Humstone et al. 2007, 19).

As part of the WPA's program to provide work for the unemployed, 85 workers began building the camp. To keep material costs to a minimum, the WPA obtained materials locally as much as possible. In most cases the WPA made use of a local quarry's buff-colored sandstone as the primary building material. State-owned trucks delivered the rock from the quarry located seven miles from the camp. The quarried sandstone provided excellent building material. The WPA and contractors added facilities at the camp as military activities increased. By 1940 the complex included 13 mess halls, warehouses, latrines, and a camp infirmary (Gillen 1990, 86, 127, Wyoming Adjutant General's Office 1940, XXXIX).

The pace of construction at Camp Guernsey increased in 1940 under the threat of the impending war with Germany. The rush to build more buildings in time for the summer training activities in 1941 prompted the National Guard Bureau to alter design plans to expedite the construction. One significant change was that the stone masonry veneer used for the building changed from random-laid, cut ashlar masonry to un-cut random rubble masonry. This cut construction time by nearly half. As a result, the first phase of building at Camp Guernsey can be

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distinguished from the second phase because of the differences in the masonry patterns (Humstone et al. 2007, 20, 21).

By March 1941 the workers labored a 48-hour work week, and the work force increased to 100 persons. The progress slowed briefly when 50 of the WPA workers relocated to projects at Fort F.E. Warren in Cheyenne in anticipation of the WWII build-up there. By that time Camp Guernsey provided training facilities for troops from Fort F.E. Warren. By July 1941 the cantonment included 21 buildings built under the first phase of the WPA grant and eight more built under a second building phase. Additionally, the facility included more than 169 concrete tent floors for troops, officers, and staff. The second phase of construction included the addition of sidewalks, streets, fences and other landscaping, as well as sewers and other infrastructure (Humstone et al. 2007, 21).

As in most U.S. military installations built after the 1930s, buildings at Camp Guernsey used standardized designs for maximum efficiency in cost and construction. Architects based the Camp Guernsey buildings on Quartermaster General's standardized plans for hundreds of building types developed under the Quartermaster Corps. Building designs were generally utilitarian in style and adaptable for regional styles and available building materials. The plans, coordinated with the goals of the WPA, utilized local unskilled labor and local materials when possible (Humstone et al. 2007, 22).

### **5.3 THE WYOMING NATIONAL GUARD IN WWII, 1940-1946**

The nature of the Wyoming National Guard's federal service in WWII was substantially different than it had been in WWI. The Militia Clause of the U.S. Constitution specifically authorized the National Guard to "... execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions" (U.S. Constitution, Article I, Section 8, Clause 16). By extension, this meant technical disallowance of the National Guard for service outside the United States. Individual

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states commanded their Guard units, usually nominally by the governor under provisions in the respective state constitution. The United States traditionally maintained a relatively small standing Army and Navy, and the draft instituted by the Union during the Civil War had been extremely unpopular. When the need for a large military force arose for the Spanish American War in 1898 and again for WWI, the federal government utilized the National Guard essentially by drafting the individual officers and enlisted soldiers into the U.S. Army. National Guard units were broken up and assigned to whatever regular Army unit needed men, which was highly disagreeable to many Guardsmen.

In 1933 the National Guard Association drafted amendments to the National Defense Act of 1916 that created a double existence for the National Guard. State governors would command the National Guard in time of peace. If Congress declared a state of national emergency, the National Guard became the “National Guard of the United States,” which would be a federally controlled reserve unit of the Army. The President then held the legal authority to order the National Guard into federal service as discrete units rather than essentially drafting individual soldiers and officers to serve with regular Army units. National Guard units could serve outside the United States under the Army Clause of the Constitution, rather than the Militia Clause (Davis 1994, 104).

Although the United States was not yet at war, on July 29, 1940, President Franklin Roosevelt asked Congress for authority to order the National Guard into active service “for such period of intensive training as may be necessary to raise its efficiency to a point comparable with that of our small Regular Establishment.” Congress enacted the necessary legislation and on August 27, 1940 Roosevelt approved Public Resolution No. 96 which authorized him “to order

members and units of reserve components into the active military service of the United States for a period of 12 consecutive months.” (U.S. Department of War 1941).

The National Guard nationwide entered federal service in twenty-two separate increments from September 16, 1940 to June 23, 1941 in order to place as little strain as possible on the American working force; particularly in the industrial sector. When the U.S. officially entered WWII in December 1941, the National Guard represented 75% of the military’s available infantry battalions and 76% of the divisional artillery assets. National Guard divisions were essential to the war effort by providing a core of experienced officers and soldiers to train and lead the massive numbers of new volunteers and draftees (Davis 1994, 110-112).

The Wyoming National Guard entered federal service for WWII in three major steps. On September 16 and October 8, 1940, the State Staff and State Detachment in Cheyenne, the 41<sup>st</sup> Military Police Company in Green River, and Company C of the 116<sup>th</sup> Quartermaster Regiment in Lusk entered federal service. Then the Army reorganized the Wyoming National Guard effective November 1, 1940, including changing the designation to 115<sup>th</sup> Cavalry (H-Mecz) (Heavy-Mechanized), to better align the training and capabilities for inclusion in the broader Army. Finally, the 115<sup>th</sup> Cavalry (H-Mecz) Wyoming National Guard entered federal service on February 24, 1941 (Esmay 1940, 4; 1942, 1).

The Wyoming component of the 41<sup>st</sup> Infantry Division consisted of four officers and 114 enlisted personnel and went to combat in the Pacific; this Division was called the Sunset Division because it was largely composed of National Guard units from the western states. The 116<sup>th</sup> Quartermaster Regiment joined the 41<sup>st</sup> Division, contributing three officers and 78 enlisted men. The headquarters company went to Germany in time to participate in the final push against Germany before VE Day and some Wyoming Guardsmen went to Okinawa after Victory in



**Wyoming National Guard, 115<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Regiment, 1051 Troops  
Fort Lewis, Washington, August 1942**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

Japan (VJ) to serve in the occupation of Japan. However, most of Wyoming's National Guard spent the duration of the war on U.S. soil. The 115<sup>th</sup> Cavalry Regiment, which then numbered 65 officers, one warrant officer, and 1,020 enlisted men, received coastal defense duties in the Pacific Northwest under the Western Defense Command from the declaration of war until 1944, when the unit moved to duty in Southern California. Despite one of the intentions of the 1933 amendments to the National Defense Act of 1916, many members of the Wyoming National Guard transferred to other regiments and divisions as needed (Mason 1995, 113. Larson 1993, 16. Humstone et. al. 2007, 25. Esmay 1942, 1).

As indicated above, the United States began preparing for WWII well in advance of actually declaring war in December 1941. In 1940 the federal government requested each state to organize its citizens into voluntary groups to address certain war efforts that the National Guard might otherwise have addressed. The State Defense Council, authorized by the state legislature in 1941, coordinated many of these activities, including air warning defense, auxiliary police, the



State Guard, fire catastrophe relief, rural range and forest fire fighting, rationing, scrap and salvage, victory gardens, war bond sale assistance, and local emergency labor relief. Throughout the war Wyoming distinguished itself by consistently meeting quotas for salvage of iron and steel scrap, waste paper, and other materials (Esmay 1944, 7).

Wyoming's Adjutant General headed the quasi-federal Office of Civilian Defense, which organized civil defense councils in each of the state's 23 counties. The State Guard was organized under the Office of Civilian Defense in the fall of 1941 with the governor as Commander-in-Chief and the Adjutant General as Chief of Staff. The State Guard essentially replaced the departed National Guard units that had gone into federal service, but at a smaller scale, and many of the State Guard units were located in the same towns as the National Guard units as shown in Table 5-3. Figure 5-2 shows locations of these units.

The Adjutant General created a plan to coordinate the units for statewide mobilization to respond to military or other emergencies. State Guard members served without pay and assembled and drilled in state-owned armories where possible. Some units did not have access to an armory, so they met and drilled in the buildings listed in Table 5-4.

State Guard members put the National Guard firing ranges into working order and practiced with .30 caliber rifles and .45 caliber Thompson submachine guns. In June 1942 the federal government recalled the outdated Enfield rifles and issued to the State Guard 186 single-shot shotguns, 74 repeating riot guns, 90 twelve-gauge repeating shotguns, 16 Thompson submachine guns, and 150 tear gas hand grenades. Some units also obtained 30-40 Kraig rifles which had been a staple firearm for the Army during the Spanish American War. In May 1944 the federal government issued 333 M1 semi-automatic rifles to the Wyoming State Guard along with additional machine guns, automatic rifles, and .22 caliber training attachments for

**Figure 5-2. Wyoming State Guard Units, 1942-1946.**

1. Cheyenne – HQ Troop
2. Sheridan – 1<sup>st</sup> Squadron HQ, B Troop, and Medical Detachment
3. Worland – A Troop 1<sup>st</sup> Platoon
4. Lovell – A Troop, 2<sup>nd</sup> Platoon
5. Casper – 2<sup>nd</sup> Squadron HQ, C Troop 1<sup>st</sup> Platoon, D Troop 1<sup>st</sup> Platoon
6. Riverton – C Troop 2<sup>nd</sup> Platoon
7. Lusk – D Troop 2<sup>nd</sup> Platoon
8. Rock Springs – 3<sup>rd</sup> Squadron HQ, I Troop
9. Kemmerer – K Troop 1<sup>st</sup> Platoon
10. Evanston – K Troop 2<sup>nd</sup> Platoon
11. Torrington – 4<sup>th</sup> Squadron HQ, E Troop
12. Laramie – F Troop

Map courtesy TEC, Inc.

**Table 5-3**  
**State Guard Units 1942**

Unit	Station	Inducted	Authorized	Strength 9/1/42
H.Q. Troop	Cheyenne	11/10/1941	48	42
1 <sup>st</sup> Sqd. Hdq.	Sheridan	10/8/1941	8	6
B Troop	Sheridan	10/8/1941	48	42
Medical Detach.	Sheridan	7/22/1942	24	23
A Troop, 1 <sup>st</sup> Platoon	Worland	1/9/1942	24	23
A Troop, 2 <sup>nd</sup> Platoon	Lovell	1/8/1942	24	14
2 <sup>nd</sup> Sqd. Hdq.	Casper	9/16/1941	8	7
C Troop, 1 <sup>st</sup> Platoon	Casper	9/16/1941	24	23
C Troop, 2 <sup>nd</sup> Platoon	Riverton	10/10/1941	24	21
D Troop, 1 <sup>st</sup> Platoon	Casper	9/16/1941	24	21
D Troop, 2 <sup>nd</sup> Platoon	Lusk	9/16/1941	24	19
3 <sup>rd</sup> Sqd. Hdq.	Rock Springs	12/4/1941	8	8
I Troop	Rock Springs	12/4/1941	48	45
K Troop, 1 <sup>st</sup> Platoon	Kemmerer	12/2/1941	24	22
K Troop, 2 <sup>nd</sup> Platoon	Evanston	12/3/1941	24	24
4 <sup>th</sup> Sqd. Hdq.	Torrington	9/15/1941	8	6
E Troop	Torrington	9/15/1941	48	39
F Troop	Laramie	12/5/1941	48	37

(Esmay 1942, 6)

**Table 5-4**  
**Other State Guard Meeting Sites**

Unit	Building	Town
K Troop, 1 <sup>st</sup> Platoon	Odd Fellows' Hall	Kemmerer
K Troop, 2 <sup>nd</sup> Platoon	High School Gymnasium	Evanston
I Troop	High School Gymnasium	Rock Springs
Headquarters Troop	Episcopal Parish Hall	Cheyenne
Troop A, 1 <sup>st</sup> Platoon	City Municipal Building	Worland

(Esmay 1942, 6, 7)

Browning automatic rifles. The federal government recalled all of the shotguns previously issued to the Wyoming State Guard in August 1944. The federal government also provided ammunition for the various weapons (Esmay 1942, 7; 1944, 4).

State Guard units also occasionally met for group maneuvers. An example of this is when the 3<sup>rd</sup> Squadron including units from Rock Springs, Kemmerer, and Evanston met for a day of combined drill at Old Fort Bridger on August 10, 1942. Attendance at week-end camps was required where regular Army instructors from Fort F.E. Warren provided training to officers and

soldiers. A school established by the Headquarters Squadron provided training to squadron officers in mobilization, establishing camps, interior guard duty, and other subjects. In 1943 fourteen State Guard squadron officers attended ten-day schools at Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri (Esmay 1944, 5).

The Wyoming State Guard experienced difficulty in retaining officers and enlisted men, in part because 28 officers and 370 enlisted men left to join the regular armed services and others left to work at defense industries or simply moved away from the location of the State Guard units. When the National Guard Bureau reconstituted the Wyoming National Guard after the war, very few State Guard members qualified for enlistment or commissioning in the National Guard. In some cases the number of men who left units over the course of the war far exceeded the authorized strength of the units. In all, over 150 officers and 1600 enlisted men served in the Wyoming State Guard from 1941 to 1946 (Esmay 1946, 5).

At the close of WWII, Wyoming could not immediately disband the State Guard because the federal government had not yet established a new National Guard organization. The State Guard assisted in organization and recruiting as Wyoming sought to maximize its opportunities for National Guard units in 1946 and 1947. Wyoming deactivated all of its State Guard units by late 1947, beginning with Troop C, 2<sup>nd</sup> Platoon in Riverton on June 22, 1946 and finishing with the Regimental Headquarters at Torrington on July 1, 1947 (Esmay 1946, 1-2).

Perhaps Wyoming's last WWII service was the prolonged operation of the Selective Service System, which in Wyoming operated under the supervision of the state's Adjutant General. The Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 required all males between 18 and 45 years of age to register at a local (usually county) Selective Service office. A local, volunteer board then reviewed registrations and chose draftees to fill an allotment that generally

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corresponded to the population of that county. During WWII draft boards in Wyoming provided 16,770 men for induction into the armed services. This number matched Wyoming's male population of all ages in the national population. The WWII draft ended on March 31, 1947 (Esmay 1946, 11).

#### **5.4 THE WYOMING NATIONAL GUARD IN THE COLD WAR ERA, 1946-1989**

The War Department initiated studies in early 1945 regarding post-war policies for the National Guard and the Organized Reserves. On October 13, 1945 the Secretary of War approved policies and procedures covering reactivation of the National Guard. The initial plan provided for a greatly expanded National Guard of 500,000 men, constituting 18 infantry divisions. Congress later expanded this plan to include 25 infantry divisions, 20 regimental combat teams, a large number of non-divisional units, and 70 fighter and light bombardment squadrons of air forces, eventually totaling 680,000 officers and enlisted personnel. The plan also included federal financial support for construction and maintenance of armories and other facilities for the National Guard (Esmay 1946, 3).

In a letter dated February 6, 1946, the chief from the National Guard Bureau advised Wyoming Governor Lester Hunt of the tentative allocation of National Guard units for the state and asked the governor to provide information regarding the willingness of the state to raise the troops, proposed dates for activation of units, and suggested numerical designations for the units. The governor quickly responded that Wyoming accepted the allocations, and that Wyoming would try to allocate the units on a regional basis. The National Guard Bureau chose Cheyenne as a preferred location for an air fighter unit, and the governor expressed some difficulty in assigning the unit to Cheyenne because "two or three" other towns besides Cheyenne had expressed interest in having the air fighter unit. The governor requested that the major units carry

somewhat the same historical designations as Wyoming Guard units had had before WWII (Esmay 1946, 6-7).

The February 1946 letter from the chief also warned the governor that “Units which your state is unable to accept may be allotted to another state or to the Organized Reserves.”

Wyoming lost no time recruiting and organizing the allocated units and in fact gained two additional units. On March 31, 1947, Wyoming became the first state to complete reorganization of its postwar National Guard which consisted of the units shown in Table 5-5.

**Table 5-5**  
**Initial Post-WWII National Guard Units in Wyoming**

Station	Unit	Federally Recognized
Cheyenne	187 <sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron	11 August 1946
Cheyenne	187 <sup>th</sup> Utility Flight	11 August 1946
Cheyenne	187 <sup>th</sup> Weather Station	11 August 1946
Cheyenne	Detachment B, 240 <sup>th</sup> Air Service Group	11 August 1946
Casper	HQ & HQ Service Troop, 115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron	19 September 1946
Cheyenne	State HQ & HQ Detachment	25 September 1946
Torrington	960 <sup>th</sup> Ordnance MM Company	10 October 1946
Casper	Troup B, 115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron	18 October 1946
Douglas	Company F, 115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron	28 October 1946
Lusk	Troup E, 115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron	7 November 1946
Newcastle	Battery A, 300 <sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion	16 December 1946
Sheridan	HQ & HQ Battery, 300 <sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion	30 January 1947
Laramie	Troop C, 115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron	13 February 1947
Lowell	Service Battery, 300 <sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion	13 February 1947
Cody	Battery B, 300 <sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion	27 February 1947
Worland	Battery C, 300 <sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion	28 February 1947
Casper	Medical Detachment, 115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron	19 March 1947
Cheyenne	67 <sup>th</sup> Army Band	26 March 1947
Lander-Riverton	Troop A, 115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron	28 March 1947
Sheridan	Medical Detachment, 300 <sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion	21 March 1947

(Esmay 1948, 1)

As a result of this success, another expansion in the planned size of the National Guard nationwide and failure of other states to fill their allotments, Wyoming was allocated additional units in 1947 (shown in Table 5-6 below). Wyoming also won a recruiting campaign to bring the Guard up to its full strength of 88,888 officers and enlisted personnel, Wyoming recruited 263.1% of its quota.

**Table 5-6**  
**Additional Post-WWII National Guard Units in Wyoming**

Station	Unit	Federally Recognized
Thermopolis	Company B, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion	29 October 1947
Evanston	Company A, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion	3 November 1947
Green River	Company C, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion	5 November 1947
Wheatland	Service Company, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion	5 November 1947
Afton	Company D, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion	13 November 1947
Rock Springs	HQ & HQ Company, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion	14 November 1947
Cheyenne	197 <sup>th</sup> Field Artillery Group & HQ Battery	26 June 1948
Laramie	Medical Detachment, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion	1 February 1949
Rawlins	Separate Detachment, Co. C, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion	4 April 1949
Riverton	Separate Detachment, Troop A, 115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron	5 April 1949
Gillette	Separate Detachment, Troop C, 115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron	6 April 1949

(Esmay 1948, 2. 1950, 1)

The Wyoming National Guard redesignated four of these units on February 1, 1949 in the interest of centralization command, as indicated in Table 5-7 (Esmay 1950, 2). This reorganization situated all of the 141<sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion in the southern part of the state, all of the 115<sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron in the central part, and all of the 300<sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion in the northern part of Wyoming.

The National Security Act of 1947 realigned and reorganized the armed forces of the United States, U.S. foreign policy, and the nation's intelligence community. The Act combined the Departments of Army and Navy under a single National Military Establishment and created a new U.S. Air Force out of the Army Air Corps. Each of the service branches initially had quasi-

cabinet positions, but an amendment in August 1949 formally created the Department of Defense and subordinated the secretaries of the three branches under the Secretary of Defense. The Air National Guard would thereafter be a reserve component of the Air Force and the Army National Guard, still formally the National Guard, would be a reserve component of the Army. The National Security Act of 1947 also created the Central Intelligence Agency and the National Security Council. President Truman signed the Act into law while aboard the presidential airplane Sacred Cow, which was a precursor of Air Force One (Doubler 2003). Section 5.5 further discusses the history of the Wyoming Air National Guard.

In general, National Guard units operated much as pre-WWII units had in Wyoming. The ground units participated in weekly drills and training at local armories and they attended two-week camps at either Camp Carson, now Fort Carson, in Colorado or Camp Guernsey, Wyoming (Wyoming Army National Guard 2000, 1). The air units also attended weekly drills and training at the Cheyenne Municipal Airport and the 187<sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron held its first postwar field training camp there in August 1948 with 197 officers and men in attendance. Both ground and air units also participated in non-military activities including fire-fighting during a devastating conflagration that destroyed a large section of Laramie's business district in April 1948. During

**Table 5-7**  
**Reassignment of Units, February 1949**

<b>Location</b>	<b>Original Designation</b>	<b>New Designation</b>
Newcastle	Battery A, 300 <sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion	Troop C, 115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron
Laramie	Troop C, 115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron	HQ & HQ Company, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion
Rock Springs	HQ & HQ Company, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion	Company B, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion
Thermopolis	Company B, 141 <sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion	Battery A, 300 <sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion

(Esmay 1950, 2)



and after a blizzard of unprecedented severity in January 1949, Guard air and ground units rescued 125 to 150 persons and delivered food, medicine, and other supplies to stranded persons. The tanks of the ground units operated effectively through the large snow drifts and fierce wind. In February 1950, air and ground units delivered 4,415 sacks of potatoes, 62 cartons of dried eggs, and 286 barrels of dried milk to 22,075 needy people who had been affected by a prolonged coal miner strike in Sheridan, Hot Springs, Sweetwater, Carbon and Lincoln counties (Esmay 1950, 14). The Wyoming Guard continued to provide emergency response and relief services throughout the Cold War era, often fire fighting or search-and-rescue operations for stranded or lost citizens as well as quelling riots or providing security for moving prisoners.

Most of the armories and other facilities of the Wyoming National Guard were outdated or otherwise inadequate for the large, mechanized ground units and new air units after WWII. By 1948 the National Guard had converted cavalry horse stables to mechanized storage and shop facilities at Torrington, Douglas, Casper, Lander, and Laramie, and the Guard was conducting similar conversion at Lovell, Sheridan, and Newcastle, all at state expense (Esmay 1948, 3). The federal government generally contributed 75% and the state 25% of the cost of construction of new armories. However, the federal government entirely funded many post-WWII construction projects for buildings that were ancillary to the armories.

By 1948 the federal government allocated funding for an 80'x300' motor vehicle storage building, alteration and lighting of a shop building, construction of a 52'x110' warehouse, completion of a target range, and other miscellaneous repair work at Camp Guernsey. The federal government also provided funding for construction of a motor vehicle storage building at Casper and construction of a 140'x160' hangar and temporary, pre-fabricated buildings for use

of the 187<sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron at Cheyenne, then delayed as the Guard negotiated with the City and United Airlines for use of the large WWII Modification Center (Esmay 1948, 4).

The State of Wyoming tried desperately to provide suitable facilities for the new National Guard units, in fear the National Guard Bureau would take away those units. State construction projects initiated in 1947 at Worland and Cody provided temporary armory and storage facilities, consisting of 40'x100' prefabricated Butler steel buildings. The National Guard added a similar 40'x80' motor vehicle storage and shop addition to the existing armory at Lusk and purchased the American Legion Hall at Wheatland to provide temporary facilities. Wyoming's 29<sup>th</sup> Legislature had also provided funding for completion of armories at Newcastle, Lovell, Riverton, Lander, and Laramie. Due to rising prices for materials and labor, the funding was insufficient for any of those projects and the Wyoming Adjutant General decided to forego all construction at those locations until the legislature could provide adequate funding. The state constructed a temporary frame and steel armory at Evanston and purchased a Quonset type building at Cody in 1950 to provide a temporary armory. Federal funding provided for construction of a concrete block motor vehicle storage building at Thermopolis and alterations to the Modification Center hangar at Cheyenne Municipal Airport, which the state had obtained for use by the Air National Guard in February 1949 (Esmay 1948, 5. 1950, 9, 10).

The Wyoming National Guard again entered active federal duty in 1950 for service during the Korean Conflict. That war grew out of an agreement between the United States and the Soviet Union regarding defeat of the Japanese and post-WWII occupation of the Korean Peninsula. According to the agreement, Soviet forces would accept the surrender of Japanese forces north of the 38<sup>th</sup> Parallel; American forces would accept the surrender of Japanese forces south of that demarcation. The country would then be reunified after four years. Beginning in

1945, Soviet and American forces helped set up governments in their respective portions of the peninsula that were favorable to the political philosophies of the respective occupying forces. After determining that the United States would not allow reunification under a communist government, Korean forces from north of the 38<sup>th</sup> Parallel invaded to the south on June 25, 1950. The United States responded by sponsoring a resolution in the United Nations condemning the invasion and authorizing military action.

The United States had vastly decreased its standing Army after WWII, and it quickly began to call National Guard units to active federal duty for the Korean Conflict. More than 130,000 National Guard troops eventually entered federal service during the Korean Conflict. The 300<sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion of the Wyoming Guard entered federal service on August 19, 1950 and departed for Fort Lewis, Washington on August 29, 1950 with 32 officers, seven warrant officers, and 339 enlisted men. The 141<sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion entered federal service on September 11, 1950 for Fort Campbell, Kentucky with 36 officers, five warrant officers, and 374 enlisted men (Esmay 1950, 3). The 141<sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion did not deploy overseas and was released from federal service on January 17, 1955 (Listman 1998, n.p.).

Commanded by LTC John F. Raper, Jr., and equipped with M-7 self-propelled 105mm howitzers, the 300<sup>th</sup> underwent several months of training at Fort Lewis. In December 1950, the battalion was named Outstanding Artillery Battalion by the Sixth Army Combat Readiness Evaluation inspection team. Upon arriving at Pusan, Korea on 15 February, the battalion joined the Eighth Army and underwent further training. On 15 May, the 300<sup>th</sup> conducted its first fire mission against the enemy in support of the 2<sup>nd</sup> Infantry Division around Soyang. In heavy fighting that lasted over a week, the 300<sup>th</sup> fought against an onslaught of twelve Chinese divisions. In one twenty-four hour period, A and C Batteries fired 7,200 rounds. For its actions

around Soyang and Hongchon, the Wyoming unit earned its first Presidential Unit Citation (Berebitsky 1996, 124).

The 300<sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion remained in Korea for the remainder of the war, taking part in battles at the Punchbowl, Bunker Hill, Bloody Ridge, and Heartbreak Ridge. In the final weeks of the conflict, the 300<sup>th</sup> earned a second Presidential Unit Citation for actions at Kumsong. In all, the 300<sup>th</sup> fired 514,036 105 mm howitzer rounds in 805 days of combat. The soldiers of the 300<sup>th</sup> earned 12 Silver Stars, 63 Bronze Stars, and numerous other medals. In addition to two Presidential Unit Citations, the battalion earned a Meritorious Unit Citation and two Republic of Korea Presidential Unit Citations. Eight soldiers from the 300<sup>th</sup> were killed in action and another 175 wounded. The Department of Defense memorialized the unit's actions at Soyang in 1983 in a painting hung in the Pentagon as part of the National Guard Heritage Painting Series (Berebitsky 1996, 124-129. Wyoming Army National Guard n.d.). The United Nations and the North Koreans agreed to a cease-fire on July 27, 1953, but a treaty ending the conflict was never signed.

To replace the 300<sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion and the 141<sup>st</sup> Tank Battalion during the Korean Conflict, the National Guard Bureau offered Wyoming the allotment of the 197<sup>th</sup> Armored Cavalry Group, the 115<sup>th</sup> Tank Battalion, and the 117<sup>th</sup> Tank Battalion. The resulting units included re-designated units and one new unit, as shown in Table 5-8 below. The Department of Defense officially recognized this new organization on September 1, 1950.

The Wyoming National Guard (Army) underwent multiple reorganizations as a result of the return of Guardsmen from the Korean Conflict and the general expansion of the National Guard in Wyoming and nationwide throughout the 1950s. By the end of 1954, the Wyoming National Guard established most of the unit designations that remained throughout the 1950s and

**Table 5-8**  
**Wyoming Army Guard Units 1950**

New Unit	Former Designation	Station
197 <sup>th</sup> Armored Cavalry Group	197 <sup>th</sup> Field Artillery Group	Cheyenne
HQ & HQ Service Company, Armored Cavalry Group	HQ & HQ Battery, 197 <sup>th</sup> Field Artillery Battalion	Cheyenne
115 <sup>th</sup> Tank Battalion, Heavy, HQ Company	115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron, Reconnaissance Squadron, HQ & HQ Service Troop	Casper & Various
Medical Detachment	115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron Medical Detachment	Casper
Company A	115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron, Troop A less Separate Detachment	Lander
Company B	115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron, Troop B	Lander
Company C	115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron, Separate Detachment Troop A	Riverton
117 <sup>th</sup> Tank Battalion, Heavy	115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron	Casper & Various
HQ & HQ Company	115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron, Company F	Douglas
Medical Detachment	None	Douglas
Company A	115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron, Troop C, less Separate Detachment	Newcastle
Company B	115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron, Troop E	Lusk
Company C	115 <sup>th</sup> Mechanized Cavalry Reconnaissance Squadron, Separate Detachment Troop C	Gillette

(Esmay 1950, 4)

1960s. On March 1, 1951 the two tank battalions reorganized as the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> Battalions of the 115<sup>th</sup> Armored Cavalry. In January 1953 the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> Battalions converted to the 349<sup>th</sup> and the 350<sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalions. The 300<sup>th</sup> unit returned to state control on September 17, 1954. In August 1959 the 300<sup>th</sup>, 349<sup>th</sup>, and 350<sup>th</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalions consolidated with the 351<sup>st</sup> Armored Field Artillery Battalion forming the 49<sup>th</sup> Artillery (Wyoming Army National Guard 2000, xiii). In 1960 the Wyoming Army Guard consisted of the units shown in Table 5-9.

**Table 5-9**  
**Wyoming Army Guard Units 1960**

Unit	Station
HQ & HQ Detachment	Cheyenne
67 <sup>th</sup> Army Band	Cheyenne
960 <sup>th</sup> Ordnance Company	Torrington
114 <sup>th</sup> District HQ (Labor Supervisor)	Douglas
115 <sup>th</sup> District HQ (Labor Supervisor)	Douglas
HQ & HQ Battery, 115 <sup>th</sup> Artillery Group	Cheyenne
HQ & HQ Battery, 1 <sup>st</sup> Howitzer Battalion, 49 <sup>th</sup> Artillery	Sheridan
Battery A	Lovell
Battery B	Cody
Battery C	Worland
Service Battery	Thermopolis
Medical Detachment	Sheridan
HQ & HQ Battery, 2 <sup>nd</sup> Howitzer Battalion, 49 <sup>th</sup> Artillery	Laramie
Battery A	Rawlins
Battery B	Rock Springs
Battery C	Evanston
Service Battery	Wheatland
Medical Detachment	Laramie
HQ & HQ Battery, 3rd Howitzer Battalion, 49 <sup>th</sup> Artillery	Casper
Battery A	Newcastle
Battery B	Casper
Battery C	Riverton
Service Battery	Douglas
Medical Detachment	Casper
HQ & HQ Company, 1022 <sup>nd</sup> Engineering Battalion	Laramie
Company A	Afton
1 <sup>st</sup> Platoon, Company A	Lander
Company B	Powell
1 <sup>st</sup> Platoon, Company B	Gillette
Company C	Cheyenne
1 <sup>st</sup> Platoon, Company C	Lusk

(Esmay 1960, 12)

The Army Guard in Wyoming grew steadily in total strength throughout the 1950s. On June 30, 1952 the Army Guard had 98 officers, 21 warrant officers, and 594 enlisted personnel; on September 30, 1958 the Army Guard had 180 officers, 31 warrant officers, and 1,437 enlisted personnel (Esmay 1952, 4. 1960, 12). As is indicated in Table 5-9, the state distributed Army Guard units to nearly every town of substantial size in Wyoming, and only four counties in the state did not have at least one Army Guard unit.

The Korean Conflict demonstrated a need for fully trained combat units that could respond quickly to a crisis anywhere in the world and for “flexible response” to threats ranging from guerilla warfare to nuclear attack. Training requirements for National Guard units increased, including requirements for Guard units to train on active Army bases, in part to build a more solid working relationship between active Army and Guard personnel. The improved readiness of the Guard became clear when Congress authorized a call up of up to 250,000 Guardsmen in response to the Soviet Union’s construction of the Berlin Wall on July 31, 1961. Army National Guard units in 38 states activated for combat deployment by early October 1961, although no Guard units actually deployed overseas (Doubler 2003, 217, 219).

The struggle that became known to Americans as the Vietnam War began somewhat similarly to the Korean War more than a decade earlier: a nation divided in 1954 between Russian and American affiliated political groups, failed attempts at peaceful re-unification in part because of U.S. refusal to allow a communist takeover by popular election, and eventual invasion of South Vietnam by North Vietnamese troops. The United States began aid to southern Vietnam in 1950 and overt military involvement in 1961, when President Kennedy sent military advisors to help train and direct South Vietnam’s forces. In following years, President Johnson vastly expanded U.S. support to South Vietnam; 190,000 U.S. troops were in Vietnam by 1966 and 550,000 U.S. troops were there at the height of U.S. participation in 1969 (Anonymous, 2009). The United States inducted almost 23,000 Army and Air National Guard personnel for a year of active federal duty during the war, and approximately 8,700 of these personnel were deployed to Vietnam. Wyoming Army Guard units apparently did not deploy to Vietnam, but Wyoming ANG’s F-100 fighter squadron deployed to Phan Rang Air Base, Vietnam for eleven

months in 1968-1969 (153<sup>rd</sup> Airlift Wing 2006, n.p). The United States began withdrawing its forces from Vietnam in 1973 and the nation ultimately reunited under communist rule in 1975.

The National Guard has always had a “militia” responsibility to assist in



**Wyoming National Guardsmen Building Pontoon Bridge, date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

domestic law enforcement and disaster relief. The Military Support of Civil Authority program, instituted in 1965, nominally strengthened this responsibility. Congress intended this program to assist the civilian population in survival of a nuclear attack, and it gave state governors wide-ranging authority for use of National Guard troops. During the Vietnam War, state governors repeatedly called on the National Guard to control or quell rioting related to opposition to the war or the civil rights movement. This situation resulted in erosion of trust in the National Guard from some segments of the public, most noticeably after members of the Ohio National Guard shot and killed four protestors at Kent State University on May 4, 1970. Wyoming Governor Stanley Hathaway instituted a plan in December 1967 in which the Guard would activate when “tumult, riot, mob or body of people acting with force would attempt a felony or offer violence to persons or property or attempt to break or resist laws of the state” (Esmay 1970,12). However,



the Guard's domestic chores in Wyoming throughout the Vietnam War remained much as they had always been, which was mainly responding to natural disasters.

The Wyoming Army Guard built or bought additional armories after WWII to



**Wyoming National Guardsmen Transporting Artillery Rounds, ca. 1960s**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

house new or expanded units. Many were prefabricated, surplus buildings that the Guard intended to use as temporary quarters for Guard units. The Army Guard began replacing its armories in 1956 to accommodate the modern needs of the units. The Wyoming Guard replaced nearly every armory in the state by the end of the Cold War era in 1989, as indicated in Table 5-10 below. The state named many of the new armories for local Guardsmen who had distinguished themselves in combat in WWII and the Korean Conflict.

The Wyoming Army Guard held its first post-WWII field camp at Camp Carson in Colorado in 1948; thereafter the Guard held its annual training at Camp Guernsey, also known as the Camp Guernsey Concentration Center. The Guard steadily improved and expanded Camp Guernsey during the Cold War era, and it became the best artillery training facility in the fifteen states that comprised the Fifth United States Army Area. By 1960 the main camp area included

**Table 5-10**  
**Construction of Armories During the Cold War Era**

Armory	Location	Construction Date
Cody Armory (temporary)	Cody	1950
Evanston Armory (temporary)	Evanston	1950
Gillette Armory	Gillette	1952-1953; 1982
Rock Springs Armory	Rock Springs	1954
Afton Armory	Afton	1957
Donald L. Dewees Armory	Laramie	1959
Newcastle Armory	Newcastle	1960
Baird-Harston Armory	Lovell	1961
Myron Burt Armory	Cody	1962
Wheatland Armory	Wheatland	1963
Friedland-Garcia Armory	Worland	1963
Cheyenne Armory/ Headquarters	Cheyenne	1966
Lt. Hardy V. Ratliff Armory	Casper	1970
MSgt. Francis T. Taylor Jr. Armory	Evanston	1970
Lander Armory	Lander	1974
Maj. Gen. George O. Pearson Armory	Sheridan	1978
John M. Pivak Armory	Rock Springs	1979
Kevin Rickert Armory	Powell	1983
Major General James Spence Armory	Guernsey	1984
Cheyenne Armory	Cheyenne	1992
C.R. Gomez Armory	Torrington	1998
First Sgt. R.J. Anthony Armory	Douglas	Unknown, After 1989

(Esmay 1950, 4. 1952, 9. 1954, 7. Wyoming Cultural Resource Information System 2008)

48 buildings and 300 concrete tent pads. The buildings included an officer's club, a non-commissioned officer's club, an enlisted men's day room and lounge, and a post exchange. The outlying artillery range covered about 25,000 acres, consisting of an area of about 5,000 acres south of the camp and the main artillery range of 20,000 acres about 14 miles north of the camp. The camp could accommodate 2,000 trainees at a time. Camp Guernsey provided a training facility for National Guard troops from several states; in three months of 1960, approximately 7,500 troops from five states trained there (Esmay 1960, 6). At times, both the Wyoming Air National Guard and Regular Army troops also trained at this location.

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## **5.5 THE WYOMING AIR NATIONAL GUARD IN THE COLD WAR ERA, 1946-1989**

The U.S. Air National Guard (ANG) grew out of the planning and politics of the U.S. Air Force during and immediately following WWII. Earlier, the Army Air Corps (AAC, later the Army Air Force between 1941 and 1947) used military aircraft for bombing and pursuit training missions between WWI and WWII. During this period, the Army formed as many as 29 observation squadrons nationwide, which the Army primarily used for reconnaissance to support ground troops. The growing threat of the German Air Force prompted the U.S. War Department to expand U.S. military air power between 1939 and 1941. The pre-war Army air squadrons went on to participate in WWII and eight additional observation squadrons were created during the war (John G. Gross, personal communication 1995).

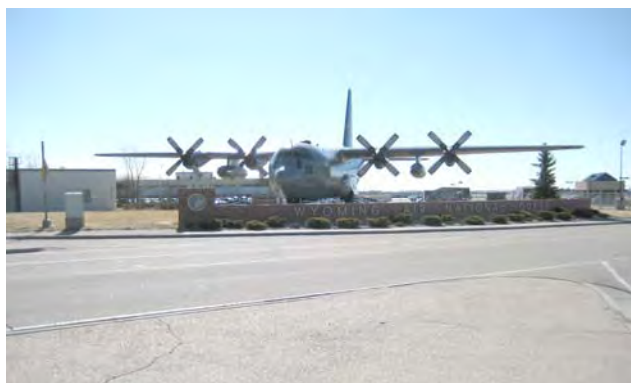
The 1947 National Defense Act and 1949 amendments created the Department of Defense (DOD) to replace the War Department and established the U.S. Air Force in replacement of the Army Air Force. It also officially established the ANG within the Air Force as a separate Air Defense Command aviation program consisting of fighter squadrons dispersed throughout the continental U.S. The Air Force assigned to the Air Defense Command responsibility for homeland defense, and the ANG became the key element for aircraft defense of the nation. For political reasons, the new ANG assigned at least one aviation squadron to each state. On June 30, 1946 Colorado's 120<sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron became the first federally recognized ANG aviation unit to be fully organized; other states were quick to follow. In practice, establishing the ANG units proved challenging as many states struggled to organize effective squadrons. The ANG nationwide faced personnel shortages and budget battles between the ANG and the Air Force during its infancy (Weitze 1999, 61-65).

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Wyoming organized its Air National Guard in 1946 under the same directive from the National Guard Bureau that provided for organization of the Guard ground forces. In February 1946, the National Guard Bureau preliminarily allotted National Guard units to Wyoming, including an air fighter unit to be located in Cheyenne. Governor Hunt responded that the state would accept all allocated units and would try to spread the units throughout the state. However, he indicated that the location of the single air fighter unit was contentious.

We may have some difficulty in the matter of allocation of the air unit, as there are two or three other towns in addition to Cheyenne which have expressed very strong interest in air units. However, we shall go along with the War Department's express desire and allocate the Air Fighter Unit to Cheyenne as our first priority unit. We will start the organization of this unit at any time you may wish to authorize us to do so (Hunt 1946).

Organization of the air unit became the first priority among all of the National Guard units allotted to Wyoming, and it was accomplished under the direction of Lt. Colonel Robert N. Maupin, an Army Air Force instructor and technical advisor. On August 11, 1946 the 187<sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron became one of the first four in the nation to be federally recognized. Located at the Cheyenne Municipal Airport, the Wyoming ANG then consisted of 187<sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron, the 187<sup>th</sup> Utility Flight, the 187<sup>th</sup> Weather Station, and Detachment B of the 240<sup>th</sup> Air Service Group (Esmay 1946, 7. 1948, 1). The Air Force equipped these units by 1948 to operate and support 27 aircraft, although it is unknown if the Wyoming Air Guard actually received all of these aircraft at that time. The assigned aircraft at that time were one L-5 trainer, four T-6



**Wyoming ANG entrance displays, Cheyenne**  
Photographs courtesy of TolTest, Inc.

trainers, three B-26 bombers/transport, two C-47 transports, and seventeen F-51 fighters (Esmay 1948, 7).

The National Guard Bureau may have designated the location of the ANG at the Cheyenne airport on the mistaken belief of availability of the WWII Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10, which had finished B-17 bombers. However, in August 1945 the City of Cheyenne leased the former Modification Center to United Airlines for commercial use. Initially, the lease only included Building 101, an aircraft hangar and Building 102, a heating facility. By December 1945, the City and United Airlines expanded the lease to include all of the associated Modification Center buildings, and United Airlines began to occupy the buildings on January 1, 1946. However, by 1947 United Airlines began relocating its maintenance facilities and flight training operations from Cheyenne to San Francisco and Denver. United Airlines then moved its headquarters for training flight attendants to the Modification facilities (Rosenberg 1985, 9, 10. 153<sup>rd</sup> Airlift Wing 2006).

The Wyoming ANG first operated out of several wood-frame buildings along Prairie Avenue in Cheyenne and in an aircraft hangar at the southwest side of the Cheyenne airport. In 1948 the City of Cheyenne began leasing the property to the Wyoming ANG (Field 1989, 114). In the summer of 1948, the 187<sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron held its first summer training at their small headquarters under adverse conditions described by Adjutant General R. L. Esmay (capitalization, grammar and punctuation are Esmay's):

“The 187<sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron, Wyoming Air National Guard, held its first Postwar Field Training Camp at Cheyenne Municipal Airport, August 15<sup>th</sup> to 29<sup>th</sup>, 1948. Approximately 197 officers and men were in attendance. The training of our Air National Guard Units included individual, basic, and specialist training for the Ground and Service Crews and individual and formation combat flying, rocket and bombing training for the fighter pilots ... Our Air National Guard Units carried on an active and progressive training program from its original organization. This training was carried on under very adverse base facilities. High hopes initially existed that we might secure hangar, shop and other

essential facilities in the war built Cheyenne Modification Center, but every effort failed, and finally collapsed completely when these facilities were leased for Commercial Airline use by the City of Cheyenne without any reservations for military use or occupancy...Their work has been marred by one fatal accident. On May 22, 1948, Captain Carey R. Alburn, Jr. crashed in an F-51 Fighter Aircraft, which failed to recover from a routine combat maneuver.” (Esmay 1948, 6-7)

The Wyoming ANG unit relocated to the north side of the Cheyenne Municipal Airport where it subleased the former United Airlines Modification Center Building 116 from the City of Cheyenne in 1950. The ANG continued to share Building 116 with the United Airlines’ school for stewardess training until 1961, when the school permanently relocated to Chicago. In 1952 the City of Cheyenne leased Modification Building 101, the four nose hangers, and the heating facility to Land-Air, Inc., a company that contracted to modify military planes (Centennial Historical Committee 1967, 81).

Although the Wyoming ANG continued to fly P-51 aircraft, the Air Guard redesignated the 187<sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron as a Fighter Bomber Squadron in May 1951, and the unit remained so designated during its involvement in the Korean War (Field 1989, 115. 153<sup>rd</sup> Airlift Wing 2006).



**Wyoming Air National Guard Hangar (Building 12)**

Photograph courtesy National Guard Bureau

The Wyoming ANG received its first jet aircraft in 1953 with the addition of the F-80 “Shooting Star,” which the Air Force had flown during the Korean War. The Air Guard lengthened runways at Cheyenne Municipal Airport to accommodate the faster aircraft (Centennial Historical Committee 1967).

One of the towns originally interested in obtaining the ANG units was Casper, where an extensive Army Air Corps airfield complex, training facilities, and field practice ranges already existed. When the Department of Defense scheduled Casper Army Airfield and Split Rock Gunnery Range for closure and demolition in 1948, Roy “Bud” Cooper recognized their potential value for ANG training and commercial airport use. He prevailed in transferring the facilities to Natrona County for later use as the Natrona County Airport. Cooper was a decorated WWII fighter pilot, a founding officer of the Wyoming Air National Guard, and a combat pilot during the Vietnam War. In 1961 the Air Force promoted him to brigadier general, and he thus became Wyoming ANG’s first general officer (Wyoming Department of Transportation 2006).

The Wyoming ANG first conducted two weeks of summer field training at the Casper Air Force Base in June 1949 including air-to-air gunnery, air-to-ground gunnery, and ground control interception missions. On January 1, 1953 the National Guard Bureau authorized a permanent training site at the Casper air facility, in part to allow multiple ANG units to train at a suitable location without the cost of transporting support equipment from home bases to training sites. The federal government leased about 185 acres from Natrona County, including 149 buildings. They immediately began rehabilitation of the facilities, installation of equipment, and hiring of supply and operations personnel. In June 1953 the Wyoming ANG joined fellow 140<sup>th</sup> Fighter Bomber Wing units from Colorado and New Mexico in 15 days of training at the former Casper Army Airfield for both F-51 propeller driven fighters and the new F-80 Shooting Star jet aircraft.

Also training at that location in 1953 were ANG units from Oklahoma, Kansas, Missouri, Iowa, and Nebraska. ANG units from several states continued to train at the Casper facility until the 1960s (Esmay 1954, 11-12. John Goss, personal communication 2008).

The ANG equipped the Casper facility to support a complete air wing of 2,400 personnel with an authorized complement of 13, including two full-time maintenance personnel. In 1954, the Casper facility included a mess hall designed to accommodate 952 at one seating, a complete machine shop, a complete carpenter shop, a motor maintenance shop, an infirmary building with X-ray equipment, a photo laboratory, a theater building seating 800 persons, a gymnasium, a fire station, and a water system with 175,000 gallon capacity. All civilian employees trained in several jobs due to the limited number of personnel allocated for the training site (Esmay 1954, 12-13).

The Wyoming ANG entered federal service for the Korean Conflict on April 1, 1951. Officers and airmen went to Clovis Air Force Base in New Mexico for training prior to deployment to Korea. Eighteen Wyoming ANG pilots flew more than 1,500 combat missions in the following year and eight pilots were killed in action. The squadron left active federal duty on December 18, 1952 (153<sup>rd</sup> Airlift Wing 2006, n.p.).

The ANG redesignated the Squadron as a Fighter Interceptor Squadron (FIS) to reflect the unit's change in aircraft in 1956. In 1958 the 187<sup>th</sup> FIS became an all-weather fighting group and gained the F-86L "Sabre" aircraft for the new mission. The Squadron expanded to become the 153<sup>rd</sup> Fighter Interceptor Group. On January 1, 1959, the 153<sup>rd</sup> Fighter Interceptor Group began a 24-hour runway alert mission in which five aircrews would "scramble" for takeoff within five minutes (Field 1989, 115).



Throughout the mission changes, the ANG constructed only one new building at the Wyoming ANG base, a vehicle maintenance facility, Building 14, built in the late 1950s (153<sup>rd</sup> Airlift Wing 2006, n.p.). For all of the functions at the installation, the Wyoming ANG continued to make use of the former United Airlines Modification Center's buildings (Schomig 2007, 16).

Wyoming ANG experienced numerous mission changes throughout the 1960s. The 153<sup>rd</sup> Fighter Interceptor Group became the 187<sup>th</sup> Aeromedical Transport Squadron in 1961, and its mission changed to medical airlift. C-119 "Flying Boxcar" transport planes replaced fighter aircraft for the new mission. The 187<sup>th</sup> Aeromedical Transport Squadron became the 153<sup>rd</sup> Air Transport Group during the early part of the Vietnam War, providing general transport services. The group eventually returned to a medical mission when it became the 153<sup>rd</sup> Aeromedical Airlift Group in 1968 (Field 1989, 116).



**Air Guard Refueling at Cheyenne, date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

In July 1972 the Wyoming ANG returned to flying jets. The National Guard Bureau redesignated 153<sup>rd</sup> Aeromedical Airlift Group as the 153<sup>rd</sup> Tactical Airlift Group, and the Air Force provided the unit with large C-130B “Hercules” transport aircraft. In 1975 the unit began aerial firefighting using the Modular Airborne Firefighting System, which was a pioneering mission at that time. The unit continued its firefighting mission throughout the late 1970s.

In 1975 the roof over the north end of the aerial port, Building 12, collapsed. No one was injured in the event, and the ANG restored the building to its original parabolic shape in a little under a year (Field 1989, 116). A devastating tornado struck the city of Cheyenne and the base in July 1979, extensively damaging ANG facilities and aircraft. The storm ripped large hangar doors off their hinges, and the doors were never found. The storm blew a plane into the front of Building 12. The installation quickly repaired the damage, including the impact to Building 12.

The Air Guard funded a period of construction in the late 1970s and early 1980s to support the 153<sup>rd</sup> Tactical Airlift Group, adding a total of four additional buildings to the station, Buildings 25, 26, 27, and 32. The ANG removed all of the WWII-era United Airlines Modification Center buildings in the late 1980s and early 1990s, the WWII era maintenance hangar, Building 16, and its adjacent contemporary heating facility, Building 17. The most substantial building removed from the site was the double hangar that had been a principal component of the



**Wyoming Air National Guard Dropping Hay to Stranded Cattle, 1980**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

Modification Center. The ANG sponsored recording of the buildings of the former Modification Center to standards of the Historic American Engineering Record (HAER) in compliance with a Memorandum of Agreement with the State Historic Preservation Officer (Air National Guard 2001, *passim*. Rosenberg 1985). In 1987, the ANG placed a 1952 F-84 fighter jet on permanent display next to the new gate (Field 1989, 116).

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## **CHAPTER 6 – ARMY, NAVY, AND AIR FORCE RESERVES IN WYOMING, 1920-1989**

### **6.1 ORIGINS AND SERVICE BEFORE 1920**

The reserve forces of the U.S. currently consist of the Army National Guard, the Air Force National Guard, the Army Reserve, the Naval Reserve, the Marine Corps Reserve, and the Coast Guard Reserve. The previous chapter addresses Army National Guard and Air Force National Guard in Wyoming; Army and Naval Reserve units and Army and Air Force Reserve Officers Training Corps units also served in Wyoming during the 1920-1989 period.

The term and concept of “reserve forces” evolved during the early 20th century. The U.S. traditionally followed a policy of maintaining a relatively small standing Army and Navy, and the Constitution precluded the use of state militias for military actions outside the boundaries of the U.S. The U.S. began assuming a role as a world power in 1898, when it went to war with Spain on a world-wide basis. The realities of that war, the ensuing insurrection in the Philippines, and the 1916 invasion of Mexico in pursuit of bandit/revolutionary Pancho Villa illustrated the need for either a much larger and more expensive standing Army and Navy or a trained reserve force that could be relatively quickly pressed into military action in conjunction with the standing armed forces. The Army incorporated state militias into regular Army forces during and after the Spanish American War, but the Army treated the militia troops as conscripts. The training and equipment of the state militias were generally inadequate and inconsistent with

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those of regular Army soldiers and officers. Training of raw recruits for either the regular armed forces or the militias took many months.

Congress took the first step in establishing reserve forces in 1908, when it authorized organization of a Medical Reserve Corps to prepare a ready cadre of trained officers and medical personnel for military service in time of war (U.S. Army Reserves 2008). WWI began in Europe in 1914, and although the U.S. maintained neutrality in the conflict until 1917, the question of preparedness for war in part led to the passage of the National Defense Act of 1916. That Act and 1920 amendments created the National Guard as a reserve component of the U.S. Army, the Organized Reserves consisting of the Officers Reserve Corps and the Enlisted Reserves Corps, and the Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC). The Organized Reserves became the Organized Reserve Corps in 1948. In 1952 the Department of Defense designated these forces as the Army, Naval, Marine, and Air Force Reserves, and the Army Reserve consisted of the Ready Reserve, Standby Reserve, and Retired Reserve by 1955 (U.S. Army Reserves 2008, n.p. Answers.com 2008).

Under these reorganizations, the regular Army and the National Guard are considered to be the nation's first line of defense, and the Organized Reserves are considered to be the second line. Unlike the National Guard, the Organized Reserves receive funding exclusively from the federal government. The Organized Reserves did not initially place a huge burden on the national treasury, because Reserves personnel largely served as volunteers, with two weeks of training once every two to three years. Many colleges and high schools adopted the ROTC program, with Reserves officers serving as instructors and administrators.

## **6.2 THE ARMY RESERVES IN WYOMING, 1920-1989**

The U.S. Army organized the U.S. Army Reserve, 96<sup>th</sup> Regional Support Command, which includes the State of Wyoming, as part of the "National Army" on October 20, 1918 at

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Camp Wadsworth, South Carolina. However, the 96<sup>th</sup> was one of the last divisions formed, and the armistice of November 1918 prevented its deployment to Europe. Demobilized in January 1919, the command never exceeded 3,300 officers and men (U.S. Army Reserves 2008).

Disarray and poor organization during WWI resulted in the reevaluation of the Organized Reserve program. The Army instituted the Army Reserve Board to provide oversight for the Reserve forces. It functioned within the Department of War and provided training and structure for the Reserves. The Army reconstituted the 96<sup>th</sup> Division in the Organized Reserves on June 24, 1921 at Portland, Oregon, as part of IX Corps. During the 1920s and 1930s, the 96<sup>th</sup> conducted annual training for its own soldiers. Unfortunately, the underfunded and loosely organized program saw little improvement outside of formal training. The Army Reserves generally operated with substandard training facilities, generally consisting of donated or rented spaces such as church offices, bowling alleys, and beer halls with no room for equipment storage. The Army only provided pay for two weeks of training per year (Crane et al. 2001a, 35).

President Roosevelt utilized the ready pool of trained Reserves personnel to support welfare programs during the Great Depression. Over 30,000 Organized Reserve Officers gained leadership experience with the WPA and the CCC. President Roosevelt and the Department of War approved medical and pay benefits for Reservists injured during training. However, they opposed increased funds for uniforms and equipment (Crane et al. 2001a, 36).

Pre-war policy influenced Reserve Corps participation in WWII. As hostilities in Europe escalated in the late 1930s, the U.S. Army could draw from a large, trained Officers Reserve Corps, but the small Enlisted Reserve Corps, without equipment or training, could not be mobilized as independent units. After the German Blitzkrieg of Europe in mid-1940, Congress authorized the call up of the Reserve Corps, which stood at 104,228 officers and only 3,233

enlisted men. The Officers Reserve Corps provided approximately 25 percent of the officers on active duty during World War II. However, the soldiers of the Enlisted Reserve Corps did not serve as units and were scattered throughout the regular Army divisions (Crossland and Currie 1984, 64).



**Reserve Officers Serving at CCC Camp, date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

The threat of Soviet expansion in Europe and elsewhere countered the desire to demobilize the U.S. Army after WWII. James McCauley Palmer, in his 1944 War Department Circular No. 347, argued that the U.S. could no longer rely on a long mobilization and training period for future wars, and a peacetime Army should be backed by a ready, organized, trained, and paid Reserve force. Throughout the WWII-Korean War period, however, the pattern of poor Reserve training and readiness continued. The United States considered its temporary monopoly on the atomic bomb to be the least expensive deterrent to future warfare, in which a conventional Army would play a greatly reduced role in comparison with WWII (Crossland and Currie 1984, 79-80).

The National Security Act of 1947 reorganized U.S. military forces under the oversight of the Secretary of Defense. President Harry S Truman realized the ineffectiveness of the Army Reserve Corps and in October 1948 ordered the Secretaries of the Armed Forces to “organize all Reserve component units, and to train [them] as may be required for the national security; and to establish vigorous and progressive programs of appropriate instruction and training for all elements of the Reserve components” (Executive Order 10007) (Crane et al. 2001a, 36).

With the advent of the Korean War, the U.S. Army began funding construction of new Reserves training centers, mostly on the east coast. The buildings were brick and reminiscent of schools, equipped with classrooms and gymnasiums. While these new facilities somewhat encouraged the Reserves, they still lacked the most basic equipment (Crane et al. 2001a, 37).

Soon after the start of the Korean War in June 1950, the federal government called over 240,000 Reservists to active duty to augment the U.S. Eighth Army. The Army assimilated many Reservists into regular Army combat units (US Army Reserve Command (USARC) n.d., n.p.). The Armed Forces Reserve Act of 1952 transformed the Officers Reserve Corps and the Organized Reserve Corps into the Army Reserve. The Korean War experience underscored the importance of a large, ready conventional military force (Crane et al. 2001a, 37).

The post-Korean War history of the Army Reserves is addressed in the *Integrated Cultural Resources Management Plan 96<sup>th</sup> RSC - Wyoming Historic Properties Component* (Crane et al. 2001a, 37-38):

“By the 1960s, the Army Reserve had gained Congressional favor; attempts to reduce the Reserve budget backfired due to Congressional support. The Reserves also gained a promotion structure comparable to the regular Army. Army Reserve continued to be understaffed and lacked full-time administrative staff; further, they were supplied with WWII equipment and were short two-thirds of their proposed reserve centers. Between 1961 and 1962, 68,883 Army Reservists were mobilized for the Berlin Crisis, mostly for training and replacement of regular Army troops. The August 17 Hebert Subcommittee Report on the Reserve mobilization and recall concluded that the lack of regular Army



information about the readiness and mission of the Reserve units had rendered their proper assignment impossible; the Reserves were concluded to be inadequate.

The Berlin Crisis set the stage for a seven-year conflict over the organization of the Army Reserve. In 1963, the Office of Reserve Components was created to oversee Reserve and National Guard affairs and Reserve records were centralized to facilitate organized call up procedures. President John F. Kennedy placed a greater priority on defense spending and the concept of a limited conventional military action replaced the massive nuclear deterrent. Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara proposed merging the Army Reserves with the National Guard; however, the growing involvement in Vietnam during the mid-1960s convinced Congress to retain a separate Reserve force. Thirteen training divisions also were included in the new plan. The Reserve components in each RSC followed the three-brigade plan of combat, combat support, and combat support service units. The Army Reserve also was now represented by the Chief, Army Reserve at the Department of the Army. Between 1960 and 1969, the staffing levels of Army Reserve units rose from 55-70 percent to 93-100 percent, WWII equipment was replaced and more modern Tables of Organization and Equipment (TOEs) were attained. Army Reserve units were coordinated with regular Army contingency plans (Crossland and Currie 1984, 184). This reorganization prepared the Army Reserve for the “Total Army” of the 1970s and 1980s.

The Vietnam Conflict was the next issue for the Army Reserve. Secretary of Defense McNamara proposed sending Reserve troops to Vietnam as early as 1965. That possibility was raised again in 1968, when McNamara wished to mobilize 125,000 Reservists. President Lyndon Johnson felt that calling up the Reserve would draw attention to escalating U.S. military involvement in Vietnam and he increased the draft instead. The Army Reserve stayed home until the Tet Offensive in 1968, when the continued strength of the North Vietnamese and Viet Cong armies became apparent. After much deliberation, 42 units totaling 5,869 men were mobilized in May of 1968. Many of these units required up to seven months of training before achieving readiness. Only 35 Reserve units actually went to Vietnam and represented less than 5 percent of the U.S. Army presence there.

The Vietnam Conflict drew equipment and training opportunities away from the Reserve and their relationship with regular Army was strained by their minimal combat exposure. In 1970, Secretary of Defense Melvin Laird’s “Total Force” policy put an end to the draft and proposed an all-volunteer Army. The Army Reserve was given a mission to provide combat support and combat service support to specific affiliated regular Army units and considered an “initial and primary source of additional units and individuals in any future rapid mobilizations” (Crossland and Currie 1984, 215). The full-time administrative, support, and training staff of Reserve units grew and readiness improved. Mobilization improved through MOBEX mobilization exercises. Previous reliance on regular Army facilities for equipment maintenance was eliminated through construction of 213 Area Maintenance Support Activity (AMSA) facilities by the early 1970s. A \$54 million wave of Reserve Center construction began in 1974. By 1976, the Reserve was re-equipped to 71 percent of its requirements; however, NATO forces in Europe had priority over the Reserve. The Reserve lacked projected personnel due to unattractive wages and incentives, a situation that was partially solved by offering enlistment bonuses and educational scholarships.

By the early 1980s, the Reserve had become an “essential partner in the Total Army” (Crossland and Currie 1984, 212). Deployment status changed from late to early in conflict planning, and more training, equipment, and facility improvements were made during this period than any other. In the 1990s, the Army Reserve continued its role as an important augmenting force of citizen-soldiers and its mission of education and readiness for support of the regular Army.”

After the Vietnam Conflict, the importance of the role played by the Reserve forces in Cold War strategy became apparent. The Joint Chiefs of Staff convinced Congress and Presidents Jimmy Carter and Ronald Reagan in the aftermath of Vietnam that the active and reserve components needed to be unified into “One Army.” Three benefits would derive from this strategy: 1) an upgrading of the equipment and personnel status of the reserve components would reduce post-mobilization, pre-deployment times in the event of a large conflict against the Warsaw Pact in Western Europe; 2) if reserve units achieved a higher state of readiness, the Army could pass more of its combat support and combat service support strength to the reserves creating a leaner “tooth-to-tail ratio” in the active components; and 3) if the reserves were fully integrated into contingency planning, no future president could commit U.S. forces to combat abroad without a broad supporting consensus between Congress and the American people (Crane et al. 2001b, 39).

The Army established the 96<sup>th</sup> Reserve Support Command with headquarters in Salt Lake City, Utah. The Command Headquarters of the 96<sup>th</sup> became an Army Reserve Command or “ARCOM” in December 1967, with coordination and command responsibilities for Reserve units in Wyoming, Colorado, Utah, Montana, and North and South Dakota. The Army Reserve apparently has never owned or constructed its own facilities in Wyoming. The Army Reserve currently leases a 2.3 acre parcel in Casper, Wyoming containing two buildings built in 1996. Operating under a permit, the Reserve uses a building in Sheridan constructed in 1977 (Crane et al. 2001b, 6).

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### **6.3 ARMY ROTC IN WYOMING, 1920-1989**

Along with the strengthening of the Army Reserves in 1916 came the greater formalization of the ROTC. Wyoming promoted an especially strong ROTC program. The military studies program at the University of Wyoming, known as the “Cowboy Battalion,” traces its history back to the establishment of Wyoming’s statehood. Until the Battalion received Springfield rifles, they could only perform marching and foot drills. In 1916, the National Defense Act created the ROTC. The University of Wyoming applied at once for a unit, which the Department of War granted on October 31, 1916. Wyoming thus became one of the first seven institutions of the nation to install a ROTC unit (University of Wyoming Army ROTC 2008).

By 1925, the program obtained office space in the University’s Half Acre Gymnasium, and the Army authorized uniforms and provided training staff. During WWII, the training program expanded with a summer Pilot Training Program. The Army also authorized the College of Engineering to institute defense training courses, initiated an Army/Navy preliminary ground school and flight training program, and established a U.S. Cadet Nurse Training Program in 1943. In 1965, Army ROTC authorized initiation of the Army Aviation Program, and the University Board of Trustees approved an elective ROTC program for male students. Women then began taking on a more active role in the program, and during 1976-77 school year, the cadet corps had its first female cadet battalion commander (University of Wyoming Army ROTC 2008).

### **6.4 AIR FORCE RESERVES IN WYOMING, 1948-1989**

The Air Force organized the Air Force Reserve in 1948 out of the Army Reserve. Wyoming apparently never had an Air Force Reserve unit, probably because the Air Force has never had an active flying unit at F.E. Warren AFB or elsewhere in the state (Cantwell 2008, 400).

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## **6.5 AIR FORCE ROTC IN WYOMING, 1948-1989**

The Air Force ROTC program separated from the Army ROTC at the same time the Air Force Reserves separated from the Army Reserves. The Air Force Reserve has no presence in Wyoming with the exception of an Air Force ROTC program located at the University of Wyoming in Laramie. The Detachment 940<sup>th</sup> Cadet Wing provides opportunities for education in Air Force operations and leadership. The program has three locations including the Laramie campus of the University of Wyoming, Laramie County Community College in Cheyenne, and at Park University located at F.E. Warren AFB. All courses related to this program are available at the University of Wyoming (University of Wyoming 2008).

## **6.6 NAVAL RESERVES IN WYOMING, 1920-1989**

The Congress established the Naval Reserves in 1916, at the same time it established the Army Reserves. U.S. Navy Reservists hunted enemy U-boats from the cockpits of biplanes as one of their first official missions in WWI. With the bombing of Pearl Harbor in December 1941, the number of Naval Reservists significantly increased, and nearly all activated, including five future U.S. presidents (Navy Reserve 2008). Writers found no information regarding Naval Reserve operations or training in Wyoming during the interwar period or during WWII; Naval Reserve officers from Wyoming may have joined active Navy units during WWII, in the same manner as Army Reservists joined active Army units during the war.

Wyoming has a long history of supporting the Navy. Commissioned in July 1946, the Naval Operations Support Center (NOSC) in Cheyenne has the responsibility of providing operational support to Reserve Component units and overseeing the mobilization readiness of Navy Selected Reservists. From its original location in the basement of the USO located at 2002 Capitol Avenue, NOSC relocated to larger facilities at Fort F.E. Warren in 1948. Due largely to the high demand for Naval Reservists, the Navy completed construction of an operations center

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at 3605 Evans on May 26, 1948. NOSC currently occupies two buildings on F.E. Warren AFB, which serve as a training center and headquarters (Naval Operational Support Center, Cheyenne 2008).

#### **6.7 MARINE RESERVES IN WYOMING, 1920-1989**

There are no Marine reservist units within Wyoming, and writers found no information that such units previously operated in the state.

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## **CHAPTER 7 – VETERANS AFFAIRS, 1920-1989**

Consideration of special needs of veterans began before the Revolutionary War: in 1636 Plymouth Colony provided maintenance for life for any soldier disabled while defending the colony. The Continental Congress promised half pay for seven years for officers and a mustering out bonus of \$80 for enlisted soldiers if they would stay in the service until the end of the war. After the Revolutionary War, Congress provided pensions to veterans disabled in the war, and in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century the government extended some benefits to veterans' widows and dependents. Individual states provided most of the medical and hospital care for disabled veterans throughout the 19<sup>th</sup> century; the federal government also established health care facilities beginning in 1811 and the National Home for Disabled Soldiers after the Civil War (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs 2009).

Five million veterans returned to the United States after WWI, 200,000 of whom had been injured in some manner. In 1917 Congress essentially extended a Civil War veterans program that included disability compensation, vocational rehabilitation, and insurance for active duty personnel and veterans. The Senate Finance Committee became responsible for all veterans programs from 1917 to 1946. Three agencies provided service to veterans: the Veterans Bureau; the Bureau of Pensions; and the National Home for Disabled Soldiers. The duties of these three agencies merged into the VA in 1930 (U.S. Senate Committee on Veterans Affairs 2008, McDermott 1998, 46).

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WWII produced 16 million U.S. veterans. To address the needs of veterans, Congress enacted the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944. This act included the "GI Bill of Rights" that extended a variety of services and benefits to servicemen and their dependents, including medical services (U.S. Senate Committee on Veterans Affairs 2008). At the close of WWII the VA operated 97 hospitals that could accommodate more than 82,000 patients, but long waiting lists soon developed. The VA constructed 27 additional hospitals by 1947. Medical and other services were extended to veterans under a number of acts of Congress from 1952 to present. By the 1980s, the VA was the largest independent agency in the U.S. Government in terms of budget, was second only to the Department of Defense in the number of employees, and served the one-third of the U.S. population who were potentially eligible for veterans benefits. As a result, Congress elevated the agency to Cabinet level status in 1989 as the Department of Veterans Affairs (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs 2008).

Wyoming shared in the burden of disabled veterans, beginning with soldiers returning from the Spanish American War and the Philippine Insurrection. The state accomplished this in part by politically engineering the establishment of veterans hospitals at Sheridan and Cheyenne, and by establishing the state-supported retirement and treatment home for soldiers and sailors at Buffalo.

## **7.1 THE VA HOSPITAL AT SHERIDAN, 1921-1989**

The VA Hospital at Sheridan began as one of the last frontier military posts established in the West. The Army established Fort Mackenzie as a central military outpost to protect white settlers from Indian threats and to help suppress violence over range lands at a time when the Army was abandoning small military posts associated with individual Indian reservations. The Army established a small garrison near Sheridan in 1898, and in 1899 Senator F.E. Warren introduced a bill to provide for a permanent military post there. The War Department partly

justified establishing the post on the grounds that the soldiers could fight forest fires. The Army named the post for Brigadier General Ranald Mackenzie, a Union hero in the Civil War and a successful Indian fighter after the Civil War (McDermott 1998, 1-7).

By 1902 Fort Mackenzie included two barracks built to house 200 soldiers, two double sets of commissioned officer's quarters, a hospital, a hospital steward's quarters, a double set of non-commissioned officer's quarters, a quartermaster's storehouse, a fuel house, and a guard house. All of the buildings were brick except the wood frame fuel house. The complex also included a million-gallon water reservoir, and the Army constructed a 12-bed brick hospital in 1904 (McDermott 1998, 22-23).

In 1912 the War Department determined that Fort Mackenzie was obsolete because the Indian threat had long passed, but the Army did not completely abandon the post until 1918. Upon hearing that the Army would finally be abandoning post, Wyoming congressmen immediately began efforts to obtain re-use of the post's facilities, including potential use as a hospital for veterans. A 1917 act of Congress provided for the medical treatment of veterans, and a 1919 act assigned responsibility for such treatment to the U.S. Public Health Service. The War Department transferred Fort Mackenzie to the Public Health Service in January 1921, and by May of that year the Public Health Service began adapting the existing buildings for use as a veterans hospital. In August 1921, President Harding signed legislation creating the Veterans Bureau, which became responsible for the Sheridan facility, which by then was known as the United States Public Health Hospital at Fort Mackenzie (McDermott 1998, 40, 61, 62).

The War Department and its successor agencies originally intended to use the veterans hospital at Fort Mackenzie for treatment of tuberculosis, but it became a general hospital with a specialization in the care of neuropsychiatric patients. The hospital officially opened on June 22,



1922 and the first patient arrived on June 26, 1922. Sheridan civic organizations and businesses supported the rehabilitation efforts at the hospital by providing movies, concerts, and automobile outings for the patients and staff. The community also benefited greatly from the operations of the hospital; in its first year of operations, the monthly payroll was more than \$11,000, food supplies were \$7,500, electricity and telephone were \$875, and the average coal bill was \$2,200 per month. By March 1925, the payroll had risen to \$486,000 per year (McDermott 1998, 51-55).

Psychiatric treatment was in its infancy in the 1920s and most patients lived in a custodial condition, as described below.

“To enter a ward you rang the bell outside the door. After a reasonable wait, the door was carefully unlocked and held ajar as you entered. Stepping into the day room you could see men sitting in chairs lined up against the wall. A few patients would be pushing two foot chunks of wood with a long handle, up and down, to polish a floor that already shone. Some men sat. Some mumbled and stared at the wall. The whole ward shone with cleanliness. The beds were “squared up” and made just so. A dime would bounce when dropped on taut blankets. As you might surmise, the nursing assistant was graded on how clean the patients and wards were kept. He had to control, observe, and take orders and apply “cuffs” when a patient became abusive to himself or others. The patient? Maybe he could look forward to working on a farm, garden, or lawn detail. Perhaps go for a walk with the ward when the weather would permit; or he might even get to read a rare magazine. Mostly he sat. A chair was assigned to him. He left his clothes there neatly folded in the evening and donned them in the early morning. Occasionally the clothes were inspected for contraband to protect the other patients for weapons. The chair was heavy, too heavy to throw, and not very comfortable, but it was his. When the ward went to the dining hall he ate his food with only a soup spoon.” (Sagebrush Courier, May 9, 1960)

The attitude of the hospital leadership reflected the nascent condition of psychotherapy at that time. In April 1923 Dr. Richard Blackmore, the medical officer in charge, reported that “Some care is exercised in musical programs, it being the firm belief of those who have studied the effect of music upon the individual that the so-called “jazz” music has a deleterious effect, not only on normal people, but particularly so those with any mental abnormality” (Blackmore 1922, McDermott 1998, 57).

By 1930 the hospital operated at full capacity with 448 patients, almost all of whom suffered from psychiatric disorders. By 1936 the hospital served 595 patients housed in 19 wards according to the severity of the mental disorders and progression toward recovery and release. Each ward had dormitories, visiting rooms, and recreational space. Common recreational facilities included clay tennis courts, a baseball diamond, and a recreation room with a piano, card tables, a radio, and other amenities. The Sheridan American Legion Auxiliary often participated in dances and parties at the hospital. The VA stressed occupational therapy in its treatment regimen, including training in carpentry, electrical wiring, painting, plumbing, gardening, sewing, leather work, basketry, and shoe repair (McDermott 1998, 61-63).

The buildings and grounds of the former Fort Mackenzie underwent almost constant rehabilitation and expansion from 1921 to the beginning of WWII. By the mid-1930s the complex included 75 buildings located on 6,280 acres. At that time, hospital staff maintained 325 acres under cultivation, with 200 acres planted in grain for feed for horses and swine and the remainder planted in fruits and vegetables for use in the hospital kitchens (McDermott 1998, 62-63).

WWII began affecting Fort Mackenzie months before the United States officially entered the conflict. In February 1941 Troop B of the 115<sup>th</sup> Cavalry of the Wyoming National Guard



entered federal duty at Fort Mackenzie prior to transport to Fort Lewis, Washington and patrol duty on the Washington-Oregon coast. In September 1941 the VA granted a permit to the War Department for use

**Building 1, Veterans Administration Hospital, Sheridan**  
Photograph courtesy Kurt Schweigert, July 2008

of 17 acres as headquarters of the Northwest Remount Area. The United States Army established the Remount Service after WWI to improve the quality of horses available to the Army, particularly cavalry mounts. According to one source, the Remount Service continued in operation at Fort Mackenzie until 1948 (McDermott 1998, 66).

WWII resulted in a dramatic increase in the number of patients and staff at the hospital. Soon after the close of the war, the VA hospital served 900 patients with a staff of six junior and 18 senior physicians. Nationwide demand for veteran's medical services increased an average of 13,000 patients annually after WWII as the full psychological effects of wartime service became evident, and the Korean conflict from 1949-1952 further contributed to the need for services at the Sheridan VA Hospital. However, by the mid-1950s the number of patients served by VA hospitals nationwide dropped by approximately 8,000 per year, and in 1957 the Sheridan Hospital served 640 patients. The VA also addressed declining need for the extensive campus at Sheridan during the 1950s; the agency transferred 17 acres to the U.S. Forest Service and all but 431 acres to the public domain in 1956 (McDermott 1998, 69-72).

Patient numbers continued to decline at the Sheridan VA Hospital until the early 1960s, when the Vietnam conflict produced especially heavy emotional problems for service men and women. The hospital served 707 resident patients in 1963, but according to one source the number of patients declined to 650 in 1967, 575 in 1968, and 500 in 1969 (Pratt 1968). In 1970 the hospital served 347 resident patients and served 252 out-patients under programs initiated in the 1950s. In 1977 the hospital served 305 resident patients, placed 100 patients in homes in the Sheridan community, and had approximately 15,500 visits to its outpatient clinic. The hospital also operated a mobile clinic consisting of a psychiatrist, a nurse, a psychologist, and a social

worker. By 1979 the hospital complex included a library, a canteen/retail store, barber and beauty shops, a pharmacy, and a radio station (McDermott 1998, 73-74, 80-81. Temple 1977).

The Sheridan VA Hospital pioneered methods in drug and alcohol treatment during the 1960s and 1970s, including instituting a 90-day in-patient treatment program and providing facilities for the Inter Tribal Alcoholic Treatment Center. However, the hospital's experimental programs for treatment of alcoholism may have had a dark side. In 1975 the hospital's head nurse confirmed that the Sheridan VA Hospital had used LSD on an experimental basis and "with full consent" of the patients in the 1960s, but that the drug seemed to have no deterrent effect on the cycle of alcoholism (Anon. 1975).

Extensive remodeling of many hospital facilities began in 1971, including improvements to the chapel, medical machine and electrocardiogram departments, day rooms, the dental clinic, nursing offices, and classrooms. The VA constructed a new canteen café, renovated the road system, and converted the infirmary area to an intensive care unit. The VA began construction of an outpatient/clinical building in 1989 and completed it in 1992 (McDermott 1998, 78-79. Robinson 1989).

## **7.2 THE CHEYENNE VETERANS MEDICAL CENTER, 1932-1989**

The Cheyenne Veterans Hospital grew out of a movement by the National War Mothers, who were mainly mothers of WWI soldiers, to provide hospital care for veterans of WWI and the Spanish American War. In 1924 Dora McGrath of Thermopolis hosted the annual meeting of the group's national board at Thermopolis. Impressed by the area and especially the supposed healing benefits of the hot springs, the group proposed to obtain a veterans' hospital for that location. The group requested from the State of Wyoming a grant of land on the Hot Springs State Reserve, where they proposed to build a state institution that they hoped would eventually become a federal veterans hospital. The Wyoming legislature passed a bill granting the land, and

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in 1931 the War Mothers drafted a bill to be introduced in the U.S. House of Representatives to establish such a federal hospital at Thermopolis. However, in committee, the designation of Thermopolis was stricken from the bill, and it passed both houses of Congress.

On October 16, 1931 President Hoover signed an act that included \$750,000 in funding for the hospital. However, a federal hospitalization board recommended that the hospital be built at Cheyenne instead of Thermopolis. Among the reasons for selection of Cheyenne was the proximity to Nebraska and Colorado, an adequate water supply, an existing airport, and the intersection of the Lincoln and Yellowstone highway.

Most of the chambers of commerce statewide and the Wyoming State Department of the American Legion had endorsed the location of the hospital at Thermopolis. The location in Cheyenne also became an issue in the 1932 governor's race. Democratic candidate Leslie Miller was widely blamed for the decision to locate the hospital in Cheyenne, although he vehemently denied the charge and presented evidence that neither he nor anyone else in Cheyenne had any part in the choice of location (Miller 1932).

Construction began on the Cheyenne Hospital on Pershing Boulevard near downtown Cheyenne in 1932. The 600 acre site was purchased with \$10,000 in city and county funds; the site was at that time in agricultural use and for many years the area to the west of the buildings continued to be used for grazing milk cows. Initial plans for construction of the hospital included seven red brick buildings with tile roofs to accommodate more than 100 resident patients. The main building was, and is, a two story brick structure in the Spanish Colonial Revival Style architectural mode. A wing added to the main building in 1940 increased the bed capacity to 147 and provided an auditorium. Additions to the complex in later years included a two-story clinic, an administration building, a staff quarters building, a nursing home, and at least three additional



**U.S. Veterans Hospital, Cheyenne, ca. 1932**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives,  
Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

wings to the main building. The VA returned all but about 50 acres of the original tract to the City of Cheyenne by 1980 (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs 2008).

The VA intended the Cheyenne hospital to provide general medicine and surgical services, and specifically not for patients with tuberculosis or mental disorders. The hospital officially opened on May 4, 1934 with a staff of 90 and three patients. The hospital served a total of 507 patients through the remainder of that year. Recreational opportunities included cards and checkers, movies three times per week, and radios.



**U.S. Veterans Hospital, Cheyenne, date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

### **7.3 WYOMING SOLDIERS AND SAILORS HOME (WYOMING VETERANS HOME), 1903-1989**

The Wyoming Legislature established the Veterans Home of Wyoming, formerly known as the Soldiers and Sailors Home, in 1895 at U.S. Army Fort D.A. Russell in Cheyenne. In 1903 the facility relocated to the site of Fort McKinney just outside Buffalo. The Army operated Fort McKinney as a military post between 1877 and 1903, when the Army abandoned the site. While the Army demolished some of the buildings at Fort McKinney, some of the buildings and a large portion of the land reverted to the State of Wyoming. The State dismantled or removed most of the former post buildings and structures. The former military post hospital building survives and has been converted to offices (Murray 1975).



**Wyoming Veterans Home, Old Ft. McKinney Hospital**

Photograph courtesy Kurt Schweigert, July 2008

The State built the current main hospital building used by the Veterans Home in 1941 on the Fort McKinney site and the State built two additions in 1973 and 1983. Wyoming remodeled the complex in 2007, but left the exterior of the 1941 portion of the building intact (Sheila Camino, personal communication, January 2008).

Although Fort McKinney is listed as a historic site in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP), the Veterans' Home of Wyoming buildings do not appear to be part of that listing. The site currently consists of the main 1941 building, the 1973 and 1983 additions, several warehouses at the rear of the site, and other supporting structures (Sheila Camino, personal communication, 2008).

## **CHAPTER 8 – ANCILLARY MILITARY AFFAIRS IN WYOMING, 1920-1989**

Military affairs during the 20<sup>th</sup> century often affected Wyoming's civilian population economically, psychologically, and sometimes personally. Two programs in particular had wide-reaching impacts on Wyoming during the 1920-1989 period: the military draft and Civil Defense which fall under multiple names.

### **8.1 SELECTIVE SERVICE**

The United States first enacted a general military draft during the Civil War, making all men between the ages of 20 and 45 liable for service in the Union Army and requiring all such men to register for the draft. However, the United States Conscription Act of March 3, 1863 was fraught with loopholes, including allowing prospective draftees to avoid service by payment of \$300 or finding, usually hiring, a surrogate to enlist for a three-year period. The first attempts at conscription were therefore highly inequitable to the poor, and massive riots against the draft in New York City quieted only because of actions of federal troops drawn from an already undermanned Union Army (Morrison, Commager and Leuchtenburg 1969, 1:678-679). The nation's next war, with Spain in 1898-1899, required no conscription because of its massive popularity and short duration. Wyoming even mustered a volunteer cavalry unit that never left the United States and whose only casualties were the result of a train wreck and disease.

WWI was a different matter, however, pitting huge armies and navies against each other and eventually embroiling a United States that had long held itself neutral and largely isolated from European politics. When German attacks on American ships and the near exhaustion of

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Britain and France in the war effort led the United States into the war in 1917, the nation had a small professional Army and had seen the effectiveness of conscription by all of the warring nations.

Six weeks after the United States entered the war, Congress passed the Selective Service Act on May 18, 1917 which required all men between the ages of 21 and 30 to register for the draft. The original Selective Service Act and amendments resulted in the registration of more than 24 million men between the ages of 18 and 45. Unlike the Civil War draft, the WWI act attracted no substantial resistance to the registration or subsequent draft. More than 2.8 million registrants were drafted into the U.S. Army during the war (Morrison, Commager and Leuchtenburg 1969, 2:387-388). In Wyoming, Selective Service called 8,279 men for examination and the War Department accepted 6,528 Wyoming men for active service (Larson 1978, 295).

The United States substantially expanded the National Guard and Reserves after WWI, so that federal mobilization of these units essentially doubled the size of the Army when war came again in 1941. In the meantime, the nation prepared for the possibility of another massive war, which would necessarily mean conscription. The War Department appointed a Joint Army and Navy Selective Service Committee in 1926, which in 1934 asked all state adjutant generals to prepare state plans for selective service. The National Guard staff of each state constituted the nucleus of the state selective service headquarters. In Wyoming, Adjutant General Rudolph Esmay led the National Guard and provided advice to the governor regarding appointments to state, county, and local selective service boards. Esmay served in this capacity throughout WWII and through much of the Cold War era (Larson 1993, 22-23).

Congress passed the Selective Training and Service Act in September 1940 as the first peacetime conscription in the history of the nation, and Wyoming quickly implemented its provisions. Governor Nels Smith appointed Esmay to be State Director of Selective Service on October 15, 1940 and then selected 89 members for the 23 county boards across the state, although President Franklin D. Roosevelt made the official appointments. Each county board had a minimum of three members. Other appointed elements of Wyoming's selective service apparatus included 58 examining physicians; 22 examining dentists; 23 government special agents to represent the government, the registrant, and the employer by filing appeals related to misclassification of registrants; and 5 members of a state appeal board. Governor Smith succeeded in his appointments, in part because Colonel Esmay carefully screened the appointees and because Governor Smith simply sent a letter of appointment, rather than asking for volunteers or seeking prior consent of the appointees. Of the 126 persons appointed to selective service positions by November 16, 1940, 89 were still serving in those positions at the end of the war in August 1945 (Larson 1993, 23).

The county selective service boards registered and classified potential draftees. The boards considered needs for manpower in certain industries and in agriculture, certain special family situations of the registrants, appeals of these classifications, the medical fitness of individual registrants, and the order in which registrants would be called. The boards also called the draftees and placed them on trains to training centers. Based on information in questionnaires filled out by registrants, the boards assigned the following classifications: I, men available for service immediately; II, men deferred because of the importance of their jobs; III, men deferred because of dependents; and IV, men deferred because induction would be undesirable for the

government. Multiple sub-classifications came into use to help the boards address degrees of qualification of registrants and hardship that induction would impose (Larson 1993, 24-25).

The first registration under the 1940 Selective Service Act took place on October 16, 1940, barely a month after Congress passed the act and before all of the county boards and other appointees were in place. This first registration addressed men between the ages of 21 and 37 years. Five subsequent registrations stretched the age range, so that 60,306 Wyoming men ranging in age from 18 to 44 years had registered by the end of 1945, not counting additional men from 45 to 65 years old who were required to register but were not expected to be called into active military service (Larson 1993, 25).

The selective service system in Wyoming faced three challenges during WWII: (1) a high rate of volunteer enlistment; (2) a critical need for agricultural workers in the state; and (3) the departure of many young men to work in defense industries out of state. Men could enlist at the age of 17 or at any time until called for examination by their selective service board, and many men chose to enter the Navy, Marine Corps, or Reserve Officer Training Corps rather than face the prospect of service in the infantry. Although enlistments counted in the total call for inductees, the enlistments decreased the pool of able young men available for selective service.

Enlistments and employment in war industries also depleted the agricultural work force nationwide and in Wyoming, so much so that in the fall of 1942 Congress passed an amendment to the 1940 Selective Service Act that directed deferment of essential agricultural workers until farmers found satisfactory replacements. To help selective service boards determine whether a registrant was “essential,” the Department of Agriculture devised a rough recommended rule, under which any registrant qualified for deferment if he was responsible for production of 16 war units of essential agricultural products. One war unit consisted of one milk cow, three beef cows,

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five yearlings, four two-year-old steers, one and a half acres of dry beans, 20 acres of wheat, and other similar produce items. Colonel Esmay set up an advisory board to oversee application of this rule and in December 1942 he lowered the minimum for deferment to 12 war units (Larson 1993, 27).

By February 1944, Selective Service nationwide was failing to meet the demands placed on it for inductions. President Franklin D. Roosevelt directed Director Lewis Hershey to release additional men who had been deferred for work in industry and agriculture. This order immediately passed down to Colonel Esmay in Wyoming. Esmay then instructed the county draft boards that Selective Service would substantially raise the thresholds for agricultural deferment, particularly for situations where more than one man had been deferred for work on the same farm. Wyoming at that time had 19.5 percent deferments in the 18 to 37 age bracket for industry, compared to a national average of 15.5 percent, and the state had 15.7 percent deferment rate for agriculture, compared to 7.5 percent for the nation as a whole. However, Wyoming was largely an agricultural and coal-mining state at that time with relatively little urban population (Larson 1993, 29-30).

Wyoming fell behind on its calls for inductions for six quarters in a row, from January 1943 to June 1944 (Larson 1993, 29). Consequently, the state's Selective Service tightened deferments for agriculture and industry. The state abandoned plans to induct many young men who worked at Union Pacific Railroad coal mines in the state after the company protested, although a substantial number of miners did serve in the armed forces. The number of inducted registrants in Wyoming remained relatively low; in September 1944, the state ranked 32<sup>nd</sup> in the percentage of inducted registrants but was only 2.2 percent below the national average. Wyoming provided 19,500 persons to the Army by September 1945, 7,882 persons to the Navy,

1,218 to the Marine Corps, and 129 to the Coast Guard (Larson 1993, 14). Of the 28,792 total personnel provided to the military, 515 were women. In comparison to national averages based on state population, Wyoming contributed slightly fewer men than average and slightly more women to the military war effort. Table 8-1 shows the progress of armed forces credits for Wyoming (Larson 1993, 17).

**Table 8-1**  
**Wyoming WWII Military Contributions**

Date	Total	Enlistments	Inductions
January 31, 1942	6,862	5,051	1,811
November 20, 1943	21,941	10,044	11,897
September 1, 1945	28,792	11,959	16,770

Selective Service boards began taking on a new responsibility by late 1944, planning for and assisting returning veterans in finding re-employment. As the war ended and veterans returned, Selective Service added re-employment personnel to county boards, and the selective process essentially was reversed. County draft boards provided discharged service men and women with information regarding their rights and privileges and additional information about government agencies that could assist the veterans (Larson 1993, 35, 334).

Congress enacted the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 initially for a nine-month period, and Congress re-enacted it, twice extended it, and finally allowed the act to expire on March 31, 1947 (Esmay 1946, 11). Selective Service didn't stay dead for very long because the Cold War was already becoming evident as Russian troops remained in Eastern Europe and Germany. The Selective Service Act of 1948 became effective on June 24, 1948 and Wyoming again affected early organization, in part because 75 percent of the county board members who had served during WWII volunteered to serve on the reconstituted local draft boards. From August 30 through September 30, 1948, 16,864 men between the ages of 18 and 26 years

registered for the draft in Wyoming. By September 30, 1948, 40 men had been inducted under the new law, joining 2,680 Wyoming men and women who were already serving in the armed services. In October of that same year, Selective Service gave all registrants their physicals (Esmay 1948, 12).

When the Korean crisis occurred in June 1950, Wyoming possessed a level of preparedness that filled Esmay with a sense of pride.

“When the call came in September 1950 for ninety-seven men, Wyoming was prepared to discharge its obligation to the fullest. Too much cannot be said in praise of faithful service of the Local Board Members, Advisors and Registrants, Medical Advisors and Appeal Agents, all of whom have given their time so freely and without monetary recompense. Even in the time of comparative Peace, they have served their State and Country as faithfully as in time of War.” (Esmay 1950, 16)

The United States continued the military draft from 1948 to 1973 to fill vacancies that voluntary enlistment had not filled. The draft increased dramatically during the Vietnam War, and on December 1, 1969, the Selective Service System held the first draft lottery since 1942 to determine the order of induction of men 18 to 26 years old. Officials drew 366 plastic balls bearing a date from a jar, thus determining the order of calling of about 850,000 men subject to the draft. The United States ended the draft in 1973 shortly after the end of the Vietnam War, and the U.S. converted to an all-volunteer military. The United States suspended the registration requirement in April 1975 but resumed the requirement in 1980 in response to the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan.

## **8.2 CIVIL DEFENSE**

The concept of civilian contribution to a war effort took root during WWI, when citizens bought war bonds to finance the war and planted Victory Gardens to feed themselves and free foodstuffs for the troops at home and overseas. As part of preparation for a potential coming war and under authority of Congress, the Wyoming legislature provided for a State Defense Council

of 18 members in February 1941. Adjutant General Rudolph Esmay served as executive vice-chairman and he reported civil defense organization and readiness information in his biennial reports of the Wyoming Military Department. Under the chairmanship of Colonel Goelet Gallatin of Big Horn and Edwin Zoble of Casper after July 1943, the council initially addressed internal organization and establishment of the State Guard, which would assume domestic and civil protection duties in the absence of the Wyoming National Guard, most of whom entered federal service in late 1940 (see Chapter 5 for a more complete discussion of the State Guard) (Larson 1978, 480-481).

In the wake of the Pearl Harbor attack on December 7, 1941, the Council met in emergency session and launched a wide-reaching, ten-point program for the state: (1) registration of civilians willing to volunteer for civil defense functions; (2) registration of all private pilots and airplanes for a civil air patrol; (3) inventory of housing that might be available in the event of coastal evacuations; (4) formation of an air raid warning system; (5) organization of a health and nutrition program; (6) organization of a medical adjunct to the State Guard; (7) training of amateur radio operators and organization of a statewide system of such operators; (8) formation of fire districts to safeguard forests and ranges; (9) establishment of training in blacksmithing and repair of farm machinery; and (10) promotion of participation of local (county) defense councils in various war drives (Larson 1978, 481).

State and local defense councils enrolled more than 19,000 Wyoming residents to help in civil defense by February 1943. However, actual military defense of Wyoming became less of a concern as WWII wore on in far-away places and many enrollees participated very little, if at all. The only possible military action for the residents came late in the war, when the Japanese launched 9,000 balloon bombs, some of which landed in Wyoming without doing any damage.

The national Office of Civil Defense instead turned to more domestic efforts to support the war effort, including providing courses in home nursing and nurse's aide training and production of knitted clothing items, bandages, and personal kits for servicemen heading overseas. As in the previous war, the government promoted Victory Gardens to the effect that Wyoming's garden production doubled (Larson 1978, 483).

Wyoming particularly excelled in salvage drives for a wide variety of materials including metals, nylon hosiery, silk, rubber, and used kitchen fats, but also for more exotic materials like duck feathers, phonograph records, old keys, and jewelry. Despite its agricultural nature, Wyoming never failed to fill its quota of iron and scrap steel, led the nation in the collection of silk and nylon hosiery on a per capita basis, and always exceeded the national average in collection of used kitchen fats. During the first nine months of 1944, Wyoming shipped more than 3.5 million pounds of waste paper to mills. By late 1944 the need for both civilian homeland defense and the war drives largely ended, and President Truman ordered the federal Office of Civilian Defense to disband in May 1945. In Wyoming, county defense councils disbanded after VJ Day in September 1945 (Larson 1978, 482-484. Esmay 1944, 7; 1946, 11).

The Cold War brought civil defense back to Wyoming, but this time the primary concern was the possibility of nuclear attack. The governor issued an executive order on January 30, 1950 that appointed the Adjutant General to be Director of Civil Defense, supported by a small planning board for the purpose of advising the governor regarding a state civil defense plan. The Wyoming legislature formalized this organization under the Wyoming Civil Defense Act in February 1951, by which time the governor had already issued the general Wyoming Civil Defense Plan. The fear that led to development of the plan became clear in the establishment of a radiological laboratory at the University of Wyoming for the training of radiological monitors



from each of the counties, including a mobile airborne unit for service to radiological disaster areas. Nearly all of the state's 23 counties completed organization of local defense councils by the end of September 1952, and the governor had appointed executive directors for 20 counties (Esmay 1952, 2).

The Wyoming Civil Defense Act required the Wyoming Civil Defense Agency to:

- Develop and maintain the master emergency plans and programs of the state.
- Assign the appropriate emergency roles to other agencies and departments of the state governments and to the local governments of Wyoming.
- Provide direct assistance to state departments and to local governments of Wyoming in programming, planning, organizing, equipping, and training the necessary emergency organizations.
- Effect the necessary coordination between federal, state, and local emergency plans.
- Represent all departments of state government and the local governments of Wyoming in obtaining available federal funds and equipment to implement approved emergency plans and programs (Esmay 1960, 4).

Wyoming also developed compacts with other states to provide mutual support (Esmay 1952). The federal government obligated a total of nearly \$100,000 for this program's implementation by 1952. Specific state plans as mandated above began simply but eventually increased in complexity and number. They included:

- The Civil Defense Advisory Council
  - The Radiological Defense Training Program which comprised of five courses on radiological monitoring.
  - The Civil Air Mobilization Plan which involved local pilots known as the "Flying Farmers" who delivered medical supplies and other critical items.
  - The Health Services & Special Defense Weapons Plan which created a training known as "Nursing Aspects of Atomic Energy" and outlined mobile support activities.
  - Emergency Welfare Services which created an emergency plan utilizing county workers.
  - Volunteer Training which involved First Aid training, nurses' aid training, and home care training.
  - The Civil Defense Program for Wyoming Schools which sought to develop safety procedures for the protection of children while they were in the care of school authorities and to develop an adult education program.
  - The Municipal Water Works in Civil Defense which sought to encourage advanced planning and outlined the organization necessary for mutual aid between communities.
  - The Air Raid Warning Plan.
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During the following years, Wyoming instituted an engineering plan to supplement the items listed above by means of focus on the utilization and condition of state-owned roadways in the event of an attack. A communications plan focused the use of local radio operators and the development of a “communications net” throughout the state. Wyoming also created a state traffic control plan which outlined evacuation routes (Esmay 1954, 2). By 1956, the state added a Ground Observer Corps. In Wyoming it was staffed by more than 50% women and members of the Veterans of Foreign Wars; the Wyoming Ground Observer Corps installed the first nursery in the U.S. for the volunteering mothers. The State Employment Security Commission developed a Manpower Mobilization Plan, and the director of that Commission was responsible for civil defense and mobilization within the state during enemy attack or disaster (Esmay 1956, 6).

Development of the hydrogen bomb in 1952 by the United States and a year later by the Russians resulted in greater fear among Wyoming residents because of the potential for wide-spread radioactive fallout. In 1952 the Ground Observer Corps expanded from 150 to 285 posts throughout the state, which reported to a Filter Center in Casper. In response to the H-bomb, the state modified the Wyoming Civil Defense Plan and expanded it to reflect a change in national civil defense tactics from reliance on “duck and cover” response, wherein schoolchildren were directed to seek shelter below heavy furniture and to cover their necks with their hands, to evacuation of population centers (Esmay 1952, 1).

The involvement of Wyoming women in Civil Defense organizations is particularly noteworthy. Organizations such as the American Association of University Women, the Diocesan Council of Catholic Women, and the Wyoming Farm Bureau Federation of Women all had representatives on the State Advisory Committee for Women’s Activities. This organization held quarterly meetings to develop guidelines for efforts within the state. The state Civil Defense

Advisory Council organized county advisory committees to help coordinate public education, home protection, and community activities.

As had happened during WWII, the Civil Defense Agency trended toward domestic preparedness for a nuclear attack and away from sky-watching and radiation testing as the 1950s progressed and no attack came. The Agency placed the Ground Observer Corps on reserve or stand-by status by 1956, replaced in part by U.S. Air Force personnel stationed throughout the state and by radar systems that could detect incoming aircraft at long distances. At that time, the Ground Observer Corps and the Air Defense Filter Center in Casper had 3,000 registered volunteers available to man 330 observation points throughout the state. Although its utility was fading, the Ground Observer Corps increased to 4,300 volunteers by September 1958. The Air Force finally deactivated the Ground Observer Corps on January 31, 1959 (Esmay 1956, 9; 1958, 3).

Interest in civil defense rose with the construction of the Atlas ICBM launch sites at F.E. Warren Air Force Base in 1958, which instantly made Wyoming a primary target for Russian nuclear weapons. During the 1956-1958 biennium, approximately 1,100 persons completed civil defense training in a variety of subjects, and at the end of the biennium 26,186 persons enrolled in civil defense services throughout the state. In June 1958, Wyoming entered into a contract with the federal government to develop a statewide survival plan, target plans for Cheyenne and Casper, and a plan for continuity of government in the event of a nuclear attack (Esmay 1958, 1).

## CHAPTER 9 – PROPERTY TYPES IN WYOMING, 1920-1989

### 9.1 PROPERTY TYPES

A property type is a “grouping of individual properties based on shared physical or associative characteristics.” Property types link theoretical historic contexts with physical resources (National Park Service 1997, Appendix IV). Each historic theme, e.g., military, transportation, community, etc., has its own list of property types and possibly subtypes that illustrate the ideas contained in the theme’s historic contexts.

Categorizing buildings and structures by property type is especially useful when attempting to place a resource in a national or regional context; for example, comparing Army National Guard athletic facilities or examples of standardized mess halls throughout the country.

The DOD, and more specifically the Army, has developed lists of property types found on military installations. The property types discussed in this chapter are in part based on several preexisting context documents, specifically the *National Historic Context for Department of Defense Installations 1790-1940* (Goodwin and Associates 1997a), *Context Study of the United States Quartermaster General Standardized Plans, 1866-1942* (Chattey et al. 1997), and *Thematic Study and Guidelines: Identification and Evaluation of U.S. Army Cold War Era Military-Industrial Historic Properties* (Lavin 1998). Also especially applicable to the current discussion are *Wyoming Army National Guard Historic Buildings Field Inventory and Evaluation Report* (Humstone et al. 2007); the previous treatment of Wyoming military history

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and properties, *Military Context and Property Types* (Rosenberg 1989); and *Historic Building Inventory and Evaluation of F.E. Warren AFB* (URS Greiner Woodward Clyde 1999).

The property types addressed in this document are:

### **Historic Districts, National Historic Landmarks, and Major Training/Activity Complexes**

- F.E. Warren AFB Historic District/National Historic Landmark (NHL)
- Camp Guernsey Historic District and Airfield
- Casper Army Airfield and Bombing Ranges
- Pole Mountain Target and Maneuver Area
- Heart Mountain Japanese Relocation Camp
- CCC and POW Camps
- Veterans Care Facilities

### **Individual Property Types**

#### **Administration**

- HQ/Administration/Office Buildings
- Post Offices

#### **Safety and Security**

- Fire Stations
- Guard Houses/Gate Houses/Sentry Boxes

#### **Communications**

- Radio Buildings
- Telegraph and Telephone Buildings

#### **Education/Armories**

- Classroom Buildings
- Elementary Schools
- Drill and Riding Halls
- Armories

#### **Health Care**

- Dispensaries/Infirmarys
- Hospitals
- Veteran Homes

#### **Industrial**

- Maintenance and Repair Shops
  - Manufacturing Complexes
  - Laundries
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**Food Service**

- Mess Halls
- Bakeries

**Housing/Residential**

- Officers Housing
- Bachelor Officers Quarters (BOQs)
- Non-commissioned Officers Quarters (NCO Quarters)
- Barracks/Dormitories
- Detached Lavatories/Bathhouses
- Garages
- Servants Quarters

**Personnel Support**

- Assembly Halls
- Athletic Facilities
- Chapels
- Clubs
- Post Exchanges
- Theaters

**Transportation**

- Stables and Stable Complexes
- Motor Pools
- Gas Stations

**Aircraft Facilities**

- Airplane Hangars
- Air Strips/Runways
- Radar Facilities
- Missile Launch Facilities
- Missile Control Facilities

**Base Infrastructure**

- Power Plants/Electrical Systems
- Water and Sewer Systems

**Storage**

- Depots
- General Storage
- Ordnance Storage

**Field Training Facilities and Equipment**

- Bivouac Areas
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- Small Arms Ranges
- Artillery and Bombardment Ranges

## 9.2 EVALUATION CRITERIA

### 9.2.1 *National Register of Historic Places Criteria for Evaluation*

Properties are generally historically significant if they meet three general criteria for listing in the NRHP, as defined in the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) of 1966 (16 U.S. Code 470 and as amended). Properties (buildings, districts, structures, sites, and objects) are eligible for listing in the NHPA if they 1) possess significance in relation to their historic contexts; and in addition to that significance, if they 2) possess integrity. In general, properties must 3) be at least 50 years old in order to be considered eligible for the National Register. However, properties with exceptional significance may qualify for inclusion in the National Register prior to reaching 50 years of age.

Properties may be eligible for nomination to and listing in the NHPA if they possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association and have documented significance in one or more of the following categories:

- A. Association with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history.
- B. Association with the lives of persons significant in our past.
- C. Embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction; represent the work of a master; or possess high artistic values; or represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction.
- D. Have yielded or be likely to yield information important to history or pre-history. (National Park Service 1997, 2).

Cemeteries, birthplaces or graves of historical figures, properties owned by religious institutions or used for religious purposes, structures that are no longer in their original locations, reconstructed historical buildings, properties primarily commemorative in nature, and properties

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that have achieved significance with the past 50 years are ordinarily not eligible for the NRHP.

However, such properties will qualify for the NRHP if they are integral parts of historic districts that meet the NHPA criteria or if they fall within the following criteria considerations:

- a. A religious property deriving primary significance from architectural or artistic distinction or historical importance.
- b. A building or structure removed from its original location but which is significant primarily for architectural value or which is the surviving structure most importantly associated with a historic person or event.
- c. A birthplace or grave of a historical figure of outstanding importance if there is no appropriate site or building directly associated with his or her productive life.
- d. A cemetery which derives its primary significance from graves of persons of transcendent importance, from age, from distinctive design features, or from association with historic events.
- e. A reconstructed building when accurately executed in a suitable environment and presented in a dignified manner as part of a restoration master plan and when no other building or structure with the same association has survived.
- f. A property primarily commemorative in intent if design, age, tradition, or symbolic value has invested it with its own exceptional significance.
- g. A property achieving significance within the past 50 years if it is of exceptional importance (National Park Service 1997, 2).

### ***9.2.2 Special Consideration for Cold War Properties Less than 50 Years Old***

Ordinarily properties that have achieved significance within the past 50 years are not eligible for the National Register unless documentation shows that they have exceptional significance. The Cold War (1946-1989) is easily identifiable as a significant period in our recent past because it is associated with important and dramatic events that greatly influenced the broad patterns of American history. Because of the rapid technology advances and the continued active use of Cold War-era military installations, properties associated with and representative of the Cold War era are frequently threatened long before reaching the 50-year requirement for the inclusion in the National Register. Therefore, the U.S. Army, Navy and Air Force have prepared

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special evaluation criteria specifically designed to address the significant Cold War resource of each agency.

This report uses criteria developed by the U.S. Army and Air Force for evaluating Cold War-era buildings and structures for their significance to and in the context of the Cold War. Three documents are applicable to Cold War era military properties in Wyoming: *Coming in from the Cold: Military Heritage in the Cold War* (U.S. Department of Defense 1993), *Cold War Infrastructure for Air Defense: The Fighter and Command Missions* (Weitze 1999), and *Interim Guidance: Treatment of Cold War Historic Properties for U.S. Air Force Installations* (U.S. Air Force 1993). Under the general umbrella guidance of the 1993 Department of Defense document, the military services agree that Cold War historic properties should be eligible at the national level, rather than at the regional or local level of significance. If a property is eligible at the national level and possesses exceptional significance, then it may also be eligible for nomination as a National Historic Landmark. For this determination the property should meet at least one NRHP criterion, as stated above, but with the more stringent level of *exceptional* significance.

The DOD's historic context *Coming in from the Cold: Military Heritage in the Cold War* does not recommend determining all Cold War properties as eligible for the NRHP. It does recommend stewardship of buildings that are representative of distinct property types from the Cold War era. For example, "properties owned by DOD might, for example, be valuable because of their technological associations or their connection with the military mission" (U.S. Department of Defense 1993). That document also identifies additional questions to consider when evaluating Cold War resources (in bold below):

- **How central were they to the military function?** Properties that were not central to the specific military mission of the installation or to a specific important

event, are usually not eligible for the NRHP. A missile control facility would be central to F.E. Warren's function, but 1950s-1980s housing at the base might not because housing is ubiquitous and therefore not of exceptional significance within the national Cold War context.

- **How many were developed or constructed?** Mass-produced structures or facilities are unlikely to have exceptional significance. However, even mass-produced structures or facilities could be eligible if they are of exceptional significance and are rare surviving examples.
- **How much did the Department of Defense invest in them?** Investment may be one indication of relative importance within the national context. The Atlas and Minuteman missile systems were hugely expensive within the total DOD budget during the Cold War.
- **Does a site or structure retain historical integrity?** Again, because many Cold War installations underwent substantial change both during and after the Cold War era, many properties do not retain sufficient integrity from the 1946-1989 period to represent their historical significance.
- **What and where, are similar or equivalent properties?** These questions are often difficult to answer, even on a state level, because of the absence of complete inventories of properties of particular types.

Buildings and structures that lack individual distinction and therefore would not be individually eligible for the National Register might be significant for their contributions to a historic district. A historic district is a group of resources linked by location, design and historic context. Many military installations consist of properties in definable areas that were constructed for related activities directly associated with or in support of the primary mission of the installation. When identifying and evaluating historic properties on military installations, the DOD recommends examination of groups of buildings and structures, such as the cantonment area or main base area, to determine if they meet the National Register requirements for evaluation as historic districts.

In addition, the Army recommends a cultural landscape approach to evaluation of historic properties. The cultural landscape approach calls for the consideration of the relationship of all cultural properties within their natural setting, and includes designed historic landscapes such as those often found within historic districts of cantonment areas. Examples of designed historic landscapes include parade grounds, parks, recreation areas, sidewalks, curbs and gutters.

### 9.2.3 Integrity Criteria

To be eligible for listing in the NRHP, resources must be significant and retain integrity. Integrity is “the ability of a property to convey its significance.” For historic resources, integrity is considered and evaluated after the property’s significance has been established. Integrity is evaluated by considering how the resource’s physical attributes relate to its significance. Change does not automatically mean a property has lost integrity; in fact, evolution may be important to a property’s significance. However, the accumulation of numerous changes and alterations over time can render the property’s original appearance or function unrecognizable and thus result in a loss of integrity.

Seven aspects of integrity must be considered after the significance of a property has been determined: setting, location, design, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. Resources must demonstrate at least minimal levels of integrity in those aspects that are most appropriately related to the significance of the resource. If a property is significant because of its design, then the integrity of its design would be the most critical aspect. If a property is significant because it represents a particular event, aspects of integrity such as setting, feeling and association would likely be more important than design. These same considerations may apply to portable artifacts or historic landscapes, as well as to sites and structures.

The process of evaluation of integrity is described in detail in the *Context Study of the United States Quartermaster General Standardized Plans, 1866-1942* (Chattey et al. 1997). A brief summary from that document is provided below to clarify issues related to the seven aspects of integrity.

Location is the site where the building or structure was originally constructed. Except in rare cases the relationship between a building and its historic associations is destroyed if a building is moved. A regimental commander’s house, built from standardized plans and

moved from its location with other regimental buildings into a group of dissimilar houses for use as a guest house area would not, therefore, have integrity of location.

Design is the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property. The design process, at the time of construction or during alteration, applies to community planning, engineering, architecture, and landscape architecture. Design reflects historic functions, technologies, and aesthetics and includes the structural system; massing; arrangement of spaces; pattern of fenestration; textures and colors of surface materials; type, amount, and style of ornamentation; and arrangement and type of plantings in a designed landscape. Removing a gable roof from a 1941 mess hall and replacing it with a flat roof would diminish the design integrity of the building.

Setting is the physical environment of an historic building or structure. Setting refers to the character of the place in which the property played its historic role. It involves how not just where a building is situated and its relationship to the surrounding features and open space. Setting often reflects the physical conditions under which a building was constructed and the functions it was intended to serve. The way a property is positioned in an environment can reflect the designer's intent and preferences. Integrity of setting can be compromised by construction of dissimilar buildings surrounding a historic building.

Materials are the elements that were combined at a particular time or in a particular pattern to construct a building or structure. Materials reflect the choice of those who created the building or structure and indicate availability of particular types of materials and technologies, thereby helping to define an area's sense of time and place. Rehabilitation is acceptable in historic buildings if the key exterior materials and significant features have been preserved. Reconstructed or replicated buildings do not have integrity of materials.

Workmanship is the physical evidence of the labor and skill of a particular culture or people. Workmanship can apply to a building or a structure as a whole or to its individual components. Vernacular methods of construction, traditional configurations and ornament, and the application of unique technologies are all evidence of workmanship. Other examples include tooling, carving, painting, graining, turning, and joinery.

Feeling is a building's expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of a particular time. Feeling results from the presence of features that, taken together, convey historic character. For example, the rows of mess halls and latrines at Camp Guernsey evoke a sense of Army National Guard life in the early to mid 20th century.

Association is the direct link between an important historic event or person and a historic building or structure. Association is present if it is the place where the event or activity occurred and it is sufficiently intact to convey that relationship to an observer. For example, an industrial area containing warehouses built during WWI would retain the quality of association with Quartermaster supply operations if the area and the warehouses have remained intact. Neither feeling nor association are sufficient by themselves to assure that a building or structure has physical integrity (Chattey et al. 1997, 20).

#### 9.2.4 *Period of Significance*

A period of significance is the length of time when a property was associated with important events, activities, or persons, or attained the characteristics which qualify it for NRHP listing. A period of significance usually begins with the date when significant activities or events began giving the property its historic significance; this is often a date of construction. Guidelines for selecting a period of significance for a property are associated with the type of significance under the Criteria for Evaluation:

Criterion A: For the site of an important event, such as a pivotal five-month labor strike, the period of significance is the time when the event occurred. For properties associated with historic trends, such as commercial development, the period of significance is the span of time when the property actively contributed to the trend.

Criterion B: The period of significance for a property significant for Criterion B is usually the length of time the property was associated with the important person.

Criterion C: For architecturally significant properties, the period of significance is the date of construction and/or the dates of any significant alterations and additions.

Criterion D: The period of significance for an archaeological site is the estimated time when it was occupied or used for reasons related to its importance, for example, 3000-2500 B.C.

Additionally,

- The property must possess historic integrity for all identified periods of significance in order to be eligible for the NRHP under each period.
- Continued use or activity does not necessarily justify continuing the period of significance. The period of significance is based upon the time when the property made the contributions or achieved the character on which significance is based.
- Fifty years ago is used as the closing date for periods of significance where activities begun historically continued to have importance and no more specific date can be defined to end the historic period. Events and activities occurring within the last 50 years must be exceptionally important to be recognized as “historic” and to justify extending the period of significance beyond the limit of 50 years ago (National Park Service 1997b, 42).

Periods of significance for military properties addressed in this document could start before 1920, the beginning date for the current study, such as properties at the former Fort D.A. Russell/Fort F.E. Warren, Pole Mountain Target and Maneuver Area, and the Wyoming Veterans

Home. Periods of significance for some properties could extend beyond 1959, which is 50 years ago at this writing in 2009, certainly including the Atlas and Minuteman missile complexes. The historical narrative in this document is sectioned into three general periods: the interwar period, 1920-1940; WWII, 1940-1946; and the Cold War era, 1946-1989, but many of the military complexes and individual properties span two or more of these periods. Notable exceptions are the Quartermaster complex at F.E. Warren AFB whose period of significance is only WWII, and the ICBM missile complex whose period of significance is only the Cold War era.

### **9.3 MAJOR TRAINING/ACTIVITY COMPLEXES**

Wyoming's military history from 1920 to 1989 involved relatively few large installations or training sites or in the case of CCC and POW camps, multiple sites that are elements of cohesive multiple properties groups because of similarities in historical associations, periods of significance, functions, and often physical forms.

#### **9.3.1 *F.E. Warren AFB***

##### **9.3.1.1 History and Periods of Significance**

The current F.E. Warren Air Force Base began in 1867 as a frontier Army post intended to protect construction and operation of the transcontinental railroad and the transcontinental telegraph line, but also to provide troops and supplies for Indian Wars campaigns and other forts in the region. The original Fort D.A. Russell grew to be perhaps the largest cavalry post in the United States Army and the post's troops took part in expeditions against hostile Indians on the Northern Plains, the Spanish American War and the prolonged Philippine insurgency from 1898 to 1907, patrols along the Mexican border from 1911 to 1916, WWI in Europe in 1917-1918, WWII in 1940-1946, and multiple domestic actions to protect property and enforce order from 1877 to 1940. The post was a major cavalry and artillery training center during WWI, and it was a major Quartermaster Corps training center before and during WWII.

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The Army renamed Fort D.A. Russell Fort F.E. Warren in 1930 to commemorate the post's long-time champion, Senator Francis E. Warren of Wyoming. The Army maintained the post for a time after WWII primarily as a demobilization center and turned the post over to the new U.S. Air Force in 1947. The post became F.E. Warren Air Force Base in 1949, and it functioned primarily as a training center until 1958, when it became the headquarters for one of the first installations of Atlas ICBMs. The Air Force replaced the Atlas ICBMs with 200 Minuteman ICBMs beginning in 1965, and with Minuteman III missiles by 1974. The Air Force replaced 50 Minuteman III missiles with MX or Peacekeeper ICBMs from 1985 to 1988. F.E. Warren AFB was, and is, the operational center for the largest and most powerful ballistic missile defense system in the United States.

F.E. Warren AFB includes historic resources with periods of significance from 1867 to 1989, including standing structures and historical archaeological sites; the post also contains some prehistoric archaeological resources that fall outside the scope of this document. Within the 1920 to 1989 period addressed in this document, key periods of significance are 1940 to 1943 during construction and operation of the Quartermaster Corps training facility and 1958 to 1989 during the installation and operation of the Atlas/Minuteman/Peacekeeper ICBM systems.

#### **9.3.1.2 Description and Construction History**

F.E. Warren AFB is located on the west side of Cheyenne, in Laramie County. The main base occupies an area of 5,872 acres, which includes the main cantonment area and surrounding training lands. Initial construction in 1867 consisted of log huts and wood frame structures; by 1869 the post included at least 77 wood frame structures positioned around a diamond shaped parade ground. The Army built at least 35 permanent brick structures and 13 wood frame structures from 1885 to 1890, and built an additional 8 brick and 6 wood frame buildings and a 1,000-yard rifle range between 1893 and 1900. Fort D.A. Russell again underwent substantial

expansion in 1902 and again in 1905, which resulted in construction of 150 buildings by 1914, many of which were one-story or two-story red brick structures and many of which are extant at the base in 2009. The designs of the permanent brick structures are functional adaptations of Colonial Revival Style, with raised basements, red brick walls, and white Tuscan-order columns (Air Force Regional Civil Engineer – Ballistic Missile Support 1984, 2-1).



**"The Bricks" Quarters 7, August 2006**

Photograph courtesy TolTest, Inc.



**"The Bricks," date unknown**

Photograph courtesy F.E. Warren AFB, Cultural Resources Management Office

Very little if any construction occurred at Fort D.A. Russell during WWI. Limited new construction occurred from 1920 to 1940 and the 24 structures erected during that time mostly following the architectural pattern of the 1902-1914 period. By 1931 the post included 259 permanent buildings, 26 temporary buildings (warrant officer and non-commissioned officer or NCO quarters), and 10 permanent buildings under construction which mostly replaced some of the temporary buildings then in use. The Army built a theater and gymnasium in 1939, encroaching on parade grounds but dressed up in Colonial Revival details (Air Force Regional Civil Engineer – Ballistic Missile Support 1984, 3-61).

The War Department chose Fort F.E. Warren in 1940 as the site of a Quartermaster Corps Replacement Center, as part of preparation for entry into WWII. To accommodate as many as



20,000 men at a time, the Army built 387 new buildings at the base between December 1940 and December 1941. Army planners located most of these structures in the area to the south of Crow Creek, to the south of the older fort area, but some WWII structures were scattered throughout the main fort area. The Quartermaster Corps Replacement Center consisted of five major building groups located along three sides of a rectangular parade ground. The complex included separate White and Colored regimental areas, a V-shaped hospital area, classrooms, clubs, maintenance service and training shops, and structures that served common base support functions. The Army intended structures built during this period to be “temporary” and to be used only during the period of national emergency. Therefore, the Army constructed the buildings quickly and cheaply. The Army and Air Force demolished or otherwise removed nearly all of these structures after WWII, so that by 1967 only a few such structures remained (Air Force Regional Civil Engineer – Ballistic Missile Support 1984, 3-65).

The new U.S. Air Force assumed control of Fort F.E. Warren in 1947 and operated the base as a training facility until 1958. During that time, the Air Force constructed at least ten educational and administrative buildings within the street grid of the former Quartermaster Corps Replacement Center to the south of the main cantonment area. In 1952 the Air Force constructed 325 Wherry housing units on the former site of the 1919-1920 airstrip adjacent to the historic cantonment area. These structures departed from the plan, design, and materials of the historic structures and complex: the Air Force constructed the concrete block, one-story houses in Ranch style with brick facing according to seven designs that varied largely in dimensions. The Air Force demolished all Wherry housing in the 1990s (Air Force Regional Civil Engineer – Ballistic Missile Support 1984, 3-68, 69. Clow et al. 2005, 33).

The Department of Defense designated F.E. Warren AFB as the headquarters for Atlas ICBM installation in 1957-1958 and subsequently for Minuteman and Peacekeeper ICBMs. To house a growing base population, the Air Force began a second major housing development in 1962 to the northwest of the historic cantonment area. This Capehart housing group consisted of 90 single and double family houses that are one-story, gabled wood frame structures with clapboard and some brick exterior sheathing. Other changes at F.E. Warren AFB resulting from the base's role as ICBM headquarters include alteration of some historic stables for use as missile service facilities, partitioning of barracks for use as offices, and conversion of the former hospital into an administrative facility (Air Force Regional Civil Engineer – Ballistic Missile Support 1984, 3-69).

#### **9.3.1.3 Current Condition**

F.E. Warren AFB remains in active use as a major U.S. Air Force installation that controls 150 Minuteman III and 50 MX or Peacekeeper ICBMs in southeastern Wyoming, western Nebraska, and northeastern Colorado.

#### **9.3.1.4 Cultural Resources Investigations at F.E. Warren AFB**

More than 80 cultural resources or historical studies have been conducted at F.E. Warren AFB or for outlying missile facilities since 1983, including archaeological surveys, historic structures surveys and evaluations, Historic American Building Survey (HABS)/HAER documentations, ethnographic studies, and cultural resource management plans. Two historic building studies are particularly germane to the current context: in the 1980s URS Berger recorded 311 modern and historic buildings both within and outside the NRHP district/National Historic Landmarks (NHL) as part of studies related to Peacekeeper ICBM basing and Parsons Engineering completed a study in 1996 focused entirely on buildings within the historic district/NHL (Air Force Regional Civil Engineer – Ballistic Missile Support 1984; Parsons

Engineering 1996). Probably the most comprehensive and synthetic compilation of cultural resources research regarding F.E. Warren is in *F.E. Warren Air Force Base Integrated Cultural Resources Management Plan* (Clow et al. 2005), which is available at F.E. Warren AFB and at Wyoming State Historic Preservation Offices in Cheyenne and Laramie.

#### **9.3.1.5 Historic Properties at F.E. Warren AFB from the 1920-1989 Period**

Historic properties at F.E. Warren include buildings, structures, landscapes, and objects. Most of the historic properties are within an NRHP historic district established in 1969 and also within the boundaries of an NHL created in 1975 and revised in 2002 (Frost 1975, Rosenberg 2002). Table 9-1 presents properties from the 1920 to 1958 period that are listed on or recommended to be eligible for listing on the NRHP (Clow et al. 2005, 33-38).

F.E. Warren AFB and its associated ICBM facilities played an exceptionally important role in Cold War History of the United States from 1946 to 1989. Properties listed in Table 9-2 are Cold War Era facilities of exceptional importance and therefore eligible for the NRHP. Note that some of these facilities are in a wide range around F.E. Warren AFB (Clow et al. 2005, 122; Wyoming Cultural Resource Information System 2008).

Many other individual properties at F.E. Warren AFB are not eligible for listing in the NRHP. Non-eligible property types from the 1920-1989 period include various housing, administrative, and support structures, foundations or other remains of WWII temporary buildings, and many Cold War era administrative and support buildings that were not of exceptional importance to the installation's missile mission. F.E. Warren also includes facilities such as small arms ranges that were established prior to 1920 but were used through WWII.

**Table 9-1**  
**F.E. Warren Historic Properties, 1920-1958**

Bldg. #	Site #	Built	Original Function	Present Function	NR Dist
98	1834	1932	Company Officers Qtrs	Officers Qtrs	Yes
99	1835	1932	Company Officers Qtrs	Officers Qtrs	Yes
100	1836	1932	Company Officers Qtrs	Officers Qtrs	Yes
101	1837	1936	Cemetery Vault	Cemetery Vault	Yes
131	1853	1932	Company Officers Qtrs	Officers Qtrs	Yes
146	1857	1945	WWII Monument	WWII Monument	Yes
150	1858	1939	Base Theater	Base Theater	Yes
151	1859	1940	Base Gymnasium	Base Gymnasium	Yes
152	1860	1938	Medical Barracks	Education Offices	Yes
153	1861	1939	Boy Scout Lodge	Boy Scout Lodge	Yes
154	1862	1939	Stone Wall, Crematory	Ruin	Yes
208	1865	1931	Detachment Barracks	Contracting Office	Yes
240	1888	1940	Barracks	90 Missile Engineering	Yes
242	1890	1940	Barracks	Barracks	Yes
319	1925	1936	Scale House	Storage	Yes
360	1944	1941	Gas Valve Facility	Vacant	Yes
364	1946	1938	QM Gas Station	Vacant	Yes
398	1962	1931	NCO Housing	NCO Housing	Yes
402	1963	1931	NCO Housing	NCO Housing	Yes
404	1964	1931	NCO Housing	NCO Housing	Yes
410	1965	1933	NCO Housing	NCO Housing	Yes
412	1966	1933	NCO Housing	NCO Housing	Yes
414	1967	1933	NCO Housing	NCO Housing	Yes
416	1968	1933	NCO Housing	NCO Housing	Yes
418	1969	1933	NCO Housing	NCO Housing	Yes
420	1970	1933	NCO Housing	NCO Housing	Yes
422	1971	1933	NCO Housing	NCO Housing	Yes
424	1972	1933	NCO Housing	NCO Housing	Yes
440		1930	Camp Carlin Monument	Camp Carlin Monument	Yes
916	1979	1942	WWII Chapel	Chapel	Yes
1037	1980	1941	Fire Station	Contractor Storage	No
2240		1941	Ordnance Magazine	Ordnance Magazine	No
2241		1941	Ordnance Magazine	Ordnance Magazine	No
2242		1941	Ordnance Magazine	Ordnance Magazine	No
2243		1941	Ordnance Magazine	Ordnance Magazine	No
2244		1941	Ordnance Magazine	Ordnance Magazine	No
N/A	1605		WWII Artillery Range	Vacant	No

**Table 9-2**  
**F.E. Warren Significant Cold War Facilities, 1946-1989**

Building/Facility	Site Number	Constructed	Function
480		1968	Training Facility
486		1986	Training Facility
1125		1963/1984	Entry Facility
1151		1963/1984	System Assembly
1152		1963/1984	Re-entry Vehicle
1153		1963/1984	Storage
1154		1963/1984	Storage
1155		1963/1984	Storage
1156		1963/1984	Storage
1157		1963/1984	Igloo
1158		1963/1984	Igloo
1159		1963/1984	Waste Storage
1161		1963/1984	Igloo
1162		1963/1984	Igloo
1163		1963/1984	Igloo
1164		1963/1984	Storage
1167		1963/1984	Guard Tower
1168		1963/1984	Power Station
1170		1963/1984	Fire Team Facility
1173		1963/1984	Transporter
1174		1963/1984	Re-entry Vehicle
1175		1963/1984	Storage
1294		1958	Missile Launch Trainer
1500		1984	Rail Transfer
1501		1984	Maintenance
1502		1984	Materials Processing
1503		1984	Missile Storage
1504		1984	Missile Storage
1505		1984	Missile Storage
1506		1984	Missile Storage
1508		1984	Emplace Facility
R-1 through R-11 in Goshen County	48GO411-418	1963/1975/1986	Peacekeeper Missile Launch Facilities
S-1 through S-11 in Goshen County	48GO419-429	1963/1975/1986	Peacekeeper Missile Launch Facilities
B-9 in Goshen County	48GO431	1963	Missile Alert Facility
B-11 in Goshen County	48GO432	1963	Missile Alert Facility
B-10 in Goshen County	48GO432 (per WYCRIS)	1963	Missile Alert Facility
Minuteman Missile in Laramie County	48LA1210	1963/1974	Missile Launch Facility

Building/Facility	Site Number	Constructed	Function
P-1 through P-11 in Laramie County	48LA1584-1594	1963/1975/1986	Peacekeeper Launch Facilities
Q-1, Q-3 through Q-8, Q-11 in Laramie County	48LA1595-1602	1963/1975/1986	Peacekeeper Launch Facilities
A-1 in Laramie County	48LA1983	1963	Missile Alert Facility
A-2 through A-11 in Laramie County	48LA1984-1993	1963/1974	Missile Launch Facilities
E-8 through E-11 in Laramie County	48LA1994-1997	1963/1974	Missile Launch Facilities
B-7, B-8 in Laramie County	48LA1998, 1999	1963/1974	Missile Launch Facilities
Q-2, Q-9, Q-10 in Platte County	48PL1230-1232	1963/1975/1986	Peacekeeper Missile Launch Facilities
R-8, R-9, R-10 in Platte County	48PL1233-1235	1963/1975/1986	Peacekeeper Missile Launch Facilities
T-1 through T-11 in Platte County	48PL1236-1246	1963/1975/1986	Peacekeeper Missile Launch Facilities

### ***9.3.2 Pole Mountain Target and Maneuver Area***

#### **9.3.2.1 History and Periods of Significance**

Pole Mountain Target and Maneuver Area, also known as the Pole Mountain Military Reservation, is approximately six miles east of Laramie, Wyoming. At the request of the Secretary of War in 1879, President Rutherford B. Hayes set aside a tract of land as a wood and timber reservation for the use of Forts Sanders and D.A. Russell and the Cheyenne Depot. In 1900 President William McKinley authorized creation of the Crow Creek Forest Reserve, which later became the Pole Mountain Division of the Medicine Bow National Forest. In October 1903 President Theodore Roosevelt transferred Crow Creek Forest Reserve to the War Department for use as a military reserve, under the condition that military use would not interfere with Forest Preserve objectives. The agencies that became the U.S. Forest Service and the War Department jointly administered the area until 1910; the War Department alone managed the reservation from 1910 to 1925. After a re-evaluation of the property in 1924 the War Department reduced the military reservation from approximately 62,448 acres to 3,317 acres, but the entire area of

former military reservation was still available to the Army for training purposes (Grasso et al. 1981, 235-240).

The Army used the Pole Mountain area for artillery training and large-scale cavalry and infantry maneuvers. In 1925 summer activities at Pole Mountain included Army Air Service airplanes that performed reconnaissance and practicing artillery fire in war maneuvers (Hutchinson 2001, 48). The reservation also provided facilities for two-week summer training by the Wyoming National Guard as early as 1910 and continuing until 1938 when the Guard began using Camp Guernsey, near the town of that name, for its annual training sessions. The Army at Fort D.A. Russell and later Fort F.E. Warren continued to use the Pole Mountain facility for ordnance training until 1945 and the property thereafter became primarily a military hunting and fishing preserve. The Army transferred the property to the new U.S. Air Force in 1947 as part of the F.E. Warren Air Force Base. The DOD relinquished the facility to the Department of Agriculture in 1959 and in 1961 the property became part of the Pole Mountain Division of the Medicine Bow National Forest.

The period of significance for the Pole Mountain Target and Maneuver Area is 1903 to 1945, which is the period of documented use of the area for military training.

#### **9.3.2.2 Description and Construction History**

The Pole Mountain Target and Maneuver Area was also called the Fort D.A. Russell Target and Maneuver Reservation, Fort Francis E. Warren Target and Maneuver Area, and the Pole Mountain Training Annex of F.E. Warren AFB. The original reservation area consisted of 62,448 acres located in Albany County 6 miles east of Laramie and 24 miles west of Cheyenne. Fort D.A. Russell personnel used the site for large-scale infantry, artillery and cavalry training, live fire practice, and unit maneuvers. The War Department specifically denied funding for a permanent Army camp on the reservation, on the basis that the land was unsuitable for year-

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round training or mobilization functions because of cold winter conditions and sometimes heavy snow that made the area impassible.

The Wyoming National Guard and Guard units from neighboring states also used the Pole Mountain Target and Maneuver Area for their annual two-week field training, beginning at least as early as 1910. The Wyoming National Guard was more successful in obtaining funding for permanent camp improvements. In 1925 the federal government appropriated \$10,000 for the first phase of development of a permanent camp estimated to eventually cost \$100,000. Five double kitchens and mess halls were constructed in the spring of 1925. At that time plans included additional buildings that would cost \$25,000. These buildings included a bath house capable of accommodating 50 men at a time, five latrines, an administration building, and a warehouse. The warehouse was definitely constructed; the Army turned it over to the Forest Service in 1928 (Grasso et al. 1981, 237). In 1914, the Army constructed a reservoir with 100,000 gallon capacity and the water was piped to the mess halls and to horse picket lines.

The National Guard and the Army accomplished most of their activities in a relatively small area of less than one and a half square miles of the reserve, which also included the National Guard camp. The CCC established a camp on Pole Mountain in the 1930s, presumably at the National Guard camp. Among other activities, the CCC enrollees built three dams on Pole Creek to improve fishing and provide soldiers with bathing facilities, water for livestock, and opportunities for pontoon bridge practice. Additional newly constructed structures may have supported CCC operations or expanded training during WWII; in 1944, the Army maintained a caretaker at Pole Mountain for 23 buildings, a rifle range, and other government property (Grasso et al. 1981, 238-239). A separate report indicates that 18 buildings were on the site at an unspecified date: a mess hall, quarters, a warehouse, a pump house, an emergency electrical plant



building, underground vault buildings, and miscellaneous structures (U.S. Department of Defense 2003, n.p.). Still a third document (U.S. Army n.d.) indicates that 28 buildings existed there at some time between 1930 and 1947.

#### **9.3.2.3 Current Condition**

The Pole Mountain Target and Maneuver Reservation largely served as an Army and Air Force hunting and fishing area after WWII. The remaining 3,717-acre area became part of the Medicine Bow National Forest in 1959 and all military interests in the former Reservation ceased in 1961. The property is currently used for recreation and livestock grazing. Citizens have found unexploded ordnance in areas frequented by the public and as early as 1993 the DOD began investigating the area as a Formerly Used Defense Site (FUDS) for purposes of identification and clean-up of hazardous materials. Remedial action began in Fiscal Year 2006 and will be completed in Fiscal Year 2013, at an estimated cost of more than \$25 million (U.S. Department of Defense 2003, n.p.).

#### **9.3.2.4 Cultural Resources Investigations**

Possibly the first effort to address military cultural resources at the Pole Mountain Target and Maneuver Reservation was a section titled “Military Use of Pole Mountain” included in *Cultural Resource Overview, Medicine Bow National Forest Including the Thunder Basin National Grassland* (Grasso et al. 1981). In October 1999, TAMS Consultants completed a Class I Cultural Resource Survey for the entire former Reservation, which largely repeated the previous historical overview but also discussed military-related sites found in the records at that time (Coyle et al. 1999). Because the Pole Mountain Reservation was a very large area, at least 17 cultural resources field investigations have occurred there for a variety of projects or range management activities. At least five of the investigations have addressed portions or all of the

primary military activity area, but none of those investigations appears to have directly focused on recording the military features.

### 9.3.2.5 Historic Resources at Pole Mountain, 1920-1989 Period

Seven recorded cultural resources sites or complexes within the former Pole Mountain Target and Maneuver Area date or may date from the 1920 to 1989 period, as indicated in Table 9-3.

**Table 9-3**  
**Military Sites Recorded at Former Pole Mountain Reserve**

Site name	Site Num.	Site type	Service Period	NRHP Status
LP2 Mortar Firing Pos	AB 976	Military-Other	Unknown	Not Eligible (SHPO Concurrence)
Merritt Hill Bunker	AB 1048	Military-Other	1941-1959	Eligible (SHPO Concurrence)
Bisbee Hill Bunker	AB 1049	Military-Other	1941-1959	Eligible (SHPO Concurrence)
PMR-02-B	AB 1332	Historic Military Camp	1920s - 1930s	Eligibility Unknown
PMR-02-G	AB 1337	Historic Military Camp		Not Elig/Consultant/No Review
Pole Mtn Military Res	AB 1445	Military-Other		Elig/Consultant/No Review
040614a-13	AB 1759	Military – Foundation		Contrib Consultant

The recorded properties at Pole Mountain represent three general property types: artillery ranges, field camps, and transportation/roads. Site AB976 is a mortar firing position that consists of two firing stations or pits with associated depressions that may be impact sites from fired mortar rounds. A scatter of historic debris and faint two-track roads are also associated with the firing pits. Sites AB1048 and AB1049 are concrete bunkers built in 1941 to provide protection for persons observing artillery maneuvers, and possibly also to expose troops to situations

involving artillery fire. Sites AB1332, AB1337, and possibly AB1759 are military campsites dating from the 1920s and later possibly associated with the National Guard training exercises, and related to regular Army activities. These sites contain concrete foundations, stone and concrete walls, various depressions, and artifact scatters. Site AB1445 is an omnibus site designation for multiple road and trail features over a wide area of the former military reservation, which the military presumably created and used during the 1920-1959 period.

### ***9.3.3 Casper Army Air Base and Bombing/Gunnery Ranges***

#### **9.3.3.1 History and Periods of Significance**

The Army officially opened Casper Army Air Base on September 1, 1942 for the purpose of training pilots and flight crews for the final phases of the airmen's training regimen before the crews went overseas and into combat. Pilots received intensive training for six to eight consecutive weeks, during which they received their final-phase training in B-17s, B-29s, and B-24 Liberator heavy bomber aircraft. Early in 1943 the B-24 Liberator and the B-24 replaced the B-17 at this facility, although the Army Air Force used the B-17 throughout WWII. To train new combat crews on these new bombers, experienced combat crews from overseas came to Casper Army Air Base. Bomber crews at the Casper Army Air Base trained in part by bombing and strafing targets at six large ranges located in remote, unpopulated territory to the west and southwest of Casper, designated Casper Precision Bombing Ranges #1, #2, #3, and #4, the Casper Air to Ground Gunnery Range and the Casper Ground Gunnery Range.

In addition to the bombers, pilots used Bell P-39 Aircobra and Bell P-63 Kingcobra fighter planes for training at the base by late 1943. Charles E. Yeager, who later attained reknown as an aircraft test pilot, was forced to bail out of his P-39 about fifteen miles west of Casper. Yeager broke his back in the incident and was rescued by a sheepherder. Yeager's experience at Casper Army Air Base included a little fun, as he described it in his autobiography:

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Sergeant Miller, who ran the flight line, knew how to make antelope roasts and steaks. One day, I drew a map for Miller and a few other enlisted men, who left base before dawn, armed with knives, carbines, and a map showing the back roads to a place where I had seen thick herds of antelope. I took off in a P-39 and began herding the antelope toward the road where Miller and his boys stood waiting. I charged one of the guns to fire one shot at a time and laid about ten antelope right at their feet. Roast would be the main course at the big squadron blowout before we left for Europe (Yeager and Janus 1985, 21).

In February 1944 Casper Army Air Base became an Army Air Field. By that time, the installation had expanded to accommodate 3,000 to 4,000 men at one time. In August 1944 the base had reached its maximum personnel strength with 3,393 military, 922 civilian personnel, and 164 combat



**Chuck Yeager in Flight School, ca. 1942**

Photograph courtesy U.S. Air Force Test Center History Office

crews. By October of that year the Army added a Search and Rescue Detachment. Previously various agencies provided loosely organized search and rescue efforts with whatever personnel were available. This addition is attributed to the fact that there were a high number of accidents involving the bombers. At least 27 crashes of bombers and fighter planes occurred during the base's operation, resulting in the deaths of at least 121 airmen (Rosenberg 2001, 8:67).

For two years the base operated at full training capacity. In February 1945 the last combat crews graduated and the Air Field deactivated on March 7, 1945. By that time the base had trained an estimated 16,000 combat crew members (Rosenberg 1989, 29).

Casper Army Airfield was scheduled for demolition and sale in 1948 as part of the nation's post-WWII demobilization. Brigadier General Roy "Bud" Cooper, who served as the first general of the Wyoming Air National Guard, was instrumental in convincing military and

government officials to keep WWII-era military sites open as assets for Wyoming. The airfield became the Natrona County Airport, which is now the Natrona County International Airport (Wyoming Department of Transportation 2007). A portion of the former Army airfield complex also became a major training area for Air National Guard units from Wyoming and several other states in the 1950s and 1960s. A portion of the former Army airfield is now the Casper Veterans Memorial Museum.

The period of significance for the former Casper Army Air Base is 1942 to 1945, when it served as an important training base for bomber and fighter pilots during WWII.

#### **9.3.3.2 Description and Construction History**

The base was just outside of Casper on a site that is now the Natrona County International Airport. Construction began in the spring of 1942 and within three and one-half months 4,000 workers were busy building more than 400 buildings, roads, and infrastructure for administrative quarters, barracks, hangars, and airstrips to serve the 3,000-4,000 anticipated residents on the new installation. A local Casper contracting company, Rognstad and Olsen, was the prime contractor for most of the buildings and Morrison-Knudsen of Boise, Idaho was the prime contractor for the runways, roads, hangars, and base sewer system. USACE officers supervised the construction. Much of the building construction followed an assembly-line process using separate crews to locate building sites, pour foundation slabs or piers, frame the structures, and close the structures with interior walls and siding (Rosenberg 2001, 7:7. Adams 1992, 8).

The installation was in a rectangular configuration with a central parade ground. Hangars, control tower, flight control, and other facilities related to air operations were along the northwest perimeter of the base adjacent to the runways. Other base facilities were grouped around the parade ground in rectangular blocks. Enlisted men's barracks, lavatories, day rooms,

supply buildings, and mess halls were in rows on the northwest, northeast, and southwest sides of the parade grounds. Hospital facilities were on the southeast side of the parade grounds, and warehouses were along the railroad siding along the northwest perimeter of the base. WAC barracks and mess facilities were at the southwest edge of the base. Officers quarters, mess, and club were adjacent to the southwest end of the parade ground. The northern part of the base included training facilities such as a machine gun lab, a sighting school for bombardiers, and a ground bombing school (Rosenberg 2001, 7:5).

The buildings were generally one story, wood frame structures with low gabled roofs, constructed to plans prepared by the Office of the Quartermaster General. The buildings were simple in design, intended to be temporary for use during the national emergency, inexpensive to build, and devoid of architectural embellishments (Rosenberg 2001, 7:7).

In 1943, Special Services assigned an artist, Corporal Leon Tebbetts, the task of decorating the interior of the Servicemen's Club. Tebbetts along with others decided to portray Wyoming history. This subject provided a way to acquaint personnel with the state they were training in and it was later said that the murals stood as a thank you to the civilians for their warmth and hospitality. The murals, completed by Tebbetts with the assistance of Sergeant J.P. Morgan, Private David Rosenblatt, and Sergeant William Doench, depict an Arapaho legend, Shoshone buffalo hunters, Yellowstone, the fur trade, laying track for the Union Pacific Railroad, Native American/Pioneer conflict and many other moments, activities and people important to Wyoming history. The Army formally dedicated these murals in June 1944. Although they also painted murals in the officers club and a chapel, the chapel has been moved and the officers club razed, leaving the murals in the Servicemen's Club the only remaining murals on the base (Rosenberg 2001, 8:69).

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#### **9.3.3.3 Current Condition**

The former Casper Army Air Force Base became a commercial airport in 1949, but the Air National Guard leased portions and maintained it as a major training center for ANG units until the 1960s. Approximately 100 of the 400 WWII structures of the installation remain on the site and concrete foundations mark locations of removed buildings and street arrangements. Original hangars and other buildings remain in use, although many have undergone alterations to accommodate adaptive reuses.

#### **9.3.3.4 Cultural Resources Investigations**

Two publications extensively address the history of the Casper Army Air Base, “The Casper Army Air Field in WWII” (Adams 1992) and in “Wyoming’s War Years, 1941-1945” (Larson 1993, 213-217). In 1994-1995, an intensive Class III survey of the former air base was conducted by Steven and Carol Mehls of Western Historical Studies, Inc. as part of an airport planning effort for the Natrona County International Airport (Mehls and Mehls 1995). Their study showed 109 buildings and structures associated with the Casper Army Air Base and recommended 103 of the buildings as contributing elements of an historic district eligible for the NRHP. In 2001 Robert Rosenberg re-surveyed the complex and prepared a NRHP nomination for an historic district that contained 103 buildings and structures (Rosenberg 2001). Of these, 91 buildings were contributing elements of the historic district, three were noncontributing historic buildings, seven were modern intrusive buildings, one was a contributing historic structure, and one was a modern intrusive structure, the water tower.

#### **9.3.3.5 Cultural Resources at Casper Army Air Base from the Period 1942 to 1945**

Much of the former Casper Army Air Base was listed on the NRHP in August 2001. The complex includes an exceptionally complete collection of representative WWII air base temporary structures. Table 9-4 presents the buildings and structures within the historic district

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boundaries; note that some non-contributing buildings associated with the WWII air base have lost integrity and that many concrete foundations and other “archaeological” features do not appear in the listing of contributing and non-contributing buildings and structures. Note also that this complex includes many of the property types addressed in Section 9.4, individual property types.

**Table 9-4**  
**Properties in Casper Army Air Base NRHP District**

Hist. Bldg. No.	Historic Use	Description	NRHP Status
10	Recreation Bldg., Flight Briefing Center	Two-story, wood frame, rectangular 124'x88', steel siding, monitor roof in 2 <sup>nd</sup> story, gabled and shed roofs on 1 <sup>st</sup> story additions, poured concrete slab foundation.	Contributing
11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 48, 61, 63, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 108, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 149, 164, 166, 168, 194, 1254, 1258, 1299	Barracks	One-story, wood frame, rectangular 20'x100', steel siding, gabled roof with exposed rafters and asbestos cement shingles, asphalt shingles, or asphalt roll material, poured concrete slab foundation. Some variation in roof vents, doors and windows. Interiors are open with wallboard between studs.	Contributing
38	Base Bank Bldg	Barracks building was used as base bank, same basic design/materials as Bldg. 11.	Contributing
39	Bowling Alley	One-story, wood frame, 40'x140', steel siding, gambrel roof with asphalt shingles, wall board between wood studs, poured concrete slab foundation. Bowling fixtures have been removed.	Contributing
42, 146, 1286, 1292, 1296,	Bathhouses	One-story, wood frame, 36'x25', steel siding, front-gabled roof with asbestos cement shingles, poured concrete slab foundation. Interior is open, wallboard between exposed wood studs. Bathhouses typically had 15 sinks, 12 toilets, nine urinals, a water fountain, and eight showers.	Contributing
44	Mess Hall	One-story, wood frame, 130'x25', steel siding, front-gabled roof with asbestos cement shingles, poured concrete slab foundation. Originally had a kitchen and seven rooms. Interior now is open with wallboard between exposed studs.	Contributing



Hist. Bldg. No.	Historic Use	Description	NRHP Status
47, 95, 97, 145, 147, 195, 197, 1297	Barracks	One-story, wood frame, rectangular 76'x20', steel siding, front-gabled roof with asbestos cement shingles, asphalt shingles, or rolled asphalt, and poured concrete slab foundations. Interiors are open with wallboard between studs.	Contributing
60	Theater	Rectangular central two-story unit flanked by lower additions, 85'x180', front-gabled roof on two story portion covered by rolled asphalt, lower flat-roofed additions also covered with rolled asphalt. Interior is a large open bay with rooms on the northeast side.	Contributing
94	Post Exchange	One-story, wood-framed with steel siding, 108'x40', front-gabled roof covered by rolled asphalt, and a poured concrete foundation. The interior is open and formerly had a kitchen and a rustic log bar, booths, and tables.	Contributing
98	Company HQ	One-story, wood-framed with steel siding, 20'x20', front-gabled roof with asphalt shingles, enclosed shed-roofed vestibule, poured concrete foundation. The interior is open finished with wallboard between exposed studs.	Contributing
99	Photo Lab	One-story, wood frame, 100'x27', steel siding, salt box roof with rolled asphalt, one side slope extended round chimney, poured concrete slab foundation. Interior is open with a storage area on the northeast side.	Contributing
141	Serviceman's Club	One-story, side-gabled roof with asphalt shingles, 140'x40', steel siding, poured concrete slab with low concrete foundation. Interior consists of a large central room with a smaller room to the northwest and a kitchen area, two smaller storage rooms, and bathroom facilities to the southeast. Well preserved WWII murals are present	Contributing
144	Mess Hall	One-story, front-gabled roof with asphalt shingles, 100'x40', wood frame covered with steel siding, two side-slope metal chimneys, poured concrete foundation. Interior now is open with wallboard between exposed studs	Contributing

Hist. Bldg. No.	Historic Use	Description	NRHP Status
148	Bathhouse	One-story, wood framed covered with steel siding, 20'x20', front-gabled roof with asphalt shingles, poured concrete foundation. The interior is open and finished with wallboard between exposed wood studs; the interior originally had two lavatories, one water closet, and three urinals.	Contributing
801	Hospital Admin. Bldg	One-story, wood frame covered with composition wood lap siding, 32'x147', side-gabled roof clad with asphalt shingles, exposed rafters, and roof vents and chimneys. Foundation is poured concrete. The interior was divided into three apartments at an unknown date.	Contributing
802	Nurses' Quarters	One-story, wood frame covered with composition board lap siding, 32'x122', side-gabled roof covered with asphalt shingles, exposed rafters, and a poured concrete foundation. Interior was divided into apartments at an unknown date.	Contributing
803	Nurses' Quarters	One-story, wood frame covered with composition board lap siding, 32'x110', side-gabled roof covered with asphalt shingles, exposed rafters, and a poured concrete foundation. Interior was divided into apartments at an unknown date.	Contributing
820, 821, 822, 823, 830	Hospital Ward	One-story, wood framed covered with red brick, asbestos shingles in gable end, 28'x151', front-gabled roof with asphalt shingles, exposed rafter ends, and numerous roof vents. Foundation is poured concrete. Interiors of 820 and 822 were divided into apartments at an unknown time; 821, 823, 830 were used for storage.	Contributing
832	Flight Surgeon's Office	One-story, wood frame covered with red brick, stucco in gabled ends, 80'x32', front-gabled roof with asphalt shingles, exposed rafters, and a poured concrete foundation. The interior was converted into apartments at an unknown date.	Contributing
833	Infirmery	Same basic design/materials as Bldg. 832	Contributing
840	Hospital Heating Bldg	Tall one-story, wood frame covered with red brick, 62'x37', front-gabled roof covered with rolled asphalt, poured concrete slab foundation. There is a large wood hinged double door in the rear of the building and a smaller twin-leaf wood garage door and a wooden pedestrian door. The interior is large and open.	Contributing

Hist. Bldg. No.	Historic Use	Description	NRHP Status
845	Hospital Ward	One-story, wood frame covered with red brick, stucco in northwest gable end and asbestos shingles in the southeast gable end, 151'x28', front-gabled roof with asbestos cement shingles, and a poured concrete foundation. The interior is open with bathrooms in the southwest corner.	Contributing
908	Refueling Unit Repair Shop	Tall one-story, wood frame covered with galvanized steel siding, 64'x18', front-gabled roof covered with asphalt shingles, poured concrete slab foundation. The interior is open.	Contributing
910	Motor Pool Garage	One-story, wood frame, 162'x72', steel siding, taller central unit with flanking shed additions. Front-gabled roof with shed roofed additions covered with rolled asphalt and tar, and a poured concrete slab foundation. The interior is one large central bay.	Contributing
920	School Bldg	One-story, wood frame, 64'x18', steel siding, front-gabled roof with rolled asphalt, two side slope round metal straddle-ridge ventilators, and a poured concrete slab foundation. The interior is divided into two rooms.	Contributing
929	Motor Repair Shop	One-story, wood frame, 92'x37', steel siding, low monitor roof clad with rolled asphalt, four straddle-ridge brick chimneys, and poured concrete foundation. The interior is a large storage area.	Contributing
950	Pump House	One-story, red brick, 40'x25', side-gabled roof with asphalt shingles, exposed rafters, one external brick chimney, and poured concrete foundation. The interior contains two electric pumps and one operated by propane.	Contributing
951	Water Tank (structure)	One-story, cylindrical 63' diameter by 11' high, with a concrete cap and a poured concrete foundation. The interior is approximately 60' deep and there is a steel rung ladder for inside access.	Contributing
999, 1002, 1006, 1015, 1016	Warehouse	One-story, wood frame, rectangular approximately 192'x50', steel siding, gabled roof with exposed rafters and asbestos cement shingles, asphalt shingles, or asphalt roll material, and poured concrete slab foundation. Some variation in roof vents, doors and windows. Interiors are divided into storage units.	Contributing

Hist. Bldg. No.	Historic Use	Description	NRHP Status
1005	Quartermaster Warehouse	One-story, wood frame, rectangular 192'x48', steel siding, gabled roof covered with rolled asphalt, and poured concrete slab foundation. Modern gable-roofed addition built onto southeast end of building. Interior is open with a concrete floor and wood truss roof supports.	Noncontributing
1017	Warehouse	One-story, wood frame covered with red brick, 192'x50', front-gabled roof with rolled asphalt, and a poured concrete foundation. The interior is open with an office area in the northwest end.	Contributing
1024	Quartermaster Salvage	One-story, wood frame, 30'x30', steel siding, gable roof roof clad with rolled asphalt, round metal slope chimney, and poured concrete foundation small shed addition. The interior is one open bay with a smaller room in the shed addition.	Contributing
1102	Fire Station	One-story, wood frame covered with steel siding, T-shaped – crew quarters (20'x66') and fire station (30'x48'). Gabled roof covered with asphalt shingles, poured concrete foundation. Interior is a garage area. Crew quarters contains a break room, two baths, two bedrooms, laundry area, kitchen, living room, and enclosed porch.	Contributing
1105	Quartermaster Warehouse	One-story, wood frame, steel siding, T-shaped – 80'x70' wing, tall central component with lower shed addition on the northwest end (40'x130'). Monitor roof with rolled asphalt, and poured concrete slab foundation. Interior is a large bay divided into smaller working areas.	Contributing
1115	Base Engineering Bldg	One-story, wood frame covered with steel siding, double, side by side, attached gable-roofed buildings each 60'x125', and lower gable-roofed addition (40'x30') on southeast. Double gable roof capped with unusual raised twin gabled monitor roofs with sloping side walls, and roofs are clad with asphalt shingles, tar, and gravel. Foundation is poured concrete. The interior consists of large open bays.	Contributing
1119	Hangar No. 5	Two-story, wood beams covered with steel siding, 228'x160', narrow shed roofed additions on the northwest and southwest sides, gabled roof with rolled asphalt and tar, and poured concrete foundation. Interior consists of two large bays with two stories of officer and storage rooms along each side.	Contributing

Hist. Bldg. No.	Historic Use	Description	NRHP Status
1123	Bomb Site Storage	One-story, wood frame covered with large composition wood panels, 51'x25' with a small gabled addition on the southwest side, gabled roof, asphalt shingles, side-slope round metal chimney, and poured concrete foundation. Interior is divided into storage space and offices.	Contributing
1143	Bomb Training Facility	Two-story, wood frame covered with steel siding, 76'x40' with low shed addition on northwest side, gable roof with asphalt shingles, and poured concrete foundation. Interior is a large open bay.	Contributing
1150, 1153, 1170, 1173	Hangar No. 3	Two-story, wood beams covered with steel siding, 120'x160', gabled roof with asphalt roofing and tar, and poured concrete foundation. The interior is open.	Contributing
1261/1262, 1263/1264	Double Barracks/Bath House	One-story, wood frame covered with steel siding, H-shaped with intervening connected bath house, 70'x100', and front-gabled roof with asbestos cement shingles, multiple ventilators, and poured concrete foundation. Each barracks has a small room located in the center of the interior.	Contributing
1269	Personnel Office	Barracks building was used as Personnel Office, same basic design/materials as Bldg. 11.	Contributing
M-1	Wash Bay Garage	One-story, ribbed steel, 75'x40', pitched side gable roof covered with metal, and poured concrete foundation, Interior is open.	Noncontributing
M-2	Snowplow Barn	One-story, ribbed steel, 120'x40', gable roof covered with metal, and poured concrete foundation, Interior is open.	Noncontributing
M-3	Aircraft Rescue & Fire Fighting Facility	Two-stories, concrete block, 20'x14', flat roof covered with tar and gravel, and poured concrete floor. Interior unknown.	Noncontributing
M-4, M-5	T-hangar	One-story, structural steel frame covered with steel ribbed sheathing, 330'x50', and gabled roof covered with steel sheeting. No foundation. Interior is open.	Noncontributing
M-6, M-7	T-hangar	One-story, structural steel frame covered with steel ribbed sheathing, 370'x400', and gabled roof covered with steel sheeting. No foundation. Interior is open.	Noncontributing
M-8	Water tower	Tall circular water tower, 50' in diameter, constructed in 1979.	Noncontributing

(Rosenberg 2001, 7:10-13, passim)

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### **9.3.4 *Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10 and Wyoming Air National Guard Facilities***

#### **9.3.4.1 History and Period of Significance**

Advances in aviation at Cheyenne's municipal airport during the interwar years later contributed to the role of the Army Air Force at the airport during WWII. Cheyenne first drew national attention as an aviation hub in 1920, when Congress established the first Transcontinental Air Mail Service and designated the Cheyenne MAP as an airfield along the route. The Cheyenne MAP became the division point halfway between Omaha, Nebraska and Salt Lake City, Utah and one of 14 terminal cities located between New York City and San Francisco. However, in 1920 the airfield was little more than a 200-acre field with a small, wood-frame hangar (Centennial Historical Committee 1967, 77-78).

United Airlines selected the Cheyenne MAP as the site of its central maintenance facility and moved all of its major maintenance operations to the airport by 1933. The increase in operations led to a major expansion in facility construction, which by one account, created "one of the largest overhaul maintenance base[s] in the world" (Rosenberg 1985, 5). Between 1938 and 1943, the City of Cheyenne purchased adjacent properties to expand the airport, which would later become part of the Air National Guard property during the post-war years (ANG 2001a). In 1939, the Wyoming legislature allocated \$10,000 for the establishment of a National Guard Air Squadron in the state (Wyoming Adjutant General's Office 1940, XXXIX).

The Cheyenne MAP was an attractive location for military air operations because of the already established United Air Lines aircraft maintenance facilities, its proximity with the nearby Fort F.E. Warren and its position along the transcontinental air route. When wartime flight restrictions along the Pacific Coast made commercial pilot training there difficult, United Airlines relocated its pilot training school to Cheyenne in 1942. The influx of instructors and students of aviation, along with United Airlines' repair and maintenance facilities at the

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Cheyenne MAP, helped make Cheyenne a major aviation hub between the coasts (Rosenberg 1985, 5).

The Army contracted with United Airlines in 1942 to construct and operate the Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10, which would complete modifications to bombers, including fitting with armament and other equipment. The “No. 10” indicated that this was one of a series of modification centers that allowed the primary aircraft factories to produce as many basic airplanes as possible, which could then fly to the modification centers for preparation for combat or other missions. To this end, the United Airlines personnel added modifications such as cheek guns, rebuilt tail assemblies, manufactured more than four million airplane parts, installed gun mounts, and camouflaged the aircraft exteriors to suit the various war theaters. To accommodate larger military aircraft, USACE constructed a new concrete runway and taxiway system in 1942, extending the existing runways to 8,000 feet (Rosenberg 1989, 29; Rosenberg 1985, 7).

The Army constructed the United Airlines Modification Center facilities throughout 1942 and 1943 at a cost of over \$4.8 million, including equipment and machinery. The complex consisted of eleven structures, including two large hangars (Buildings 101 and 116), four nose hangars for work on engines and navigation equipment, a cafeteria, a garage, a boiler house (Building 117), a guard house, a target butt for testing the guns, and a control house. Phase I construction of the complex was completed by John Latenser & Sons of Omaha, Nebraska and Phase II was completed by R.J. Tipton of Denver, Colorado (Rosenberg 1985, 7).

Operations at the Center were classified and were not generally publicized in the local press until late in the war. However, on March 24, 1944, the facility held a celebration marking its completion of modification of the 3,500<sup>th</sup> B-17 bomber, in which Wyoming Governor Lester

Hunt and Colorado Governor John Vivian participated. Center workers covered the plane with signatures and inscribed it with “3500<sup>th</sup> Headache for Hitler” (Rosenberg 1985, 8).

The Cheyenne Modification Center reached its peak of operations in 1943 when B-17 Bombers flew in and out of Cheyenne daily. Women played a major role in the daily operations of the center, making up nearly half of the plant’s 1,642 workers. To keep the plant continuously operating 24 hours per day, six days per week, the workdays were divided into three shifts. By the end of the war, approximately 5,000 airplanes had gone through the Cheyenne Modification Center. In 1944, the Modification Center changed its operations from basic modifications to special projects, as the manufacturers took over most finishing modifications themselves, and the number of workers at the Center declined (Rosenberg 1989, 29).

The center gradually closed in the early months of 1945 and on August 8, 1945, the Army leased a portion of the facility to United Airlines, which then re-established major commercial training and overhaul operations there (Rosenberg 1985, 8). The City of Cheyenne obtained portions of the facility, and the city and United Airlines leased portions of the old center to the Air National Guard beginning in 1946 (Schomig 2007, 8).

The Wyoming Air National Guard, Wyoming ANG, arrived at the Cheyenne MAP as the 187<sup>th</sup> Fighter Squadron in August 1946. The squadron first operated out of several wood-frame buildings, no longer extant, along Prairie Avenue and in an existing aircraft hangar at the southwest side of Cheyenne airport. The ANG removed the target butt and control house used for testing the guns during the war when they took over the property. In 1950 the Wyoming ANG unit relocated to the north side of the Cheyenne MAP, where it subleased the former United Airlines Modification Center Building 116 from the City of Cheyenne. The Air National Guard



continued to share Building 116 with the United Airlines' school for stewardess training until 1961, when the school permanently relocated to Chicago (Schomig 2007, 8).

The Wyoming ANG underwent multiple changes in mission and aircraft throughout the Cold War era, some of which required construction of additional buildings and/or modification of existing structures. The Wyoming ANG remained at the Cheyenne MAP until the end of the Cold War in 1989 and still bases operations there.

#### **9.3.4.2 Description and Construction History**

As indicated above, the Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10 facilities were constructed throughout 1942 and 1943. The complex consisted of 11 structures, including two large hangars (Buildings 101 and 116), four nose hangars for work on engines and navigation equipment, a cafeteria, a garage, a boiler house (Building 117), a guard house, a target butt for testing the guns, and a control house. The most impressive structure in the complex was a double hangar (Building 101) where workers accomplished many of the bomber alterations (Rosenberg 1985, passim).

The Wyoming ANG gradually added structures throughout the Cold War era. Building 14, a conventional munitions storage facility, was constructed in 1958. Building 21, used for storage, is a pre-fabricated metal Butler Building constructed in 1965. Building 22, a fuel systems maintenance dock for aircraft, was constructed in 1968. Building 23, a vehicle maintenance shop, was built in 1971. Building 24, a storage building, was constructed in 1977. Building 9, a petroleum, oils, and lubricants facility, was built in 1980. Buildings 25 and 26 are warehouses built in 1982. Building 32, an administration building, was constructed in 1984. Building 27, a security facility, and Building 20330, a hazardous material storage facility, were constructed in 1985.

### 9.3.4.3 Current Condition

The Wyoming ANG currently owns and maintains 30 buildings at the Cheyenne MAP site, 14 of which were constructed during WWII or the Cold War. All of the WWII-era Modification Center buildings were removed in the late 1980s and early 1990s except for a maintenance hangar (Building 16) and an adjacent heating facility (Building 17). The most substantial building removed from the site was the double hanger that served as the Modification Center. The remaining buildings at the Wyoming ANG station underwent substantial renovation, particularly Building 16. The station also received a new entrance gate. In 1987, a 1952 F-84 fighter jet went on permanent display next to the new gate (Field 1989, 116).



**Wyoming ANG entrance display, Cheyenne, April 2009**

Photograph courtesy TolTest, Inc.

### 9.3.4.4 Cultural Resources Investigations

Historical evaluation and subsequent HAER documentation performed in 1985 covered nine structures that had been elements of the Cheyenne Modification Center (Rosenberg 1985). The HAER documentation complied with a Memorandum of Agreement between the Wyoming ANG and the Wyoming SHPO regarding proposed demolition of all nine structures. One other

structure, Building 12, may have been evaluated ca. 2001, but no record of correspondence between Wyoming ANG and SHPO exists in records of either agency (Schomig 2007, 11). A 2001 Environmental Assessment (ERM 2001) listed the building as a ca.1948 structure intended for demolition.

TEC Inc. surveyed and evaluated the Wyoming ANG facilities in 2006, including preparation of site forms for the remaining WWII and Cold War era structures. TEC recommended that Buildings 16 and 17, which are the only structures remaining from the Cheyenne Modification Center and part of the 1985 HAER documentation, are no longer eligible for the NRHP because of loss of integrity through alterations and encroachments since 1985. TEC recommended that Building 12, a 1948 aerial port facility, is eligible for the NRHP as an effective representative of early Wyoming ANG Cold War activities and construction. TEC recommended all other Cold War era buildings and structures as ineligible for the NRHP because none of them displayed exceptional significance under the special considerations for Cold War Assets (Schomig 2007, 17).

#### **9.3.4.5 Cultural Resources from the 1942-1989 Period**

The former Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10 and Wyoming ANG installation currently includes 14 buildings and structures that date from the WWII and Cold War eras, as shown in Table 9-5.

### **9.3.5 *Camp Guernsey***

#### **9.3.5.1 History and Period of Significance**

In 1931 the Wyoming Adjutant General R.L. Esmay suggested that the existing camp at Pole Mountain was inadequate because the camp's high altitude and cold conditions did not meet

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**Table 9-5**  
**Cultural Resources at Wyoming ANG**

Building	Function	Date of Construction	Recommendation of NRHP Eligibility
9	Petroleum Operations Buildings	1980	Not Eligible
12	Aerial Port Training Facility	1948	Eligible
14	Conventional Munitions Shop	1958	Not Eligible
16	Aircraft Hangar and Utility Tunnels	1943	Not Eligible
17	Heating Facility Building	1943	Not Eligible
21	Reserve Forces AE Training	1965	Not Eligible
22	Fuel Systems Maintenance Dock	1968	Not Eligible
23	Vehicle Maintenance Shop	1971	Not Eligible
24	Base Shop A/SE Storage	1977	Not Eligible
25	Base Supply & Equipment Warehouse	1982	Not Eligible
26	Base Hazardous Storage	1984	Not Eligible
27	Security Forces/Disaster Preparedness	1985	Not Eligible
32	Administrative Offices	1984	Not Eligible
20330	Hazardous Storage	1985	Not Eligible

(Schomig 2007, 16-17)

federal regulations that required camps to be used for mobilization year round. The National Guard's expanding enrollment during the Depression also indicated that the existing facilities at Pole Mountain were inadequate for such large numbers of trainees. Consequently, Adjutant General Esmay recommended the construction of a new training camp on a larger site with more favorable year-round conditions.

In the summer of 1938, the National Guard moved its training operations to a site near the town of Guernsey in southeast Wyoming and called it Camp Guernsey. Although no facilities existed at the camp yet, the site was attractive for its hilly terrain, abundant water supply, lower and warmer altitude (4,264 to 5,258 feet above sea level), and the large areas of adjacent state-owned land near the camp. In 1939 Adjutant General Esmay received funding from the National Guard Bureau to purchase the site as a permanent training facility. The WPA, a New Deal public works agency, also provided additional funds for the construction and maintenance of the camp. The acquisition included a garrison area and a firing range located south of the Platte River. The

vast acreage allowed for artillery ranges large enough for the testing of even the U.S. Army's most powerful artillery at the time (Humstone et al. 2005, 19-20).

Construction began in 1939 and continued through much of 1941. The Wyoming National Guard used the unfinished facilities for annual training in 1938 and 1939, but in 1940 the troops trained in Washington State and later that year entered into federal service. The facility did not go unused during WWII, however. The U.S. Army leased Camp Guernsey from 1942 to 1945 and used it for training troops stationed at Fort F.E. Warren at Cheyenne. In February 1945, the Army closed Camp Guernsey and transferred all troops and operations to Fort Carson, Colorado (Humstone et al. 2005, 20).

The National Guard Bureau reorganized the Wyoming National Guard beginning in 1946, but it wasn't fully operational for more than a year. The reorganized Wyoming Guard held its first post-WWII field camp at Camp Carson in Colorado in 1948, but thereafter the Guard held its annual training at Camp Guernsey, also known as the Camp Guernsey Concentration Center. Camp Guernsey saw steady improvement and expansion during the Cold War era, and it became the best artillery training facility in the 15 states that comprised the Fifth United States Army Area. The outlying artillery range covered about 25,000 acres, consisting of an area of 5,000 acres south of the camp and the main artillery range of 20,000 acres approximately 14 miles north of the camp. The camp could accommodate 2,000 trainees at a time. National Guard troops from several states used Camp Guernsey for training; in three months of 1960 approximately 7,500 troops from five states trained there. At times, both the Wyoming Air National Guard and regular Army troops also trained there (Humstone et al. 2005, Esmay 1960, 11).

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### 9.3.5.2 Description and Construction History

Camp Guernsey is a state military reservation located in southeastern Wyoming, approximately 80 miles north of Cheyenne. It currently serves as the Wyoming Army National Guard's primary military maneuver and training site. The camp encompasses 65,000 acres, which has four areas, the North Training Area; the South Training Area; the Cantonment Area which comprises the historic portion of the camp; and the recently acquired Gray Rocks Ranch which will become part of the South Training Area. The Camp Guernsey property has extensive ranges and terrain that includes rolling hills, steep canyons, rock outcroppings, and streams.

Construction at the camp began after the summer training session in 1939. A 1939 site plan for Camp Guernsey took the form of a typical military installation, forming a rectangular parade ground framed by buildings on three sides. The enlisted facilities were to the south, officers' facilities were to the north, and administrative buildings were along one side. Construction commenced using \$126,494 from WPA funding under the War Department's National Defense Project initiative. The WPA grant specified building projects such as mess halls, latrines, warehouses, various infrastructures, and the creation of a quarry for the source of building materials. The National Guard Bureau and the State of Wyoming undertook the project as a joint effort. The collaboration resulted in the state providing the labor force and the National Guard Bureau providing the plans and supervision in the construction.

As part of the WPA's program to provide work for the unemployed, 85 workers began building the camp, using locally obtained materials as much as possible, to keep material costs to a minimum. In most cases the local quarry's buff-colored sandstone was the primary building material used. State-owned trucks delivered the rock from the quarry located seven miles from the camp. The quarried sandstone provided excellent building material. The WPA and contractors added facilities at the camp as military activities increased. By 1940 the complex

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included 13 mess halls, warehouses, latrines, and a camp infirmary (Gillen 1990, 86, 127; Wyoming Adjutant General's Office 1940:xxxix).

The pace of construction at Camp Guernsey increased in 1940, under the threat of the impending war with Germany. The rush to build more buildings in time for the summer training activities in 1941 prompted the National Guard Bureau to alter design plans to expedite construction. One significant change was that the stone masonry veneer used for the building changed from random-laid, cut ashlar masonry to un-cut random rubble masonry, which decreased construction time by nearly half. As a result, an observer can easily distinguish the first phase of building at Camp Guernsey from the second phase because of the differences in the masonry patterns.

By March 1941 the workers labored a 48-hour work week and the work force increased to 100 persons. By July 1941 the Cantonment had 21 buildings built under the first phase of the WPA grant and eight more built under a second building phase. Additionally, there were more than 169 concrete tent floors for troops, officers, and staff. The second phase of construction included the addition of sidewalks, streets, fences and other landscaping, and sewers and other infrastructure.

After the Roosevelt Administration terminated the WPA in 1943 in order to redirect all resources into the war effort, other funding sources supported construction efforts. The WPA had also lost much of its workforce to the war during this time. Even with shortages of labor and materials, work at the camp continued, but at a much slower pace than during the years leading up to the war. By 1945 all but two of the buildings outlined in the original plans for the camp were complete. There were two buildings whose construction began prior to the dismantling of the WPA and these were completed after the war in the late 1940s.

As in most U.S. military installations built since the 1930s, the buildings at Camp Guernsey used standardized plans for maximum efficiency in cost and construction. The Camp Guernsey buildings were based on the Quartermaster General's standardized plans for hundreds of building types developed under the Quartermaster Corps. Building designs were generally utilitarian in style and could be adapted for regional styles and available building materials. The plans also coordinated with the goals of the WPA, to utilize unskilled labor and locally available materials when possible.

The Wyoming National Guard expanded greatly after WWII and throughout the Cold War era and Camp Guernsey's facilities gradually expanded to accommodate the larger number of troops.

Between 1948 and 1989, 35 new buildings were built at the camp. Nineteen of them were residences, enlisted men's barracks, latrines, and mess halls. Ten buildings served industrial purposes, four administrative, and two were personnel support facilities. The enlisted and officers' quarters gradually became more comfortable and more permanent. By 1960 the main camp area included 48 buildings and 300 concrete tent pads within a square mile; the buildings included an officer's club, a non-commissioned officer's club, an enlisted men's day room and lounge, and a post exchange. By the 1970s metal "hutments" at the camp had replaced the concrete tent pads. Many of the standardized plans used for the Cold War Era buildings did not use stone masonry like the WPA-era buildings, but instead used corrugated metal, structural steel, and frame with masonry veneers.

The Cantonment Area, which consists of the original WPA development, currently comprises about 80 acres southeast of the town of Guernsey. It is on a flat area where about 70

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buildings face a central parade ground. Twenty-eight of these buildings were built during the 1930s and early 1940s.

The period of significance for Camp Guernsey is 1939 to 1958, when the camp (1) was initially built and provided training facilities prior to and during WWII and (2) continued to provide training to Wyoming National Guard troops through the Cold War era to 50 years ago, in 2008. The cantonment area includes structures built by the WPA from 1939 to 1942 and used to this time. There is no evidence of exceptional significance that would indicate NRHP eligibility for Cold War era features that are less than 50 years old.

#### **9.3.5.3 Current Condition**

Camp Guernsey remains in use as the primary field training site for the Wyoming National Guard and for visiting regular Army and other National Guard units. Most of the buildings constructed in the initial and second building phases in 1939-1941 and later in the Cold War era remain on the site and in active use.

#### **9.3.5.4 Cultural Resources Investigations**

Wyoming Cultural Records Office files contain reports of at least 40 cultural resources investigations at Camp Guernsey, including documentation of the cantonment area, archaeological surveys of thousands of acres of maneuver areas, and an ethnographic resource study. Robert Rosenberg wrote a general historical context for the installation in *Cultural Context of Prehistoric and Historic Sites on Wyoming Army National Guard Lands, Platte County* (Reiss 2000, 23-81). A *Wyoming Army National Guard Historic Buildings Field Inventory and Evaluation Report* was completed in June 2007 (Humstone et al. 2007b).

The document reported on a survey of all 63 pre-1990 buildings, Cold War Era or earlier at the Camp Guernsey Cantonment according to NRHP Eligibility Criteria. Survey and recordation involved 33 individual buildings that had been previously surveyed and evaluated

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and 30 buildings that had not been previously surveyed. The results of the survey and evaluation identified 29 contributing buildings and 34 noncontributing buildings to the eligible Historic District at Camp Guernsey. These structures are listed in Table 9-6. These survey findings were consistent with an earlier survey of historic resources at Camp Guernsey conducted in 1992 (Rosenberg 1992). Additionally, the survey identified four buildings, Buildings 001, 013, 014, and 016, not previously evaluated, as contributing elements of the historic district.

Buildings constructed at Camp Guernsey between 1957 and 1989 were evaluated within the Cold War era military context to identify potential Cold War Assets. No Cold War Assets eligible for the NRHP were identified as a result of the survey and evaluation. Additionally, none of the resources surveyed were recommended eligible for listing to the NRHP under Criteria Consideration G for properties less than 50 years of age with exceptional significance.

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**Table 9-6**  
**Camp Guernsey Historic District Structures, 1939-1989**

Bldg No.	Function	Construction Date	NRHP Status
010	Headquarters Post Office, Brigade Officer's Quarters	1940-1941	Noncontributing
011	Training Center	1947	Contributing
012	Paint Shop and Office	1941 & later	Noncontributing
013	Storage	1948	Contributing
013a	Storage	1984	Noncontributing
014	Storage	1951	Contributing
015	Camp Headquarters, Administration	1953	Noncontributing
016	Storage, Maintenance, Offices	1950	Contributing
017	Warehouse, Storage	c. 1950	Noncontributing
018	Storage	c. 1950	Noncontributing
021	Not in use	1941	Contributing
101	Battalion Headquarters	1940	Contributing
102	Not in use	1941	Contributing
103	Office, Supply	unknown	Noncontributing
104	Office, Supply	unknown	Noncontributing
105	Office, Classrooms	1972	Noncontributing
106	Recreation Building and Canteen	1944-1947	Contributing
109	Shop	c. 1970	Noncontributing
201	Mess Hall	1941-1942	Contributing
211	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1940	Contributing
212	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1940	Contributing
213	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1941	Contributing
214	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1941	Contributing
215	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1941	Contributing
216	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1941	Contributing
217	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1941	Contributing
218	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1941	Contributing
219	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1941	Contributing
220	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1941	Contributing
221	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1941	Contributing
222	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1941	Contributing
223	Enlisted Men's Mess Hall	1941	Contributing
224	Fitness Center	1958	Noncontributing
225	Chapel	1959	Noncontributing
301	Not in use	1941	Contributing
302	Latrine	1958	Noncontributing
303	Latrine	1960	Noncontributing
311	Not in use	Unknown	Noncontributing
312	Battalion Headquarters	1940	Contributing
313	Not in use	1940	Contributing
314	Not in use	unknown	Noncontributing

Additionally, the report evaluated the Camp Guernsey Airfield in a September 2007 Addendum to the June 2007 report (Humstone 2007a). The airfield was recommended not eligible under any NRHP criteria or criteria considerations. No archaeological sites dating to the 1920-89 period have been identified at Camp Guernsey.

#### **9.3.5.5 Cultural Resources at Camp Guernsey from the 1939-1989 Period**

The Camp Guernsey Cantonment Area consists of 70 buildings and structures. Of these, 28 buildings were built by the WPA between 1939 and 1940, 35 buildings during the Cold War period, and seven buildings after 1989. Camp Guernsey includes an eligible National Register Historic District, which consists of 29 contributing and 34 non-contributing buildings.

Property types at Camp Guernsey generally parallel those at Casper Army Air Base, but with substantially fewer function types, building types, and surviving examples than at the Casper base. The dominant stone construction at Camp Guernsey also reflects the permanent nature of construction there, in contrast to the temporary intended use of the Casper installation and the Quartermaster Corps training center at Fort F.E. Warren.

#### **9.3.6 *Heart Mountain Relocation Camp***

##### **9.3.6.1 History and Period of Significance**

The Heart Mountain Relocation Camp, also called the Heart Mountain Relocation Center, was constructed during the early summer of 1942 as one of ten such internment camps used to incarcerate Japanese-Americans from West Coast areas during WWII. On March 18, 1942, President Roosevelt issued Executive Order No. 9102 to create the WRA, a civilian agency whose only function was to administer the Japanese relocation camps. Construction of the camp began on June 8, 1942 under the supervision of USACE. After construction was completed, military participation consisted only of a guard unit of 125 men stationed at the camp.

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The camp officially opened on August 11, 1942 while construction was still in progress. The first 292 evacuees who arrived at Heart Mountain on August 12, 1942 were skilled Japanese-American workers or professionals who volunteered to come to the camp early. Over the course of the following two months, train cars continued to bring Japanese-Americans to the site until the camp's population reached 10,767 at the end of 1943, making it the third largest city in Wyoming at the time. Of the ten relocation centers nationwide, the Heart Mountain Relocation Center was the fourth largest. About one-third of the evacuees had been born in Japan and were prohibited from obtaining American citizenship during the war; the remaining two-thirds were American-born Japanese who were either citizens or were entitled to citizenship. They were all ages, from children to elderly, and their previous lives included all professions and livelihoods and economic strata (Nelson 1976, 23). Most of the evacuees came from assembly centers in Pomona and Santa Anita, California and Portland, Oregon (Miyagishima 2004, 5).

The Japanese-Americans detained at Heart Mountain struggled to get by on the harsh landscape. The high, arid landscape provided a challenge for gardening, and the frigid cold winter came as a shock, particularly to the Californians who had never experienced extreme cold. The WRA was also unprepared to provide adequate supplies, and the evacuees did not receive winter clothing until well after winter had begun in 1942. There was also a shortage of coal for fuel and heat, exacerbating the harsh winter cold. Wood that was burned in the barracks stoves posed a fire hazard and fires were not uncommon in the wooden barracks. To make matters worse, the barracks walls were uninsulated and riddled with gaps between the board siding. Original construction plans included insulated walls, but the expedited building program eliminated this feature (Nelson 1976, 25, 27).

A shortage of food also maligned the center's first months due to the WRA's lack of preparation. Many detainees suffered from hunger from poor and inadequate nourishment for the first four months until late January 1943, when the food standards were raised to the level of the Army. Sickness was rampant from the beginning and it kept the camp hospital overcrowded. Schools were sparsely furnished with backless benches and crude tables made in the camp wood shop. The number of children attending the camp's two schools exceeded Wyoming's maximum occupancy standards from 80 to 100 percent. In January 1943, Heart Mountain School Superintendent Clifford D. Carter reported that the 20'x100' barracks that served as the schools were not fit to be called schools at all since they lacked study halls, toilets, cloak rooms, drinking fountains, and had a shortage of textbooks and supplies (Nelson 1976, 28).

Conditions at the camp slowly began to improve over time. By the end of December 1942, the WRA supplied the camp with celutex insulation to install in the barracks. In the spring of 1943, the food shortage problem decreased partly due to better supply from the WRA but also from the large gardening project at the camp. A new high school constructed the following summer relieved some of the overcrowding problems in the schools. Incidences of fires at the camp decreased due to a volunteer fire department and education on fire prevention. Although the physical hardships were reduced, the social and psychological stresses on the Japanese American internees who lived at Heart Mountain continued throughout the camp's three-year existence (Nelson 1976, 29).

As early as August 1942, the internees could apply as farm laborers outside of the encampment provided that the employer could provide wages, decent working conditions, and reassurances that the internees would be detained. Over 1,100 Japanese-American internees enrolled in the farming program during the 1942 harvest season. About two-thirds of them

worked on farms in Wyoming, while the remaining third worked in Montana. Although the living conditions provided to the internees were sometimes substandard, many evacuees welcomed opportunities to participate in the war effort, earn a wage, however meager, and to be working outside. Many of the towns near the farms where the internees worked expressed gratitude to the Japanese workers.

By late 1943, the WRA and the federal government at large began to realize that the Japanese-Americans incarcerated at the camp posed no threat to national security, and the WRA began a process of allowing the loyal evacuees to leave the Heart Mountain Relocation Center and move to new homes located outside of the military's Pacific defense zone. However, only a few of the people at Heart Mountain took the opportunity to move, despite the financial aid and employment assistance offered by the government. By the end of 1944, more than 8,500 people, most of whom were eligible to leave, were still living at Heart Mountain. Many Japanese-Americans were reluctant to leave the camp for the uncertain world that lay outside the fence. The psychological consequences of their evacuation and internment at the center left many of the evacuees feeling dispirited, cynical, or hopeless. At first the WRA believed that the evacuees' hesitation to leave the camp was due to a desire to return to their pre-war homes on the West Coast rather than the new, government-issued home to be provided elsewhere. However, the Pacific defense zone was lifted in January 1945, but by July more than 6,000 residents continued to stay at Heart Mountain, despite urging to leave by WRA administrators (Nelson 1976, 169).

The WRA began closing the Heart Mountain Relocation Center in September 1945, shutting down the utilities and closing the facilities. Between September and November, the remaining evacuees were left no choice but to board the government-operated trains to California

and Oregon. By the time the camp officially closed on November 10, 1945, 550 babies had been born there and 128 internees died and were buried near the camp (Nelson 1976, 86-87, 169).

After the camp closed, the WRA transferred the land back to the Bureau of Reclamation. Some of the land became available to veterans and local homesteaders for agriculture and farming. The site's transition to agricultural uses was an easy one since internees had cleared most of the native grasses and sagebrush and dug an irrigation ditch as one of their projects. The WRA dismantled and removed many of the buildings to be used elsewhere as farm structures or housing and demolished and scrapped some of the buildings for their raw materials. After the Bureau of Reclamation resumed control of the land, it resumed its previous work on the Shoshone Irrigation Project and used some of the Heart Mountain Reclamation Center buildings as administrative offices until the late 1950s. In 1960 the buildings transferred to the Shoshone-Heart Mountain Irrigation District, which used the facilities until 1985. In 1991 the Bureau of Reclamation regained management of a portion of the camp site and the remaining buildings. The 73.93 acres owned by the Bureau of Reclamation retain the camp's original roadways, building foundations, and other remnants of the camp's three-year period as an internment camp (Miyagishima 2004, 5).

The period of significance for the Heart Mountain Relocation Camp/Center is 1942 to 1945, which is the time of construction and operation of the property as a Japanese-American internment camp.

#### **9.3.6.2 Description and Construction History**

The Heart Mountain Relocation Camp was in Park County, Wyoming between the towns of Cody and Powell, on 21,521 acres of land transferred from the Bureau of Reclamation's Shoshone Irrigation Project. The core area of the facility was about 740 acres ringed by a barbed

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wire perimeter fence with nine guard towers; this area included the 650 buildings of the main camp and supporting facilities. The organization of the camp is described below.

“The central area of the relocation center covered two terraces of the Shoshone River, which flows northeasterly along the eastern boundary of the reserve. The administration and residential areas were on the upper terrace. Support facilities and the hog and chicken farms were on the lower terrace. All were within the fenced area, guarded by nine watch towers. There was a sentry post at the main entrance and gate houses on the north, west, and south sides of the central area.

The hospital complex, on the upper terrace at the far eastern edge of the central area, included 17 buildings with connecting covered walkways. Two of the buildings, a hostel and a garage, were former CCC buildings. The administration and staff housing area, just southwest of the hospital complex, included eight office buildings, a fire station, a store, the post office, a garage, a storage building, 15 apartment and dormitory buildings, a recreation building, and a mess hall. Buildings of both the hospital complex and the administration area were laid out adjacent to Central Avenue, which ran southwest-northeast, roughly following the contour of the terrace.

The residential area, laid out on a north-south grid, was divided into 30 blocks, with 20 actually used for barracks. All but Block 7 were twice the size of blocks at the other relocation centers, with each block having 24 barracks, instead of the usual 12, as well as two mess halls, two recreation halls, and two toilet/laundry buildings. In all, there were 468 20-by-120-ft barracks. Blocks 5 and 20 were open areas, labeled "play areas" on WRA blueprints. Blocks 3, 4, 10, 11, 18, and 19, along the interior of the west side of the fenced area, also were never used for barracks. Victory gardens were located in blocks 10 and 11, and the center's cemetery was located west of block 19. A large pit was dug for use as swimming pool east of the residential area, on the lower terrace near a canal that ran through the center.

A high school, completed by the evacuees May 27, 1943, was constructed in Blocks 13 and 16. It included a large building with several wings and three smaller buildings. At least one of the smaller buildings was moved to the relocation center from a nearby CCC camp.

On the lower terrace, next to the railroad, were the warehouse and motor pool area, with 60 buildings. Fifteen of the buildings were from a nearby CCC camp, and one was formerly a WPA building. Nearby to the northeast were three root cellars, a tool shed, and a relocated WPA shelter. The military police area was located at the entrance from State Highway 11, now U.S. Highway Alt. 14. The WRA map indicates there were 19 buildings there, including a visitor building recycled from the CCC camp. Later, the military police contingent was reduced and four buildings were relocated to the administration and staff housing area.

Also on the lower terrace, in the northeast portion of the camp, were the hog and chicken farms and the sewage disposal plant. At the hog farm, the WRA blueprint lists 13 hog sheds, loading chutes, and other facilities. At the chicken farm there were at least 23

chicken houses, a warehouse, a granary, a grain bin, some privies, and a lunch shelter. All of the sizable buildings were from a CCC camp. The sewage disposal plant included sludge beds, a pump house, a chlorination house, and a large buried "Imhoff" tank.

Water for domestic use was pumped from the river at the "low-level pumping plant" to a filter plant and pumping station, the "high-level pumping plant", across the highway from the warehouse area. Water was then pumped to a concrete reservoir on a low ridge northwest of the residential area.

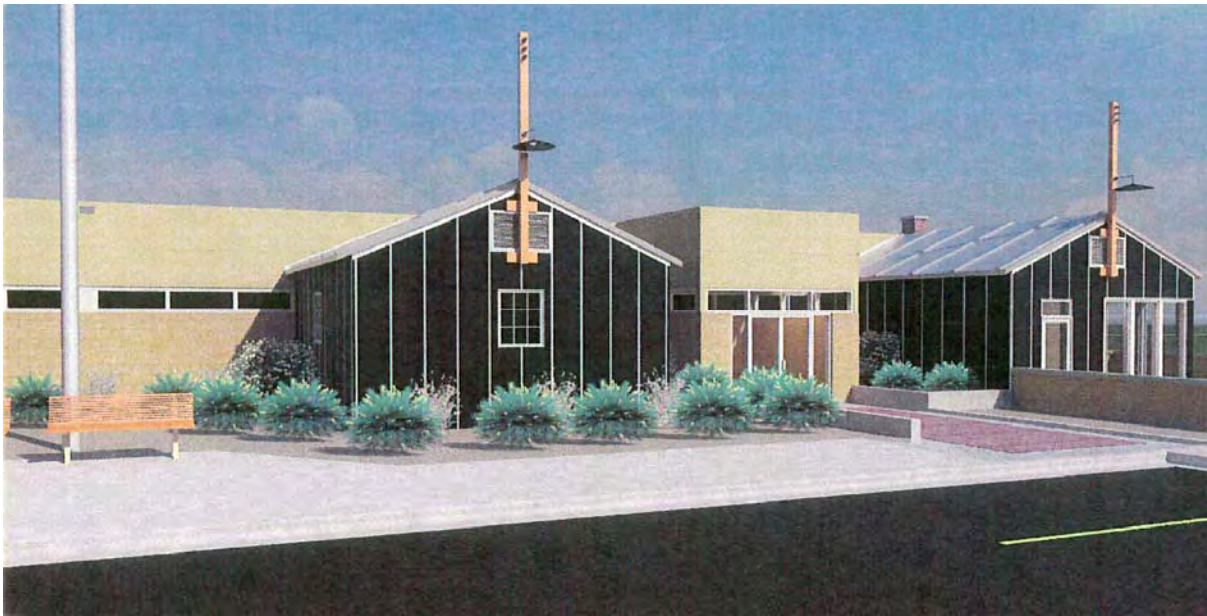
Water for farming came from canals, most already in place from the Bureau of Reclamation's (BOR) Heart Mountain Reclamation Project. Evacuees, however, did construct one mile of canal and used 850 tons of bentonite to waterproof some of the existing canal sections that leaked (Mackey 1998). A little over 1,000 acres were cleared for farming. Fields were located adjacent to the south and east of the central area, including across the highway. Other fields were located to the north and along both sides of the highway from the central area to 3-1/2 miles south." (Farrell and Lord 2000)

USACE began oversight of construction of the camp on June 8, 1942, using private contractors Harza Engineering Company of Chicago and the Hamilton Bridge Company of Kansas City, the latter of which also drew most of the building plans for the installation. On June 10, 1942, the Army's chief engineer at the site received orders to complete a camp to accommodate 11,000 internees within 60 days. In response, the contractors hired more than 2,000 workers and guaranteed overtime pay. In the next two months, crews constructed 456 barracks along with other administrative, support, and infrastructure buildings. Construction of all buildings was completed on September 6, 1942. Workers bragged that it took them only 58 minutes to build one apartment barrack from foundation to roof, but the speed of construction and the low quality of the construction crew resulted in poor construction quality. Even so, the total estimated cost of construction of the camp was \$5,095,000 (Miyagishima 2004, 21).

#### **9.3.6.3 Current Condition**

Most of the area of the former camp, including most of the former core area, is privately owned and utilized for irrigated crop production or grazing, with the grazing lands once again grown up in sagebrush and native grasses. The BOR currently owns 73.93 acres of the core

camp area, which area includes the four remaining buildings of the camp, original road patterns, and building foundations. The Heart Mountain Wyoming Foundation owns an adjoining 50-acre parcel that was the site of the camp's military compound and now serves agricultural purposes. Other remnants on private lands include a root cellar in the former warehouse area, a swimming hole depression on the lower Shoshone River terrace, and one small room or vault at the original high school location.



**Heart Mountain Interpretive Center, Powell, WY (Under construction), April 2009**

Conceptual drawing courtesy Schutz Foss Architects, P.C.

The Heart Mountain Wyoming Foundation is currently building an interpretive center at the site, and the property contains an interpretive path that explains the history of the camp. The site also now includes a rebuilt Honor Roll, which is a replacement for a monument originally constructed by internees to recognize men from the camp who served in the U.S. military services during WWII.

### 9.3.6.4 Cultural Resources

#### Investigations

##### Larson-Tibesar

Associates conducted a Class III cultural resources survey of the Bureau of Reclamation lands at Heart Mountain Relocation Camp in 1990 (Larson et al.

1995, 79) as part of an investigation of multiple Bureau

of Reclamation lands in Park County. In 1992 Larson Tibesar Associates conducted a structural stability assessment of the four surviving buildings.

Larson-Tibesar Associates conducted a second Class III intensive survey of the Heart Mountain Relocation Camp in 1995 for the BOR at the request of the Heart Mountain Relocation Center Memorial Association to obtain a preliminary assessment of the condition of the hospital boiler room smokestack in order to estimate costs of repairs. The 1990 and 1995 investigations also revealed a large number of artifacts associated with the relocation camp, including glass fragments, sanitary seal cans, metal strapping, a toy station wagon, a green glass marble, and building materials (Miyagishima 2004, 10. Larson et al. 1995, passim). The 1995 report, which may represent the most comprehensive investigation of the site to date, was not indicated in WYCRO files.

### 9.3.6.5 Cultural Resources at Heart Mountain, 1942-1946

Portions of the former Heart Mountain Relocation Camp were on the NRHP in 1985 and a somewhat larger area was designated an NHL in September 2006. The NHL district



**Original Honor Roll of Heart Mountain internees who served in U.S. Armed Services in World War II. This memorial deteriorated over time and has been replaced.**  
Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources

encompasses 123.93 acres, which includes the site of the original hospital compound, a portion of the site of the administrative complex that contains a reconstruction of the original Honor Roll (see above), and the site of the original military police compound. In addition to numerous building foundations, road patterns, and historic artifacts dating to the period of significance, the site retains four standing structures:

Hospital boiler house and its associated smokestack. The boiler house is a wood frame structure, 50'x90' in rectangular plan, with poured concrete foundation and slab floor, tongue-and-groove horizontal wall siding covered with asphalt roll material and asphalt shingles, and a gabled roof covered with asphalt roll material. The chimney is approximately 8'8" in diameter at base, 40' tall, and constructed of brick laid in common bond.

Hospital warehouse. The wood frame building has a rectangular plan, is approximately 24'x120', has a poured concrete foundation and slab floor, board exterior walls covered with felt and asphalt shingles, and a gabled roof with asphalt roll material.

Hospital mess hall. The wood frame building is 40'x180 feet in rectangular plan, with a frame floor in the southeastern two-thirds and an at-grade concrete slab in the remainder, exterior board walls with asphalt shingles, and a gabled roof supported by heavy timber beams supported on heavy timber columns and covered with asphalt roll material.

Administrative staff housing unit. This wood frame structure is 24'x50' in rectangular plan, and is only half of the original building. The building has exterior walls covered with asbestos or cement/fiber shingles, and the gabled roof is covered with asphalt shingles.

The Heart Mountain Relocation Camp was constructed under similar circumstances to temporary military installations during WWII, but available information indicates that (1) it was not run by the military and only had a military guard contingent and (2) building designs came from one of the private contractors, rather than from the Quartermaster's Office, unlike plans for most military temporary buildings during WWII. This facility was one of only ten such camps constructed in the United States and the only such camp constructed in Wyoming. This camp therefore is more clearly associated with the distinctive historical theme of WWII internment of Japanese-Americans than with military history on national or state levels.

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### **9.3.7 CCC and POW Camps**

#### **9.3.7.1 History and Period of Significance**

Writers addressed the CCC and the WWII POW facilities together here because many of the CCC camps later housed POWs. President Franklin D. Roosevelt established the CCC in 1933 as a New Deal program designed to create jobs for young men during the height of the Great Depression. Congress approved funding on March 31, 1933 as “Emergency Conservation Work,” for unmarried men between the ages of 17 and 28. Four federal departments, Labor, Agriculture, Interior, and War/Army, operated the CCC. The Department of Labor enrolled the participants; Agriculture and Interior, mainly the National Park Service and U.S. Forest Service, served as technical advisors; and the Army built and ran the CCC camps (National Park Service 2007).

In Wyoming, the CCC’s headquarters was at Fort F.E. Warren in Cheyenne, but CCC troops established 19 Forest Army camps throughout the state for reforestation projects (Gillen 1990, 86). In Wyoming, CCC work consisted of refurbishing parks and forests, firefighting, construction, and planting trees in some areas while thinning or removing trees elsewhere. The CCC was also known as the Forest Army or Forestry Corps in light of their primary role in reforestation clear-cut lands across the nation. The CCC contributed to improvements to national parks and national forests by building picnic shelters, foot trails, and water fountains. They also constructed roads, bridges, dams and reservoirs, and provided maintenance for telephone lines, ranger stations, and fire lookout stations. In some cases, the CCC cooperated with other Depression relief agencies, including the WPA.

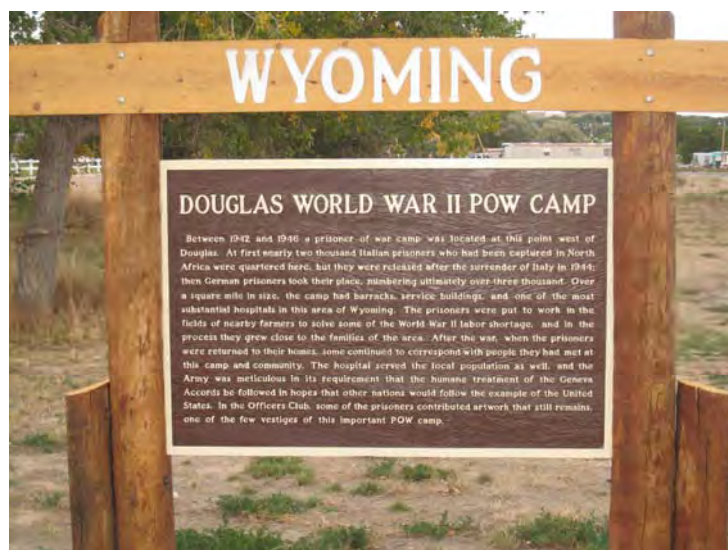
CCC activity reached its height nationwide in 1936, with over 500,000 participants. Although President Roosevelt had originally planned to make the CCC permanent, the U.S. needed the young men for the vast WWII mobilization and Congress abolished the program in

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1942. After a decade of depression, the coming of the war had generated an economic resurgence, an agricultural and industrial labor shortage, and a demand for millions of men to fill ranks in the military services. The CCC's human resources funneled toward the war effort.

The WRA moved and re-used CCC buildings in the Heart Mountain Relocation Camp in 1942, as indicated above, and several CCC camps became secondary prisoner of war camps for German and Italian prisoners from 1942 to 1946. Wyoming had two primary POW camps during these years, at Douglas and at Fort F.E. Warren. Secondary POW camps were located at or near Basin, Centennial, Clearmont, Deaver, Dubois, Esterbrook, Huntley, Lingle, Lovell, Pine Bluffs, Riverton, Ryan Park, Torrington, Veteran, Wheatland and Worland. Most of the secondary POW camps had been CCC camps prior to WWII, so that barracks and other accommodations were already available. A primary POW camp at Scottsbluff, Nebraska also sent many POWs to the secondary camps.

The War Department established Camp Douglas as one of 155 POW base camps and 511 branch camps for German and Italian enemy captives. Camp Douglas had 180 barrack-style buildings and a 150-bed hospital surrounded by a wire stockade as fortification. The camp cost the government an estimated \$2 million to construct in 1943. Camp Douglas housed about 2,500 Italian and German prisoners throughout the war and many POWs from this camp went to secondary camps, from which they worked in a variety of agricultural and forestry jobs. When the war ended in 1945, the prisoners interned at Camp



**Douglas World War II POW Camp, October 2007**

Photograph courtesy TolTest, Inc.

Douglas returned to their respective homelands. The Douglas POW Camp officially closed in 1946 and the property transferred to the War Assets Administration, which then sold the property.

The creation and operation of the Douglas Camp is described below:

“As the Allied nations’ prisoner counts grew, more space was needed outside of Europe to house the captives. Defense leaders turned to locations within the U.S. with enough acreage to build camps. Douglas proved an ideal site, with nearly 700 acres of open land within a mile of the railroad depot. Nearly 500 workers arrived to start construction in February 1943, using the 4-H dorms at the fairgrounds for lodging during the 95-day job. The three-compound camp was surrounded by rows of electrified wire fence, a 151-bed hospital, guard towers and a large outdoor recreation area. The camp turned the small town on end, as the mayor encouraged citizens to open their guest rooms to camp officials and their families. Reaction from the locals was mixed. However, the lure of low-cost labor by the prisoners was seen as a sensible means to alleviate a manpower shortage in Wyoming during those war years. In May 1942, Army officials arrived to manage the camp, opening the gates for one day to the public. That day, more than 2,000 people from 17 counties visited the site, according to the National Register of Historic Places application.

In August 1942, the first prisoners arrived by train -- 412 Italians who’d rode the rail from New York City. Inquisitive locals lined up to watch the prisoners make the mile trek from the tracks to the camp, marching in units of 50. By year’s end, the camp housed 1,900 Italian prisoners of war, including some of officer rank. In 1944 the prisoners were shipped home as Italy surrendered. Deactivated in July, the camp was brought back to life a month later to accept more than 2,000 German POWs in October.

The location of the Douglas camp was incentive enough for most prisoners to stay put, surrounded as it was by an empty, rugged landscape stretching as far as the eye could see. And those who behaved had their time away from the fenced perimeter, working cropland in Clearmont, Wheatland, Basin and Lovell, and harvesting timber near Esterbrook and into the Snowy Mountains. By November 1945, camp officials began releasing the prisoners before closing the facility in February 1946.” (Delbridge 2007)

The other larger, primary POW camp was at Fort F.E. Warren. A prisoner of war camp for German and Italian prisoners opened at Fort F.E. Warren in late 1943 and the first German POWs may have arrived there on November 13, 1943. Unlike at other camps in the state, guards kept the prisoners behind fences and only occasionally served on guarded work details, probably because officials considered the inmates at F.E. Warren to be at greater risk of escape or



sabotage. The presence of POWs at F.E. Warren was classified and generally unknown to the citizens of Cheyenne and Wyoming until the Wyoming State Tribune reported on December 1, 1943 that a U.S. soldier passing the POW compound recognized his cousin, a German POW who had been captured in North Africa. The Army finally formally activated a POW camp at F.E. Warren on February 1, 1945 and a POW Patient Detachment, German, soon thereafter (Adams 1994, 39; Larson 1993, 207).

The POW camp at Fort F.E. Warren closed on April 27, 1946, and the last German prisoners returned home. At its height in 1945, the POW camp at Fort F.E. Warren had held 894 German POWs; eight German POWs and one Italian POW died during incarceration there and were buried in a plot adjacent the post cemetery (Adams 1994, 49, 56).

The period of significance for the Camp Douglas and Fort F.E. Warren POW camps is 1942 to 1946, which is the time when the camps were in active use for POW incarceration. The period of significance for CCC camps in general is 1933 to 1942, but this period extended to 1945 for specific CCC camps that became POW branch or secondary camps.

#### **9.3.7.2 Description and Construction History**

CCC camps ranged widely in size and facilities, but construction of CCC camps followed accepted Army standards and organization, usually with separate housing areas for enrollees and officers/administrators, mess areas, latrines and lavatories/bathhouses, assembly buildings, workshops, motor pools, recreational facilities, and central assemble/parade areas. Larger base camps included wood frame dormitories built according to Quartermaster Corps standard designs for temporary buildings and most other buildings were also built inexpensively and quickly for intended temporary use. Smaller field work camps often consisted primarily of tents. Many CCC barracks buildings were either moved to other locations and re-used or were dismantled for

cheap building materials after WWII. Construction of larger CCC camps ceased in 1939, and from 1939 to 1942 the CCC focused heavily on projects on military reservations.

Guidelines for POW camp facilities were outlined by the International Geneva Convention Agreements and many American camps exceeded these requirements by constructing them to meet regular military standards (Weidel 2001). Camp Douglas consisted of 180 buildings constructed by contractor Peter Kiewit and Sons during a frantic 95-day period in February to May 1943. Officers quarters, a clubhouse, and a softball field were at the north main entrance to the camp, outside the double rows of wired fencing and guard towers that surrounded the rest of the complex. The hospital and Army troop barracks were built directly inside the fence. The prison complex itself had three compounds, each with a capacity of 1,000 prisoners and separated by electrified fences. Auxiliary facilities for prisoners included a large recreation area, a softball field, and a football field. The camp also included a motor pool, a heating plant, warehouses, corrals, a K-9 dog unit, a sewage disposal plant, a salvage yard, and a gravel pit. Writers found no further description of the buildings, except for the one remaining structure, but the buildings were almost certainly similar to those constructed at temporary military sites, including Casper Army Air Base.

The Fort F.E. Warren POW camp was a fenced compound located between the main post and the Quartermaster Replacement Training Center, on the former site of the post landfill. The compound contained at least seven buildings, including three dormitories. Two of the dormitories were brick buildings constructed in 1911 as quartermaster stables, and a third dormitory was wood frame. Supporting buildings included a 50-by-190-foot wood frame mess hall and a 20-by-110-foot frame building used as a recreation center. Two other small buildings between dormitories may have been lavatories or latrines. The compound also included an

infirmary and a soccer field. Camp guards lived in two brick buildings located outside the compound. The Army constructed one of these buildings in 1904 and the other in 1910 to serve as teamsters quarters; behind one of the buildings is a stone wall that POWs may have laid. Eight German POWs and one Italian POW were buried in the post cemetery (Listman, Baker and Goodfellow 2007, Appendix C, 75-76).

Branch or secondary POW camps were much less elaborate than the base camps, often consisting of tent houses within a large reinforced wire fence. The more permanent structures built by the CCC were generally used for camp administration, etc., but it is likely that existing CCC barracks housed POWs because of the terms of the Geneva Accords (McKee 1992; Coutant 1989).

#### **9.3.7.3 Current Condition**

As indicated above, virtually all buildings from CCC camps have been removed from the camp sites and most of those structures were demolished and salvaged for cheap building materials.

A number of existing structures were formerly elements of CCC camps, but the camps themselves largely exist as archaeological sites containing sidewalks, gravel alignments, and earthen depressions. POW-related features are likely to be indistinguishable from earlier CCC features unless dates or German or Italian language are present.

The War Asset Administration sold most of the buildings and grounds at the Camp Douglas POW camp to private parties after WWII, so that the POW camp is no longer distinguishable. One building from Camp Douglas, a former officer's club, has been preserved and now functions as a museum. This building includes murals drawn by one or more Italian POWs, and the building therefore physically represents Wyoming's WWII POW history. The Army and Air Force dismantled the compound and most of the buildings of the Fort F.E. Warren

POW camp, but two brick buildings within the former compound area and two brick buildings used as housing for camp outside the compound exist within the Fort D.A. Russell Historic District. However, the surviving buildings were elements of the Fort's cavalry era expansion between 1904 and 1911, and the buildings do not directly exhibit their roles in the POW history of the post.

#### **9.3.7.4 Cultural Resources Investigations**

Multiple cultural resources investigations have addressed CCC and POW camps, but in most cases the recording and/or evaluation of CCC or POW camps was incidental to general archaeological or cultural resources surveys. For example, in 1989 Brad Coutant of the Bureau of Reclamation recorded the Veteran, Wyoming CCC/POW camp as part of a survey for disposal of Reclamation lands in the Veteran townsite (Coutant 1989). Similarly, J.W. Potter of the U.S. Forest Service recorded a German POW tie-hack camp in the Shoshone National Forest as part of a timber sale survey in 1988 (Potter 1988). In 1992, Dave McKee of the U.S. Forest Service recorded the Ryan Park CCC/POW camp during a survey related to planned improvement of the Ryan Park Campground (McKee 1992). Writers found no evidence of a systematic survey of CCC and/or POW camps in Wyoming. Surviving features of the POW camp at F.E. Warren AFB appear in multiple surveys and in the National Register nomination for the Fort D.A. Russell Historic District (Bryant 1999, *passim*. Rosenberg 2002, *passim*).

#### **9.3.7.5 Cultural Resources at CCC and POW Camps, 1933-1946**

Although there are indications that other buildings from POW camps may exist, particularly in Douglas, the WYCRO files yielded information for only one surviving structure that was specifically built as an element of a POW camp. The former officers club at the Camp Douglas POW camp, 48CO1322, is a one-story gabled wood frame structure that contains elaborate murals painted by Italian POWs during WWII. The Independent Order of Odd Fellows

purchased the building in 1963 and it was listed on the NRHP in 2001. One secondary POW camp that apparently was not previously a CCC camp, 48FR2571, has been recorded; this is the archaeological and wood foundation remains of a camp used for cutting railroad ties (Wyoming Cultural Records Office).

Four brick buildings at F.E. Warren AFB were elements of the WWII POW camp at Fort F.E. Warren: Buildings 347 (48LA 1940), 348 (48LA 1941), 354 (48LA 1942), and 356 (48LA 1943). All of these structures were built between 1904 and 1911 and were adapted and reused as part of the POW camp. A low stone retaining wall near Building 347 is also thought to have been laid by POWs. The base cemetery area includes a separately fenced area that contains graves of eight German POWs and one Italian POW. The graves are marked with a headstone inscribed



**Building 347**



**Building 348**



**Building 354**



**Building 356**

**Remaining Elements of WWII POW camp on F.E. Warren AFB, March 2009**

Photographs courtesy TolTest, Inc.

with name, nationality, rank, and date of death of the interred POW (Listman, Baker, and Goodfellow 2007, Appendix C, 76. Wyoming Cultural Records Office).

Wyoming has records of the remnants of at least 15 CCC camps and two non-camp properties (a culvert and a canal built by the CCC). The Veteran CCC Camp, 48GO142, includes foundations and the concrete remains of a large swimming pool and most other CCC camps also contain concrete and/or wood beam building foundations, depressions, and artifact scatters (Wyoming Cultural Records Office).

### ***9.3.8 Veterans Care Facilities***

#### **9.3.8.1 History and Period of Significance**

The Veterans Home of Wyoming, formerly known as the Soldiers and Sailors Home, was first established in 1895 at U.S. Army Fort D.A. Russell in Cheyenne. In 1903 the Army relocated the facility to the site of Fort McKinney just outside of Buffalo. Fort McKinney is a historic site as a U.S. military post between 1877 and 1903, when the Army abandoned the site. While some of the buildings at Fort McKinney were disposed, some of the buildings and a large portion of the land reverted to the State of Wyoming. Under the state's ownership, most of the former post buildings and structures were dismantled or removed from the site. The former post hospital, a two-story, gambrel-roofed structure, and perhaps a portion of a stable and another post building remain on the site amid residential, administrative, and support buildings built in the 1970s and later.

The VA Hospital at Sheridan began as Fort Mackenzie, one of the last military posts built for supposed protection from hostile Indians in 1899-1905. The Army transferred the relatively new and large complex of brick buildings to the Public Health Service in January 1921, and by May of that year the Public Health Service began adapting the existing buildings for use as a veterans hospital. In August 1921 President Warren G. Harding signed legislation creating the

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Veterans Bureau, which then became responsible for the Sheridan facility, which was at that time known as the United States Public Health Hospital at Fort Mackenzie. Officials initially considered the hospital for treatment of tuberculosis, but it became a general hospital with a specialization in the care of neuropsychiatric patients.

The hospital officially opened on June 22, 1922 and the first patient arrived on June 26, 1922. By 1930 the hospital operated at full capacity, with 448 patients, almost all of whom suffered from psychiatric disorders.



**Building 1, Veterans Administration Hospital,  
Sheridan, July 2008**

Photograph courtesy Kurt Schweigert

The buildings and grounds of the former Fort Mackenzie underwent almost constant rehabilitation and expansion from 1921 to the beginning of WWII. By the mid-1930s, the complex included 75 buildings located on 6,280 acres. (McDermott 1998, 62-63).

The ultimate effect of WWII was a dramatic increase in the number of patients and staff at the hospital. Soon after the close of the war, the VA hospital had 900 patients and a staff including six junior and 18 senior physicians. By the mid-1950s, the number of patients served by VA hospitals nationwide dropped by about 8,000 per year and in 1957 the Sheridan hospital served 640 patients. The VA also addressed the need for the extensive campus at Sheridan during the 1950s and transferred 17 acres to the U.S. Forest Service and all but 431 acres to the public domain in 1956 (McDermott 1998, 69-72).

In 1970 the hospital served 347 resident patients, but it also served 252 out-patients under programs initiated in the 1950s. The movement toward decentralized treatment continued; in 1977 the hospital served 305 resident patients, placed 100 patients in homes in the Sheridan community, and had about 15,500 visits to its outpatient clinic. The hospital also operated a mobile clinic consisting of a psychiatrist, a nurse, a psychologist, and a social worker. By 1979 the hospital complex included a library, a canteen/retail store, barber and beauty shops, a pharmacy, and a radio station (McDermott 1998, 73-74, 80-81; Temple 1977).

Wyoming's second VA hospital grew out of a movement by the National War Mothers, mainly WWI soldiers' mothers, to provide hospital care for veterans of WWI and the Spanish American War. On October 16, 1931, President Herbert Hoover signed the act that included \$750,000 in funding for the hospital, to be built at Cheyenne. Construction of the Cheyenne facility followed standard plans, including arrangement in a campus type setting. The hospital opened officially on May 4, 1934 with a staff of 90 and three patients. The hospital served a total of 507 patients through the remainder of that year. The Cheyenne VA Medical Center has remained in operation since that time.

#### **9.3.8.2 Description and Construction History**

The VA relocated the Wyoming Veterans Home, originally called the Wyoming Soldiers and Sailors Home, in 1903 from Fort D.A. Russell near Cheyenne to the abandoned Fort McKinney near Buffalo. The full extent of buildings on the site at that time is unknown, but at least three of the Indian Wars era structures were part of the Home: a wood frame hospital, a cavalry stable, and a barrack building. Very little information is available regarding construction after 1903, except that in 1973 the site included a recently constructed "modern" residential facility, and eight wood frame cottages 15'x30' with gabled roofs that the State of Wyoming had constructed.



The Sheridan VA hospital facilities were initially substantial red brick structures built by the Army in 1899-1905, at least some of which received substantial remodeling for conversion to psychiatric ward and other uses as early as 1922. As indicated above, the facilities grew substantially throughout the interwar period, although no descriptions of specific improvements or new construction are available for the interwar, WWII, or early Cold War eras. Extensive remodeling of many hospital facilities began in 1971, including improvements to the chapel, medical machine and electrocardiogram departments, day rooms, the dental clinic, and nursing offices and class rooms. Improvements included a new canteen café, renovation of the road system, and conversion of the infirmary area to an intensive care unit. Construction of an outpatient/clinical building took place from 1989 to 1992. A “Plot Plan, Veterans Administration Hospital” prepared in 1971 shows 108 buildings existing at that time, with most buildings clustered around a central hospital area but also clusters of buildings to the northwest and northeast of the main hospital area.

As indicated above, the Cheyenne Veterans Administration Medical Center was initially constructed as a campus in 1932, including the main hospital, a regional office, staff headquarters, a Director’s headquarters, engineering shops, a warehouse, a boiler plant, a two-car garage, a storage shed, and an eight-car garage. A second major construction episode occurred in 1952-1953, including erection of an addition to the main hospital, administrative offices (two sections), staff quarters, an emergency generator plant, a one-



**Cheyenne V.A. Medical Center, date unknown**

Photograph courtesy U.S. Veterans Administration

car garage, and a two-car garage. An emergency generator was added to the site in 1960, and a greenhouse was added at an unknown date (Mollenhoff, Tupak and Webb 1980).

### **9.3.8.3 Current Condition**

The author briefly examined Wyoming Veterans Home and the Veterans Administration Hospital in Sheridan in August 2008, and observed buildings that appear to date from the 1920 to 1989 period, as well as buildings dating before and after that period. The most recent documentation found in Wyoming Cultural Resource Office online databases is a 1980 National Register nomination form for the VA Medical Center at Cheyenne. The author found a 1973 National Register nomination form for Fort Mackenzie/VA Hospital at Sheridan with 1988-1992 correspondence indicating that a HABS would be prepared for three buildings (but apparently never was submitted to SHPO or the National Park Service). Furthermore, a 1973 National Register nomination for Fort McKinney, briefly describes pre-1920 buildings related to Fort McKinney and only mentions the existence of buildings at the site related to the Wyoming Veterans Home. Because of the nature and age of these sources, the current condition of all three facilities is unknown.

### **9.3.8.4 Cultural Resources Investigations**

The three National Register nominations identified above appear to reflect the cultural resources investigations conducted to date for these facilities.



**Wyoming Veterans Home, Old Ft. McKinney  
Hospital, July 2008**

Photograph courtesy Kurt Schweigert

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#### **9.3.8.5 Cultural Resources at Veterans Care Facilities, 1920-1989**

Insufficient information is available to allow listing of the buildings, structures, and landscape features at the Wyoming Veterans Home, none of which have been formally recorded to date. The VA Hospital at Sheridan included 108 buildings in 1971, according to a map of that date, but the site report form for the facility, 48SH124, simply attaches the 1973 National Register nomination form, which provides almost no information about the buildings. Similarly, the site form for the VA Medical Center at Cheyenne apparently consists entirely of the 1980 National Register nomination form, which likewise provides only scant information about the main hospital building and no information about the physical nature of other buildings or structures. The cultural resources and resource types at these three institutions are therefore currently largely unknown.

#### **9.4 INDIVIDUAL PROPERTY TYPES, WYOMING MILITARY HISTORY, 1920-1989**

The following descriptions of property types come primarily from *Context Study of the United States Quartermaster General Standardized Plans, 1866-1942*, which was prepared by the USACE Technical Center for Expertise for Preservation of Structures and Buildings for the U.S. Army Environmental Center, Environmental Compliance Division (Chattey et al. 1997). As the title indicates, this source addresses standardized plans prepared through 1942, many of which guided construction during the 1920-1945 period at Fort D.A. Russell/Fort F.E. Warren, Casper Army Air Base, and Camp Guernsey. This source does not address Cold War era property types, notably including Capehart and Wherry housing of the 1950s, both of which were built at F.E. Warren AFB, radar facilities, missile launch and control facilities, or the standard armory designs for nearly all Cold War era armories built in Wyoming. Pre-1920 background provides the general context for the many pre-1920 buildings at F.E. Warren AFB.

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### **9.4.1 Administration**

#### **9.4.1.1 Headquarters Buildings, Administration Buildings, and Office Buildings**

The headquarters building was the main office building of the installation and represented its administrative center. The 1860 regulations depict a small, one-story administration building constructed of locally-available materials with little architectural adornment. When the Army consolidated troops at larger installations during the 1880s and 1890s, the administration building increased in size to accommodate more administrative functions.

The Quartermaster Department developed standardized plans for administration buildings for these new permanent installations. During the 1880s and early 1890s, the Quartermaster Department designed administration buildings using the popular Victorian aesthetic. In 1894, the Quartermaster Department introduced Colonial Revival and Classical Revival designs for administration buildings. The popularity of Colonial Revival and Classical Revival continued until 1940. During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, administration buildings continued as multiple-use structures and grew in size to accommodate the oversight of larger installations. The second story included a variety of other uses, including library, school room, reading room, or assembly hall. Quartermaster standardized plans dated 1905 show the introduction of post office. In 1909, plans included telegraph and telephone rooms in the administration building. Basements provided storage rooms and other support rooms.

Administration buildings constructed as part of the wave of new construction authorized by Public Law No. 45, enacted in 1926, followed Quartermaster standardized plans. The buildings no longer faced a central parade ground, but commanded a prominent position within a general master plan that divided the post into functional areas connected by a planned street pattern. As a result of the increased size and complexity of administrative functions, few pre-1940 headquarters buildings continue to serve as the current installation or activity headquarters.

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#### **9.4.1.2 Integrity Considerations**

To possess the integrity necessary to convey its significance, a headquarters building should retain most of its original design, materials, workmanship, and setting from its period of significance. The period of significance may extend over the many years that the headquarters building served as the administrative and symbolic center of the installation. Modifications to the building may have acquired significance if they relate to the building's period of significance. As a result of the increased size and complexity of administrative functions, few pre-1940 headquarters buildings continue to serve as the current installation or activity headquarters. Where subsequent additions or renovations have modified or removed architectural elements, the building still can possess sufficient integrity if it retains the majority of the features that compose its design, including massing, spatial relationships, proportion, pattern of openings, materials, and ornamentation.

#### **9.4.1.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Records contain numerous examples of administrative buildings. At F.E. Warren AFB, Building 208, 47LA1865, was constructed in 1931 as a detachment barracks but now serves as a contracting office. Three buildings within the Camp Guernsey Historic District correspond to this property type: Building 15, camp headquarters/administration built in 1953; Building 101, battalion headquarters built in 1940; and Building 312, also battalion headquarters built in 1940. Within the Casper Army Air Base NRHP



**F.E. Warren AFB Building 208, date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Travis Beckwith

district are Building 98, company headquarters; Building 801, hospital administration; and Building 1115, base engineering, which were all built in 1942. The Wyoming Air National Guard facilities at Cheyenne include Building 32, administrative offices built in 1984 during the late Cold War era.

#### **9.4.1.4 Post Offices**

Until the early 1900s, most installations housed post offices within the headquarters or administration building. Post offices constructed before 1940 generally were one-story buildings with minimal stylistic references. In 1906 the Quartermaster Department issued a standardized plan for a post/telegraph office. In 1907 the Quartermaster Department issued a separate standardized plan for a post office. In some cases, the post office shared a facility with another use, for example the combined post office-Masonic Hall at Ft. Leavenworth, Kansas.

#### **9.4.1.5 Integrity Considerations**

To possess sufficient integrity to be a contributing building in an historic district, post office buildings should retain most of their original design, materials, workmanship, and setting from the period of significance of the historic district. In the case of subsequent additions or renovations, the building still may possess integrity if it retains the majority of its character-defining features, including overall form, materials, proportion of openings, relationship to its setting, and architectural details.

#### **9.4.1.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Records show one post office building that is specifically identified as a post office, Building 10 at Camp Guernsey, which was constructed in 1940-1941 and doubles as a Brigade Officers Quarters.

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## **9.4.2 *Safety and Security***

### **9.4.2.1 Fire Stations Property Type Description**

Examples of fire stations include one- and two-story buildings. A characteristic architectural feature of all fire stations is the large door openings that accommodated the fire fighting apparatus, first wagons and later trucks. The earliest Quartermaster-standardized plans for a separate firehouse date from 1894. These fire stations were small buildings with a hose tower and two major door openings. Larger installations often had two or more of these small firehouses to provide adequate protection in an era of fire-fighting equipment drawn by horse or human power. A one-story firehouse contained only the fire fighting apparatus, while two-story buildings also contained personnel quarters for personnel on the upper floor. The two-story firehouse was constructed from the late nineteenth century through the 1930s.

Fire stations constructed before 1917 contained hose towers that projected above the roof and were used to dry the cotton fire hoses. In 1916 the Quartermaster Department issued a standardized plan that combined the functions of fire station and guardhouse. This combination became the prevalent design during the late 1920s and the 1930s. During the 1930s, the Army introduced motorized fire-fighting equipment. During the 1930s, hose drying areas moved into the interior of the building, which eliminated the exterior towers. Installation of electric dryers entirely eliminated the need for the hose tower. Often the fire station commanded a prominent location at the junction of major streets. During the widespread rebuilding of Army posts and airfields during the 1930s, the fire station became a major element of the overall installation plan and reflected the installation's architectural character. Fire stations and crash response facilities also became increasingly important at military installations that included aircraft.

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### 9.4.2.2 Integrity Considerations

To possess the integrity necessary to convey its significance, a fire station should retain most of its original design, materials, workmanship, and setting from its period of construction. Character-defining features of fire stations include hose towers in pre-1917 buildings, wide door openings, original doors, and the overall pattern of openings. In addition, fire stations built as part of installation master plans, as was common during the 1930s, possess design features common to the architectural character of the installation that are important elements to the building's integrity. Typical alterations to this building type include infilling original doorways and replacement of original doors. In cases of subsequent additions or renovations, the building may have integrity if it has retained the majority of its character-defining features, particularly its setting in an overall plan, basic form, materials, and pattern of openings.

### 9.4.2.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period

Records show three properties of this type and period: Building 1037, a 1941 fire station at F.E. Warren AFB; Building 1120, a fire station built in 1942 at the Casper Army Air Base; and Building 1170, a fire team facility built in 1963 at F.E. Warren and associated with missile training. One other example may be Building M-3, a non-contributing building within the Casper Army Air Base National Register historic district, the date of construction of which is unknown.



**World War II Era Fire Station, F.E. Warren AFB  
Building 1037, July 2007**

Photograph courtesy TolTest, Inc.



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#### 9.4.2.4 Guardhouses/Gatehouses/Sentry Boxes

Guardhouses served as installation prisons and the office of the guard. Separate guardhouses were common components of Army posts. They were generally one story, rectangular buildings, often with a basement, and a large hipped roof. Gates, gatehouses, and sentry boxes are structures placed at major access points, often along roadways, to monitor the entrances to an installation; they usually are one-story buildings. At frontier forts, where the isolated post could be approached from many directions, the guardhouse was located apart from the main parade ground, often behind the barracks.

The typical guardhouse constructed during the late nineteenth century was a one-story, square or rectangular building with a hipped roof and a full-facade veranda. Guardhouses without basements sometimes were imposing two-story buildings. During the 1880s, the basic guardhouse design incorporated a porch under the principal roof, dormer windows, and spindle woodwork that echoed the decorative features popular in late Victorian designs. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the guardhouse retained the same basic shape as those of earlier times, but Colonial Revival details replaced the earlier Victorian-era details. In general, the size of the building increased as the sizes of individual installations increased. By the 1930s, the guardhouse served primarily as a detainment center and was near the center of the installation. The Army during this period often combined guardhouses and fire stations in one building. The earliest Quartermaster-standardized plan combining the two functions in one building is dated 1916.

When guardhouses were combined with fire stations, the Army built separate gatehouses and sentry boxes to monitor the entrances to an installation. The earliest Quartermaster-standardized plan for a gate lodge appeared in 1911. Gatehouses generally were small, unassuming buildings constructed in the installation's prevalent building style.

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#### **9.4.2.5 Integrity Considerations**

To possess the integrity necessary to contribute to an historic district or to convey its individual significance, guardhouses and gatehouses should retain most of their original design, materials, workmanship, and setting from the period of their construction. Where buildings have undergone subsequent additions, renovations, or removal of architectural elements, the buildings still can possess integrity if they retain the majority of their historic features, such as materials, basic form, roof shape, and porch.

#### **9.4.2.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

F.E. Warren AFB includes one recorded example of this property type and period: Building 1167 is a guard tower constructed in 1963 as part of a staging/maintenance compound for missile deployment. However, other guard/security facilities certainly exist at F.E. Warren that may date from the Cold War era, WWII or the interwar period; at least two guardhouses built in 1912 exist there, 48LA1873 and 1883. Wyoming Air National Guard facilities include Building 27, security forces/disaster preparedness, built in 1985.

### **9.4.3 Communications**

#### **9.4.3.1 Radio Buildings**

Radio buildings constructed to support installation communications needs were generally small, one-story buildings with minimal stylistic references. Installations with specific communications missions had a communications complex of radio tower, transmitting station, housing, and support buildings. In all cases, radio buildings were located at a distance from a main cantonment or urban area so that radio operators received minimal disturbances in sending and receiving messages.

In 1916 the Quartermaster Department issued a plan for a one-story radio station that included a power room, passage, and operator room. During the 1930s, the Quartermaster Corps

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developed a standardized plan for radio buildings. The one-story, T-shaped building became a typical feature at Army and Army Air Corps installations.

#### **9.4.3.2 Integrity Considerations**

To possess the integrity necessary to convey their significance, radio buildings should retain most of their original design, materials, workmanship, and setting from their period of significance. Structures associated with communications facilities, such as radio transmitter towers, should retain their basic structural design, original configuration, and materials. In cases of subsequent additions or renovations, the building may possess integrity if it retains the majority of its character-defining features, particularly its setting in an overall plan, basic form, materials, and pattern of openings.

#### **9.4.3.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Examples of this property type are not available in the WYCRO site database. The military commonly placed radio facilities in or on operations and administration office buildings and on flight control towers/structures beginning in WWII.

#### **9.4.3.4 Telegraph and Telephone Buildings**

The military generally placed telephone and telegraph buildings near the main cantonment or administrative area. They usually were constructed as part of major building campaigns and reflected the architectural style of the other installation buildings.

During the 1870s and 1880s, the Army connected posts in the western territories with telegraph lines. Forts in regions such as Arizona or the Dakotas were so isolated that contact with commercial telegraphs was not feasible. However, the post commanders recognized the need for fast, reliable communications and the Army began to construct its own telegraph lines, usually with cavalry or infantry soldiers performing the labor under the supervision of Signal Corps officers or non-commissioned officers. Since only a single line reached an Army post, a room in

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a pre-existing building was sufficient for the telegraph office. By 1892, 59 of 99 garrisons had some type of telephone equipment. As in the case of telegraph offices, a room in an existing building was sufficient to house the telephone office.

In 1906 the Quartermaster Department issued a standardized plan for a combined post office-telegraph office. As the telephone gained popularity during the twentieth century, the Quartermaster Department designed a separate building to house the main switchboard. During the 1930s, Army and Army Air Corps installations received separate exchange buildings, constructed according to Quartermaster standardized plans.

#### **9.4.3.5 Integrity Considerations**

To possess the integrity necessary to convey their significance, telegraph and telephone buildings should retain most of their original design, materials, workmanship, and setting from their period of significance. The architecture of most telegraph and telephone buildings is consistent with the general architectural character of the other installation buildings constructed at the same time. In cases of subsequent additions or renovations, the building may possess integrity if it retains the majority of its character-defining features, particularly its setting in an overall plan, basic form, materials, and pattern of openings.

#### **9.4.3.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Properties of this site type and period are not identified in the WYCRO database. A telegraph office at F.E. Warren AFB, Building 211 and 48LA1867, appears to date from an earlier period but may well have served the same function into the 1920-1989 period.

### **9.4.4 Education/Armories**

#### **9.4.4.1 Classroom Buildings**

The buildings built as educational buildings often are imposing architectural monuments in prominent locations on the installation. The military did not develop standardized plans for

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classroom buildings, resulting in great variety among the educational facilities as they proliferated after the turn of the century. Buildings built as classrooms generally were long, two-story buildings, with the primary entrance on the long side of the building. They share a similar typology with academic buildings on college campuses and other educational institutions.

After the Civil War the Army instituted the foundations of a military school system in the spirit of a growing sense of military professionalism. These early schools required few separate buildings. Older buildings often served combined headquarters, administration, and training functions. For example, at Ft. Leavenworth, Kansas, the post headquarters served as classroom space for the School of Application. Classroom buildings did not differ clearly from administration buildings during these formative years of the professional military education system.

During the first decade of the twentieth century, the Army expanded its education and training systems. The Army's increased emphasis on professional education showed in the design and construction of educational buildings. An example of adaptation of previously existing building stock is located at Ft. Leavenworth. As the Army established more specialized service schools during the beginning of the twentieth century, the Quartermaster Department began constructing separate classroom buildings and libraries, though it did not develop standardized plans for these building types as it did for headquarters buildings, barracks, and other installation structures.

By the 1930s, Quartermaster architects provided designs for educational buildings using both Georgian Colonial Revival and Spanish Colonial Revival architectural styles. These plans were consistent with the architecture of the new permanent installations constructed by the

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Quartermaster Corps during that time period. Even with the increase of classroom construction, the Army did not develop standardized plans for educational buildings.

Permanent training facilities for the Army Air Corps were constructed after the passage of the Air Corps Act of 1926. In general, classroom buildings constructed for the Army Air Corps training centers continued the Army's tradition of multi-purpose buildings. Classrooms often shared the same building as barracks or administration offices. Because most Army Air Corps installations were constructed during the late 1920s and 1930s, these installations followed master plans that integrated the classroom buildings into cohesive architectural designs.

Character-defining features of the majority of extant military classroom buildings include the ornamentation and materials defining the particular architectural style of the building, regular pattern of exterior windows and doors, and multi-story height. Educational buildings on military installations often are prominent buildings in key locations in the installation plan.

#### **9.4.4.2 Integrity Considerations**

To possess the integrity necessary to convey their significance, educational and classroom buildings should retain most of their original design, materials, workmanship, and setting from their periods of construction. Character-defining features of the majority of extant military classroom buildings include the ornamentation and materials defining the particular architectural style of the building, regular pattern of exterior windows and doors, and multi-story height. Educational buildings on military installations often are prominent buildings in key locations in the installation plan.

On installations built as unified "campuses" with an educational mission, classroom buildings share design features in common with the other installation buildings. These features also should remain intact for the building to convey its period of significance. In addition, the relationship among buildings in a campus installation plan should remain relatively intact.

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Typical alterations to this building type include replacing or covering original windows and doors. In cases of subsequent additions or modifications, the building may retain integrity if it retains the majority of its character-defining features, particularly its setting in an overall plan, basic form, materials, and pattern of openings.

#### **9.4.4.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Records show numerous military classroom buildings in Wyoming. F.E. Warren AFB includes: Building 480 built in 1968; Building 486 built in 1986; and Building 1294, a missile launch trainer built in 1958 for training missile crews. Camp Guernsey's historic district includes Building 11, a training center built in 1947, and Building 105, offices and classrooms built in 1972. Wyoming Air National Guard facilities include Building 12, aerial port training facility built in 1948, and Building 21, reserve forces AE training built in 1965.

#### **9.4.4.4 Elementary Schools**

The elementary school building followed the typical design of schools of the same era in the civilian community. In 1907 the Quartermaster Department issued a standard plan for a two-story post school house which included classroom facilities. Elementary schools on Army posts during this period generally followed period revival styles, either Georgian Revival or Spanish Mission Revival, depending on the region.

Elementary schools built before 1940 followed the design for the individual installation. They possess the same character-defining features found in civilian schools of the same period which includes interior space defined by function – classrooms, offices, hallways, and auditorium, architectural emphasis on the front façade, small scale, and period revival designs.

#### **9.4.4.4 Integrity Considerations**

The integrity of these buildings should be evaluated in the context of their appearance during the period of significance of the building or of the historic district. To possess

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architectural integrity, elementary school buildings should retain most of their design, setting, and exterior materials from the period of significance. In cases of subsequent additions or renovations, the building may have integrity if it retains the majority of its design, including the building shape, massing, pattern of openings, materials, and workmanship which includes architectural details, location, and setting.

#### **9.4.4.5 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

F.E. Warren AFB very likely includes at least one elementary school, possibly dating before 1990, but no such structures have been found in the WYCRO database. The other military facilities active from 1920 to 1989 are unlikely to have included elementary schools.

#### **9.4.4.6 Drill and Riding Halls**

Drill and riding halls provided indoor facilities for training activities. These buildings are large rectangular structures enclosing a great expanse of open interior space. Drill halls are not a typical property type found on all installations but are typical of Army cavalry posts. Cavalry riding halls were typically located near stable complexes, while drill halls were near barracks.

The Quartermaster Department issued plans for riding halls during the 1880s. The earliest drill halls were rectangular buildings with large double doors at each gable end. The buildings had windows along the sides and in the gable ends. Often the long gable roof was punctuated by dormers. The earliest examples identified in this study were constructed in 1889. During the first decade of the twentieth century, the Quartermaster Department revised its drill hall plan to include cross gables, a clerestory, and shaped gable ends. At posts with two riding halls, each served a different function. For example, a 1916 map of Ft. Riley, Kansas, designates the smaller 1889 riding hall as the post riding hall and the 1908 riding hall as the school riding hall.



After 1900 the Quartermaster Department issued one standardized plan for a combined drill hall and gymnasium. The Army continued to construct cavalry drill halls through the 1930s, as did the Wyoming National Guard.

#### **9.4.4.7 Integrity Considerations**

To possess the integrity necessary to convey their significance, drill halls should retain most of their original design, materials, workmanship, and setting from their periods of construction. Character-defining features of drill halls include their exterior form, ornamentation evoking a particular architectural style, and pattern of exterior windows and doors. If the building is evaluated as a single building, it also should retain its interior integrity, which is defined by clear, open space. If a drill or riding hall is evaluated as part of an historic district, it should retain the design features that define the architectural character of the installation. Typical alterations to this building type include the replacement of original windows and doors. In cases of subsequent additions or renovations, the building still may possess integrity if it retains the majority of its character-defining features, particularly its setting, exterior form, materials, and pattern of openings.



**Riding Hall, F.E. Warren AFB Building 4304, July 2007**

Photographs courtesy TolTest, Inc.

#### 9.4.4.8 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period

Riding halls were a staple of the Wyoming National Guard from 1920 to WWII, but thereafter the units used mechanized transportation and either demolished or sold most riding halls after the war. Properties specifically identified as riding halls are not identified in the WYCRO database, except for a riding club structure at F.E. Warren AFB which TolTest demolished during the winter of 2007/2008. Similarly, the WYCRO database does not specifically identify drill halls, possibly because such facilities are now armories (see Table 9-7).

#### 9.4.4.9 Armories

Armories built for the Wyoming National Guard in the 1920 to 1945 period varied substantially in size, functionality, and materials, largely depending on the size and political

**Table 9-7**  
**Construction of Armories During the Cold War Era**

Armory	Location	Construction Date
Lt. Hardy V. Ratliff Armory	Casper	1970
Donald L. Dewees Armory	Laramie	1959
Baird-Harston Armory	Lovell	1961
Newcastle Armory	Newcastle	1960
Gillette Armory	Gillette	1952-1953
Gillette Armory	Gillette	1982
Cody Armory (temporary)	Cody	1950
Myron Burt Armory	Cody	1962
Kevin Rickert Armory	Powell	1983
Wheatland Armory	Wheatland	1963
Major General James Spence Armory	Guernsey	1984
Lander Armory	Lander	1974
First Sgt. R.J. Anthony Armory	Douglas	Unknown, After 1989
Cheyenne Armory/ Headquarters	Cheyenne	1966
Cheyenne Armory	Cheyenne	1992
Afton Armory	Afton	1957
Rock Springs Armory	Rock Springs	1954
John M. Pivak Armory	Rock Springs	1979
Evanston Armory (temporary)	Evanston	1950
MSgt. Francis T. Taylor Jr. Armory	Evanston	1970
Friedland-Garcia Armory	Worland	1963
C.R. Gomez Armory	Torrington	1998
Maj. Gen. George O. Pearson Armory	Sheridan	1978

(Esmay 1950, 4; 1952, 9; 1954, 7. Wyoming Cultural Resource Information System 2008)

influence of the town in which they were built. Larger armories were substantial brick and stone structures, but some of the smaller structures were pre-fabricated metal buildings. The armories of this period follow individual designs without influence of the regular Army or the National Guard Bureau and were constructed with state funding. Armories built after WWII were mostly funded by the federal government and these structures followed standard designs developed by architects for the National Guard Bureau.

Several armories were built in the post-WWII period, 1946-1953, but these and earlier armories proved to be insufficient to support the expanded troop numbers and training/operations needs of the National Guard during the 1960s and 1970s. Consequently, nearly all of these armories were demolished and replaced with larger structures beginning in 1960.

#### **9.4.4.10 Integrity Considerations**

To possess architectural integrity, armories should retain most of their original materials, design, and setting. Few pre-1960 armories remain in existence and none of any such surviving structures of the pre-1960 era remain in use as armories. In cases of additions or renovations, the building still may possess integrity if it retains the majority of the features that constituted its basic design including materials, building form, roof shape, porches, patterns of windows and doors, and ornament. Any armory in Wyoming dating before 1960 is likely to be eligible for the NRHP if it retains even moderate integrity, because such a structure is a rare surviving example from that period.

#### **9.4.4.11 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

At least 17 armories have been recorded or reported in Wyoming from the 1920 to 1989 period, almost all of which date to the latter part of the Cold War era (see Table 9-7). Figure 9-1 maps locations of these facilities. Most armories dating before WWII found in the WYCRO

**Figure 9-1.**  
**Cold War Armory Construction in Wyoming, 1946-1989.**



Map courtesy TEC, Inc.

database have been removed. One notable exception is the 1933-1936 stone armory and stable in Newcastle, now used for non-military purposes.

#### **9.4.5 Health Care**

##### **9.4.5.1 Dispensary/Infirmary**

The dispensaries and infirmaries were generally small, rectangular, one- or two-story buildings constructed of permanent materials. The dispensary apparently evolved as a separate building type located closer to the barracks to provide immediate and primary medical care to the larger garrisons of troops at the consolidated installations. The level of care available at dispensaries was similar to the basic care provided in the earlier frontier hospitals. The Quartermaster Department issued its first standardized plans for dispensaries in 1908 and again in 1910 and 1911. The Office of the Quartermaster constructed dispensary buildings only at

larger installations. Few pre-1940 dispensaries and infirmaries remain in use as medical facilities; most now serve other uses.

#### **9.4.5.2 Integrity Considerations**

The standards for assessing the integrity of examples of this building type are the same as those for evaluating the integrity of any building. To possess architectural integrity, dispensaries and infirmaries should retain most of their original materials, design, and setting. Few pre-1940 dispensaries and infirmaries remain in use as medical facilities; most have been adapted for other uses. In cases of additions or renovations, the building still may possess integrity if it retains the majority of the features that constituted its basic design, including materials, building form, roof shape, porches, patterns of windows and doors, and ornament.

#### **9.4.5.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

The Casper Army Air Base NHPA district includes a WWII infirmary built in 1942, Building 833. The F.E. Warren AFB historic district includes a medical barracks built in 1938 that now serves as education offices, Building 152, and 48LA1860. A 1941 infirmary building, 48LA2057, also exists at F.E. Warren.

#### **9.4.5.4 Hospitals**

The architecture of hospitals reflected contemporary medical philosophies of medical care and often included high-style architectural ornamentation typical of the period of construction. Nineteenth-century military hospitals generally had a central block with ward wings and two-story verandas around the building. Before the Civil War, post hospitals often were housed in a single room of an existing post building or in the damp, stone casements of coastal fortifications. Separate hospital buildings, when built, resembled the quarters or barracks buildings. By the eve of the Civil War, the Army Quartermaster Department began developing standardized building plans for many building types, including hospitals. Army construction

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regulations published in 1861, though never officially adopted, influenced Army construction. The unofficial regulations depicted a recommended hospital plan that resembled an enlisted men's barrack with a rear ward wing. This hospital plan could be expanded by the construction of additional ward wings. The Army hospital contained most functions, including dispensary, kitchen, mess room, and hospital steward quarters, within a single building. Support buildings for the hospital complex often included smaller buildings such as a sink (latrine) and a dead house (morgue). The unofficial regulations included a typical post plan, with the hospital located apart from the cantonment.

During the Civil War, the medical treatment and care of Army personnel improved. After the war, the Army continued to try to improve the general medical care received by troops. In 1867, the Surgeon General issued a circular describing the ideal post hospital: a central two-story block, containing administration offices, flanked by two, one-story ward wings that accommodated 24 beds, with a rear kitchen wing, and surrounding veranda. Garrison size determined the size of the post hospital. Smaller Army installations could adapt the plan to include only one ward wing. The plan also could be expanded to accommodate 48 beds by extending the ward wings.

The Army issued regulations for Army post hospital design periodically throughout the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (1871, 1877, 1888, and 1906). In general, these plans remained remarkably similar to the 1867 plans. For example, in 1871, the Surgeon General issued plans for permanent and temporary hospitals. The standard post hospital design consisted of a two-story central block flanked by two one-story wings and accommodated 24 beds. The regulations also included two plans for a two-story, 12-bed hospital and a plan for a provisional hospital for temporary posts. A character-defining feature of these hospitals is the wide



surrounding veranda. The Army hospitals of this era also incorporated Victorian design elements, such as bay windows and wood spindlework. Many Army posts active during the late nineteenth century had examples of these hospital plans. Many nineteenth- and early twentieth-century post hospitals have detached hospital stewards' quarters next to the hospital.



**F.E. Warren AFB Building 31 Historic Hospital,  
July 2008**

Photograph courtesy Travis Beckwith

Post hospitals during the early twentieth century retained the basic arrangement of the late nineteenth-century hospital plan, the two-story central administration block, flanked by two ward wings with porches along the wings, but were enlarged by raising the height of the ward wings from one to two stories and constructing additional rear wings. As the size of post hospitals increased, the number of medical personnel increased and more buildings were needed to maintain the hospital complex. Post hospitals often grew into multi-building complexes, with a main hospital accompanied by an isolation hospital, kitchen, morgue, laundry, power plants, and hospital stewards' quarters.

During the nationwide Army construction program initiated in 1926, the Army built many new, permanent posts and airfields. All new installations required hospitals. The standard design still retained the characteristic central block with flanking wings, though the height was increased to three stories. The long, open verandas characteristic of nineteenth- and early

twentieth-century hospitals disappeared from the basic plan and hospitals sometimes had smaller sun porches. Installations often constructed Medical Corps and Nurses Corps barracks next to the hospital.

During the 1930s, the design of hospitals changed dramatically. Consolidated buildings with massive multi-storied towers replaced the dispersed pavilion plan. The consolidated tower hospital plan minimized the distances between wards, resulting in savings of staff time and infrastructure, i.e. lighting and heating ducts. Early twentieth-century military hospitals followed the same design, but with Colonial Revival or Classical stylistic references. By the 1930s hospital plans no longer included open verandas. By 1940 the multi-story tower design was the preferred design for Army general hospitals and for regional naval hospitals.

Hospital buildings often are among the most modified of military building types. Hospitals were subject to modifications, additions, and renovations to keep them up to date with medical technology and the growing number of patients. The additions themselves may have attained significance if they illustrate the evolution of medical care and hospital design, or represent a type or method of construction.

#### **9.4.5.5 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, hospitals should retain most of their design, setting, materials, from their period of significance. However, hospital buildings often are among the most modified of military building types. Hospitals were subject to modifications, additions, and renovations to keep them up to date with medical technology and the growing number of patients. The additions themselves may have attained significance if they illustrate the evolution of medical care and hospital design, or represent a type or method of construction.

Many military hospitals constructed before 1940 no longer function as hospitals. Army post hospitals often became headquarters buildings, e.g., Fort Myer in Virginia, Forts Riley and

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Leavenworth in Kansas, and Fort Benjamin Harrison in Indiana. In some cases, character-defining features, including entries, window openings, and porches have been modified. Even in cases of modern additions and renovations, the building still may possess integrity if it retains the majority of its character-defining features. To determine what the character-defining features are, an evaluator must identify the type of hospital plan represented and the building's original appearance. Important elements to evaluate when assessing integrity are building plan and exterior shape, materials, roof shape, verandas, pattern of openings, architectural features such as columns, brackets, trim that represent the period of construction, and setting.

#### **9.4.5.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

The Casper Army Air Base NRHP district includes six hospital ward buildings, Buildings 820-823, 830, and 845, all built in 1942. The medical barracks built in 1938 at F.E. Warren, Building 152 and 48LA1860, might be representative of this type. Multiple hospital wards and treatment facilities exist at the VA hospitals at Sheridan and Cheyenne that are not specifically identified in WYCRO files and at least one medical facility exists at the Wyoming Veterans Home near Buffalo that also is not specifically identified in WYCRO files for the property.

#### **9.4.5.7 Veterans Homes**

Generally, veterans' homes occupy former military structures that no longer fulfill the military's mission. One such example is the veterans' home found near Buffalo, Wyoming on the historic site of Fort McKinney. This post was built in the summer and fall of 1878, with the home being first established in 1895 at Fort D. A. Russell, now F.E. Warren AFB, near Cheyenne, Wyoming. The Army moved the home and its residents from Cheyenne to the home's present location in 1903.

#### **9.4.5.8 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, veterans homes should retain most of their design, setting, and materials from their period of significance. Because the period of significance usually post-dates the formal military use and construction at the site, veterans homes may include an eclectic mix of architectural styles and materials. Veterans homes dating from the 1920 to 1989 period may, therefore, be more likely to be eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A than Criterion C and the integrity of the complex as a whole may be more important than the integrity of individual structures.

#### **9.4.5.9 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

The only property of this type and period is the Wyoming Veterans Home near Buffalo, which was originally known as the Wyoming Soldiers and Sailors Home. This facility occupies a portion of the former Fort McKinney, an Indian Wars era military post. WYCRO records of this property are limited to the rather minimal NRHP nomination form for Fort McKinney.

### **9.4.6 Industrial**

#### **9.4.6.1 Maintenance and Repair Shops**

Maintenance and repair facilities were usually small, one-story, utilitarian buildings that housed a variety of functions and provided work space for maintenance tasks. Maintenance and repair shops generally were located in a secondary service area on Army posts, apart from the main cantonment area.

The earliest general maintenance and repair shops at Army posts were blacksmith, carpenter, wheelwright, and saddler shops. Generally, the Quartermaster Department had the duty of maintaining supplies, buildings, and animals. During the mid-nineteenth century, the most important shop was the blacksmith shop which provided horseshoes and mended a variety

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of metal implements. Second in importance to the blacksmith was the wheelwright, who mended wagon wheels. Wagon trains transported supplies to the dispersed western fortification.

The Quartermaster Department did not include plans for maintenance and repair shops in regulations proposed in 1860 or 1872. The early and mid-nineteenth century shop buildings generally were of wood frame construction and not intended to be permanent buildings. In 1892 the Quartermaster Department issued a standardized plan for a Quartermaster Shop. The same utilitarian plan for shop buildings continued in use until WWI with 23 variations. Masonry was the preferred material, though wood frame also was used. The one-story shop buildings had gable or hipped roofs, regular openings, and interior brick chimneys. The late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century shops usually featured segmental-arch window and door frames, while the later shops displayed rectangular openings. In 1915, the Quartermaster Department issued a standard plan for a shop with galvanized corrugated steel roof and walls with paired, swinging doors in one gable end.

Maintenance and repair shops varied in size and functions. In general, shop buildings were utilitarian structures that could serve multiple functions. The same building type could be used as an artillery workshop for the blacksmith, saddler, and wheelwright or as an ordnance workshop with a forge and workshop space.

During the wave of construction following the enactment of Public Law 45 in 1926, which authorized the Secretary of War to deposit funds from the sale of unneeded installations into a Military Post Construction Fund for new construction, the appearance and size of maintenance and repair shops underwent noticeable changes. Maintenance and repair shops of this era generally were brick utilitarian structures with industrial sash windows; they were bigger than their predecessors to accommodate the repair of larger equipment or motorized vehicles.

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Character-defining features of surviving nineteenth- and early twentieth-century shops include rectangular shape, gable or hip roof form, masonry exterior materials, chimneys, and regular patterns of openings which often included set in segmental-arch frames. Twentieth-century maintenance and repair shops exhibit more variations. Army motor vehicle and aircraft repair shops from this later period generally are rectangular, masonry buildings with gable roofs, corner piers, and industrial sash windows.

#### **9.4.6.2 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity as defined by the National Register, maintenance and repair shops should retain most of the design features and external construction materials from their periods of construction. Character-defining features of surviving nineteenth- and early twentieth-century shops include rectangular shape, gable or hip roof form, masonry exterior materials, chimneys, and regular patterns of openings, often set in segmental-arch frames. Twentieth-century maintenance and repair shops exhibit more variations. Army motor vehicle and aircraft repair shops from this later period generally are rectangular, masonry buildings with gable roofs, corner piers, and industrial sash windows. Navy and Marine Corps vary widely, though most are utilitarian structures with simple forms and materials. Twentieth-century shops often retain their original functions, but usually have undergone modifications to accommodate changes in equipment. Exterior elements that may have been modified include original window and door openings. In the event of subsequent additions or renovations, the building may have integrity if it retains the majority of the features that illustrate its design in terms of massing, proportion, pattern of windows and doors, materials, and architectural details.

### 9.4.6.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period

Wyoming Air National Guard facilities in Cheyenne include Building 23, a vehicle maintenance shop built in 1971 and Building 24, a base shop/A/SE storage building built in 1977. The Casper Army Air Base NRHP district includes Building 908, a refueling unit repair shop; Building 929, a motor repair shop; and Building 1024, a Quartermaster salvage building, all built in 1942. F.E. Warren AFB includes Building 1501, a maintenance structure built in 1984. The Camp Guernsey NRHP district includes Building 12, a paint shop and office built in 1941 and later Building 16, a maintenance and storage structure built in 1950 and Building 109, a general shop built in 1970. A 1936 scale house at F.E. Warren is another example of this property type.



**F.E. Warren AFB Building 1501 Maintenance and Repair Shop, March 2007**

Photograph courtesy TolTest, Inc.

### 9.4.6.4 Manufacturing Complexes

Nineteenth-century industrial buildings that housed different manufacturing processes, except for some specialized processes such as the manufacture of gunpowder, exhibited little exterior differentiation. Nineteenth-century industrial buildings sometimes exhibited classically-inspired architectural ornamentation typical of the era. By the late nineteenth century, as both production technology and the items produced became more complex, industrial buildings grew larger, accommodated specific manufacturing processes, and exhibited functional designs. In general, few manufacturing industrial complexes were designed as complete entities at one time. Generally, they were the result of the evolution of technological advancements over a period of

time through the addition of new, larger buildings that embody construction techniques and architectural expressions popular at the time of their construction.

Nineteenth-century industrial buildings generally were two-story masonry buildings, most often brick or stone, with large window openings to allow light. Little exterior differentiation was needed for buildings housing different manufacturing processes, except for some specialized processes such as the manufacture and storage of gunpowder. Nineteenth century industrial buildings were surprisingly generic no matter what was produced inside of them.

WWI was a turning point in the evolution of industrial architecture. After WWI, industrial buildings were constructed of steel frame or reinforced concrete and displayed extreme functionalism. The exterior ornamentation often found on nineteenth and early twentieth century industrial buildings was no longer a design element. The production process inside the building determined the materials and design of post-WWI industrial buildings. Concrete frame with concrete or clay tile infill was used for buildings with heavy machinery or that contained explosive materials, while steel frame construction often was used when large, open, high spaces were required. After WWI, production technology at industrial complexes became more complicated. Structural clay tile became a common construction material for industrial facilities due to its durability, availability, and low cost.

#### **9.4.6.5 Integrity Considerations**

Most industrial buildings have been modified to keep them as vital elements in a production facility. In some cases, existing buildings require the addition of new technology, while in other cases buildings receive radical modifications through additions or alterations. The nature of evolving technology required the constant modernization of production facilities. The first step in assessing integrity is to define the significance of the property. If the property is

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significant for a particular manufacturing process at a certain point in time, then the elements of that process, including buildings and structures and their relationship to one another in the process, should retain sufficient integrity to convey the nature of the industrial process as it appeared during the period of significance. If the property is important as a representative of an industrial process that evolved over time, then subsequent modifications to the property may have acquired their own significance and do not necessarily diminish the property's integrity. In cases where the property possesses architectural significance, then the integrity of the buildings' design, materials, and workmanship assumes primary importance over the industrial process housed in the buildings.

To possess integrity, industrial buildings should retain most of the elements of design, materials, workmanship, and location from their periods of significance. Where subsequent additions or modifications have occurred, the property still may have integrity if it retains the majority of the features that illustrate its design and industrial process in terms of massing, spatial relationships, pattern of windows and doors, materials, and ornament.

#### **9.4.6.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Only one military industrial complex, to borrow a phrase from President Eisenhower, has been documented in Wyoming: the Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10 at Cheyenne MAP, which outfitted bombers for their particular mission requirements during WWII. This complex originally included 11 buildings, including a massive double hangar in which crews performed modifications on the bombers that arrived from the primary manufacturing sites. The complex, site 48LA591, was documented to HAER standards in 1985 before demolition of nine of the eleven buildings.

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#### **9.4.6.7 Laundries**

The Quartermaster Department began to issue plans for officers' quarters that included a laundry and servant's quarters. During the early 1890s barracks still included wash rooms, however, by 1894 wash rooms no longer appeared in barracks plans. The Quartermaster Department issued standardized plans for consolidated laundry facilities between 1908 and 1915. The plans depict a one-story building with a large boiler room. The building included the laundry, a sorting room, and an office. A variation on this plan was a two-story building with a one-story boiler room attached. In 1915, a standard laundry plan depicted a building two stories in height that contained a single tall interior space, with a one-story boiler room attached. During the late 1920s and the 1930s newly constructed laundries were large rectangular buildings with a gabled parapet roof.

Most laundry buildings no longer function as laundries and have been modified extensively for new uses, often maintenance buildings or commissaries.

#### **9.4.6.8 Integrity Considerations**

Laundries are utilitarian buildings, usually located in the support areas of an installation. To possess integrity, laundries should retain most of the elements of their design, materials, workmanship, setting, and location. Most laundry buildings no longer function as laundries and have been modified extensively for new uses, often maintenance buildings or commissaries. Elements that generally have been modified include original window and door openings. Where subsequent additions or renovations have occurred, the building may have integrity if it retains the majority of its massing, shape, pattern of openings, materials, and ornament.

#### **9.4.6.9 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

No properties that are specifically identified as laundries are in the WYCRO database. Such facilities may have existed at F.E. Warren and Casper Army Air Base during the 1920-

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1989 period, but records do not specify such facilities. Laundry facilities certainly exist at VA hospitals, but possibly not as individual buildings.

#### **9.4.7 Food Service**

##### **9.4.7.1 Mess Halls**

Mess hall buildings included a dining room, kitchen, cook's room, dish pantry, and storerooms. Mess halls were built near barracks complexes. Mess halls shared the same construction materials and architectural character as the adjacent barracks. The buildings were usually one story, though they often had high ceilings that gave them the exterior appearance of a two-story building.

During mobilization for the First and Second World Wars, the Army constructed separate mess halls at its mobilization cantonments; these mess halls followed standardized plans using temporary, wood-frame construction. Few mess halls retain their original use. Most now serve administrative or recreational uses. Major changes include the removal of porches and the modification of window and door openings and materials.

##### **9.4.7.2 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, mess halls should retain their physical relationship to adjacent barracks and most of their architectural ornamentation, design features, and external construction materials from the period of significance of an historic district. Few mess halls retain their original use. Most have been modified to serve administrative or recreational uses. Major changes include the removal of porches and the modification of window and door openings and materials. Where subsequent additions or renovations have occurred, mess halls still may have integrity if they retain their location and the majority of their setting, materials, design, and association. In most cases, even with major modification, mess halls may be contributing elements in an historic district as supporting buildings related to a barracks complex.

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Mess halls existed at every military installation during the 1920-1989 period and portable mess facilities also existed at field camps for the Army and National Guard during field training at Pole Mountain and Camp Guernsey prior to construction of permanent mess halls at those locations.

#### **9.4.7.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

The Camp Guernsey NRHP historic district includes 14 mess halls built from 1940 to 1942, Buildings 201 and 211-223. The Casper Army Air Base NRHP district includes two mess halls, Buildings 44 and 144, both built in 1942.

#### **9.4.7.4 Bakeries**

The bakery generally was a one-story, masonry building with large chimneys or vents for baking ovens. Bakeries generally were utilitarian structures with little exterior ornament. The Quartermaster Department first issued a standardized plan for a bakery in 1872. The plan depicts a one story, rectangular building with ovens and a store room along one wall and the remainder of the interior open. By the end of the nineteenth century, bakeries were standard components of Army posts and had increased in size to meet the needs of larger garrisons.

Between 1891 and 1906 the Quartermaster Department designed the bakery to include more rooms, such as a bedroom for the cooks, proof room, boiler room, fuel room, and lavatory as well as specialized rooms for mixing, rising, and baking bread. In 1892 the Quartermaster Department issued a plan for a bakery with a monitor roof. By 1898 standardized plans depicted metal vents in the roof.

The Army continued to construct separate bakeries throughout the 1930s. They were often located in the Quartermaster Department warehouse use and support area of the installation. By the 1930s, bakeries typically were constructed of masonry on concrete foundations with shallow gable roofs with metal vents and parapet gable ends. Often the building

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reflected the prevailing architectural vocabulary of the installation, though with simplified, scaled-back detailing.

#### **9.4.7.5 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, bakeries should retain most of their design, materials, association, location, and workmanship to reflect the periods of significance of the historic district. In general, bakeries no longer function as such and have been modified heavily for new uses, usually maintenance buildings. Common modifications include alterations of original window and door openings. The building still may possess integrity if it retains the majority of its original features, including the overall shape of the building and roof, exterior materials, chimney, roof vents, and patterns of door and window openings.

#### **9.4.7.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

No properties in the WYCRO database are specifically identified as bakeries related to military functions in the 1920-1989 period, but it is likely that at least one such facility operated at F.E. Warren during the early part of that period. A bakery operated as an element of Fort Yellowstone at an earlier period.

### ***9.4.8 Housing/Residential***

#### **9.4.8.1 Officer Housing**

The earliest quarters display diversity in size and architectural detailing, depending on available funding and the rank of the resident. Installations generally included a single-family dwelling for the commanding officer and multiple-family dwellings for junior officers. The military assigned an officer and his wife two rooms in the quarters, which typically consisted of a two-story building with rooms opening onto a veranda.

The Army began to develop standardized plans for many basic property types, including officers housing. In 1860 unofficial regulations for Army construction included plans for officer

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housing. The 1860 proposed regulations prescribed single quarters for field officers and captains and duplex housing for junior officers. The plans depict houses with simple features that could incorporate a variety of local materials. In contrast with the concurrent effort at standardization, special branches within the Army constructed their own installations and did not employ the Quartermaster Department or Quartermaster plans. In 1872 the Quartermaster General, Montgomery C. Meigs, proposed standardized plans for post construction, including officer housing.

Western frontier posts were particularly notorious for their poor living conditions. The plans for officers quarters in the 1872 proposed plans are larger and show more attention to architectural detailing than the 1860 plans. During the 1880s and 1890s the Army began to close the numerous small, scattered, temporary western posts and to consolidate its troops into larger, permanent posts.

During the late 1890s the Army began another effort to standardize officer housing for better cost control. Beginning in the late 1890s and continuing through the first decade of the twentieth century, the Army constructed the same officer housing designs on most Army posts with very little individual modification. Colonial Revival architecture dominated Army construction of this era. Like their civilian contemporaries, the early examples of Colonial Revival architecture at Army posts are not historically accurate re-creations of early American architecture, but interpretations that mix colonial precedents with some elements of the Queen Anne and other eclectic styles. Character-defining features of Army housing of this era include cornices with dentil molding, pediments, columns, and jack arches over windows. In the west and southwest, the Quartermaster Department experimented with Spanish Colonial and Mission architectural styles.

The Construction Service of the Quartermaster Corps developed standardized plans for this new wave of construction that responded to the local climate and reflected local architectural history. Spanish Colonial Revival housing was built in the South, Western Plains, Southwest, and California. The officers housing, though standardized, displayed a variety of types. Two-story quarters were the most common, but the Construction Service also designed one-story bungalow designs. Duplex housing, which had been the common type for company officers prior to the WWI, was replaced by more single-family housing. The Army also began constructing more small apartment buildings, similar to garden apartment units. During the early 1900s the Quartermaster Department had started to build apartments, usually four-family buildings, at consolidated, permanent posts. During the 1930s construction era the Quartermaster again constructed four-family apartment buildings for student officers at training and educational installations.

#### **9.4.8.2 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, officer housing should retain its location and most of its design, setting, materials, workmanship, and association from the property's period of significance. Most officer quarters have served as dwellings throughout their history, though the buildings often have undergone modifications to meet modern living standards. Typically modified exterior features include porches, windows, and roof and siding materials. In cases of subsequent additions or alterations, the quarters still may have integrity if it retains its setting, overall design, the majority of its materials, and the majority of its architectural features that convey the property's association with the period of significance.

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### 9.4.8.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period

Company Officers Quarters from this period at F.E. Warren AFB include Buildings 98-100 and 131, 48LA1834-1836 and 1853, all built in 1932. Records show Brigade Officers Quarters in the Camp Guernsey NRHP district: Building 10, built in 1940-1941. The Wyoming Air National Guard facility in Cheyenne is not a resident installation, and therefore no such quarters exist or existed there. Officers quarters existed at the Casper Army Air Base, but these structures were attractive as post-WWII housing and were relocated as private residences. Officer housing also exists at the VA Hospital in Sheridan, but these buildings predate the current period of consideration.



**Quarters 98**



**Quarters 99**



**Quarters 100**



**Quarters 131**

**Officer Housing from the 1920-1989 Period, F.E. Warren AFB, July 2008**

Photographs courtesy Travis Beckwith

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#### **9.4.8.4 Bachelor Officers' Quarters**

Bachelor officers' quarters (BOQs) usually were rectangular, two-story structures that contained living quarters and mess facilities for officers. During the last quarter of the nineteenth century, the military designed BOQs using Victorian architectural motifs. During the early twentieth century, BOQs reflected the Georgian Revival and the Spanish Colonial Revival styles.

The early officers housing resembled small barracks, but contained private quarters for each officer. BOQs evolved as a distinct building on Army posts after the Army began to construct more duplex and single-family officers quarters. The Army built rows of officers family housing and usually one BOQ at each permanent post. In 1891 the Quartermaster Department issued a standardized plan for a BOQ. The typical BOQ contained sleeping rooms, sitting rooms, dining room, reading room, kitchen, and rooms for recreation including billiards and cards. Quartermaster plans illustrate the standard plan ornamented with Victorian decoration. During the first decade of the twentieth century, the Quartermaster adapted the Colonial Revival style to BOQs, as it did with other building types.

#### **9.4.8.5 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, BOQs should retain their setting and location and the majority of their design, materials, workmanship, association, and feeling from their period of significance. Buildings originally built as BOQs now often serve as visiting officers' quarters or as office buildings. Modifications include removal or enclosure of porches and alterations to window and door openings. In cases of subsequent additions or renovations, BOQs may possess integrity if they retain the majority of their shape, massing, materials, pattern of openings, and architectural features. Additions subsequent to the date of construction may have acquired their own significance and do not necessarily detract from the integrity of building if they were added during the building or historic districts' period of significance.

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#### **9.4.8.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

No properties in the WYCRO are specifically identified as BOQs, but such quarters certainly exist at F.E. Warren AFB. It is possible that BOQs are identified as “officers quarters.”

#### **9.4.8.7 Non-Commissioned Officers Housing**

Detached houses for NCOs and their families were constructed beginning in the second half of the nineteenth century. Early NCO quarters were constructed cheaply of available materials, such as the one-story, frame housing provided to pickets. Other examples were simpler versions of the installation officer housing. Neither the proposed 1860 regulations nor the 1872 proposed Quartermaster plans included NCO housing. The soldiers' wives who were employed as laundresses lived in a row of shacks.

The Quartermaster Department also began to develop standardized plans for NCO housing at this time. The Quartermaster Department built both detached single-family and duplex NCO housing. Duplexes were the most common housing type for NCOs between 1890 and WWI. Installations constructed NCO housing in distinct areas, usually a few hundred feet behind the barracks; the NCO housing in these areas typically consisted of a row of three to five houses. Eventually, two-story duplex NCO quarters became popular and one-story single-family cottages were introduced.

#### **9.4.8.8 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, NCO housing should retain its location and most of its design, setting,



**F.E. Warren AFB Quarters 130, July 2008**

Photograph courtesy Travis Beckwith



materials, workmanship, and association from the period of significance of the property. Most NCO quarters served used as dwellings throughout their history. The buildings often have undergone modifications to meet modern living standards. Typically modified exterior features include porches, windows, and roof materials. In cases of subsequent additions or alterations, NCO housing still may have integrity if it retains its setting, overall design, the majority of its materials and the majority of its architectural features.

#### **9.4.8.9 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Eleven buildings at F.E. Warren AFB are identified in WYCRO records as NCO housing: Buildings 1962-1972, 48LA398, 402, 404, 410, 412, 414, 416, 418, 420, 422, and 424, all of which were built either in 1931 or 1933.

#### **9.4.8.10 Barracks/Dormitories**

Most western forts had temporary barracks constructed by troop labor from materials at hand. The Army's mid nineteenth-century policy of establishing and abandoning western posts as needed inhibited the construction of permanent barracks. The typical barracks housed one company of men and contained sleeping quarters, a kitchen, and a mess room; it usually was a one-story, narrow, rectangular building with a porch. A barracks design of this type appeared in the unofficial 1860 Army regulations and examples of such barracks have been identified at early



**F.E. Warren AFB Sergeants Row, April 2009**

Photograph courtesy TolTest, Inc.

frontier posts constructed before and after the Civil War. The basic building type used for barracks easily was adapted for use as a headquarters building or hospital.

In 1872 Quartermaster General Montgomery C. Meigs issued standardized plans for a one-company barracks. The plan depicted a two-story building: the first floor contained day room, library, clothes washroom, kitchen, mess room, and offices and the second floor, sleeping quarters. During the 1880s and 1890s, the Army built larger, two-company barracks. They typically had a central block flanked by wings with two-tiered porches. Porches served as corridors and provided ventilation. The Army created a second form of two-company barracks by connecting two T-shaped, one-company barracks to form an H-shaped building.

The Army adapted architectural fashions to the basic form of the barracks, depending on the popular fashion of the era. During the 1880s and 1890s the detailing of barracks incorporated simplified versions of features from contemporary architectural styles, such as the Romanesque and Queen Anne. Between 1900 and 1917 the Army applied Colonial Revival architectural motifs to the basic barracks designs of the previous century. In 1911 the Quartermaster Department issued barracks plans using Spanish Colonial Revival motifs. In 1914 the Construction Division of the Quartermaster Corps produced a set of drawings for mobilization camp buildings, usually called the 600 series of drawings. The plans depicted one-story, rectangular, light-weight wood-frame, barracks based on 20 ft. by 7 ft. modules.

Barracks design during the 1930s was not as standardized as officer housing; installations modified the basic form to suit its particular needs. One universal design change, however, was the elimination of porches along front facades. This left the main front facade as a flat surface; architectural ornamentation such as stone surrounds around doorways, corner quoins, and cornice moldings relieved the blank facades. Porches were incorporated into the rear of the

buildings. Virtually all of the barracks built immediately preceding and during WWII were intended to be used for a short period and were built quickly and with minimum possible expenditure on materials and labor. These “temporary” housing units were almost universally rectangular, wood frame structures with gabled roofs and open interiors. The sheer number of these buildings often defined a training facility.

#### **9.4.8.11 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, barracks should retain most of their overall exterior form, architectural ornamentation, and construction materials from their periods of significance. Many pre-1940 barracks have been converted to office use. Porches may have been removed or enclosed while window, door, and roof materials often have been modified. Where subsequent additions or renovations have occurred, barracks still may have integrity if they retain the majority of their character-defining features, including setting, overall shape, pattern of openings, materials, and architectural details. In many cases, even with major modification, a barracks complex will contribute to the character of an historic district.

#### **9.4.8.12 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Barracks comprise the dominant building function type at Casper Army Air Base: 32 one-story gabled wood frame structures, 20’x100’ in rectangular plan; eight one-story gabled wood frame structures 20’x76’ in rectangular plan; a nurses quarters 32’x122’ in rectangular plan; and a nurses quarters 32’x110’ in rectangular plan. Records show three buildings of this property type and period at F.E. Warren AFB: A detachment barracks built in 1931 and now used as a contracting office, Building 208 and 48LA1865, and two barracks buildings built in 1940, Buildings 240 and 242, 48LA1888 and 1890.

**Building 240, July 2008****Building 242, August 2008****Barracks from the 1920-1989 Period, F.E. Warren AFB**

Photographs courtesy Travis Beckwith

**9.4.8.13 Detached Lavatories/Bathhouses**

Detached lavatories, sinks, latrines or outhouses, and bathhouses are support structures to barracks and family housing. These one-story, utilitarian structures generally were located near housing facilities. During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, detached lavatories, outhouses, and bathhouses were common property types. Few remain due to the incorporation of indoor plumbing in military housing. Surviving lavatories are generally one-story utilitarian buildings located behind officer housing and barracks complexes. They were constructed of permanent materials such as brick or stone, and match the barracks or housing complex. By the 1930s, designs of barracks and housing automatically included indoor bathrooms and toilets.

**9.4.8.14 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, detached lavatories and bathhouses should retain most of their exterior features from the period of significance of the historic district. Most detached lavatories and bathhouses no longer serve their original functions. They often have been converted into storage facilities. Modifications to exterior elements may include window and door openings. Where subsequent additions or renovations have occurred, detached lavatories and bathhouses

still may have integrity if they retain their location and the majority of their setting, association, materials, and design.

#### **9.4.8.15 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Six detached bathhouses exist at Casper Army Air Base: Buildings 42, 146, 1286, 1292, and 1296 are one-story front-gabled wood frame structures, 36'x25' in rectangular plan; Building 148 is similar but 20'x20' in square plan. Two latrines, Buildings 302 and 303, exist within the Camp Guernsey NRHP historic district, built in 1958 and 1960.

#### **9.4.8.16 Garages**

One-story garages often matched the construction materials of the housing and usually displayed minimal architectural character or ornament. One-car, two-car, and shared multiple-car garages were constructed. By 1913 the Army Quartermaster Corps issued a standardized plan for a two-car garage. The plan depicts a garage clad in corrugated metal with two sets of paired side-hinged swinging doors leading to the interior space, which was open except for a corner storeroom for oil and gasoline. By 1915 the Quartermaster Corps issued a plan for multiple-car garages. The earliest garages associated with private cars were wood-frame buildings constructed during the 1920s. Often the early garages used salvage materials in the construction process. Garages, usually for multiple cars, were constructed of the same materials as family housing and matched, though with simpler details, the general architectural style of the post. During the late 1930s the Construction Service of the Quartermaster Corps experimented with garages attached to family housing units. The Army also added garages behind officers' rows at older posts. These garages usually were simple brick or wood frame structures.

#### **9.4.8.17 Integrity Considerations**

Garages must retain their location and setting in relation to the housing for which they were built. Garages also should retain most of their design and materials from their period of

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construction. Garages constructed before 1940 often no longer serve their original function and became storage facilities, often because the structures were built to house the smaller automobiles of the pre-1940 era. Exterior elements that may have been modified include roof and wall material and doors. In cases of subsequent additions or modifications, garages still may possess sufficient integrity to contribute to an historic district if they retain the majority of their relationship to the housing area, their overall design, and the majority of their materials and workmanship.

#### **9.4.8.18 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

No properties in the WYCRO database are specifically identified as garages and related to this military property type and date range. However, garages are often recorded as buildings that are ancillary structures to homes, and it is possible that some recorded properties of this period include garages.

#### **9.4.8.19 Servants Quarters**

Servants quarters generally were simple, wood-frame buildings designed in vernacular architectural styles and located near the officer quarters. Separate quarters for servants were added to older installations with smaller officer quarters that did not include sufficient space for live-in servants. At these posts, small wood-frame buildings were constructed behind the main



**F.E. Warren AFB Quarters 2 Garage, April 2009**

Photograph courtesy TolTest, Inc.

quarters as a separate servant's quarters. This building type was not prevalent among Army installations.

#### **9.4.8.20 Integrity Considerations**

Servants' quarters must retain their location and setting in relation to the housing for which they were built; if the main house is no longer extant, then the servant's quarters no longer retains its historical association. Servants' quarters should also retain most of their design and materials from their period of construction. Detached servants quarters no longer serve their original function. Exterior elements that may have been modified include materials, door and window openings, and porches. In cases of subsequent additions or modifications, servants' quarters still may possess sufficient integrity to contribute to an historic district if they retain the majority of their relationship to the housing area, overall design, and the majority of their materials and workmanship.

#### **9.4.8.21 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

No properties have been recorded in Wyoming that have been identified as servants quarters used during the 1920-1989 period. Senior officers at Fort D.A. Russell/F.E. Warren may have employed servants, but those servants likely occupied rooms in the officers' quarters. Several officers' quarters at F.E. Warren include spaces for servants, usually in attics.

### **9.4.9 *Personnel Support***

#### **9.4.9.1 Assembly Halls**

Assembly halls were built in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries to provide an indoor facility to assemble enlisted personnel for lectures and live entertainment. The buildings constructed for this purpose generally were one- or two-story rectangular wood frame buildings, often with the front entrance in the gable end. Character-defining features of assembly halls can include porticos, ticket vestibules, and marquees. Architectural ornamentation

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concentrated on the front facade of most assembly halls may include a Colonial or Mission Revival portico, depending on the region. Assembly halls often had stages along the rear wall. They often were built of wood frame construction. The Quartermaster Department issued a standardized plan for a separate assembly building during the 1890s. The plan depicts a one-story building with windows along the sides; the interior contained an open assembly area facing a stage at the end of the building. This basic plan was the standard until the early twentieth century. The assembly hall as a separate building on Army posts was short-lived. It fit into the broader range of recreational buildings constructed during the twentieth century, such as movie theaters and gymnasiums. Most installations constructed movie theaters during the 1930s. The Quartermaster Corps often included assembly rooms in their plans for gymnasiums during the 1930s. Red Cross and YMCA buildings also provided many of the same entertainment functions of assembly halls.

#### **9.4.9.2 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, assembly halls should retain the majority of their design, materials, workmanship, location, setting, and association from their period of significance. In cases where an existing building was adapted to serve as an assembly hall, the alterations may have attained significance and should be evaluated within their appropriate context. If the building is under evaluation for historic significance as an individual building, then the interior integrity also must be assessed. Character-defining elements of the interior include the original configuration of interior space, materials, and workmanship.

#### **9.4.9.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

No properties are specifically identified as assembly halls in the WYCRO database or in literature regarding Wyoming military sites. However, this property type might include the aerial port training center, Building 12, built in 1948 at the Wyoming Air National Guard facilities in



Cheyenne; the recreation/flight briefing center, Building 10, built at Casper Army Air Base in 1942; and the recreation/canteen, Building 106, built at Camp Guernsey in 1944-1947.

#### **9.4.9.4 Athletic Facilities**

Athletic facilities on military installations usually followed the same design traditions as the same types of civilian facilities of the same era. By the early twentieth century, some posts had built bowling alleys. The Quartermaster Corps issued a standard plan for bowling alleys in 1908. The Quartermaster Department began to issue standardized plans for a combined gymnasium, bowling alley, and post exchange in 1903. The Quartermaster Department issued a separate standardized plan for a gymnasium building in 1904. Though the Quartermaster Department issued plans for gymnasiums and exchanges, 1904 Quartermaster regulations stated that "post exchanges, gymnasiums, bowling alleys, and other places of amusement" could be constructed only with materials at hand, must incur no cost to the government, and must utilize the labor of troops. Until WWI, gyms and post exchanges often were combined in a single building.

During the wave of new, permanent construction during the 1930s, athletic facilities became typical features of Army installations. Gymnasiums were common buildings on posts during this period. They usually were masonry, rectangular buildings of the same regional architectural style as the other buildings of the installation. Outdoor sporting facilities also were common elements of Army posts. Polo remained a popular sport, in keeping with the equestrian culture of the Army. A few riding halls were constructed for indoor equestrian training. Golfing became a popular sport and the number of golf courses proliferated. Where land permitted, new golf courses were laid out; if land was scarce, the parade ground was adapted to a nine-hole golf course. During the late 1930s and early 1940s, golf clubhouses were constructed. Other outdoor sports included tennis, swimming, and boating. Swimming pools were constructed using both

appropriated funds and non-appropriated funds. Those swimming pools constructed by the Quartermaster Department generally included one-story bathhouses.

#### **9.4.9.5 Integrity Considerations**

To possess architectural integrity, athletic facilities should retain most of their architectural ornamentation, design features, and exterior materials from the period of significance. Where subsequent additions or renovations have occurred, the building may have integrity if it retains the majority of its character-defining features, such as its location in the installation plan, materials, workmanship, and design including exterior openings, proportions, and massing.

#### **9.4.9.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

The term “athletic” is open to interpretation. Large recreation buildings at Casper Army Air Force Base, Building 10, and Camp Guernsey, Building 106, might be examples of indoor athletic facilities. Building 39 at Casper Army Air Base was a bowling alley built in 1942. Building 151, 48LA1859, at F.E. Warren AFB is a gymnasium built in 1940.

#### **9.4.9.7 Chapels**

Chapel designs varied among installations and chapel construction was often privately funded. U.S. military chapels are similar in typology to university chapels and community churches of the same eras. Early military chapels followed the various traditions of American church design. Chapels became more common on Army posts during the years after the Civil War. Proposed Army construction regulations published in 1861 included estimates for a chapel and depicted a chapel design similar to a company barracks.

The Quartermaster Department issued standardized plans for chapels during the first decade of the twentieth century. Francis B. Wheaton, Advisory Architect in the Office of the Quartermaster, designed plans for a chapel reminiscent of small, English country parish

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**Building 151, January 2009****Building 284, September 2008****Athletic Facilities from the 1920-1989 Period, F.E. Warren AFB**

Photographs courtesy Travis Beckwith

churches. During the wave of new construction at Army posts and air fields during the late 1920s and the 1930s, military chapels often were constructed as part of installation construction programs. During WWII, standardized, temporary, wood frame, chapels were included routinely as part of WWII mobilization cantonments.

**9.4.9.8 Integrity Considerations**

To evaluate the integrity of a chapel, the reason for its significance and its period of significance must be clear. If a chapel is significant as an individual building, then it must retain exterior and interior integrity. If it is significant as a contributing element in a historic district, then only the exterior integrity must be evaluated. For a building that is significant for its architecture, the character-defining features of that type or period of architecture must be defined. Important elements of integrity for all chapels of any period or type include exterior form, materials, pattern of openings, types of windows and doors, roof shape, workmanship, and ornament.

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#### 9.4.9.9 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period

Building 916 at F.E. Warren, 48LA1979, is a WWII chapel built in 1942. Building 225 at Camp Guernsey is a chapel built in 1959.



**F.E Warren AFB Building 916, date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Travis Beckwith

#### 9.4.9.10 Clubs (Officer/NCO/Other)

Service clubs generally were one-story buildings detailed in contemporary architectural styles from their period of construction. Few free-standing officers mess buildings were built during the nineteenth century. The Quartermaster Department 1891-1918 standardized plan files contain no standard building plans for officers clubs or messes.

As the standard of living improved for enlisted personnel, NCO clubs became more common. NCO clubs were smaller buildings than officers clubs with simpler architectural treatment and usually were located in less prominent locations of the installation, near NCO family housing.

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#### **9.4.9.11 Integrity Considerations**

To possess architectural integrity, service clubs should retain most of their design, materials, workmanship, and setting from their periods of significance. The field survey conducted for this project revealed that service clubs are among the most altered of pre-1940 buildings. Very few retain their original form, due to numerous additions. As installation populations grew far beyond pre-1940 levels, mess and club facilities expanded to accommodate the increased numbers of personnel. In instances of subsequent additions or renovations, the building still may have integrity if it retains the majority of its design in terms of massing, roof, proportion, pattern of openings, materials, and ornamentation

#### **9.4.9.12 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

A Serviceman's Club, Building 141, was built in 1942 and remains an element in the Casper Army Air Base NRHP district. A Boy Scout Lodge, Building 153 and 48LA1861, was built by the CCC at F.E. Warren in 1939 and is a contributing element of the historic district. Officers and NCO clubs undoubtedly exist at F.E. Warren and possibly at Camp Guernsey, but no properties were specifically identified as such in the WYCRO database.

#### **9.4.9.13 Post Exchanges**

Between the late nineteenth century and 1940, the post exchange (PX) was generally a small, one-story building, constructed from a variety of materials. The first PXs incorporated many



**F.E. Warren AFB Building 153 Boy Scout Lodge,  
October 2008**

Photograph courtesy Travis Beckwith

functions into one building, including a lunch room with kitchen, reading room, school room, assembly hall, and billiard room. At Fort D.A. Russell, Wyoming, the PX shared a facility with a gymnasium. By 1903, the Quartermaster Corps developed a standardized plan for PXs: a one-story building with two projecting wings connected by a colonnade. The detailing of PXs reflected the overall architectural character of the installation, generally Georgian Colonial Revival or Spanish Colonial Revival.

#### **9.4.9.14 Integrity Considerations**

Pre-1940 PXs that have continued to serve in that function are among the most heavily altered of installation buildings due to the vastly increased size of the PX retail facilities. Early PXs that later served another use are more likely to retain their original design features. To possess architectural integrity, PX should retain most of its design features and exterior materials from the district's period of significance. The building may have integrity if it retains the majority of its design, including form, pattern of openings, porches, arcades, materials, workmanship, and setting.

#### **9.4.9.15 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Records show one property that is specifically identified as a PX: Building 94 at Casper Army Air Base. The one-story, front-gabled wood frame structure is 108'x140' in rectangular plan, and was built in 1942. Building 106 at Camp Guernsey may serve the same function as a PX but is not identified as such. Many PX buildings are of relatively recent construction as a result of expanded grocery and dry goods demand at bases.

#### **9.4.9.16 Theaters**

Movie theaters usually were one-story, rectangular, front-gabled buildings with long, unfenestrated side walls. Character-defining features of movie theaters can include the overall shape of the building, ticket and lobby vestibules, blank side and rear facades, marquees, and

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ornament on the front facade. The focus of the design was the front facade and entrance, which often featured a projecting vestibule or display marquee. Movie theaters on military installations did not display the ornate ornament of the civilian movie palaces of the same era. The majority of theaters used similar Quartermaster standardized plans: gable-roofed, rectangular building, with the entrance on the gable end, sometimes with a projecting vestibule that housed the lobby and ticket office. The same basic plan applied to both Georgian Colonial and Spanish Colonial Revival designs.

#### **9.4.9.17 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, theaters should retain most of their architectural ornamentation, design features, and exterior materials from their period of construction. Buildings originally built for other purposes and adapted for use as movie theaters may still possess integrity; the modifications may have acquired their own significance. Character-defining features of movie theaters can include the overall shape of the building, ticket and lobby vestibules, blank side and rear facades, marquees, and ornament on the front facade. Theaters generally no longer serve their original purpose and have been modified for new uses, including museums, storage facilities, or even incorporated into a hospital complex. The building may have integrity if it retains the majority of its design, materials, workmanship, and location.

#### **9.4.9.18 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Building 60 at the Casper Army Air Base is a theater built in 1942; it is a one- and two story wood frame, front-



**F.E. Warren AFB Building 150 Movie Theater,  
date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Travis Beckwith

gabled structure, 85'x180 in rectangular plan. Building 150, 48LA1858, is a base theater built at F.E. Warren in 1939.

#### ***9.4.10 Transportation***

##### **9.4.10.1 Stables and Stable Complexes**

Quartermaster stables and corral for the animals used to transport provisions were standard components of nineteenth-century western posts. Corrals were large square enclosed areas to protect horses from attackers. Stables at the many temporary, frontier posts were utilitarian, long, rectangular buildings located apart from the parade ground, near the shop buildings. Quartermaster stables gradually disappeared when railroads became the primary means of transporting supplies to Army installations. Yet, isolated installations continued to rely on wagon suppliers until the advent of trucks and motorized transport, sometimes until the 1930s. The Quartermaster stables identified in this study have remained remarkably similar over time. The typical example of a Quartermaster stable is rectangular, one-and-one-half story building, with stalls on the ground floor and a storage area in the half story. Most installations had no more than a few Quartermaster stables.

During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, cavalry and artillery regiments required horses as the main support for their missions. At the small frontier posts of the mid-nineteenth century, stables provided shelter for cavalry horses directly behind the barracks. Unofficial Army regulations proposed in 1860 recommended enclosed stables with a central corridor lined with stalls. At frontier posts, stables were arranged in blocks with open stalls facing each other or they were arranged in rows.

The Quartermaster Department began to incorporate cavalry and artillery stables as part of the design and overall plan for new installations. The cavalry stables were along the southern edge of the installation, arranged in an arc. The rectangular stables were entirely enclosed under

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a gable roof with a ventilation monitor along the ridge of the roof; the interior plan consisted of a central corridor lined with stalls. This basic form of permanent cavalry stable continued until WWI. Horses were among the most valuable property at the posts; consequently, stable guardhouses were a standard component of stable complexes. The guardhouses were typically simple, one-story buildings that matched the stables in construction materials and character.

Distinct veterinarian stables and support buildings were constructed after around 1900. The first veterinarian complex was constructed at Fort Sheridan, Illinois. Veterinarian stables characteristically were T-shaped buildings with a large arched opening at the end elevation that provided cover for both horses and supply wagons. The interior plan was similar to other types of stables.

Evidence of formally planned cavalry and artillery stable complexes remains extant at F.E. Warren AFB, formerly Fort D.A. Russell. Artillery stables were similar to cavalry stables. The major distinction was that some artillery stables were T-shaped and narrower than the stables for cavalry horses. Artillery stables also were built in complexes consisting of rows of stables with guardhouses between the stables. Artillery stable complexes had one additional building type, the gun shed, which housed artillery.

Stable complexes constructed during the 1930s contained the same components as earlier stable complexes, including stables, guard houses, gun sheds, and a veterinarian complex. The stable guard houses resemble NCO cottages with porches. The gun sheds are one-story buildings with garage door openings along the side and a one-and-a-half story end block.

#### **9.4.10.2 Integrity Considerations**

Few military stables continue to serve as stables. Most stables have been converted to other uses, including storage, offices, resident support activities, garages, and hobby shops. To possess sufficient integrity to contribute to an historic district, stables and their associated

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support buildings should retain their original location and most of their setting, design, exterior materials, workmanship, and association. Exterior elements that often have been modified include location and size of window and door openings and the installation of new doors and windows. In cases of subsequent additions or renovations, the stables and associated buildings still may have integrity if they retain the majority of their character-defining features, including building shape, roof design, exterior materials, overall pattern of openings, and relationship to associated buildings within the installation plan.

#### **9.4.10.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Multiple stables exist at F.E. Warren AFB that were built before 1920 and used at least until 1927, when the cavalry departed the base. The Anna Miller Museum Building in Newcastle was originally a stable and residence constructed for the National Guard's horses and caretaker. Constructed between 1933 and 1936, the building is one story tall with a rock faced exterior of native sandstone laid in courses. It is the last National Guard cavalry stable known to exist in Wyoming.

#### **9.4.10.4 Gas Stations**

Gas stations on military installations resembled small, civilian service stations of the same era. The typical gas station consisted of a small, one-story building with several gasoline pumps in front of the building. In some examples, a roof extended from the building over the pumps. Gas station designs often matched



**National Guard Armory and Stable, Newcastle, date unknown**

Photograph courtesy Wyoming State Archives

the prevailing architectural style of the installation, such as the Spanish Colonial Revival or the Georgian Colonial Revival. Gas stations constructed during the 1930s sometimes display the elements of the streamlined Moderne architectural style. The small gas stations generally had only a few pumps and complemented the design of the other buildings of the cantonment, particularly at installations built during the inter-war period. Post WWII gas stations are much larger than the pre-war facilities.

#### **9.4.10.5 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, gas stations should retain their location and most of their setting, design, workmanship, and materials from their periods of construction. Most gas stations constructed before 1940 no longer serve as gas stations, or have been altered so that their original design is unrecognizable. Where subsequent additions or renovations have occurred, the building still may have integrity if it retains the majority of its character-defining features, such as the basic shape of the building, projecting roof bay, exterior materials, pattern of openings, and design features that define its original architectural expression.

#### **9.4.10.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Building 364 at F.E. Warren, 49LA1946, is a Quartermaster gas station built in 1938. The fuel systems maintenance dock, Building 22, at the Wyoming Air National Guard's facilities in Cheyenne does not fit the criteria for a gas station as identified above.



**F.E. Warren AFB Building 364 Quartermasters Gas Station**

Photograph courtesy Travis Beckwith

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#### **9.4.10.7 Motor Pools**

Garage and repair facilities were one-story, rectangular, masonry buildings with wide bands of industrial sash windows and parapeted gable ends; they resembled smaller versions of early 1930s gabled hangars. In some cases, installations constructed larger motor pool facilities by joining several units of the basic building form. Motor pool facilities for tactical vehicles were larger than general motor pool facilities and typically consisted of buildings with one-story central portions flanked by block ends. Garage door bays lined the long sides of the center portion of the buildings. Motor pool facilities generally were located apart from the main cantonment area in a secondary service area.

The Quartermaster Corps began to construct distinct motor pool areas, in the same way that earlier Quartermasters had designed separate stable complexes. Motor pools of garages, storage facilities, and repair shops were located in a complex apart from the living and administrative areas of the post. The Quartermaster Corps may have based the designs for early motor pool buildings on stable designs; some early motor pool buildings have the monitor roof and shaped gable ends of some stable designs.

The typical motorized vehicle garage appears to have evolved from nineteenth-century vehicle storage sheds and gun sheds. Between the 1890s and 1917, the Quartermaster issued a series of standardized plans for sheds to store wagons and field artillery pieces. The typical vehicle shed was a horizontal, one-story building with wide, paired doors along the side elevation. Eventually, steel rolling doors on overhead tracks replaced the paired doors. Maintenance and repair shops for motorized vehicles generally were brick utilitarian structures with industrial sash windows. Specialized repair and maintenance facilities were developed to service tactical motorized vehicles, such as the early tanks developed for the mechanized cavalry. These facilities, which resembled the artillery stables also constructed during the 1930s,

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consisted of masonry, one-story, rectangular buildings flanked by blocks at the end elevations and with garage bay doors lining the side elevations. An important feature that distinguishes this building type from stables is the large expanses of industrial windows that provided interior light to aid repair work.

#### **9.4.10.8 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, motorized vehicle facilities should retain their location and most of their design, materials, setting, workmanship, and association from the period of significance of the historic district. Motor pool facilities often continue to serve as maintenance, repair, and storage facilities for military vehicles. Some installations have converted motor pool facilities into storage or other utility shops. The size and location of openings may have changed; doors and windows often have been replaced. Where subsequent additions or renovations have occurred, the building may have integrity if it retains the majority of its character-defining features, including exterior construction materials, garage openings, metal sash windows, and relationship to associated buildings within the installation plan.

#### **9.4.10.9 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

This property type blends with the vehicle maintenance shop property type, so that the distinction is not always clear. Building 910 at the Casper Army Air Base is a motor pool garage built in 1942; it is a one-story gabled wood frame structure with taller central section and flanking shed additions. Building 23 at the Wyoming Air National Guard installation at Cheyenne may serve as a motor pool building, although it is called a vehicle maintenance shop.

### ***9.4.11 Aircraft Facilities***

#### **9.4.11.1 Airplane Hangars**

Airplane hangars were one-story buildings with gabled roofs, large entrances on the gable end and large windows along the side elevations. Early hangars generally were constructed of

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wood frame; however, as the military aviation program expanded, steel frame and masonry hangars were constructed. Hangar size was related directly to aircraft size. Character-defining features include the overall shape of the building, original construction materials, fenestration on the side elevations, large door openings and sliding doors at the end elevations, and corner piers.

In 1911 the Quartermaster Corps issued its first standardized plan for a Signal Corps hangar. The plan depicts a square, 46 by 46 ft., wood-frame building with a segmental arched roof. The walls were clad in board-and-batten wood siding. One elevation consisted of six large doors: the end doors were hinged, the middle doors slid on overhead tracks. The Army also constructed metal hangars to supplement wood-frame airfield facilities. The Quartermaster General's Office issued new standard plans for hangars in 1917. These plans depict a metal frame structure with galvanized, corrugated iron walls and doors along the gable and elevations of the building.

Army hangars constructed in 1934 and later had segmental-arch roofs supported by steel bowstring trusses. The arched roof form offered greater interior height. Hangars of this type have larger corner piers than their gable-roofed predecessors. In some cases, the design incorporated the control tower into the top of the corner pier nearest the runway. By the end of the 1930s, aircraft design had changed greatly as airplanes increased in size and wingspans grew wider. New hangars were larger to accommodate the airplanes' increasing size. By the late 1930s, the Army had simplified some of its hangar designs, deleting stylistic references and the distinctive corner piers. Metal cladding over the steel frame replaced the characteristic masonry of the early and mid 1930s; the sliding doors were steel sash and the side elevations were blank. After the start of WWII mobilization, use of steel was restricted to weapons and other essential industrial

production. The Army once again turned to wood-frame hangars to house its rapidly expanding air force.

The expansion of the Air Corps and its facilities during the 1930s prompted the development of supporting structures around the hangars and flight line. Ground support buildings typically included control tower, repair, dope (lubricant or varnish), and paint shops as well as storage facilities. These supporting facilities often used in materials and designs similar to or compatible with the adjacent hangars, though their utilitarian functions were the primary determinant of their design and location.

#### **9.4.11.2 Integrity Considerations**

Many smaller, older hangars later served new uses while some larger hangars from the late 1930s continue to function as airplane hangars. To possess integrity, hangars and their support structures should retain most of their architectural and engineering design features and external construction materials from their period of construction. Character-defining features include the overall shape of the building, original construction materials, fenestration on the side elevations, large door openings and sliding doors at the end elevations, and corner piers. Exterior elements that may have been modified include doors and windows. If replacement doors and windows retain the same placement and similar materials as the originals and the hangar still conveys the overall design from the period of significance, it may still possess integrity. Small, ancillary additions that do not overwhelm the basic block of the hangar do not diminish substantially the building's integrity. If the building is under consideration for nomination to the National Register as an individual building, rather than as part of an historic district, the interior should retain sufficient integrity to convey the construction and interior configuration of the hangar during its period of significance. An historic district composed of hangars and their

support buildings does not need to retain the interior integrity and may better represent the theme of aviation than isolated hangars that once were part of a complex of buildings.

#### **9.4.11.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Building 12 at the Wyoming Air National Guard installation in Cheyenne is an airplane hangar built as part of the Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10 in 1943. Two hangars built in 1942 are contributing elements of the Casper Army Air Force Base: Hangar No. 3 is a two-story wood frame structure, 120'x160' in rectangular plan and Hangar No. 5 is similar to Hangar No. 3 but 228'x160' in rectangular plan.

#### **9.4.11.4 Air Strips/Runways**

Industrial architect Albert Kahn developed standardized plans for temporary airfields and he completed the basic airfield design in ten days in May 1917. The plan for a standard single-unit training field required 54 buildings and accommodated 100 aircraft, 150 student pilots, and the training cadre. Kahn based the airfield layout on a one-mile-square section, with all buildings situated in a row on one side of the runway. Early Signal Corps mobilization fields exemplify this basic linear design pattern. The Air Corps Act of 1926 authorized the expansion of Army aviation; the Chief of the Air Corps proposed improvements at 32 fields and construction of two other fields as part of a five-year plan. The years from 1926 to 1932 marked some of the first permanent construction and physical improvements of aviation facilities. At this time, permanent hangars retained the segmental-arch roof, steel-sash sliding doors, and masonry-clad steel frame construction of early hangars, however, their size dwarfed earlier hangar construction.

Albert Kahn's standard runway plan reflected the small aircraft of that period. The potential for commercial air transportation encouraged development of much larger aircraft during the 1930s, and the Army rather reluctantly followed with development of transport and bomber airplanes. To accommodate the larger planes, plans evolved for longer and thicker

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runways, and for development and expansion of service taxiways and tarmacs during and after WWII.

#### **9.4.11.5 Integrity Considerations**

Runways and landing strips/landing pads would have integrity if they retained basic configuration, size, and materials from the period of significance. Military runway systems remaining from the 1920-1989 period are likely to be in active use for commercial and/or military use, and most are likely to have been substantially rebuilt to accommodate heavier aircraft and to replace deteriorated materials.

#### **9.4.11.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Runways are the heart of the Wyoming Air National Guard's operations at Cheyenne and the former Casper Army Air Force Base, Camp Guernsey has its own substantial air strip, and helicopter landing pads exist at F.E. Warren. However, no record of these military runway or landing facilities is in the WYCRO database. The absence of such information is a data gap that could be addressed by additional field and documentary research.

#### **9.4.11.7 Missile Launch and Control Facilities**

Missile facilities date from 1958 in Wyoming and are centered on F.E. Warren AFB. Associated individual property types could include Atlas launch pads and "coffins," Minuteman silos and launch facilities, missile alert/control facilities, rail and truck transport, and multiple types of training structures. Missile launch and alert facilities are spread over a wide area of southeastern Wyoming and are recognizable by their tightly controlled access through high wire fences.

#### 9.4.11.8 Integrity Considerations

Atlas missiles were all removed from Wyoming in the early 1960s and the former Atlas sites are not likely to be intact. Similarly, Minuteman I missiles were removed and replaced with Minuteman III missiles and it is unknown if Minuteman I silos remain intact. MX or Peacekeeper missiles were placed in 50 Minuteman III silos without substantial modification of the silos. A Minuteman I complex in South Dakota has been extensively documented and some Minuteman sites have been sold after removal of all equipment. However, most missile launch, control, and training sites in Wyoming and elsewhere are not accessible by the public.

#### 9.4.11.9 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period

Properties of this type or types date no earlier than 1958, when development of the first Atlas facilities began in Wyoming at and around F.E. Warren AFB. Recorded properties include multiple training and transportation facilities built at F.E. Warren mostly in 1963 and 1984; MX or Peacekeeper missile launch facilities



**Peacekeeper Missile Alert Facility (MAF),  
June 2006**

Photograph courtesy TolTest, Inc.

in Goshen, Laramie, and Platte Counties built in 1963, 1975, and 1986; Minuteman III launch facilities in Laramie County, built in 1963 and 1974; and missile alert facilities built in Goshen County in 1963 for the Minuteman I missiles.

#### 9.4.11.10 Radar Facilities

Radar facilities may have been installed in Wyoming during WWII, but radar was definitely installed in several locations in the state during the early Cold War era in the 1950s.

Radar installations could include towers, control and signal generating buildings, arrays of signal sending banks, and later parabolic dishes and domed structures.

#### ***9.4.12 Research and Development Facilities***

##### **9.4.12.1 Laboratories/ Research and Testing Facilities**

Laboratories and research facilities usually were one-of-a-kind buildings unless that function was replicated at another installation. Buildings built for research functions were constructed of permanent materials and were of functional design. These facilities could include a radio laboratory to improve ground to air communication, a materials laboratory to test new aircraft materials, an armament laboratory to test the effects of ammunition discharges on aircraft, a propeller laboratory to test the speed and strength of aircraft propellers, and a wind tunnel to test airplane designs. All of these buildings were utilitarian designs engineered to meet special needs. These buildings often represented the precepts of contemporary industrial architecture: use of concrete and steel, and an emphasis on functional designs.

##### **9.4.12.2 Integrity Considerations**

To possess the integrity necessary to convey significance, research and development facilities should retain most of their original design, materials, workmanship, and setting from their periods of significance. Character-defining features of research and development facilities may include their overall shape, their relationship to other buildings in the complex, materials, features specific to the research conducted at the facility, and overall pattern of exterior windows and doors. Buildings that housed research and development activities often were altered to accommodate new research missions or technological advances. Typical alterations include replacement of original testing equipment, alterations to window and door openings, and enlargement of interior space through building additions. In cases of subsequent additions or renovations, the building may have integrity if it retains the majority of its character-defining

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features, particularly any features specific to the research or testing activity, its setting, basic form, materials, and pattern of openings.

#### **9.4.12.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

One laboratory known to have existed at Fort F.E. Warren after WWII was engaged in research regarding treatment of rheumatic fever, but this laboratory was housed at least initially in a renovated hospital ward rather than in its own structure. The laboratory function is not distinctly represented for any building in the WYCRO database.

### ***9.4.13 Base Infrastructure***

#### **9.4.13.1 Power Plants/Electrical Systems**

The central power plants generally were large industrial buildings, while the supporting substations were small, utilitarian buildings. Both power plants and substations were constructed of masonry. Some installations placed the central power plants in prominent locations and gave them high-style architectural treatment. Power plants for garrison posts and training stations usually were located away from the main area of the installation and were unadorned, utilitarian structures. Late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century industrial installations, such as shipyards and arsenals, received large, prominent power plants that symbolized the military's growing industrial power. Mid twentieth-century power plants usually display more utilitarian, functional design, and usually were located away from the main area of the installation. Character-defining features of power plants include the pattern of openings, the distinctive tall chimney stacks of many early power plants, construction materials, and the architectural vocabulary specific to the power plant.

Power plants were added onto older installations as systems and facilities were modernized. Power plants usually were one-story, masonry buildings with tall chimney flues. During the wave of new installation construction during the 1930s, the Army constructed larger,

two-story, masonry power plants. Smaller complexes within an installation, such as a hospital complex, sometimes had a separate power plant. Substations aided the distribution of power around the installation through a system of electrical substations and transformer huts.

#### **9.4.13.2 Integrity Considerations**

To possess sufficient integrity to contribute to an historic district, power plants and their attendant support structures should retain most of the exterior design features, materials, and setting from their period of significance. If the building is under consideration as an individual historic property, then the interior also should retain sufficient integrity of materials, spatial arrangement, and equipment to represent the period of significance. Often installations have upgraded or expanded power plants. Common modifications include changes to original window and door openings and the construction of additions. Character-defining features of power plants include the pattern of openings, the distinctive tall chimney stacks of many early power plants, construction materials, and the architectural vocabulary specific to the power plant.

#### **9.4.13.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Building 1168 at F.E. Warren AFB is a power station built in 1963 to support the ICBM system at the base.

#### **9.4.13.4 Water and Sewage Systems**

In some cases, elements of the water system, such as water towers, were incorporated into the installation design as prominent architectural features. In other cases, they were simple utilitarian buildings. Water and sewage system facilities usually were constructed of permanent materials. When the Army consolidated its troops in larger and more permanent installations during the 1880s and 1890s, the Quartermaster Department included plans for water storage and distribution systems at the new and expanded posts. The water tower was part of a water distribution system in conjunction with rain cisterns and a reservoir.

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The inclusion of indoor plumbing and steam heat in Army housing during the 1880s increased the complexity of the water supply and distribution. By 1892 all but 130 company barracks had hot and cold running water. By 1893 most posts included planned sewer systems. By 1896 the Quartermaster Department spent more than \$250,000 on water supply, plumbing, sewerage and drainage. The Quartermaster Department issued standardized plans for metal water tanks raised on wood trestle towers during the 1890s. These utilitarian water towers were probably the most common type of water towers found on Army installations. Other facilities required for water distribution systems included pumping stations.

The Quartermaster Department also engineered sewage and water treatment systems. At the WWI training camps, the water and sewage facilities were among the only buildings of permanent construction, thus may pre-date much of the permanent construction. By the 1930s sewage and water treatment plants were basic elements of installation planning and the water and sewage facilities constructed during this prolific building period did not follow standardized plans. In rare instances, architectural elements were incorporated into the design to produce more than the basic, functional structure.

#### **9.4.13.5 Integrity Considerations**

If the water and sewage treatment facilities possess significance, then their integrity, that is, their ability to convey that significance must be evaluated. If the structure is significant for its architectural merit, then the important features of the structure must be identified. Since these structures were not the result of standardized design, no universal list of character-defining features was derived from examination of the existing examples. To possess architectural integrity, water distribution and sewage treatment facilities should retain most of their design and external construction materials from their periods of construction. Setting also is an important element of integrity, particularly if the structure was part of an installation master plan, as in the

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case of some water towers. Other important elements of integrity for these buildings include shape, height, pattern of openings, materials, and ornament.

#### **9.4.13.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Building 920 at the Casper Army Air Base is a pump house built in 1942. It is a one-story brick structure, 40'x25', with side-gabled roof and an external brick chimney. A sewer system, part of 48LA71, has been recorded at F.E. Warren AFB but it predates the 1920-1989 period. The Cheyenne Modification Center Reservoir, 48LA591, was built in 1943 and is still in existence in Cheyenne.

#### **9.4.13.7 Heating Systems**

Heating systems might include steam generation and delivery systems, natural gas facilities, and coal facilities. These systems might include boiler rooms, pipeline and valve systems, and coal sheds.

#### **9.4.13.8 Integrity Considerations**

Properties of this type would have integrity if they retained most design elements, materials, and configurations from the period of significance.

#### **9.4.13.9 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Building 360, 48LA1944, is a gas valve structure built in 1941 at Fort F.E. Warren.

Building 17 at the Wyoming Air National Guard facility in Cheyenne is a heating facility building constructed in 1943 as part of the Cheyenne



**F.E. Warren AFB Building 360 Boiler Plant, April 2009**

Photograph courtesy TolTest, Inc.

Modification Center No. 10 complex. The hospital complex boiler building is one of only four structures remaining at the Heart Mountain Relocation Center; the structure was built in 1942.

#### ***9.4.14 Storage***

##### **9.4.14.1 General Storage**

Storage facilities were generally utilitarian buildings constructed of a variety of materials, including wood, stone, brick, structural clay tile, or corrugated metal. Storage buildings usually were one- or two-story, long rectangular buildings with pitched roofs, regular openings, and little ornament. The Quartermaster Department proposed standardized plans for a general storehouse in 1860 and for a commissary store house in 1872. Both proposed plans showed one-story buildings with large open interior spaces. Little differentiation between the two buildings is apparent, suggesting that either department could easily have used the same building. The typical warehouse was a one- or two-story rectangular building with a pitched roof and regular openings, often with bars over the windows for security.

In 1892 the Quartermaster Department issued standardized plans for a combined Quartermaster and Commissary storehouse. When the Quartermaster and Subsistence Departments shared a warehouse, the interior was divided down the middle; each end of the building had its own set of offices and issue counters. Generally, the building had a loading platform along one long side of the building. This basic Quartermaster warehouse design remained the same from 1892 until the end of the 1930s. The only major change was that the building grew from one-and-a-half stories to two stories with attic.

During the twentieth century, there was a dramatic increase in the number of storage facilities required to store the supplies of a modern Army. During WWI, the Army established larger warehouse districts at its training camps. Warehouse districts comprised rows of one-story, temporary wooden storehouses located along railroad sidings. To meet the post-war storage

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needs, the Army sheathed some WWI temporary frame warehouse structures with clay tile or brick.

Airfield storage facilities were located near the flight line with the maintenance and repair shops and airplane hangars, rather than in a separate warehouse district. The typical storage buildings were one-story, rectangular, masonry buildings with gable roofs and industrial sash windows. They generally shared the same architectural character and motifs as the surrounding buildings of the flight line area.

When a post required special storage facilities, the Quartermaster Department often issued separate plans, designed according to the type and size of materiel requiring storage and the department requesting storage facilities. After the Army first issued oil lamps to troops, the Quartermaster Department built oil houses to store oil. During the first decade of the twentieth century, the Quartermaster Department issued separate plans for buildings to store special engineering, signal, and photographic equipment and supplies. In more recent years, installations have built separate structures to house and isolate hazardous materials. Ordnance storage structures are property types that are distinct from general storage structures.

#### **9.4.14.2 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, storage facilities should retain most of the design, location, setting, materials, and workmanship from the period of significance of the historic district. Character-defining features of this building type include the building form, original materials, pattern of openings, and relationship with a complex of other storage facilities. An isolated storage building that once was part of a complex is not as good a representative of the building type as an intact complex. Storage facilities often have been modified or altered for other uses. Where a building has undergone subsequent additions or renovations, the building still may have integrity if it

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retains the majority of its setting, massing, proportion, pattern of windows and doors, materials, and ornamentation.

#### **9.4.14.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Records show multiple general storage buildings in Wyoming military sites. Buildings 26 and 20330 are hazardous material storage structures at the Wyoming Air National Guard base in Cheyenne. Buildings 1005, 1024, and 1105 are Quartermaster warehouses and Building 1017 is a warehouse, all built in 1942 at the Casper Army Air Base. Camp Guernsey includes storage buildings 13, built in 1948; 13a, built in 1984; 14, built in 1951; and 18, built in 1950. Building 607, 48LA1978, is a warehouse built at F.E. Warren in 1930.

#### **9.4.14.4 Depots**

After the Civil War, the Quartermaster Department adopted a system of depots to facilitate supplying Army installations. The Quartermaster Department controlled general depots, while department or division commanders controlled regional depots. The spread of railroad lines made the delivery of supplies easier and a central location for assembling supplies more advantageous. During the twentieth century, regional storage depots proliferated as the Army developed more complex logistical systems to serve its larger number of troops and amount of equipment. Aviation depots were characterized by rows of utilitarian warehouses.

#### **9.4.14.5 Integrity Considerations**

Depots would have integrity if the structures retained most design elements, materials, and setting from the period of significance.

#### **9.4.14.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

No examples of this property type are identified in the WYCRO database or in literature regarding military operations in Wyoming. Camp Carlin was a major Army depot adjacent to Fort D.A. Russell, but its operation and closure predate the 1920-1989 period.

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#### 9.4.14.7 Ordnance Storage

Ordnance storage facilities are a specialized form of storage facilities that generally are recognizable as a separate building type from general storage. Ordnance storage facilities generally were one-story, utilitarian buildings with thick masonry walls. In some cases, ordnance storage facilities did incorporate architectural motifs if designed as part of an installation master plan.

When the Army began to consolidate its troops on larger, permanent posts during the 1880s and 1890s, the Quartermaster Department issued standardized plans for ammunition storehouses that depicted one-story, masonry buildings with dormers, windows, and doors. These ammunition storehouses were similar in design to Quartermaster warehouses. The Quartermaster Department designed the buildings to allow proper ventilation of ammunition.

Both the Army and Navy eventually adopted a policy of constructing semi-circular concrete and steel "igloo" storage structures set into the ground surface and with surrounding earthen walls. However, funding limitations prevented the military from implementing this policy on a wide scale. Installations constructed different types of storage facilities for different types of ordnance. For stable materiel, they built above-ground, rectangular, structural clay tile or brick buildings with loading docks along the long side. For more volatile ordnance and raw materials, they built igloo storage structures. The post-1926 ordnance storage buildings were dispersed to prevent the spread of explosions. Dispersed ordnance storage facilities of these two types – either above-ground, brick or structural clay tile magazines or partially below-ground, concrete igloos – were the prevalent pattern of layout and design at large-scale ordnance storage installations.

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#### **9.4.14.8 Integrity Considerations**

To possess integrity, ordnance storage facilities should retain most of their design, setting, and exterior construction materials from the period of significance of the historic district. Nineteenth-century ordnance storage facilities usually have undergone the most substantial modifications and may have been adapted for use for other types of storage or in cases of large ordnance depots, even for offices. Ordnance storage facilities from the 1920s and 1930s often have undergone little modification due to their specialized design.

#### **9.4.14.9 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Multiple ordnance storage facilities exist in Wyoming, mostly at F.E. Warren AFB. The Wyoming Air National Guard complex includes Building 14, a conventional munitions shop, as distinct from a nuclear weapon storage facility, built in 1958. The Casper Army Air Base includes Building 1123, a bomb site storage structure erected in 1942. F.E. Warren AFB includes five ordnance magazines built in 1941, Buildings 2240-2244; five igloo weapon storage buildings constructed in 1963, Buildings 1157, 1158, 1161-1163; and four missile storage structures built in 1984.

### ***9.4.15 Field Training and Work Facilities***

#### **9.4.15.1 Rifle Ranges**

The Army did not uniformly apply technological advances relating to rifle ranges. The differences in the implementation of changes resulted in more advanced and less advanced facilities. Primarily these changes included the echelon target system and Aiken targets, which were incorporated around the turn of the 19<sup>th</sup> - 20<sup>th</sup> century. The following was taken from the Camp Logan, Illinois National Register Nomination:

“While most U.S. Army and National Guard ranges had successive firing lines located directly behind one another (as did the early range at Camp Logan), this limited training to one squad at a time. The French echelon system installed ca. 1900 at Camp Logan may

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be the first U.S. adaptation of this system, which places rows of targets at various ranges from a long firing line, allowing many more men to train at the same time from different distances. The Aiken target, developed in the late 1890s by guardsman Col. Robert Aiken at Camp Logan, was a precise action, mechanical moving target that could be raised and lowered much like a double-hung window. It also allowed target operators to mark individual bullet hits rapidly, so that feedback to the shooter and the instructor was almost immediate.

At Camp Logan, targets were erected on ranges of 200, 300, 500, 600, and 1000 yards, oriented toward Lake Michigan. A marksman needed to qualify at each range by achieving a minimum of 40 percent of the possible hit points for that target. After a soldier qualified at the 200 yard range, he would advance to 300, then 500, and on up. After a soldier finished the course at the minimum standard, he would start over and attempt the next higher standard. The highest achievement was “Distinguished Sharpshooter.” In addition to the standard bullseye targets, Camp Logan also had a skirmish range with silhouettes of standing, kneeling, or prone figures that tested a more realistic combination of firing and maneuvering.”

While Camp Logan was extremely advanced in its technology at that time, the basic principles of facility design were applied throughout the armed forces.

#### **9.4.15.2 Integrity Considerations**

Rifle or small-arms ranges will have integrity if they retain firing positions, backdrops, target systems, and any observation or scoring systems from the period of significance. Many such ranges have undergone clean-up of lead and other hazardous materials, therefore the earthen backdrops may have been replaced or altered.

#### **9.4.15.3 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Rifle ranges existed at all military training sites except the Air National Guard facility in Cheyenne. Records show three rifle ranges at F.E. Warren AFB: a range house and firing range, 48LA1606, built in WWII and two small arms ranges, 48LA2031 and 48LA2034, that originated before 1920 but were probably used during the 1920-1989 period. Camp Guernsey has had at least one small arms firing range, but the WYCRO database shows no evidence of that range. Similarly, National Guard units had small arms ranges and at least one unit had a machine gun

range, but the WYCRO database identifies no properties specifically as rifle ranges, firing ranges, or small arms ranges.

#### **9.4.15.4 Artillery and Bombardment Ranges**

In general, artillery ranges are large open areas selected for their isolation from settlements and livestock. Perimeter fencing surrounds these areas to prevent trespassing. Large wooden objects serve as targets for both ground based weaponry and aircraft. At some ranges, observation and scoring positions were built as bunkers or un-shielded viewing stations.

#### **9.4.15.5 Integrity Considerations**

Artillery and bombardment ranges will have integrity if they retain sufficient physical remains of target systems, observation or scoring facilities, and munitions remnants to clearly reflect their functions during the period of significance.

#### **9.4.15.6 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

Artillery ranges existed at Pole Mountain Reserve and at Camp Guernsey. Three recorded properties at Pole Mountain reflect this general property type: a mortar firing position, 48AB976, dating from WWII and two concrete bunkers built and used during WWII to observe live fire activities and possibly to expose troops to artillery fire situations. An artillery range also existed at Fort F.E. Warren during WWII, possibly including a concrete bunker, 48LA1604 and 48LA1605. Camp Guernsey has had at least two artillery ranges, neither of which is represented specifically as an artillery range in the WYCRO database. Casper Army Air Base had at least six bombing and strafing ranges located in remote areas to the west and southwest of the base during WWII, at least four of which have been documented, 48CO1434, 2201, 2232, and 2369.

#### **9.4.15.7 CCC/POW Camps**

CCC camps existed in at least 17 locations throughout Wyoming in the period 1933-1942. The camps were either base camps that included wood frame barracks buildings,

administration buildings, and other structures, or field camps that usually consisted of tent housing for CCC enrollees and administrators, but also sometimes wood frame buildings for administrators. During WWII, two major prison camps in Wyoming, at Douglas and at Fort F.E. Warren, housed German and Italian POWs. Former CCC camps also housed prisoners throughout the state.

#### **9.4.15.8 Integrity Considerations**

Nearly all buildings were removed from the POW and CCC camps after WWII, so that any buildings remaining on their original locations are extremely rare and these buildings may have integrity if they have received only moderate loss of design and materials. CCC camps now consist primarily of foundations, gravel pads and streetways, and artifact scatters. These sites may have integrity if the site as a whole retains sufficient visible archaeological remains to clearly represent the organization and use of the camp during the period of its CCC and/or POW occupation.

#### **9.4.15.9 Property Type Examples from the 1920-1989 Period**

The Army dismantled and removed the POW camp at Fort F.E. Warren after WWII and similarly sold the large Douglas POW camp and removed nearly all buildings. One structure remaining from the Douglas POW camp is the former officers club, 48CO1332, which contains murals painted by Italian POWs. One POW field camp that apparently was not previously a CCC camp is 48FR2571 in Fremont County. Records show multiple CCC camps and CCC-related projects in Wyoming, including camps 48CK265, 48CR3549, 48CR4203, 48CR5382, 48FR1393, 48FR2285, 48GO142, 48LN763, 48SH901, 49TE1282, and 48YE867.

### **9.5 DATA GAPS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

Data gaps are deficiencies in available information for topics and/or property types that require additional archival research, field documentation, and/or cumulative analysis of existing

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or additional information in order to close the gap. The following data gaps have become apparent during the construction of this historical context.

### ***9.5.1 Radar and Electronic Bomb Scoring Facilities***

During and after WWII, the Army Air Force and then the U.S. Air Force coordinated a network of civilian volunteers who watched the skies for aircraft and reported to regional “filter” centers. One such filter center was in Casper during and after the war, but Army Air Force personnel were stationed in Rock Springs and possibly in other locations after the war. These personnel essentially replaced the civilian observers. After WWII, a radar facility was established near Sundance, possibly in association with Ellsworth AFB in South Dakota. At an unknown date or dates, electronic bomb scoring sites were established in Wyoming and other states for B52 and possibly other bombers. The non-missile history of the U.S. Air Force in the Cold War in Wyoming could be substantially augmented by research and recording of the operations and physical nature of the radar and bomb scoring sites.

### ***9.5.2 CCC and POW Camps***

Multiple CCC and POW camps have been recorded to various degrees in Wyoming. A survey focused on such camps throughout Wyoming would provide both a better historical context for these camps and a better comparative database to support decisions regarding preservation and interpretation of the former camp locations.

### ***9.5.3 Veterans Administration Hospitals and the Wyoming Veterans Home***

The VA Hospital in Sheridan, the VA Medical Center at Cheyenne, and the Wyoming Veterans Home near Buffalo have all been nominated in some manner to the National Register of Historic Places, but none of these facilities has been documented to current standards. The Sheridan and Cheyenne facilities are federal properties that should be documented by the VA

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under Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act. The Wyoming Veterans Home is a state-owned property.

#### ***9.5.4 Rifle and Artillery Ranges***

Three rifle or small-arms ranges have been recorded at F.E. Warren and portions of two artillery ranges have also been recorded at F.E. Warren and Pole Mountain. Artillery and rifle ranges are known to have existed and still exist at Camp Guernsey, but have not been recorded. Research and recording of the entire range complexes at F.E. Warren, Pole Mountain, and Camp Guernsey would illuminate the physical nature and operation of the ranges.

#### ***9.5.5 Air Strips and Runways***

Air strips and runways were critical elements of the Casper Army Air Base and the Cheyenne MAP/Cheyenne Modification Center No. 10, and a runway was constructed at Camp Guernsey at an unknown date. Documentation of these or other possible military airstrips or runways is absent from the WYCRO database or other materials regarding the installations. Field recording and documentary research regarding these facilities could illuminate technological evolution and property characteristics in regard to the intended uses of the facilities.

### **9.6 CONCLUSIONS**

The military history of Wyoming from 1920 to 1989 spans Great Depression, WWII and two “hot” conflicts in the Cold War. During that period, military technology evolved from animal conveyance to supersonic jet aircraft, and from bolt action rifles to automatic weapons and nuclear-armed intercontinental ballistic missiles. Wyoming National Guard units progressed from minimally trained militia supported mainly by the State, to highly effective components of the nation’s defense force. The Air National Guard was organized at Cheyenne after WWII, and Army and Air Guard units from Wyoming saw distinguished service in Korea and Vietnam.

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Wyoming's military facilities evolved in response to changes in technology, the world condition in regard to perceived or overt threats to national security and national interests around the world, and political and economic conditions in the United States. Fort D.A. Russell became Fort F.E. Warren and then F.E. Warren Air Force Base, and it evolved from a horse-mounted cavalry post to a huge WWII training center, and then to perhaps the most powerful nuclear defense facility in the world. Two late Indian Wars era posts, Fort Mackenzie and Fort McKinney, became facilities for the medical treatment and retirement of veterans, respectively. The Wyoming National Guard abandoned its Pole Mountain training area in 1937 for a new facility at Guernsey, which subsequently became one the finest training areas for artillery and other weaponry in the nation.

This historical context should be considered a first step in addressing appropriate understanding and preservation of Wyoming's military heritage from the 1920 to 1989 period. This period is relatively recent, and additional baseline historical source material and historical synthesis will become available over time. Similarly, future cultural resources investigations will provide additional information regarding the physical sites, structures, and objects associated with the various aspects of this theme and period in Wyoming. This historical context should be updated periodically, as should the public booklet prepared as an adjunct to the current historical context.

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