

Brief Histories of
U.S. Government Agencies
Volume One

Compiled and Edited by

Michael Erbschloe

Connect with Michael on LinkedIn



©2017 Michael Erbschloe

Table of Contents

Section	Page Number
About the Editor	3
Introduction	4
U.S. Secret Service	6
U.S. Marshals Service	9
Department of Homeland Security	17
The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI)	20
U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement or ICE	30
Military History and Museums	31
Department of Veterans Affairs (VA)	34
U.S. Bureau of the Census	38
Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services	41
Social Security Administration	50
Food and Drug Administration	62
The National Park Service	68
The White House History	73
Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)	75
United States Agency for International Development (USAID)	81
United States Department of Energy	85
Library of Congress	110

About the Editor

Michael Erbschloe has worked for over 30 years performing analysis of the economics of information technology, public policy relating to technology, and utilizing technology in reengineering organization processes. He has authored several books on social and management issues of information technology that were published by McGraw Hill and other major publishers. He has also taught at several universities and developed technology-related curriculum. His career has focused on several interrelated areas:

- Technology strategy, analysis, and forecasting
- Teaching and curriculum development
- Writing books and articles
- Publishing and editing
- Public policy analysis and program evaluation

Books by Michael Erbschloe

Social Media Warfare: Equal Weapons for All (Auerbach Publications)

Walling Out the Insiders: Controlling Access to Improve Organizational Security (Auerbach Publications)

Physical Security for IT (Elsevier Science)

Trojans, Worms, and Spyware (Butterworth-Heinemann)

Implementing Homeland Security in Enterprise IT (Digital Press)

Guide to Disaster Recovery (Course Technology)

Socially Responsible IT Management (Digital Press)

Information Warfare: How to Survive Cyber Attacks (McGraw Hill)

The Executive's Guide to Privacy Management (McGraw Hill)

Net Privacy: A Guide to Developing & Implementing an e-business Privacy Plan (McGraw Hill)

Introduction

This book provides a brief history of U.S. Government agencies.

[The Library of Congress](#) has compiled a [list of historical events](#) for each day of the year, titled "This Day in History". The website is updated daily and visitors can view the previous day's history as well as whatever documents, pictures, or outside information is available for each historical event.

The [American History](#) section of the Library of Congress is separated by time period or subject and offers an in-depth look into the history of the United States.

The history of the United States is vast and complex, but can be broken down into moments and time periods that divided, unified, and changed the United States into the country it is today:

1700-1799

- [The American Revolution](#) (sometimes referred to as the American War of Independence or the Revolutionary War) was a conflict which lasted from 1775-1783 and allowed the original thirteen colonies to remain independent from Great Britain.
- Beginning in Great Britain in the late 1790s, the [Industrial Revolution](#) eventually made its way to the United States and changed the focus of our economy and the way we manufacture products.

1800-1899

- In 1803, President Thomas Jefferson agreed to the [Louisiana Purchase](#), successfully adding 530,000,000 acres of land to the United States. The area was purchased from France for \$15 million. The following year, President Jefferson assigned Meriwether Lewis (who asked for help from William Clark) to head west and [explore the newly purchased land](#). It took about a year and a half for the duo to reach the west coast.
- [The American Civil War](#) divided the United States in two – the Northern States versus the Southern States. This four year battle (1861-1865) kept the United States together as one whole nation and ended slavery.

1900-1999

- On December 17, 1903 brothers [Wilbur and Orville Wright](#) became the first people to maintain a controlled flight in a powered, heavier-than-air machine. The Wright Flyer only flew for 12 seconds for a distance of 120 feet, but their technology would change the modern world forever.
- On April 6, 1917 the United States entered [World War I](#) by declaring war on Germany.

- After nearly 100 years of protests, demonstrations, and sit-ins, women of the United States were officially [granted the right to vote](#) after the 19th Amendment was ratified on August 26, 1920.
- The worst economic crisis to happen in the United States occurred when the stock market crashed in October 1929 resulting in the [Great Depression](#).
- [World War II](#) officially begins in September 1939 after Germany invades Poland. The United States didn't enter the war until after the Japanese attack on [Pearl Harbor](#) on December 7, 1941.
- On August 6 and August 9 1945, the United States dropped an atomic bomb on the Japanese cities of [Hiroshima and Nagasaki](#), effectively ending World War II.
- After World War II, an agreement was reached to divide Korea into two parts: a northern half to be controlled by the Soviet Union and a southern half to be controlled by the United States. The division was originally meant as a temporary solution, but the Soviet Union managed to block elections that were held to elect someone to unify the country. Instead, the Soviet Union sent North Korean troops across the 38th parallel leading to the three-year long (1950-1953) [Korean War](#).
- From 1954-1968, the [African-American Civil Rights movement](#) took place, especially in the Southern states. Fighting to put an end to racial segregation and discrimination, the movement resulted in the 1964 [Civil Rights Act](#), the 1965 [Voting Rights Act](#), and the 1968 [Fair Housing Act](#).
- The [Vietnam War](#) was a nearly 20 year battle (November 1, 1955 - April 30 1975) between North Vietnam and South Vietnam. North Vietnam won the war and Vietnam became one unified country.
- The [Apollo 11](#) mission (July 16 – 24 1969) allowed United States astronauts Neil Armstrong and Edwin “Buzz” Aldrin to become the first humans to step on the moon's surface.

2000-Present

- The terrorist attacks on [September 11, 2001](#) changed the United States forever. Less than a month later (October 7, 2001) the United States began the [War in Afghanistan](#), which is still happening today.
- On March 20, 2003, the United States [invaded and occupied Iraq](#). The war lasted for more than eight years before it was officially declared over on December 18, 2011. One of the major events to occur during this war was the [capture and eventual execution of long-time Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein](#).
- [Barack Obama](#) is elected President of the United States on November 4, 2008, making him the first African-American to hold that position. His inauguration was held on January 20, 2009.
- [Operation Neptune Spear](#) is carried out on May 2, 2011 resulting in the death of long-time al-Qaeda leader Osama bin Laden.
- On November 6, 2012 [President Obama](#) is re-elected President after defeating Mitt Romney.

(Link: <https://www.usa.gov/history#item-211555>)

U.S. Secret Service

The U.S. Secret Service has grown from a small bureau staffed by a few operatives in 1865, to a law enforcement organization of nearly 7,000 employees worldwide. Today, the U.S. Secret Service fights crime on a global scale through its field offices located in the United States, Canada, Mexico, South America, Europe, Africa and Asia. The agency works closely with local, state and federal law enforcement organizations. These entities are valued partners of the Secret Service, and they are integral to the agency's investigative and protective endeavors.

The United States Secret Service is one of the oldest federal law enforcement agencies in the country and ranks among the most elite in the world. With its origin dating back to the end of the American Civil War, the Secret Service was originally founded to combat the then-widespread counterfeiting of U.S. currency. In 1901, the agency was asked to begin its protective mission after the assassination of President William McKinley – the third sitting U.S. President to be assassinated. Today, the Secret Service proudly continues to protect both national leaders and visiting foreign dignitaries while helping to secure the nation's financial infrastructure through financial and cybercrime investigations.

The image of the presidential motorcade is one of the most commonly recognizable symbols of Secret Service protection. But sleek, black limousines with darkened windows and advance security elements were not always features of the presidential limousine.

Horse and Carriages - 1906

The Secret Service initially used horses and carriages, but these were gradually phased out with when the automobile became the preferred mode of transportation in the early 20th century. The Secret Service initially used horses and carriages, but these were gradually phased out with when the automobile became the preferred mode of transportation in the early 20th century.

1936 Packard Touring Limo - 1936

1936 Packard Touring Limo - A 1936 Packard Touring Limousine was used by President Franklin D. Roosevelt while visiting New York City on June 30, 1938.

Advent of the Armored Limo - 1941

With the United States' entry into World War II, the Secret Service increased its protective web around the President. In December 1941, Franklin Roosevelt became the first President to use an armored vehicle. Originally belonging to infamous gangster Al Capone, the car was seized by the Treasury Department in 1932 on an income-tax evasion charge. The car's armor actually was comprised of only bulletproof glass; the body of the car was still vulnerable. The vehicle was

used until limousines in the presidential fleet – such as the 1939 Lincoln “Sunshine Special”– were armor-plated in the early part of 1942.

Railroad Horse Car - 1944

Before utilizing today’s methods of transporting vehicles for protective visits by airplane, in the old days, the President's limousine and follow-up vehicles were driven across the country for use upon the President's arrival. Soon however, the agency realized that the distance needed to transport each vehicle produced wear and tear on the vehicles as well as driver fatigue, so the search for alternative means of transportation kicked into full gear. Beginning in 1944, the Secret Service transported motorcade vehicles using a revamped railroad horse car that could hold four automobiles. It was fitted with portable ramps so that the vehicles could be loaded on and off the railroad car quickly. The railway car also was equipped with water tanks to wash the cars en route and held racks for extra tires and accessories for emergency maintenance. For overseas destinations, the vehicles were loaded aboard ships.

President Dwight Eisenhower - 1955

President Dwight Eisenhower rode in a 1955 Chrysler Crown Imperial during a visit to Gettysburg, Pennsylvania on November 14, 1955. Equipped with a sunroof, the limousine was powered by a 250 horsepower version of Chrysler's famed

President John F. Kennedy - 1963

President John F. Kennedy traveled in his 1961 Lincoln Continental Limousine during a visit to San Diego, California on June 6, 1963. The limousine included a series of removable steel and transparent plastic roof panels that could be installed in various combinations. It also contained a hydraulically operated seat, which could be raised 10 ½ inches to give the gathered crowds a better view of President Kennedy and his fellow passengers. After President Kennedy's assassination in 1963, the entire vehicle was armored and returned to the Secret Service in May 1964. The finished product weighed about one ton more than the original weight of 7,800 pounds.

Air Travel - 1965

In the 1960s, air travel began to provide the Secret Service a much more convenient and effective means of transportation. Official vehicles were able to be loaded aboard aircraft to destinations in advance of protective visits.

President Ronald Regan - 1981

The 1972 Lincoln Parade Limousine was used by President Ronald Regan on Inauguration day, January 20, 1981. In the aftermath of the assassination attempt on President Reagan on March 30, 1981, the vehicle was returned to the Ford Motor Company for refurbishing. It received a new interior and the exterior was updated to appear as a 1979 Lincoln.

President George W. Bush - 2005

On Inauguration Day 2005, President George W. Bush rode in a 2006 Cadillac DeVille Touring Sedan (DTS). The limousine actually was a refurbished 2005 model that gave the appearance of the 2006 Cadillac, available to the general public. The vehicle was wider, longer and taller than its predecessor.

President Barack Obama - 2009

President Barack Obama travels in a 2009 customized DTS Cadillac that was in production for two years prior to being unveiled on Inauguration Day. Slightly more upright than its predecessor, the vehicle features 19.5 inch wheels and enough room for five seated passengers. The interior is ornate, complete with a fold-out desk for the President. The limousine is designed to Secret Service specifications, which includes a heavy duty chassis, extended length and armored material, and offers the President secure communications with encrypted measures. At the time, the Assistant Director for the Office of Protective Operations noted,

The Secret Service continues to be responsible for procuring, driving, maintaining and securing the vehicles at all times. Each vehicle is outfitted with a variety of equipment to provide the protectees with a secure environment throughout the entire trip. As the agency has adapted its protective and investigative responsibilities to keep pace with evolving security needs, the Presidents' limousines too have changed over the years to reflect the tastes, needs and security considerations of each generation.

(Link: <https://www.secretservice.gov/about/history/>)

U.S. Marshals Service

The offices of U.S. Marshals and Deputy Marshal were created by the first Congress in the Judiciary Act of 1789, the same legislation that established the Federal judicial system. The Marshals were given extensive authority to support the federal courts within their judicial districts and to carry out all lawful orders issued by judges, Congress, or the president.

As a balance to this broad grant of authority, Congress imposed a time limit on the tenure of Marshals, the only office created by the Judiciary Act with an automatic expiration. Marshals were limited to four-year, renewable terms, serving at the pleasure of the president.

Until the mid-20th century, the Marshals hired their own Deputies, often firing the Deputies who had worked for the previous Marshal. Thus, the limitation on the Marshal's term of office frequently extended to the Deputies as well.

Their primary function was to support the federal courts. The Marshals and their Deputies served the subpoenas, summonses, writs, warrants and other process issued by the courts, made all the arrests and handled all the prisoners. They also disbursed the money. The Marshals paid the fees and expenses of the court clerks, U.S. Attorneys, jurors and witnesses. They rented the courtrooms and jail space and hired the bailiffs, criers, and janitors. In effect, they ensured that the courts functioned smoothly.

Inspired by the rich history of the Marshals Service, Donald V. Crowley created the painting "Justice" as a tribute to the U.S. Marshals Service's 200 anniversary in 1989. © 1989 The Greenwich Workshop, Inc., Trumbull, CT 06611

The Marshals took care of the details, thereby freeing the judges and attorneys to concentrate on the cases before them. They made sure the water pitchers were filled, the prisoners were present, the jurors were available and the witnesses were on time.

But this was only a part of what the Marshals did. When George Washington set up his first administration and the first Congress began passing laws, both quickly discovered an inconvenient gap in the Constitutional design of the government. It had no provision for a regional administrative structure stretching throughout the country. Both the Congress and the Executive were housed at the national capital.

No agency was established or designated to represent the federal government's interests at the local level. The need for a regional organization quickly became apparent. Congress and the President solved part of the problem by creating specialized agencies, such as customs and revenue collectors, to levy the tariffs and taxes. Yet, there were numerous other jobs that needed to be done. The only officers available to do them were the U.S. Marshals and their deputies.

Thus, the Marshals also provided local representation for the Federal government within their districts. They took the national census every 10 years through 1870. They distributed presidential proclamations, collected a variety of statistical information on commerce and manufacturing, supplied the names of government employees for the national register and performed other routine tasks needed for the central government to function effectively.

Over the past 200 years, Congress and the president also called on the Marshals to carry out unusual or extraordinary missions such as; registering enemy aliens in time of war, capturing

fugitive slaves, sealing the American border against armed expeditions aimed at foreign countries and swapping spies with the Soviet Union.

(Link: https://www.usmarshals.gov/history/broad_range.htm)

In the 1980's the U.S. Marshals Service inaugurated the use Fugitive Investigative Strike Teams, referred as FIST operations, to capture violent fugitives that were wanted by Federal and local law enforcement agencies.

The goal of a FIST operation was to locate and arrest a large number of fugitives in a particular region, within a relatively brief period, by focusing the resources of local, state, and Federal law enforcement agencies. Non-federal officers were specially deputized by the Marshals Service enabling them to cross city, county, and state boundaries with full arrest powers.

When the Attorney General transferred responsibility for the investigation of certain Federal fugitives from the Federal Bureau of Investigation to the Marshals Service in October 1979, fugitive operations began to come alive throughout the Service.

As a result, 105 Deputies were selected for advanced training as Enforcement Specialists dedicated to overseeing the investigation and apprehension of Federal fugitives within their respective Districts and nationwide.

Subsequently the Marshals Service developed the Fugitive Investigative Strike Team (FIST) concept. This method was designed to augment the resources of District fugitive squads experiencing an increased case load, and to focus efforts on areas where intelligence indicates the existence of a significant number of fugitives from justice.

FIST utilized a team of investigators which could be quickly mobilized to respond to any District in the country. Its objectives are to reduce the case backlog and apprehend as many fugitives as possible within the target District in the shortest possible time.

The effort focused on U.S. Marshals Service "Class 1" violators - escaped federal prisoners, bail jumpers, parole violators and probation violators.

Part of the unprecedented challenge and change which the Marshals Service encountered during the early 1980's was the ability to respond to the Administration's demand for a step up in law enforcement. A portion of the Service's response to this challenge was the development of the Fugitive Investigative Strike Team (FIST) concept.

The first FIST operation was designed as a pilot project to focus on fugitive felons. The objectives were to reduce case backlogs and to apprehend as many fugitives as possible within the largest District in the shortest possible time, yet remain cost effective. On October 6, 1981, FIST I began in the Southern District of Florida (Miami). The large volume of drug trafficking

and violence-related crimes concentrated in that area indicated that Miami was the city most urgently in need of FIST.

After five weeks the operation concluded with the arrest of 76 fugitive felons. An analysis showed that 55 percent of the fugitives arrested had a criminal history involving narcotics. Prior arrests of these 76 fugitives totaled 491 criminal incidents, or an average of six previous crimes per arrestee.

The success of FIST I prompted the Department of Justice and the Marshals Service to continue this type of operation in another location. FIST II was conducted in Los Angeles, California from early December 1981 to early February 1982. This nine-week investigative effort resulted in the arrest of 102 fugitive felons and included the clearing of 35 state and local fugitive cases in the Los Angeles area.

Marshals Service analysis showed 28 percent of the arrestees had previously been involved in narcotics trafficking. The other arrestees had criminal records for other offenses which included homicide, bank robbery, kidnapping, assault, armed robbery, alien smuggling and counterfeiting. The combined history of these arrestees totaled 865 prior felony arrests. At the conclusion of FIST II, the Marshals Service examined the feasibility of a FIST operation involving state and local law enforcement authorities. Many fugitives sought by the Marshals Service are also sought by state and local authorities for other crimes. The success of FIST I and II was due, in a large part, to the cooperation and involvement of state and local law enforcement officers.

The operation of FIST III was conducted in the multi-judicial District New York City metropolitan area, starting April 13, 1982 and continuing for ten weeks. FIST III incorporated the active participation of the New York City Police Department.

Using an abandoned warehouse on the East River as its headquarters, Marshals and NYPD investigators arrested 303 fugitive felons. Prior offenses of these arrestees totaled over 3,000.

FIST IV focused on fugitives in the Washington, D.C. area. The operation, which was conducted jointly by the United States Marshals Service and the District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department between September 7 through November 18, 1982.

This FIST operation was also composed of 29 representatives of the Special Operations Division of the Maryland Police and an equal number of Marshals Service investigators from around the nation. FIST IV concluded with a total of 614 actual arrests and 772 warrants cleared.

The participation of state and local governments was expanded for FIST V in mid 1983 during a ten-week operation throughout Michigan. During this FIST, combined teams of federal, state and local investigators cleared 1,156 felony warrants, 928 by actual physical arrest.

FIST VI culminated a unique effort which concentrated on arresting fugitives throughout the State of California. The conclusion of the ten-week operation, which resulted in 2,116 arrests.

Of those arrested 79 percent had been involved in crimes of violence or drug offenses and a total of 2,689 cases were closed as a result of the arrests. The operation utilized the resources of more than 20 California state and local law enforcement agencies which made up half of the 120-member FIST VI group.

The conclusion of FIST VII was announced by the Attorney General on November 20, 1984 before national and international media representatives in a press conference at the Plaza Hotel in New York City. He termed FIST VII "the largest and most successful fugitive manhunt in law enforcement history." The operation was conducted throughout eight eastern states over an eight-week period and resulted in the arrest of 3,309 fugitive felons. The operation was a result of the combined efforts of 49 state and local law enforcement agencies under the coordination of the U.S. Marshals Service.

The FIST VII task force was made up of 13 Marshals Service personnel, five agents from the Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco and Firearms, and 107 state and local law enforcement officers from Connecticut, Delaware, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania and Rhode Island. The apprehended fugitives had a composite criminal history of 12,440 felonies, with a per fugitive average of nearly four known prior arrests and convictions.

Commenting on the conclusion of the record-breaking FIST VII operation, Former Marshals Service Director Stanley E. Morris said, "Fugitives are a major contribution to the high crime rate in this country, as they typically commit additional crimes in order to remain fugitives from justice. Many state and local law enforcement agencies are unable to actively seek fugitives simply due to a lack of resources.

During this FIST operation, 95 percent were arrested on state or local warrants. Through FIST operations we are bringing about an awareness of this serious problem. By combining federal, state and local law enforcement officers, a FIST team can free manpower to concentrate exclusively on the apprehension and arrest of fugitives."

As in previous operations, FIST VII utilized "scams" to apprehend a number of fugitives. These included a package-delivery scam under the identification of the "Brooklyn Bridge Delivery Service," job offers from "Prior Offenders Employment Opportunities," and one in which younger fugitives were attracted by a "Prize Offer" of free tickets to a rock concert, complete with dinner for two and the use of a limousine for the evening.

The continued overwhelming success and highly professional execution of the first seven FIST operations was obvious not only from the more than 7,000 fugitives arrested, but also from the continued record of no subjects or law enforcement officers being seriously injured or killed in any of the operations. William French Smith, former Attorney General, praised the efforts of all involved in the FIST VII operation when he stated, "This successful operation demonstrates our unwillingness to allow fugitives from justice to remain outside the system where they may, and

do, prey upon innocent Americans. Fugitives must be arrested and returned to the point in the system from which they fled. Then, and only then, can justice be done."

The United States Marshals Service, 38 Florida law enforcement agencies and 12 foreign countries captured 3,816 fugitives in the eighth FIST operation in the spring of 1985.

Law enforcement personnel based in Miami, with teams set up in Pompano Beach, Tampa, Tallahassee, Orlando, and Jacksonville, nabbed 48 accused or convicted murderers, 20 kidnappers, 61 rapists, 167 robbers and 593 major narcotics traffickers. Forty-eight weapons were seized, including handguns, shotguns, rifles and machine guns.

The Caribbean command site was located in St. Thomas, U.S. Virgin Islands, with Marshals Service personnel operating in Antigua, Anguilla, Barbados, Belize, British Virgin Islands, Curacao, Aruba, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, Martinique, and Puerto Rico.

Another element of FIST VIII that differed from past operations was the inclusion of the Services' Special Operations Group (SOG) as an operational element at the Miami site.

FIST IX included 31 state and local law enforcement agencies from Arizona, California, New Mexico, and Texas, along with the former Immigration and Naturalization Service and the former U.S. Border Patrol, and the Mexican Federal Judicial Police. The FIST teams, comprised of Deputy U.S. Marshals and officers of the other agencies, operated out of eight U.S. cities and five in Mexico.

During eight weeks of operation and following months of preparation and planning, the FIST 9 teams conducted fugitive investigations from operational sites in Phoenix and Tucson, Arizona; San Diego, California, Albuquerque, New Mexico; El Paso, San Antonio, McAllen and Houston, Texas; and the Mexican cities of Tijuana, Nogales, Juarez, Matamoras, and Mexico City.

Nine FIST operations were conducted between 1981-1986 and were responsible for more than 14,700 arrests. The fugitives' criminal records included murder, robbery, kidnapping, drug trafficking and counterfeiting, among others.

(Link: <https://www.usmarshals.gov/history/fist/index.html>)

Time Line of History

2016

The U.S. Marshals Service is the nation's oldest and most versatile federal law enforcement agency. Federal marshals have served the country since 1789, often in unseen but critical ways. The Marshals Service occupies a uniquely central position in the federal justice system. It is the enforcement arm of the federal courts, involved in virtually every federal law enforcement initiative. Presidentially appointed U.S. marshals direct the activities of 94 districts — one for each federal judicial district.

- Approximately 3,752 deputy U.S. marshals and criminal investigators form the backbone of the agency.
- The duties of the U.S. Marshals Service include protecting the federal judiciary, apprehending federal fugitives, managing and selling seized assets acquired by criminals through illegal activities, housing and transporting federal prisoners and operating the Witness Security Program.
- The agency's headquarters is just across the Potomac River from Washington, D.C.

Judicial Security

Since 1789, the U.S. Marshals Service has been the enforcement arm of the federal courts and has been responsible for protecting the federal judicial process. The agency ensures the safe and secure conduct of judicial proceedings at approximately 440 locations in 94 federal court districts and provides protection for federal judges, other court officials, jurors, the visiting public and prisoners.

The Threat Management Center provides a national 24/7 response capability to review and respond to threats against the judiciary. The Marshals also manage contracted security services inside federal court facilities, which are funded by the judicial branch's court security appropriation. The agency oversees the daily operation and management of security services performed by approximately 5,000 court security officers within the 94 U.S. District Courts and 12 circuits of the U.S. Court of Appeals.

Fugitive Operations

The U.S. Marshals Service is the federal government's primary agency for fugitive investigations. The Marshals have the broadest arrest authority among federal law enforcement agencies. The Marshals provide assistance to state and local agencies in locating and apprehending their most violent fugitives.

The Service arrests 273 fugitives *every day* on average.

U.S. Marshals task forces combine the efforts of federal, state and local law enforcement agencies to locate and arrest the most dangerous fugitives. Task force officers are state and local police officers that receive special deputations with the Marshals. While on a task force, these officers can exercise U.S. Marshals authorities, such as crossing jurisdictional lines.

U.S. Marshals work with the international law enforcement community to apprehend fugitives abroad as well as to seek foreign fugitives living or residing in the United States. The U.S. Marshals "15 Most Wanted" fugitive program draws attention to some of the country's most dangerous and high-profile fugitives. These fugitives tend to be career criminals with histories of violence, and they pose a significant threat to public safety.

Asset Forfeiture

The Department of Justice Asset Forfeiture Program is a key component of the federal government's law enforcement efforts to combat major criminal activity by disrupting and

dismantling illegal enterprises, depriving criminals of the proceeds of illegal activity, deterring crime and restoring property to victims.

The U.S. Marshals Service plays a critical role in identifying and evaluating assets that represent the proceeds of crime as well as efficiently managing and selling assets seized and forfeited by DOJ. The Marshals Service manages a wide array of assets, including real estate, commercial businesses, cash, financial instruments, vehicles, jewelry, art, antiques, collectibles, vessels and aircraft. Proceeds generated from asset sales are used to operate the program, compensate victims and support various law enforcement efforts.

Prisoner Operations

The U.S. Marshals Service is responsible for the custody of federal prisoners beginning at the time of remand and ending when prisoners are acquitted, arrive at a designated Federal Bureau of Prisons facility to serve a sentence or are otherwise ordered released from Marshals custody.

The Marshals Service ensures the safe, humane care of federal prisoners in its custody. The agency provides housing, medical care and transportation for federal prisoners throughout the U.S. and its territories and brings prisoners to their court-ordered appearances.

All individuals arrested on federal offenses are brought before a U.S. magistrate or U.S. district court judge for their initial court appearances. The court determines if they are to be released on bond or remanded into the custody of the Marshals Service to await trial.

The Marshals Service does not own or operate detention facilities but partners with state and local governments through intergovernmental agreements to house approximately 60 percent of our prisoners. In addition, the agency contracts with private facilities and the Federal Bureau of Prisons for prisoner housing, with both sources housing approximately 20 percent each of Marshals prisoners.

Prisoner Transportation

The U.S. Marshals' Justice Prisoner and Alien Transportation System transport prisoners between judicial districts and correctional institutions in the U.S.

- JPATS is one of the largest transporters of prisoners in the world — handling 716 movements per day on average.
- JPATS transports prisoners in federal custody between federal judicial districts to hearings, court appearances and detention facilities.
- JPATS operates a fleet of aircraft to move prisoners over long distances more economically and with higher security than commercial airlines.
- JPATS is the only government-operated, regularly-scheduled passenger airline in the nation.

Witness Security

The U.S. Marshals Service operates the federal Witness Security Program, sometimes referred to as the "Witness Protection Program." The Witness Security Program provides for the security,

safety and health of government witnesses and their authorized family members, whose lives are in danger as a result of their cooperation with the U.S. government.

Witnesses and their families typically get new identities with documentation.

The Witness Security Program has successfully protected an estimated 18,600 participants from intimidation and retribution since the program began in 1971.

(Link: <https://www.usmarshals.gov/duties/factsheets/overview.pdf>)

Department of Homeland Security

The Department of Homeland Security combined 22 different federal departments and agencies into a unified, integrated cabinet agency when it was established in 2002.

Eleven days after the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks, Pennsylvania Governor Tom Ridge was appointed as the first Director of the Office of Homeland Security in the White House. The office oversaw and coordinated a comprehensive national strategy to safeguard the country against terrorism and respond to any future attacks.

With the passage of the Homeland Security Act by Congress in November 2002, the Department of Homeland Security formally came into being as a stand-alone, Cabinet-level department to further coordinate and unify national homeland security efforts, opening its doors on March 1, 2003.

The President proposes to create a new Department of Homeland Security, the most significant transformation of the U.S. government in over half-century by largely transforming and realigning the current confusing patchwork of government activities into a single department whose primary mission is to protect our homeland. The creation of a Department of Homeland Security is one more key step in the President's national strategy for homeland security.

Lead up to 9/11	Today
The U.S. Customs Service (Treasury)	U.S. Customs and Border Protection - inspection, border and ports of entry responsibilities U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement - customs law enforcement responsibilities
The Immigration and Naturalization Service (Justice)	U.S. Customs and Border Protection - inspection functions and the U.S. Border Patrol U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement - immigration law enforcement: detention and removal, intelligence, and investigations U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services - adjudications and benefits programs
The Federal Protective Service	U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement until 2009); currently resides within the National Protection and Programs Directorate
The Transportation Security Administration (Transportation)	Transportation Security Administration

Lead up to 9/11	Today
Federal Law Enforcement Training Center (Treasury)	Federal Law Enforcement Training Center
Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service (part)(Agriculture)	U.S. Customs and Border Protection - agricultural imports and entry inspections
Office for Domestic Preparedness (Justice)	Responsibilities distributed within FEMA
The Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA)	Federal Emergency Management Agency
Strategic National Stockpile and the National Disaster Medical System (HHS)	Returned to Health and Human Services, July, 2004
Nuclear Incident Response Team (Energy)	Responsibilities distributed within FEMA
Domestic Emergency Support Teams (Justice)	Responsibilities distributed within FEMA
National Domestic Preparedness Office (FBI)	Responsibilities distributed within FEMA
CBRN Countermeasures Programs (Energy)	Science & Technology Directorate
Environmental Measurements Laboratory (Energy)	Science & Technology Directorate
National BW Defense Analysis Center (Defense)	Science & Technology Directorate
Plum Island Animal Disease Center (Agriculture)	Science & Technology Directorate
Federal Computer Incident Response Center (GSA)	US-CERT , Office of Cybersecurity and Communications in the National Protection and Programs Directorate
National Communications System (Defense)	Office of Cybersecurity and Communications in the National Protection and Programs Directorate
National Infrastructure Protection Center (FBI)	Dispersed throughout the Department, including Office of Operations Coordination and Office of Infrastructure Protection
Energy Security and Assurance Program	Integrated into the Office of Infrastructure Protection

Lead up to 9/11	Today
(Energy)	
U.S. Coast Guard	U.S. Coast Guard
U.S. Secret Service	U.S. Secret Service

The following three directorates, created by the Homeland Security Act of 2002 were abolished by a [July 2005 reorganization](#) and their responsibilities transferred to other departmental components:

- Border and Transportation Security
- Emergency Preparedness and Response
- Information Analysis and Infrastructure Protection

(Link: <https://www.dhs.gov/creation-department-home-land-security>)

The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI)

By 1908, the time was right for a new kind of agency to protect America. The United States was, well, united, with its borders stretching from coast to coast and only two landlocked states left to officially join the union. Inventions like the telephone, the telegraph, and the railroad had seemed to shrink its vast distances even as the country had spread west. After years of industrializing, America was wealthier than ever, too, and a new world power on the block, thanks to its naval victory over Spain. But there were dark clouds on the horizon.

The country's cities had grown enormously by 1908—there were more than 100 with populations over 50,000—and understandably, crime had grown right along with them. In these big cities, with their many overcrowded tenements filled with the poor and disillusioned and with all the ethnic tensions of an increasingly immigrant nation stirred in for good measure, tempers often flared. Clashes between striking workers and their factory bosses were turning increasingly violent.

And though no one knew it at the time, America's cities and towns were also fast becoming breeding grounds for a future generation of professional lawbreakers. In Brooklyn, a nine-year-old Al Capone would soon start his life of crime. In Indianapolis, a five-year-old John Dillinger was growing up on his family farm. And in Chicago, a young child christened Lester Joseph Gillis—later to morph into the vicious killer “Baby Face” Nelson—would greet the world by year's end.

But violence was just the tip of the criminal iceberg. Corruption was rampant nationwide—especially in local politics, with crooked political machines like Tammany Hall in full flower. Big business had its share of sleaze, too, from the shoddy, even criminal, conditions in meat packaging plants and factories (as muckrakers like Upton Sinclair had so artfully exposed) to the illegal monopolies threatening to control entire industries.

The technological revolution was contributing to crime as well. 1908 was the year that Henry Ford's Model T first began rolling off assembly lines in Motor City, making automobiles affordable to the masses and attractive commodities for thugs and hoodlums, who would soon begin buying or stealing them to elude authorities and move about the country on violent crime sprees. Twenty-two years later, on a dusty Texas back road, Bonnie and Clyde—“Romeo and Juliet in a Getaway Car,” as one journalist put it—would meet their end in a bullet-ridden Ford.

Just around the corner, too, was the world's first major global war—compelling America to protect its homeland from both domestic subversion and international espionage and sabotage. America's approach to national security, once the province of cannons and warships, would never be the same again.

Despite it all, in the year 1908 there was hardly any systematic way of enforcing the law across this now broad landscape of America. Local communities and even some states had their own police forces, but at that time they were typically poorly trained, politically appointed, and underpaid. And nationally, there were few federal criminal laws and likewise only a few thinly staffed federal agencies like the Secret Service in place to tackle national crime and security issues. (Link: <https://www.fbi.gov/history/brief-history/the-nation-calls>)

The “war to end all wars” was over, but a new one was just beginning—on the streets of America. It wasn't much of a fight, really—at least at the start. On the one side was a rising tide

of professional criminals, made richer and bolder by Prohibition, which had turned the nation “dry” in 1920. In one big city alone— Chicago—an estimated 1,300 gangs had spread like a deadly virus by the mid-1920s. There was no easy cure. With wallets bursting from bootlegging profits, gangs outfitted themselves with “Tommy” guns and operated with impunity by paying off politicians and police alike. Rival gangs led by the powerful Al “Scarface” Capone and the hot-headed George “Bugs” Moran turned the city streets into a virtual war zone with their gangland clashes. By 1926, more than 12,000 murders were taking place every year across America.

On the other side was law enforcement, which was outgunned (literally) and ill-prepared at this point in history to take on the surging national crime wave. Dealing with the bootlegging and speakeasies was challenging enough, but the “Roaring Twenties” also saw bank robbery, kidnapping, auto theft, gambling, and drug trafficking become increasingly common crimes. More often than not, local police forces were hobbled by the lack of modern tools and training. And their jurisdictions stopped abruptly at their borders.

In the young Bureau of Investigation, things were not much better. In the early twenties, the agency was no model of efficiency. It had a growing reputation for politicized investigations. In 1923, in the midst of the Teapot Dome scandal that rocked the Harding Administration, the nation learned that Department of Justice officials had sent Bureau agents to spy on members of Congress who had opposed its policies. Not long after the news of these secret activities broke, President Calvin Coolidge fired Harding’s Attorney General Harry Daugherty, naming Harlan Fiske Stone as his successor in 1924.

A good housecleaning was in order for the Bureau, and it came at the hands of a young lawyer by the name of J. Edgar Hoover. Hoover had joined the Department of Justice in 1917 and had quickly risen through its ranks. In 1921, he was named Assistant Director of the Bureau. Three years later, Stone named him Director. Hoover would go on to serve for nearly another half century.

At the outset, the 29-year-old Hoover was determined to reform the Bureau, quickly and thoroughly, to make it a model of professionalism. He did so by weeding out the “political hacks” and incompetents, laying down a strict code of conduct for agents, and instituting regular inspections of Headquarters and field operations. He insisted on rigorous hiring criteria, including background checks, interviews, and physical tests for all special agent applicants, and in January 1928, he launched the first formal training for incoming agents, a two-month course of instruction and practical exercises in Washington, D.C. Under Hoover’s direction, new agents were also required to be 25 to 35 years old, preferably with experience in law or accounting.

When Hoover took over in 1924, the Bureau had about 650 employees, including 441 special agents. In five years, with the rash of firings it had just 339 special agents and less than 600 total employees. But it was beginning to become the organized, professional, and effective force that Hoover envisioned.

One important step in that direction came during Hoover’s first year at the helm, when the Bureau was given the responsibility of consolidating the nation’s two major collections of fingerprint files. In the summer of 1924, Hoover quickly created an Identification Division (informally called “Ident” in the organization for many years to come) to gather prints from police agencies nationwide and to search them upon request for matches to criminals and crime evidence.

It was a vital new tool for all of law enforcement—the first major building block in Hoover’s growing quest to bring the discipline of science to Bureau investigations and scientific services to law enforcement nationwide. Combined with its identification orders, or IOs—early wanted posters that included fingerprints and all manner of details about criminal suspects on the run—the Bureau was fast becoming a national hub for crime records. In the late 1920s, the Bureau began exchanging fingerprints with Canada and added more friendly foreign governments in 1932; the following year, it created a corresponding civil fingerprint file for non-criminal cases. By 1936, the agency had a total reservoir of 100,000 fingerprint cards; by 1946, that number had swelled to 100 million.

From the 1920s on, Director Hoover had been actively interested in scientific analysis, and by 1930 he had authorized the use of outside experts on a case-by-case basis in identification and evidence examination matters. Then, over a two-year period, the first true “technical” laboratory functions began to take shape. When all these functions moved into Room 802 of the Old Southern Railway Building in Washington, D.C., it seemed appropriate to recognize that a true lab had been born.

It was Special Agent Charles Appel (pictured) who was its midwife. He had served as an aviator in World War I before joining the Bureau in 1924—and right from the start he focused on meticulous investigations based on scientific detection.

Appel was an extraordinary man with extraordinary vision, fully backed by Director Hoover with the necessary resources. He took courses to further his knowledge of state-of-the-art techniques, and by 1931, he began seeking expert opinion on starting a crime lab. In July 1932, when he proposed “a separate division for the handling of so-called crime prevention work” under which “the criminological research laboratory could be placed,” he got an immediate endorsement. By September, Room 802 in the Old Southern Railway building was fully equipped. By November 24, it was in business.

The new lab was pretty sophisticated by 1932 standards. It included a brand new ultra-violet light machine; a microscope, on loan from Bausch and Lomb until the requisition for its purchase could be finalized; moulage kits (for taking impressions); photographic supplies; and chemical sets. A machine to examine the interior of gun barrels was on order.

For about a year, Appel was the Bureau’s one-man lab. His handwriting and typewriter font analysis solved a poisoning case in 1933. His analysis of handwriting on the Lindbergh kidnapping ransom notes ultimately helped convict Bruno Richard Hauptmann.

Agents across the Bureau soon started receiving training on what this new lab could do for them and their cases, and they spread the word about the value of scientific work to their law enforcement partners. By January 1940, the lab had a total of 46 employees. As America headed into a second world war, its growing skills and capabilities would be needed more than ever.

(Link: <https://www.fbi.gov/history/brief-history/the-fbi-and-the-american-gangster>)

Heading into the late 1930s, fresh off a victory over the gun-slinging gangsters, the FBI hardly had time to catch its collective breath. The Bureau had reformed itself on the fly; it was stronger and more capable than ever. But now, with the world rushing headlong into war and the pendulum swinging back towards national security concerns, the FBI would need to refocus and retool its operations once again.

At the start of the decade, the public enemies were almost entirely homegrown—from “Scarface” to “Baby Face.” The next wave of villains would come primarily from afar, and they were in many respects bigger and badder still. They were hyper-aggressive fascist dictators, fanatical militarists, and revolution-exporting communists—along with their legions of spies, saboteurs, and subversive agents—who sought to invade, infiltrate, or even conquer entire swaths of territory, if not the world. They threatened not only the fate of peoples and nations, but the survival of democracy itself.

Across the Atlantic in Europe, 1939 was a dark turning point. Five years earlier, less than a month after a cornered Dillinger had reached for his gun the last time, a power-hungry Adolph Hitler had declared himself “Führer” and taken total control of Germany. Hitler wasted little time rearming the country. He meant to build an empire—the Third Reich—and within a few years he’d annexed Austria and the Sudetenland, a German-speaking region in Czechoslovakia. England and France, hoping to cut their losses through appeasement, acceded to the takeovers. But in 1939, Hitler seized the rest of the Czechoslovakia and invaded Poland. England and France had seen enough and declared war.

In the Far East, Japan was making military waves as well. It invaded China in 1937, seized its northern capital, began taking control of coastal areas and nearby islands dotting the Pacific, and even deliberately sank an American gunboat. It formally joined with Germany and Mussolini’s Italy to form the Axis powers in September 1940.

Cushioned by twin oceans, an isolationist America was staying out of the fray—for the time being. But, remembering how helpless it was against German sabotage in the years leading up to World War I, the nation wasn’t taking any chances at home. The lingering Great Depression provided fertile ground for fascism. Groups like the German American Bund and the Silver Shirts that embraced the Nazi vision were becoming more and more vocal. And Americans were increasingly becoming enamored of communism and its seductive promise of a classless state; the Communist Party of the United States and other like-minded organizations soon boasted more than a million members.

President Roosevelt was concerned—he suspected these groups were allying themselves to foreign political movements seeking to overturn democracy and were crossing the line into criminal activity. In 1934, he had first asked the FBI to determine if American Nazi groups were working with foreign agents. In 1936, the President and Secretary of State tasked the Bureau with gathering intelligence on the potential threats to national security posed by fascist and communist groups.

Meanwhile, Nazi espionage on U.S. soil had become a real threat. The intelligence arms of the Army and Navy had noticed increased activity by German and Japanese spies in the late 1930s and began working with the Bureau to disrupt it. Learning the counterintelligence ropes as it went along, the FBI was ultimately given the lead in these cases and uncovered some 50 spies operating in America before the nation entered the war, including a massive ring led by long-time German agent Fritz Duquesne.

As the new decade opened, the nation was drifting towards war and increasingly supporting the Allied cause. It clearly needed more and better intelligence to understand the threats posed by the Axis powers. The Bureau had been put in charge of domestic intelligence and had already built an extensive network of sources, with law enforcement around the country serving as an

important set of eyes and ears. It had also begun developing connections abroad with Canadian and British intelligence and law enforcement.

But who would handle overseas intelligence? There was no CIA in 1940—and its predecessor, the Office of Strategic Services, would not be launched until June 1942. Roosevelt decided to assign intelligence responsibilities for different parts of the globe to various agencies. The Bureau landed the area closest to home—the Western Hemisphere.

(Link: <https://www.fbi.gov/history/brief-history/world-war-cold-war>)

When nine black-robed Supreme Court judges sat down behind their mahogany bench on spring day in 1954 and declared that a separate system of schools for blacks and whites was not really equal after all, turning Jim Crow on its ear, the winds of change began to blow across America.

They'd blow harder still when a 42-year-old black woman named Rosa Parks, after a long day at work, refused to give up her bus seat to a white man on the first day of December in 1955, and when a young, then unknown Baptist preacher named Martin Luther King, Jr., took up her cause and led a successful bus boycott in Montgomery, Alabama.

“We shall overcome,” blacks and whites alike soon began singing, and what they hoped to overcome was the deep-seated prejudice and injustice that existed towards African-Americans in this country for far too long. Thomas Jefferson had penned the classic phrase, “All men are created equal,” nearly two centuries earlier, calling it a self-evident truth. But the question was, did we as a nation really mean it? Could we deliver justice for all? The civil rights movement aimed to find out.

Wrapped up in this struggle in the ensuing years would be the FBI. It had cut its investigative teeth on civil rights crimes; a dozen of the first 34 special agents were experts in “peonage”—the modern-day equivalent of slave labor. The Bureau had begun battling the KKK prior to the 1920s, and for years it had handled so-called “color of law” cases involving brutality or other civil rights crimes by state and local authorities.

In 1947, for instance, after a local sheriff and his deputy stood by and watched a mob dressed in Klan robes burn crosses and beat a handful of blacks in Georgia, the FBI's investigation led to the conviction of both officers. The federal grand jury singled out the work of the special agents in the case, resolving that “...by their great fidelity and singleness of purpose in developing the information in the Dade County, Georgia, conspiracy trial [they] have gone far beyond the line of duty to aid, assist and protect the citizens of the United States and to further the cause of equity and justice in America.”

Still, the FBI had its jurisdictional limits. Lynching in those days was not a federal crime, nor were bias-based attacks and most murders (to this day, hate crime is not a specific federal offense). States guarded their rights jealously, and local authorities often loudly complained if the FBI interfered in race-related crimes in their communities. Even when the Bureau did have jurisdiction in civil rights-related cases, that didn't guarantee the cooperation of witnesses. And in the Deep South especially, white-dominated juries all too often disregarded the facts and evidence Bureau agents and others put together, letting the guilty go scot-free in remarkable miscarriages of justice.

A good example of the FBI's limitations—and the prevailing state of justice below the Mason-Dixon line—came in August 1955, when a visiting black teenager from Chicago named Emmett Till reportedly whistled at a white woman in a Mississippi country store. Till was kidnapped, beaten beyond recognition, shot in the head, and thrown into the Tallahatchie River with a large fan tied to his neck. The woman's husband and his half-brother were accused of murder, but an all-white jury acquitted them both. The FBI was prevented from investigating by the Department of Justice, which ruled that no federal laws had been broken despite the horrific nature of the crime. In 2004, when times (and laws) were different, Bureau and Mississippi officials reopened the case, but with the main culprits long since dead and credible evidence against others hard to come by, no charges were filed.

As the 1950s turned into the early 1960s, the backlash against blacks by the Klan and like-minded racists became increasingly violent as the civil rights movement gained momentum. In 1961, angry white mobs repeatedly attacked busloads of "freedom riders" who traveled to the South to help integrate public facilities.

The next year, violence and riots erupted when James Meredith became the first black student to enroll at the University of Mississippi. In May 1963, Birmingham police commissioner "Bull" Connor—a known KKK member—unleashed police dogs and fire hoses on peaceful protestors. The following month, a leading black civil rights activist named Medgar Evers was shot dead in the driveway of his Mississippi home. Three months later, four young black girls were killed when a powerful bomb exploded in the basement of the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church in Birmingham. The FBI investigated the Evers murder and the Birmingham bombing, but it had no jurisdiction in the case of Connor's actions.

A turning point came in 1964 at the start of "Freedom Summer," a massive campaign to register blacks to vote in Mississippi. Three young civil rights activists—two white, one black—were brutally murdered by the KKK there, with the full cooperation of local law enforcement. The FBI quickly identified the culprits in a case that came to be called "Mississippi Burning," arresting 21 men in Mississippi by early December. Martin Luther King responded to the news by saying, "I must commend the Federal Bureau of Investigation for the work they have done in uncovering the perpetrators of this dastardly act. It renews again my faith in democracy."

He spoke a little too soon, as justice in the courtroom was a different matter. Most of the men went free or were convicted of lesser charges; it took until 2005 before Edgar Ray Killen, one of the chief conspirators, was convicted of manslaughter. Still, the outrage at the killings helped spur passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 less a month later and the Voting Rights Act of 1965 the following summer.

The 1964 law in particular—which banned segregation on a wide scale, including in schools, public places, government, and the workplace—made a number of civil rights violations federal crimes for the first time and gave the Bureau the federal lead in combating them. Today, protecting civil rights is one of the Bureau's top priorities, and, using its full suite of investigative and intelligence capabilities, it works closely with state and local authorities (in ways not possible decades ago) to prevent and address hate crime, human trafficking, police brutality, and other crimes that take away the freedoms of the American people.

A night guard at the Watergate Complex was making his rounds early one Saturday morning when he came across an exit door that had been taped open. He was immediately suspicious. It was June 17, 1972, and he'd just uncovered what would become the most famous burglary in

U.S. history. Five men were arrested by police a few minutes later for breaking into the Democratic National Committee Headquarters inside the Watergate. Police also found fake IDs, bugging equipment, and lookouts in the motel across the street.

Things snowballed from there. President Richard Nixon's reelection campaign had not only been caught committing an illegal political dirty trick, but the administration reacted by lying and covering up the crime and others. Two years later, President Nixon resigned rather than face certain impeachment.

From the moment that police realized the Watergate break-in was no ordinary burglary, the FBI was on the case. But the timing couldn't have been worse. It had been less than five weeks since J. Edgar Hoover—the only Director FBI employees had known—had died in his sleep. For years, criticism of the Bureau and Hoover had been building. There was dissatisfaction with Hoover's age, increasing political disagreement over the Bureau's tactics and techniques, and widespread unease over the chaos and violence of the late 1960s.

Now, the FBI was about to become involved in the most politically sensitive investigation in its history. During the Watergate scandal, the FBI faced political pressure from the White House and even from within its own walls—Acting Director L. Patrick Gray was accused of being too pliable to White House demands and resigned on April 27, 1973. And throughout, a high-ranking official—dubbed “Deep Throat” and ultimately identified in 2005 as FBI Deputy Director Mark Felt—was leaking investigative information to the press.

Still, FBI agents diligently investigated the crime and traced its hidden roots, working closely with the special prosecutor's office created by the Attorney General and with the Senate Select Committee on Presidential Campaign Activities. Nearly every Bureau field office was involved in the case. Agents prepared countless reports and conducted some 2,600 interviews requested by the special prosecutor. The FBI Laboratory and Identification Division also lent their services. In the end, the Bureau's contributions to unraveling the Watergate saga were invaluable.

In the midst of Watergate, the Bureau had gained new leadership. Clarence Kelley, a former FBI agent and Kansas City, Missouri, Chief of Police, took office on July 9, 1973. Kelley had the tough task of moving the FBI into the post-Hoover era. He did an admirable job of restoring public trust in the agency, frankly admitting that mistakes had been made and leading a number of far-reaching and necessary reforms. During the 1970s, more women began joining the ranks of the FBI, including (for the first time since the 1920s) as special agents.

In response to criticism of the Bureau's Cointelpro operation, for example, he reorganized FBI intelligence efforts. In February 1973, the General Investigations Division took over responsibility for investigating domestic terrorists and subversives, working under more strict guidelines and limiting its efforts to actual criminal violations. The Intelligence Division retained foreign counterintelligence responsibilities but was renamed the National Security Division

Kelley's most significant management innovation was shifting the FBI's longstanding investigative focus from “quantity” to “quality,” directing each field office to set priorities based on the most important threats in its territory and to concentrate their resources on those issues.

And what were those threats? During the 1970s, domestic terrorism and foreign intrigue remained key concerns, as the radical unrest of the 1960s had spilled into the next decade and the Cold War was still raging. The FBI had its hands full with homegrown terrorist groups like the Symbionese Liberation Army—which wanted to lead a violent revolution against the U.S.

government and kidnapped newspaper heiress Patty Hearst to help its cause—and the Weather Underground, which conducted a campaign of bombings that targeted everything from police stations to the Pentagon. And spy cases still abounded—from the “Falcon and the Snowman” investigation that uncovered two former altar boys from wealthy families selling secrets to the Soviets... to “Operation Lemon-Aid,” where the FBI used a double agent to unmask Soviet diplomats working as KGB spies.

All was calm aboard Pan Am Flight 103 as it cruised high above Scotland. At least for the moment. It was a touch past 7 o’clock in the evening on December 21, 1988—four days before Christmas Day. The massive Boeing 747 had left Heathrow Airport in London about 35 minutes earlier on its journey to New York City. On board were 259 passengers and crew, including 180 Americans who were headed home for the holidays.

Also on board, in the cargo hold near the front of the aircraft, was a suitcase full of plastic explosives. Suddenly, the bomb exploded with tremendous force. In a few horrifying seconds, the plane was ripped apart by the tornado-strength shock waves resulting from the blast and began plunging to earth. Not a single soul survived the attack.

Meanwhile, the southern coast of Scotland was about to become a massive crime scene. Metal hunks and fragments from the plane started raining down on the tiny town of Lockerbie and the surrounding countryside. The wing section and fuel tanks hit hardest; their high-speed impact—estimated at 500 miles an hour—wiped out a string of homes in Lockerbie, carving out a crater more than 150 feet long and creating a massive fireball that instantly incinerated 11 men, women, and children. Within minutes of the mid-air explosion, debris and human remains were scattered across some 845 square miles of Scotland.

The downing of Flight 103 was an attack of major proportions: aside from the 1983 truck bombing that killed 241 Marines in their barracks in Beirut, it took more American lives than any other terrorist strike up to that point in history. The death toll from the incident remains the third highest from terrorism in the nation’s history.

It was also a sign of things to come—a shocking prelude to a new age of international crime and terror. The investigation that followed was itself a harbinger—both massively complex and multinational in scope. The case was led by Scottish constables, British authorities, and the FBI, but it also involved police organizations in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland and intelligence agencies from many of these countries. Investigators turned up tiny bomb fragments that eventually pointed to a pair of Libyan intelligence operatives, who were indicted in the U.S. and Scotland and tried in the Netherlands. The chief U.S. prosecutor was none other than Robert Mueller, the future FBI director.

The FBI had been investigating international crime and working with global partners for years—including with the Canadians beginning in the late 1920s and the British starting in the late 1930s. The Bureau had set up its first international offices, or legal attachés, in the 1940s in Mexico City, London, Ottawa, Bogotá, Paris, and Panama City, followed by Rome and Tokyo in the 1950s. But the coming international crime wave would be of an entirely different magnitude.

It would be driven by two major forces. First, around the same time that Pan Am Flight 103 was exploding into a million pieces, a shadowy terrorist organization was secretly starting to come together in the Middle East. With their surprising victory over Soviet forces in Afghanistan in the late 1980s, tens of thousands of foreign mujahadeen who’d joined the struggle were brimming

with confidence, wanting to advance their Islamic cause in other parts of the world. One group that congealed during this time was called “al Qaeda, or “the Base.” Its leader—Usama bin Laden—was the son of a wealthy Saudi businessman and a successful merchant in his own right. After centering operations in Sudan in 1992, bin Laden began formulating plans to attack the West with an evolving, deadly new brand of jihad. The following year, Ramzi Yousef—a young extremist who’d trained in one of bin Laden’s camps—would lead the first major Middle Eastern terrorist attack on American soil by planting a truck bomb beneath the World Trade Center.

It was just the beginning. Bin Laden and his supporters would later move to Afghanistan, where an alliance with the Taliban government gave them a secluded safe haven for training recruits and planning attacks, more of which were just around the corner.

Second, the international landscape had begun changing in ways that didn’t seem possible just a few years earlier, and the resulting shifts would have a profound impact on the state of security worldwide.

One major development came in November 1989 when the Berlin Wall crumbled, electrifying the world and helping to speed the lifting of the Iron Curtain. By 1992, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—the U.S.S.R.—was officially history. With the end of the Cold War came a growing outbreak of freedom, not just in Central and Eastern Europe but across the globe. As the rigidity, repression, and control that characterized communism began giving way to the civil liberties and free markets of democracy, the world started opening up. It soon became possible to travel to more places, to trade with more countries, and to communicate more freely with more people. At the same time, technology was taking off, with more and more computers being connected into larger and larger networks until a “world wide web” was born. On the cusp of the 21st century, globalization had arrived in a powerful new way.

In 1993, the FBI had 21 offices in U.S. embassies worldwide; within eight years that number had doubled. During that time, legal attachés were opened in such strategic locations as Pakistan, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Turkey, South Korea, and Saudi Arabia. And in the years that followed, this trend continued: by May 2008, the FBI had more than 200 special agents and support staff in over 60 international offices.

During the 1990s—in case after case, from terrorist bombings to burgeoning cyber attacks—these legal attachés proved invaluable. For example, when al Qaeda operatives bombed U.S. Embassies in East Africa on August 7, 1998, killing hundreds of American, Kenyan, and Tanzanian citizens, FBI agents stationed in legal attachés in South Africa and Egypt were at the scene in a matter of hours. As a result, they were able to launch joint investigations with African authorities, to preserve the crime scenes, and to gather critical evidence as life-saving efforts were underway.

These attacks were soon directly linked to bin Laden, who was indicted and placed on the FBI’s Ten Most Wanted Fugitives list in June 1999. A number of top al Qaeda operatives were ultimately captured and imprisoned for their role in the bombings, and the attacks led to ramped up anti-terror efforts by the United States and by the FBI, which created its first Counterterrorism Division in 1999, consolidating its many anti-terrorism efforts and capabilities for the first time in 20 years. (Link: <https://www.fbi.gov/history/brief-history/a-world-of-trouble>)

American Airlines Flight 11 had just left Boston and was climbing to its final flying altitude in the clear blue skies over central Massachusetts when a handful of Middle Eastern terrorists

suddenly stormed the cockpit and took control of the aircraft. It was 8:14 in the morning on September 11, 2001.

By 9:37 a.m., Flight 11 and two more hijacked planes had slammed into the twin towers of the World Trade Center and the Pentagon. By 10:03, terrorists had dive-bombed a fourth plane into a rural field in Pennsylvania after its passengers and crew heroically rebelled. By 10:30, nearly 3,000 men, women, and children had been killed—many in the most horrific of ways, in fierce fireballs and falling towers.

In the world of crime, you'd call it first-degree murder: deliberate, premeditated, cold-blooded. The terrorist attacks that unfolded on the morning of 9/11—carried out by al Qaeda operatives under orders from Usama bin Laden—were that and much more. They were the largest mass murder in American history, a calculated slaughter of civilians, an overt act of aggression and war that took more lives and did more damage than the sneak attack at Pearl Harbor. For the FBI—and the nation—a new era of national security had begun.

That reality was certainly clear to Robert Mueller—the newly-minted director of the FBI. He'd walked in the door on September 4, 2001 with a mandate to reform and modernize the Bureau—particularly following debacles involving FBI agent-turned-Soviet mole Robert Hanssen, the botched Wen Ho Lee espionage investigation, and shoddy record-keeping in the Oklahoma City bombing case. But exactly one week later, his job description underwent a seismic shift.

On the morning of 9/11 and in the days that followed, Mueller focused the energies of the Bureau on the unfolding, around-the-clock investigation—soon to be the largest in its history, with a quarter of all FBI agents and personnel directly involved—and more importantly, into making sure that a second wave of terrorists wasn't waiting in the wings to strike the country again.

The FBI succeeded on both counts. Agents and analysts identified the 19 hijackers within days, learned everything they could about them and the 9/11 plot, and gathered definitive proof linking the attacks to al Qaeda—all while helping to harden security vulnerabilities and prevent any further attacks.

But the Director also knew that when the dust settled, the FBI would never be the same again. If 9/11 was a failure of imagination—as journalist Tom Friedman put it, referring to America's inability to conceive of such a horrific plot—Mueller and his top brass recognized that they would have to re-imagine the FBI for the 21st century. The Bureau's range of capabilities and its tactical response to the crime and crisis of the moment were still first rate, but the attacks showed that its strategic capabilities had to improve. The FBI needed to be more forward-leaning, more predictive, a step ahead of the next germinating threat. And most importantly, it needed to become adept at preventing terrorist attacks, not just investigating them after the fact.

The key to that new mandate, Director Mueller knew, was intelligence—the holy grail of national security work, the ability to collect and connect the dots, to know your enemies and the threats they pose inside and out, to arm everyone from leaders in the Oval Office to police officers on the street with information that enables them to stop terrorist and criminal plots before they are carried out.

(Link: <https://www.fbi.gov/history/brief-history/a-new-era-of-national-security>)

U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE)

In March 2003, the Homeland Security Act set into motion what would be the single-largest government reorganization since the creation of the Department of Defense. One of the agencies in the new Department of Homeland Security was the Bureau of Immigration and Customs Enforcement, now known as U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement or ICE. With more than 20,000 employees, a presence in all 50 states and 48 foreign countries, today, ICE is stronger than ever.

ICE was granted a unique combination of civil and criminal authorities to better protect national security and public safety in answer to the tragic events on 9/11. Leveraging those authorities, ICE has become a powerful and sophisticated federal law enforcement agency.

A little more than 10 years ago, U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) was established as DHS' largest investigative agency and one of three DHS agencies charged with administering the nation's immigration system. ICE was created based on the recognition that global threats have become more dangerous, and a new approach was needed to ensure the security of the U.S. homeland and the American people.

Over the years, ICE has achieved truly impressive results in protecting our nation's borders and enhancing public safety. Today, ICE is more than 20,000 strong with a presence in all 50 states and 48 foreign countries. ICE is galvanized toward its mission – to promote homeland security and public safety through the enforcement of federal laws governing border control, customs, trade and immigration.

Over the past decade, ICE has improved border security by increasing its presence on the southwest border and strengthening our relationships with our law enforcement partners. ICE has prioritized immigration enforcement by targeting, first and foremost, criminal aliens and those who pose a threat to the nation.

Most of today's crimes are transnational in nature. Through the Illicit Pathways Attack Strategy, we've adopted a more coordinated international approach to our investigations in various areas. This coordination allows us to focus on protecting our nation's children from sexual predators from around the globe through the criminal investigation and removal of sex offenders. Adopting a victim centered approach has led to the rescue of hundreds of children.

ICE's three directorates will continue to propel the agency to greater success. Homeland Security Investigations (HSI) will continue conducting criminal investigations against transnational criminal organizations who threaten national security. Enforcement and Removal Operations (ERO) will enforce the nation's immigration laws in a fair and effective manner. Management and Administration will continue to make the agency's mission possible by providing legal support and professional management, while helping to guide the dynamic growth and future of ICE. (Link: <https://www.ice.gov/history>)

Military History and Museums

Military History

The [United States Armed Forces](#) date back to 1775, when America needed a defense force to protect the original 13 colonies from a British invasion. Today, there are five branches:

- The [United States Army](#) is the oldest (established June 14, 1775) and largest of the five branches. Soldiers are responsible for performing land-based military operations.
- The [United States Marine Corps](#) is the smallest of the four branches under the Department of Defense. Marines provide both land and sea support to the Army, Navy, Air Force, and, in times of war, Coast Guard.
- The [United States Navy](#) mainly operates from the waters (seas and oceans) providing protection both in the water and in the air.
- The modern-day [United States Air Force](#) is the youngest of the five branches (established September 18, 1947). Before the modern-day Air Force was created, it was an arm of the U.S. Army, dating back to 1907. Airmen are responsible for carrying out aerial military operations.
- The [United States Coast Guard](#) is the smallest of the branches and the only one that falls under the Department of Homeland Security. The Coast Guard is multi-functional, with many peacetime missions. [Coast Guard missions](#) include: maritime search and rescue, maritime law enforcement, marine environmental protection and ports, waterways and coastal security.

Military Museums

Military museums offer visitors insight into the history, defining moments, and current status of the branches of the United States Armed Forces:

- The United States Army does not have an official museum but there are interactive exhibits [available online](#) as well as smaller, [more focused museums](#) located across the country.
 - There is a [plan in progress](#) to develop a national museum in the Washington, DC area.
- The [National Museum of the Marine Corps](#) is located next to the Marine Corps Base in Quantico, Virginia and features exhibits on the actions of Marines during World Wars I and II, the Korean War, and the Vietnam War.
- Located in downtown Washington, D.C., the [National Museum of the U.S. Navy](#) has exhibits on different navigational tools used by the Navy as well as artifacts captured by the Navy.
- The [National Museum of the U.S. Air Force](#) is located at Wright-Patterson Air Force Base in Ohio and features a collection of aircraft used throughout the history of the Air Force.
- The [United States Coast Guard Museum](#) is located on the campus of the Coast Guard Academy in New London, Connecticut, and features artifacts from the nearly 230-year history of the Coast Guard.

Military Memorials and Monuments

Across the United States, military memorials and monuments commemorate wars, battles, and those who lived and served during those times. Popular points of interest by each major war include:

American Revolution:

- [Valley Forge National Historical Park](#) is located in Pennsylvania and is a reminder of the sacrifices made by soldiers at one of the best-known locations from the American Revolution.
- [Adams National Historic Park](#) is located in Massachusetts and offers visitors a chance to see the birthplace of John Adams and John Quincy Adams.
- [Morristown National Historic Park](#) in New Jersey is a memorial to those members of George Washington's army who survived an unusually cold winter.

War of 1812:

- The [USS Constitution Museum](#), located in Massachusetts, provides interactive exhibits on life on the frigate as well as how the ship handled different battles.
- [Fort McHenry](#) in Baltimore, Maryland is the location associated with the writing of the [Star-Spangled Banner](#).

Civil War:

- The [African American Civil War Memorial & Museum](#) in Washington, D.C. has collections and exhibits to help visitors remember the African Americans who fought in the Civil War.
- The National Park Service has an [online Civil War database](#) which contains information on the men who fought in the Civil War.
- [Fredericksburg & Spotsylvania National Military Park](#) in Virginia reminds visitors of some of the Civil War's most devastating battles.
- [Gettysburg National Military Park](#) is located on the site of the Civil War's deadliest battle – and is often referred to as the turning point of the entire war.
- The [National Museum of Civil War Medicine](#) in Maryland has exhibits on those who volunteered to take care of the sick and wounded during the Civil War.

World War I:

- The [National World War I Museum & Memorial](#) in Kansas City, Missouri has various artifacts from the war – including uniforms, tanks and weapons, and illustrations, political cartoons and soldiers' drawings created during the Great War.

World War II:

- The [US Marine Corps War Memorial](#), also known as the Iwo Jima Memorial, is located in Virginia near [Arlington National Cemetery](#).
- The [World War II Valor in the Pacific National Monument](#), near Pearl Harbor in Honolulu, most notably includes the USS Arizona Memorial but does contain exhibits on all the events that occurred in the Pacific Theater during the war.
- The [National WW II Memorial](#) in Washington, D.C. is a tribute to those who served during the war – both in battle and at home.

Korean War:

- The [Korean War Veterans Memorial](#) includes 19 stainless steel statues depicting those who fought in the three-year war.

Vietnam War:

- In Washington D.C., the [Vietnam Veterans Memorial](#) has the names of the 58,000 Americans who died during the conflict etched into the walls of the monument.

Visit the [National Park Service](#) to search for more military memorials and monuments located throughout the United States.

National Cemeteries

There are [135 national cemeteries](#) maintained by the Department of Veterans Affairs across the United States. Typically, military personnel who died on active duty, veterans, and their spouses and dependents are [eligible to be buried](#) in a national cemetery. The [Department of Veterans Affairs](#) also has a [gravesite locator](#) if you need to find the burial location of a veteran.

The most famous national cemetery—[Arlington National Cemetery](#)—is maintained by the Army and has [different eligibility requirements](#) from those maintained by the VA.

(Link: <https://www.usa.gov/history#item-211555>)

Department of Veterans Affairs (VA)

The United States has the most comprehensive system of assistance for Veterans of any nation in the world, with roots that can be traced back to 1636, when the Pilgrims of Plymouth Colony were at war with the Pequot Indians. The Pilgrims passed a law that stated that disabled soldiers would be supported by the colony.

Later, the Continental Congress of 1776 encouraged enlistments during the Revolutionary War, providing pensions to disabled soldiers. In the early days of the Republic, individual states and communities provided direct medical and hospital care to Veterans. In 1811, the federal government authorized the first domiciliary and medical facility for Veterans. Also in the 19th century, the nation's Veterans assistance program was expanded to include benefits and pensions not only for Veterans, but for their widows and dependents.

Following the Civil War, many state Veterans homes were established. Since domiciliary care was available at all state Veterans homes, incidental medical and hospital treatment was provided for all injuries and diseases, whether or not of service origin. Indigent and disabled Veterans of the Civil War, Indian Wars, Spanish-American War, and Mexican Border period, as well as the discharged regular members of the Armed Forces, received care at these homes.

As the U.S. entered World War I in 1917, Congress established a new system of Veterans benefits, including programs for disability compensation, insurance for service personnel and Veterans, and vocational rehabilitation for the disabled. By the 1920s, three different federal agencies administered the various benefits: the Veterans Bureau, the Bureau of Pensions of the Interior Department, and the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers.

The first consolidation of federal Veterans programs took place August 9, 1921, when Congress combined all World War I Veterans programs to create the Veterans Bureau. Public Health Service Veterans' hospitals were transferred to the bureau, and an ambitious hospital construction program for World War I Veterans commenced.

World War I was the first fully mechanized war, and as a result, soldiers who were exposed to mustard gas, other chemicals and fumes required specialized care after the war. Tuberculosis and neuro-psychiatric hospitals opened to accommodate Veterans with respiratory or mental health problems. A majority of existing VA hospitals and medical centers began as National Home, Public Health Service, or Veterans Bureau hospitals. In 1924, Veterans benefits were liberalized to cover disabilities that were not service-related. In 1928, admission to the National Homes was extended to women, National Guard and militia Veterans.

The second consolidation of federal Veterans programs took place July 21, 1930, when President Herbert Hoover signed Executive Order 5398 and elevated the Veterans Bureau to a federal administration—creating the Veterans Administration—to "consolidate and coordinate Government activities affecting war veterans." At that time, the National Homes and Pension Bureau also joined the VA.

The three component agencies became bureaus within the Veterans Administration. Brig. Gen. Frank T. Hines, who had directed the Veterans Bureau for seven years, was named the first Administrator of Veterans Affairs, a job he held until 1945.

Dr. Charles Griffith, VA's second Medical Director, came from the Public Health Service and Veterans Bureau. Both he and Hines were the longest serving executives in VA's history.

Following World War II, there was a vast increase in the Veteran population, and Congress enacted large numbers of new benefits for war Veterans—the most significant of which was the World War II GI Bill, signed into law June 22, 1944. It is said the GI Bill had more impact on the American way of life than any law since the Homestead Act of 1862.

The GI Bill placed VA second to the War and Navy Departments in funding and personnel priorities. Modernizing the VA for a new generation of Veterans was crucial, and replacement of the "Old Guard" World War I leadership became a necessity.

Veterans Benefits Administration (VBA)

The VA Home Loan Guaranty Program is the only provision of the original GI Bill that is still in force. Between the end of World War II and 1966, one-fifth of all single-family residences built were financed by the GI Bill for either World War II or Korean War Veterans. From 1944 through December 1993, VA guaranteed 13.9 million home loans valued at more than \$433.1 billion.

Eligible loan guaranty users are now able to negotiate loan terms, including the interest rate, which helps VA loan participants to compete better in the housing market. The loan guaranty program no longer has a terminating date and can be used by any Veteran who served after Sept. 16, 1940, as well as men and women on active duty, surviving spouses and reservists.

To assist the Veteran between discharge and reemployment, the 1944 GI Bill also provided unemployment benefits of \$20 per week, for a maximum of 52 weeks. It was a lesser amount than the unemployment benefits available to non-veterans. This assistance avoided a repetition of the World War I demobilization, when unemployed Veterans were reduced to relying on charities for food and shelter.

Critics dubbed the benefit the "52-20 Club" and predicted most Veterans would avoid jobs for the 52 weeks that the checks were available. But only a portion of Veterans were paid the maximum amount available. Less than one-fifth of the potential benefits were claimed, and only one out of 19 Veterans exhausted the full 52 weeks of checks.

In 1945, General Omar Bradley took the reins at VA and steered its transformation into a modern organization. In 1946, Public Law 293 established the Department of Medicine and Surgery within VA, along with numerous other programs like the VA Voluntary Service. The law enabled VA to recruit and retain top medical personnel by modifying the civil service system. When Bradley left in 1948, there were 125 VA hospitals.

The VA was elevated to a cabinet-level executive department by President Ronald Reagan in October 1988. The change took effect March 15, 1989, and administrative changes occurred at all levels. President George H. W. Bush hailed the creation of the new Department, saying, "There is only one place for the Veterans of America, in the Cabinet Room, at the table with the President of the United States of America." The Veterans Administration was then renamed the Department of Veterans Affairs, and continued to be known as VA.

VA's Department of Medicine and Surgery, established in 1946, was re-designated as the Veterans Health Services and Research Administration at that time, though on May 7, 1991, the name was changed to the Veterans Health Administration (VHA).

Veterans Health Administration (VHA)

VHA evolved from the first federal soldiers' facility established for Civil War Veterans of the Union Army. On March 3, 1865—a month before the Civil War ended and the day before his second inauguration—President Abraham Lincoln signed a law to establish a national soldiers and sailors asylum. Renamed as the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers in 1873, it was the first-ever government institution created specifically for honorably discharged volunteer soldiers. The first national home opened November 1, 1866, near Augusta, Maine. The national homes were often called “soldiers’ homes” or “military homes,” and only soldiers who fought for the Union Army—including U.S. Colored Troops—were eligible for admittance. These sprawling campuses became the template for succeeding generations of federal Veterans’ hospitals.

By 1929, the federal system of national homes had grown to 11 institutions that spanned the country and accepted Veterans of all American wars.

But it was World War I that brought about the establishment of the second largest system of Veterans’ hospitals. In 1918, Congress tasked two Treasury agencies -- the Bureau of War Risk Insurance and Public Health Service -- with operating hospitals specifically for returning World War I Veterans. They leased hundreds of private hospitals and hotels for the rush of returning injured war Veterans and began a program of building new hospitals.

Today’s VHA--the largest of the three administrations that comprise VA--continues to meet Veterans’ changing medical, surgical and quality-of-life needs. New programs provide treatment for traumatic brain injuries, post-traumatic stress, suicide prevention, women Veterans and more. VA has opened outpatient clinics, and established telemedicine and other services to accommodate a diverse Veteran population, and continues to cultivate ongoing medical research and innovation to improve the lives of America’s patriots.

VHA operates one of the largest health care systems in the world and provides training for a majority of America’s medical, nursing and allied health professionals. Roughly 60 percent of all medical residents obtain a portion of their training at VA hospitals; and VA medical research programs benefit society at-large. The VA health care system has grown from 54 hospitals in 1930, to include 152 hospitals, 800 community-based outpatient clinics, 126 nursing home care units and 35 domiciliaries.

National Cemetery Administration (NCA)

On July 17, 1862, Congress enacted legislation that authorized the president to purchase "cemetery grounds" to be used as national cemeteries "for soldiers who shall have died in the service of the country." That first year, 14 cemeteries were established, including one in the sleepy Maryland town of Sharpsburg, where 4,476 Union soldiers were laid to rest following the bloody Battle of Antietam.

By 1870, the remains of nearly 300,000 Union dead from the Civil War had been buried in 73 national cemeteries. Most of the cemeteries were located in the Southeast, near the battlefields and campgrounds of the Civil War. After the war, Army crews scoured the countryside to locate the remains of soldiers who had died in battle. They were buried with honor in the new national cemeteries. However, the identities are unknown for nearly half of those who died in service to the Union and are buried in national cemeteries.

The national cemetery system has evolved slowly since the initial period of great challenge associated with the Civil War. All honorably discharged Veterans became eligible for burial in 1873.

In the 1930s, new national cemeteries were established to serve Veterans living in major metropolitan areas such as New York, Baltimore, Minneapolis, San Diego, San Francisco and San Antonio. Several of them, closely associated with battlefields such as Gettysburg, were transferred to the National Park Service because of the value of their use in interpreting the historical significance of the battles.

In 1973, Public Law 93-43 authorized the transfer of 82 national cemeteries from the Department of the Army to the Veterans Administration, now the Department of Veterans Affairs. Joining with 21 VA Veterans cemeteries located at hospitals and nursing homes, the National Cemetery System comprised 103 cemeteries after the transfer. On November 11, 1998, the President signed the Veterans Programs Enhancement Act of 1998, changing the name of the National Cemetery System to the National Cemetery Administration (NCA).

Today, there are 147 national cemeteries in all, with new cemeteries in development. Through NCA, VA administers 131 of them. Two national cemeteries—Arlington and the United States Soldiers' and Airmen's Home National Cemetery—are still maintained by the Department of the Army. Fourteen national cemeteries are maintained by the Department of the Interior. More than 3.7 million people, including Veterans of every war and conflict—from the Revolutionary War to the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan—are honored by burial in VA's national cemeteries. Today there are more than 22 million living Veterans who have earned the honor of burial in a national cemetery, including the more than 350 Medal of Honor recipients buried in VA's national cemeteries. More than 19,000 acres of land are devoted to the memorialization of those who served this nation.

(Link: https://www.va.gov/about_va/vahistory.asp)

U.S. Bureau of the Census

Throughout the nineteenth and early twentieth century the predecessor of the Census Bureau was a temporary office that was housed within a succession of facilities in downtown Washington. A permanent Census Office was established in 1902 within the Department of the Interior, becoming the Census Bureau when it moved to the newly created Department of Commerce and Labor in 1903. Ten years later, Labor became a separate Department while the Census Bureau remained a part of the Commerce Department. It wasn't until 1940 that the Census Bureau moved into a permanent headquarters building, the newly built Federal Office Building 1 in Southwest Washington, DC.

This permanent home was relinquished, however, only two years later, when the Census Bureau gave up its headquarters to the Office of Price Administration, a wartime agency. The Census Bureau moved into its "temporary" home in Federal Office Building 3 of the new Suitland Federal Center in spring 1942. It has been based out of the Washington suburb ever since.

When UNIVAC I was installed at the Census Bureau in 1951, computer operations were housed in the basement and wings of the agency's Federal Office Building 3 in Suitland, MD. Additional computing space was added later to a satellite facility in Charlotte, NC. As technology changed and the power, network, and security needs of the agency increased, the World War II-era (flood-prone) headquarters and satellite space grew increasingly obsolete.

In cooperation with the General Services Administration, officials from the Census Bureau, the city of Bowie, MD, and the University of Maryland (which donated the land), broke ground for a state-of-the-art facility in Bowie, MD, on September 11, 1995.

Upon completion of the facility in 1997, the U.S. Census Bureau's computer operations moved to the Bowie Computer Center. The state-of-the-art facility offers 110,724 square feet of space, of which 90 percent houses computer equipment, at the Maryland Science and Technology Center. Not only is the facility home to the Census Bureau's computer infrastructure, but it also houses one of the largest supercomputers in the nation, currently used by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration for weather forecasting.

The Bowie Computer Center's operations are safeguarded against power interruptions. Battery backup is available during minor power outages and generators are used for extended periods. In addition, the facility is under continuous maintenance. Around the clock, 365 days a year, technicians working in the operations center monitor the Census Bureau's computers to ensure that the servers, network connections, and Census Bureau Web site are available 24 hours a day.

The computer center was designed with energy efficiency in mind. Innovative features include programmable lighting, reflective glazing to reduce cooling requirements, modular wiring for work stations, variable frequency drives on mechanical systems, and alternative refrigerant in the building's chillers. These and other innovations earned the Bowie Computer Center a Federal Design Achievement Award for its commitment to technology and an open and efficient work environment and an Industry Award for Best Practices for Enterprise Management Systems.

Today, the Bowie Computer Center continues to play a critical role in maintaining the U.S. Census Bureau's computers, networks, and servers. The center's goal is to remain the unnoticed backbone of the agency's census, survey, and Web site operations. In 2003, then Customer

Services Division Chief, Ken Riccini noted, "You're not supposed to know we're here. When we handle disruptions without anyone noticing, that means we're doing our job."

Over the decades, the reach of the census spread to new states and areas under U.S. sovereignty or jurisdiction. Census officials, even when they led temporary offices, have constantly sought to increase both the amount and the diversity of information they collected about the people of the United States. From mortality to home ownership, statistics have given Americans a better idea of the demographic profile of the United States. Click on the link below for more information on the decennial census:

The development and implementation of statistical sampling techniques for the 1940 census gave birth to several mid-decade demographic surveys at the U.S. Census Bureau. These surveys give businesses, policy planners, and the public the opportunity to use updated national and state- or local-level (depending on sample size) statistics for relatively little cost or difficulty. Some of these surveys include:

- The Decennial Census of Population and Housing
- The American Community Survey
- The Current Population Survey
- The Survey of Income and Program Participation
- The American Housing Survey

The Decennial Censuses

The first several decennial censuses were very basic. Census-takers only asked a handful of demographic questions, processing and tabulating questionnaires occurred at a local level, and publications were relatively limited. But as the country grew, and policy and business leaders began to recognize the value of census data, questionnaires became longer and tabulation necessarily became more involved.

As the science of statistics advanced, the Census Bureau changed and updated its methodology. The most noteworthy change occurred in [1940](#), when the Census Bureau introduced [statistical sampling](#) in a population census. There have, however, been other important methodological advances, especially in the fields of [industrial classification](#) and [census-taking](#).

The 2010 census saw the most dramatic shift in the U.S. Census Bureau's data collection process in decades. The successful launch of the [American Community Survey](#), which is administered continuously throughout the decade, meant that the long-form sample questionnaire was no longer used in the census itself. As the United States continues to change, the Census Bureau continues to change along with it.

The 23rd decennial census of the U.S. population began on January 25, 2010, in Noorvik, AK, where the Bureau of the Census Director, among others, traveled by snowmobile and dogsled to enumerate the residents. Most U.S. households—about 120 million—received their census forms by mail in March, ahead of the official April 1 Census Day, and 74% of the households that

received forms mailed them back. From May through July, the Census Bureau contacted about 47 million nonresponding households and on December 21, 2010, released the official state population figures and total U.S. resident population of 308,745,538 as of Census Day.

The Bureau's constitutional mandate to enumerate the U.S. population every 10 years has been summarized with deceptive simplicity: count each person whose usual residence is in the United States; count the person only once; and count him or her at the right location. In reality, the attempt to find all U.S. residents and correctly enumerate them is increasingly complicated and expensive, and attracts congressional scrutiny. This report discusses the major innovations that were planned for 2010; problems encountered; issues of census accuracy, coverage, and fairness; and the present status of census operations.

The 2010 census questionnaire was one of the shortest in history - asking just 10 questions of all households in the United States and Island Areas related to name, gender, age, race, ethnicity, relationship, and whether you own or rent your home. Collection of data about education, housing, jobs, etc. collected by previous censuses long-form questionnaires are now collected by the U.S. Census Bureau's annual American Community Survey.

In addition to the reduced number of questions, the Census Bureau announced it would count same-sex married couples in June 2009. When noting the relationship between household members, same-sex couples who are married could mark their spouses as being "Husband or wife", the same response given by opposite-sex married couples. An "unmarried partner" option was available for couples (whether same-sex or opposite-sex) who were not married.

Following the success of Census 2000's advertising, the 2010 census featured a \$133 million, 4-month advertising campaign. Although officially beginning January 18, 2010, the advertising campaign debuted the night of January 17 during NBC's Golden Globe Awards broadcast.

In total, the 2010 advertising campaign included television, radio, print, outdoor and the Internet advertising, produced in an unprecedented 28 languages. More than half of the budgeted advertising would target media consumed by minority and ethnic audiences. The Census Bureau anticipated that the campaign would reach the average person 42 times with messages about the importance of participating in the census.

From Super Bowl XLIV and the 2010 Winter Olympics, to popular primetime shows, the 2010 Census advertising campaign represented the most extensive and diverse outreach campaign in U.S. history. The advertising rollout also included updates on other outreach efforts, such as the Census in Schools program, "Portrait of America" Road Tour, and the national and regional partnership programs targeted at reaching hard-to-count populations.

(Link: <https://www.census.gov/history/>)

The Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services

On July 30, 1965, President Lyndon B. Johnson signed into law the bill that led to the Medicare and Medicaid. The original Medicare program included Part A (Hospital Insurance) and Part B (Medical Insurance). Today these 2 parts are called “Original Medicare.” Over the years, Congress has made changes to Medicare and more people have become eligible.

For example, in 1972, Medicare was expanded to cover the disabled, people with end-stage renal disease (ESRD) requiring dialysis or kidney transplant, and people 65 or older that select Medicare coverage. More benefits, like prescription drug coverage, have been offered.

At first, Medicaid gave medical insurance to people getting cash assistance. Today, a much larger group is covered:

- Low-income families
- Pregnant women
- People of all ages with disabilities
- People who need long-term care

States can tailor their Medicaid programs to best serve the people in their state, so there's a wide variation in the services offered.

Medicare Part D Prescription Drug benefit

The Medicare Prescription Drug Improvement and Modernization Act of 2003 (MMA) made the biggest changes to the Medicare in the program in 38 years. Under the MMA, private health plans approved by Medicare became known as Medicare Advantage Plans. These plans are sometimes called "Part C" or "MA Plans."

The MMA also expanded Medicare to include an optional prescription drug benefit, “Part D,” which went into effect in 2006.

Children's Health Insurance Program

The Children's Health Insurance Program (CHIP) was created in 1997 to give health insurance and preventive care to nearly 11 million, or 1 in 7, uninsured American children. Many of these children came from uninsured working families that earned too much to be eligible for Medicaid. All 50 states, the District of Columbia, and the territories have CHIP plans.

Affordable Care Act

The 2010 Affordable Care Act (ACA) brought the Health Insurance Marketplace, a single place where consumers can apply for and enroll in private health insurance plans. It also made new ways for us to design and test how to pay for and deliver health care. Medicare and Medicaid

have also been better coordinated to make sure people who have Medicare and Medicaid can get quality services.

(Link: <https://www.cms.gov/About-CMS/Agency-Information/History/index.html>)

Milestones in History

1937

U.S. Surgeon General Thomas Parran proposed that National Health Insurance first cover Social Security beneficiaries.

1939

The Federal Security Agency was created to administer federal organizations dealing with health, education and social insurance, including the Social Security Board, Public Health Service, and Office of Education.

1945

After the Social Security Board called for beneficiary health insurance, President Harry Truman publicly lent his support to National Health Insurance.

1965

Medicare and Medicaid were enacted as Title XVIII and Title XIX of the Social Security Act, providing hospital, post-hospital extended care, and home health coverage to almost all Americans aged 65 or older (e.g., those receiving retirement benefits from Social Security or the Railroad Retirement Board), and providing states with the option of receiving federal funding for providing health care services to low-income children, their caretaker relatives, the blind, and individuals with disabilities. At the time, seniors were the population group most likely to be living in poverty; about half had health insurance coverage. To implement the Health Insurance for the Aged (Medicare) Act, the Social Security Administration (SSA) was reorganized and the Bureau of Health Insurance was established on July 30, 1965. This bureau was responsible for the development of health insurance policy. Medicaid was part of the Social Rehabilitation Service (SRS) at this time.

1966

Medicare was implemented and more than 19 million individuals enrolled by July 1.

1967

An Early and Periodic Screening, Diagnosis, and Treatment (EPSDT) comprehensive health services benefit was established for all children getting Medicaid. Medicare was also given authority to conduct demonstration projects.

1972

Medicare eligibility was extended to individuals under age 65 with long-term disabilities and to individuals with end-stage renal disease (ESRD). Medicare was given additional authority to conduct demonstration programs. Medicaid eligibility for elderly, blind and disabled residents of a state was linked to eligibility for the newly enacted Federal Supplemental Security Income (SSI) program.

1973

The HMO Act provided start-up grants and loans for the development of health maintenance organizations (HMOs). HMOs meeting federal standards relating to comprehensive benefits and quality were established and under certain circumstances had the right to require an employer to offer coverage to employees. The Medicare statute was also amended to provide for HMOs to contract to provide Medicare benefits to beneficiaries who choose to enroll.

1977

The Health Care Financing Administration (HCFA) was established to administer the Medicare and Medicaid programs.

1980

Coverage of Medicare home health services was broadened. Medicare supplemental insurance, also called "Medigap," was brought under federal oversight.

1981

Freedom of choice waivers and home and community-based care waivers were established in Medicaid. States were required to provide additional payments to hospitals treating a disproportionate share of low-income patients (called "disproportionate share hospitals," or DSH).

1982

The Tax Equity and Fiscal Responsibility Act made it easier and more attractive for health maintenance organizations to contract with the Medicare program providing for Medicare payments on a full risk basis. In addition, the Act expanded the Agency's quality oversight efforts through Peer Review Organizations (PROs).

1983

An inpatient acute care hospital prospective payment system for the Medicare program, based on patients' diagnoses, was adopted to replace cost-based payments. The Medicare hospice benefit was established as an option for beneficiaries to receive all-inclusive care to relieve pain and manage symptoms in a home setting rather than an institutional setting.

1986

The Emergency Medical Treatment and Labor Act (EMTALA) required hospitals participating in Medicare that offer emergency services to provide appropriate medical screenings and stabilizing treatments. Medicaid coverage for pregnant women and infants (up to 1 year of age) up to 100% of the Federal Poverty Level (FPL) was established as a state option.

1987

The Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act of 1987 (OBRA 1987) strengthened the protections for residents of nursing homes.

1988

The Medicare Catastrophic Coverage Act of 1988 was enacted, which included the most significant changes since enactment of the Medicare program, improved hospital and skilled nursing facility benefits, covered mammography, and included an outpatient prescription drug benefit and a cap on patient liability. The Medicare Catastrophic Coverage Act also provided for Medicaid coverage for pregnant women and infants up to 100% of the FPL was mandated; special eligibility rules were established for institutionalized persons whose spouses remained in the community to prevent "spousal impoverishment." The Qualified Medicare Beneficiary (QMB) program was established to pay Medicare premiums and cost-sharing charges for beneficiaries with incomes and resources below established thresholds. The Clinical Laboratory Improvement Amendments (CLIA) of 1988 strengthened quality performance requirements for clinical laboratories to ensure accurate and reliable laboratory tests and procedures.

1989

The Medicare drug benefit and other enhancements of Medicare coverage in the Medicare Catastrophic Coverage Act of 1988 were repealed after higher-income seniors protested new premiums. A new Medicare fee schedule for physician and other professional services, a resource-based relative value scale, replaced charge-based payments.

Medicaid coverage of pregnant women and children under age 6 up to 133% of the FPL was mandated; expanded Early and Periodic Screening, Diagnostic and Treatment (EPSDT) requirements were established.

1990

Phased-in Medicaid coverage of children ages 6 through 18 under 100% of the FPL was established, and a Medicaid prescription drug rebate program was created. A specified low-income Medicare beneficiary eligibility group (SLMBs) was also established for Medicaid programs to pay Medicare premiums for beneficiaries with incomes at least 100% but not more than 120% of the FPL and limited financial resources. Additional federal standards for Medicare supplemental insurance were enacted.

1991

Medicaid Disproportionate Share Hospital (DSH) spending controls were established, and provider-specific taxes and donations to states were capped.

1995

SSA became independent of the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS). After occupying office space on the SSA campus and in other nearby buildings in Baltimore, HCFA consolidated into its own 960,000 square foot national headquarters down the road from SSA on Security Boulevard.

1996

Welfare Reform: The Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) entitlement program was replaced by the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) block grant; the welfare link to Medicaid was severed; a new mandatory low-income group not linked to welfare was added to Medicaid; and enrollment in/termination of Medicaid was no longer automatic with receipt of welfare cash assistance. The Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act of 1996 (HIPAA) was passed. It had several provisions. First, it amended the Public Health Service Act, the Employee Retirement Income Security Act of 1974 (ERISA), and the Internal Revenue Code of 1986 to provide for new federal rules improving continuity or “portability” of coverage in the large group, small group and individual health insurance markets. HCFA implemented HIPAA provisions affecting the small group and individual markets.

Second, it created the Medicare Integrity Program which dedicated funding to program integrity activities and allowed HCFA to competitively contract for program integrity work. Third, it created national administrative simplification standards for electronic health care transactions. Fourth, it required HHS to issue privacy regulations if Congress failed to enact substantive privacy legislation.

1997

The Balanced Budget Act of 1997 (BBA): The Children’s Health Insurance Program (CHIP) was created; limits on Medicaid payments to disproportionate share hospitals were revised; new Medicaid managed care options and requirements for states were established. BBA also made changes to Medicare including:

- Establishing an array of new Medicare managed care and other private health plan choices for beneficiaries, offered through a coordinated open enrollment process.
- Expanding education and information to help beneficiaries make informed choices about their health care.
- Requiring HCFA to develop and implement five new prospective payment systems for Medicare services (for inpatient rehabilitation hospital or unit services, skilled nursing facility services, home health services, hospital outpatient department services, and outpatient rehabilitation services).
- Slowing the rate of growth in Medicare spending and extending the life of the trust fund for 10 years.
- Providing a broad range of beneficiary protections.
- Expanding preventive benefits.

- Testing other innovative approaches to payment and service delivery through research and demonstrations.

1998

The Internet site Medicare.gov was launched to provide updated information about Medicare.

1999

The first annual Medicare & You handbook was mailed to all Medicare beneficiary households. The toll-free number, 1-800-MEDICARE (1-800-633-4227), became available nationwide.

The Ticket to Work and Work Incentives Improvements Act of 1999 (TWWIIA) expanded the availability of Medicare and Medicaid for certain disabled beneficiaries who return to work. The law established optional Medicaid eligibility groups and allowed states to offer a buy-in to Medicaid for working-age individuals with disabilities. The Balanced Budget Refinement Act of 1999 (BBRA) increased payments for some Medicare providers and increased the amount of Medicaid DSH funds available to hospitals in certain States and the District of Columbia. Other related legislation improved Medicaid coverage of certain women's health services.

2000

The Benefits Improvement and Protection Act (BIPA) further increased Medicare payments to providers and managed health care organizations, reduced certain Medicare beneficiary co-payments, and improved Medicare coverage of preventive services. BIPA created a new Medicaid prospective payment system for Federally Qualified Health Centers and Rural Health Clinics (FQHCs/RHCs) and modified the amount of Medicaid DSH funds available to hospitals. It also delayed for one year the sunset of transitional medical assistance provided to families eligible for welfare.

2001

Secretary Tommy Thompson renamed the Health Care Financing Administration (HCFA) the Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS).

2003

The Medicare Prescription Drug, Improvement, and Modernization Act (MMA) made the most significant changes to Medicare since the program began. MMA created a new optional outpatient prescription drug benefit, effective in 2006, provided through private health plans allowing for competition among health plans to foster innovation and flexibility in coverage, covered new preventive benefits, and made numerous other changes. For the period prior to 2006, MMA created a temporary prescription discount card program. Beneficiaries with incomes less than 150% of the FPL became eligible for subsidies under the new Part D prescription drug program. MMA also required beneficiaries with higher incomes to pay a greater share of the Part B premium beginning in 2007.

There are many kinds of private health insurance policies. Different kinds of policies can offer very different kinds of benefits, and some can limit which doctors, hospitals, or other providers you can use. 2. You may have to pay coinsurance or a copayment as your share of the cost when you get a medical service, like a doctor's visit, hospital outpatient visit, or a prescription. Coinsurance is usually a percentage amount (for example, 20% of the total cost). A copayment is usually a fixed amount (for example, you might pay \$10 or \$20 for a prescription or doctor's visit). 3. You may have to pay a deductible each plan year before your insurance company starts to pay for care you get. For example, let's say you have a \$200 deductible. You go to the emergency room and the total cost is \$1,250. You pay the first \$200 to cover the deductible, and then your insurance starts to pay its share. 4. Health insurance plans contract with networks of hospitals, doctors, pharmacies, and health care providers to take care of people in the plan. Depending on the type of policy you buy, your plan may only pay for your care when you get it from a provider in the plan's network, or you may have to pay a bigger share of the bill. 5. You may see products that look and sound like health insurance, but don't give you the same protection as full health insurance.

2005

Enrollment started for Medicare Prescription Drug coverage.

2006

Medicare prescription drug coverage (Part D) began Medicare for 39 million beneficiaries. Numerous MMA provisions were implemented, including a number of new preventive services for Medicare beneficiaries.

2009

On February 4, 2009, President Obama signed the Children's Health Insurance Program Reauthorization Act of 2009 (CHIPRA). This legislation marked a new era in children's coverage by providing states with significant new funding, new programmatic options, and a range of new incentives for covering children through Medicaid and the Children's Health Insurance Program (CHIP).

2010

The Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act (ACA), commonly known as the "Affordable Care Act," was signed into law by President Barack Obama on March 23, 2010, for the first time prohibiting health insurance companies from denying or charging more for coverage based on an individual's health status, providing for expansion of the Medicaid program, and subsidies for insurance purchased through State-based Marketplaces to ensure that private insurance is affordable. The ACA also provided a variety of other insurance reforms, like new preventive benefit requirements and prohibitions on dollar limits, and expanded Medicare drug and preventive services benefits.

2011

3.6 million people with Medicare saved \$2.1 billion on their prescription drugs thanks to the Affordable Care Act. More than 25.7 million beneficiaries in Original Medicare received at least one preventive service following a cost-sharing waiver in the Affordable Care Act.

2012

6.8 million consumers saved an estimated \$1.2 billion on health insurance premiums in 2012, due to the "rate review" provision of the Affordable Care Act. 3.5 million beneficiaries saved \$2.5 billion on prescription drugs, for an average of \$706 per beneficiary.

2013

The Health Insurance Marketplace opened on October 1, 2013. For the first time ever, all Americans were able to shop for affordable quality health coverage, and couldn't be denied or charged more because they had a pre-existing condition. An estimated 37.2 million Medicare beneficiaries received at least one free preventive service including an estimated 26.5 million people with Original Medicare. 4.3 million seniors and people with disabilities saved \$3.9 billion on prescription drugs, or an average of \$911 per beneficiary.

2014

During the first open enrollment for the Health Insurance Marketplace, 8 million people signed up for private insurance. 3 million young adults gained coverage thanks to the Affordable Care Act by being able to stay on their parents' plan.

Looking at the additional enrollment since October 2013 when the initial Marketplace open enrollment period began, among the 49 states reporting both May 2015 Medicaid and CHIP enrollment data and data from July-September of 2013, more than 12.8 million additional individuals are enrolled in Medicaid and CHIP as of May 2015. Up to 129 million Americans with pre-existing conditions, including up to 17 million children, no longer had to worry about being denied health coverage or charged higher premiums because of their health status. 105 million Americans no longer had to worry about having their health benefits cut off after they reach a lifetime limit.

2015

The Medicare Access and CHIP Reauthorization Act (MACRA) changes the way Medicare pays physicians. It replaced the Sustainable Growth Rate (SGR) methodology with a method that's more predictable and speeds up participation in alternative payment models. These models encourage quality and efficiency. MACRA also extended CHIP for two years, through fiscal year 2017.

(Link: <https://www.cms.gov/About-CMS/Agency-Information/History/Downloads/Medicare-and-Medicaid-Milestones-1937-2015.pdf>)

Social Security Administration

The Social Security program that would eventually be adopted in late 1935 relied for its core principles on the concept of "social insurance." Social insurance was a respectable and serious intellectual tradition that began in Europe in the 19th century and was an expression of a European social welfare tradition. It was first adopted in Germany in 1889 at the urging of the famous Chancellor, Otto von Bismarck. Indeed, by the time America adopted social insurance in 1935, there were 34 nations already operating some form of social insurance program (about 20 of these were contributory programs like Social Security). Philosophically, social insurance emphasized government-sponsored efforts to provide for the economic security of its citizens. The tradition of social insurance would come to be seen as the reasonable, practical alternative to the radical calls to action represented by Townsend, Long, Sinclair and the others.

Although the definition of social insurance can vary considerably in its particulars, its basic features are: the insurance principle under which a group of persons are "insured" in some way against a defined risk, and a social element which usually means that the program is shaped in part by broader social objectives, rather than being shaped solely by the self-interest of the individual participants. Social insurance coverage can be provided for a number of different types of insured conditions, from disability and death to old-age or unemployment. We may find it obvious to think of death, disability or unemployment as conditions causing loss of income and which can be ameliorated by pooling of risk. It is at first a little odd to think of old-age or retirement in these same terms. But that is precisely how the early social insurance theorists conceived of retirement, as producing a loss of income due to cessation of work activity.

One of the earliest American advocates of a plan that could be recognized as modern social insurance was Theodore Roosevelt. In 1912, Roosevelt addressed the convention of the Progressive Party and made a strong statement on behalf of social insurance:

"We must protect the crushable elements at the base of our present industrial structure...it is abnormal for any industry to throw back upon the community the human wreckage due to its wear and tear, and the hazards of sickness, accident, invalidism, involuntary unemployment, and old age should be provided for through insurance." TR would succeed in having a plank adopted in the Progressive Party platform that stated: "We pledge ourselves to work unceasingly in state and nation for: . . .The protection of home life against the hazards of sickness, irregular employment, and old age through the adoption of a system of social insurance adapted to American use." TR 1911 pin

The Threshold of Change

So as 1934 dawned the nation was deep in the throes of the Depression. Confidence in the old institutions was shaken. Social changes that started with the Industrial Revolution had long ago passed the point of no return. The traditional sources of economic security: assets; labor; family; and charity, had all failed in one degree or another. Radical proposals for action were springing like weeds from the soil of the nation's discontent. President Franklin Roosevelt would choose the social insurance approach as the "cornerstone" of his attempts to deal with the problem of economic security.

The Committee on Economic Security (CES)

On June 8, 1934, President Franklin D. Roosevelt, in a message to the Congress, announced his intention to provide a program for Social Security. Subsequently, the President created by Executive Order the Committee on Economic Security, which was composed of five top cabinet-level officials. The committee was instructed to study the entire problem of economic insecurity and to make recommendations that would serve as the basis for legislative consideration by the Congress.

The CES assembled a small staff of experts borrowed from other federal agencies and immediately set to work. In November 1934 the CES sponsored the first-ever national town-hall forum on Social Security. The CES did a comprehensive study of the whole issue of economic security in America, along with an analysis of the European experience with these perennial problems. Their full report was the first comprehensive attempt at this kind of analysis in many decades and it stood as a landmark study for many years. In slightly more than six months, the CES developed a Report to the Congress and drafted a detailed legislative proposal.

"Security was attained in the earlier days through the interdependence of members of families upon each other and of the families within a small community upon each other. The complexities of great communities and of organized industry make less real these simple means of security. Therefore, we are compelled to employ the active interest of the Nation as a whole through government in order to encourage a greater security for each individual who composes it . . . This seeking for a greater measure of welfare and happiness does not indicate a change in values. It is rather a return to values lost in the course of our economic development and expansion . . ." Franklin D. Roosevelt: Message of the President to Congress, June 8, 1934.

The Social Security Act

In early January 1935, the CES made its report to the President, and on January 17 the President introduced the report to both Houses of Congress for simultaneous consideration. Hearings were held in the House Ways & Means Committee and the Senate Finance Committee during January and February. Some provisions made it through the Committees in close votes, but the bill passed both houses overwhelmingly in the floor votes. After a Conference which lasted throughout July, the bill was finally passed and sent to President Roosevelt for his signature.

The Social Security Act was signed into law by President Roosevelt on August 14, 1935. In addition to several provisions for general welfare, the new Act created a social insurance program designed to pay retired workers age 65 or older a continuing income after retirement.

"We can never insure one hundred percent of the population against one hundred percent of the hazards and vicissitudes of life, but we have tried to frame a law which will give some measure of protection to the average citizen and to his family against the loss of a job and against poverty-ridden old age."--President Roosevelt upon signing Social Security Act

Major Provisions Of The Act

The Social Security Act did not quite achieve all the aspirations its supporters had hoped by way of providing a "comprehensive package of protection" against the "hazards and vicissitudes of life." Certain features of that package, notably disability coverage and medical benefits, would have to await future developments. But it did provide a wide range of programs to meet the nation's needs. In addition to the program we now think of as Social Security, it included unemployment insurance, old-age assistance, aid to dependent children and grants to the states to provide various forms of medical care.

The two major provisions relating to the elderly were Title I- Grants to States for Old-Age Assistance, which supported state welfare programs for the aged, and Title II-Federal Old-Age Benefits. It was Title II that was the new social insurance program we now think of as Social Security. In the original Act benefits were to be paid only to the primary worker when he/she retired at age 65. Benefits were to be based on payroll tax contributions that the worker made during his/her working life. Taxes would first be collected in 1937 and monthly benefits would begin in 1942. (Under amendments passed in 1939, payments were advanced to 1940.)

The significance of the new social insurance program was that it sought to address the long-range problem of economic security for the aged through a contributory system in which the workers themselves contributed to their own future retirement benefit by making regular payments into a joint fund. It was thus distinct from the welfare benefits provided under Title I of the Act and from the various state "old-age pensions." As President Roosevelt conceived of the Act, Title I was to be a temporary "relief" program that would eventually disappear as more people were able to obtain retirement income through the contributory system. The new social insurance system was also a very moderate alternative to the radical calls to action that were so common in the America of the 1930s.

Another provision of the Act established a Social Security Board (SSB) comprised of three members appointed by the President, with the chairman reporting directly to the President. The original members were John G. Winant, Chairman; Arthur J. Altmeyer; and Vincent M. Miles. (Winant was a former three-time Republican Governor of New Hampshire; Miles was a Democratic Party official in Arkansas; and Altmeyer was a civil servant working in Labor Department.)

During the first year, SSB was faced with the tasks of providing employers, employees and the public with information on how earnings were to be reported, what benefits were available and how they were to be provided. In addition, sites for field installations had to be chosen and personnel to staff these offices had to be selected and trained.

Operation of the new program was hampered for several months when the budget bill for the Act was killed by a Senate filibuster at the end of August 1935. The new Social Security Board had to borrow money from other federal agencies to operate until January 1936 when the Congress reconvened and passed an appropriation to fund the programs and operations under the Social Security Act.

The Social Security Board began as an independent agency of the federal government. In 1939 it became part of the cabinet-level Federal Security Agency, and in 1946 the SSB was abolished and replaced by the current Social Security Administration.

Early Work - Social Security Numbers

The monumental first task was the need to register employers and workers by January 1, 1937, when workers would begin acquiring credits toward old-age insurance benefits. Since the new Social Security Board did not have the resources available to accomplish this, they contracted with the Post Office Department to distribute the applications. The first application forms were distributed in late November 1936. The numbers were assigned in the local post offices. There is no record of who received the first Social Security number (SSN).

The post offices collected the completed forms and turned them over to Social Security field offices located near major post office centers. The applications then were forwarded to Baltimore, Maryland, where SSNs were registered and various employment records established. The first SSN account number record established in Baltimore was assigned to John David Sweeney, Jr. of New Rochelle, New York.

Although, John Sweeney received the first SSN account, his was not the lowest number ever issued. That distinction fell to New Hampshire resident, Grace Dorothy Owen. Ms. Owen received number 001-01-0001.

Over 30 million SSN cards were issued through this early procedure, with the help of the post offices. By June 30, 1937, the SSB had established 151 field offices, with the first office opening on October 14, 1936, in Austin, Texas. From that point on, the Board's local office took over the task of assigning SSNs.

Trust Funds

After Social Security numbers were assigned, the first Federal Insurance Contributions Act (FICA) taxes were collected, beginning in January 1937. Special Trust Funds were created for these dedicated revenues. Benefits were then paid from the money in the Social Security Trust Funds. Over the years, more than \$8.7 trillion has been paid into the Trust Funds, and more than \$7.4 trillion has been paid out in benefits. The remainder is currently on reserve in the Trust Funds and will be used to pay future benefits.

First Payments

From 1937 until 1940, Social Security paid benefits in the form of a single, lump-sum payment. The purpose of these one-time payments was to provide some "payback" to those people who contributed to the program but would not participate long enough to be vested for monthly benefits. Under the 1935 law, monthly benefits were to begin in 1942, with the period 1937-1942 used both to build up the Trust Funds and to provide a minimum period for participation in order to qualify for monthly benefits.

he earliest reported applicant for a lump-sum benefit was a retired Cleveland motorman named Ernest Ackerman, who retired one day after the Social Security program began. During his one day of participation in the program, a nickel was withheld from Mr. Ackerman's pay for Social Security, and, upon retiring, he received a lump-sum payment of 17 cents.

The average lump-sum payment during this period was \$58.06. The smallest payment ever made was for 5 cents!

"Long before the economic blight of the depression descended on the Nation, millions of our people were living in wastelands of want and fear. Men and women too old and infirm to work either depended on those who had but little to share, or spent their remaining years within the walls of a poorhouse . . . The Social Security Act offers to all our citizens a workable and working method of meeting urgent present needs and of forestalling future need . . . One word of warning, however. In our efforts to provide security for all of the American people, let us not allow ourselves to be misled by those who advocate short cuts to Utopia or fantastic financial schemes. We have come a long way. But we still have a long way to go. There is still today a frontier that remains unconquered--an America unclaimed. This is the great, the nationwide frontier of insecurity, of human want and fear. This is the frontier--the America--we have set ourselves to reclaim." -- President Franklin Roosevelt August 14, 1938, Radio address on the third anniversary of the Social Security Act

1939 Amendments

"It is impossible under any social insurance system to provide ideal security for every individual. The practical objective is to pay benefits that provide a minimum degree of social security—as a basis upon which the worker, through his own efforts, will have a better chance to provide adequately for his individual security." -- From the Report of the Social Security Board recommending the changes which were embodied in the 1939 Amendments.

The original Act provided only retirement benefits, and only to the worker. The 1939 Amendments made a fundamental change in the Social Security program. The Amendments added two new categories of benefits: payments to the spouse and minor children of a retired worker (so-called dependents benefits) and survivors benefits paid to the family in the event of the premature death of a covered worker. This change transformed Social Security from a retirement program for workers into a family-based economic security program. The 1939 Amendments also increased benefit amounts and accelerated the start of monthly benefit payments to 1940.

Monthly Benefits

Payment of monthly Social Security benefits began in January 1940, and were authorized not only for aged retired workers but for their aged wives or widows, children under age 18, and surviving aged parents.

On January 31, 1940, the first monthly retirement check was issued to Ida May Fuller of Ludlow, Vermont, in the amount of \$22.54. Miss Fuller, a Legal Secretary, retired in November 1939. She started collecting benefits in January 1940 at age 65 and lived to be 100 years old, dying in 1975.

The Atlantic Charter

In mid-August, 1941, Winston Churchill and Franklin Roosevelt met secretly aboard a warship off the coast of Newfoundland in the North Atlantic. On the sixth anniversary of the Social Security Act, they announced a joint-declaration known as the Atlantic Charter. The 383-word Charter was an expression of "certain common principles in the national policies of their respective countries on which they base their hopes for a better future for the world." This brief charter would be the founding document of the United Nations and among its eight principles was a call for social insurance. Former Social Security Board Chairman John Winant was then serving as the U.S. Ambassador to Great Britain. Although Winant did not attend the Conference, the social insurance provision was a suggestion he made from London which was instantly accepted by Churchill and FDR.

Although social insurance began in Germany in the 19th century, in the years following World War II the United States was the leading model for nations around the world who were interested in designing Social Security systems. This movement toward the internationalization of Social Security can be symbolically fixed with the issuance of the Atlantic Charter in 1941.

1950 Amendments

From 1940 until 1950 virtually no changes were made in the Social Security program. Payment amounts were fixed, and no major legislation was enacted. There was a significant administrative change in 1946, however, when the three-person Social Security Board was abolished and replaced by the Social Security Administration, headed by a single Commissioner.

Because the program was still in its infancy, and because it was financed by low levels of payroll taxation, the absolute value of Social Security's retirement benefits were very low. In fact, until 1951, the average value of the welfare benefits received under the old-age assistance provisions of the Act were higher than the retirement benefits received under Social Security. And there were more elderly Americans receiving old-age assistance than were receiving Social Security.

Because of these shortcomings in the program, in 1950 major amendments were enacted. These amendments increased benefits for existing beneficiaries for the first time (see The Story of COLAs), and they dramatically increased the value of the program to future beneficiaries. By February 1951 there were more Social Security retirees than welfare pensioners, and by August of that year, the average Social Security retirement benefit exceeded the average old-age assistance grant for the first time.

The Story of COLAs

Most people are aware that there are annual increases in Social Security benefits to offset the corrosive effects of inflation on fixed incomes. These increases, now known as Cost of Living Allowances (COLAs), are such an accepted feature of the program that it is difficult to imagine a time when there were no COLAs. But in fact, when Ida May Fuller received her first \$22.54 benefit payment in January of 1940, this would be the same amount she would receive each month for the next 10 years. For Ida May Fuller, and the millions of other Social Security beneficiaries like her, the amount of that first benefit check was the amount they could expect to receive for life. It was not until the 1950 Amendments that Congress first legislated an increase

in benefits. Current beneficiaries had their payments recomputed and Ida May Fuller, for example, saw her monthly check increase from \$22.54 to \$41.30.

These re-computations were effective for September 1950 and appeared for the first time in the October 1950 checks. A second increase was legislated for September 1952. Together these two increases almost doubled the value of Social Security benefits for existing beneficiaries. From that point on, benefits were increased only when Congress enacted special legislation for that purpose.

In 1972 legislation the law was changed to provide, beginning in 1975, for automatic annual cost-of-living allowances (i.e., COLAs) based on the annual increase in consumer prices. No longer do beneficiaries have to await a special act of Congress to receive a benefit increase and no longer does inflation drain value from Social Security benefits.

Disability

The Social Security Amendments of 1954 initiated a disability insurance program which provided the public with additional coverage against economic insecurity. At first, there was a disability "freeze", (here being signed by President Eisenhower) of a worker's Social Security record during the years when they were unable to work. (First application for disability freeze being filed.) While this measure offered no cash benefits, it did prevent such periods of disability from reducing or wiping out retirement and survivor benefits. On August 1, 1956, the Social Security Act was amended to provide benefits to disabled workers aged 50-64 and disabled adult children. In September 1960 President Eisenhower signed a law amending the disability rules to permit payment of benefits to disabled workers of any age and to their dependents. By 1960, 559,000 people were receiving disability benefits, with the average benefit amount being around \$80 per month.

Medicare & Other Changes

The decade of the 1960s brought major changes to the Social Security program. Under the Amendments of 1961, the age at which men are first eligible for old-age insurance was lowered to 62, with benefits actuarially reduced (women previously were given this option in 1956). This created an additional workload for the Agency as more beneficiaries entered the rolls. The number of people receiving disability benefits more than doubled from 1961 to 1969, increasing from 742,000 to 1.7 million.

The most significant administrative change involved the signing of the Medicare bill on July 30, 1965, by President Lyndon Johnson in the presence of former President Truman, who received the first Medicare card at the ceremony, Lady Bird Johnson, Vice-President Hubert Humphrey, and Mrs. Truman. With the signing of this bill, SSA became responsible for administering a new social insurance program that extended health coverage to almost all Americans aged 65 or older. Nearly 20 million beneficiaries enrolled in Medicare in the first 3 years of the program.

Supplemental Security Income

In the 1970s, SSA became responsible for a new program, Supplemental Security Income (SSI). In the original 1935 Social Security Act, programs were introduced for needy aged and blind individuals and, in 1950, needy disabled individuals were added. These three programs were known as the "adult categories" and were administered by State and local governments with partial Federal funding. Over the years, the State programs became more complex and inconsistent, with as many as 1,350 administrative agencies involved and payments varying more than 300% from State to State.

In 1969, President Nixon identified a need to reform these and related welfare programs to "bring reason, order, and purpose into a tangle of overlapping programs." In 1971, Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare, Elliot Richardson, proposed that SSA assume responsibility for the "adult categories." In the Social Security Amendments of 1972, Congress federalized the "adult categories" by creating the SSI program and assigned responsibility for it to SSA.

SSA was chosen to administer the new program because of its reputation for successful administration of the existing social insurance programs. SSA's nationwide network of field offices and large-scale data processing and record-keeping operations also made it the logical choice to perform the major task of converting over 3 million people from State welfare programs to SSI.

The 1972 & 1977 Amendments

In 1972 two important sets of amendments were enacted. These amendments created the SSI program and introduced automatic Cost-of-Living- Adjustments (COLAs).

The bill creating the SSI program also contained important provisions for increasing Social Security benefits for certain categories of beneficiaries (primarily aged widows and widowers). It also provided: a minimum retirement benefit; an adjustment to the benefit formula governing early retirement at age 62 for men, in order to make it consistent with that for women; extension of Medicare to those who have received disability benefits for at least two years and to those with Chronic Renal Disease; liberalized the Retirement Test; and provided for Delayed Retirement Credits to increase the benefits of those who delayed retirement past age 65.

The separate bill creating automatic COLAs also provided for automatic increases in the earnings subject to Social Security taxes and an automatic adjustment in the wage-base used in calculating benefits. This second adjustment was put in the law as a sort of companion to the COLA. The COLA adjusts for increases in prices, whereas the wage-base adjustment corrects for increases in wages. The purpose of the COLA was to maintain the purchasing power of benefits already awarded. The purpose of the automatic adjustment in the wage base was to maintain the relative value of Social Security benefits for future applicants. Unfortunately, the procedure for adjusting for price and wage increases contained a flaw which resulted in future benefit levels soaring out of control. Indeed, it became apparent that if the trends of the mid-1970s continued, future Social Security beneficiaries could end up receiving more in their monthly retirement benefit than their gross salaries while working.

The main purpose of the 1977 Amendments was to address the financing of the program. Shortly after passage of the 1972 legislation, it became apparent that Social Security faced a funding shortfall, both in the short-term and in the long-term. The short-term problem was caused by the

bad economy, and the long-term problem by the demographics associated with the baby boom. By their 1975 report the Trustees said the Trust Funds would be exhausted by 1979. This financing shortfall was addressed by the 1977 Social Security Amendments. These amendments raised the payroll tax slightly (from 6.45% to the current 7.65%), increased the wage base; reduced benefits slightly; and "decoupled" the wage adjustment from the COLA adjustment. These fixes restored the long-term balance of the program for the next 50 years (but not the full 75 years used by the actuaries). It was hoped the amendments would prevent an expected short-term financing problem in the early 1980s. This hope would prove elusive as the major amendments in 1983 would be needed to avoid the short-term problem, and to address the remaining long-range program deficit.

Disability In The 1980s

The Social Security Amendments of 1980 made many changes in the disability program. Most of these changes focused on various work incentive provisions for both Social Security and SSI disability benefits.

The 1980 Amendments also required SSA to conduct periodic reviews of current disability beneficiaries to certify their continuing eligibility. This was to become a massive workload for SSA and one that was highly controversial. By 1983, the reviews had been halted, and in 1984, Congress passed the Disability Benefits Reform Act modifying several aspects of the disability program.

The 1983 Amendments

In the early 1980s the Social Security program faced a serious short-term financing crisis. President Reagan appointed a blue-ribbon panel, known as the Greenspan Commission, to study the financing issues and make recommendations for legislative changes. The final bill, signed into law in 1983, made numerous changes in the Social Security and Medicare programs, including the taxation of Social Security benefits, the first coverage of Federal employees under Social Security and an increase in the retirement age in the next century. (Summary of the provisions of the '83 Amendments)

Program Growth

From its modest beginnings, Social Security has grown to become an essential facet of modern life. One in seven Americans receives a Social Security benefit, and more than 90 percent of all workers are in jobs covered by Social Security. From 1940, when slightly more than 222,000 people received monthly Social Security benefits, until today, when over 50 million people receive such benefits, Social Security has grown steadily. The SSI program has grown as well from its inception in 1974.

Independence For SSA

The Social Security Board (SSB) began its life in 1935 as one of the federal government's "independent agencies." This means that it was not part of a larger cabinet-level organization. In

1939 this status changed when the SSB became part of the new cabinet-level Federal Security Agency. Ultimately, the Social Security Board became the Social Security Administration and it would finally become an operating component of the Department of Health & Human Services.

Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, there was growing bipartisan support for removing SSA from under its departmental umbrella and establishing it as an independent agency. Finally, in 1994 the Social Security Independence and Program Improvements Act of 1994 (P.L. 103-296) was passed unanimously by Congress and, in a ceremony in the Rose Garden of the White House, on August 14, 1994, President Bill Clinton signed the act into law.

Legislative Changes in 1996 & 1997

Contract With America Advancement Act of 1996 (P.L. 104-121).

This bill, signed by the President on March 29, 1996, made a change in the basic philosophy of the disability program. Beginning on that date, new applicants for Social Security or SSI disability benefits could no longer be eligible for benefits if drug addiction or alcoholism is a material factor to their disability. Unless they can qualify on some other medical basis, they cannot receive disability benefits. Individuals in this category already receiving benefits, are to have their benefits terminated as of January 1, 1997. Previous policy has been that if a person has a medical condition that prevents them from working, this qualifies them as disabled for Social Security and SSI purposes--regardless of the cause of the disability. Another significant provision of this law doubled the earnings limit exemption amount for retired Social Security beneficiaries, on a gradual schedule from 1996 to 2002. In 2002, the exempt amount will be \$30,000 per year in earnings, compared to \$14,760 under previous law.

The Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act of 1996.

This "welfare reform" legislation, signed by the President on 8/22/96, ended the categorical entitlement to AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children) that was part of the original 1935 Social Security Act by implementing time-limited benefits along with a work requirement. The law also terminated SSI eligibility for most non-citizens. Previously, lawfully admitted aliens could receive SSI if they met the other factors of entitlement. As of the date of enactment, no new non-citizens could be added to the benefit rolls and all existing non-citizen beneficiaries would eventually be removed from the rolls (unless they met one of the exceptions in the law.) Also effective upon enactment were provisions eliminating the "comparable severity standard" and reference to "maladaptive behavior" in the determination of disability for children to receive SSI. Also, children currently receiving benefits under the old standards were to be reviewed and removed from the rolls if they could not qualify under the new standards.

Omnibus Consolidated Rescissions and Appropriations Act of 1996.

Requires that all federal payments (including Social Security and SSI) be made by electronic funds transfer (no more paper checks) effective January 1, 1999, unless a waiver is granted by the Secretary of the Treasury.

The Department of Defense Appropriations Act, 1997

This massive omnibus spending bill contained SSA's budget as well as numerous legislative changes relating to the SSI program and to issues involved in fighting fraudulent documents in connection with obtaining Social Security numbers. The major SSI provision makes sponsorship agreements legally enforceable for the first time. In the area of identification-related documents, the law requires the establishment of federal standards for state-issued birth certificates and requires SSA to develop a prototype counterfeit-resistant Social Security card.

The Balanced Budget Act of 1997

This bill passed the House on 7/30/97 by a vote of 346 to 85, and passed the Senate the next day on a vote of 85 to 15. This law restored SSI eligibility to certain cohorts of non-citizens whose eligibility otherwise would be terminated under the "welfare reform" of 1996. It also extended for up to one year the period for redetermining the eligibility of certain aliens who may ultimately not be eligible for continued benefits.

The Social Security Advisory Board

From the very beginning, the Social Security program has had the services of periodic Advisory Councils composed primarily of non-government members whose function was to represent the public at large in advising government officials on Social Security policy. The first such Advisory Council was convened in 1934 in support of the work of the Committee on Economic Security. Over the years, the Advisory Councils have been very influential in setting the agenda for changes in Social Security. The Councils were especially influential in shaping the pivotal 1939 and 1950 amendments. Eventually, the tradition of periodic Social Security Advisory Councils was made a standard provision of the law, with a requirement that such a Council be appointed every four years. This law stayed in effect until 1994, when it was repealed as part of the legislation which made SSA an independent agency.

Work Incentives

On December 17, 1999 the President signed the "Ticket to Work and Work Incentives Improvement Act of 1999"--one of the most significant changes in disability policy in the last 20 years. This law creates a Ticket to Work and Self-Sufficiency Program which will provide disability beneficiaries with a ticket they may use to obtain vocational rehabilitation services, employment services, and other support services from an employment network of their choice. In addition to allowing beneficiaries to purchase vocational services, the law provides incentive payments to providers for successful rehabilitation in which the beneficiary returns to work. The new provisions also provide a number of safeguards to the beneficiaries to protect their benefits and health. Taken together, the Ticket to Work initiative seeks to shift the emphasis in the disability program away from mere maintenance of benefits more toward rehabilitating the disabled and assisting them in returning to productive work.

Repeal of the Retirement Earnings Test (RET)

On April 7, 2000 "The Senior Citizens' Freedom to Work Act of 2000" was signed into law, eliminating the Retirement Earnings Test (RET) for those beneficiaries at or above Normal Retirement Age (NRA). (The RET still applies to those beneficiaries below NRA.)

The legislation began its swift march through Congress on March 1, 2000 when the full House of Representatives passed H.R. 5 by a vote of 422 to 0. The Senate, on March 22, 2000 then passed the bill by a vote of 100-0 (with a technical amendment). On March 28, 2000 The House agreed to the Senate amendment by a vote of 419-0 and cleared the measure for transmission to the President.

This was a historic change in the Social Security retirement program. From the beginning of Social Security in 1935, retirement benefits have been conditional on the requirement that the beneficiary be substantially retired. This requirement was carried out by the provisions of the RET. The RET has changed considerably over the years. The requirement was first scaled-back in the 1950 Amendments, which exempted workers age 75 and older from the RET. The exempt age was reduced to 72 in 1954, and to age 70 and older in 1977. With the new legislation, starting at the NRA, Social Security retirement benefits will be paid to beneficiaries who are still working. Effectively, for those who have reached full retirement age, this repeals the requirement that the beneficiary be substantially retired in order to receive full Social Security retirement benefits.

Social Security in the George W. Bush Administration

In his Inaugural Address, President George W. Bush announced his intentions to reform Social Security and Medicare. Throughout the early months of his presidency the President made many speeches and addresses in which this was a major recurring theme. In his first speech to a joint-session of Congress in February 2001, the President announced his intention to appoint a Presidential Commission to recommend ways to address Social Security reform. The President stated the Commission would operate under three broad principles:

- It must preserve the benefits of all current retirees and those nearing retirement.
- It must return Social Security to sound financial footing.
- And it must offer personal savings accounts to younger workers who want them.

On May 2, 2001 the President announced the appointment of his Social Security Commission, the "President's Commission to Strengthen Social Security." The Commission issued its final report in December 2001.

At the beginning of his second term, President Bush made it clear that Social Security reform would be a top priority of his Administration. Although the President pushed for major changes in Social Security, none were enacted into law during the President's second term.

There were several relatively minor legislative changes enacted into law during the period 2001-2008. (Link: <https://www.ssa.gov/history/>)

Food and Drug Administration

The Food and Drug Administration is the oldest comprehensive consumer protection agency in the U. S. federal government. Its origins can be traced back to the appointment of Lewis Caleb Beck in the Patent Office around 1848 to carry out chemical analyses of agricultural products, a function that the newly created Department of Agriculture inherited in 1862. Although it was not known by its present name until 1930, FDA's modern regulatory functions began with the passage of the 1906 Pure Food and Drugs Act, a law a quarter-century in the making that prohibited interstate commerce in adulterated and misbranded food and drugs. Harvey Washington Wiley, Chief Chemist of the Bureau of Chemistry in the Department of Agriculture, had been the driving force behind this law and headed its enforcement in the early years, providing basic elements of protection that consumers had never known before that time.

The 1906 Food and Drugs Act and Its Enforcement

While Wiley was stumping for a law, muckraking journalists such as Samuel Hopkins Adams exposed in vivid detail the hazards of the marketplace. In fact, the nauseating condition of the meat-packing industry that Upton Sinclair captured in *The Jungle* was the final precipitating force behind both a meat inspection law and a comprehensive food and drug law. (A poster of the 1913 movie adaptation of Sinclair's novel is pictured at right, courtesy of the Sinclair Archives, Lilly Library, Indiana University, through James Harvey Young's *Pure Food: Securing the Federal Food and Drugs Act of 1906*.) Since 1879, nearly 100 bills had been introduced in Congress to regulate food and drugs; on 30 June 1906 President Roosevelt signed the Food and Drugs Act, known simply as the Wiley Act, a pillar of the Progressive era. A poster with two men looking out the door.

This act, which the Bureau of Chemistry was charged to administer, prohibited the interstate transport of unlawful food and drugs under penalty of seizure of the questionable products and/or prosecution of the responsible parties. The basis of the law rested on the regulation of product labeling rather than pre-market approval. Drugs, defined in accordance with the standards of strength, quality, and purity in the United States Pharmacopoeia and the National Formulary, could not be sold in any other condition unless the specific variations from the applicable standards were plainly stated on the label. Foods were not defined according to analogous standards, but the law prohibited the addition of any ingredients that would substitute for the food, conceal damage, pose a health hazard, or constitute a filthy or decomposed substance. Interpretations of the food provisions in the law led to many, sometimes protracted, court battles. If the manufacturer opted to list the weight or measure of a food, this had to be done accurately. Also, the food or drug label could not be false or misleading in any particular, and the presence and amount of eleven dangerous ingredients, including alcohol, heroin, and cocaine, had to be listed.

The bureau's regulatory emphasis under Wiley centered on foods, which he believed posed a greater public health problem than adulterated or misbranded drugs. Wiley generally held a dim view of chemical additives to foods, championing an approach that considered most to be

unnecessary adulterants. On this he clashed often with Secretary of Agriculture James Wilson, and on occasion President Roosevelt himself had to decide government policy on food regulation. Wiley's personal administrative authority under the act was diluted early on when Wilson created a Board of Food and Drug Inspection in 1907 to establish agency policy in enforcing the law. Similarly, the creation of the Referee Board of Consulting Scientific Experts in the following year to advise the department on safety issues associated with food additives undercut Wiley's scientific authority. The bureau had been developing informal standards for many foods in collaboration with outside experts since 1903, an activity that continued after the 1906 act. However, courts differed on the role these informal standards could play in cases. Separate laws established standards for some specific foods, such as apples and butter, as well as for canned foods.

After Wiley's resignation in 1912, the bureau devoted more effort to drug regulation, with some emphasis on the so-called patent medicines. While the law was much clearer about drug standards than standards for foods, misbranding was the source of considerable controversy in the regulation of drugs. A year earlier the Supreme Court ruled that the law did not--contrary to the government's interpretation--apply to false therapeutic claims. An amendment in the year of Wiley's resignation attempted to correct the language of the law. But it put the bureau in the difficult position of attempting to prove in court that manufacturers of drugs labeled with false therapeutic claims intended to defraud consumers. The bureau lost several cases against egregious products, but seizures of misbranded and adulterated drugs nevertheless increased in the 1920s and 1930s.

With the election of Franklin Roosevelt and the death in 1930 of the embodiment of the 1906 act--Wiley--the FDA now had a receptive ear to petition for needed changes in the law: legally mandated quality and identity standards. The Lash-Lure illustration was an important specimen in the Chamber of Horrors exhibit of unregulated products. The illustration shows an ad for the product that reads, "The New and improved Eye Brow and Eye Lash Dye. Lash Lure. Radiates Personality." Then there are two pictures. One shows a beautiful woman under the words, "This is the manufacturer's version of the effect of this aniline eyelash dye." The second picture was taken of a woman after the dye had been applied and shows the destruction of her eyeballs by the product. The text for the second picture reads, "Total blindness was its actual effect in at least one instance." for foods, prohibition of false therapeutic claims for drugs, coverage of cosmetics and medical devices, clarification of the FDA's right to conduct factory inspections, and control of product advertising, among other items. A new generation of muckraking journalists and consumer protection organizations aided in pushing a reluctant Congress to sponsor a bill to replace the old law. The FDA itself exemplified the state of affairs in the marketplace by assembling a collection of products that illustrated shortcomings in the 1906 law. It included Banbar, a worthless "cure" for diabetes that the old law protected; Lash-Lure, an eyelash dye in which a number of women suffered injuries to their eyes, including one confirmed case of permanent blindness.; numerous examples of foods deceptively packaged or labeled; Radithor, a radium-containing tonic that sentenced users to a slow and painful death; and the Wilhide Exhaler, which falsely promised to cure tuberculosis and other pulmonary diseases. A reporter dubbed this exhibit "The American Chamber of Horrors," a title not far from the truth since all the products exhibited were legal under the existing law.

Languishing in Congress for five years, the bill that would replace the 1906 was ultimately enhanced and passed in the wake of a therapeutic disaster in 1937. A Tennessee drug company marketed a form of the new sulfa wonder drug that would appeal to pediatric patients, Elixir Sulfanilamide¹. However, the solvent in this untested product was a highly toxic chemical analogue of antifreeze; over 100 people died, many of whom were children. The public outcry not only reshaped the drug provisions of the new law to prevent such an event from happening again, it propelled the bill itself through Congress. FDR signed the Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act on 25 June 1938.

The new law brought cosmetics and medical devices under control, and it required that drugs be labeled with adequate directions for safe use. Moreover, it mandated pre-market approval of all new drugs, such that a manufacturer would have to prove to FDA that a drug were safe before it could be sold. It irrefutably prohibited false therapeutic claims for drugs, although a separate law granted the Federal Trade Commission jurisdiction over drug advertising. The act also corrected abuses in food packaging and quality, and it mandated legally enforceable food standards. Tolerances for certain poisonous substances were addressed. The law formally authorized factory inspections, and it added injunctions to the enforcement tools at the agency's disposal.

Drugs and Foods Under the 1938 Act and Its Amendments

Enforcement of the new law came swiftly. Within two months of the passage of the act, the FDA began to identify drugs such as the sulfas that simply could not be labeled for safe use directly by the patient--they would require a prescription from a physician. The ensuing debate by the FDA, industry, and health practitioners over what constituted a prescription and an over-the-counter drug was resolved in the Durham-Humphrey Amendment of 1951. From the 1940s to the 1960s, the abuse of amphetamines and barbiturates required more regulatory effort by FDA than all other drug problems combined. Furthermore, the new law ushered in a flood of new drugs applications, over 6,000 in the first nine years, and 13,000 by 1962.

Illegal sales of amphetamines and barbiturates occupied more regulatory concern at FDA than all other drug problems combined from the 1940s to the 1960s. Interdiction in some venues required undercover tactics, as indicated here by these two inspectors posing as truck drivers.

A new drug law in that year, the Kefauver-Harris Amendments, derived in large part from hearings held by Senator Estes Kefauver. As with the 1938 act, a therapeutic disaster compelled passage of the new law; in this case the disaster was narrowly averted. Thalidomide, a sedative that was never approved in this country, produced thousands of grossly deformed newborns outside of the United States. The new law mandated efficacy as well as safety before a drug could be marketed, required FDA to assess the efficacy of all drugs introduced since 1938, instituted stricter agency control over drug trials (including a requirement that patients involved must give their informed consent), transferred from the Federal Trade Commission to the FDA regulation of prescription drug advertising, established good manufacturing practices by the drug industry, and granted the FDA greater powers to access company production and control records to verify those practices. Three years later Congress gave the FDA enhanced control over amphetamines, barbiturates, hallucinogens, and other drugs of considerable abuse potential in the Drug Abuse Control Amendments of 1965. That function was consolidated with similar responsibilities in 1968 under an organization that gave rise to the Drug Enforcement Administration.

The first food standards to be issued under the 1938 act were for canned tomato products; by the 1960s about a woman holding a cone-shaped instrument about 3 feet long, half of the food supply was subject to a standard. As food technology changed and the number of possible ingredients--including fortifying nutrients--grew, the agency developed recipe standards for foods, lists of ingredients that could lawfully be included in a product. A food that varied from the recipe would have to be labeled an imitation.

Following hearings in the early 1950s under Representative James Delaney, a series of laws addressing pesticide residues (1954), food additives (1958), and color additives (1960) gave the FDA much tighter control over the growing list of chemicals entering the food supply, putting the onus on manufacturers to establish their safety. While tolerances could be established for many chemicals, a provision of the 1958 law, the Delaney Clause, banned any carcinogenic additive.

FDA pursued numerous cases of food misbranding in the 1950s and 1960s, most deriving from false nutritional claims and unscientific enrichment, with mixed success in the courts. In 1973, following hearings the agency convened to address the vitamin fortification of foods and the claims made for dietary supplements, the FDA issued regulations for special dietary foods, including vitamins and minerals. The public response to these regulations helped lead Congress in 1976 to prohibit the FDA from controlling the potency of dietary supplements, although the agency maintained authority to regulate enriched foods.

Regulating Cosmetics, Devices, and Veterinary Medicine After 1938

Quack products were the subject of most of FDA's device regulatory actions until the 1960s. Pictured here are assorted versions of orgone accumulators, developed by psychiatrist Wilhelm Reich to collect what he believed was an ethereal substance in the atmosphere vital to health and longevity.

Cosmetics and medical devices, which the Post Office Department and the Federal Trade Commission had overseen to a limited extent prior to 1938, came under FDA authority as well after 1938. While pre-market approval did not apply to devices, in every other sense the new law equated them to drugs for regulatory purposes. As the FDA had to deal with both increasing medical device quackery and a proliferation of medical technology in the post-World War II years, Congress considered a comparable device law when it passed the 1962 drug amendments. The legislation having failed to develop, the Secretary of HEW commissioned the Study Group on Medical Devices, which recommended in 1970 that medical devices be classified according to their comparative risk, and regulated accordingly. The 1976 Medical Device Amendments, coming on the heels of a therapeutic disaster in which thousands of women were injured by the Dalkon Shield intrauterine device, provided for three classes of medical devices, each requiring a different level of regulatory scrutiny-- up to pre-market approval.

The 1938 act required colors to be certified as harmless and suitable by the FDA for their use in cosmetics. The 1960 color amendments strengthened the safety requirement for color additives, necessitating additional testing for many existing color additives to meet the new safety standard. The FDA attempted to interpret the new law as applying to every ingredient of color-imparting products, such as lipstick and rouge, but the courts rebuffed this proposal.

TenDay Press-On Nail Polish generated at least 700 consumer complaints in 1957, including several cases in which the nails broke off or split down to the quick. In February 1958, following an FDA press release warning against these synthetic nails, the manufacturer launched a nationwide recall of the goods.

Another agency responsibility, veterinary medicine, had been stipulated since the 1906 act; foods included animal feed, and drugs included veterinary pharmaceuticals. Likewise, animal drugs were included in the provisions for new drugs under the 1938 law and the 1962 drug amendments. However, the Food Additives Amendment of 1958 had an impact too, since drugs used in animal feed were also considered additives--and thus subject to the provisions of the food additive petition process. The Delaney Clause prohibiting carcinogenic food additives was modified by the DES proviso in 1962, named for diethylstilbestrol, a hormone used against miscarriages in humans and to promote growth in food-producing animals. The proviso permitted the use of possible carcinogens in such animals as long as residues of the product did not remain in edible tissues. The Animal Drug Amendments of 1968 combined veterinary drugs and additives into a unified approval process under the authority of the Bureau of Animal Drugs in the FDA.

Trends in the Last Quarter-Century

In the late 1960s and 1970s the FDA lost some of its responsibilities but acquired many more. Shortly after a woman in a lab working with a Petri dish the FDA became a part of the Public Health Service, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare transferred several functions administered by other PHS agencies to the FDA, including regulation of food on planes and other interstate travel carriers, control over unnecessary radiation from consumer and professional electronic products, and pre-market licensing authority for therapeutic agents of biological origin. The latter originated under the predecessor of the National Institutes of Health in the Biologics Control Act of 1902, which followed the deaths of thirteen children from a tetanus-tainted batch of diphtheria antitoxin in St. Louis, and nine pediatric fatalities from similar circumstances in Camden, New Jersey. (At right, a scientist in FDA's Center for Biologics and Research is conducting research on the organism that causes the childhood disease pertussis.) Congress had authorized the FDA to regulate consumer products such as potential poisons, hazardous toys, and flammable fabrics in a number of laws dating back to 1927, but this function was transferred to the Consumer Product Safety Commission in 1973.

Changes in the work of the FDA have come rapidly in the past 20 years, shaped at least in part by political pressure, consumer activism, and industry involvement. Patient advocacy groups influenced a law to stimulate industry interest in developing so-called orphan drugs for rare diseases, and they played a role in the agency's development of accelerated techniques for drug approval, beginning with drugs for AIDS. Congress passed a law that simultaneously extended patent terms to account for time consumed by the drug approval process and facilitated the approval of generic human and animal drugs to offer a lower-cost alternative to brand name pharmaceuticals. Also, Congress instituted procedures for industry to reimburse the FDA for review of drugs and biologics to speed the agency's evaluations.

Other laws have mandated reporting of adverse reactions to medical devices, post-market monitoring of implants and other devices that pose a serious health risk, recall authority for the FDA over medical devices, and certification and annual inspection of mammography facilities.

Among food regulatory issues in the past two decades, Congress issued a singular prohibition against the FDA's banning saccharin under the Delaney Clause on the grounds that the sweetener had been shown to cause cancer in laboratory animals; instead, saccharin would have to carry a label warning. In 1990 Congress passed the Nutrition Labeling and Education Act, which completely reformulated the way food products convey basic nutritional information. Four years later, after intense lobbying by the dietary supplement industry, Congress permitted supplements to carry substantiated statements about the role of such products in health, provided they issued a disclaimer that FDA had not evaluated the statements. Moreover, the FDA rather than industry had the burden of proving that a dietary supplement was misbranded or adulterated.

The burgeoning interest in reinventing government and regulatory reform in the 1990s very much included the FDA, with the greatest interest focusing on the agency's time spent in evaluating therapeutic and other products. These were by no means original developments, at least as far as FDA was concerned. Numerous Congressional investigations, external and internal committee reports, independent fact-finding missions, and other venues of inquiry have studied the agency's mission and needs through much of the past century: precisely what one would expect for one of the oldest consumer regulatory agencies in the government, with such a broad responsibility for the public health, sometimes covering issues that have polarized large segments of American society. Such issues included sodium benzoate, sulfur dioxide, and other food preservatives during the Wiley era; Banbar in the 1930s; aminotriazole-tainted cranberries in the 1950s; vitamins in the 1970s; and breast implants in the 1990s. But these and other high visibility cases were just a small fraction of the agency's work, arcane to most of the public, but nevertheless a key ingredient in 20th century U.S. history.

(Link: <http://www.fda.gov/AboutFDA/WhatWeDo/History/default.htm>)

The National Park Service

By the Act of March 1, 1872, Congress established Yellowstone National Park in the Territories of Montana and Wyoming "as a public park or pleasuring-ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people" and placed it "under exclusive control of the Secretary of the Interior." The founding of Yellowstone National Park began a worldwide national park movement. Today more than 100 nations contain some 1,200 national parks or equivalent preserves.

In the years following the establishment of Yellowstone, the United States authorized additional national parks and monuments, many of them carved from the federal lands of the West. These, also, were administered by the Department of the Interior, while other monuments and natural and historical areas were administered by the War Department and the Forest Service of the Department of Agriculture. No single agency provided unified management of the varied federal parklands.

On August 25, 1916, President Woodrow Wilson signed the act creating the National Park Service, a new federal bureau in the Department of the Interior responsible for protecting the 35 national parks and monuments then managed by the department and those yet to be established. This "Organic Act" states that "the Service thus established shall promote and regulate the use of the Federal areas known as national parks, monuments and reservations...by such means and measures as conform to the fundamental purpose of the said parks, monuments and reservations, which purpose is to conserve the scenery and the natural and historic objects and the wild life therein and to provide for the enjoyment of the same in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations."

An Executive Order in 1933 transferred 56 national monuments and military sites from the Forest Service and the War Department to the National Park Service. This action was a major step in the development of today's truly national system of parks—a system that includes areas of historical as well as scenic and scientific importance. Congress declared in the General Authorities Act of 1970 "that the National Park System, which began with the establishment of Yellowstone National Park in 1872, has since grown to include superlative natural, historic, and recreation areas in every region...and that it is the purpose of this Act to include all such areas in the System...."

The National Park System of the United States now comprises more than 400 areas covering more than 84 million acres in 50 states, the District of Columbia, American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, Saipan, and the Virgin Islands. These areas are of such national significance as to justify special recognition and protection in accordance with various acts of Congress.

Additions to the National Park System are now generally made through acts of Congress, and national parks can be created only through such acts. But the President has authority, under the Antiquities Act of 1906, to proclaim national monuments on lands already under federal jurisdiction. The Secretary of the Interior is usually asked by Congress for recommendations on proposed additions to the System. The Secretary is counseled by the National Park System Advisory Board, composed of private citizens, which advises on possible additions to the System and policies for its management.

The National Park Service still strives to meet its original goals, while filling many other roles as well: guardian of our diverse cultural and recreational resources; environmental advocate; partner in community revitalization, world leader in the parks and preservation community; and pioneer in the drive to protect America's open space.

Today more than 20,000 National Park Service employees care for America's 400+ national parks and work with communities across the nation to help preserve local history and create close-to-home recreational opportunities.

A Partnership Program to Preserve and Reuse Federal Historic Properties

Federally-owned historic buildings that are no longer needed by the Federal government are declared surplus by the General Services Administration. The Department of Defense also uses the Historic Surplus Property Program to dispose of historic military bases that have been closed.

States, counties, municipalities, and other governmental entities are eligible to acquire a surplus property at no cost if the property is listed in, or eligible for listing in, the National Register of Historic Places. Custom houses, office buildings, and military buildings have all been transferred under this program.

Transferred properties may be used for a wide variety of public facilities or revenue-producing activities. Private and not-for-profit organizations cannot acquire property under this program, but they may enter into long-term leases with recipients of historic surplus properties. Private developers with a long-term lease may be eligible to take advantage of Federal Historic Preservation Tax Incentives.

The National Park Service works with applicants who are acquiring historic properties, provides guidance to ensure that any work on the property meets the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Rehabilitation, and approves applicants' leases to other organizations.

Questions about historic properties in specific states can be directed to the National Park Service regional coordinators.

Under 40 U.S.C. 550(b) and (e), the National Park Service's Federal Lands to Parks Program conveys surplus federal land to communities, usually at no cost, for public park and recreation purposes. Over 1,575 properties, approximately 178,000 acres, have been transferred to state and local governments for parks and recreation areas since the program's inception in 1949. The Program also helps assure continued public access and stewardship of resources.

The Federal Lands to Parks Program assist communities in getting land from the federal government, from finding out and applying, through getting ownership. The program advocates on behalf of the communities for acquisition of the appropriate land and helps ensure permanent public recreational use and stewardship of the land conveyed for park use.

By participating in the Federal Lands to Parks Program, communities throughout the nation have

- Expanded park and recreational amenities to play sports, improve quality of life, help revitalization efforts and attract businesses
- Protected open spaces, extended hiking trails, and opened boating and fishing access

- Preserved historical and natural resources such as forts and lighthouses, shorelines and wildlife habitat
- Converted abandoned military bases into widely used, productive recreational assets
- Renewed a sense of community among neighbors through community gardens, senior and cultural centers, local parks, and other gathering places

The National Park Service also houses the Historic Surplus Property Program, a related program specifically for historic properties, and the Maritime Heritage Program which will provide information on historic light stations.

In the 1960s, the country awoke to the fact that our rivers were being dammed, dredged, diked, diverted and degraded at an alarming rate. To lend balance to our history of use and abuse of our waterways, Congress created the National Wild and Scenic Rivers System in 1968. With this act it became the policy of the United States that certain selected rivers of the Nation, and their immediate environments, that possess outstandingly remarkable scenic, recreational, geologic, fish and wildlife, historic, cultural or other similar values, should be preserved in free-flowing condition. Rivers in this national system are protected for the benefit and enjoyment of present and future generations.

As a subset of the National Wild and Scenic Rivers System, Partnership Wild and Scenic Rivers are preserved and managed through a partnership of adjacent communities, state governments and the National Park Service. Communities protect their own outstanding rivers and river-related resources.

Twelve Wild and Scenic Rivers are currently managed through this collaborative approach. The Farmington (Connecticut), Great Egg Harbor (New Jersey), Lamprey (New Hampshire), Lower Delaware (New Jersey/Pennsylvania), Maurice and tributaries (New Jersey), Muscontcong (New Jersey), Sudbury, Assabet, and Concord Rivers (Massachusetts), Wekiva (Florida), Westfield (Massachusetts), and White Clay Creek (Delaware/Pennsylvania) and the recently designated Eightmile (Connecticut) and Taunton River (Massachusetts).

Congress proposes additions to the National Wild and Scenic River System and now in two cases the National Park Service is providing staff support and overall coordination to study these rivers. Community leadership and involvement in the study process is critical for proposed partnership rivers. The studies provide an important opportunity for towns to work together at a watershed-scale.

The National Historic Lighthouse Preservation Act of 2000 (NHLPA) (54 USC 305101-305106) (formerly at 16 USC 470w-7), an amendment to the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, provides a mechanism for the disposal of Federally-owned historic light stations that have been declared excess to the needs of the responsible agency.

The NHLPA recognizes the cultural, recreational, and educational value associated with historic light station properties by allowing them to be transferred at no cost to Federal agencies, State and local governments, nonprofit corporations, educational agencies, and community development organizations. These entities must agree to comply with conditions set forth in the NHLPA and be financially able to maintain the historic light station. The eligible entity to which the historic light station is conveyed must make the station available for education, park, recreation, cultural, or historic preservation purposes for the general public at reasonable times and under reasonable conditions.

Only those light stations that are listed, or determined eligible for listing, in the National Register of Historic Places can be conveyed under this program. The nomination for listing, or determination of eligibility, is prepared by the U.S. Coast Guard (USCG) following guidelines set forth in 36 CFR 60.9(c) and 36 CFR 63, respectively, as part of their responsibilities prior to the property being transferred to the GSA inventory for disposal. Light stations that are not eligible for listing will be disposed of through other processes.

Prior to the NHLPA, historic lighthouses could be transferred to state or local agencies through the National Park Service's Historic Surplus Property Program or the Federal Lands to Parks Program.

From 1963 to 1993, while happy families, couples, and adventurers drove I-90 through South Dakota on their way to Mount Rushmore or Yellowstone, missileers sat underground. They sat ready for an emergency war order to launch the most destructive nuclear weapons produced by the United States. One thousand of these weapons, or Minuteman missiles, were installed in the northern Great Plains, each with warheads sixty times more powerful than the atomic bomb dropped on Hiroshima in 1945. South Dakota was home to 150 of these missiles, with each group of 10 missiles controlled by two Air Force officers in a remote, underground control center. Launch Control Facility Delta-01 and Launch Facility (missile silo) Delta-09 are all that remain of that incredible force once deployed under South Dakota's soil. These sites are now open to visitors to explore and learn more about the Cold War and the role that the Minuteman II Intercontinental Ballistic Missile System played within it.

Minuteman Missile National Historic Site began with the signing of the Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START) in 1991 by George HW Bush and Mikhail Gorbachev. Written into the language of the treaty was the ability for both the U.S. and Soviet sides to retain missile sites for historic preservation purposes. After being transferred to the National Park Service from the United States Air Force in 2002, Delta-01 and Delta-09 were opened to the visiting public with limited tours and were an immediate hit. The site is now open year-round offering daily ranger-led tours of Delta-01, allowing a glimpse into the frontline of the Cold War.

A visit to Minuteman Missile National Historic Site begins at its new visitor center. In late 2015, new exhibits will be installed that encourage visitors to re-think the Cold War. How many nuclear weapons actually existed during that time period? How did the Minuteman Program defend our country if it was never used? Was it top secret? What was a day in the life of a Cold War soldier? To learn the answers to these and other questions, visitors can acquire tickets to tour the Delta-01 Launch Control Facility and its underground Control Center from a ranger at the information desk, or ask how to visit the Delta Nine missile silo, where visitors can see a Minuteman II missile preserved in its historic state. A visit in the summer of 2016 will allow visitors to experience a feature film currently in production.

Nearly 25 years after the START Treaty retired 450 Minuteman II missiles, hundreds of Minuteman III missiles remain on alert, as a critical component of America's defense. Nuclear weapons are more relevant than ever in the current changing global political climate. Minuteman Missile National Historic Site provides visitors insight into the U.S. policy of nuclear deterrence— not only how it worked during the Cold War, but how it may prevent global nuclear war among new enemies in the future.

“Scenery is a hollow enjoyment to the tourist who sets out in the morning after an indigestible breakfast and a fitful night's sleep on an impossible bed.”

Stephen T. Mather, first Director of the National Park Service

As evidenced by the quote above, Director Mather believed that only a well-rested and well-fed visitor would be fully capable of appreciating the wonders of our national parks. Private companies have promoted the parks and served visitors since Yellowstone National Park was designated in 1872. The present-day Commercial Services Program is mindful of this legacy, ensuring that visitors have access to high-quality visitor services in order to fully appreciate our natural and cultural treasures.

Concessioners fill a vital role in helping the National Park Service (NPS) carry out its mission. Private companies are drawn to working with NPS in order to offer services to park visitors, which are not provided directly by the government. Concessioners specialize in these operations and are thus able to provide quality services at reasonable prices. By welcoming the private sector as a partner in park operations, the National Park Service broadens the economic base of the region and communities surrounding the parks.

In concert with other NPS divisions, the Commercial Services Program administers more than 500 concession contracts that, in total, gross over \$1 billion annually. NPS concessioners employ more than 25,000 people in a variety of fields during peak seasons, providing services ranging from food service and lodging, to whitewater rafting adventures and motor coach tours. As stated in the Concessions Management Improvement Act of 1998, concession operations "are consistent to the highest practicable degree with the preservation and conservation of resources and values of the park unit."

(Link: <https://www.nps.gov/aboutus/history.htm>)

The White House History

This is really what the White House is all about. It's the "People's House." It's a place that is steeped in history, but it's also a place where everyone should feel welcome. And that's why my husband and I have made it our mission to open up the house to as many people as we can.

- Michelle Obama

Our first president, George Washington, selected the site for the White House in 1791. The cornerstone was laid in 1792 and a competition design submitted by Irish-born architect James Hoban was chosen. After eight years of construction, President John Adams and his wife, Abigail, moved into the unfinished house in 1800. During the War of 1812, the British set fire to the President's House in 1814. James Hoban was appointed to rebuild the house, and President James Monroe moved into the building in 1817. During Monroe's administration, the South Portico was constructed in 1824, and Andrew Jackson oversaw the addition of the North Portico in 1829.

During the late 19th century, various proposals were made to significantly expand the President's House or to build an entirely new house for the president, but these plans were never realized. In 1902, President Theodore Roosevelt began a major renovation of the White House, including the relocation of the president's offices from the Second Floor of the Residence to the newly constructed temporary Executive Office Building (now known as the West Wing). The Roosevelt renovation was planned and carried out by the famous New York architectural firm McKim, Mead and White. Roosevelt's successor, President William Howard Taft, had the Oval Office constructed within an enlarged office wing.

Less than fifty years after the Roosevelt renovation, the White House was showing signs of serious structural weakness. President Harry S. Truman began a renovation of the building in which everything but the outer walls were dismantled. The reconstruction was overseen by architect Lorenzo Winslow, and the Truman family moved back into the White House in 1952.

Every president since John Adams has occupied the White House, and the history of this building extends far beyond the construction of its walls. From the Ground Floor Corridor rooms, transformed from their early use as service areas, to the State Floor rooms, where countless leaders and dignitaries have been entertained, the White House is both the home of the President of the United States his family and a museum of American history. The White House is a place where history continues to unfold.

White House Trivia

- There are 132 rooms, 35 bathrooms, and 6 levels in the Residence. There are also 412 doors, 147 windows, 28 fireplaces, 8 staircases, and 3 elevators.
- At various times in history, the White House has been known as the "President's Palace," the "President's House," and the "Executive Mansion." President Theodore Roosevelt officially gave the White House its current name in 1901.

- Presidential Firsts while in office... President James Polk (1845-49) was the first President to have his photograph taken... President Theodore Roosevelt (1901-09) was not only the first President to ride in an automobile, but also the first President to travel outside the country when he visited Panama... President Franklin Roosevelt (1933-45) was the first President to ride in an airplane.
- The White House kitchen is able to serve dinner to as many as 140 guests and hors d'oeuvres to more than 1,000.
- The White House requires 570 gallons of paint to cover its outside surface.

(Link: <https://www.whitehouse.gov/about/inside-white-house>)

Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)

Born in the wake of elevated concern about environmental pollution, EPA was established on December 2, 1970 to consolidate in one agency a variety of federal research, monitoring, standard-setting and enforcement activities to ensure environmental protection. Since its inception, EPA has been working for a cleaner, healthier environment for the American people.

American environmentalism dawned as a popular movement on a mild spring afternoon in 1970. Wednesday, April 22nd, brought blue skies, light breezes, and temperatures in the 60s to New York City and Washington, D.C. Much of the rest of the country enjoyed similar conditions. On that day, the influence of nature had particular meaning; the nation held a celebration of clean air, land, and water. Encouraged by the retreat of winter, millions participated.

The first Earth Day may have been prompted, in part, by the recent moon landings. When the astronauts turned their cameras homeward, capturing the image of a delicate blue planet, the world looked upon itself with fresh understanding. The context of Earth Day 1970, however, was far from celestial, reflecting the turbulence of the time. Since the mid-1960s, the streets has become a common outlet for political and social discontent. Yet Earth Day, forged in an era of strife and change, had its own personality; marijuana smoke may have hung in wisps over some of the day's festivities, but violence and confrontation were nowhere to be seen.

In America's largest city, Mayor John V. Lindsey decided to commemorate the day in high style, closing traffic for two hours on Fifth Avenue, from 14th Street to Central Park. Along its broad path, multitudes choked the streets and sidewalks. Much of the crowd's interest centered on Union Square, a crossroads of political ferment during the 1930s. This day, "many more than" 100,000 onlookers saw teach-ins, lectures, and a non-stop frisbee game at the famous intersection. An ecological Mardi Gras lasting from noon to midnight sprang up along 14th Street from Third to Seventh Avenues. While folksinger Odetta sang "We Shall Overcome," a rock band played the Beatles' anthem, "Power to the People." In Washington, D.C., Congress suspended business as most of its members, regardless of ideology, felt compelled to appear before their constituents. President Nixon kept a regular schedule at the White House.

Predecessor: Conservation

While Earth Day launched the idea of environmentalism in its present sense, the realization of the value of wilderness and an appreciation of the consequences of its destruction dates back several centuries in America. For example, as early as 1652, the city of Boston established a public water supply, a step followed in the next century by several towns in Pennsylvania. By 1800, 17 municipalities had taken similar measures to protect their citizens against unfit drinking sources. Still, anyone living in the great cities of New York, Philadelphia, Charleston, and Boston just after the American revolution could not escape the ill-effects of expanding urbanization: the stench of sewage in near-by rivers; the unwholesome presence of animal and human wastes underfoot; the odors of rotting food; the jangling shouts of vendors in narrow lanes; and the constant grinding of hooves and iron wagon wheels on unpaved streets.

Industrialism in the nineteenth century widened the impact of environmental degradation. Literary people were the first to sense the meaning of this trend. Herman Melville's epic novel *Moby Dick* (1851) and Henry David Thoreau's *Walden, or Life in the Woods* (1854)

emphasized, respectively, the power and the tranquility of nature. A second generation of writers, perhaps sobered by the final settlement of the American West, wrote without fictional guise. John Burroughs published 27 volumes of intimate, experiential nature essays. John Muir, the Scottish prophet of the rugged outdoors, set down his observations in a series of books, beginning with *The Mountains of California* in 1894.

President Theodore Roosevelt, who undertook a western camping trip with Muir in 1903, came to symbolize the campaign for conservation, which gained steadily in political popularity. During and after his Administration, the use and retention of natural resources became a preoccupation of government.

President Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal enacted a number of natural resource measures. The Soil Conservation Service, founded in 1935, applied scientific practices to reduce the erosion of agricultural land. The depletion of animal life received recognition in the passage of the 1937 Pittman-Robertson Act, establishing a fund for state fish and wildlife programs from the proceeds of federal taxes on hunting and fishing equipment. Most ambitious of all, the Tennessee Valley Authority erected nine dams and a string of massive generating stations.

From Ecology To Environmentalism

The definition of wilderness as an immense natural storehouse, subject to human management, changed after the Second World War. Life on the battle front, as well as the home front, curbed the country's appetite for colossal federal projects. Moreover, the almost immediate demobilization of the armed forces in 1945 and 1946 resulted in an unprecedented national birthrate. Cheap home loans for veterans pushed suburban settlement far beyond the city skylines. As the middle class found itself living on the edges of open lands, political questions surfaced about the preservation of the landscape just over the back fence. The concept of ecology--which valued esthetics and biology over efficiency and commerce--began to penetrate the public mind.

The growth of the cities also made plain the evils of pollution. Media stories covered radioactive fallout and its effect on the food chain, dangerous impurities in urban water supplies, and the deterioration of city air. The subtle metaphor of a "web of life," in which all creatures depended upon one another for their mutual perpetuation, gained common currency. Hence, the powerful reaction to Rachel Carson's 1962 classic *Silent Spring*, a quietly shocking tale about the widespread pesticide poisoning of man and nature. Her book elicited a public outcry for direct government action to protect the wild; not for its future exploitation, but for its own innate value.

In the process of transforming ecology from dispassionate science to activist creed, Carson unwittingly launched the modern idea of environmentalism: a political movement which demanded the state not only preserve the Earth, but act to regulate and punish those who polluted it. Sensing the electoral advantage from such advocacy, Presidents Kennedy and Johnson added the environment to their speeches and legislative programs. In his 1964 and 1965 messages to Congress, Lyndon Johnson spoke forcefully about safeguarding wilderness and repairing damaged environments.

Richard Nixon showed as much eagerness as his predecessors to profit from the issue, and he invoked it during the bitter presidential election of 1968. As President, however, he acted with ambivalence, moving in two directions at once. On one hand, he raised eyebrows by appointing a

National Pollution Control Council, a Commerce Department body comprised solely of corporate executives. He also vetoed the second Clean Water Act. At the same time, in 1969 and 1970, he approved and directed a succession of sweeping measures which vastly expanded the federal regulatory protections afforded the environment.

An Environmental Revolution

Just four months after his January 1969 inauguration, President Nixon established in his cabinet the Environmental Quality Council, as well as a complementary Citizens' Advisory Committee on Environmental Quality. Opponents denounced both as ceremonial and Nixon, ever sensitive to criticism, rose to the challenge. He had already asked Roy L. Ash, the founder of Litton Industries, to lead an Advisory Council on Executive Organization and submit recommendations for structural reform. In November, the President's Domestic Council instructed Ash to study whether all federal environmental activities should be unified in one agency. During meetings in spring 1970, Ash at first expressed a preference for a single department to oversee both environmental and natural resource management. But by April he had changed his mind; in a memorandum to the President he advocated a separate regulatory agency devoted solely to the pursuit of anti-pollution programs.

Forging such an institution actually represented the final step in a quick march towards national environmental consciousness. Congress recognized the potency of the issue in late 1969 by passing the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA). This statute recast the government's role: formerly the conservator of wilderness, it now became the protector of earth, air, land, and water. The law declared Congressional intent to "create and maintain conditions under which man and nature can exist in productive harmony," and to "assure for all Americans safe, healthful, productive, esthetically and culturally pleasing surroundings." Henceforth, all federal agencies planning projects bearing on the environment were compelled to submit reports accounting for the likely consequences--the now famous Environmental Impact Statements (EISs).

Secondly, NEPA directed the President to assemble in his Cabinet a Council on Environmental Quality. Undersecretary of the Interior Russell E. Train agreed to be its first chairman. The Council's three members and staff would assist the President by preparing an annual Environmental Quality Report to Congress, gathering data, and advising on policy. Signing the Act with fanfare on New Year's Day 1970, Nixon observed that he had "become further convinced that the 1970s absolutely must be the years when America pays its debt to the past by reclaiming the purity of its air, its waters, and our living environment. It is," he said, "literally now or never."

Pressing the initiative in his State of the Union Address three weeks later, the President proclaimed the new decade a period of environmental transformation. On February 10, he presented the House and Senate an unprecedented 37-point message on the environment, requesting four billion dollars for the improvement of water treatment facilities; asking for national air quality standards and stringent guidelines to lower motor vehicle emissions; and launching federally-funded research to reduce automobile pollution. Nixon also ordered a clean-up of federal facilities which had fouled air and water, sought legislation to end the dumping of wastes into the Great Lakes, proposed a tax on lead additives in gasoline, forwarded to Congress

a plan to tighten safeguards on the seaborne transportation of oil, and approved a National Contingency Plan for the treatment of petroleum spills.

An Agency For The Environment

Having dispatched these initiatives in spring, by early July the Administration could concentrate its full attention on the capstone of its program. Acting on Roy Ash's advice, the President decided to establish an autonomous regulatory body to oversee the enforcement of environmental policy. In a message to the House and Senate, he declared his intention to establish the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and left no doubts about its far-reaching powers. Nixon declared that its mission would center on:

- The establishment and enforcement of environmental protection standards consistent with national environmental goals.
- The conduct of research on the adverse effects of pollution and on methods and equipment for controlling it; the gathering of information on pollution; and the use of this information in strengthening environmental protection programs and recommending policy changes.
- Assisting others, through grants, technical assistance and other means, in arresting pollution of the environment.
- Assisting the Council on Environmental Quality in developing and recommending to the President new policies for the protection of the environment.

The President accompanied his statement with Reorganization Plan Number 3, dated July 9, 1970, in which he informed Congress of his wish to assemble the EPA from the sinews of three federal Departments, three Bureaus, three Administrations, two Councils, one Commission, one Service, and many diverse offices. The Interior Department would yield the Federal Water Quality Administration, as well as all of its pesticides work. The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare would contribute the National Air Pollution Control Administration, the Food and Drug Administration's pesticides research, and the Bureaus of Solid Waste Management, Water Hygiene, and (portions of) the Bureau of Radiological Health. The Agriculture Department would cede the pesticides activities undertaken by the Agricultural Research Service, while the Atomic Energy Commission and the Federal Radiation Council would vest radiation criteria and standards in the proposed agency. Finally, the Council on Environmental Quality's ecological research would be transferred to EPA.

The hearings on EPA, held in summer 1970, essentially supported the President. The House Government Operations Subcommittee on Executive and Legislative Reorganization, chaired by Congressman Chet Holifield of California, convened on July 22, 23, and August 4, to take testimony on Reorganization Plan Number 3. Lead witness Russell Train gave it unqualified support, predicting that its "vision of clean air and water...will provide us with the unity and the leadership necessary to protect the environment." Roy Ash testified the following day about the fragmented state of pollution control, the continuation of which "will seriously limit our solving the problem even as we expand our commitment to preserve and restore the quality of our environment."

Meanwhile, witnesses appeared on July 28 and 29 before the Senate Government Operations Subcommittee on Executive Reorganization and Government Research, chaired by Senator Abraham Ribicoff of Connecticut. During these hearings, Senator Jacob Javits of New York perhaps expressed the prevailing mood of the Congress when he described the new organization as a "very strong and overdue effort to arrest and prevent the erosion of the priceless resources of all mankind and also to preserve that most priceless asset, the human being himself, who, in a singularly polluted atmosphere, may find it impossible to exist."

Congressman John Dingell of Michigan presented the only serious alternatives to Reorganization Plan Number 3. A strong willed conservationist, Dingell wondered why the EPA encompassed neither water and sewer programs in the Departments of Agriculture and Housing and Urban Development, nor the environmental operations of the Defense and Transportation Departments. He proposed that instead of erecting EPA, the House consider a more comprehensive, cabinet-level Department of Environmental Quality. Despite his suggestion, both subcommittees approved the President's proposal and issued reports: the Holifield Committee on September 23, the Ribicoff panel six days later. Having cleared all its statutory hurdles, on December 2, 1970, the Environmental Protection Agency would at last open its doors.

The First Administrator

While the EPA plan underwent Congressional scrutiny, practical preparations proceeded at the Office of Management and Budget. A nine-man Task Force on EPA Organization met through summer and fall 1970 to design the structure of the new institution. By early October, the participating government Departments informed their employees of the transfer of functions and personnel entailed in establishing the new agency. Finally, on November 6, 1970, President Nixon announced his intention to nominate William D. Ruckelshaus to be the first Administrator.

A graduate of Princeton University and Harvard Law School, the 38-year-old Indianan had already compiled an impressive record of government service. At the age of 28 he was appointed a Deputy State Attorney General and in that capacity drafted the Indiana Air Pollution Control Act of 1963. In 1967, Ruckelshaus sought elective office and not only won a Republican seat in the state House of Representatives, but also became the first person to be named Majority Leader during his initial term. A rising political star, he was nominated to run for the U.S. Senate, but lost in the general election. At the time of his selection to head EPA, Ruckelshaus was serving in the Department of Justice as Assistant Attorney General for the Civil Division.

During his confirmation hearings on December 1 and 2, Ruckelshaus received a warm reception from the Senate Committee on Public Works. His first words to the Senators not only laid the basis for his term as Administrator, but for the future of the Agency itself.

"I think that enforcement is a very important function of this new Agency. Obviously, if we are to make progress in pollution abatement, we must have a firm enforcement policy at the federal level. That does not mean that this policy will be unfair, that it will not be evenhanded, but it does mean that it will be firm.... [A]s far as I view the mission of this Agency and my mission as its proposed Administrator, it is to be as forceful as the laws that Congress has provided, and to present...firm support [for] enforcement [by] the States."

After taking the Oath of Office on December 4, 1970 the Administrator of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency officially welcomed his staff, transferred just two days before from their former agencies and departments. William Ruckelshaus appealed to their zeal and sense of mission as they joined the newest independent federal agency, asking them to "keep moving ahead with the valuable work which is already underway [and] give us your ideas, your hard work and support in building a new and effective organization."

Women were at the forefront of the environmental movement long before the first Earth Day in 1970. Outstanding women like Rachel Carson and Hazel Johnson dedicated their lives to teaching us how, when we protect the environment, and also protect our health and our communities. You can learn more about the history of women's leadership on the environment through the White House project on the untold history of women in science, technology, engineering and math (STEM fields). Every Women's History Month, EPA celebrates the work of Rachel Carson, Hazel Johnson, and the work of many other women who are taking action on climate, clean water and other big issues

(Link: <https://www.epa.gov/history>)

United States Agency for International Development (USAID)

When the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) was created, it brought together several existing foreign assistance organizations and programs. Until then, there had never been a single agency charged with foreign economic development, so with the passage of the Foreign Assistance Act of 1961 by Congress, U.S. foreign assistance activities underwent a major transformation.

Leading this transformation was President John F. Kennedy. President Kennedy recognized the need to unite development into a single agency responsible for administering aid to foreign countries to promote social and economic development. On November 3, 1961, USAID was born and with it a spirit of progress and innovation. November 3, 2011 marked USAID's 50th Anniversary of providing U.S. foreign development assistance From the American People. Our workforce and USAID's culture continues to serve as a reflection of core American values-- values that are rooted in a belief for doing the right thing.

"There is no escaping our obligations: our moral obligations as a wise leader and good neighbor in the interdependent community of free nations – our economic obligations as the wealthiest people in a world of largely poor people, as a nation no longer dependent upon the loans from abroad that once helped us develop our own economy – and our political obligations as the single largest counter to the adversaries of freedom." – John F. Kennedy

Early International Development Efforts

The modern-day concept of international development assistance took shape after World War II ended in 1945. George C. Marshall, the Secretary of State from 1947 to 1949 provided significant financial and technical assistance to Europe after the war. Famously known as the Marshall Plan, this was a successful effort that allowed Europe to rebuild its infrastructure, strengthen its economy, and stabilize the region.

International Aid Becomes Foreign Policy

Building on the success of the Marshall Plan, President Harry S. Truman proposed an international development assistance program in 1949. The 1950 Point Four Program focused on two goals:

- Creating markets for the United States by reducing poverty and increasing production in developing countries
- Diminishing the threat of communism by helping countries prosper under capitalism

From 1952 to 1961, programs supporting technical assistance and capital projects continued as the primary form of U.S. aid, and were a key component of U.S. foreign policy. During this time, government leaders established various precursor organizations to USAID, including the:

- Mutual Security Agency
- Foreign Operations Administration
- International Cooperation Administration

International Aid in the 1960s: An Agency is Born

In 1961, President Kennedy signed the Foreign Assistance Act into law and created USAID by executive order. Once USAID got to work, international development assistance opportunities grew tremendously. The time during the Kennedy and Johnson administrations became known as the “decade of development.”

International Aid in the 1970s: A Shift to Basic Human Needs

In the 1970s, the USAID began to shift its focus away from technical and capital assistance programs. Instead, U.S. development assistance stressed a “basic human needs” approach, which focused on:

- Food and nutrition
- Population planning
- Health
- Education
- Human resources development

International Aid in the 1980s: A Turn to Free Markets

In the 1980s, foreign assistance sought to stabilize currencies and financial systems. It also promoted market-based principles to restructure developing countries' policies and institutions. During this decade, USAID reaffirmed its commitment to broad-based economic growth, emphasizing employment and income opportunities through a revitalization of agriculture and expansion of domestic markets. In this decade, development activities were increasingly channeled through private voluntary organizations (PVOs), and aid shifted from individual projects to large programs.

International Aid in the 1990s: Sustainability and Democracy

In the 1990s, USAID's top priority became sustainable development, or helping countries improve their own quality of life. During this decade, USAID tailored development assistance programs to a country's economic condition, which meant that:

- Developing countries received an integrated package of assistance
- Transitional countries received help in times of crisis
- Countries with limited USAID presence received support through nongovernmental organizations (NGOs)

USAID played a lead role in planning and implementing programs following the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989. USAID programs helped establish functioning democracies with open, market-oriented economic systems and responsive social safety nets.

International Aid in the 2000s: War and Rebuilding

The 2000s, brought more evolution for USAID and foreign assistance with government officials once again calling for reform of how the agency conducts business. With the Afghanistan and Iraq wars in full swing, USAID was called on to help those two countries rebuild government, infrastructure, civil society and basic services such as health care and education. The Agency began rebuilding with an eye to getting the most bang out of its funding allocations. It also began an aggressive campaign to reach out to new partner organizations – including the private sector and foundations – to extend the reach of foreign assistance.

Today, USAID staff work in more than 100 countries around the world with the same overarching goals that President Kennedy outlined 50 years ago – furthering America's foreign policy interests in expanding democracy and free markets while also extending a helping hand to people struggling to make a better life, recover from a disaster or striving to live in a free and democratic country. It is this caring that stands as a hallmark of the United States around the world.

In 2013, USAID launched a new mission statement to end extreme poverty and promote resilient, democratic societies. This work includes steps to diversify the streams of capital that finance development, improve the way progress is measured and invest in force multipliers like science, technology, innovation and partnership to accelerate impact.

In an interconnected world, instability anywhere around the world can impact us here at home. Working side-by-side with the military in active conflicts, USAID plays a critical role in our nation's effort to stabilize countries and build responsive local governance; we work on the same problems as our military using a different set of tools. We also ease the transition between conflict and long-term development by investing in agriculture, health systems and democratic institutions. And while USAID can work in active conflict, or help countries transition from violence, the most important thing we can do is prevent conflict in the first place. This is smarter, safer and less costly than sending in soldiers.

USAID extends help from the American people to achieve results for the poorest and most vulnerable around the world. That assistance does not represent a Democratic value or a Republican value, but an American value; as beneficiaries of peace and prosperity, Americans have a responsibility to assist those less fortunate so we see the day when our assistance is no longer necessary.

USAID invests in ideas that work to improve the lives of millions of men, women and children by:

- Investing in agricultural productivity so countries can feed their people

- Combating maternal and child mortality and deadly diseases like HIV, malaria and tuberculosis
- Providing life-saving assistance in the wake of disaster
- Promoting democracy, human rights and good governance around the world
- Fostering private sector development and sustainable economic growth
- Helping communities adapt to a changing environment
- Elevating the role of women and girls throughout all our work

(Link: <https://www.usaid.gov/who-we-are/usaid-history>)

U.S. Department of Energy

The Department of Energy has one of the richest and most diverse histories in the Federal Government. Although only in existence since 1977, the Department traces its lineage to the Manhattan Project effort to develop the atomic bomb during World War II and to the various energy-related programs that previously had been dispersed throughout various Federal agencies.

The Department of Energy Organization Act of 1977 created one of the most interesting and diverse agencies in the Federal government. Activated on October 1, 1977, the twelfth cabinet-level department brought together for the first time within one agency two programmatic traditions that had long coexisted within the Federal establishment: 1) defense responsibilities that included the design, construction, and testing of nuclear weapons dating from the Manhattan Project effort to build the atomic bomb, and 2) a loosely knit amalgamation of energy-related programs scattered throughout the Federal government.

DOE's Two Programmatic Traditions

In August 1939, on the eve of World War II, Albert Einstein wrote to President Franklin D. Roosevelt, informing him that recent research showed that a nuclear chain reaction might make possible the construction of "extremely powerful bombs." In response, Roosevelt initiated a Federal research program, and, in 1942, the Army Corps of Engineers established the Manhattan Engineer District to design and produce the first atomic bomb. Following the war, Congress engaged in a contentious debate over civilian versus military control of the atom. The Atomic Energy Act of 1946 settled the debate by creating the Atomic Energy Commission (AEC), which took over the Manhattan Project's sprawling scientific and industrial complex.

During the early Cold War years, the AEC focused on designing and producing nuclear weapons and developing nuclear reactors for naval propulsion. The Atomic Energy Act of 1954 ended exclusive government use of the atom and began the growth of the commercial nuclear power industry, giving the AEC authority to regulate the new industry.

Until the 1970s, the Federal government played a limited role in formulating national energy policy in an era of relatively cheap and abundant energy. The nation relied on the private sector to fulfill most of its energy needs. Historically, Americans expected private industry to establish production, distribution, marketing, and pricing policies. When free market conditions were absent, Federal regulations were established to control energy pricing.

No overall energy policy existed. Government officials generally thought in terms of particular fuels, technologies, and resources rather than "energy."

The Energy Crisis and the Department of Energy

What brought these two traditions together in the Department of Energy were two factors. First, the AEC's activities in developing and commercializing nuclear energy represented the Federal government's largest and most significant energy project into the early 1970s. Second, the energy crisis of the mid-1970s hastened a series of government reorganizations as both the executive and legislative branches sought to better coordinate Federal energy policy and programs.

The establishment of the Department of Energy brought most Federal energy activities under one umbrella and provided the framework for a comprehensive and balanced national energy plan. The Department undertook responsibility for long-term, high-risk research and development of energy technology, Federal power marketing, energy conservation, the nuclear weapons program, energy regulatory programs, and a central energy data collection and analysis program.

Security and Prosperity through World-Class Science

Over its thirty-five year history, the Department of Energy has shifted its emphasis and focus as the needs of the nation have changed. During the late 1970s, the Department emphasized energy development and regulation. In the 1980s, nuclear weapons research, development, and production took a priority. With the end of the Cold war, the Department focused on environmental cleanup of the nuclear weapons complex and nonproliferation and stewardship of the nuclear stockpile.

In the 2000s, the Department's priority has been ensuring the nation's security and prosperity by addressing its energy, environmental and nuclear challenges through science and technology solutions. The Department has sought to transform the nation's energy system and secure leadership in clean energy technologies, pursue world-class science and engineering as a cornerstone of economic prosperity, and enhance nuclear security through defense, nonproliferation, and environmental efforts.

Current Program Offices:

- Advanced Research Projects Agency - Energy
- Loan Programs Office
- Office of Electricity Delivery & Energy Reliability
- Office of Energy Efficiency & Renewable Energy
- Office of Environmental Management
- Office of Fossil Energy
- Office of Indian Energy Policy and Programs
- Office of Legacy Management
- Office of Nuclear Energy
- Office of Science

Current Labs & Technology Centers:

- Argonne National Laboratory
- Brookhaven National Laboratory
- Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory
- Idaho National Laboratory
- Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory
- Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory
- Los Alamos National Laboratory
- National Energy Technology Laboratory

- National Renewable Energy Laboratory
- New Brunswick Laboratory
- Oak Ridge Institute for Science and Education
- Oak Ridge National Laboratory
- Pacific Northwest National Laboratory
- Princeton Plasma Physics Laboratory
- Radiological and Environmental Sciences Laboratory
- Sandia National Laboratories
- Savannah River Ecology Laboratory
- Savannah River National Laboratory
- SLAC National Accelerator Laboratory
- Thomas Jefferson National Accelerator Facility

Current Field Sites:

- Carlsbad Field Office
- Environmental Management Los Alamos Field Office
- Golden Field Office
- Idaho Operations Office
- Oak Ridge Office of Environmental Management
- Office of River Protection
- Office of Science Field Offices
- Portsmouth/Paducah Project Office
- Richland Operations Office
- Rocky Mountain Oilfield Testing Center
- Savannah River Operations Office

The Department has made available to researchers and the general public a rich variety of materials and information:

- Historical Resources, including published and online histories of the Department and its predecessor agencies and information on records, exhibits, museums, and tours available online and at various locations both within and outside the Department. Major publications and websites can be found on the History Publications page.
- A detailed Timeline of the Department and its predecessor agencies that includes links to reports, speeches, press releases, and other documentation.
- All things Manhattan Project, including histories, websites, a listing of the Manhattan Project Signature Facilities, and background on the proposed Manhattan Project National Historical Park. In July 2013, the Department launched The Manhattan Project: Resources, a website designed to disseminate information and documentation on the Manhattan Project to a broad audience including scholars, students, and the general public. The Manhattan Project: Resources consists of two parts: 1) The Manhattan

Project: An Interactive History, a website history designed to provide an informative, easy to read and navigate, comprehensive overview of the Manhattan Project, and 2) the Manhattan District History, a multi-volume classified history commissioned by General Leslie Groves at the end of the war that assembled a vast amount of information in a systematic, readily available form and included extensive annotations, statistical tables, charts, engineering drawings, maps, and photographs. All thirty-six volumes of the Manhattan District History are being made available full-text online.

- An Assessment of Historic Properties and Preservation Activities at the U.S. Department of Energy, 2014, a report produced triennially by the Department in response to requirements of Executive Order 13287, Preserve America.

Early Historical Timeline

August 2, 1939

Albert Einstein writes President Franklin D. Roosevelt, alerting the President to the importance of research on nuclear chain reactions and the possibility that research might lead to developing powerful bombs. Einstein notes that Germany has stopped the sale of uranium and German physicists are engaged in uranium research.

February 24, 1941

Glenn T. Seaborg's research group at the University of California in Berkeley discovers plutonium.

January 19, 1942

President Roosevelt approves production of the atomic bomb following receipt of a National Academy of Sciences report determining that a bomb is feasible.

June 17, 1942

President Roosevelt instructs the Army to take responsibility for construction of atomic weapons complex. The Army delegates the task to the Corps of Engineers.

August 13, 1942

The Army Corps of Engineers establishes the Manhattan Engineer District to develop and build the atomic bomb. Uranium isotope separation facilities are built at Oak Ridge, Tennessee; plutonium production reactors are built at Hanford, Washington; and a weapons laboratory is set up at Los Alamos, New Mexico.

September 19, 1942

Brigadier General Leslie R. Groves, head of the Manhattan Engineer District, selects Oak Ridge, Tennessee, site for facilities to produce nuclear materials. Isotope separation of uranium-235 takes place in the gaseous diffusion plant built in the K-25 area of the site, in the electromagnetic plant in the Y-12 area, and in the liquid thermal diffusion plant. A pilot pile (reactor) and plutonium separation facility are built and operated at the X-10 area.

November 25, 1942

Groves selects Los Alamos, New Mexico, as site for separate scientific laboratory to design an atomic bomb.

December 2, 1942

Metallurgical Laboratory scientists led by Enrico Fermi achieve the first self-sustained nuclear chain reaction in pile constructed under the west grandstand at Stagg field in Chicago.

January 16, 1943

Groves selects Hanford, Washington, as site for full-scale plutonium production and separation facilities. Three reactors--B, D, and F--are built.

April 5, 1944

Congress passes the Synthetic Liquid Fuels Act authorizing the Bureau of Mines to build energy research laboratories.

July 16, 1945

Los Alamos scientists successfully test a plutonium implosion bomb in the Trinity shot at Alamogordo, New Mexico.

August 6, 1945

The gun model uranium bomb, called Little Boy, is dropped on Hiroshima, Japan.

August 9, 1945

The implosion model plutonium bomb, called Fat Man, is dropped on Nagasaki, Japan. Five days later, Japan surrenders.

June 14, 1946

Bernard Baruch presents the American plan for international control of atomic research to the United Nations. The Soviet Union opposes the plan, rendering it useless.

August 1, 1946

President Truman signs the Atomic Energy Act of 1946 transferring Manhattan Project assets and responsibilities to the civilian Atomic Energy Commission.

January 1, 1947

In accordance with the Atomic Energy Act of 1946, all atomic energy activities are transferred to the newly created Atomic Energy Commission.

August 14, 1947

Ground is broken at the Brookhaven National Laboratory for the Graphite Research Reactor, the first reactor constructed for the sole purpose of exploring peaceful uses of the atom.

November 1947

Two new production reactors are authorized for the Hanford site. As the Cold War intensifies, the Atomic Energy Commission over the next five years greatly expands the weapons complex. New facilities include three additions to the Oak Ridge gaseous diffusion complex; new gaseous diffusion plants at Paducah, Kentucky, and Portsmouth, Ohio; three additional plutonium production reactors at Hanford; five heavy-water reactors for producing tritium and plutonium at a site on the Savannah River in South Carolina; a reactor testing station near Idaho Falls, Idaho; a feed materials production center at Fernald, Ohio; component and assembly plants at Rocky Flats, Colorado, and Amarillo, Texas; a second weapons laboratory at Livermore, California; and a continental testing site near Las Vegas, Nevada.

August 29, 1949

Soviet Union detonates first atomic device.

January 31, 1950

President Truman instructs the Atomic Energy Commission to expedite development of a thermonuclear weapon.

October 9, 1950

President Truman approves a \$1.4 billion expansion of Atomic Energy Commission facilities to produce uranium and plutonium for nuclear weapons.

December 20, 1951

The Experimental Breeder Reactor No. 1 located at the National Reactor Testing Station near Arco, Idaho, produces the first electric power from a nuclear reactor.

October 31, 1952

The Atomic Energy Commission detonates the first thermonuclear device, code-named "Mike," at Enewetak Atoll in the Pacific. The device explodes with a yield of 10.4 megatons.

January 24, 1954

The Navy launches the first nuclear-powered submarine, U.S.S. Nautilus.

February 14, 1954

The Bevatron particle accelerator begins operation at the Radiation Laboratory at Berkeley, California.

August 30, 1954

President Eisenhower signs the Atomic Energy Act of 1954, opening the way for development of a civilian nuclear power program.

October 4, 1957

The Soviet Union successfully launches Sputnik I, the first artificial satellite. Marking the dawn of the Space Age, the event pushes the US government into action and leads to the formation of National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA).

June 29, 1961

The first radioisotope thermoelectric generator for space applications, providing electrical power for spacecraft by direct conversion of the heat generated by the decay of plutonium-238 oxide to electrical energy, is launched on the Navy Transit 4A spacecraft.

September 1, 1961

The Soviet Union breaks the three-year moratorium on nuclear weapons testing. In a period of 60 days, the Soviets conduct 50 atmospheric tests, with a total yield exceeding that of all previous test series, by all nations, combined.

September 15, 1961

The U.S. resumes nuclear weapons testing, with an underground test at the Nevada Test Site.

April 30, 1962

The Atomic Energy Commission awards a contract to Stanford University for construction of the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center.

August 5, 1963

The United States, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union sign the Limited Test Ban Treaty prohibiting underwater, atmospheric, and outer space nuclear tests. Nuclear testing continues underground.

December 12, 1963

The Jersey Central Power and Light Company announces the purchase of a 515-megawatt plant from General Electric to be built at Oyster Creek, New Jersey. It is the first nuclear power plant selected on purely economic grounds without government aid and in direct competition with a conventional facility.

April 3, 1965

The U.S. launches the first nuclear reactor in space (SNAP-10A). SNAP stands for Systems for Nuclear Auxiliary Power.

November 21, 1967

President Lyndon Johnson signs a bill authorizing the National Accelerator Laboratory, later renamed the Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory, for a site at Weston, Illinois, thirty miles west of Chicago.

July 1, 1968

The Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty prohibiting non-nuclear weapon states from possessing, manufacturing, or acquiring nuclear weapons or other nuclear explosive devices is opened for signature.

August 7, 1972

The Atomic Energy Commission announces a cooperative agreement with industry to build a Liquid Metal Fast Breeder Reactor on the Clinch River in Tennessee.

December 4, 1973

The Federal Energy Office replaces the Energy Policy Office. The new office is assigned the task of allocating reduced petroleum supplies to refiners and consumers and of controlling the price of oil and gasoline. William Simon is named Administrator.

May 7, 1974

President Nixon signs the Federal Administration Act of 1974. The Federal Energy Administration replaces the Federal Energy Office.

October 11, 1974

President Ford signs the Energy Reorganization Act of 1974, abolishing the Atomic Energy Commission and establishing the Energy Research and Development Administration and the Nuclear Regulatory Commission.

January 19, 1975

The Energy Research and Development Administration is activated. The new agency is given responsibility for the Atomic Energy Commission's nuclear weapons program. President Ford appoints Robert C. Seamans, Jr., as Administrator.

March 24, 1977

The Energy Research and Development Administration announces the establishment of the Solar Energy Research Institute, a Federal facility dedicated to finding and improving ways to harness and use energy from the sun, at Golden, Colorado.

August 4, 1977

President Carter signs the Department of Energy Organization Act. The Federal Energy Administration and Energy Research and Development Administration are abolished.

October 1, 1977

The Department of Energy (DOE) is activated. Bringing together a score of organizational entities from a dozen departments and agencies, the new department is also given responsibility for the nuclear weapons program.

October 5-6, 1977

Secretary Schlesinger signs nine international energy agreements at a meeting of the International Energy Agency in Paris

November 9, 1978

President Carter signs the National Energy Act, which includes the National Energy Conservation Policy Act, the Power Plant and Industrial Fuel Use Act, the Public Utilities Regulatory Policy Act, the Energy Tax Act, and the Natural Gas Policy Act.

March 28, 1979

A partial meltdown of the core occurs at one of the two reactors at the Three Mile Island nuclear power plant near Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

July 10, 1979

President Carter proclaims a national energy supply shortage and establishes temperature restrictions in nonresidential buildings.

June 30, 1980

President Carter signs the Energy Security Act, consisting of six major acts: U.S. Synthetic Fuels Corporation Act, Biomass Energy and Alcohol Fuels Act, Renewable Energy Resources Act, Solar Energy and Energy Conservation Act and Solar Energy and Energy Conservation Bank Act, Geothermal Energy Act, and Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion Act.

May 24, 1982

President Reagan proposes legislation transferring most responsibilities of DOE to the Department of Commerce. Congress fails to act on the proposal.

January 7, 1983

President Reagan signs the Nuclear Waste Policy Act of 1982, the Nation's first comprehensive nuclear waste legislation.

March 23, 1983

President Reagan addresses the nation on national security and announces the Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI), a satellite-based defense system that would destroy incoming missiles and warheads in space.

October 7, 1983

DOE establishes the Civilian Radioactive Waste Management Office.

April 26, 1986

A major nuclear accident occurs at Chernobyl Reactor #4 near Pripyat, Ukraine in the Soviet Union, spreading radioactive contamination over a large area.

January 30, 1987

Secretary Herrington announces President Reagan's approval of construction of the Superconducting Super Collider (SSC), the world's largest and most advanced particle accelerator.

December 22, 1987

Congress approves amendment designating Yucca Mountain, Nevada, as the only site to be considered for high-level nuclear waste repository.

June 27, 1989

Watkins announces the Ten-Point Plan to strengthen environmental protection and waste management activities at the Department's production, research, and testing facilities in response to mounting environmental and safety concerns within the weapons production complex.

November 9, 1989

DOE establishes the Office of Environmental Restoration and Waste Management within the Department. The office consolidates activities that had been spread throughout DOE.

September 23, 1992

The United States conducts its last underground nuclear weapons test. Congress imposes a temporary moratorium on nuclear weapons testing.

October 1993

Congress votes to terminate the Superconducting Super Collider.

November 23, 1994

The Department announces the completion of a highly classified interagency operation to transfer weapons grade highly enriched uranium out of Kazakhstan to DOE's Y-12 Plant at Oak Ridge, Tennessee.

March 25, 1995

Physicists at DOE's Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory announce the discovery of the subatomic particle called the top quark, the last undiscovered quark of the six predicted to exist by current scientific theory.

Workers complete drilling of the five-mile long, horseshoe-shaped exploratory tunnel through Yucca Mountain at the proposed high-level nuclear waste repository in Nevada.

June 20, 1997

The Plutonium Uranium Extraction Facility (PUREX), the largest of the Nation's Cold War plutonium processing plants, is deactivated a year ahead of schedule.

July 2, 1997

The first "subcritical" physics experiment at the Nevada Test Site, code-name "Rebound," provides scientific data on the behavior of plutonium without underground nuclear-weapons testing.

January 22, 1998

The Department of Energy announces that it will dispose of defense-generated transuranic waste at the Waste Isolation Pilot Plant (WIPP) in southeastern New Mexico.

May 11-13, 1998

India explodes several nuclear devices

May 28-30, 1998

Pakistan explodes several nuclear devices.

October 28, 1998

The Clinton administration unveils IBM's Pacific Blue computer at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory. Pacific Blue is a key component of the Department's Accelerated Strategic Computing Initiative, which simulates nuclear weapons behavior without testing.

November 20, 1998

As part of the Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) program, DOE opens a long-term climate research station on Nauru in the central Pacific on the eastern edge of the ocean's "warm pool," an area that consistently produces the warmest sea surface temperatures in the world.

December 18, 1998

The Department submits the viability assessment of the Yucca Mountain site to President Clinton and Congress. The Department reports that 15 years of research reveals no "show stoppers" to disqualify the site but notes that certain critical issues should continue to be studied.

December 22, 1998

The Department announces that Savannah River will be the site of a plant that will disassemble pits from nuclear weapons and convert the recovered metal to an oxide, beginning a process of destroying rather than creating weapons-grade plutonium.

March 26, 1999

After more than two decades of political, legal, and bureaucratic delays, the first truckload of radioactive waste from Los Alamos National Laboratory arrives at the DOE Waste Isolation Pilot Plant (WIPP) in southeastern New Mexico, 26 miles east of Carlsbad.

April 27, 1999

The Department of Energy and the Department of Interior launch the Green Energy Parks Program, designed to increase the use of sustainable energy technology in the nation's parks.

June 3, 1999

President Clinton issues Executive Order 13123 setting new goals for federal energy management, with DOE's Federal Energy Management Program designated as the federal government's program coordinator.

June 21, 1999

The Department announces the Wind Powering America initiative, designed to significantly increase the use of wind power in the United States over the next ten years.

June 30, 1999

Save America's Treasures, a national public-private effort between the White House Millennium Council and the National Trust for Historic Preservation, awards DOE \$1.02 million to help preserve historically significant structures at Los Alamos National Laboratory and the Idaho National Engineering and Environmental Laboratory.

September 10, 1999

Secretary Richardson signs agreements with the governors of Tennessee, Colorado, South Carolina, and Washington to improve intergovernmental cooperation and to recommit DOE to seeking "predictable and adequate" funding to meet its cleanup responsibilities.

September 18, 1999

The world's largest wind power facility, utilizing turbines developed and tested jointly by DOE and Enron Wind Corporation, is dedicated in Storm Lake, Iowa, as part of the Department's Wind Powering America Initiative.

December 10, 1999

The Department designates the Federal Energy Technology Center as DOE's newest national laboratory, to be known as the National Energy Technology Laboratory (NETL). Located 65 miles apart but commonly managed in Morgantown, West Virginia, and Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, the laboratory is the nation's largest fossil energy research organization.

December 15, 1999

The ground breaking ceremony is held at Oak Ridge National Laboratory for the \$1.36 billion Spallation Neutron Source (SNS) project for neutron scattering and related research in the physical, chemical, materials, biological, and medical sciences. The SNS is a partnership of five DOE laboratories--Oak Ridge, Argonne, Brookhaven, Lawrence Berkeley, and Los Alamos.

February 28, 2000

The Department of Energy and the American Institute of Architects announce a national design competition for the largest solar energy system on a U. S. federal government building and one of the largest such systems in the world. The "Sun Wall" at the Department's Forrestal building spans nearly two-thirds of an acre and is currently blank.

April 22, 2000

The Department participates in Earth Day 2000, the 30th anniversary of Earth Day. The global theme is Clean Energy Now. Power for the event, which draws 300,000 to the mall, is provided entirely by renewable energy sources. The Department issues a statement in conjunction with Earth Day reporting that energy use in federal buildings has decreased 20% since 1985.

May 4, 2000

A prescribed burn to clear brush at Bandelier National Monument in New Mexico quickly burns out of control and becomes the largest-ever fire in the state. The fire enters Los Alamos Canyon on May 10, leading to evacuations and the closing of Los Alamos National Laboratory. Air monitoring by LANL indicates no releases of radiation as the fire sweeps through 9,000 acres of LANL property.

August 28, 2000

The Department announces that Compaq Computer will build the world's fastest supercomputer at Los Alamos National Laboratory by 2002. The computer, ASCI Q (Accelerated Strategic Computing Initiative) will be part of the Department's Stockpile Stewardship Program and will be used to help verify that warheads in the stockpile are reliable without physical testing. The \$200 million computer will operate faster than the combined speeds of the next 21 fastest machines currently in operation and process as much information daily as 20,000 personal computers.

January 17, 2001

The Department announces plans to build the second largest wind power facility in the United States on part of DOE's Nevada Test Site. The MNS Wind Company will build and operate the wind farm on 664 acres of the test site.

August 13, 2001

The National Research Council recommends that the goals of the Partnership for a New Generation of Vehicles (PNGV) program be reevaluated and updated. PNGV is a partnership between the Federal government and the U.S. automotive industry - DaimlerChrysler, Ford Motor Co., and General Motors Corp. under the umbrella organization, the United States Council for Automotive Research. The program was designed to develop a new generation of vehicles with up to three times the fuel efficiency of conventional cars without compromising performance, affordability, safety, utility, or emissions. "The current goals of the PNGV program include production prototypes for an 80 mile-per-gallon sedan by 2004," Secretary Abraham notes. "Since roughly half of the light-duty vehicle sales in the U.S. are sport utility vehicles, vans and pickup trucks, the PNGV program is out of step with markets and consumer demand."

August 15, 2001

Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory dedicates the "world's fastest supercomputer," the IBM ASCI White supercomputer with 8,192 processors that perform 12.3 trillion operations per second.

September 11, 2001

Terrorists attack the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon outside Washington, D.C. Under the threat of additional assaults, Secretary Abraham orders that all DOE facilities be placed in high security status. All non-essential DOE personnel are evacuated and sent home. All shipments of nuclear materials are halted; nuclear operations around the country are stopped; and nuclear material is secured. America's energy infrastructure is monitored, and security at nuclear plants, refineries, pipelines, distribution points, and along the electricity

transmission grid is heightened. The nation's oil and gas supply, including the Strategic Petroleum Reserve, is also monitored.

Over the next several weeks, DOE responds to the disaster by contributing equipment, emergency medical technicians and other assistance in support of rescue efforts. DOE's Brookhaven National Laboratory dispatches Fire Department personnel, all trained in confined-space rescue, as well as truck and heavy rescue equipment and several electrical generators to New York City. DOE's Princeton Plasma Physics Laboratory sends four emergency services officers to work in the triage area. Working with Federal Emergency Management Agency staff, DOE employees assist in the search for survivors by using Ground Penetrating Radar equipment adapted with motion detection applications. Other DOE teams operate with sophisticated, remotely-operated equipment, including infrared cameras, robotic equipment and fiber optic cameras.

November 14, 2001

DOE's Energy Information Administration issues its long-term energy forecast predicting that 374 gigawatts of additional electric generating capacity will be needed by 2020. This would mean about 1,200 new plants at 300 megawatts each.

December 11, 2001

The Natural Resources Defense Council (NRDC) files suit in Federal court to force DOE to produce documents relating to the development of the Bush Administration's energy policy. The NRDC now joins Judicial Watch, which filed a similar suit in July, in an effort to gain access to the documents.

December 19, 2001

A Department of Defense report, prepared with DOE assistance, on how nuclear weapons could be modified to attack hardened bunker complexes and buried tunnels that conventional weapons cannot destroy is made public. The report was sent to Congress in October, but no decision has been made to go ahead with such a program.

January 9, 2002

Against a backdrop of futuristic vehicles at the Detroit Auto Show, Secretary Abraham and executives of Ford, General Motors and DaimlerChrysler announce a new cooperative automotive research partnership between DOE and the U.S. Council for Automotive Research (USCAR). The new research program supercedes the Partnership for a New Generation of Vehicles (PNGV). Secretary Abraham states that the new program, called FreedomCar, will "promote the development of hydrogen as a primary fuel for cars and trucks." He adds that the program will "fund research into advanced, efficient fuel cell technology which uses hydrogen to power automobiles.

February 15, 2002

President Bush notifies Congress that he considers Yucca Mountain qualified for a construction permit application. The President urges Congress to "undertake any necessary legislative action on this recommendation in an expedited and bipartisan fashion."

April 8, 2002

Nevada Governor Kenny Guinn vetoes President Bush's decision to proceed with the nuclear waste repository at Yucca Mountain. Under the Nuclear Waste Policy Act of 1982, the House and the Senate now have 90 legislative days to override Guinn's veto. If either the House or the Senate sustains the veto through a majority vote, construction at Yucca Mountain cannot go forward.

May 8, 2002

Secretary Abraham releases the National Transmission Grid Study, developed in response to President Bush's National Energy Policy directive to study the Nation's transmission system, identify transmission bottlenecks and identify measures to eliminate those bottlenecks. The study contains fifty-one specific recommendations.

May 8, 2002

The House of Representatives by a vote of 306 to 117 overrides the State of Nevada's disapproval of the development of the nuclear waste repository at the Yucca Mountain site. Secretary Abraham urges the Senate to "quickly approve our recommendation so that the NRC can make the final determination on the site's suitability to serve as a repository."

June 13, 2002

The Federal Energy Regulatory Commission approves an agreement on a \$306 million upgrade to the Path 15 transmission line in California. The agreement is the result of efforts by DOE's Western Area Power Administration (WAPA), responding to a May 2001 directive from Secretary Abraham, to put together a public-private partnership to resolve the longstanding congestion problem along the line.

July 9, 2002

The Senate by a vote of 60 to 39 overrides the State of Nevada's disapproval of the development of the nuclear waste repository at the Yucca Mountain site. "America's national, energy, and homeland security, as well as environmental protection is well-served by siting a single nuclear waste repository at Yucca Mountain," notes Secretary Abraham. "Congress has recognized that the Government has safely transported nuclear waste for more than 30 years and, in doing so, has rejected the transportation scare tactics employed by those opposed to Yucca Mountain. Without

Yucca Mountain, the nuclear waste simply stays where it is. However, by moving the process forward, we have the opportunity to dispose of nuclear waste that has piled up at 131 sites in 39 states."

July 30, 2002

U.S. and Australian officials formally commission the fifth and newest of DOE's Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) sites in Darwin, Australia, a location that will enable scientists to collect new data important to refining computer models that simulate climate change.

August 6, 2002

Workers begin pouring concrete for the five-foot-thick foundation for the new high-level waste vitrification plant at DOE's Hanford site. A work force of 4,800 and more than 250,000 cubic yards of concrete will be required to build the plant.

August 15, 2002

The Department announces that its Oak Ridge National Laboratory has been selected to test the effectiveness of a new Cray Inc. supercomputer architecture in solving important scientific problems in climate, fusion, biology, nanoscale materials, and astrophysics.

September 28, 2002

The Los Alamos National Laboratory conducts Watusi, a spectacular high-explosives experiment with a yield equivalent to about 37,000 pounds of TNT, at the Nevada Test Site's Big Explosive Experimental Facility (BEEF). The experiment seeks to demonstrate that existing seismic and infrasound sensors at the test site and across the West used when DOE was conducting underground nuclear tests still can detect and characterize explosions accurately. Several new diagnostic instruments also are tested.

October 1, 2002

The Department marks the 25th anniversary of its establishment in 1977.

October 24, 2002

The 563rd and final shipment of transuranic waste from DOE's Idaho National Engineering and Environmental Laboratory is received at the Department's Waste Isolation Pilot Plant outside Carlsbad, New Mexico. This is ten weeks ahead of the December 31, 2002, deadline set for the removal of the waste in the 1995 Idaho Settlement Agreement. The total amount of transuranic waste shipped was 3,101 cubic meters in 14,909 55-gallon drums.

November 15, 2002

The Department's Argonne National Laboratory, located outside Chicago, Illinois, dedicates the Advanced Power-train Research Facility, the nation's only independent testing facility for engines, fuel cells, electric drives, and energy storage. State-of-the art performance and emissions measurement equipment at the facility is designed to enhance the development of advance technology powertrain components for cars and trucks, support model development, and validate advanced vehicle technology.

November 19, 2002

Secretary Abraham announces that International Business Machines Corporation (IBM) has been awarded a \$290 million, multi-year contract to build the two fastest supercomputers in the world. Named "Purple" and "BlueGene/L," the two systems will be part of the National Nuclear Security Administration's Advanced Simulation and Computing (ASCI) program for the science-based Stockpile Stewardship Program and will be housed at DOE's Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory. The Secretary notes that "ASCI Purple and BlueGene/L promise to deliver cost-effective, tremendous capability to the Stockpile Stewardship Program's critical mission to assess and certify the safety, security, and reliability of our nation's nuclear deterrent without underground nuclear testing."

November 25, 2002

President Bush signs the Homeland Security Act, establishing the new cabinet-level Department of Homeland Security, and announces his intention to nominate former Pennsylvania Governor Tom Ridge as the department's first secretary. Several current DOE functions and responsibilities are to be transferred to the new agency. DOE's Office of Environmental Management will lose its Environmental Measurements Laboratory in New York City. The National Nuclear Security Administration's nuclear threat assessment and smuggling program will be moved to Homeland Security, as will programs dealing with chemical and biological research connected to nonproliferation and activities related to microbial pathogens. The Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory's advanced scientific computing research program is to be transferred, and, in the event of a national emergency, the authority to direct the Nuclear Incident Response program, also at Livermore, will now belong to the Secretary of Homeland Security. In addition, the new department is directed to enter into agreements with DOE to use the national laboratories to fulfill its mission.

December 10, 2002

The Department's Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory creates the Homeland Security Organization to pull together laboratory scientists into teams to tackle homeland security problems.

January 7, 2003

The Spent Nuclear Fuel Project at DOE's Hanford Site, located in eastern Washington, finishes moving more than two million pounds (957 metric tons) of highly radioactive spent fuel

containing about 25 million curies of radioactivity out of the K Basins and further away from the Columbia River. The spent fuel is moved from underwater storage to dry storage in specially designed, vacuum-dried canisters, called multi-canister overpacks. The project is about at the halfway point of removing all the spent fuel-2,100 metric tons- from both the K-West and K-East basins by 2004.

February 6, 2003

The Department announces plans to establish an Office of Legacy Management to focus on the long-term care of legacy liabilities of former nuclear weapons production sites following environmental cleanup. Legacy liabilities stem from the activities of DOE and its predecessor agencies, particularly during World War II and the Cold War, and include radioactive chemical waste, environmental contamination, and hazardous materials at over 100 sites across the country. The Office of Legacy Management will be responsible for sites that have closed and are no longer supporting DOE's ongoing missions

April 22, 2003

The Department's Los Alamos National Laboratory (LANL) announces that it has successfully made the first nuclear weapons "pit" in 14 years that meets specifications for use in the U.S. stockpile. The plutonium pit, called Qual-1 because it was built with and fully met qualified processes, is for the W88 warhead, which is carried on the Trident II D5 Submarine-Launched Cruise Missile, a cornerstone of the U.S. nuclear deterrent. A pit is the fissile core of a nuclear weapon's physics package. The six-year effort at LANL's plutonium processing facility restores a U.S. capability lost when DOE's Rocky Flats Plant shut down in 1989. DOE identified LANL as the site to make nuclear weapon pits through the 1996 Stockpile Stewardship and Management Environmental Impact Statement.

June 3, 2003

The Department's National Nuclear Security Administration (NNSA) announces that the National Ignition Facility (NIF) at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory produced 10.4 kiloJoules of ultraviolet laser light in a single laser beamline, setting a world record for laser performance. When completed in 2008, NIF will consist of 192 laser beams delivering ultraviolet laser light equivalent to 1.8 megaJoules to millimeter size targets. NIF will provide 50 times more energy than any other laser system and will be a cornerstone of NNSA's Stockpile Stewardship Program without underground nuclear testing.

July 8, 2003

The Department's Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory (LLNL) successfully executes the first plutonium shot using the Joint Actinide Shock Physics Experimental Research (JASPER) gas gun at DOE's Nevada Test Site. LLNL scientists use the 100-foot, two-stage gas gun to fire a projectile at more than five kilometers per second at a plutonium target. The impact produces a high-pressure shock wave that passes through the plutonium in a fraction of a microsecond while

diagnostic equipment measures the properties of the shocked plutonium. Shock physics experiments complement the ongoing subcritical experiment program at NTS as part of the National Nuclear Security Administration's stockpile stewardship program to maintain the safety and reliability of the nation's nuclear weapons stockpile in the absence of underground testing.

August 14, 2003

Scientists of the Main Injector Neutrino Oscillation Search (MINOS) collaboration at DOE's Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory (Fermilab) in Batavia, Illinois, announce the official start of data-taking with the project's 6,000 ton "far" detector. The MINOS detector, located deep in a historic iron mine in northern Minnesota, will be used to explore the phenomenon of neutrino mass. The far detector will "catch" neutrinos created at Fermilab's Main Injector accelerator. The neutrinos will travel 450 miles straight through the earth from Fermilab to the mine.

January 12, 2004

The Department dedicates the nation's newest isotope production facility located at the Los Alamos Neutron Science Center (LANSCE) in New Mexico. The \$23 million state-of-the-art facility, built over the last five years, houses a new beam line and equipment needed to direct part of the 100 million electron volt proton beam from the existing LANSCE accelerator to a new target station designed exclusively for the production of isotopes. "The short lived isotopes produced by this facility and other accelerators in the DOE complex," notes Secretary Abraham, "provide vital isotopes required to diagnose, treat and research serious illnesses such as heart disease and cancer."

March 10, 2004

The Department releases its Hydrogen Posture Plan, which outlines the activities, milestones, and deliverables that DOE plans to pursue to support the nation's shift to a hydrogen-based transportation energy system. The plan identifies milestones for technology development over the next decade, leading up to a commercialization decision by industry in 2015. "This plan supports President Bush's vision of a hydrogen economy and includes timelines that provide clear and scientific measures to track and demonstrate progress," Secretary Abraham says. "If we achieve our technical objectives, the automotive and energy industries will be in a position to begin to mass market availability of both vehicles and refueling infrastructure by 2020.

May 1, 2004

Six teams take their place in the winner's circle at the second annual Hydrogen Fuel Cell Model Car Challenge, part of the DOE's National Science Bowl®. University High School of Morgantown, West Virginia, takes first place in the Grand Prix speed race, and Chaska High School of Chaska, Minnesota, conquers a 48 degree incline with their hydrogen powered model car to become the "King of the Hill". With model car kit components provided by General Motors, the teams designed and built the small hydrogen vehicles with technical assistance from DOE engineers. Each model car measures a maximum of one foot wide and two feet long.

July 16, 2004

The Department of Agriculture and DOE announce the selection of 22 projects that will receive \$25,480,628 for the Biomass Research and Development Initiative. The joint grant program is part of the Bush Administration's effort to increase America's energy independence through the development of additional renewable energy resources from the agricultural and agroforestry sectors. Including the cost sharing of the private sector partners, the total value of the projects is nearly \$38 million. The funds will be used for biomass research, development and demonstration projects. "The projects announced today," notes Secretary Abraham will move us closer to our goal of establishing biorefineries that produce power, fuels, chemicals and other valuable products."

November 30, 2004

The Department announces the researchers at its Idaho National Engineering and Environmental Laboratory (INEEL) and Ceramtec, Inc. of Salt Lake City, Utah. have demonstrated the feasibility of using nuclear energy to efficiently produce hydrogen from water. This achievement demonstrates high-temperature electrolysis which utilizes heat to decrease electricity needed for splitting water into hydrogen and oxygen. Instead of conventional electrolysis, which uses only electric current to separate hydrogen from water, high-temperature electrolysis enhances the efficiency of the process by adding substantial external heat-such as high-temperature steam from an advanced nuclear reactor system.

March 15, 2005

The Department and the EPA, at an ENERGY STAR® awards ceremony, honor 50 companies, organizations, and government entities that have helped to significantly reduce greenhouse gases while improving energy efficiency. ENERGY STAR® is a voluntary, market-based partnership to reduce air pollution through increased energy efficiency. Americans with the help of ENERGY STAR® saved \$10 billion in energy costs over the past year alone. "A key part of the President's comprehensive energy plan is conservation," says Secretary Bodman. "These outstanding leaders' innovative approach to conservation has helped to dramatically improve America's energy security."

October 19, 2005

The Department's Los Alamos National Laboratory announces that lab researchers have set a new world's record by performing the first million-atom computer simulation in biology. Using the "Q Machine" supercomputer, Los Alamos computer scientists have created a molecular simulation of the cell's protein-making structure, the ribosome. The project, simulating 2.64 million atoms in motion, is more than six times larger than any biological simulations performed to date.

January 4, 2006

The Department's Los Alamos National Laboratory announces that lab scientists have discovered that a phenomenon called carrier multiplication, in which semiconductor nanocrystals respond to photons by producing multiple electrons, is applicable to a broader array of materials than previously thought. The discovery increases the potential for the use of nanocrystals as solar cell materials to produce higher electrical outputs than current solar cells.

June 22, 2006

The Department's National Nuclear Security Administration and IBM team up to announce that a new mark was achieved on the world's fastest supercomputer named BlueGene/L (BG/L). This world record for a scientific application was set by achieving a sustained performance of 207.3 trillion floating-point operations per second (teraFLOPS) on the "Qbox" computer code for conducting materials science simulations critical to national security. BG/L is an IBM supercomputer housed at DOE's Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory.

January 8, 2007

The Department's Office of Science announces that 45 projects were awarded a total of 95 million hours of computing time on some of the world's most powerful supercomputers located at DOE facilities as part of its 2007 Innovative and Novel Computational Impact on Theory and Experiment (INCITE) program. The supercomputers will allow cutting-edge research and design of virtual prototypes to be carried out in weeks or months, rather than the years or decades that would be needed using conventional computing systems.

July 10, 2007

The U.S. Climate Change Science Program announces the release of the second in a series of 21 Synthesis and Assessment (S&A) reports. Coordinated by DOE, the S&A 2.1 report is titled "Scenarios of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Atmospheric Concentrations, and Review of Integrated Scenario Development and Application," and provides a new long-term, global reference for greenhouse gas stabilization scenarios and an evaluation of the process by which scenarios are developed and used.

January 17, 2008

The Department's Office of Science announces that 55 projects were awarded a total of 265 million hours of computing time on some of the world's most powerful supercomputers located at DOE facilities as part of its 2008 Innovative and Novel Computational Impact on Theory and Experiment (INCITE) program. This is the largest amount of supercomputing resource awards ever donated and three times that awarded in 2007.

October 7, 2008

The Department issues a Fact Sheet on preliminary results (pdf) of a test program initiated in August 2007 to assess the potential impacts of higher intermediate ethanol blends on conventional vehicles and other engines that rely on gasoline. The test program focuses specifically on the effects of intermediate blends of E15 and E20-gasoline blended with 15 and 20 percent ethanol, respectively-on emissions, catalyst and engine durability, drivability or operability, and materials associated with these vehicles and engines.

January 16, 2009

The Department gives its initial approval to begin plans for the Oak Ridge National Laboratory (ORNL) to build a second target station for the Spallation Neutron Source, expanding what is already the world's most powerful pulsed neutron scattering facility. The new station, which will cost approximately \$1 billion, will be optimized for nanoscale and biological sciences with an emphasis on novel materials for energy production, storage and use.s

March 16, 2010

The Federal Communications Commission (FCC) submits to Congress a National Broadband Plan. In the section on Energy and the Environment, the FCC says that “broadband and advanced communications infrastructure will play an important role in achieving national goals of energy independence and efficiency . . . as the foundation of a smarter electric grid and as a platform for innovation in smart homes and buildings, especially if utilities unlock energy data.” The FCC calls for collaboration with the Department in studying the communications requirements of electric utilities to inform federal Smart Grid policy. The Department also “should consider consumer data accessibility policies when evaluating Smart Grid grant applications, report on the states’ progress toward enacting consumer data accessibility and develop best practice guidance for states.” President Obama issues a statement commending the plan.

March 16, 2010

The Governor’s Wind Energy Coalition, a bipartisan group of 29 state governors, releases its 2010 Recommendations. The governors call on Congress and the Obama administration to adopt a renewable electricity standard; develop new interstate electric transmission system infrastructure as needed to provide access to renewable energy resources both on-shore and offshore; fully support coastal, deep water, and offshore wind energy technology and transmission research and development; streamline permitting processes for both offshore and on-shore wind energy development projects; expand DOE’s work with the states and the wind industry to accelerate innovation; and extend the Treasury Department grant program in lieu of the investment tax credit and adopt a long-term renewable energy production tax credit with provisions to broaden the pool of eligible investors.

November 3, 2010

The Department's Los Alamos National Laboratory announces that scientists at Los Alamos and DOE's Brookhaven National Laboratory have fabricated transparent thin films capable of absorbing light and generating electric charge over a relatively large area. The material, described in the journal *Chemistry of Materials*, could be used in development of transparent solar panels.

(Link: <https://energy.gov/management/office-management/operational-management/history/doe-history-timeline>)

Library of Congress

The mission of Library Services is to develop qualitatively the Library's universal collections, which document the history and further the creativity of the American people and which record and contribute to the advancement of civilization and knowledge throughout the world, and to acquire, organize, provide access to, maintain, secure, and preserve these collections.

The Library of Congress was established by an act of Congress in 1800 when President John Adams signed a bill providing for the transfer of the seat of government from Philadelphia to the new capital city of Washington. The legislation described a reference library for Congress only, containing "such books as may be necessary for the use of Congress - and for putting up a suitable apartment for containing them therein..."

Established with \$5,000 appropriated by the legislation, the original library was housed in the new Capitol until August 1814, when invading British troops set fire to the Capitol Building, burning and pillaging the contents of the small library.

Within a month, retired President Thomas Jefferson offered his personal library as a replacement. Jefferson had spent 50 years accumulating books, "putting by everything which related to America, and indeed whatever was rare and valuable in every science"; his library was considered to be one of the finest in the United States. In offering his collection to Congress, Jefferson anticipated controversy over the nature of his collection, which included books in foreign languages and volumes of philosophy, science, literature, and other topics not normally viewed as part of a legislative library. He wrote, "I do not know that it contains any branch of science which Congress would wish to exclude from their collection; there is, in fact, no subject to which a Member of Congress may not have occasion to refer."

In January 1815, Congress accepted Jefferson's offer, appropriating \$23,950 for his 6,487 books, and the foundation was laid for a great national library. The Jeffersonian concept of universality, the belief that all subjects are important to the library of the American legislature, is the philosophy and rationale behind the comprehensive collecting policies of today's Library of Congress.

Ainsworth Rand Spofford, Librarian of Congress from 1864 to 1897, applied Jefferson's philosophy on a grand scale and built the Library into a national institution. Spofford was responsible for the copyright law of 1870, which required all copyright applicants to send to the Library two copies of their work. This resulted in a flood of books, pamphlets, maps, music, prints, and photographs. Facing a shortage of shelf space at the Capitol, Spofford convinced Congress of the need for a new building, and in 1873 Congress authorized a competition to design plans for the new Library.

In 1886, after many proposals and much controversy, Congress authorized construction of a new Library building in the style of the Italian Renaissance in accordance with a design prepared by Washington architects John L. Smithmeyer and Paul J. Pelz.

The Congressional authorization was successful because of the hard work of two key Senators: Daniel W. Voorhees (Indiana), who served as chairman of the Joint Committee from 1879 to 1881, and Justin S. Morrill (Vermont), chairman of Senate Committee on Buildings and Grounds.

In 1888, General Thomas Lincoln Casey, chief of the Army Corps of Engineers, was placed in charge of construction. His chief assistant was Bernard R. Green, who was intimately involved with the building until his death in 1914. Beginning in 1892, a new architect, Edward Pearce Casey, the son of General Casey, began to supervise the interior work, including sculptural and painted decoration by more than 50 American artists.

When the Library of Congress building opened its doors to the public on November 1, 1897, it was hailed as a glorious national monument and "the largest, the costliest, and the safest" library building in the world.

Collections

Today's Library of Congress is an unparalleled world resource. The collection of more than 158 million items includes more than 36 million cataloged books and other print materials in 460 languages; more than 69 million manuscripts; the largest rare book collection in North America; and the world's largest collection of legal materials, films, maps, sheet music and sound recordings.

Joint Committee on the Library

The Joint Committee on the Library (the oldest continuing Joint Committee of the U.S. Congress) was created on April 24, 1800, when President John Adams signed the bill establishing the federal government in Washington and creating the Library of Congress. The act appropriated \$5,000 for "the purchase of such books as may be necessary for the use of Congress" after it moved to the new capital city of Washington. The Library's appropriation for fiscal year 1811 officially made the Joint Committee on the Library a standing committee. From the 95th Congress forward, the Joint Committee on the Library has been composed of the chairman (or designee) and four members each from the Senate Committee on Rules and Administration and the Committee on House Administration. The chairmanship and vice chairmanship alternate between the House and Senate every Congress.

An agency of the legislative branch of the U.S. government, the Library of Congress encompasses several integral service units. The Office of the Librarian is the administrative branch of the Library of Congress and has overall management responsibility for the Library. It sets policy and directs and supports programs and activities to accomplish the Library's mission. Congress established its Law Library in 1832, recognizing its need for ready access to reliable legal materials. The Law Library has grown over the years to become the world's largest law library, with a collection of over three million volumes spanning the ages and covering virtually every jurisdiction in the world.

(Link: <https://loc.gov/about/history-of-the-library/>)