

RE-SERVICING THE COMMUNITY: BRINGING NEW DEVELOPMENT TO  
CLOSED MILITARY INSTALLATIONS

by

REBECCA KATHLEEN POWERS

(Under the Direction of Wayde Brown)

ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the relationships between the National Historic Preservation Act and the Base Closure and Realignment Act. As increasing numbers of military installations are closed and realigned throughout the United States, an examination of the success/impacts of the closure process, regarding their historic resources, is timely. The question this thesis answers is, “how does the Base Closure and Realignment process affect the long-term re-use of historically significant military installations?”

INDEX WORDS: Base Closure and Realignment, BRAC, Historic Preservation, Military Base, Military Installation, Re-use

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REBECCA KATHLEEN POWERS

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REBECCA KATHLEEN POWERS

Major Professor: Wayde Brown

Committee: Cari Goetcheus  
Stephen Ramos  
Michelle Michael

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso  
Dean of the Graduate School  
The University of Georgia  
December 2012

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACHP- Advisory Council on Historic Preservation  
BRAC- Base Realignment and Closure  
CCC- Civilian Conservation Corps  
CFMNP- Citizens for a Fort Monroe National Park  
CWA- Civil Works Administration  
DEIS- Draft Environmental Impact Statement  
DoD- Department of Defense  
EAC- Economic Adjustment Committee  
EA- Environmental Assessment  
EDC- Economic Development Conveyance  
EIS- Environmental Impact Statement  
FONSI- Finding of No Significant Impact  
GSA- U.S. General Services Administration  
HUD- U.S. Housing and Urban Development  
LRA- Local Redevelopment Authority  
MOU- Memorandum of Understanding  
NEPA- National Environmental Policy Act  
NHPA- National Historic Preservation Act  
NPS- National Park Service  
PA- Programmatic Agreement  
PIDC- Philadelphia Industrial Development Corporation  
SHPO- State Historic Preservation Office  
THPO- Tribal Historic Preservation Office  
WPA- Works Progress Administration



## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

United States military history and culture are significant factors in the development of American society, and the physical resources associated with military installations are a visible record of this part of American history. The preservation of these architectural resources could offer a link for future America to the military aspect of the United States' past. Simultaneously, decommissioned military installations and their respective architectural resources should be re-used, because doing so makes sense economically and environmentally.

This thesis examines the relationships between the National Historic Preservation Act and the Base Realignment and Closure Act. As increasing numbers of military installations are closed and realigned throughout the United States, an examination of the success of the closure process, in respect to the historic resources located within them, is timely. Although the BRAC process is complicated and incorporates many outside factors including political influences, this thesis does not directly examine the results of these factors. The question this thesis answers is, "how does the Base Closure and Realignment process affect the long-term re-use of historically significant, military installations?" Additionally, how does preservation planning affect the long-term re-use of military installations?

A significant body of research has been completed on the base realignment and closure process in regards to economic and environmental impacts. However, less research has been completed on the BRAC process's impacts on historically significant cultural resources. Several articles have been published in publications such as *Preservation*<sup>1</sup>, *CRM*<sup>2</sup>, and *Material Culture*<sup>3</sup> regarding base closure and preservation. Yet, few of these articles investigate the outcomes of base closures, they simply explain the process.

### **The National Historic Preservation Act**

The National Historic Preservation Act is “an act to establish a program for the preservation of additional historic properties throughout the nation, and for other purposes,” signed into law in October of 1966.<sup>4</sup> The National Historic Preservation Act continues to be the main tool used to protect historic cultural resources in the United States; it established the Register of Historic Places, which simultaneously created a consistent recognition process for historic resources throughout the country. Sections 106 and 110 of the act specifically relate to the use of federal funds and federally owned resources.

Section 106 requires all projects using federal resources to consider the affects of the

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<sup>1</sup> Salvatore Deluca, “Base Motives,” *Preservation* 57.5 (2005): 11-14.

<sup>2</sup> Sannie K. Osborne and Robert Wallace, “New Frontiers, New Soldiers of Preservation, The Presidio of San Francisco under Civilian Control,” *CRM* 24.3 (2001): 38-41.

<sup>3</sup> Wayne Brew, “The Hole in the Map: Letterkenny Army Depot, Historic Preservation, and Base Closure and Realignment (BRAC),” *Material Culture* 41.1 (2009): 61-77.

<sup>4</sup> Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, The National Historic Preservation Act as Amended 2006, 25 Jan. 2009, 30 July 2012 <<http://www.achp.gov/nhpa.html>>.

project on historic resources before proceeding, and Section 110 requires all United States federal agencies to survey, document, and maintain the historic architectural resources owned by their respective agency. For this thesis Section 106 is more significant than Section 110, but Section 110 is discussed briefly.

### **The Base Realignment and Closure Act**

Military installation closures and realignments have been occurring virtually since the founding of the United States Military. However, the need to precisely record the process and to establish guidelines and requirements for closures and realignments did not begin until the 1960s. In the early 1960s the developing process was vague and required little communication between the United States Military and Congress. The 1960s process lead to the closure of sixty major military installations and hundreds of other realignments and minor closures, all before 1965.<sup>5</sup>

Congress quickly realized a need for a more involved realignment and closure process. Since the mid-1960s, the process has been evolving into an increasingly complicated and stringent procedure. Today's Base Realignment and Closure Act, referred to as BRAC, was passed in 1990. Since then, additional needs and issues have been identified and amendments have been made to meet these demands.

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<sup>5</sup> John Pike, "Military", Base Realignment and Closure (BRAC), 9 Nov. 2005, 3 March 2011 <<http://www.globalsecurity.org/military/facility/brac.htm>>.

BRAC requires adherence to other legislation, such as the National Environmental Protection Act and the National Historic Preservation Act. BRAC is a complicated process and involves governing bodies from the United States Military, state government, the local community, and private investment entities.

Since the enactment of the official Base Closure and Realignment Act in 1990, BRAC rounds have occurred in 1991, 1993, 1995, and 2005. With each round of closures and realignments, the United States Military initially submits a list of suggested realignments and closures. From this list of installations, the appointed commission narrows the list based upon the approved realignment and closure criteria. The criteria is reconsidered and posted for public comment before each round of closures and realignments. During the 1991, 1993, and 1995 commissions, there were a total of three hundred and eighty-nine recommendations. In 1991, there were eighty-two recommendations, in 1993 one hundred and seventy-five recommendations, and finally, in 1995, there were one hundred and thirty-two recommendations.<sup>6</sup> During the 2005 BRAC one hundred and ninety recommendations were made and fifty-one major closures and realignments were completed.<sup>7</sup>

## **Methodology**

Methodologies employed for the completion of this thesis included literature review, site visits, and interviews with cultural resource professionals related to each case study site. This thesis analyzes three case studies: the Presidio in San Francisco, CA, the Philadelphia Shipyard in Philadelphia, PA, and Fort Monroe in Hampton, VA.

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<sup>6</sup> United States, Defense Base Closure and Realignment Commission, 2005 Defense Base Closure and Realignment Commission Report (Washington: GPO 2005) 314.

<sup>7</sup> Pike, 1 April 2011, <<http://www.globalsecurity.org/military/facility/brac.htm>>.

The three installations were chosen from a long list of closed military installations recommended for analysis by United States Military cultural resource professionals. The case studies were specifically selected because of the similarities and differences between the three.

The literature review includes an analysis of BRAC and National Historic Preservation Act related documents, including Programmatic Agreements (PA), Memorandums of Understanding (MOU), preservation planning documents such as design guidelines, and current and future land and architecture re-use plans. Site visits consisted of a visual analysis, considering the successful re-use of the three installations. Factors for the visual analysis included general maintenance of the grounds and structures, current population statistics as related to capacity potential numbers, creative re-use ideas, and general productivity of the space. Interviews were conducted with cultural resource professionals associated with the BRAC process and the current development authorities. Professionals associated with the three sites provided insight into the BRAC process otherwise not available to the public.

## **Chapters**

Chapter two takes an in-depth look at the National Historic Preservation Act and the Base Closure and Realignment Act. While the two acts are essential to this thesis, they also exhibit several similarities to one another, and were conceived by the Federal Government within the same time frame. The second chapter looks at the history of the two acts with a brief look at why each was deemed necessary by the Federal Government.

Chapter three explains the rationale for case study selection. Comparing and contrasting the similarities and differences between the three installations, including

aspects related to their closures. Chapters four through six, present information related to each of the three case studies. A brief overview of each installation's history and past military use is included; along with a more in-depth look into each site's BRAC process, highlighting unique or unusual aspects. The case studies conclude with an examination of the current day uses of the former military bases, and their associated current and future preservation plans.

The subsequent chapter, chapter seven, considers the information presented in chapters four through six, comparing and contrasting information relevant to the BRAC process and identifies a set of criteria for analyzing the case studies in regards to historic preservation. Chapter eight is a conclusion of the entire thesis, answering the initial question put forward, "how does the Base Closure and Realignment process affect the long-term re-use of historically significant, military installations?" Lastly, future research is suggested, based on emerging trends amongst the three case studies.

## CHAPTER 2

### EXPLANATION OF THE NATIONAL HISTORIC PRESERVATION ACT AND THE BASE REALIGNMENT AND CLOSURE ACT

The National Historic Preservation Act and the Base Closure and Realignment Act are pieces of legislation essential to understanding the objectives of this thesis. Both acts were developed after the Federal Government's recognition of the potential detrimental effects of federal projects. Without legislative safeguards, federal projects may progress with little to no regard for the long-term impacts on surrounding communities. In the 1960s, the Federal Government recognized the issues caused by the loss of historic architecture and the closure and realignment of military bases to American culture.

#### **The National Historic Preservation Act**

The National Historic Preservation Act was signed into law in October of 1966, after the Federal Government realized that some of their other programs, specifically the Housing Act of 1949 and the Urban Renewal Act of 1954, led to a large number of historic building demolitions across the country.<sup>8</sup> The Federal Government provided funds to demolish old architecture to make room for new developments and roads, intending to ignite the economy. While new developments may be significant to economic success, consideration should be given to the historic structures already in existence and their potential re-use.

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<sup>8</sup> Norman Tyler, Ted Ligibel, and Ilene Tyler, Historic Preservation an Introduction to its History, Principles, and Practices, (W.W. Norton and Co: New York, 2009), 44.

Congress became aware of the detrimental effects these programs were having on historic architecture and drafted and approved the National Historic Preservation Act to counteract the previous legislation and offer a level of protection to historic resources.

The National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) is: “an act to establish a program for the preservation of additional historic properties throughout the nation and for other purposes.”<sup>9</sup> Aspects of Section 1 of the NHPA correspond to the significance of this thesis, and some of the main ideals of historic preservation, “(1) the spirit and direction of the Nation are founded upon and reflected in its historic heritage.” Additionally, “(2) the historical and cultural foundations of the Nation should be preserved as a living part of our community life and development in order to give a sense of orientation to the American people.”<sup>10</sup>

The NHPA is specifically significant to the question examined in this thesis because of Sections 106 and 110. Section 106 is however, more significant to this thesis than Section 110, because Section 106 involves the use of federal resources in redevelopment projects. Whereas Section 110 discusses the management of federally owned property. Section 106 states:

The head of any Federal agency having direct or indirect jurisdiction over a proposed Federal or federally assisted undertaking in any State and the head of any Federal department or independent agency having authority to license any undertaking shall, prior to the approval of the expenditure of any federal funds on the undertaking or prior to the issuance of any license, as the case may be, take into account the effect of the undertaking on any district, site, building, structure, or object that is included in or eligible for inclusion in the National Register. The head of any such agency shall afford the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation established under Title II of this Act a reasonable opportunity to

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<sup>9</sup> Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, 30 July 2012 <<http://www.achp.gov/nhpa.html>>.

<sup>10</sup> <http://www.nps.gov/history/local-law/nhpa1966.htm>



comment with regard to such undertaking.<sup>11</sup>

Section 106 addresses the use of federal resources and the consideration of long-term impacts on cultural resources before a project may move forward. Section 110 addresses property owned and/or operated by federal agencies, stating:

The heads of all Federal agencies shall assume responsibility for the preservation of historic properties, which are owned or controlled by such agency. Prior to acquiring, constructing, or leasing buildings for purposes of carrying out agency responsibilities, each Federal agency shall use, to the maximum extent feasible, historic properties available to the agency. Each agency shall undertake, consistent with the preservation of such properties and the mission of the agency and the professional standards established pursuant to section 101(g), any preservation, as may be necessary to carry out this section.<sup>12</sup>

### **The Base Realignment and Closure Act**

The closure and realignment of United States Military bases located within the United States and throughout the world is a sensitive topic. The closure of military bases can be controversial for numerous reasons including job displacement, environmental factors, the presence of historic structures, and political issues. Additionally, United States Military installations employ large numbers of people, both military and civilian personnel, so a closure often has a major impact on the economy of the surrounding communities. Since the 1960s, the increasing complexity of issues associated with base realignments and closures has resulted in a multifaceted set of procedures, which must be followed throughout the process.

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<sup>11</sup> National Preservation Act of 1966, 10 April 2012 <<http://www.nps.gov/history/local-law/nhpa1966.htm>>.

<sup>12</sup> National Preservation Act of 1966, 10 April 2012 <<http://www.nps.gov/history/local-law/nhpa1966.htm>>.

Depending on what type of group or organization is acquiring the decommissioned military base, there are different steps to follow. These types of groups or organizations can be other federal agencies, state or local governments, private organizations, or individuals. There are also several options concerning compensation, “including public benefit transfers, economic development conveyances at cost and no cost, negotiated sales to State or local government, conservation conveyances, and public sales, by which to transfer property on closed or realigned installations”.<sup>13</sup>

### **General History of the Base Closure and Realignment Act**

Due to an increased need for military facilities during World War Two and the Korean War, the Department of Defense (DoD) established a large inventory of bases. With decreasing force numbers and recognition of the need to downgrade, official military base closures began in the early 1960s. A process was designed and developed by the Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara, under the direction of President John F. Kennedy. The procedure developed by McNamara required only limited consultation between military departments and Congress in order to successfully close or realign a military facility. The ease of this process resulted in the closure of sixty major bases and hundreds of other realignments and minor closures, all before 1965.<sup>14</sup>

Congress was not satisfied with the high number of closures during the early 1960s, and attempted to pass a bill in 1965 requiring the DoD to notify Congress of any plans to close or realign a military facility. President Lyndon B. Johnson vetoed this

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<sup>13</sup> United States, Office of the Deputy Under the Secretary of Defense, Base Development and Realignment Manual (Washington: GPO, 2006) 17-18.

<sup>14</sup> Pike, 1 April 2011, <<http://www.globalsecurity.org/military/facility/brac.htm>>.

initial bill.<sup>15</sup> In 1976, Congress again attempted to control the realignment and closure process with the proposal of the Military Construction Authorization Bill. The bill included a section specifically discussing planned congressional involvement in future closure and realignment projects. President Gerald Ford refused to sign the original version of the bill, stating he found the bill to have,

highly objectionable provisions that would have delayed for at least a year almost any action to close or realign a major military installation. Such unnecessary delay would have wasted defense dollars, which are needed to strengthen our military capabilities and would also have substantially limited my powers as Commander in Chief over our military installations.<sup>16</sup>

A second draft of the same bill, which limited the amount of time for congressional interference from one year to sixty days, was presented to and signed by President Ford three months later.<sup>17</sup>

In 1977, President Jimmy Carter signed public law 95-82, codified as Section 2687, Title 10, United States Code. This law was used to refine and strengthen congressional involvement in closures and realignments. The new law required the Department of Defense to prepare environmental, economic, and strategic reports discussing the proposed closure's impact on the surrounding community. After the completion of the required studies, the Department of Defense was required to submit their findings to Congress and wait for a time period of up to sixty days for a response.<sup>18</sup> If Congress did not approve of the proposed realignment or closure the Department of

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<sup>15</sup> United States, Defense Base Closure and Realignment Commission, 2005 Defense Base Closure and Realignment Commission Report (Washington: GPO 2005) 311.

<sup>16</sup> "Gerald Ford- 834 Statement on Signing the Military Construction Authorization Bill," The American Presidency Project, 15 March 2011, <<http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/ws/index.php?pid=6392#axzz1IsiMA1Ky>>.

<sup>17</sup> IBID

<sup>18</sup> Pike, 30 March 2011, <<http://www.globalsecurity.org/military/facility/brac.htm>>.

Defense could not legally proceed with the project. The stringent requirements presented by this law in conjunction with the requirements of the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) resulted in no major base closures for an entire decade from, 1977-1987.<sup>19</sup>

In 1988, the Department of Defense's annual budget had been declining for three years and was expected to continue in this direction. The realization of the decreasing funds and the percentage of the budget being expended on unnecessary military bases pressed the Secretary of Defense Frank Carlucci, under the direction of President Ronald Reagan, to establish the Defense Secretary's Commission on base realignment and closure. The approval of this commission came from the acceptance of Public Law 100-526. The commission was given the right to meet in private, reporting directly to the Secretary of Defense without consulting Congress. This round of closures was also given additional leeway concerning NEPA regulations. The closed-door process resulted in some controversy. Portions of Congress believed the base closures were concentrated in congressional districts out of favor with the administration. The 1988 commission recommended the closure of eighty-six bases and the realignment of fifty-nine others. The legal power given to this commission expired on December 31, 1988.<sup>20</sup>

### **Base Realignment and Closures in the 1990s**

From the 1960s through the 1980s, the United States government learned a great deal from previous closure experiences. In 1990 a new process for base closures and realignments was developed, under the supervision of President George H.W. Bush. Enacted in November of 1990, the Base Closure and Realignment Commission (BRAC)

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<sup>19</sup> United States, DCSOPS, Historical Office, Ziobro, Melissa, "Base Realignment and Closure at Fort Monmouth 1988-2005," (GOP: 2005) 4.

<sup>20</sup> 2005 Defense Base Closure and Realignment Commission Report, 311-312.

was established under Public Law 101-510. This law required the establishment of three commissions to operate in 1991, 1993, and 1995, each with eight members appointed by the President. In order to create a fair, bipartisan commission, the President was allowed and encouraged to seek recommendations from,

the Speaker of the House of Representatives concerning the appointment of two members, the majority leader of the Senate concerning the appointment of two members, and each of the minority leaders of the House of Representatives and the Senate, respectively, concerning the appointment of one member.<sup>21</sup>

The years 1991, 1993, and 1995 were strategically chosen as years to hold the commission's deliberations because they were non-election years. A major concern when formatting the closure and realignment process was controlling political influences either for or against changes to military installations within the United States. Limiting commissions to non-election years was an attempted political safe guard.

The 1990 procedures differed from all the other base closure and realignment procedures established to date. Unlike the 1988 commission, deliberations were open to the public and all the information considered by the commission was made available to members of Congress upon request. The first step, in the new process, required the DoD to submit their proposed criteria for base closure and realignment selection to the Federal Register for public comments.<sup>22</sup> The Federal Register is "published by the Office of the Federal Register, National Archives and Records Administration ... [with] daily publication for rules, proposed rules, and notices of federal agencies and organizations, as

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<sup>21</sup> United States, CRS Report for Congress, Military Base Closures: A Historical Review from 1988 to 1995 (Washington, DC, GPO, 2004) 5-6.

<sup>22</sup> Military Base Closures: A Historical Review from 1988 to 1995, 9.

well as executive orders and other presidential documents”.<sup>23</sup> The Department of Defense’s criteria was posted on November 30, 1990 and left for comments until February 15, 1991. The main aspects for consideration were finalized as:

Military Value

1. Current and future mission requirements and the impact on operational readiness of the Department of Defense’s total force.
2. Availability and condition of land, facilities and associated airspace at both the existing and potential receiving locations.
3. Ability to accommodate contingency, mobilization, and future total force requirements at both the existing and potential receiving locations.
4. Cost and manpower implications.

Return on Investment

5. Extent and timing of potential costs and savings, including the number of years, beginning with the date of completion of the closure or realignment, for the savings to exceed the cost.

Impact

6. Economic impact on communities.
7. Ability of both the existing and potential receiving communities’ infrastructure to support forces, missions, and personnel.
8. Environmental impact.<sup>24</sup>

Based upon the finalized aspects of consideration, the next step in the process involves the Department of Defense creating a list of bases suggested for closure or realignment. The Department of Defense’s (DoD) suggestions are then submitted to the commission for additions and/or deletions. Simultaneously, while the list is submitted to the commission for consideration, the Government Accountability Office (GAO) produces reports for use by both the commission and Congress regarding the recommendations’ feasibilities and the selection process utilized by the DoD.

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<sup>23</sup> United States, GPO Access, The Federal Register (FR): Main Page, Jan 3 2011, 3 25 2011, <<http://www.gpoaccess.gov/fr/>>.

<sup>24</sup> Military Base Closures: A Historical Review from 1988 to 1995, 10.

Once the commission agrees upon a finalized list, the list of recommendations is forwarded to the President of the United States for approval. The President then has the right to disagree and resubmit the list to the commission for amendments. After making amendments to the list of recommendations, the commission re-submits a finalized list to the President. If the President still does not approve of the amended list of recommendations, the commission for that particular year ceases to exist, and no realignments or closures occur.

If the President agrees with either the first or second drafts of the commission's list, the President forwards the list onward to Congress. Then, Congress can either fully agree with the list or completely deny the proposal. Congress cannot make amendments. Also, if Congress does not respond within forty-five days, the commission's recommendations immediately go into effect. After the congressional vote is formalized, the Secretary of Defense is required to follow through on all recommendations for closures and realignments within a period of six years.<sup>25</sup>

Over the course of the four commissions in 1988, 1991, 1993, and 1995 a total of 534 recommendations were suggested by the commission and carried out by the DoD. A numeric breakdown of the four commissions is as follows: in 1988 there were one hundred and forty-five recommendations, in 1991 eighty-two recommendations, in 1993 one hundred and seventy-five recommendations, and finally in 1995 there were one hundred and thirty-two recommendations.<sup>26</sup>

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<sup>25</sup> Military Base Closures: A Historical Review from 1988 to 1995, 5-8.

<sup>26</sup> 2005 Defense Base Closure and Realignment Commission Report, 314.

The BRAC Act was originally created to help balance the Department of Defense's budget by eliminating unnecessary costs. Although the 1988-1995 commissions closed and realigned a significant number of bases, there is no data to support this claim. The DoD claims their savings of projected upkeep costs surpasses the upfront costs of closures, but currently the statement is impossible to prove because of a lack of financial records.

After the 1995 BRAC, Congress decided not to renew the statutory authority needed for the continuation of the commission. The legislation was allowed to expire in December of 1995. Another commission was not established until 2005. The gap in time between the commissions required new staff to be hired and new procedures to be developed.

### **BRAC 2005**

The BRAC of 2005 was supported by the approval of Public Law 107-107, also known as the National Defense Authorization Act for fiscal year 2002. This law, along with amendments made by Public Law 107-314 and 108-375, established the additions and alterations needed to efficiently amend the 1990 Defense Base Closure and Realignment Act or Public Law 101-510. The initial law was signed on December 22, 2001 and the commission was required to have completed their recommendations by April 15, 2006.<sup>27</sup>

The process created for the 2005 BRAC was structurally similar to the one established in 1990. All of the hearings were once again open to the public, creating a transparent deliberation process. The first step similarly involved the DoD drafting a

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<sup>27</sup> 2005 Defense Base Closure and Realignment Commission Report, 324.



document of closure and realignment criteria to be published on the Federal Register for public approval. After the selection criterion was finalized the DoD submitted a list of recommendations to the commission. The GAO was once again required to develop reports concerning the feasibility of the Department of Defense's recommendations for use by the commission and Congress.

The commission was permitted to alter the Department of Defense's list of suggestions for closures and realignments, but in 2005 there were more stringent regulations. The finalized commission list was then to be forwarded to the President for approval and finally onto Congress. Similarly to the 1990 process, if the President did not object to the list and Congress did not respond with a joint resolution within forty-five days of receiving the list, the recommendations would become law and would be carried out by the Secretary of Defense.<sup>28</sup>

Although the basic steps of the process remained the same, several fundamental changes were made. Essentially the entire mindset concerning why bases should be closed or realigned had changed. Signed into law in December of 2001, the establishment of the 2005 BRAC came soon after the attacks on September 11, 2001. In 1990 the main reason to close and realign military facilities was to save money, but in 2001 the main rationale was to improve military capabilities. The idea was that by combining and coordinating the powers of the three military forces, the United States' military would become stronger as a whole. This goal was to be accomplished by producing joint operations and Joint Cross-Service Groups (JCSG).

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<sup>28</sup> IBID, 325-326.

Seven JCSGs were recommended including, Education and Training; Headquarters and Support Activities; Industrial; Intelligence; Medical; Supply and Storage; and Technical. The creation of these specialized groups and facilities were meant to serve all three branches of the military, the United States Navy/Marines, Army, and Air Force. The fundamental change in regards to why military bases should be closed or realigned created a need for a revised set of criteria. The finalized criteria utilized by the Department of Defense when making their recommendations for BRAC 2005 was as follows:

#### Military Value

1. The current and future mission capabilities and the impact on operational readiness of the total force of the Department of Defense, including the impact on joint war fighting, training, and readiness.
2. The availability and condition of land, facilities, and associated airspace (including training areas suitable for maneuver by ground, naval, or air forces throughout a diversity of climate and terrain areas and staging areas for the use of the Armed Forces in homeland defense missions) at both existing and potential receiving locations.
3. The ability to accommodate contingency, mobilization, surge, and future total force requirements at both existing and potential receiving locations to support operations and training.
4. The cost of operations and the manpower implications.

#### Other Considerations

5. The extent and timing of potential costs and savings, including the number of years, beginning with the date of completion of the closure or realignment, for the savings to exceed the costs.

#### Impacts

6. The economic impact on existing communities in the vicinity of military installations.
7. The ability of the infrastructure of both the existing and potential receiving communities to support forces, missions, and personnel.
8. The environmental impact, including the impact of costs related to potential environmental restoration, waste management, and environmental compliance activities.<sup>29</sup>

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<sup>29</sup> United States, Department of Defense, Final Selection Criteria for 2005, (GPO: Washington, D.C. 2004) 1-3.

The differences between the criteria created in 1990 as compared to the set established in 2005 highlights the changing mentalities of both society and the commission over the fifteen-year period.

Another significant change concerning the requirements placed on the DoD was the creation of a force structure plan covering the next twenty years. The report was to include a survey of all of the military's structures, along with an analysis of how these resources could be used to their fullest potential in the future. Previously a similar report was required, but only had to take into consideration the next six years. The time period extension allowed for increased insight into the military's future plans and needs.<sup>30</sup>

In regards to the organization of the commission, an additional member was added, changing the number from eight to nine. This change was made in order to decrease the chances of tied votes. Also, for the first time the commission was required to consider the cost and impact of environmental factors related to base closures and realignments. Previously consideration was only given to the physical environmental impacts, with no regard to cost or time. A final change was the elimination of converting a military base to an inactive status. During previous commissions changing a base status from active to inactive was acceptable when there was a chance the base would be needed again in the future. If a base was marked as inactive, the facilities were mothballed and left vacant so they could easily be revitalized and used again in the future. This option was eliminated because mothballing a base still takes funds for preventive maintenance and offers the surrounding community no benefits. High consideration of the surrounding community's economic impact, after base closure or

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<sup>30</sup> "Force Structure Plan," 13 Aug. 2012 <<http://www.brac.gov/docs/DoDForceStructurePlan.pdf>> 5.

realignment, was still considered a major factor when determining final recommendation decisions.<sup>31</sup> For a visual description and timeline of the BRAC 2005 process, see Figure 2.1.

The 2005 BRAC made one hundred and eighty-two total recommendations for closures and realignments, suggesting twenty-two major closures and thirty-three major realignments. The 2005 round of closures and realignments were scheduled for completion on September 15, 2011,<sup>32</sup> however many of the associated closures and realignments are still underway.<sup>33</sup>

The United States Army refers to closures, which take longer than the allotted six years as “legacy projects.” The army is more hesitant than the other armed forces to release their property to new ownership, and instead often lease their properties for extended periods of time. While the army continues to own the property and lease the structures for use by the public, the army incurs additional infrastructure maintenance and grounds up-keep costs.<sup>34</sup>

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<sup>31</sup> 2005 Defense Base Closure and Realignment Commission Report, 330-342.

<sup>32</sup> Pike, 1 April 2011, <<http://www.globalsecurity.org/military/facility/brac.htm>>.

<sup>33</sup> United States Army Realignment and Closure Division (BRACD), BRAC 2005 General Information, April 6 2011, <<http://www.hqda.army.mil/acsimweb/brac/>>.

<sup>34</sup> Interview with Josh Gillespie, Fort Monroe, 15 March 2012.

# Base Realignment & Closure Recommendations

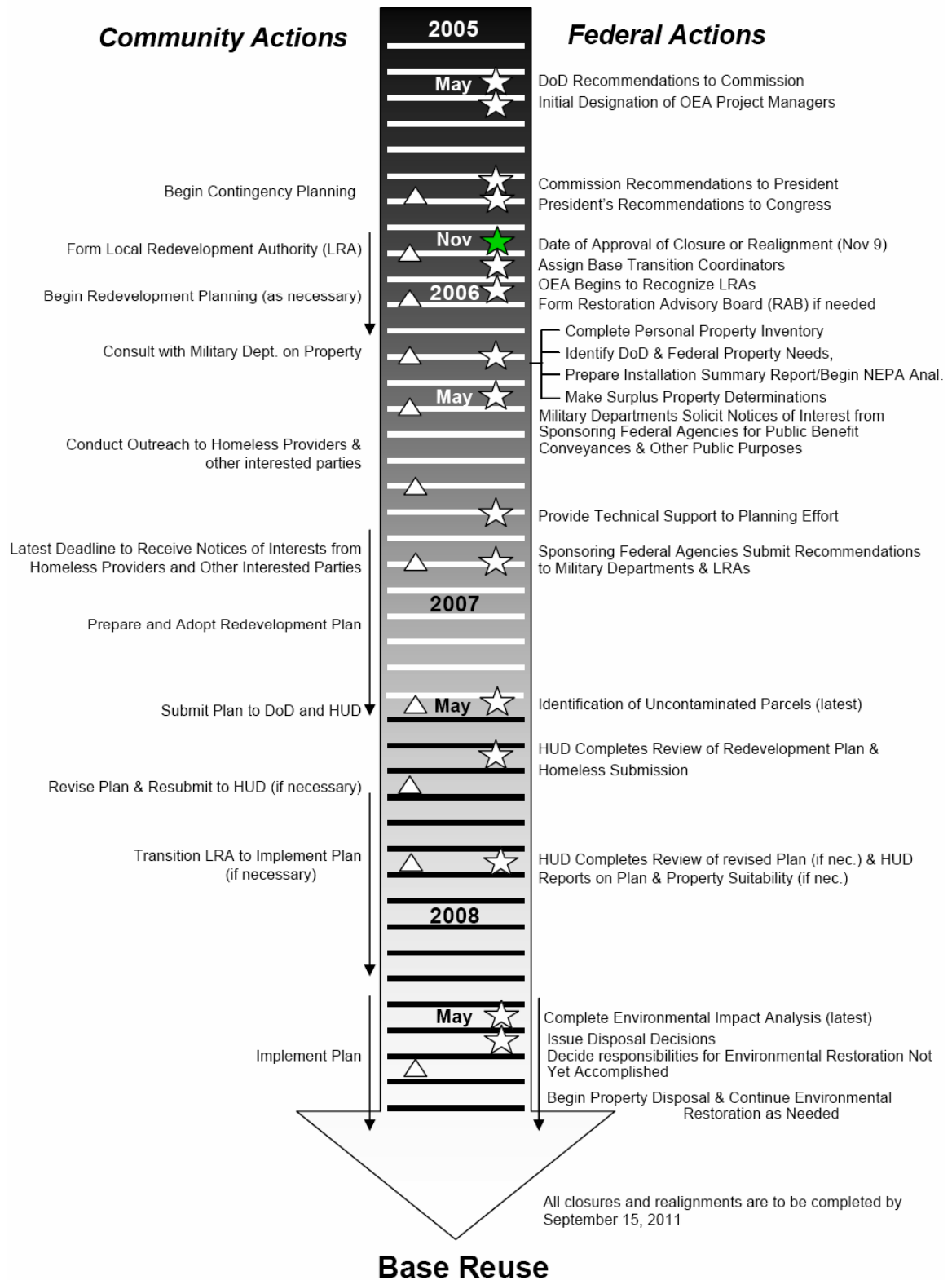


Figure 2.1: Visual Explanation, 2005 BRAC Process (Source: Base Development and Realignment Manual, 25)

## **Local Redevelopment Authorities and Redevelopment Plans**

Once a military base is approved for closure, decisions must be made as to who will be allowed to acquire the property. The first decision to be made determines whether a re-use by the Department of Defense or other federal agency is possible or needed. If no federal agencies want the base, then state or local governments or private organizations can purchase or receive the property through a transfer situation. If a federal agency takes on the property such as U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) or the U.S. General Services Administration (GSA), then the DoD does not have to follow as many steps in finalizing the closure of the installation, because a government to government transfer is considered to cause no adverse effect. If a group outside of the federal government, such as a state or local government or private organization acquires the property there are several additional steps to follow.

Therefore, the conversion of a closed military base to a new owner, other than a federal agency, begins with a planning process involving an Economic Adjustment Committee (EAC) (incorporating representatives from the DoD and other advisory federal agencies) and a Local Redevelopment Authority (LRA) (an LRA can be chartered locally or by a state). Once the planning process is underway the community/organization works on creating future use plans and economic recovery schemes.<sup>35</sup> Based on the redevelopment plan the community may qualify for one of the following low cost or no cost conveyances:

Public benefit conveyances- typically involves airports, education, health, historic monuments, ports, parks and recreation, and wildlife conservation areas.  
Generally, a Federal agency with specific expertise in a conveyance category

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<sup>35</sup> David Sorenson, Military Base Closure A Reference Handbook (Westport, CT: Greenwood, 2007) 36-40.

(such as the National Park Service for parkland and recreation conveyances) is authorized to serve as a sponsoring or approving agency.

Homeless assistance conveyances- entails no cost consideration for the property, either to the LRA or to the representatives of the homeless. Homeless conveyances require that the use of the property be limited to authorized programs that support the homeless, as determined by HUD. The LRA is responsible for monitoring implementation of the homeless assistance provisions of its redevelopment plan.

Environmental responsibilities conveyance- is made to a party that enters into an agreement to perform all environmental responsibilities, including remediation for the property.

Conservation- a Military Department can convey property that is suitable and desirable for conservation purposes to states, political subdivisions of states, or nonprofit organizations that exist for the primary purpose of conservation.<sup>36</sup>

If the community/organization cannot receive a no cost or low cost conveyance of the property because their redevelopment plan does not meet the qualifications, there are other ways to acquire the property through compensation to the DoD including:

Negotiated sale- to public bodies or other entities requires payment of not less than the fair market value. Negotiated sales to public bodies can only be conducted if a benefit, which would not be realized from competitive sale or authorized public benefit conveyance, will result from the negotiated sale. Terms of negotiated sales are subject to review by Congress.

Advertised public sale- the party that submits the highest bid, provided it is not less than the fair market value, may purchase the property.

Economic Development Conveyance (EDC) - is made to an LRA for purposes of generating jobs. A Military Department may approve an EDC, but it must seek to obtain fair market value for the property. There is also authority for no-cost EDCs.

Depository institution facility- involves the sale of a facility at fair market value to the operating depository institution that constructed or substantially improved the facility.<sup>37</sup>

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<sup>36</sup> Base Development and Realignment Manual, 28-31.

<sup>37</sup> IBID.

Next the LRA will submit their final redevelopment plan to the DoD and HUD. The DoD makes the ultimate decision concerning the future use of the decommissioned military base. The LRA's plan can be approved or rejected. The DoD also has the discretion to issue a conveyance of the property to the petitioning party or to deny the request. Additionally, while the LRA is working on a redevelopment plan, they are required to advertise to non-profit organizations, which may be interested in developing a way to support the needs of local homeless on the site.<sup>38</sup>

### **Base Closure Community Redevelopment and Homeless Assistance Act of 1994**

According to the Base Closure Community Redevelopment and Homeless Act of 1994, once an LRA has started formulating a redevelopment plan for the soon to be vacant military base, the LRA is required to advertise the availability of the space for homeless persons' needs. The LRA is required to issue an advertisement for this opportunity within thirty days of the initiation of their planning process. Notices of Intent from non-profit organizations are then accepted for up to one hundred and eighty days past the day the advertisement is issued.

After collecting the notices of intent the LRA is required to consider the feasibility of each, within the redevelopment plan. By law the LRA must attempt to balance the needs of their community's economy and the needs of the homeless when formulating the final redevelopment plan submitted to both the DoD and HUD. If no Notices of Intent are submitted during the window of time allotted, the LRA may proceed without considering the needs of the homeless in the final redevelopment plan.

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<sup>38</sup> Sorenson, 41- 67.



HUD may, however, choose to reach out to non-profits in the area that care for the homeless, to insure the organizations were made aware of the opportunity.<sup>39</sup>

Simultaneously, while the LRA is accepting notices of intent concerning the needs of the homeless and formulating a proposed redevelopment plan, the DoD works on meeting the requirements of the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) of 1969 and Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) of 1966.<sup>40</sup>

### **NEPA and Section 106 Requirements**

Base closures and realignments must comply with both NEPA and Section 106 of the NHPA. Yet, since such a federal function is required to follow both processes, 36 CFR Section 800.8(c) of Section 106 of the NHPA, states that both processes can be combined into one. Essentially the DoD is allowed to follow the NEPA process with additional requirements, in order to meet Section 106 standards. The process begins with the composition of an Environmental Assessment (EA) for the initiation of the NEPA process. Simultaneously, the DoD decides if there will be an undertaking involving structures eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. To use this particular provision the DoD must comply with the following requirements:

1. The agency must notify the State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO)/ Tribal Historic Preservation Office (THPO) and Advisory Council on Historic Preservation (ACHP) that it intends to substitute.
2. The agency has to identify consulting parties -- such as American Indian Tribes and Native Hawaiian groups, local governments, preservation organizations, and so forth -- in a manner consistent with Section 800.3(f) of the NHPA.

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<sup>39</sup> National Law Center On Homelessness and Poverty, Utilizing the Base Closure Community Redevelopment and Homeless Assistance Act A Toolkit for Nonprofits, July 2007, 2-6.

<sup>40</sup> Base Development and Realignment Manual, 25.

3. The agency has to identify historic properties and assess effects on them in a manner consistent with Sec. 800.4 through 800.5 of the NHPA, but the scope and timing of identification and effect determination may be "phased to reflect the Agency Official's consideration of project alternatives in the NEPA process" and the effort the agency expends must "commensurate with the assessment of other environmental factors."

4. The agency must consult about the action's effects with the SHPO/THPO, Native Hawaiian groups, and other consulting parties during NEPA scoping, analysis, and documentation, and it must involve the public in accordance with the agency's NEPA procedures.

5. The agency must develop alternatives and mitigation measures in consultation with the other stakeholders, and describe these measures in its EA or Draft Environmental Impact Statement (DEIS).<sup>41</sup>

Once the process is complete, and dependent upon the outcome, an Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) or a Finding of No Significant Impact (FONSI) needs to be written for the NEPA process. A Memorandum of Understanding (MOU), a Programmatic Agreement (PA), or a Finding of No Adverse Effect is also required to complete the Section 106 regulation requirements. Basic requirements of the MOU or the PA are met by incorporating covenants or a preservation easement into the deed of the property before sale or transfer to a non-federal owner.<sup>42</sup>

## **Conclusion**

The NHPA and the BRAC Act were passed into law because the Federal Government recognized the negative impacts federal agencies were having on surrounding American communities.

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<sup>41</sup> National Preservation Institute, Tools for CRMs Substituting NEPA for Section 106 Review, 10 April 2011, <<http://www.npi.org/NEPA/sect106.html>>.

<sup>42</sup> Base Development and Realignment Manual, 101-103.

The Federal Government initiated the associated legislation for historic preservation and base closures and realignments in the 1960s. Over time both acts have been amended and altered to meet the United States' changing needs.

Before the National Historic Preservation Act, historic structures were not protected and often demolished. The Federal Government recognized the role they were playing in these demolitions through the Housing Act of 1949 and the Urban Renewal Act of 1954, both of which provided federal funds to demolish old architecture and build new. The Federal Government's recognition of the importance of historic structures came with the NHPA in 1966.<sup>43</sup>

Likewise, the Federal Government acknowledged the detrimental effects the closure or realignment of military bases can have on surrounding communities. In 1967 Congress passed the Military Construction Authorization Bill, requiring Federal Government involvement in closure and realignment decisions, and no longer allowing the DoD to make such decisions independently. Again, in the late 1980s, early-1990s, and early-2000s, the base closure and realignment procedures were modified to meet changing societal, budgetary, and military needs.

The National Historic Preservation Act and the Base Closure and Realignment Act are both significant pieces of legislation, used to protect American interests. The two acts provide safeguards against hasty development decisions and require the consideration of secondary impacts before moving forward with DoD closures and realignments.

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<sup>43</sup> Tyler, 44.

## CHAPTER 3

### CASE STUDY SELECTION

Case study selection began with recommendations from two University of Georgia Master of Historic Preservation Program graduates, who are currently employed by the cultural and environmental resources department of the United States Navy-Michelle Michael and Heather McDonald. Over the course of several months, both Michael and McDonald offered numerous suggestions of closed military installations around the country. From this extensive list of installations, three were chosen as case studies for this thesis, based upon the use of additional criteria. These criteria include BRAC year, post-military ownership, historic significance, service, location, and initial perceived success or failure within the re-use process. The Presidio in San Francisco, CA, the Philadelphia Shipyard in Philadelphia, PA, and Fort Monroe in Hampton, VA, were chosen as the three case studies.

In order to examine the evolution of the BRAC process, case studies were chosen from widely varying closure years. The range of closure announcement years allows for a consideration of both the changes regarding closure protocol and standards and the rate of re-development progress demonstrated by each installation since closure. The Presidio was nominated for closure during the 1988 BRAC, the Philadelphia Shipyard in the 1995 BRAC round, and finally Fort Monroe was listed for closure on the finalized 2005 BRAC list.

Amongst the three case studies, the Presidio has progressed the farthest, in regards to redevelopment. The Presidio has developed, approved, and implemented a long-term re-use plan. The Presidio's plan allows for commercial, residential, and recreational uses. The Presidio Trust owns and leases all on site structures for both commercial and domestic uses. The Philadelphia Shipyard created an initial development plan in 1994 and published a revised version in 2004.<sup>44</sup> The Shipyard has begun leasing and selling existing commercial structures and allowed for new commercial development with space cleared by demolition. The current deed does not allow for residential use, but domestic use is a future goal for the Philadelphia Shipyard, and one the development authority believes they will be able to achieve through negotiations with the navy.<sup>45</sup> Recreational facilities have been incorporated, by the development authority, throughout the site for use by both daytime employees and the surrounding community. Fort Monroe is still in the initial planning period. No official decisions have been made regarding the ways the installation will be used in the future. Fort Monroe is, however, already leasing residential structures to individuals for domestic use and the Chamberlin Hotel has been converted into leased apartments.

Current ownership is another significant factor regarding the re-use process. The Presidio is owned by a partnership between the Presidio Trust and the National Park Service, two Federal Government agencies. The Philadelphia Shipyard is owned by the city of Philadelphia, a local government entity, and managed by the Philadelphia Industrial Development Corporation (PIDC), an organization responsible for the management of several sites across the greater Philadelphia area. Fort Monroe is still

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<sup>44</sup> Robert A.M Stern Architect. 2004 Philadelphia Navy Yard Master Plan. Jan 2004.

<sup>45</sup> Interview, Director of Management & Development Mark Seltzer, 9 Aug. 2012.

owned by the United States Army, but the Fort Monroe Authority, a private development organization, has been established to accept ownership once released by the United States Army. Until the army releases ownership of the property, the Fort Monroe Authority is acting as an intermediate management agency, responsible for leasing the domestic structures and their upkeep, but not responsible for the grounds or the security of the space. These various forms of ownership, federal agency, local government, and private development group affect the BRAC process.

The three case studies are historically significant, iconic military installations. Fort Monroe is the oldest of the three case sites, originally established in 1609 by the British. The Spanish initially established the Presidio in 1776; and the Philadelphia Shipyard was established by Americans in 1775 and later moved to its current location in 1876. The three case studies are amongst the oldest and most important military sites within the United States.

Both the Presidio and Fort Monroe were United States Army installations, while the United States Navy operated the Philadelphia Shipyard. When the Presidio and Fort Monroe were slated for closure the army completely vacated the two sites. However, at the Philadelphia Shipyard, the navy chose to maintain several structures and continues to run limited operations on the site. See Figure 3.1 for a visual explanation of which structures the navy retained and which are currently owned and managed by PIDC. Another factor for consideration is Fort Monroe and the Presidio were consistently open to the public for recreation activities, while the Philadelphia Shipyard was not open to the public while functioning as an active military base.

All three installations are located near a body of water. The Philadelphia Shipyard and Fort Monroe are located on the east coast and the Presidio on the west coast. Another consideration is Fort Monroe and the Presidio were established as military outposts and cities developed around them, while the opposite is true for the Philadelphia Shipyard. The city of Philadelphia was already established and the U.S. Navy found available land to build the Shipyard.

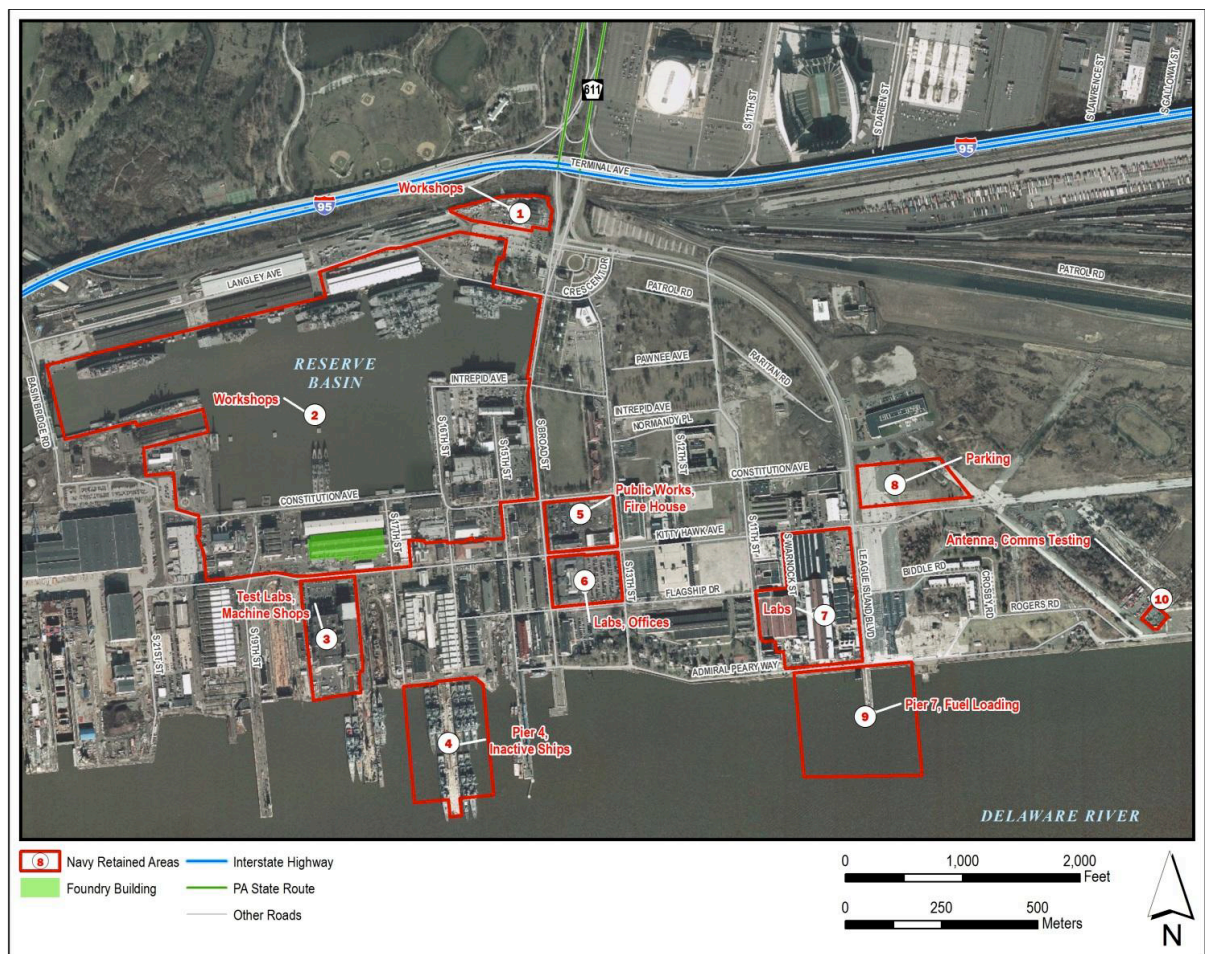


Figure 3.1: Ownership Divisions Map, Philadelphia Shipyard (Source: Navy, Philadelphia Shipyard)

A final criterion for case study selection was an initial perception of success or failure in regards to the re-use process. Before initiating research or conducting site visits, all three case studies were perceived as successes in the base closure process and in regards to historic preservation. The three case studies vary widely from one another offering great contrast and simultaneously great similarities, making the three significantly comparable.



## CHAPTER 4

### THE PRESIDIO



Figure 4.1: Aerial View of the Presidio, San Francisco, CA (Source: Presidio Trust)

The Presidio is located in San Francisco, California in close proximity to the Golden Gate Bridge. For a view of the Golden Gate Bridge in relation to the Presidio see Figure 4.1. The Presidio was named a National Historic Landmark District in 1962 and included as part of the Golden Gate National Recreation Area in 1972 by Public Law 92-589. The Presidio has a long history of occupation by Spain, Mexico, and the United States.

The Presidio was first commissioned as a military outpost on March 28, 1776, by Spanish military forces. The site was strategically chosen to protect the entrance to the San Francisco Bay. In Spanish, *presidio* means a fortified or garrisoned place,<sup>46</sup> and the use of this original, general term by the Spanish has remained the official name of the installation since 1776. Upon establishment, the Spanish erected a 200-yard square surrounded by fortified adobe walls. One of the first buildings constructed was built for officers' housing and later re-used by American forces as the site's officers' club.<sup>47</sup>

In 1822, Mexico gained independence from Spain and control of the Presidio. Mexico continued to use the Presidio until the fort was taken with force by American troops in 1846. During the years of Mexican ownership, the Presidio fell into a state of disrepair and decay, allowing the property to be taken by the U.S. military with little opposition.<sup>48</sup>

During the Great Depression, the New Deal created a series of programs to employ the American public. Several of these programs, including the Works Progress Administration (WPA), the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), and the Civil Works Administration (CWA) completed projects at the Presidio. WPA workers completed improvements and remodeled several of the installation's buildings, including the 1776 retrofitted officer's club (see Figure 4.3) and the post's road and infrastructure systems. CCC workers created hiking trails, picnic areas, and assisted with the planting of

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<sup>46</sup> John P. Langellier and Daniel B. Rosen, El Presidio de San Francisco, A History Under Spain and Mexico 1776-1846, (The Arthur H. Clarke Company, Spokane, Washington, 1996), 27-32.

<sup>47</sup> Roberts, Roberts, Encyclopedia of Historic Forts, (Macmillan Publishing, 1988), 89.

<sup>48</sup> Langellier, 145-186.

thousands of trees at the Presidio's golf course. However, the largest project completed under the New Deal was the Golden Gate Bridge.<sup>49</sup>

The completion of the Golden Gate Bridge required access through the Presidio, so initially army commanders were against the idea, since it would decrease the defense capabilities of the site. The army commanders were eventually overruled by the Secretary of War and the project moved forward. The construction of the Golden Gate Bridge created a new character for the Presidio and added an iconic image to the San Francisco landscape.<sup>50</sup> Before the completion of the Golden Gate Bridge, the city of San Francisco and the Presidio were only accessible to the north by ferry, therefore the addition of the bridge allowed for unprecedented growth.<sup>51</sup>

### **Military Usage**

The United States Army used the Presidio as an active military site from the installation's seizure in 1846 from Mexico, through the site's official closure in 1994. Beginning in 1857, the Presidio was continually used as the headquarters for the military department responsible for U.S. territory west of the Rocky Mountains.<sup>52</sup> During the American Civil War the Presidio was used to simultaneously train Union troops and defend the Western frontiers. Between 1893 and 1908 reinforced concrete batteries were constructed along the installation's northwest coast. The batteries were continuously updated until the 1940s for defense of the Golden Gate Strait and surrounding waters.<sup>53</sup>

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<sup>49</sup> Lisa M. Benton, The Presidio, from Army Post to National Park, (Northeastern University Press: 1998), 47-49.

<sup>50</sup> IBID, 47-50.

<sup>51</sup> Golden Gate Bridge, "Concept for a Bridge Across the Golden Gate Strait, 11 Sept. 2012 <<http://goldengatebridge.org/research/ConceptforaBridge.php>>.

<sup>52</sup> Roberts, 88.

<sup>53</sup> IBID, 90.

The Spanish American War of 1898 brought high numbers of volunteer infantry soldiers, who were trained at the Presidio. The year 1898 also marked the construction of the Letterman Medical Center to provide primary care for soldiers of the area. After the earthquake of 1906, the Presidio served the surrounding community by housing and treating thousands of San Francisco's victims.<sup>54</sup>

The Presidio played significant roles in World War One and Two. During World War One the Presidio served as a training camp for officers, as well as the headquarters for the Fourth Army and the Western Defense Command.<sup>55</sup> Additionally, the Presidio saw the construction of the air base Crissy Field (see Figure 4.2), and served as a training camp and departure point for troops sent overseas. During the Second World War, the Presidio's most significant function was the Letterman Hospital Complex, which at the time was the largest military hospital in the world.<sup>56</sup> The Letterman Medical Center was re-built in the mid-1960s and continued to serve the area's military personnel. In 1988 a research component was added to the Letterman complex, known as the Letterman Army Institute of Research.<sup>57</sup>

From 1963 through closure in 1994 the Presidio housed the Sixth Army Headquarters and Command for the eight western states (Arizona, California, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, and Washington), the Sixth Recruiting Brigade, the Fifteenth Army Reserve Corps, the U.S. Army Air Defense Command, and the Letterman

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<sup>54</sup> Roberts, 90.

<sup>55</sup> William Evinger, *Directory of Military Bases in the U.S.*, (Oryx Press, 1991), 28.

<sup>56</sup> Benton, 51.

<sup>57</sup> Evinger, 28.

Medical Complex.<sup>58</sup> Before closure the Presidio employed 3,600 active duty personnel with 6,200 associated dependents, and 4,250 civilian personnel.

### **Physical Resources Descriptions**

The San Francisco Presidio consists of approximately 800 structures, 500 of which are historically contributing.<sup>59</sup> According to the Presidio Trust, the main architectural styles include Italianate, Greek Revival, Queen Anne (see Figure 4.5), Colonial Revival, Mission Revival (see Figure 4.6), Mediterranean, World War Two Era, Post War Era, and Utilitarian.<sup>60</sup> During U.S. Army control, the Presidio experienced thirteen distinct building campaigns.<sup>61</sup> The Presidio was named a National Historic Landmark District in 1962 because of the site's association with Spain's colonization of California in the 18<sup>th</sup> century.<sup>62</sup> The wide range of construction dates, from 1776 through 2012, and the varying architectural styles create a rich and diverse built environment at the Presidio site.

Since obtaining ownership of the Presidio, the Presidio Trust has worked to rehabilitate historic objects such as walls and roads throughout the site, three hundred and twenty-five of the historic structures, and many of the historic landscapes including the forested areas and domestic spaces.<sup>63</sup> Currently, the Presidio Trust's preservation approach involves the removal of non-contributing structures and their replacement with

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<sup>58</sup> IBID, 91.

<sup>59</sup> Speech, Michael Boland, Chief of Planning Projects and Programs for the Presidio Trust, Athens, GA, 31 March 2012.

<sup>60</sup> The Presidio, Frequently Asked Questions, 11 Sept. 2012  
<<http://www.presidio.gov/about/Pages/frequently-asked-questions.aspx>>.

<sup>61</sup> Michael Boland, 31 March 2012.

<sup>62</sup> Norman, 34.

<sup>63</sup> The Presidio Trust, "Accomplishments and Awards," 31 Aug. 2012  
<<http://www.presidio.gov/about/Pages/historic-preservation-awards.aspx>>.

appropriate infill developments. Every Presidio Trust employee is trained in preservation practices and technical skills.<sup>64</sup> Additionally, the Presidio Trust partners with local, state, and national preservation organizations to provide preservation workshops and courses for preservation professionals and students. Educational outreach is a key tenet of the Presidio Trust's historic preservation program.<sup>65</sup>



Figure 4.2: Crissy Field Airplane Hanger, Commercial Space (Source: Presidio Trust)

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<sup>64</sup> Michael Boland, 31 March 2012.

<sup>65</sup> The Presidio Trust, "Training in Historic Preservation," 24 Sept. 2012 <<http://www.presidio.gov/about/Pages/preservation-training.aspx>>.





Figure 4.3: Officer's Club, Commercial Space (Source: Presidio Trust)



Figure 4.4: Montgomery Street Barracks, Commercial Space  
(Source: Library of Congress)



Figure 4.5: Funston Avenue Houses/ Officer's Row, Residential Space  
(Source: Presidio Trust)



Figure 4.6: Infantry Terrace Houses/ Residential Space (Source: Presidio Trust)



## Site Layout

The Presidio site consists of 1,500 acres located on the northern most point of the San Francisco Peninsula (see Figure 4.7). The northeast coast of the site runs along the San Francisco Bay and the northwest coast along the Pacific Ocean, while the south end of the site expands towards the city of San Francisco.<sup>66</sup> The Golden Gate Bridge, which opened for automobile and pedestrian use in 1937, creates a connection between the northern most point of the San Francisco Peninsula and Marion County crossing over the Golden Gate Strait.<sup>67</sup> The construction of the bridge required the demolition or relocation of several structures on the Presidio installation.<sup>68</sup> Two main routes, U.S. 101 and U.S. 1, connect the Golden Gate Bridge with the Presidio site and the city of San Francisco.<sup>69</sup>

Before the presence of the U.S. Army, the site of the Presidio was barren and plagued by high winds and sand storms. The soldiers re-locating to the site were generally from the east coast and disliked the Presidio's atmosphere, so the army undertook a large beautification project. The project created designed landscapes (see Figure 4.8) and the forestation of the installation, introducing various plant species and high numbers of eucalyptus tree groves.<sup>70</sup> The continued preservation of the landscape is significant to the retention of the cultural fabric at the Presidio. A loss of the landscape would result in a loss of the feel and overall appearance of the space. Important landscapes at the Presidio include the parade grounds, the eucalyptus tree groves, and the viewsheds of the Golden Gate Bridge.

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<sup>66</sup> Roberts, 88.

<sup>67</sup> 11 Sept. 2012 <<http://goldengatebridge.org/research/ConceptforaBridge.php>>.

<sup>68</sup> Benton, 49-50.

<sup>69</sup> IBID, 2.

<sup>70</sup> Michael Boland, 31 March 2012.

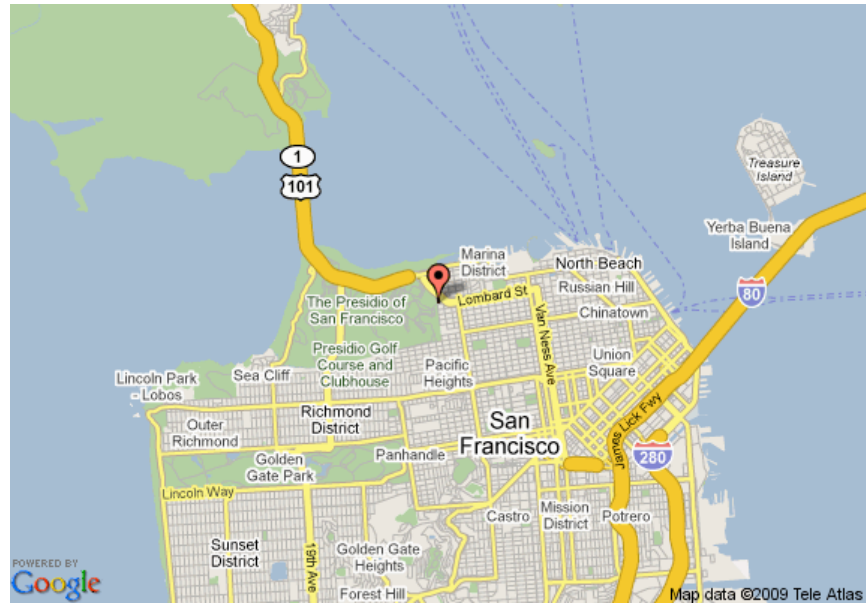


Figure 4.7: Map Showing Presidio Location (Source: Google Maps)



Figure 4.8: Detailed Map of the Presidio (Source: Presidio Trust)

## **BRAC Process and Current Ownership**

The Presidio was nominated and selected for closure during the 1988 Base Closure and Realignment Commission. The commission's proposed timeline required the army to vacate and officially close the installation by 1994. The vast cultural and natural resources present at the Presidio created interest in converting the space to a National Park. Upon closure the land transferred from the U.S. Army to the National Park Service (NPS), two federal agencies. Base closure requirements are not as stringent when land is transferred from one federal agency to another, because the Federal Government remains the landlord and steward.

Although NPS assumed ownership of the Presidio upon closure in 1994, Congress was not willing to appropriate the estimated \$700 million for initial conversion costs or to approve the estimated \$40 million annual operations budget.<sup>71</sup> To facilitate the development of the Presidio as a National Park and avoid over taxing the national budget, Congress developed the idea of the Presidio Trust. The Presidio Trust is a

wholly-owned federal government corporation managed by a seven-person board of directors. Six members are appointed by the President of the United States, and the seventh member is the Secretary of the Interior or the Secretary's delegate. The Trust was created in part to bring a depth of professional experience and special skills in property management, financing, leasing, and building restoration to the Presidio.<sup>72</sup>

The skills needed for the effective management of the Presidio (i.e. property management, financing, and leasing) are not skills commonly practiced among NPS personnel, so the utilization of a skilled board was essential. Additionally, the Presidio

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<sup>71</sup> IBID

<sup>72</sup> Presidio Trust Management Plan, 2002, Appendix B, <<http://www.presidio.gov/about/Administrative%20Documents/EXD-600-PTMP02-Plan.pdf>>.

was mandated to become financially independent by 2013, with incrementally decreasing federal assistance funds over the first fifteen years of management.<sup>73</sup> The Presidio Trust Act was approved and signed on November 12, 1996.<sup>74</sup> The Presidio Trust assumed management of eighty percent of the Presidio site on July 1, 1998.<sup>75</sup> The remaining twenty percent of the site is coastal land, which remains the sole responsibility of NPS. The eighty/ twenty percent management practices remain true through 2012.

### **Current Usage**

The Presidio currently serves domestic, commercial, and recreational needs of the surrounding San Francisco, CA community. The Presidio Trust leases domestic and commercial structures to private individuals and businesses, utilizing both short-term and long-term leases. Wide arrays of architecturally styled, domestic structures are available for lease, ranging from apartments and condos to single-family structures (see Figures 4.5 and 4.6). The domestic structures are contained within 21 distinctive neighborhood settings around the park. A housing preference is given to employees working within the boundaries of the Presidio.<sup>76</sup>

The Presidio currently houses a variety of businesses and commercial services, such as restaurants, retail stores, museums, and schools. Commercial services include banks, a post office, and several fitness facilities (see Figures 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4). Additionally, the park has a recycling center and emergency response agencies. There are approximately 100 different businesses located within the boundaries of the Presidio and

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<sup>73</sup> IBID

<sup>74</sup> The Presidio Trust Act, Nov. 12 1996.

<sup>75</sup> Presidio Trust Management Plan, Appendix B.

<sup>76</sup> The Presidio Trust, "Live in the Presidio," 9 Sept. 2012  
<<http://www.presidio.gov/lease/pages/default.aspx>>.

many properties are still available for development and lease.<sup>77</sup> A recent commercial addition to the Presidio was an inn for visitors' overnight stays.<sup>78</sup>

Recreational areas are abundant throughout the Presidio. Trails, campgrounds, sports fields, picnic facilities, and a golf course are all located within the park. The abundance of plants within the park creates diverse habitats, allowing various animal species to live in the dense urban environment of San Francisco. The Presidio is open to the public twenty-four hours a day, everyday of the year, at no charge.<sup>79</sup>

### **Future Re-use plans**

According to a management plan developed in 2002, with collaboration from the National Park Service, the Presidio Trust, and local community members, the main goals for the development of the Presidio are

1. To preserve and (where appropriate) enhance the historical, cultural, natural, recreational, and scenic resources
2. To address the needs of Presidio visitors, tenants, and residents for community services such as transportation, water, power, waste management, and public safety (among others) in an environmentally responsible manner, while respecting neighboring communities
3. To increase open space, consolidate developed space, and provide for appropriate uses of the Presidio, including uses that involve stewardship and sustainability, cross-cultural and international cooperation, community service and restoration, health and scientific discovery, recreation, the arts, education, research, innovation, and/or communication
4. To sustain the Presidio indefinitely as a great national park in an urban setting<sup>80</sup>

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<sup>77</sup> The Presidio Trust, "Real Estate Leasing + Development," 10 Sept. 2012 <<http://www.presidio.gov/lease/Commercial/Pages/default.aspx>>.

<sup>78</sup> The Presidio Trust, "Inn at the Presidio," 10 Sept. 2012 <<http://www.presidio.gov/lodging/Pages/inn-at-the-presidio.aspx>>.

<sup>79</sup> The Presidio Trust, "Nature, Wildlife, Open Spaces," 10 Sept. 2012 <<http://www.presidio.gov/about/nature/Pages/nature-and-wildlife.aspx>>.

<sup>80</sup> Presidio Trust Management Plan.

With these goals, the National Park Service believes “the Presidio should not simply be preserved, but should be preserved to serve a vision greater than itself.”<sup>81</sup>

Based upon financial limitations the Presidio Trust’s main vision is, “to preserve the Presidio as a park for the American public.”<sup>82</sup>

## **Conclusion**

The Presidio was a significant military outpost for the Spanish from 1776 through 1822, for the Mexicans from 1822 through 1846, and for the Americans from 1846 through the installation’s closure in 1994. The Presidio was an important U.S. military post for many reasons including the development of Crissy Field, the Letterman Medical Complex, and its geographical location in relation to the Golden Gate Bridge. The site’s long history has resulted in a culturally and naturally rich environment.

Slated for closure during the 1988 round of BRAC, the Presidio was scheduled to officially close by 1994. Upon closure the National Park Service assumed ownership of the Presidio. The site’s cultural and natural resources made its conversion into a National Park an obvious choice for the U.S. government, however funding was a definite limitation.

At that time an estimated \$700 million was needed to convert and upgrade the site post-closure. In response to the financial dilemma, the Presidio Trust was developed by Congress and signed into law under the Presidio Trust Act in 1996.

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<sup>81</sup> IBID

<sup>82</sup> IBID

The Presidio Trust is a unique Federal Government agency that makes the use of private and public funds possible for the continued stewardship of the Presidio. The Presidio Trust is currently responsible for eighty percent of the Presidio site, and the National Park Service for the remaining twenty percent of coastal lands.

The site is currently used for domestic, commercial, and recreational needs. As noted, the most recent Presidio Trust Management Plan was completed in 2002 with collaboration from the Presidio Trust, the National Park Service, and local members of the public. The main goal of the Presidio Trust is “to preserve the Presidio as a park for the American public.”<sup>83</sup>

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<sup>83</sup> IBID

## CHAPTER 5

### THE PHILADELPHIA SHIPYARD



Figure 5.1: Main Gate Entrance, Philadelphia Shipyard (Photo by Author)

The Philadelphia Shipyard is located in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, a few miles south of the main city center, along the Delaware River. Over time the Shipyard has been known by several names including the Continental, United States, Southwark, Federal Street, League Island, Philadelphia Navy Yard, and finally the Philadelphia Naval Base



and Naval Shipyard.<sup>84</sup> The Philadelphia Shipyard is considered the oldest navy shipyard in the United States, dating to 1762 and the construction of Philadelphia's first warship, "Hero".<sup>85</sup> However, the Philadelphia Shipyard was originally sited on a small 17-acre site on the Delaware River, in the Southwark district of the city of Philadelphia. By 1876, the operations of the navy yard had outgrown the site and the Philadelphia Shipyard was relocated further down stream on the Delaware River to a larger 900-acre site known as League Island.<sup>86</sup>

The Philadelphia Shipyard was the first official site utilized by the American Navy. The American Navy was established in November of 1775 after debates in Congress as to whether or not the development of a navy was appropriate for the colonies. Although, the colonies had begun to fight for freedom from England, many of the congressional delegates of the time viewed the creation of a navy as offensive warfare, but army development as legitimate. With advances in warfare between the colonies and England, the development of a national naval force became necessary. Once a national navy was established, Philadelphia was chosen as the headquarters and immediately used to house the American Navy's small, but growing fleet of ships.<sup>87</sup>

With the conclusion of the Revolutionary War the navy yard was under utilized until the War of 1812, when the construction of large wooden ships was again needed. The Philadelphia Shipyard continued to operate at the Southwark location throughout the American Civil War, with growing limitations. New developments in shipbuilding had

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<sup>84</sup> Jeffery Dorwart, The Philadelphia Navy Yard, From Birth of the U.S. Navy to the Nuclear Age, (University of PA Press, 2001), 1.

<sup>85</sup> Dorwart, 10-11.

<sup>86</sup> IBID, 94.

<sup>87</sup> Dorwart, 20.

led to the use of ironclad ships as opposed to wood. The lack of space at the Southwark location made ironclad shipbuilding challenging, but not impossible. With the conclusion of the American Civil War, the city of Philadelphia purchased the League Island area and transferred the land to the U.S. Federal Government for use as a naval installation for one dollar on December 12, 1868.<sup>88</sup> After several years of development the Southwark location was officially closed, and all previously associated U.S. Naval operations were relocated to League Island on January 7, 1876.

The Philadelphia Shipyard continued to play an integral role in United States Naval operations until the installation's closure in 1996. Several famous warships including the *USS Wisconsin*, the *USS South Dakota*, and the *USS New Jersey*, were constructed and maintained at the Philadelphia Shipyard. In the 1960s, nuclear powered ships became the preferred technology for the U.S. Navy. Despite attempts to obtain licensure, the Philadelphia Shipyard was never approved to build or repair nuclear-powered ships.<sup>89</sup>

### **Military Usage**

The United States Navy has utilized the Philadelphia Shipyard since the navy's establishment in 1775. Although the Philadelphia Shipyard was considered closed during the 1995 BRAC, the navy retained several structures and docks at the shipyard, which are still in use today. In 2012, the National Inactive Ships Maintenance Facility and the Naval Ships Systems Engineering departments continue to operate at the Philadelphia Shipyard (see Figure 3.1).<sup>90</sup>

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<sup>88</sup> IBID, 94.

<sup>89</sup> IBID, 206.

<sup>90</sup> William Evinger, Directory of U.S. Military Bases Worldwide, Oryx Press, 1995, 177.

Prior to the closure in 1996, numerous U.S. Navy and U.S. Marine Corps departments occupied the Shipyard. The facility was organized into two distinct areas, the Fourth Naval District and the Philadelphia Naval Shipyard. The installation was consistently used to build and maintain U.S. Naval fleet ships. The last ship built at the Philadelphia Shipyard, the *USS Blue Ridge*, was constructed in 1971, but the maintenance and repair of naval ships continued through the installation's closure in 1996.<sup>91</sup>

Most activities at the Philadelphia Shipyard related to shipbuilding and maintenance, but during World War One a naval aircraft factory was added to the site. The facility was used for research, development, and the construction of aircrafts until the airfield's closure in 1972.<sup>92</sup> Although the Philadelphia Shipyard never received a license to construct nuclear powered ships, nuclear research was conducted at the installation during World War Two. In 1950, after the initiation of the Korean War, the Philadelphia Shipyard developed an official Radiological Decontamination Training Facility.<sup>93</sup>

In 1995, the Philadelphia Shipyard employed 3,600 active duty personnel, with an accounted 6,000 dependents, and 8,400 civilian employees.<sup>94</sup> A 1993 study, completed for the Pennsylvania Economy League, estimated the Shipyard was directly and indirectly responsible for 36,400 jobs, \$326.2 million in income, and \$113 million in annual state and local tax revenue.<sup>95</sup>

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<sup>91</sup> Evinger, 177.

<sup>92</sup> Site Visit, Philadelphia Shipyard, Philadelphia, PA, May 2012.

<sup>93</sup> Dorwart, 197.

<sup>94</sup> Evinger, 177 and 178.

<sup>95</sup> Hess, 9.

## Physical Resources Descriptions

The Philadelphia Shipyard is a 1,200-acre site with 27 acres of wetlands and seven miles of water front property distributed on the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers (see Figure 5.7).<sup>96</sup> In 1999, a U.S. Naval report recorded the presence of 1,000 structures within the complex.<sup>97</sup> A 2004 report completed for the Philadelphia Industrial Development Corporation (PIDC) recorded the presence of 282 structures, of which 233 were contributing historic resources.<sup>98</sup> Additionally, the shipyard encompasses five dry docks and several fixed and floating docks.<sup>99</sup>

According to a survey completed in 1994, the site has a wide range of architectural styles from the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries, ranging from Georgian Revival, Victorian, Beaux-Arts, Italianate, Second Empire (see Figure 5.2), and Renaissance Revival (see Figure 5.3), to various modernistic styles (see Figure 5.3).<sup>100</sup> The wide range of construction dates (1874-2012) and the varying architectural styles make the Philadelphia Shipyard an architecturally diverse environment.

Structures were originally constructed for both domestic and industrial uses. The first permanent structure, Quarters A, was completed in 1874 in an Italianate architectural style, and built to house the site's civil engineer (see Figure 5.4).<sup>101</sup> Additional domestic structures were built over time ranging from single family housing for officers and families (see Figure 5.5) to dormitory style structures for single officers and enlisted men

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<sup>96</sup> Robert A.M Stern Architect, 2004 Philadelphia Navy Yard Master Plan, Jan 2004, 3.

<sup>97</sup> Ron Hess, Jefferson Marquis, et al, The Closing and Reuse of the Philadelphia Naval Shipyard (National Defense Research Institute, 2001), 5.

<sup>98</sup> Robert A.M Stern, 3.

<sup>99</sup> Hess, 6.

<sup>100</sup> John Milner Associates, A Cultural Resource Survey of the Naval Complex Philadelphia Pennsylvania, 1994, Abstract.

<sup>101</sup> James D. Campbell, National Register Nomination, "Quarters A," 13 Feb. 1976.

(see Figure 5.6). Industrial buildings constructed in the early 1900s were built of brick with terracotta details in a Renaissance Revival style (see Figure 5.3).<sup>102</sup> Later industrial buildings were completed with t-1-11 or asbestos shingle siding and no additional architectural detail.

The Philadelphia Shipyard currently has one historic district listed in the National Register of Historic Places and one individually listed building. The historic district was listed in 1999, and Quarters A was listed individually in 1976.



Figure 5.2: Second Empire Style Example (Photo by Author)

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<sup>102</sup> Douglas C. McVarish, National Register Nomination, “Philadelphia Naval Shipyard Historic District,” 12 April 1999.





Figure 5.3: Renaissance Revival and Modernistic Styles Example (Photo by Author)



Figure 5.4: Quarters A (Photo by Author)





Figure 5.5: Single Family House (Photo by Author)



Figure 5.6: Enlisted Men's Barracks (Photo by Author)

## Site Layout

Structures at the Philadelphia Shipyard were placed based on convenience, proximity and access to the water, and the proposed placement of dry and wet docks. The entire south and east ends of the site are lined by the Delaware River, the west side by the Schuylkill River, and the northern border extends towards the city of Philadelphia. The main reserve basin is placed in the northwest corner of the installation, with direct access to the Schuylkill River. The five dry docks and seven of the site's piers are placed along the Delaware River.

The original, grid system road layout is still in use with Broad Street as the main north/south thoroughfare. The main gate access, located on Broad Street, is currently the single point of entry for automobiles to the site (see Figure 5.1). However, the Philadelphia Shipyard originally had an additional gate located off of 26<sup>th</sup> Street. Although presently closed, the current management entity the Philadelphia Industrial Development Corporation (PIDC), has plans to reopen the 26<sup>th</sup> Street gate and to add a third point of entry off of Delaware Avenue (see Figure 5.7).<sup>103</sup> Railroad lines located to the north of the site were originally used to transport supplies in and out of the installation, but are no longer in use.

The original layout of the installation around the water and the placement of structures and roads are significant to the future preservation of the site. The relationship between the open spaces, buildings, dry and wet docks, roads systems, and the railroad tracks are important for a continued understanding of the historic use of the site. The landscape itself must be preserved with the addition of new, yet similar uses, in order to

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<sup>103</sup> Stern, 10.



continually maintain the historic sense of place at the Philadelphia Shipyard. Specific landscapes of importance include the river viewsheds and the parade grounds.



Figure 5.7: Map Showing Placement of Philadelphia Shipyard and Road Locations  
(Source: PIDC)

## **BRAC Process and Current Ownership**

The Philadelphia Shipyard was nominated and approved for closure during the 1995 BRAC commission. The Philadelphia Shipyard had been considered for closure since the end of World War Two and the development of nuclear powered warships, but never officially nominated. The BRAC Commission initially estimated a total cost of \$102 million to close the Philadelphia Shipyard with a two-year pay back period, while the Shipyard itself estimated costs to be between \$780 million and \$1 billion.<sup>104</sup> The costs of the Philadelphia Shipyard closure ended up totaling approximately \$300 million, with an additional \$300 million spent on making the spaces reusable by future tenants.<sup>105</sup>

With the closure announcement in 1995, the U.S. Navy began vacating properties by 1996. The city of Philadelphia had originally sold the land known as League Island to the United States, for use by the navy, on December 12, 1868 for one dollar.<sup>106</sup> Therefore, with the announcement of the closure, the city of Philadelphia was given a priority option to purchase the property. The city of Philadelphia officially purchased the Philadelphia Shipyard for a cost of \$2 million in 1999.<sup>107</sup>

From the time of the closure in 1996 until the official purchase in 1999, the city of Philadelphia leased the property from the U.S. Navy. Since the initiation of the lease agreement, the Philadelphia Industrial Development Corporation (PIDC) has managed the Philadelphia Shipyard.

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<sup>104</sup> Hess, 17.

<sup>105</sup> IBID, xix-xx.

<sup>106</sup> Campbell, 13 Feb. 1976.

<sup>107</sup> Hess, 37.

The PIDC is a non-profit organization that was established in 1958 by the city of Philadelphia and the Greater Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce. The PIDC currently manages numerous economic development sites across the greater Philadelphia region.

### **Current Usage**

The Philadelphia Shipyard is currently used as commercial district. Some of the largest tenants at the Philadelphia Shipyard are the Aker Philadelphia Shipyard, the Tasty Baking Company, and Urban Outfitters. Pieces of property are leased or sold to individual businesses for commercial development by the PIDC. Some buildings and facilities have been adaptively re-used to accommodate new tenants and many structures have been demolished to allow for new construction. No records are available concerning which structures were chosen for demolition or what official criteria were used to make demolition decisions.

Amongst the new developments, two LEED Platinum and one LEED Gold buildings have been constructed (see Figure 5.8). On the site of the previous Philadelphia Naval Hospital now stands the NFL Philadelphia Eagles' training facility.<sup>108</sup> Amongst the buildings, green space has been maintained and some recreational fields have been developed. The PIDC has added infrastructure including sidewalks and roads, and plumbing and electricity upgrades. Maintenance responsibilities for the plumbing and electricity infrastructure systems are currently transferring from the PIDC to the city of Philadelphia.<sup>109</sup>

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<sup>108</sup> Site Visit, Philadelphia Shipyard, May 2012.

<sup>109</sup> Telephone Interview, Patrick O'Connor, Real Estate Manager, and Mark Seltzer, Director of Management and Development, PIDC, 9 Aug. 2012.



Figure 5.8: New Construction Example (Photo by Author)

### **Future Re-use plans**

Currently the Shipyard is utilized for commercial activities, but restricted from permanent domestic use by the original deed between the United States Navy and the PIDC.<sup>110</sup> Although this stipulation is in the original deed, the PIDC is working to reverse the restriction, since permanent residential real estate could be sold at a premium on the site.

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<sup>110</sup> Quitclaim Deed, Parcel 5- Shipyard, 30 March 2000, 9.



According to the PIDC's 2004 *Philadelphia Navy Yard Master Plan*, the main planning and future re-use objectives are to:

Capitalize on and enhance the site's existing historic buildings and landscape features, to plan for mixed-use development that will encourage around the-clock activity, to adapt to changing market conditions, and establish an identity that overcomes the current sense of pioneering on the part of large office tenants, to create identifiable districts and focal points within those districts, to establish a clear and efficient road network, to craft an integrated system of public open spaces and pedestrian routes, to facilitate public access to the waterfront, to encourage environmentally friendly development through "green" planning and building practices, to plan for mass transit to more effectively connect the property to city and region, and to develop clear strategies to meet the technical infrastructure needs or phased development.<sup>111</sup>

When speaking with representatives of the PIDC, the main goal for the site is to "attract private sector investments and create and retain jobs."<sup>112</sup> Economic changes between the publication of the 2004 planning report and 2012 have limited the master plan's successful implementation. The PIDC is currently working to update their master plan and plans to publish revisions in the near future.<sup>113</sup>

## **Conclusion**

The Philadelphia Shipyard is significant to U.S. Naval history, having been the first official naval installation in the United States. The Shipyard had a significant role in the U.S. Navy as the construction site of 127 ships, including several famous warships such as the *USS Wisconsin*.<sup>114</sup> The Philadelphia Shipyard was chosen for closure during the 1995 round of BRAC and the navy began vacating the space by 1996.

The city of Philadelphia purchased the property for \$2 million from the U.S. Navy in 1999, after leasing the space for several years. The Philadelphia Industrial

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<sup>111</sup> Robert A.M Stern, 1.

<sup>112</sup> Telephone Interview, O'Connor and Seltzer, 9 Aug. 2012.

<sup>113</sup> IBID

<sup>114</sup> Evinger, 177.

Development Corporation (PIDC) has consistently managed the property for the city of Philadelphia. Several pieces of the property have been leased or sold to private companies for commercial development. The PIDC has allowed for adaptive re-use and demolition resulting in new construction. The PIDC's main development goal for the Philadelphia Shipyard is to "attract private sector investments and create and retain jobs."<sup>115</sup>

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<sup>115</sup> Telephone Interview, O'Connor and Seltzer, 9 Aug. 2012.

## CHAPTER 6

### FORT MONROE



Figure 6.1: Aerial View of Fort at Fort Monroe (Source: Library of Congress)

Fort Monroe is located in Hampton, Virginia, in the Tidewater region. The site of Fort Monroe has a long history originally dating to 1607 with the discovery of the site by Christopher Newport and the construction of Fort Algernon in 1609, by Captain John Smith and the Virginia Company.

Fort Algernon was the third fort built in the English speaking colonies. The fort was strategically placed to protect the Chesapeake Bay on a strip of land known at that time as Pointe Comfort, later renamed Old Pointe Comfort.<sup>116</sup>

The site of Fort Algernon was significant to the development of the United States. Point Comfort was utilized as a departure point for many expeditions, one of which resulted in the settlement of Jamestown, VA. Additionally, within a decade of Fort Algernon's establishment the site was used as an initial landing site for enslaved persons' arrival to the colonies.<sup>117</sup>

In 1727, the fort was re-built and named Fort George, in honor of George II. Fort George was occupied by a minimal number of soldiers during the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812, providing no coastal defenses for the region. After the War of 1812, the United States military made a decision to develop a coastal defense system consisting of fortified structures built along the east coast, stretching from Maine to Louisiana.<sup>118</sup> Fort Monroe was planned and designed as part of this government program and its construction began in 1819. The fort was named after President Monroe, who was in office when the fort's construction was initiated.

Fort Monroe's design was inspired by one of Marshal Vauban's forts, completed in Toul, France in 1700. Vauban was a famous military engineer who designed and improved several fortifications throughout France, which were mimicked around the world.<sup>119</sup> The fort was built to cover 63 acres of land, with walls 10 feet thick and 12 feet

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<sup>116</sup> Roberts, 815.

<sup>117</sup> Fort Monroe, (National Park Service, 2011).

<sup>118</sup> Roberts, 816.

<sup>119</sup> Robert Scafe, The Measure of Greatness: War, Wealth, and Population in the Political Thought of the Marshall Vauban (Stanford Univ.: April 2004).



high, to house 412 guns and from 600 men during peacetimes and up to 2,625 men during war times (see Figure 6.1). On July 25, 1823, Fort Monroe became operational, and the official installation for the U.S. Army Company G, 3<sup>rd</sup> U.S. Artillery.<sup>120</sup>

During the Civil War, Fort Monroe was one of a few forts in the South not captured by the Confederates; as such Fort Monroe became a stronghold for Northern efforts throughout the war. Additionally, Fort Monroe became a place of refuge for escaped African slaves, earning its nickname “Freedom Fortress”.<sup>121</sup> Robert E. Lee was stationed at Fort Monroe for training previous to the Civil War and after the conclusion of the war Jefferson Davis was imprisoned within the fort’s casements for several years.<sup>122</sup>

### **Military Usage**

The site of Fort Monroe was occupied and used by the United States Army from 1781-2011. Fort Monroe was designed and constructed to house Army Artillery troops. Artillery troops were stationed at Fort Monroe with its establishment in 1823 and the Army’s first artillery school, the “Artillery School of Practice”, was added to the site’s functions in 1824. The “Artillery School of Practice” remained in place until 1907 when the school was reorganized and renamed the Coast Artillery School.<sup>123</sup>

During the course of World War One and Two the installation’s primary function was altered to a defense post for the Chesapeake Bay and the Hampton Roads region. With the conclusion of World War Two, and the realization that fort defense tactics were obsolete, the artillery school and the artillery troops were transferred to a base in

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<sup>120</sup> Ibid., 817.

<sup>121</sup> Fort Monroe, Casement Museum Brochure.

<sup>122</sup> Ibid.

<sup>123</sup> Roberts, 817.

California, and the Army Ground Headquarters were re-stationed to Fort Monroe from Washington, D.C. In 1948 the Headquarters, Army Ground division, was reorganized and renamed the Office, Chief of Army Field Forces. In 1955, the Office, Chief of Army Field Forces division was once again reorganized, and became known as Headquarters, United States Continental Army Command (CONARC).

A final realignment for Fort Monroe occurred in 1973 when the CONARC division was disbanded and the Headquarters for the U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC) was established.<sup>124</sup> Fort Monroe remained the command headquarters for TRADOC until the installation's listing on the 2005 BRAC list and its official closure in 2011.

Before the closure, Fort Monroe employed 879 active duty personnel, with an accounted 852 dependents, and, 1817 civilian personnel. Payroll expenditures were estimated to be \$65 million per year and contract expenditures were estimated to be \$64 million per year.<sup>125</sup> Before the closure the DoD estimated the closure would result in the direct and indirect loss of 2,275 jobs, a 0.2 percentage of the area's total employment.<sup>126</sup>

### **Physical Resources Descriptions**

Fort Monroe incorporates the 1819, seven-sided, polygonal-plan-form, fortress, with an active moat (see Figure 6.1), 170 historic architectural resources, a 32 slip

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<sup>124</sup> Columbia University, Press, "Fort Monroe," Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia, 6th Edition (2011), 23 May 2012.

<sup>125</sup> William R Evinger, Directory of U.S. Military Bases Worldwide 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition, (Oryx Press, 1998), 219.

<sup>126</sup> David Sorenson, Military Base Closure, a Reference Handbook (Westport, CT: Praeger Security International, 2007), 135.

marina, and numerous recreational facilities.<sup>127</sup> The site includes approximately 565 acres, with eight miles of waterfront property. According to Fort Monroe's design guideline manual, there are several architectural styles present at Fort Monroe, including Beaux Arts Classicism, Colonial Revival, Federal, Folk Victorian, Greek Revival (see Figure 6.6), Gothic Revival, Italianate, Modern Domestic, Modern Industrial, Modernistic, Neoclassical, Richardsonian Romanesque (see Figure 6.7), Shingle,<sup>128</sup> and Third System Fortification (a fort construction system used between 1816 and 1860).<sup>129</sup> The wide range of construction dates (1819- early 2000s) and the varying architectural styles make Fort Monroe an architecturally rich and diverse environment.

Many of the historic structures have been listed in the National Register of Historic Places, including the Old Pointe Comfort Lighthouse (1973) (see Figure 6.2), the Chamberlin Hotel (2007) (see Figure 6.3), the Chapel of Centurion (2011), Quarters 1 (2011) (see Figure 6.4), Quarters 17 (2011) (see Figure 6.5), and the Stone Fortress (2010), all of which were listed individually in the respective years.<sup>130</sup> A National Historic Landmark District was listed at Fort Monroe in 1960 and expanded in 1975 for the site's historic military significance between 1819 and 1834.<sup>131</sup>

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<sup>127</sup> Fort Monroe Authority, "Fort Monroe Fact Sheet," <<http://www.fmauthority.com/about/fact-sheet.php>> 3 March 2012.

<sup>128</sup> A Review of the Fort Monroe Historic Preservation Manual and Design Standards.

<sup>129</sup> Global Security, "Seacoast Fortification-Third System," 24 Sept. 2012 <<http://www.globalsecurity.org/military/facility/coastal-forts-third-system.htm>>.

<sup>130</sup> Virginia Department of Historic Resources, "City of Hampton (Tidewater Region)," <[http://www.dhr.virginia.gov/registers/Cities/register\\_Hampton.htm](http://www.dhr.virginia.gov/registers/Cities/register_Hampton.htm)> 20 June 2012.

<sup>131</sup> Fort Monroe Authority, <<http://www.fmauthority.com/about-us/fort-monroe-national-historic-landmark-district>> 24 Oct. 2012.



Figure 6.2: Old Pointe Comfort Lighthouse (Photo by Author)



Figure 6.3: The Chamberlin Hotel (Photo by Author)





Figure 6.4: Quarters 1 (Photo by Author)



Figure 6.5: Quarters 17 (Photo by Author)





Figure 6.6: Street View of Fort Monroe (Photo by Author)



Figure 6.7: Aerial View of Fort Monroe (Photo by Author)

## **Site Layout**

Fort Monroe is organized in two distinct sections. The original portion of the installation is located within the fortified walls of the fort and accessed by bridges crossing over the water filled moat (see Figure 6.8). There are three bridges, which provide both automotive and pedestrian access to and from the interior fort space (see Figure 6.9). Outside of the fortified walls, the installation expands towards the Chesapeake Bay on the southern coast of the barrier spit and towards Mill Creek on the northern coast. Outside of the original fortress there are recreational fields, religious structures, historic and modern housing, and industrial/commercial structures.

The relationship between space inside and outside of the original fort is essential to understanding the development of the site. Central open spaces originally utilized for troop formations should be maintained to continually preserve the original sense of place. The placement of structures, designed landscapes, natural landscapes, and open spaces, and their relationship to one another, should be maintained to continually preserve the historic sense of place at Fort Monroe. The viewsheds of the Chesapeake Bay are also significant to the preservation of the site.

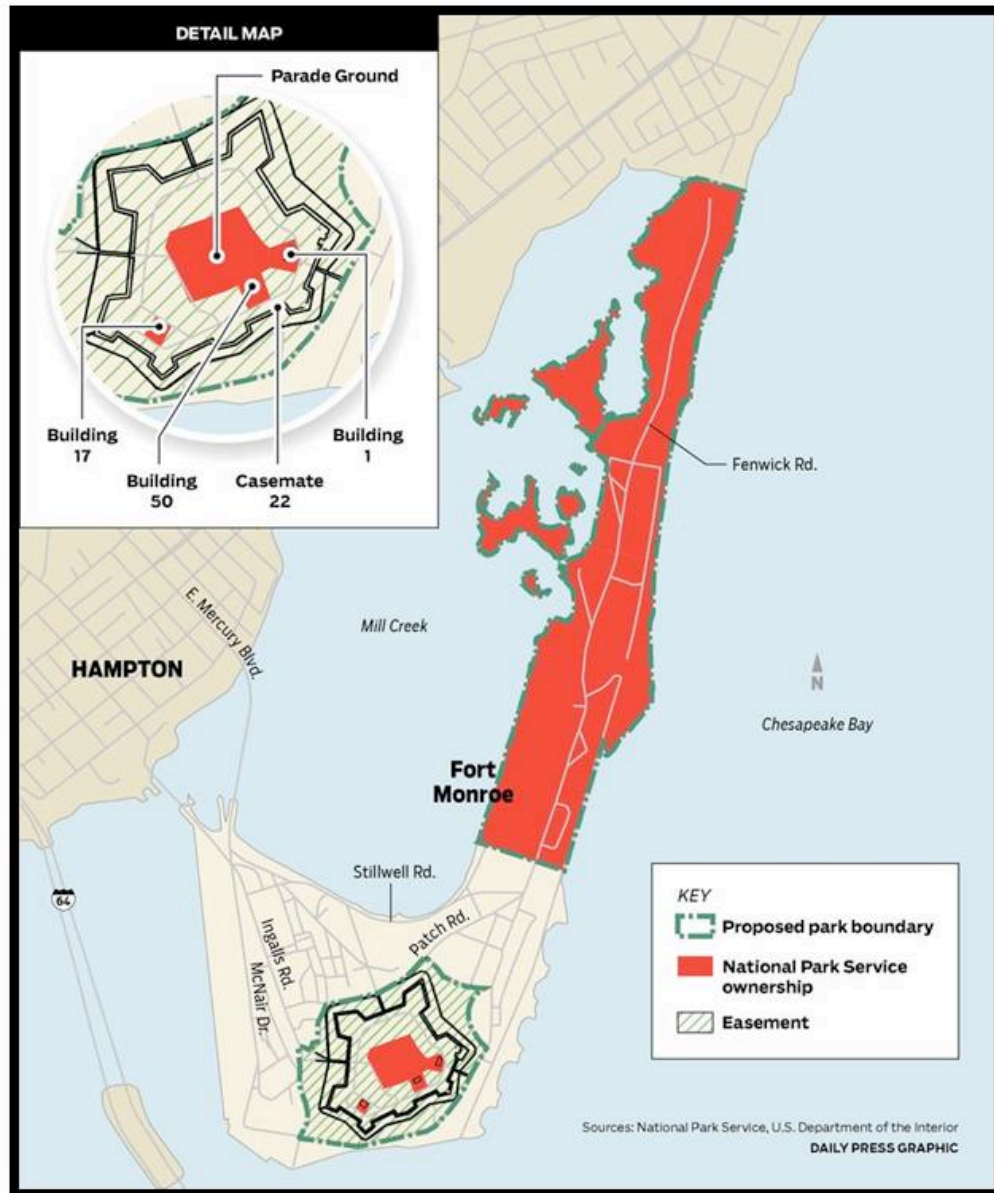


Figure 6.8: NPS Map of Fort Monroe (Source: Fort Monroe Authority)





Figure 6.9: View of Bridge over Moat (Photo by Author)

### **BRAC Process and Current Ownership**

Fort Monroe was included in the 2005 BRAC list as a nominated and approved installation for closure. Fort Monroe had been considered for closure since the end of the Cold War, when the inadequacy of fort defense systems was realized.<sup>132</sup> These previous nominations allowed the state of Virginia and the city of Hampton time to consider how the closure would affect the surrounding communities' economies and how the space could be re-used in the future.

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<sup>132</sup> Sorenson, 135.

With the initiation of the BRAC process, the United States Army estimated the closure and environmental cleanup costs of Fort Monroe to total \$240 million, with an approximate annual savings of \$56.9 million.<sup>133</sup> According to the approved 2005 BRAC timeline, the military was to vacate the property by September 2011. As of May 2012, the United States Army has vacated the installation, but continues to own the property. Eventually the military will bequeath land and structure ownership to the Fort Monroe Authority.

The Fort Monroe Authority is a public corporation developed solely to manage and develop the Fort Monroe site. The land and structures may be awarded to the Fort Monroe Authority as early as 2013, dependent upon additional review by the United States Army. Until ownership is given to the Fort Monroe Authority, the U.S. Army leases the structures to the Fort Monroe Authority, and the Fort Monroe Authority acts as an intermediate management entity, leasing the structures to private individuals for domestic use. Since the army is currently leasing the structures to the Fort Monroe Authority, the U.S. Army is still responsible for the maintenance of the grounds, the sidewalks, and police and fire coverage.<sup>134</sup>

With the closure of Fort Monroe, the National Park Service recognized the importance of the site and the prospect of converting the site into a national park. However, the National Park Service was not willing to accept the financial burdens of ownership. Therefore the Fort Monroe Authority was developed to accept ownership of the site and the associated financial responsibilities, while the National Park Service agreed to assist with the development plan.

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<sup>133</sup> Sorenson, 136.

<sup>134</sup> Fort Monroe Site Visit, March 16, 2012.

Future ownership of the Fort Monroe property is currently under debate, mainly due to a Reversionary Clause in the original property deed. After the War of 1812 the state of Virginia deeded the land to the U.S. Army for use as a military site, with a clause requiring the return of the property to the state of Virginia, if and when the military vacated the site. The situation is currently debated because although the U.S. Army recognizes the requirement to return the majority of the land to the Commonwealth of Virginia, the army also believes that some of the property should be sold for a profit due to costly improvements made to the site at the expense of the army. Based upon these discussions, the site has been divided into three distinct sections.

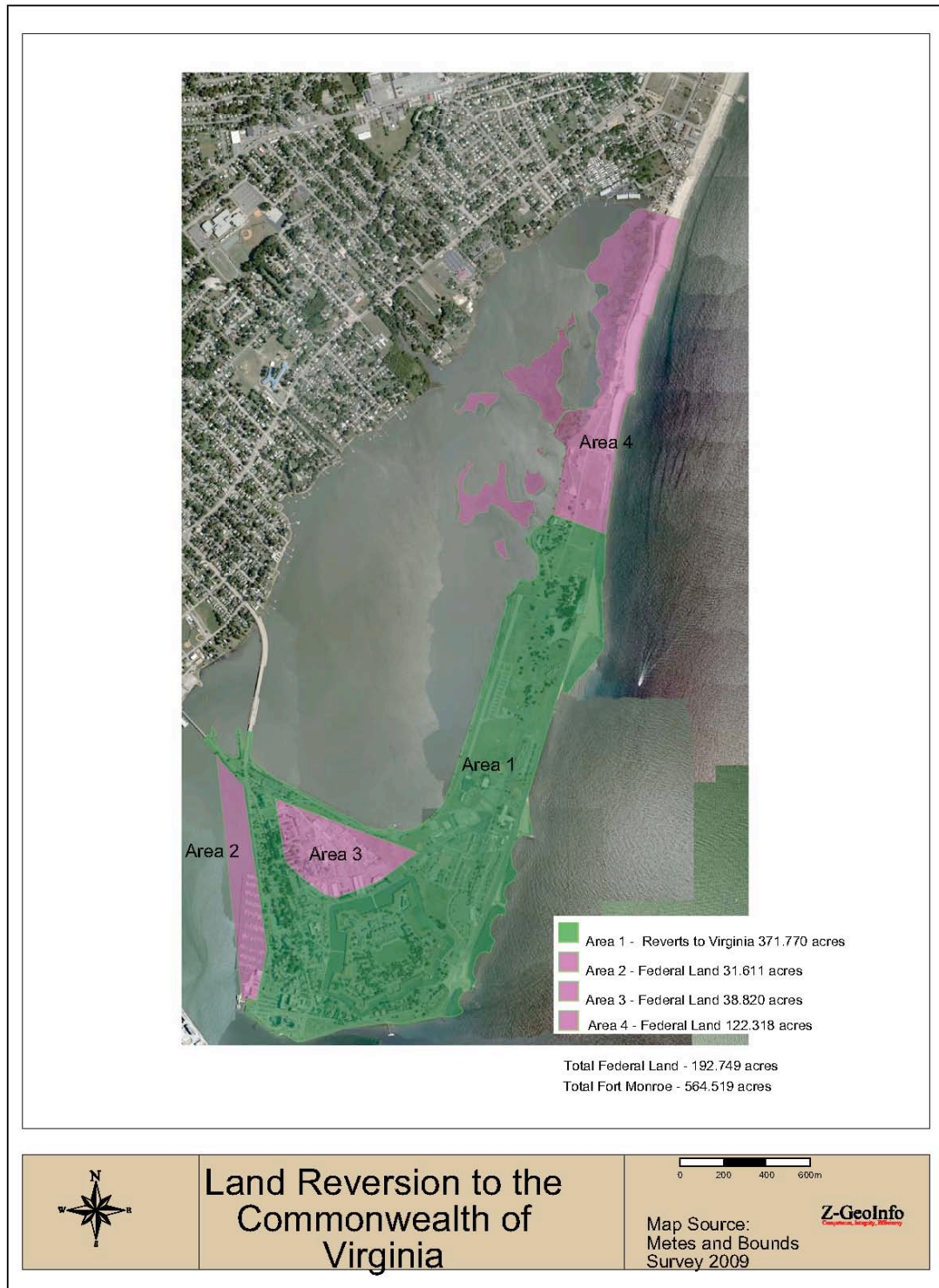


Figure 6.10: Reversion Map (Source: Fort Monroe Authority)

## **Future Re-use plans**

According to the Memorandum of Understanding developed for the site, the Fort Monroe Authority was required to develop design guidelines and a preservation manual for the site before moving forward with development planning. The Fort Monroe Authority has completed design guidelines and progressed to the initial stages for preservation planning and re-use. On March 29<sup>th</sup> and 30<sup>th</sup> of 2012, the Fort Monroe Authority, the National Park Service, and Hampton City partnered together and held the first public input meeting concerning the re-use of Fort Monroe entitled, “Master Land Planning Public Input”. The meeting provided a creative outlet for interested citizens to contribute and collaborate with professionals concerning the future of Fort Monroe. Approximately 250 people attended the two sessions, where images of successful installation re-use projects, planned communities, interesting/unique cities, and successful employment schemes from across the United States were shared with the group.<sup>135</sup>

After sharing these motivational images, the attendees were divided into small groups. Each group was asked to develop ideas for the future use of Fort Monroe. Towards the end of the meeting all of the groups came together to share their ideas and continue with collaborations. Since not all interested citizens were able to attend the planning meeting and numerous exterior parties are interested in the future of Fort Monroe, such as the National Trust for Historic Preservation, an online Town Hall Meeting was initiated allowing the discussion to continue.

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<sup>135</sup> Fort Monroe Authority, April 2012 <<http://fmauthority.com>>.

The online Town Hall Meeting information is maximized through utilization of Mind Mixer software, which automatically sorts ideas according to date and popularity, keeping the most relevant information visible to visitors.<sup>136</sup>

The Fort Monroe Authority is currently in the midst of developing a long-term re-use plan. The main goals set forth for the project by the Fort Monroe Authority are to “respect the site’s historic assets, open the space to the public, achieve economic sustainability, create and maintain open spaces, and allow new careful development.”<sup>137</sup>

### **Current Usage**

Currently, portions of Fort Monroe are being utilized, but none of the resource types are being used to their maximized potential. The Fort Monroe Authority leasing office rents many of the single-family residential spaces to private citizens. However, there are more properties available for rent than currently occupied. The Chamberlin Hotel was converted into apartments in May of 2008 aimed towards senior citizen living, and the community seems to be a success, with seventy percent of the available spaces occupied.

### **Conclusion**

The Fort Monroe site is a significant piece of United States history dating back to 1607, with involvement in the settlement of Jamestown, VA. The site was also significant to the Revolutionary, 1812, and Civil Wars. Since the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, the installation has been used by several U.S. Army departments, first by the artillery school and lastly

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<sup>136</sup> Site Visit, Fort Monroe, Hampton, VA, March 2012.

<sup>137</sup> Fort Monroe Authority, “Fort Monroe Virginia, Come Live, Work and Play in our National Treasure,” brochure.

by the Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC). The site's long history has resulted in a rich, vast array of architecture representing numerous high and vernacular styles.

Fort Monroe was slated for closure in the 2005 round of BRAC. Troops vacated the space by September of 2011, but the U.S. Army continues to own the land and leases the property to the Fort Monroe Authority. As early as 2013, the army may return the land to the state of Virginia and the Fort Monroe Authority, but this agreement is still under consideration.

Currently the site is used solely for domestic use, with plans for mixed-use development in the future. The Fort Monroe Authority, the National Park Service, and the city of Hampton, VA, are currently working with community members to develop long-term re-use plans for the site. Historic preservation and economic development are two of the main concerns for the re-development plans.

## CHAPTER 7

### ANALYSIS

To analyze the success/impacts of the BRAC process and answer the thesis question, it is necessary to first examine the Section 106 process of the NHPA and secondarily to identify a set of evaluation criteria to compare the three case studies. All three case studies - the Presidio, the Philadelphia Shipyard, and Fort Monroe - can be considered successful examples of BRAC projects, depending on the criteria used for their analysis. Forms of criteria could include job development, economical independence, or community expansion.

Although numerous forms of criteria can be developed to analyze BRAC projects, over the course of the data collection period specific issues and themes emerged between the case studies. These emerging issues and themes led to the identification of the following three criteria: transparency of record, community engagement, and the retention of cultural and natural fabric. All three criteria represent diverse, yet intricate aspects of the successful re-use of a historically significant military installation.

#### **The Section 106 Process**

Section 106 of the NHPA discusses the use of federal resources in undertakings/redevelopment projects. Compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) is required before the transfer of federal land to a non-federal entity. Regulations developed to support the NHPA require a multi-step process



in order to fully comply with Section 106 requirements. These steps are as follows, 1- identify and evaluate the cultural resources to determine which are eligible for nomination to the National Register of Historic Places and why, 2- determine how and why the historic cultural resources may be affected during the land transfer (i.e. demolition for new developments), 3- consult with the SHPO and other interested stakeholders, 4- propose necessary mitigation to avoid or minimize adverse effects on the historic cultural resources, and 5- compose necessary documents to complete the process (MOU, PA, or Finding of No Adverse Effect).<sup>138</sup> Some of the steps/requirements of the regulations associated with Section 106 of the NHPA directly effect the long-term re-use of historically significant military installations and are discussed below.

Steps one and two require the completion of a survey of all of the installation's cultural resources, in order to determine which are eligible for nomination to the National Register of Historic Places and why (architectural, historical, or archeological association). Often, attempts to meet these requirements result in the nomination of individual resources and/or districts to the National Register of Historic Places, although nominations are not usually required. Once properties are listed in the National Register of Historic Places, future tenants/owners of the contributing historic resources are eligible to utilize federal and state tax credits in rehabilitation projects. Often, the rehabilitation of historic structures on decommissioned military bases is completed with tax credit funds. Without tax credit programs many of these rehabilitations would not be financially feasible.

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<sup>138</sup> Section 106 Training Session, ACHP, October 2010.

The third and fourth steps require consultation with the associated stakeholders to develop mitigation techniques. The involvement of the associated stakeholders in the planning process may begin to foster a sense of community engagement. Mitigation is used to help avoid or minimize adverse effects on the historic cultural resources and may come in many forms. A mandatory form of mitigation is the development and placement of covenants or easements within the land deeds. When covenants or easements are placed within the deeds, all future actions involving historic resources are considered an undertaking. All undertakings require consultation with the local SHPO and other involved stakeholders (undertakings usually only involve projects utilizing federal funds or federally owned properties). Continuous consultation with the SHPO helps ensure proper stewardship for the cultural resources indefinitely into the future. Requiring the establishment of covenants and easements within the property's deed often leads towards the retention of natural and cultural resources.

The final step in the Section 106 process involves the composition of the necessary documents to finalize the process (MOU, PA, or Finding of No Adverse Effect). The MOU, PA, or Finding of No Adverse Effect documents usually include multiple forms of required mitigation, e.g. composition of design guidelines. Additionally, these documents describe future mandatory roles for the involved parties, including the military agency and the future landowner. The composition of said documents creates a legally binding contract and permanent record of the required mitigation to avoid or minimize adverse effects upon the cultural resources in the future. The existence of these official documents also helps create a transparent record of the land transfer process.

## **Analysis Criteria**

The first criterion, transparency of record, is essential to increase the likelihood of ethical projects within the appropriate limits. A transparent record provides public access to the relevant BRAC and planning documents. Projects call for differing levels of transparency; dependent upon the project's description and goals, some projects require a full disclosure of record, while others require virtually none. When appropriate, transparency is essential to maintain trust with the public and investors. Not only does a transparent record help create a level of trust with the public, records help visitors and tenants understand the established progress and the future goals of the re-development. Additionally, transparent records create a sense of accountability for the site's management to fulfill original deed requirements and to follow the long-term plans established in the site's master plan documents. For all of these reasons, an accurate record should be readily available to researchers and the public at large.

Community engagement, the second criterion, is essential because without community no development can survive long-term. The term community can represent a range of individuals and groups, but within the context of this thesis the term represents all of the stakeholders associated with each of the case study sites. People create the context of community, and without the presence of people a site's historic significance is minimized. Beyond the simple presence of people, community engagement can be analyzed through the amount of encouraged public input during the master plan development process, the creation of local citizen interest groups, social media sites, and the maximized utilization of space.

The final criterion, retention of natural and cultural fabric, is the most significant criterion amongst the preservation-minded community, but not necessarily the most significant to all stakeholder groups. The retention of cultural and natural fabric assists in maintaining the original character of a site. Maintaining the character of a site allows people to continuously utilize the space and simultaneously preserve the site's history. Additionally, the retention of cultural and natural fabric could create a physical link for future Americans to the United States Military's past.

All three of the proposed evaluation criteria are related to the Section 106 process and help to answer the thesis question, "how does the Base Closure and Realignment process affect the long-term re-use of historically significant military installations?" Each of the three criteria represents a significant piece of a historic site's redevelopment and each are discussed below, in regards to the three case studies. For a visual explanation of the three criteria in reference to the case studies, see Table 7.1.

### **Transparency of Record: The Presidio**

The Presidio Trust's website has a page entitled "Resources for Researchers", which contains an extensive number of documents and photographs.<sup>139</sup> The site provides planning documents, references to the Presidio Trust Act, financial documents, and board meeting minutes. A "Record of Decision" document, available in a portable document format, describes all management decisions concerning the Presidio, from the site's 1972 listing as a part of the Golden Gate National Recreation Area through sustainability implementation decisions in the early 2000s. Additionally, several hyperlinks are

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<sup>139</sup> The Presidio Trust, "Resources for Researchers," 10 Sept. 2012  
<<http://www.presidio.gov/about/Pages/researchers.aspx>>.

provided to other libraries and research institutions, including the California Historical Society, the University of California at Berkeley Digital Library, the NPS: Presidio Image Gallery, and the National Archives and Records Administration where more information concerning the Presidio can be located.<sup>140</sup> The Presidio offers the public a transparent record with regards to their planning and management decisions, and creates a sense of honesty with the community at large.

### **Transparency of Record: The Philadelphia Shipyard**

Conducting research for the Philadelphia Shipyard proved challenging because neither the U.S. Navy nor the Philadelphia Industrial Development Corporation (PIDC) have maintained accessible records of the closure. The U.S. Navy was able to provide a copy of the original land deed.<sup>141</sup> Neither the Navy nor PIDC were able to provide other BRAC associated documents such as the Programmatic Agreement (PA), the Memorandum of Understanding (MOU), the Environmental Impact Statement (EIS), or the Environmental Assessment (EA).

The official PIDC Philadelphia Shipyard webpage provides an electronic version of the site's 2004 master plan. The 2004 master plan references the original planning document completed in 1994 and a set of design guidelines, which supplement the 2004 master plan document.

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<sup>140</sup> IBID.

<sup>141</sup> Telephone Interview, Gregory C. Preston, Deputy Director / Base Closure Manager, U.S. Navy, 20 July 2012.  
BRAC Program Management Office Northeast

Neither the 1994 plan nor the design guidelines are available online.<sup>142</sup> During a phone interview, PIDC representatives indicated that their office has copies of both the 1994 plan and the associated design guidelines document.<sup>143</sup>

The Pennsylvania State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) was able to provide a copy of the Programmatic Agreement, portions of the initial survey completed before the closure in the 1990s, and a copy of the 1994 planning document. The SHPO unfortunately does not have a copy of the design guidelines associated with the 2004 master plan.<sup>144</sup>

The Philadelphia Shipyard does not offer a fully transparent record to the public. Planning documents are not readily available, and are difficult to locate with an average researcher's capabilities. The significant lack of record makes the project seem suspicious, regardless of whether or not the PIDC has something to hide.

### **Transparency of Record: Fort Monroe**

The Fort Monroe Authority website offers several planning documents.<sup>145</sup> The MOU and PA are available, along with a design guidelines document and a tentative reuse plan from 2008. Currently, the Fort Monroe Authority is partnered with the city of Hampton, VA and the National Park Service (NPS) to develop a master plan for the site. The minutes from these planning meetings and the outcomes of the associated public input sessions are available on the Fort Monroe Authority webpage along with an online

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<sup>142</sup> The Navy Yard Philadelphia, 10 Sept. 2012 <<http://www.navyyard.org>>.

<sup>143</sup> Telephone Interview, O'Connor and Seltzer, 9 Aug. 2012.

<sup>144</sup> Telephone Interview, Matt Doyle, Pennsylvania State Historic Preservation Office, 6 Sept. 2012.

<sup>145</sup> Fort Monroe Authority, 10 Sept. 20120 <<http://fmauthority.com>>.

hyperlink.<sup>146</sup> The online Town Hall Meeting allows citizens to share their views concerning the future re-use of the site with other concerned members of the public, and planning officials.<sup>147</sup> Although the Fort Monroe Authority is still planning for the future of Fort Monroe, to date the Fort Monroe Authority has provided the public a transparent record of planning and management decisions.

### **Community Engagement: The Presidio**

During the development of the Presidio Trust's master plan in 2002, the public was invited to actively participate in the planning process. Public input was significant to the Presidio Trust's initial planning process and the public's input and significance is noted throughout the management plan. Additionally, the management plan mentions the importance of public input for future master plan amendments and the continued success of the Presidio.<sup>148</sup>

The Presidio does not have a directly related citizen interest group. There are, however, various volunteer programs working directly with the Presidio Trust, and several non-profits located at the Presidio, which offer additional volunteer opportunities. The Presidio Trust's Facebook page, "Presidio San Francisco", was created on May 24, 2010; the page features consistent wall posts by the Presidio Trust, and has two thousand two hundred and ninety-seven 'likes'.<sup>149</sup>

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<sup>146</sup> **IBID.**

<sup>147</sup> Fort Monroe Master Plan. 10 Aug. 2012 <<http://ideas.fmauthority.com>>.

<sup>148</sup> Presidio Trust Management Plan. 2002. Sept 2012 <<http://www.presidio.gov/about/Administrative%20Documents/EXD-600-PTMP02-Plan.pdf>>.

<sup>149</sup> Facebook, "Presidio San Francisco," 10 Sept. 2012 <<http://www.facebook.com/presidiosf>>.

Based on the extensive list of commercial developments and the short list of available domestic rentals, the Presidio seems to be utilizing a high percentage of the available building stock.<sup>150</sup> The long list of recreational facilities and the Presidio Trust's attempts to welcome the public into the space encourages a constant stream of visitors. According to Michael Boland, Chief of Planning Projects and Programs for the Presidio Trust, the Presidio is considered to be one of the safest places in San Francisco, because there are constantly people around to watch the space.<sup>151</sup>

### **Community Engagement: The Philadelphia Shipyard**

Public input was not encouraged during the development of the Philadelphia Shipyard master plan. According to representatives of the PIDC, the neighbors of the Shipyard site were consulted, including the airport, the Eagle's stadium district, and the Franklin Delano Roosevelt Park. Although these developments are the geographical neighbors of the Shipyard, the citizens of Philadelphia are also in close proximity. Allowing for public input facilitates citizens to voice their wants and needs, and strengthens the master plan development process. Developers cannot predict the ways local citizens would want to use the site in the future.

There are currently no citizen interest groups associated with the Philadelphia Shipyard. The Shipyard has two associated Facebook pages, the first "Philadelphia Naval Shipyard," discusses the history of the Shipyard. The site has no wall activity and one hundred and twenty 'likes'.<sup>152</sup> The second, "The Navy Yard," has one thousand three

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<sup>150</sup> Presidio Trust, "Live in the Presidio," 10 Sept 2012 <<http://www.presidio.gov/lease/pages/default.aspx>>.

<sup>151</sup> Speech, Michael Boland.

<sup>152</sup> Facebook, "Philadelphia Naval Shipyard," 17 Sept. 2012 <<http://www.facebook.com/pages/Philadelphia-Naval-Shipyard/109362192423129?rf=114931701855804>>.



hundred and sixty-one ‘likes’ and regular wall posts from PIDC concerning restaurants’ daily specials and events held at the Shipyard. The page was established on January 18, 2010.<sup>153</sup> PIDC representatives said the goal of the Facebook page is “to answer lots of questions all at once”.<sup>154</sup>

Based upon visual assessments there seem to be large areas of available property and vacant buildings at the Shipyard.<sup>155</sup> However, according to the official list of currently available properties on the PIDC webpage, there are relatively few unclaimed structures.<sup>156</sup>

### **Community Engagement: Fort Monroe**

The Fort Monroe Authority has worked to encourage public input throughout the master plan development process. Public input has been fostered through the announcement of public meetings and workshops in local news sources and on the Fort Monroe Authority webpage. An online Town Hall Meeting was created using Mind Mixer software to allow citizens unable to attend the public meetings a forum for discussing their views on the re-use of Fort Monroe.<sup>157</sup> Through continued consultation and consideration of public wants and needs the Fort Monroe Authority will eventually publish a finalized master plan for the re-use of the site.

Citizens for a Fort Monroe National Park (CFMNP) is currently the only public concern group associated with Fort Monroe. The group formed in 2006 and their main

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<sup>153</sup> Facebook, “The Navy Yard,” 17 Sept 2012 <<http://www.facebook.com/TheNavyYard>>.

<sup>154</sup> Telephone Interview, Matt Doyle, Pennsylvania State Historic Preservation Office, 6 Sept. 2012.

<sup>155</sup> Site Visit, Philadelphia Shipyard, May 2012.

<sup>156</sup> The Navy Yard Philadelphia, “What’s Available,” 10 Sept. 2012 <<http://www.navyyard.org/whats-available>>.

<sup>157</sup> Fort Monroe Master Plan. 10 Aug. 2012 <<http://ideas.fmauthority.com>>.

objective is to have the majority of the Fort Monroe site converted into a national park and to “preserv[e] historic... Fort Monroe for the enlightenment and enjoyment of the public.”<sup>158</sup> The CFMNP group has their own webpage, which discusses current issues and planning procedures at Fort Monroe, and a Facebook page. The Facebook page “Citizens for a Fort Monroe National Park (CFMNP)” has one hundred and seventy-three ‘likes’ and limited activity.<sup>159</sup> The “Fort Monroe” Facebook page has nine hundred and thirty-six ‘likes’, a general history of the site, and no wall posts.<sup>160</sup>

Since Fort Monroe is still working on the completion of a master plan, a high percentage of the available buildings are vacant. Domestic structures are leased to individuals and the Chamberlin Hotel is leased as apartments. With the completion of the master plan more of the structures will likely be available for commercial developments. Although the space is not being used to its full potential, the Fort Monroe Authority has initiated community development programs. Activities include the publication of a bi-annual newsletter, “The Beacon,” cookouts for residents,<sup>161</sup> weekly summer concerts for the surrounding community, and the recent opening of a community pool and beach club.<sup>162</sup>

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<sup>158</sup> Citizens for Fort Monroe National Park, “Who we Are,” 10 Sept. 2012 <<http://fortmonroecitizens.org/who-we-are/>>.

<sup>159</sup> Facebook, “Citizens for a Fort Monroe National Park (CFMNP),” 10 Sept. 2012 <<http://www.facebook.com/pages/Citizens-for-a-Fort-Monroe-National-Park-CFMNP/215964321776004>>.

<sup>160</sup> Facebook, “Fort Monroe,” 10 Sept. 2012 <<http://www.facebook.com/pages/Fort-Monroe/106095636087485>>.

<sup>161</sup> Site Visit, Fort Monroe, March 2012.

<sup>162</sup> Fort Monroe Authority, 10 Sept 2012 <<http://fmauthority.com>>.

### **Retention of Natural and Cultural Fabric: The Presidio**

The Presidio trains all staff members in preservation practices and techniques<sup>163</sup> and follows the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties. Since becoming the official stewards of the Presidio, "the Trust has rehabilitated or overseen the rehabilitation of more than 300 historic buildings and completed significant upgrades to more than 160 others. Historic landscapes, including gardens and parade grounds, have also been revived, including the historic forest."<sup>164</sup>

When needed, the Presidio Trust has demolished structures, which do not fit within the identified period of significance and replaced them with appropriate infill. In order to make the park visitor friendly, the Trust has developed a system of sidewalks and trails and introduced picnic areas and public restrooms. The addition of infrastructure aspects not original to the site has created a level of controversy with preservation professionals in the surrounding San Francisco community. Preservation professionals felt the addition of such infrastructure would change the historic character of the site, but the Presidio Trust decided such additions were necessary for the site's success as a public National Park. The Presidio Trust is involved in a constant struggle to maintain the site's historic character, while encouraging a welcoming environment for visitors.<sup>165</sup>

### **Retention of Natural and Cultural Fabric: The Philadelphia Shipyard**

The PIDC has demolished numerous structures at the Philadelphia Shipyard to make room for new developments. A large tract of land was cleared near the entrance to the Shipyard to provide space for a high-rise business park. The availability of space to

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<sup>163</sup> Speech, Michael Boland.

<sup>164</sup> The Presidio Trust, "Historic Preservation," 10 Sept. 2012  
<<http://www.presidio.gov/about/Pages/historic-preservation.aspx>>.

<sup>165</sup> Speech, Michael Boland.

build new structures, and a tax credit incentive program provided by the city of Philadelphia, has attracted several large corporations to the Philadelphia Shipyard.

No records are readily available regarding, which buildings were demolished or the criteria used to make those decisions. PIDC states the buildings lacked integrity, were non-contributing resources, and had limited market values.<sup>166</sup> Amongst the demolitions was the installation's officer's club, which according to a navy employee "was full of mahogany and brass."<sup>167</sup> Officer's Clubs may be placed within architecturally significant structures, but without access to records of the building's appearance, one cannot assume the building was architecturally significant.

Additional demolitions have occurred throughout the site to make room for parking lots and other forms of infrastructure. According to the Pennsylvania SHPO the majority of these demolitions were noncontributing resources, or contributing secondary structures, such as garages and sheds. The Pennsylvania SHPO supported the demolition of these structures, because the potential economic benefits outweighed preservation arguments.<sup>168</sup>

The Philadelphia Shipyard has maintained several historic structures, which are currently leased for office space. Many of the larger, historically significant industrial buildings have been retrofitted by Urban Outfitters and create the company's national headquarters (see Figure 7.1). Urban Outfitters provides a gym, restaurants, and workspace for their onsite employees, successfully creating an inclusive work

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<sup>166</sup> Telephone Interview, O'Connor and Seltzer, 9 Aug. 2012.

<sup>167</sup> Site Visit, Philadelphia Shipyard, May 2012.

<sup>168</sup> Telephone Interview, Matt Doyle.

environment (see Figure 7.2).<sup>169</sup> Since the PIDC holds economic strength and job creation as their first objective for the Philadelphia Shipyard, the retention of natural and cultural fabric is not a high priority.



Figure 7.1: Urban Outfitters National Headquarters (photo by Author)

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<sup>169</sup> Site Visit, Philadelphia Shipyard.



Figure 7.2: Retrofitted Urban Outfitters Interior Space (Photo by Author)

### **Retention of Natural and Cultural Fabric: Fort Monroe**

Since Fort Monroe is still in the initial planning phase, limited demolition has occurred. To date, the Wherry Housing Complex is the only area of demolition. The housing complex was ruled unfit for human occupancy and the repair costs outweighed potential property revenues in the future. After consultation with the Virginia SHPO the Fort Monroe Authority moved forward with the demolition of the housing complex.<sup>170</sup>

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<sup>170</sup> Joshua Gillespie, Demolition of Wherry Housing aka Monroe Apartments at Fort Monroe, VA, 2 April 2012.

The Fort Monroe Authority’s main objectives, to “respect the site’s historic assets, open the space to the public, achieve economic sustainability, create and maintain open spaces, and allow new careful development,”<sup>171</sup> should encourage the retention of natural and cultural fabric in the future. No further demolitions are currently planned at Fort Monroe.

	<b>Transparency of Record</b>	<i>Planning Documents available online</i>	<i>Management available for interviews</i>	<b>Community Engagement</b>	<i>Public involvement during planning processes</i>	<i>Actively managed internet presence e.g. Facebook</i>	<i>Citizens interest group</i>	<i>Maximized utilization of space</i>	<b>Retention of Natural and Cultural Fabric</b>	<i>Allowed for demolitions</i>	<i>Staff trained in preservation practices/techniques</i>	<i>Deed Covenants</i>	<i>Nominations to the National Register of Historic Places</i>
<b>The Presidio</b>	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
<b>Philadelphia Shipyard</b>			X	X		X			X	X		X	X
<b>Fort Monroe</b>	X	X	X	X	X		X		X	X		X	X

Table 7.1: Visual Comparison of the Evaluation Criteria and the Case Studies

<sup>171</sup> Fort Monroe Authority, “Fort Monroe Virginia, Come Live, Work and Play in our National Treasure,” brochure.

## **Conclusion**

Each base closure presents different challenges and requirements. All base closure and realignment projects can be considered a success or a failure depending on the criteria used to judge the venture. According to the objectives of this thesis, a BRAC project can be analyzed with regards to the Section 106 regulation process and the following three criteria: transparency of record, community engagement, and the retention of natural and cultural fabric.

Section 106 of the NHPA requires undertakings/development projects involving federal resources to consider the potential long-term impacts to cultural resources. In order to enforce the ideals of Section 106, the associated regulations of the NHPA provide a multi-step process to insure Section 106 compliance. These steps are as follows, 1- identify and evaluate the cultural resources to determine which are eligible for nomination to the National Register of Historic Places and why, 2- determine how and why the historic cultural resources may be affected during the land transfer (i.e. demolition for new developments), 3- consult with the SHPO and other interested stakeholders, 4- propose necessary mitigation to avoid or minimize adverse effects on the historic cultural resources, and 5- compose necessary documents to complete the process (MOU, PA, or Finding of No Adverse Effect). The potential outcomes of the varying steps of the Section 106 process directly relate to the evaluation criteria identified from emerging trends and themes over the course of thesis completion.

The first criterion, transparency of record, is important to all projects involving the use of public or private funds. The public must trust that their funds and the site itself are being used and treated ethically. Additionally, presenting a transparent record allows



the public to judge whether or not a project is meeting its re-development goals and following the guidelines established by the U.S. military before the transfer of the property.

Community engagement is important because people are needed for the success of development projects. When the surrounding community feels involved in the planning process, the citizens will become stewards of the site. The more people are involved and made aware of a site's significance, the more people will frequent a site and utilize the site to its highest potential. The presence of people adds to the historic significance and safety of a site, not solely the natural and cultural resources.

The final criterion, the retention of natural and cultural resources, is significant to maintain the character of a site. The physical resources can potentially create a physical link to the past for future generations. Structures, memorials, and designed and natural landscapes help create a sense of place; without these differentiating physical qualities, sites around the world would have more similarities than differences.

## CHAPTER 8

### CONCLUSION

This thesis analyzes the relationship between the National Historic Preservation Act and the Base Closure and Realignment Act, with the specific question of inquiry, “how does the Base Closure and Realignment process affect the long-term re-use of historically significant military installations?” Establishing the relationship between the acts required a basic understanding of the two pieces of legislation, and the presentation and analysis of three case studies. With the analysis of the case studies, one can determine several ways the NHPA affects the re-use of closed military installations. Finally, emerging trends amongst the case studies are used to suggest areas for future research.

The NHPA and the Base Closure and Realignment Act are significant pieces of legislation used to protect American interests. The two acts were passed into law because the Federal Government recognized the negative impacts Federal agencies were having on surrounding American communities. The acts provide safeguards against hasty development decisions and require the consideration of secondary impacts before moving forward with DoD closures and realignments. The Federal Government initiated the associated legislation for historic preservation and base closures and realignments in the 1960s.

Since the 1960s the base closure and realignment process has undergone significant alterations. In 1967 Congress passed the Military Construction Authorization Bill, requiring Federal Government involvement in closure and realignment decisions, no longer allowing the DoD to make such decisions unilaterally. Again in the late 1980s, early 1990s, and early 2000s, the base closure and realignment procedures were modified to meet changing social, budgetary, and military needs.

With the use of the Base Closure and Realignment Act countless United States Military installations have been closed or realigned worldwide. The three case studies considered in this thesis are: the Presidio in San Francisco, CA, closed in 1988; the Philadelphia Shipyard in Philadelphia, PA, closed in 1995; and Fort Monroe in Hampton, VA, closed in 2005. These sites were chosen from a long list of closed military installations recommended for analysis by United States Military cultural resource professionals. The case studies were specifically selected because of the similarities and differences exhibited between the three.

Based upon an analysis of the Section 106 process of the NHPA and the information gathered on the three case studies, through archival research, interviews, and site visits, criteria was identified to analyze the relative success of the BRAC process. The three identified analysis criteria are: transparency of record, community engagement, and retention of cultural and natural resources. The development of the evaluation criteria allowed for the case studies to be compared despite their greatly varying closure requirements.

In summary the answer to the question, “how does the Base Closure and Realignment process affect the long-term re-use of historically significant military installations?” is the BRAC process has many built-in safeguards for the preservation of historically significant, cultural resources, because of the presence of the NHPA. Without the existence of the NHPA little to no consideration would be offered to cultural resources before the transfer of property between federal and non-federal entities. The process is not flawless and can result in varying levels of success with regards to historic resources. The BRAC process could be refined to produce more consistent re-use outcomes.

### **Emerging Trends and Future Research**

Over the course of data collection, some major trends and differences emerged between the case studies. The Presidio and Fort Monroe case studies have numerous similarities to one another, while the Philadelphia Shipyard is strikingly different. These differences may derive from the fact that the army owned the Presidio and Fort Monroe, while the navy owned the Philadelphia Shipyard. Each military force has the right to interpret the NHPA and the Base Closure and Realignment Act independently, but still must meet the minimum requirements. Due to these observations, an in-depth study should be completed comparing installation closure procedures for all of the military forces including the army, navy, air force, national guard, and coast guard.

Many of the other differences between the Philadelphia Shipyard and the other two case studies should be investigated further as well. These differences include the fact that the navy still occupies space on the Shipyard campus, resulting in differing deed requirements. Additionally, the Shipyard is the only one out of the three case studies to

be managed by a citywide development authority and not an authority developed specifically to manage the site. The management difference may be the main reason PIDC's primary goal is to create jobs and boost the local economy, not to maintain the site's character and boost community involvement and why the Shipyard is the only one of the three to offer property for sale, not solely for lease. These differences could be investigated further with more case studies to see if significant trends emerge.

The BRAC process itself should also be investigated further in order to develop suggestions for refinement and improvement. Public involvement in the early planning stages seems to be essential to the long-term success of BRAC projects. Research should be expanded to consider case studies where public involvement was and was not possible, and of these examples, which projects were long-term successes or failures.

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