

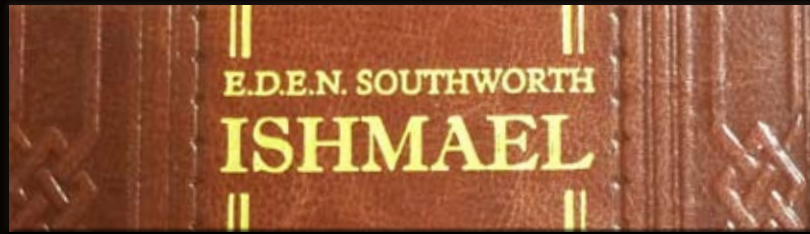
TAKING A
STAND
IN HISTORY

National History Day 2017



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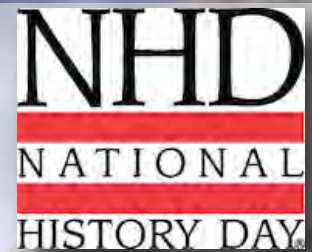
Taking a Stand in History

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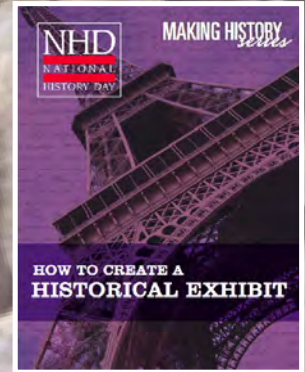
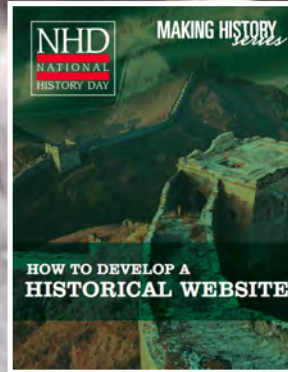
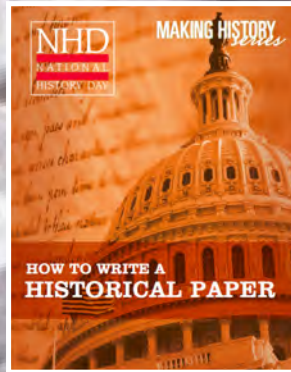
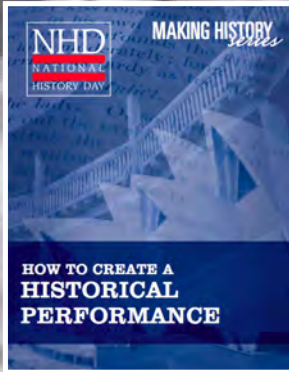
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MAKING HISTORY

HISTORY



series

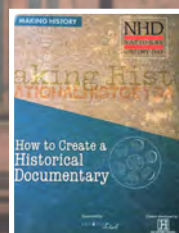
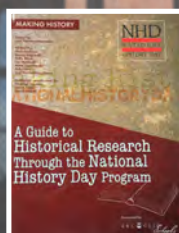


Making History is a comprehensive series of workbooks that provides teachers step-by-step guidance on how to conduct historical research and gives students directions on how to create NHD projects. Order now and receive the latest revised editions of *How to Create a Historical Performance*, *How to Write a Historical Paper*, *How to Develop a Historical Website*, and *How to Create a Historical Exhibit*. These newly updated versions include the most recent advice for crafting the best possible project.

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EDITOR'S NOTEBOOK

Lynne M. O'Hara, Director of Programs, National History Day®

If you want to make history, you have to take a risk. The 2017 National History Day (NHD) theme, *Taking a Stand in History*, explores those who have taken risks and taken a stand, whether in a political, social, religious, military, economic, intellectual, or artistic sphere.

The 2017 theme book includes the annual theme narrative and topic lists, as well as a series of articles and activities that combines the experience of NHD teachers and coordinators with the resources of our partner organizations.

Several of NHD's generous partner organizations have contributed articles to this year's theme book. Courtney Speckmann, the Director of Education for the White House Historical Association, looks at the White House as a place where women have taken a stand throughout history. Dr. Justin Quinn Olmstead, a professor at the University of Central Oklahoma, looks at a familiar NHD topic (in this case, Winston Churchill) during a lesser-known time of his career to discover an example of taking a stand at the beginning of World War I. As we near the one hundredth anniversary of American involvement in World War I, Lora Vogt, the Curator of Education from the National World War I Museum and Memorial in Kansas City, explores the role of African Americans in World War I.

Rosa Parks is a source of inspiration for teaching activities and case studies from Cheryl Lederle, Kathleen McGuigan, and Stephen Wesson at the Library of Congress. Christopher Zarr, an Education Specialist with the National Archives and Records Administration, shows NHD students how to use court cases as a way to explore this year's theme in light of the recent anniversary of the Bill of Rights. Mattea Victoria Sanders, Carol McBryant, and Carolyn Fiscus from the National Park Service show NHD new ways to teach about Native American history. We wrap the book with an exploration of imperialism resources from *Chronicling America* along with techniques to use these primary sources in a world or U.S. history classroom.

This year we have a new feature - infographics for our five project categories created by NHD's Programs Assistant, Amanda Hendrey. These are great resources to help students decide which category is the right fit for them. We have these and other downloadable resources to create your NHD bulletin board at www.nhd.org/themebook. There you can also find an article about the Flying Tigers and the China-Burma-India theater of World War II.

National History Day is a leader in professional development for teachers that has a positive impact on student achievement and critical thinking. The 2017 theme book is a component of this outreach. For each article that you find in this theme book, a variety of teaching resources is accessible at www.nhd.org/themebook for teachers to print, save, edit, copy, or distribute. We love to see your work! Share your journey using #NHD2017.

Happy Researching!

Lynne M. O'Hara, NBCT, James Madison Fellow

WHAT IS NATIONAL HISTORY DAY®?

National History Day® (NHD) is a nonprofit organization that creates opportunities for teachers and students to engage in historical research. NHD is not a predetermined, by-the-book program but rather an innovative curriculum framework in which students learn history by selecting topics of interest and launching into a year-long research project. The mission of NHD is to improve the teaching and learning of history in middle and high school. The most visible vehicle is the NHD Contest.

When studying history through historical research, students and teachers practice critical inquiry, asking questions of significance, time, and place. History students become immersed in a detective story. Beginning in the fall, students choose a topic related to the annual theme and conduct extensive primary and secondary research. After analyzing and interpreting their sources and drawing conclusions about their topics' significance in history, students present their work in original papers, exhibits, performances, websites, or documentaries. These projects are entered into competitions in the spring at local, affiliate, and national levels, where they are evaluated by professional historians and educators. The program culminates at the national competition held each June at the University of Maryland at College Park.

Each year National History Day uses a theme to provide a lens through which students can examine history. The theme for 2017 is *Taking a Stand in History*. The annual theme frames the research for both students and teachers. It is intentionally broad enough that students can select topics from any place (local, national, or world) and any time period in history. Once students choose their topics, they investigate historical context, historical significance, and the topic's relationship to the theme by conducting research in libraries, archives, and museums, through oral history interviews, and by visiting historic sites.

NHD benefits both teachers and students. For the student, NHD allows control of his or her own learning. Students select topics that match their interests. Program expectations and guidelines are explicitly provided for students, but the research journey is driven by the process and is unique to the historical research. Throughout the year, students develop essential life skills by fostering intellectual curiosity and academic achievement. In addition, students develop critical-thinking and problem-solving skills that will help them manage and use information now and in the future.

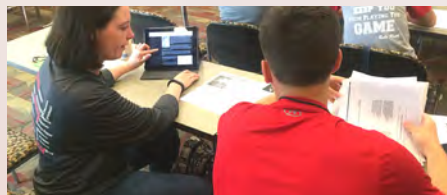
The student's greatest ally in the research process is the classroom teacher. NHD supports teachers by providing instructional materials and through workshops at local, affiliate, and national levels. Many teachers find that incorporating the NHD theme into their regular classroom curriculum encourages students to watch for examples of the theme and to identify connections in their study of history across time.

NHD's work with teachers and students extends beyond the contest and includes institutes and training programs, which provide teachers with opportunities to study history and develop lessons and materials they can share with their students. In addition, NHD offers continuing education courses for teachers (for graduate credit or professional development hours) to improve classroom practice. NHD also offers teaching resources to help teachers integrate primary sources and critical thinking into the classroom. These resources are free and accessible to all teachers. Visit www.nhd.org to learn more.

National History Day® Graduate Courses for Teachers 2016-17

Learn more at:
nhd.org/OnlineEducation

"I thought the class was fantastic! I learned many practical strategies to use with my classes and I look forward to implementing them."



Introduction to Project-Based Learning Through the NHD Curriculum Framework
July to August 2016 -- January to April 2017 -- July to August 2017

The following courses require either five years of NHD experience or completion of the Introduction to Project-Based Learning course:



Developing Websites to Facilitate Historical Thinking Skills
• August to September 2016



Writing and Editing for NHD
• January to March 2017



Conducting Historical Research in the NHD Model
• September to December 2016



Developing Documentaries to Facilitate Historical Thinking Skills
• Summer 2017



Developing Exhibits to Facilitate Historical Thinking Skills
• October to November 2016



Developing Performances to Facilitate Historical Thinking Skills
• Summer 2017

2017 THEME NARRATIVE: TAKING A STAND IN HISTORY

Amanda Hendrey, Programs Assistant, National History Day

Lynne O'Hara, Director of Programs, National History Day

For National History Day students, the 2016-2017 academic year will be filled with research related to the theme *Taking a Stand in History*. The theme is broad to encourage participants to delve into history, whether it be a topic from the ancient world or the history of their own city. Students need to begin research with secondary sources to gain a broader context, then progress to finding primary sources, and finally make an argument about the effects of a topic in history.

What does it mean to take a stand? To take a stand, one must take a firm position on an issue. Historically, people have taken a stand in support of an issue, such as the demonstrators in Tiananmen Square who protested for greater freedom in China. Sometimes taking a stand involves opposing the status quo—for example, Martin Luther's act of nailing his Ninety-Five Theses to the door of the All Saints' Church in Wittenberg, Germany. Taking a stand could even involve fighting against a powerful movement, such as Queen Liliuokalani's fight against annexation to maintain Hawaiian independence. These examples show well-known individuals taking a stand. How did these people defend their position?

When looking at different individuals and groups who took a stand, there are examples of those who used force, words, and economic power to make their voices heard. These people are remembered because they had an impact on history and inspired others to follow them. Remember that there is a difference between opposition and truly taking a stand. What do you think has to happen to move from opposition to taking a stand?

Can a group of people take a stand? Yes. Think back to how the Indian National Congress protested to end British Control of India. Or look even further into the past at the Magna Carta, considered one of the world's most important documents. It would never have been written if it were not for a group of rebellious English barons who took a stand against an all-powerful King John in 1215. How did American colonists, many of them women, take a stand against King George III? In the more recent past, numerous nations came together to stand up for the rights of individuals after World War II. Why and how did the United Nations agree to the Declaration of Human Rights in 1948? What can be accomplished when nations come together to stand up for individual rights? Perhaps you could explore these questions and more by writing a paper.

Grassroots movements can become something more through the dedication of followers. Think of the Temperance Movement during the Progressive Era. Although the movement for temperance began much earlier, the Progressive Era sparked a revival that led to the 18th Amendment and a 13-year prohibition of alcohol.

Why was this issue brought back into the spotlight by the Progressive Era? Why was this movement successful? As historians, you must look at the lasting legacy of the actions of individuals and groups. What

happened because of their stand? What changes occurred in the short-term? How about the long-term? Did they leave the world, their country, or their town better or worse?

Many times those who take a stand emerge as great historical leaders. George Washington was a gifted leader who influenced the lives of many. He took numerous stands throughout his military and political career. Yes, he led the Continental Army in the American Revolution, but Washington also took a stand against disease by inoculating his army against smallpox during a time when many questioned the validity of this procedure. Why did he decide to go against the mindset of the time? How do you think this has shaped his lasting legacy?

Often those who take a stand have to overcome opposition. Like the soldiers of George Washington's time, many Americans feared Jonas Salk's polio vaccine in the twentieth century. How did Salk seek to prove the validity of his medicine? How did his stand help shape the future of medicine?

Times of crisis and war often lead to conflicts between the rights of the people and those of the government. Consider the Alien and Sedition Acts of 1798, the suspension of the writ of habeas corpus during the U.S. Civil War, or the internment of Japanese Americans during World War II. Often these situations led to court cases where an individual or group challenged the right of the government to restrict liberties. There are many case studies of people standing up to protect liberties. John Peter Zenger, Lucy Stone, William Lloyd Garrison, Eugene V. Debs, and John Lewis all took stands. How does the judicial process provide an avenue to take a stand?

One of the most visible ways to take a stand is related to military action. Alexander the Great, Charlemagne, Joan of Arc, Napoleon I, and Douglas MacArthur are just a few who have led armies in taking a stand. In contrast, you might consider why an individual might take a stand *against* military action. For example, how did Siegfried Sassoon, a British soldier in World War I, use poetry to take a stand? What consequences did he face as a result?

Taking a stand does not necessarily need to involve military force or a political enemy. In the late 1800s, a group of French artists rebelled against the Salons, a popular venue for artists to display their work. They felt rejected and unwanted so they put on their own shows and were later known as the Impressionists. What legacy did these artists leave? Do you think the Impressionist Movement inspired later artists and other movements? You might decide to tackle those questions by creating an exhibit or a documentary.

Sometimes the best way to take a stand is to walk away. Russia has always had a wonderful reverence for the ballet world, but the ballet dancers of the Soviet Era felt limited by government policies that restricted creative expression. As a result, some dancers, including Rudolf Nureyev and Mikhail Baryshnikov, defected to other countries. How did their stand influence artist expression? How were they affected as individuals? Perhaps you want to explore this topic through a performance.

Many women have taken a powerful stand in history. Consider Queen Elizabeth I's stand against marriage or Catherine the Great's efforts to bring Enlightenment ideas to the Russian Empire. Alice Paul took a stand to push the women's suffrage movement into the national spotlight in the early twentieth century. How was she able to garner so much attention? How did Eleanor Roosevelt respond when the Daughters of the American Revolution refused to let Marian Anderson perform in their concert hall? Can you think of other examples of women taking a stand throughout history?

What happens when taking a stand fails to result in an immediate change? Often many people and groups must take a stand to bring change to a society. Any movement for social and political change can require years. Ending slavery, establishing child labor laws, and fighting against Jim Crow segregation laws and prohibition took many attempts at change. What part has the media played in such instances? How can a failure later become a success?

Sometimes failure is temporary. In 1892, the People's Party, or Populist Party, articulated its goals in a document known as the Omaha Platform. While none of its goals (a graduated income tax, direct election of senators) were achieved in 1892, many of the ideas were carried on by Progressive Reformers and enacted in the next 50 years. Looking back through history, are there similar examples where a group might have failed initially?

What happens when someone fails to take a stand? Diplomatic history includes many examples of nations that refused to get involved in events outside their borders. Nations must face challenging decisions of when to intervene in another country's affairs, and when to be isolationists and stay out.

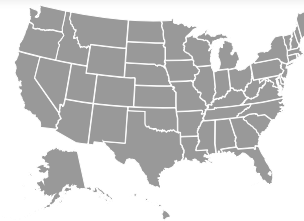
When deciding on a topic for your NHD project, it is helpful to think outside the box. One way to find such a topic is to look at a well-known historical event, such as the Boston Tea Party, and dig a little deeper. Most of us know about the Boston Tea Party and that the Sons of Liberty were a part of its planning and execution, but have you heard of Ebenezer Stevens? How did he play a role in the rebellion? What were the consequences of his actions? Perhaps you might want to explore this topic by creating a website.

Another way to find a new spin on an old topic is to look to your own backyard. Many of us know that Rosa Parks and Martin Luther King, Jr. played significant roles in the civil rights movement, but are there individuals from your hometown who played a role? How do you think the small town movements influenced these movements at a national level? By digging beneath the surface of many famous historical events, researchers can find a treasure trove of fascinating stories of people and groups who took a stand in history.

Using these questions, students can choose a topic that interests them and has a strong connection to the *Taking a Stand in History* theme. Happy researching!

U.S. History

SAMPLE TOPICS



- Taking a Stand Against the British: The Reorganization of the Continental Army at Valley Forge
- Roger Williams' Stand Against Exile: The Establishment of Rhode Island
- Thurgood Marshall: Taking a Stand in Court Against Segregation
- The Power of Words: Thomas Paine's Fight Against Tyranny
- The War on Poverty: Johnson Stands for "The Other America"
- Taking a Stand in Art: Copley's Artistic Fight Against the British
- Horace Mann and the Fight for Quality Education
- Protecting the Environment: The Establishment of the National Park Service
- Protestants and the Fight for Temperance: The Founding of the American Temperance Society
- William Jennings Bryan: Standing Against Evolution
- Nat Turner: Taking a Stand Against Slavery
- Standing for Separation of Church and School: *Engel vs. Vitale*
- Muhammad Ali: Taking a Stand Against the Vietnam War
- Andrew Jackson's Stand Against the Bank
- Betty Friedan: Taking a Stand For Women's Rights
- The Pullman Strike of 1894: Taking a Stand for the Workers
- Standing Against Federal Authority: The Plight of the Farmers During the Whiskey Rebellion
- Standing Against the British: The Boston Tea Party and Its Consequences
- Rosa Parks: Sitting Down to Take a Stand
- The Fight for Social Equality: Jane Addams and Hull House
- William Lloyd Garrison: Taking a Stand with Words
- Fighting Unemployment: The Journey of Coxey's Army
- Taking a Stand Against Kingship: George Washington's Denial of Power
- Standing Against the President: Congress' Victory in Radical Reconstruction Against Johnson
- Taking a Stand Against the Trusts: Teddy Roosevelt as a Trust Buster
- Standing Against Big Business: The Sherman Antitrust Act
- Defiance in Leaps and Bounds: Jesse Owens and the 1936 Berlin Olympics
- Claudette Colvin and the Montgomery Bus Boycott
- The Astor Place Riots: Taking a Stand for Theater
- Standing Against Conquest: Chief Osceola and the Seminole Indians

European History

SAMPLE TOPICS



- Taking a Stand at Bosworth Field: Henry Tudor's Triumph
- The French Impressionist Movement: Taking a Stand Against the Salons
- Galileo's Stand Against the Church
- Standing Up to the Little Corporal: The Duke of Wellington's Win at Waterloo
- The Establishment of Cubism: Picasso and Braque's Stand Against Realism
- Kilmainham Gaol and Ireland's Fight for Home Rule
- Standing Against the Enemy: Sir Francis Drake at Cadiz
- Standing Against the War: Siegfried Sassoon's Use of Pacifist Poetry
- Martin Luther: The Stand That Started the Reformation
- The Easter Uprising: Taking a Stand for Freedom
- A King Stands for Unity: King Henry IV and the Edict of Nantes
- Lech Wałęsa's Stand for Workers' Rights: The Establishment of the Gdansk Agreement
- The Pope Versus a King: Henry VIII's Stand Against the Catholic Church
- What Happens When No One Takes a Stand? Neville Chamberlain's Appeasement of Adolf Hitler
- Taking a Stand for Artistic Freedom: The Defection of Soviet Ballet Dancers to the United States
- Standing Against the Monarchy: Oliver Cromwell's Parliament Versus King Charles
- Standing Up to the King: The Peasant's Revolt to End Serfdom in England
- Sophie Scholl and Her Stand Against Hitler
- Taking a Stand Against the Monarchy: The Birth of the Magna Carta
- Standing Against Capitalism: The Soviets' Refusal of the Marshall Plan
- Standing for the Right of Free Health Care: Aneurin Bevan and the National Health Service
- Sir Thomas More: The Scholar Who Stood Up to a King
- Storming the Bastille: Standing Against the Excesses of the Monarchy
- The Velvet Revolution: Standing Against Communist Rule in Czechoslovakia
- Emmeline Pankhurst: Militancy for Women's Suffrage
- The Italian Unification Movement—Standing Together
- Germany's Atlantic Wall: A Military Stand
- The Yalta Agreement: Taking a Stand on a Post-War World
- Standing Against Slavery: Lord Mansfield of England
- Dietrich Bonhoeffer: Standing Against Hitler

World History

SAMPLE TOPICS



- Diocletianic Persecution: The Plight of the Christians in Ancient Rome
- The Boxer Rebellion: Standing Against Westernization
- The Buddhist Crisis: The People Versus the Government
- Taking a Stand Against the British: Gandhi's Salt March to the Sea
- Taking a Stand Against the Emperor: Brutus vs. Caesar
- Chinese, American, and European Resistance to the Japanese Occupation of Nanking
- The Opium Wars Between China and Great Britain
- The Rise of Communism in China: Mao Zedong
- Inca and Aztec Resistance to Spanish Colonization
- Taking a Stand at Dien Bien Phu
- Pancho Villa: Taking a Stand at the Mexican Border
- Nelson Mandela's Stand for Equality in South Africa
- Fray Cancer and Missions in the Sixteenth Century Caribbean
- The Sri Lankan Independence Movement
- Bishop Juan Gerardi: Standing for the Truth
- Toussaint L'Ouverture and the Haitian Revolution
- Asserting Afghan Women's Right to Work: Anahita Ratebzad
- Standing for Women in Government: Indira Gandhi
- Simón Bolívar and Venezuela's Stand Against Spanish Rule
- War Crimes Tribunals: Taking a Stand Against Genocide
- Deng Xiaoping: Opening the Chinese Economy
- The Romanov Family: Standing for Imperial Russia
- Emperor Meiji: Opening Japan to Keep Japan Standing
- Standing at an Impasse: The Korean War
- The Iranian Revolution
- Standing Against Saddam Hussein: The Persian Gulf War
- OPEC: Standing for Economic Rights
- Sir Henry Parkes: Taking a Stand for Australian Self Rule
- Genghis Khan: Standing to Unite the Mongols
- Standing for the Independence of Ghana: Kwame Nkrumah

Project Category

INFOGRAPHICS



DOCUMENTARIES

FOR THE FILM FANATIC STUDENT

Do you find yourself critiquing every movie you watch? Do you love to tell stories using imagery and sound? If you answered yes to those questions, documentary is the category for you! Read below for tips and tricks for creating your documentary.



You may create a documentary as an individual, or in a group of up to five students.



Your documentary cannot exceed ten minutes.



In addition to creating your documentary, you must also write a process paper and an annotated bibliography.



Make sure you give credit to all sources used in the documentary in the ending credits. This includes images, music, and film!



Don't forget to introduce yourself! Make sure to state the title of your entry and your name before you play your documentary.



You are not permitted to use media that requires audience participation.



Head to our website for further information:
<http://nhd.org/entering-contest/creating-an-entry/documentary/>

STUDENT EXAMPLES

Ella Baker A Legacy of Grassroots Leadership
 Siena Leone-Getten & Paying Lor, Senior Group Documentary, 2015
<http://tinyurl.com/NHD-Documentary-Senior>



A Legacy of Love and Laughter: Robert Porterfield's Barter Theatre
 Mia Lazar, Junior Individual Documentary, 2015
<http://tinyurl.com/NHD-Documentary-Junior>



EXHIBITS

FOR THE VISUAL STUDENT

Do you find yourself doodling on the sides of your notes? Do your friends come to you for creative advice? If you answered yes to those questions, exhibit is the category for you! Read below for tips on exhibit creation.



Exhibits can be created individually, or in a group of up to five students.



Boards can include images, maps, and other visual primary sources!



The size limit on an exhibit is 40 inches wide, 30 inches deep, and 6 feet tall.



All images must be credited on the exhibit board and in the annotated bibliography.



Don't forget that in addition to creating your exhibit board, you will need to write a process paper and an annotated bibliography.



Exhibits have a word limit of 500 student-composed words.



Head to our website for further information:
<http://nhd.org/entering-contest/creating-an-entry/exhibit/>

STUDENT EXAMPLES

"Them Damned Pictures": The Legendary Cartoons of Thomas Nast
 Brian Johnson, Sam Katz & Watson Moore, Senior Group Exhibit, 2015
<http://tinyurl.com/NHD-Exhibit-Senior>



Eleanor Roosevelt and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights
 Morgan Kopecky, Junior Individual Exhibit, 2015
<http://tinyurl.com/NHD-Exhibit-Junior>



Project Category INFOGRAPHICS



PAPERS

FOR THE LITERARY STUDENT

Do you love when your teacher assigns a paper for homework? Do you prefer writing over speaking in front of a crowd? If you answered yes to those questions, the paper category is the one for you! Check out the tips and tricks below for how to write your paper.



The paper category is only for individuals. You may not work in a group.



Traditional papers and various types of creative writing are permitted.



You will need five total copies of your paper. You will submit four prior to the contest, and bring one copy with you.



For all quotes and ideas that are not originally yours, you must cite them in your paper and include the sources in your annotated bibliography.



Don't forget that in addition to writing your paper, you will need to create an annotated bibliography.



Papers must be between 1,500 and 2,500 words. Make sure you include the word count on the title page.

Head to our website for further information:
<http://nhd.org/entering-contest/creating-an-entry/paper/>

STUDENT EXAMPLES

Socialism with a Human Face: The Leadership and Legacy of the Prague Spring
Anna Stoneman, Senior Paper, 2015
<http://tinyurl.com/NHD-Paper-Senior>



The Life and Legacy of Andrew "Rube" Foster: Baseball's Forgotten Legend
Jordan French, Junior Paper, 2015
<http://tinyurl.com/NHD-Paper-Junior>



PERFORMANCES

FOR THE OUTGOING STUDENT

Do you love to be the center of attention? Do you enjoy speaking in front of a crowd? If you answered yes to those questions, performance is the category for you! Read below for tips and tricks on creating your performance entry.



You may perform as an individual or in a group of up to five students.



Your performance cannot exceed ten minutes.



In addition to preparing your performance, you must also write a process paper and an annotated bibliography.



Have fun creating your costume, set, and props, but remember simple is often best!



Don't forget to introduce yourself! Make sure to say the title of your entry and your name before you begin performing.



You are allowed to use media within your performance as long as you operate it yourself.

Head to our website for further information:
<http://nhd.org/entering-contest/creating-an-entry/performance/>

STUDENT EXAMPLES

The Grimké Sisters: The Two Sisters Whose Legacy Turned the World Upside Down
Hannah Hakim, Senior Individual Performance, 2015
<http://tinyurl.com/NHD-Performance-Senior>



The Brothers Grimm: How Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm Led the Movement to Preserve Culture Through Stories and Created a Legacy of Literature
Samantha Penny, Clancy Penny, Grace Bowen, Lillian Ward & McCollough Perry, Junior Group Performance, 2015
<http://tinyurl.com/NHD-Performance-Junior>



Project Category

INFOGRAPHICS



WEBSITES

FOR THE TECH SAVY STUDENT

Do you love working with the latest technology? Do your friends come to you for technical advice? If you answered yes to those questions, website is the category for you! Read below for tips on website creation.



Websites can be created individually, or in a group of up to five students.



You must create your website using nhd.weebly.org.



Websites may include multimedia clips, but the total running time cannot exceed four minutes.



All images, film, and music used must be credited on the website and in the annotated bibliography.



In addition to creating your website, you will need to write a process paper and an annotated bibliography.



Your website can contain up to 1,200 student-composed words. Don't forget to include the word count on the home page!

Head to our website for further information:
<http://nhd.org/entering-contest/creating-an-entry/website/>

STUDENT EXAMPLES

Nellie Bly's Multifaceted Legacy: Leading a Progressive Generation of Journalists and Social Reforms
Rachel Arnold, Nili Ezekiel, Jaqui Hale & Sarah Nosal, Senior Group Website, 2015
<http://tinyurl.com/NHD-Website-Senior>



John Muir: Leadership and Legacy in Establishing and Preserving National Parks
Adriana Ballinger, Junior Individual Website, 2015
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WOMEN TAKE A STAND AT THE WHITE HOUSE

Courtney Speckmann, Director of Education, White House Historical Association

For more than 215 years, the White House has been intrinsically tied to American history, serving the roles of home, office, museum, and stage for each president and first lady who lived there. It also serves as a symbol, representing the nation and our democracy. Article II of the U.S. Constitution grants the president many powers and responsibilities that carry large and sometimes difficult implications for the country, and many momentous decisions and events have taken place within the walls of the President's House. While it is undeniable that each president has left a lasting legacy and impact on the United States, the role of women in supporting national causes and instituting change also deserves recognition.

The Constitution assigns no official responsibilities to the spouse of the president, so it has been left up to each woman to define her role. In 1927, First Lady Grace Coolidge created a crocheted coverlet for the famous Lincoln bed at the White House, intending it to be a “token which shall go down through the ages to serve as a definite and visible link connecting the present and the past.” She hoped the coverlet would begin a tradition for each first family of leaving a memento of family life for the White House. While future first ladies would not leave personal artifacts for the White House collection, as Mrs. Coolidge intended, they did make a point of advocating specific causes to improve the welfare of the United States.¹

Starting in the 1960s, Lady Bird Johnson spearheaded reforms to protect the environment, encouraging Americans to clean up and care for their neighborhoods, and made Washington, D.C. a more attractive city. In 1965, Congress passed the Highway Beautification Act to achieve the changes she advocated, including the removal of unsightly billboards along highways, flower and tree-planting programs, and placing wildflowers and natural vegetation along major roadways. In her diary, she compared beautification to “picking up a tangled skein of wool. All the threads are interwoven—recreation and pollution and mental health, and the crime rate, and rapid transit, and highway beautification, and the war on poverty, and parks—national, state and local. It is hard to hitch the conversation into one straight line, because everything leads to something else.”²



Lady Bird Johnson plants a fern leaf beech tree on the North Lawn of the White House, April 26, 1968. Photograph courtesy of the Lyndon Baines Johnson Presidential Library and Museum/NARA.

Every first lady after Mrs. Johnson has followed her example and led a project that championed specific causes. Pat Nixon focused on volunteerism; Betty Ford supported equal rights for women and spoke openly about her own experience with alcoholism and breast cancer; Rosalynn Carter promoted mental health

¹ “First Lady Makes a Coverlet,” *Washington Evening Star* (February 12, 1928), 33.

² Lady Bird Johnson, *A White House Diary*, (University of Texas Press, 2007), 234.

care; Nancy Reagan urged Americans to “Just Say No” to illegal drugs; Barbara Bush championed literacy and campaigns to alleviate homelessness and AIDS; Hillary Rodham Clinton worked on health care reform; Laura Bush returned to the cause of literacy; and Michelle Obama has led the fight against childhood obesity and encouraged additional aid for military families.

Petitioning the President

In a television and radio interview on December 17, 1962, President John F. Kennedy discussed a conversation he had with President Dwight Eisenhower the day before his inauguration. Eisenhower said, “There are no easy matters that will ever come to you as President. If they are easy, they will be settled at a lower level.” In his farewell address to the American people given in January 1953, President Truman asserted that “The President—whoever he is—has to decide. He can’t pass the buck to anybody. No one else can do the deciding for him. That’s his job.” It is only natural, then, that activists would flock to the White House to gain the president’s support and advocate for social, economic, and political change.³

Virtually from President Abraham Lincoln’s first day in office, a crush of visitors and office seekers besieged the White House stairways and corridors and camped outside Lincoln’s office door. Lincoln insisted, “For myself, I feel—though the tax on my time is heavy—that no hours of my day are better employed than those which thus bring me again within the direct contact and atmosphere of the average of our whole people.” He informed one visitor, “I tell you that I call these receptions my ‘public opinion baths;’ for I have but little time to read the papers and gather public opinion that way; and though they may not be pleasant in all their particulars, the effect, as a whole, is renovating and invigorating to my perceptions of responsibility and duty.”⁴

Mary Livermore, a prominent abolitionist and women’s rights activist, championed many causes, including the United States Sanitary Commission, which ran hospitals and collected supplies for soldiers during the Civil War. Livermore, who had worked for Lincoln’s election in 1860, met with the president after he announced he would sign the Emancipation Proclamation and pressed for his support at the November 1863 Sanitary Fair fundraiser in Chicago. Lincoln later donated an original signed manuscript of the Proclamation to raise money for the Commission, and it was auctioned at the Sanitary Fair for \$3,000.



This 2006 painting by artist Peter Waddell, *The Visit. A War Worker Calls for a Favor, late 1862*, depicts a meeting between Mary Livermore and Abraham Lincoln in his White House office. Peter Waddell for the White House Historical Association.

Protesters have long exercised their First Amendment right in Lafayette Park, on the north side of the White House, to get the president’s attention and speak out on many issues. In 1916, the National Woman’s Party moved its headquarters to Lafayette Square. Suffragists, wanting to confront President Woodrow Wilson about women’s voting rights, gave speeches, marched with banners demanding the right to vote, and stood with picket signs in front of the White House gates. Supportive

³ John F. Kennedy, “After Two Years: A Conversation With the President,” December 17, 1962, <http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/ws/index.php?pid=9060&st=easy&st1=>, accessed December 7, 2015; Harry S. Truman, “President’s Farewell Address to the American People,” January 15, 1953, <http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/ws/index.php?pid=14392&st=deciding&st1=>, accessed December 7, 2015.

⁴ Francis Bicknell Carpenter, *Six Months at the White House with President Lincoln: The Story of a Picture* (Hurd and Houghton, 1866), 281-282.

onlookers cheered; others hissed and accused the protesters of having “bad manners and mad banners.” Hundreds of women were arrested, charged with inciting unlawful assemblage and obstructing the sidewalk. In August 1917, an unruly crowd, perturbed by a banner calling the president “Kaiser Wilson,” threw eggs and tomatoes at the Congressional Union for Woman Suffrage headquarters, and a bullet was fired through a second-floor window. While delivering a speech in the park in 1918, one woman declared, “I stand at the foot of the monument to the great Lafayette who fought for American freedom. We fight today for the freedom of American women.”⁵ The protests continued until suffragists received the support of the president and Congress, and the 19th Amendment, which granted women the right to vote, was ratified in 1920.



Suffragette Alison Trumbull Hopkins holds a banner in front of the White House which reads, “Mr. President how long must we wait for liberty,” January 30, 1917. Photograph courtesy of the Library of Congress.

White House Workers Take Charge to Take a Stand

Thousands have worked behind the scenes to help the White House operate and fulfill its many

roles as home, office, and stage. In their day-to-day interactions with the first family, White House workers have been witnesses to history as well as active participants in the nation’s story. Frances Benjamin Johnston, an early photojournalist and noted freelance photographer, documented life in the White House as the unofficial “court photographer,” with access to the White House during the Harrison, Cleveland, McKinley, and Theodore Roosevelt administrations. In 1897, the *Ladies Home Journal* published her article “What a Woman Can Do with a Camera,” urging women to consider photography as a career and offering advice: “[You] must have good common sense, unlimited patience...good taste, a quick eye, a talent for detail, and a genius for hard work.”⁶ In a field dominated by men, Johnston’s talent and perseverance opened the door for her to work with the nation’s leaders and contribute early photojournalistic evidence of the White House.

Workers at the White House have at times been involved in contributing to the main social issues of the day. Elizabeth Keckley, a talented seamstress who worked as Mary Lincoln’s dressmaker, founded the Contraband Relief Association during the Civil War to provide aid and relief to formerly enslaved people who had come to Washington, D.C. Born into slavery, Mrs. Keckley understood how difficult it was for newly freed men and women to establish themselves in a new city. In her memoir, *Behind the Scenes or Thirty Years a Slave, and Four Years in the White House*, she describes how a festival given for the benefit of the sick and wounded soldiers in the city suggested the idea: “If the white people can give festivals to raise funds for the relief of the suffering soldiers, why should not the well-to-do colored people go to work to do something for the benefit of the suffering blacks?”⁷ She took a stand locally, collected clothes and raised money to provide food and shelter, and even received a donation for the cause from Mrs. Lincoln.

⁵ Katie Munn, “Protest in the Park,” *Cobblestone* (January 2013), 31.

⁶ Frances Benjamin Johnston, “What a Woman Can Do with a Camera,” *Ladies Home Journal* (September 1897), 6-7.

⁷ Elizabeth Keckley, *Behind the Scenes*. 1868, reprint. (R.R. Donnelley and Sons Co., 1998), 94-97.

Throughout the Great Depression and World War II, President Franklin D. Roosevelt publicly adopted the popular phrase “Use it up, wear it out, make it do, or do without.” Naturally, this would affect life at the White House, as it is important for the nation’s leader to set the example for citizens across the country. When White House cooks were faced with rationing during the war, housekeeper Henrietta Nesbitt stepped in to enact new policies that reflected what households across the country were doing. In her *White House Diary* she explained: “It was a puzzle to make the cooks understand there was a war on. They just had to have more chocolate, more sugar, more butter, they said, or they couldn’t cook. Well, they learned. We had meatless days, as I thought that was the best way to stretch. Butter for breakfast only. Dry rolls in the White House for dinner. No more whipped cream on the clam bouillon. Food sautéed in bacon fat instead of butter. One cup of coffee a day, except for foreign visitors, with a pitcher of hot milk alongside, so the drinker could ‘stretch’ his own.” Knowing that the White House is often in the national spotlight, she also stated that she “wouldn’t go whining to the ration board for extra stamps and get us in all the papers.”⁸

Promoting Civil Rights

In 1929, as Lou Hoover was settling into her new role as First Lady, she faced a dilemma over a tea for congressional wives at the White House. For the first time since Reconstruction, an African American, Oscar DePriest, had been elected a U.S. Congressman. DePriest began his term in March 1929, at the same time President Hoover began his term as president. While President and Mrs. Hoover tried to minimize political fallout, there did not seem to be much doubt that they would include Mrs. DePriest. It would be difficult to ignore White House traditions, so canceling the event was not really an option. Excluding Mrs. DePriest would have been “rude and out of character for Mrs. Hoover,



Mrs. Henrietta Nesbitt, White House (housekeeper), February 1939. Photograph courtesy of the Library of Congress.

whose life included numerous small but significant testimonials to her belief in equality.”⁹

No African American had been formally entertained at the White House since Booker T. Washington dined with President Theodore Roosevelt in 1901. Racial segregation, as an official policy, was endorsed and enforced in the William Howard Taft White House and remained an accepted household management practice for many decades. In May 1929, Mrs. Hoover’s secretary wrote the President’s aide, Walter Newton: “. . . the question arises as to what can be done about the family of our new colored representative. Mrs. Hoover wishes me to ask for your suggestion, and to remind you that we must think not only of this occasion, but of what is to be done during the entire term of the Representative.”¹⁰

⁸ Henrietta Nesbitt, *White House Diary* (Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1948), 286.

⁹ Nancy Beck Young, *Lou Hoover: Activist First Lady* (University of Kansas Press, 2004), 66-67.

¹⁰ Secretary to Walter P. Newton, 21 May 1929, in “Social Events at the White House, 1929 January-October and undated,” White House General Files, Lou Henry Hoover Papers, Herbert Hoover Presidential Library.



This portrait of Jessie DePriest was taken by renowned black photographer Addison Scurlock on the day of the “Tea Incident,” June 12, 1929. Photograph courtesy of Barbara DePriest.



President Herbert Hoover and First Lady Lou Hoover, 1929. Photograph courtesy of the Library of Congress.

In the end, Mrs. Hoover decided to host the Congressional wives in waves instead of following standard protocol to give one tea. To prevent any protest of the teas, which would have embarrassed the administration and the DePriests, it was arranged for Mrs. DePriest to attend the last tea party. Racist-minded congressional spouses would have looked foolish had they boycotted the earlier teas to protest an event that had not yet occurred, so they had no choice but to attend. On the first lady’s orders, Jessie DePriest’s invitation was not issued until June 5, the date of the next to last tea party, and the messenger was instructed to keep its contents confidential.

Because of Lou Hoover’s careful planning, the event took place without incident. Ike Hoover, the White House chief usher, noted in his memoirs that “Mrs. DePriest conducted herself with perfect propriety. She really seemed the most composed one in the group.” When she departed, there was “an admiration at the way she conducted herself” in a difficult situation. Public reaction was less complimentary, however. Some southern newspaper editors accused Mrs. Hoover of “defiling” the White House. Some states passed resolutions of condemnation and went so far as to formally censure her. President Hoover, in his memoirs, said that the speeches of southern senators and congressmen wounded Mrs. Hoover deeply. But Mrs. Hoover’s secretary, Ruth Fesler, later recalled that the first lady “stood her ground; she had done the right thing and she knew it.”¹¹

Eleanor Roosevelt transformed the role of first lady to help raise awareness of important social issues. In addition to fulfilling the traditional hostess duties, she broke precedent by holding press conferences, traveling to all parts of the country, giving lectures and radio broadcasts, and expressing her opinions openly in a daily syndicated newspaper column, “My Day.” She advanced opportunities for women and held press

¹¹ William Seale, *The President’s House: A History. Vol. 2.* (White House Historical Association, 2008), 144.

conferences where only women of the press were invited. She also openly supported African-American organizations and institutions.

On February 26, 1939, Mrs. Roosevelt publicly resigned her membership in the Daughters of the American Revolution in protest of their refusal to allow African-American opera singer Marian Anderson to perform at Constitution Hall. In her “My Day” article on February 27, she wrote:

I have been debating in my mind for some time, a question which I have had to debate with myself once or twice before in my life. Usually I have decided differently from the way in which I am deciding now. The question is, if you belong to an organization and disapprove of an action which is typical of a policy, should you resign or is it better to work for a changed point of view within the organization? In the past, when I was able to work actively in any organization to which I belonged, I have usually stayed in until I had at least made a fight and had been defeated. Even then, I have, as a rule, accepted my defeat and decided I was wrong or, perhaps, a little too far ahead of the thinking of the majority at that time. I have often found that the thing in which I was interested was done some years later. But, in this case, I belong to an organization in which I can do no active work. They have taken an action which has been widely talked of in the press. To remain as a member implies approval of that action, and therefore I am resigning.¹²

In writing about her resignation, Mrs. Roosevelt brought national attention to the issue of civil rights. Marian Anderson did not sing at Constitution Hall in 1939, but thanks to the support of the Roosevelt administration, Ms. Anderson gave a concert on April 9, 1939, at the base of the Lincoln Memorial, which was broadcast across the country.

Preserving History

When First Lady Jacqueline Kennedy arrived at the White House in 1961, she was discouraged to find so few historic furnishings. Before the Kennedys came to the White House, Presidents and First Ladies were free to get rid of any decorations and furniture they did not like and replace it with whatever they wanted. Determined to conserve the evolving history of the White House and make it a living museum, she initiated a three-part program to restore the historical integrity of the mansion’s public rooms, acquire a collection of fine and decorative arts, and establish a private nonprofit organization to research and publish books and educational materials interpreting the White House and its history. The White House Historical Association was chartered on November 3, 1961, for the purpose of enhancing the understanding, appreciation, and enjoyment of the Executive Mansion. Lorraine Waxman Pearce, hired as the first White House curator, wrote the first edition of *The White House: An Historic Guide*, which was edited by Mrs. Kennedy herself and would become the flagship publication for the White House Historical Association.



Eleanor Roosevelt and Marian Anderson meet in Japan fourteen years after then-First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt’s resignation letter in support of Anderson, May 22, 1953. Photograph courtesy of the Franklin D. Roosevelt Presidential Library and Museum/NARA.

¹² Eleanor Roosevelt, “My Day,” *United Feature Syndicate, Inc.*, (February 27, 1939).

Jacqueline Kennedy formed a Fine Arts Committee to advise her on the acquisition of authentic period furnishings and brought in Henry Francis du Pont of the Winterthur Museum in Delaware, an authority on American antiques and period room decoration, as the committee's chair. Mrs. Kennedy's call for donations resulted in an influx of authentic furnishings. In September 1961, Congress passed legislation providing that furniture of "historic or artistic" interest become permanent property of the mansion. The public rooms were first recognized officially for their museum character—and indeed the White House can be classified as a museum—largely thanks to Mrs. Kennedy's preservation efforts.

In 1965 Jacqueline Kennedy recalled the philosophy behind the restoration: "Everything in the White House must have a reason for being there. It would be sacrilege merely to 'redecorate it'—a word I hate. It must be restored, and that has nothing to do with decoration."¹³ Mrs. Kennedy agreed to conduct a televised tour of the White House for CBS on February 14, 1962, to show the history of the White House and highlight her preservation efforts. A record audience of 56 million viewers tuned in to hear the first lady as she guided them through

the White House and its newly restored rooms, and it was so well received that she was awarded an honorary Emmy Award. The White House, she said, was not only a place for the president to work and live, but also as a destination for every American who visited Washington, D.C., a showcase for art and culture, and a place of national pride.

Mrs. Kennedy's preservation efforts extended outside the White House and into the neighborhood on Lafayette Square. Looking to create additional executive office space, Congress approved the construction of two massive modern office buildings on either side of the square that would have resulted in the demolition of a number of existing structures and historic homes. Mrs. Kennedy intervened to preserve the houses and historic integrity of the neighborhood and worked with architect John Carl Warnecke to create a new plan for the federal offices. Her efforts to preserve Lafayette Square contributed to the growing national preservation movement and served as a model to conserve places by recognizing their significance to American history and culture.

Robert Breeden, former editor at *National Geographic* and longtime chairman of the White House Historical Association, observed: "Though a symbol of continuity and national stability, the White House is a place of nearly constant change as it adapts in small ways to suit the succession of presidents, and in larger ways to accommodate the requirements of the times."¹⁴ While the president is responsible for leading the nation, the contributions women and first ladies have made in the White House have been important in affecting change and taking a stand in history.



President John F. Kennedy and First Lady Jacqueline Kennedy admire the first edition of *The White House: An Historic Guide*, June 28, 1962. Photograph by Winfield I. Parks, courtesy of the White House Historical Association.



For more information, resources, and ideas for NHD 2017, visit www.nhd.org/themebook

¹³ Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr., "A Stiff Regimen Leavened by Gaiety and Wit," *Life* 59 (November 5, 1965), 90.

¹⁴ Robert L. Breeden, "Foreword," *White House History*, Number 8, (Fall 2000), 2.



What did **Americans** know about the Holocaust?

Students can help the Museum answer this question by conducting research in local newspaper archives. As news of events in Nazi Germany emerged, did anyone in your community **take a stand**? Join the project, see lesson plans, and add your findings to our growing database of primary sources on Americans and the Holocaust at ushmm.org/history-day.

HISTORY UNFOLDED
US NEWSPAPERS AND THE HOLOCAUST

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“BRAVO, WINSTON!”

Justin Quinn Olmstead, Assistant Professor of History, Director of History Education at the University of Central Oklahoma

A month after the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, was assassinated in June 1914, Europe’s initially tepid response was transforming into furious diplomatic activity. Austria-Hungary’s harsh ultimatum to Serbia after the assassination had come as a shock, and seemed to signal that a continental war was on the horizon for the first time in more than 40 years. In response, England’s First Lord of the Admiralty Winston Churchill began making risky choices that would win him plaudits in the press. One such decision would secure Britain’s dominance on the oceans—but would ultimately hurt the British on land.

Much has been written about Churchill, but today most people remember him for his outstanding leadership as Britain’s prime minister during the Second World War. This article attempts to shed some light on one of his earlier actions. In that instance, Churchill’s decisive actions had a double effect: Britain would manage to retain its long-established role as a sea power while providing the impetus for an anti-British alliance that prolonged what became the First World War. His move to withhold two dreadnought-class battleships from delivery to the Ottoman Empire (present-day Turkey) offers an opportunity to examine how decisions can have unintended outcomes while at the same time meeting their original objectives. It also provides students a chance to examine the events that led up to, and came about as a result of, Churchill’s actions. Additionally, students will be introduced to some prominent people in the British and Ottoman governments in the early 1900s.

Preparing for War

During July 1914, Britain’s Royal Navy had completed a test mobilization in the English Channel. Despite the ongoing crisis in Europe, that exercise had been planned for some time and was not a response to the possibility of war. Still, the news from the continent worried Churchill about the growing possibility for conflict. He ordered that the full fleet not disperse back to normal stations after the test ended, and that navy reservists remain at their posts. On August 1, 1914, Churchill requested mobilization of the full navy—only to have it denied by the Cabinet, which feared the action would be considered hostile. By that evening, news that Germany had declared war on Russia reached Churchill. Despite having been denied permission earlier that day, he took the initiative and issued the order for the Royal Navy to mobilize.



The HMS *Neptune* with the British Royal Fleet mobilizing for war in 1914. Courtesy of the Imperial War Museum.

It had been decided as far back as 1902 that in case of war with Germany, the Royal Navy would be used primarily to starve Germany of the materials needed to make war.¹ If the Imperial German Navy were to seek out the Royal Navy, the British expected to win due in part to the size of their fleet. At the end of July 1914, Britain had 22 active dreadnoughts compared to Germany’s 15, and another 11 under construction

¹ Nicholas A Lambert, *Planning Armageddon: British Economic Warfare and the First World War* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 2012), 43-44.



The *Sultan Osman I* being “fitted out” and prepared for delivery. Courtesy of the Imperial War Museum.

compared to Germany’s five.² Leaving out those under construction, Churchill did not consider the difference of seven dreadnoughts sufficient to ensure Britain’s security. As he began to search for a means of ensuring the Royal Navy’s preponderance of power, Churchill was notified of two powerful Ottoman ships, in England, that were being prepared for delivery.³

The two vessels, renamed the *Reshadieh* and *Sultan Osman I*, were expected to be completed and delivered to the Ottoman Empire in August 1914. Having lost multiple wars between 1908 and 1914 due to the Ottoman army’s poor showing and to its navy being outclassed by a single Greek ship, Turkish leaders saw the modernization of their military as a necessary step to limit their vulnerability. With this strategy in place, the Porte (the term used to refer to the Ottoman government, taken from the name of the gate to the Grand Vizier’s offices) contracted with a French company to build ten gunboats. Turkish officials also approached Brazil about purchasing the two dreadnoughts (larger, faster battleships with more firepower) then under construction in Britain.

Because Brazil’s economy was in even worse shape than Turkey’s, an agreement was quickly reached through which the Brazilian government agreed to sell the two ships for just over 130 million Lira. The deal required Turkey to take over Brazil’s current payments plus pay an additional three million Lira to the two British shipbuilding companies, Armstrong, Whitworth, and Company and Vickers Limited.⁴ The *Reshadieh* was finished in 1913, but the Ottomans lacked a port with modern facilities large enough to accommodate a ship of its size. The *Sultan Osman I* was not only a large and modern dreadnought, but it was considered to be of such class that “by her possession by any Nation would be a serious factor in the balance of naval strength.”⁵ The British government negotiated to have British firms upgrade docking facilities in Turkey and agreed to maintain the ships in Britain until the upgrade was completed, which was estimated to be in the late summer of 1914.

On July 28, 1914, Churchill began trying to figure out how to hold onto both dreadnoughts.⁶ As First Sea Lord, his reasoning was sound: If war with Germany came—and by July 28 it was looking all the more likely—then Britain would need to guarantee its naval supremacy. The Ottoman dreadnoughts that were about ready to be delivered would provide added strength in the case of a Trafalgar-like battle.

The next day, July 29, Third Sea Lord Sir Archibald Moore responded to Churchill’s call for action by delivering a plan that required purchasing the two vessels.⁷ Turkey still owed money on the ships, and the Turkish flag had yet to be raised on either of them, meaning that technically the ships had not yet been delivered. They were nevertheless, according to Cecil Hurst, one of many legal advisers to the Foreign Office, by law still Turkish property.⁸ Hurst pointed out that there was no precedent for seizing foreign warships during peacetime, but he

² Michael Epkenhans, “The Global War at Sea, 1914-1918,” in *World War I Companion*, ed. Matthias Strohn (Oxford: Osprey Publishing, 2013), 78.

³ Martin Gilbert, *Winston S. Churchill: Companion Volume III, Part 1, July 1914-April 1915* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1973), 5.

⁴ Taner Ozmen, *British Policy towards the Ottoman Empire on the Eve of the First World War (1910-1914)*, (Taner Ozmen, Amazon Digital Services, 2014), 3304, 3311.

⁵ Sir Archibald Moore to Churchill, 30 July 1914, ADM 137/880, The National Archives of the UK (Hereafter referred to as TNA).

⁶ Churchill to Third Sea Lord, Sir Archibald Moore, 28 July 1914, ADM 137/880, (TNA).

⁷ *Ibid.*

⁸ Sir Archibald Moore to Churchill, 29 July 1914, ADM 137/880, (TNA).

added that if Churchill thought it was immediately necessary, they should begin negotiations with Turkey's government to purchase the vessels.⁹ Hurst made two additional comments that proved to be of importance to the situation: In order to gain time to negotiate, the Admiralty would have to find a way for the builders to prevent the ships being commissioned; and once the ships had been taken into possession, Britain needed to compensate the Ottomans for each ship acquired.¹⁰

Even as Moore notified Churchill about his plan and the legal hurdles, Sir Eyre Crowe, the assistant under-secretary of state at the foreign office, sent an urgent note to the Admiralty alerting officials about *Sultan Osman I's* impending departure. That led to a flurry of action, in which Churchill displayed his characteristic audacity.

A Regretful Necessity

Churchill immediately notified Armstrong, Whitworth, and Company that they were to "prevent & delay . . . and in no cause . . . allow [the *Osman I*] to leave without express permission [from the Admiralty]."¹¹ Notes also went out to the superintendent of contract-built ships at Newcastle-on-Tyne, explaining the situation and authorizing him to use force if necessary to prevent the *Osman I* from being handed over to the Ottomans.¹²

Once again, however, there was a flaw in the plan. According to Attorney General Sir John Simon, the law allowing the British government to withhold ships did not apply unless there was "reasonable case to believe [that it was going to be] employed by a foreign state at war."¹³ But Simon went further, stating that it might be possible to seize the ships under the idea of "*salus republicae suprema lex*," or the "welfare of the state is supreme law."¹⁴

Churchill contacted the Foreign Office about this tactic, and with the idea that it would defend these actions after the fact, the Foreign Office agreed to allow the Ottoman ships to be seized without prior communications with the Porte.¹⁵ Churchill immediately issued a "Quarterming Bill" for the confiscation and manning of the two Turkish battleships.¹⁶ Unaware of Churchill's plans, Turkish leaders were then finalizing plans for the final payment of approximately £800,000 to Armstrong, Whitworth, and Company, and had already sent a crew of 600 sailors and 1,000 troops to sail the *Osman I* home to Constantinople.

The presence of such a large number of Ottoman troops at the Newcastle shipyards was a cause of concern for Churchill. To prevent the Turkish troops from attempting to board the *Osman I* by force, Churchill ordered British troops dispatched to the dockyards.¹⁷ The decision to simply "detain" the *Osman I* is of critical importance at this point, since it gave Britain's government the time needed to deflect any negative response from the Ottomans.

Having received his orders, the superintendent of contract-built ships, Newcastle, along with a Mr. Vere, a member of Armstrong's board of directors, intercepted the intended captain of the ship, Raouf Bey, on August 1, 1914, and informed him that the ship was being detained. The captain calmly requested to use Mr. Vere's office telephone to call the Turkish ambassador in London.¹⁸

On hearing that the *Osman I* was being detained, Ambassador Ahmed Tewfik Pasha contacted the Foreign Office for an explanation. Sir Arthur Nicolson, the permanent under-secretary for foreign affairs, explained that the present situation in Europe did not allow for the battleship to be delivered, and that it was a temporary situation.¹⁹

⁹ Sir Archibald Moore to Churchill, 29 July 1914, ADM 137/880, (TNA).

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

¹¹ Churchill to Moore, 29 July 1914, ADM 137/880, (TNA). Significantly, one of the directors at Armstrong Whitworth was Charles Ottley, a former director of naval intelligence and secretary of the Committee of Imperial Defence under Churchill.

¹² Sir Graham Greene to Captain Power, 29 July 1914, ADM 137/880, (TNA).

¹³ Sir John Simon to Churchill, 30 July 1914, ADM 137/880, (TNA).

¹⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁵ Crowe: minute, 30 July 1914, FO 371/2137, (TNA).

¹⁶ Quarterming Bill Submitted, First Sea Lord, 1 August 1914, CAB 1/34, TNA.

¹⁷ Power to Admiralty, 1 August 1914, CAB 1/34, (TNA).

¹⁸ Superintendent of Contract-built ships to Secretary of the Admiralty, 1 August 1914, CAB 1/34, TNA.

¹⁹ Sir Arthur Nicolson to Sir Edward Grey, 1 August 1914, FO 371/2137, TNA.

He added that the Turkish government would not lose any money.²⁰ By August 3, however, the Admiralty had notified the Foreign Office of their intent to “take over” both battleships.²¹

The initial reaction in Constantinople was to call British Counsellor Henry Beaumont to meet with Grand Vizier Said Halim and Minister of the Interior Talaat Pasha. At the meeting, the two Ottoman leaders made it clear that they considered this an unfriendly action and reminded the counsellor that Turkey was not at war.²² Sir Edward Grey’s response was to have Beaumont inform the Porte of his “sincere regret” and that the British government would take into consideration the financial hardships their actions were placing on Turkey.²³

The Porte’s response was as might be expected: they threatened to cancel all other contracts for ships with British companies, as well as the current project of upgrading their docking facilities. Additionally, they demanded to be repaid, in full plus a fine, for the two battleships. Beaumont notified Grey that paying the fine along with reimbursing the Ottomans for their current expenses would help to alleviate anti-British sentiment in Constantinople. Churchill, ever fearful that the Ottomans would use this as an excuse to join the Germans, countered that they should delay any payments until they had assurance the Ottomans would remain strictly neutral.²⁴ According to reports sent from Constantinople to London, there was a “violent press campaign” being waged against the British for seizing the two dreadnoughts.²⁵ This was reiterated more than a week later, when members of the Royal Navy in Constantinople notified the Admiralty there was “considerable feeling against England for seizing the two ships.”²⁶

Key to understanding why there was such a public outcry is how the ships were financed. The *Sultan Osman I* was paid for in the normal fashion: simple borrowing, then paying the manufacturers in installments. The *Reshadieh*, on the other hand, had been the subject of a public subscription, meaning that the Ottoman public—men, women, and children—had donated from their meagre wages to have the ship built.²⁷ Whether or not building the dreadnought was actually popular or not is immaterial. It had been paid for out of the Turkish people’s pockets, and that made for propaganda.

Conclusion



The *Sultan Osman I* was recommissioned as the HMS *Erin* and is shown floating in dry dock during World War I. Photograph courtesy of the Imperial War Museum (SP 2106).

Churchill’s actions were applauded in the *Tatler* on August 12, 1914, when the magazine celebrated his “work and wisdom.”²⁸ His decisive moves regarding the Royal Navy in 1914, however, would have a far greater impact on the First World War than initially realized. Opting to take a stand by mobilizing the Royal Navy prior to the actual war with Germany, as well as holding onto the Turkish dreadnoughts, Churchill put Britain in a position to dictate how

²⁰ *Ibid.*

²¹ Admiralty to the Foreign Office, 3 August 1914, FO 371/2138, TNA.

²² Beaumont to Foreign Office, 3 August 1914, FO 371/2138, TNA.

²³ Grey to Beaumont, 4 August 1914, FO 371/2138, TNA.

²⁴ Notes attached to Beaumont’s letter to Grey, 8 August 1914, FO 371/2138, TNA.

²⁵ Beaumont to Grey, 9 August 1914, FO 371/2138, TNA.

²⁶ HMS *Indomitable* to Admiralty, 19 August 1914, ADM 137/800, TNA.

²⁷ Beaumont to Sir Edward Grey, 10 August 1914, FO 371/2138, TNA.

²⁸ *Tatler*, 12 August 1914.

the war at sea would be fought. At the same time, his brash decision to keep the Turkish vessels pushed the Ottomans one step closer to joining Germany and the other Triple Alliance powers and expanding the war on land, as well as at sea.

It is important to recognize that Churchill understood the impact his actions could have. He was doing what he believed would help protect his country, but he also knew that Turkey would have to respond in some manner. There could be no doubt that the British refusal to allow the Ottomans to acquire the ships they had purchased gave them the final push they needed to formally ally with Germany. From the Ottoman point of view, Britain's decisions weakened Turkey's ability to defend itself, adding to the need to find protection from a great power. With Germany's defeat in 1918, the Ottomans found themselves worse off than prior to 1914. Having tied the future of the empire to that of Germany's, the Porte's greatest fears came true as the British and French proceeded to break up the once sprawling empire.



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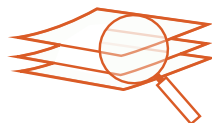
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ROSA PARKS: TAKING A STAND BY KEEPING HER SEAT

Cheryl Lederle, Kathleen McGuigan, and Stephen Wesson
The Library of Congress

At nearly every great turning point in history, you can find people who took a stand for causes in which they believed. The acts of many of these brave individuals are written into the world's history books, and their names are etched into monuments, recited at memorial services, and remembered by generations of people.

But no major social transformation occurs in a single moment, and it is a rare hero who truly stands alone. A closer look at any dramatic act of protest might reveal the years of conflict that informed it, or the years of activism that it inspired. A prominent leader might be surrounded by lesser-known activists in a nationwide movement.

By looking closely at one iconic individual, students can enter into a deeper exploration of the historical dynamics and personal circumstances that shaped that person and led him or her to that history-making moment. They can also discover the stories of the many other advocates for change who inspired, worked alongside, and followed that person in the struggle.

Rosa Parks is one of the most renowned figures of the twentieth century and a legend of the African-American civil rights movement. Her refusal to give up her seat on a Montgomery, Alabama, bus to a white passenger in 1955 brought about the Montgomery Bus Boycott. This citywide protest campaign lasted more than a year and led to a Supreme Court ruling against segregation, changing the course of civil rights in the United States.

The Rosa Parks Collection at the Library of Congress (<https://www.loc.gov/collections/rosa-parks-papers>) contains thousands of unique artifacts that shed light on this courageous fighter for social justice. The letters, diaries, notes, photographs, and other documents in this collection, which is on loan for ten years from the Howard G. Buffett Foundation, provide invaluable insights into her life and thoughts. Analyzing documents from the Rosa Parks Collection, along with other primary sources from the Library's collections, offers students an opportunity to look more deeply into the Jim Crow policies and segregationist culture that the civil rights movement opposed. It also provides a chance to become more familiar with Parks' own activist work, as well as to explore the experiences and perspectives of her contemporaries in the movement.

The Power of Primary Sources


The documents featured here, like the millions of other artifacts in the Library's online collections, are *primary sources*—that is, they are objects created by participants in or witnesses to historical events. They are the raw materials of history and can engage students and help them create new knowledge in ways that secondary sources cannot.

By analyzing primary sources related to the segregation era and the civil rights movement, students can build their understanding of the people and events of this complex period, as well as identify questions for further research. The Library of Congress provides a number of tools and strategies to support teachers and students as they work with these important historical objects.

Analyzing a Primary Source

One primary source that can provide insights into the conditions that led Rosa Parks to take her stand against segregation is this 1940 photograph taken in the Durham, North Carolina, bus station. The work of Farm Security Administration photographer Jack Delano, this photograph captures an everyday scene in a segregated state more than a decade before Parks' act of civil disobedience aboard an Alabama bus, and contains many rich details for students undertaking a primary source analysis.

Primary source analysis is a process that can help students closely examine and analyze any source in a way that helps them build understanding. Primary source analysis supports students as they make observations, reflect upon or make inferences based on what they see, and generate new questions. Students new to the analysis process might benefit from working in a group, adding their thoughts to the primary source using sticky notes. To help them distinguish between observations, reflections, and questions, they might opt to color code their notes.



Observation:
I notice that the man is wearing a hat, tie, and suspenders.

Reflection:
He looks dressed up—maybe bus travel was a special occasion.

Observation:
Nobody is wearing a coat.

Reflection:
I think it is summer.

Question:
When was this taken?

Observation:
The sign says “Colored Waiting Room.”

Reflection:
We don’t use the word “colored” now.

Question:
Were these waiting rooms created to satisfy “separate but equal?”

Question:
What signs are outside the white waiting room?

Observation:
BINGO and Hitler are on the same wall together!

Reflection:
Hitler reminds me of global oppression & struggle for freedom.

Investigate:
How did people resist such an institutionalized system?

Figure 1: *At the bus station in Durham, North Carolina, 1940.* Photograph courtesy of the Library of Congress (LC-USF33-020522-M2).

Questions to guide their analysis could include:

- What do you notice first?
- What surprises you?
- Why do you think this image was made?
- What can you learn from examining this image?

Select additional questions from the Teacher’s Guide: Analyzing Photographs or from the online Primary Source Analysis tool (Figure 2), or provide it to students as another means for them to record their thinking. (The Analysis Tool and Teacher’s Guide are available online at <http://www.loc.gov/teachers/usingprimarysources/guides.html>)

Finally, support students as they identify a question or two to focus further investigation and research.

PRIMARY SOURCE ANALYSIS TOOL

March 17, 2016

Format: Photographs and Prints

OBSERVE	REFLECT	QUESTION
The man is wearing hat, tie & suspenders. I see signs. A "private property" sign. "Carolina Coach Company" BINGO & Hitler on the same wall together! People with no coats	He looks dressed up - maybe bus travel was a special occasion. Another attempt to regulate. We don't use the word "colored" now. I think it is summer. Hitler - reminds of global oppression/struggle for freedom.	Were these waiting rooms created to satisfy "separate but equal"? Who was "colored"? What other services were "colored people" denied? Did they mean "African American"? When was this taken? What signs are outside the white waiting room?
FURTHER INVESTIGATION How did people resist such an institutionalized system?		

Figure 2: Sample primary source analysis tool, Library of Congress

Considering Perspectives

A teaching strategy called “Circle of Viewpoints,” from the Visible Thinking project at Harvard University’s Project Zero, can help students identify multiple perspectives and enrich their understanding of a primary source.

After students conduct a preliminary analysis of a primary source, such as the photograph of the bus station, display the item in front of the class with a circle drawn around it. Encourage students to take a moment to think about the document, and to speculate about the many different perspectives that are either represented by the source’s content, or may be represented in the source’s interpretation.

Ask students to brainstorm a list of the different perspectives associated with the primary source. To help students think of a variety of viewpoints, you might ask guiding questions such as:

- *Who is involved?*
- *Who is affected by it?*
- *Who might care?*

A student or facilitator can record each viewpoint on spokes extending from the circle. Provide plenty of time for this brainstorming session, so that students can generate ideas inspired by each other’s responses. After the brainstorming session, invite student volunteers to choose one of the viewpoints and speak about the primary source from that perspective.

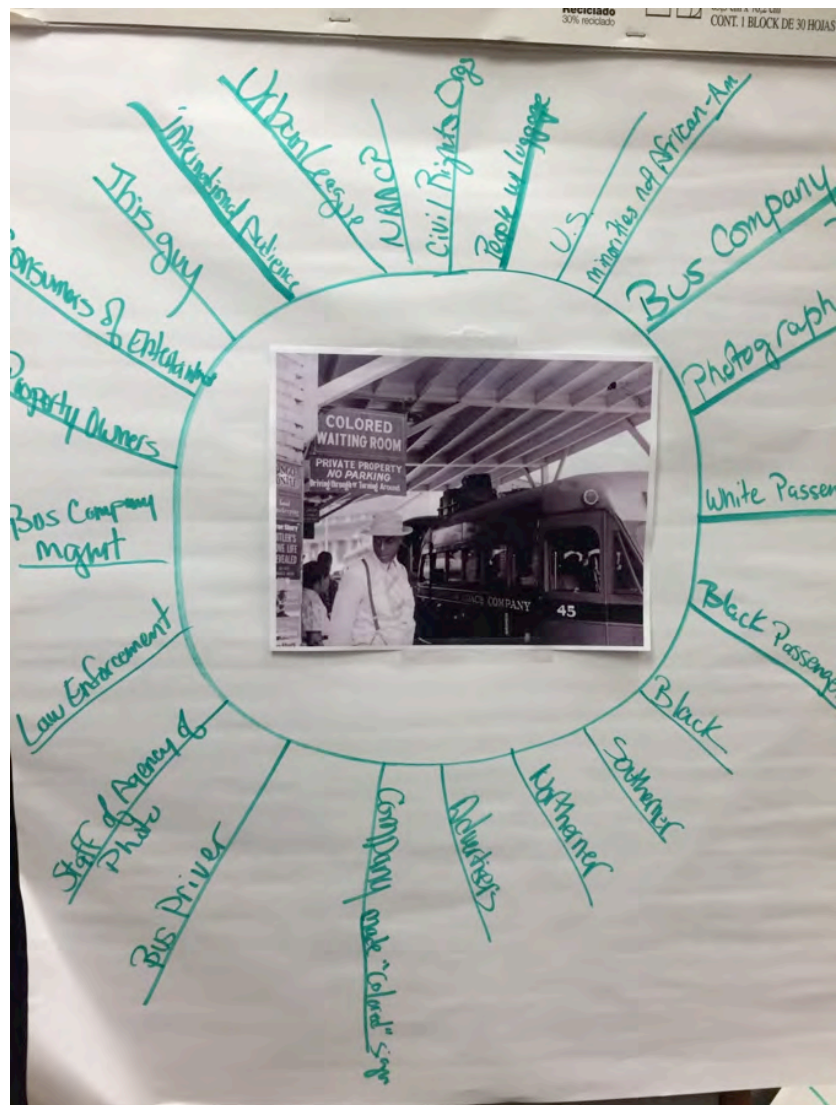


Figure 3: A circle of viewpoints for *At the bus station in Durham, North Carolina*.

Next, direct students to take turns standing up and speaking from their chosen viewpoint. A skeleton script could look like:

“I’m thinking of this issue from the point of view of ____.”

“I think _____.”

“A question I have from this viewpoint is ____.”

One example of viewpoint role playing in response to the photo of the Durham bus station could be:

“I’m thinking of this issue from the point of view of an observer from another country. I think it is very strange that this country is supposed to be about equal opportunity for all but they have separate waiting rooms for bus passengers. A question I have from this viewpoint is ‘What else besides transportation waiting rooms is segregated by race?’”

After everyone has spoken from a chosen viewpoint, begin a discussion by asking, “What new ideas do you have that you didn’t have before?” and “What new questions do you have?”

Finally, emphasize to students that people most likely existed who really did represent the perspectives they have suggested. Remind them that many of those individuals took a stand in history and might be excellent subjects for a National History Day project.

There are many ways to extend this activity. For example,

- Students can describe the feelings of chosen characters.
- Questions can be recorded and revisited later in a unit.
- Additional primary sources can be analyzed to discover new perspectives on the same topic and added to the first Circle of Viewpoints.

You can find out more about the Circle of Viewpoints activity and other Visible Thinking strategies at <http://www.visiblethinkingpz.org/>.

The Power of One Person

After developing an understanding of the setting and context of segregated public buses by analyzing the featured photograph, then generating a circle of viewpoints to consider a wide variety of perspectives, it’s time for students to focus on a more specific topic. One way to do that is to consider an individual who took action to try to bring about change.

Ask students to examine this portrait and brainstorm a list of what they know and what they wonder about the person. Then introduce the caption and add any new ideas prompted by the caption, “Rosa Parks, November 1956.”

Ask students to review their lists and star or otherwise mark items that contribute to understanding why Parks refused to surrender her seat on a bus to a white passenger. Based on student comments, jot down a brief list of questions to investigate further, to learn more



Figure 4: Rosa Parks, November 1956. Photograph courtesy of the Rosa Parks Papers, Library of Congress (201564570)

about the stand she took. Encourage students to study additional primary sources to find the answers to those and other questions that they might have. One such source might be Parks' own reflections on her arrest for refusing to surrender her bus seat. Featured in this article is a handout specifically for students. Provide individuals or groups of students with a copy and encourage them to note their observations, reflections, and questions.

Try It Yourself: Analyze This Primary Source

What can you learn from this note about why Rosa Parks took her stand? Use the prompts from the Library of Congress Primary Source Analysis Tool and Teacher's Guide to Analyzing Manuscripts to make observations, reflections, and questions about this document. (The Analysis Tool and Teacher's Guide are available online at <http://www.loc.gov/teachers/usingprimarysources/guides.html>) What questions for further investigation emerge during the analysis process?

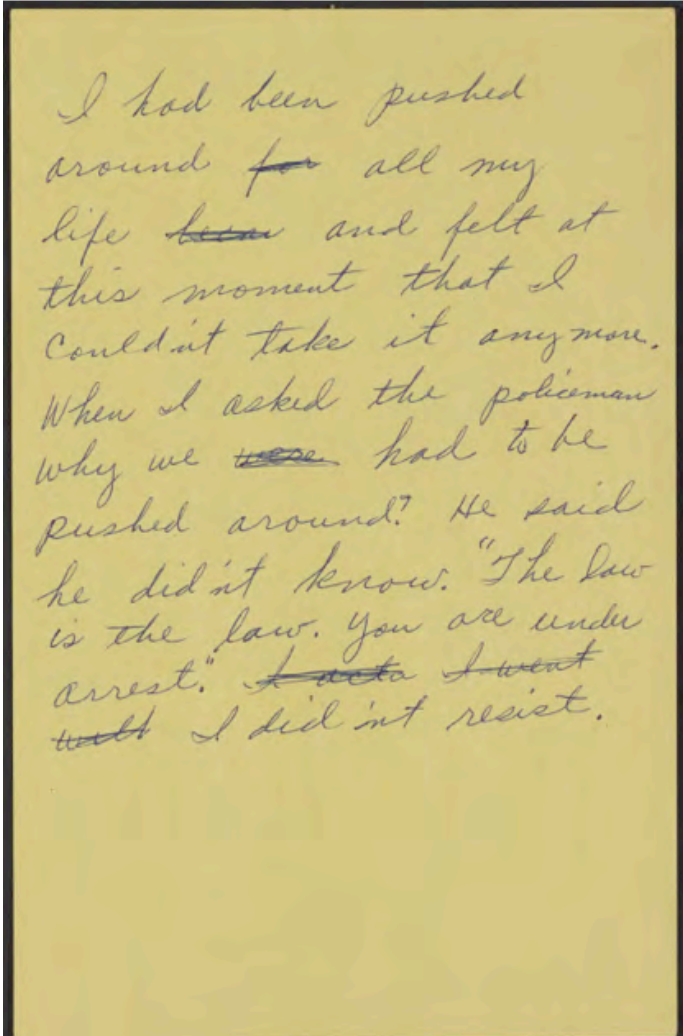
		

Figure 5: Rosa Parks, Reflections on her arrest for refusing to surrender her bus seat to a white passenger, December 1, 1955. Rosa Parks Papers, Library of Congress (MSS85943, Box 18).

Following student analysis of the Parks' reflection, you might also conduct a circle of viewpoints activity to support students as they consider multiple perspectives on the document and the events it describes.

Other Perspectives From the Struggle

Though only a handful of civil rights heroes are known by name to most Americans, the twentieth century civil rights struggle was the work of thousands of organizers and participants. The Civil Rights History Project, an initiative undertaken by the Library of Congress and the Smithsonian's National Museum of African American History and Culture, records, preserves, and provides online access to the stories of a wide variety of activists who participated in the work to obtain equal rights for African Americans. By exploring firsthand accounts from the movement, students can gain a richer and more varied perspective on this era of tumult and triumph.

One individual whose oral history is included on the Project's website is Gwendolyn Patton. She became involved with civil rights organizations as a student at the Tuskegee Institute, but her family had a history of participating long before that. Invite your students to listen to a portion of an interview http://www.loc.gov/item/afc2010039_crhp0020/ (47:05-48:56) to hear her insights and reflections on integrating public buses.

A transcription of this segment is available from the Library's Jim Crow and Segregation Primary Source Set. After viewing the video segment, assign students to read and analyze the transcript, or both the video and the transcript, to deepen their analysis and engagement. Ask them to consider in particular what Patton says about her own, and her grandmother's, motivation to take a stand against segregation. What questions do they still have?

Conclusion

The history of the United States is rich with examples of individuals who took a stand for what they believed in and, in so doing, began or inspired large-scale movements for social change. Researching the life, philosophy, or tactics of any of these individuals could lead to an outstanding National History Day project. However, by analyzing primary sources associated with an iconic individual, students can also use a well-known figure as a jumping-off point to explore the historical context of an activist movement, to shed light on less well-known individuals, or to otherwise deepen current understanding of movements for change and their impact on U.S. society.

Related Resources

- **The Rosa Parks Collection at the Library of Congress**
<https://www.loc.gov/collections/rosa-parks-papers>
- **Jim Crow and Segregation Primary Source Set**
<http://loc.gov/teachers/classroommaterials/primarysourcesets/civil-rights/>
- **Civil Rights History Project**
<http://www.loc.gov/collection/civil-rights-history-project/about-this-collection/>
- **Idea Book for Educators—The Civil Rights Act of 1964: A Long Struggle for Freedom**
<http://www.loc.gov/teachers/newsevents/idea-book/>
- **The Civil Rights Act of 1964: A Long Struggle for Freedom**
<http://www.loc.gov/exhibits/civil-rights-act/>



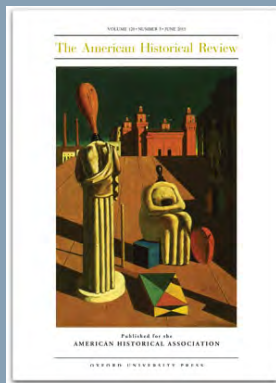
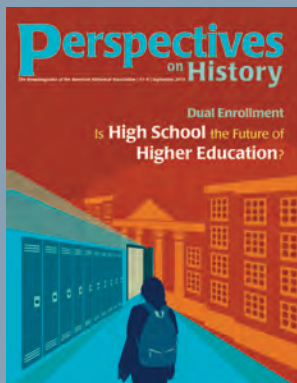
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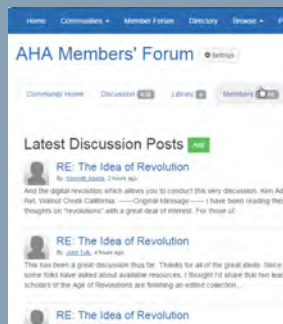
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TEACHING THE TRUTH ABOUT NATIVE AMERICA

Mattea Victoria Sanders, NPS Intern, Ph.D. Candidate, University of North Carolina
Carol McBryant, Relevancy, Diversity and Inclusion Strategist, National Park Service
Carolyn Fiscus, Instructor, Native American Studies, University of Nebraska Omaha

In July 2015, a group of Sigangu youth from the Rosebud Reservation stood at the edge of a battlefield overlooking the Little Bighorn River, ignoring the heat. Their attention was fully focused on their elders, who were telling them a story they had heard many times before. But this time they were standing on sacred ground. As their elders spoke of the Battle of Little Bighorn, the students were able to sense the bloodshed of their ancestors. These young people were standing in the place of Crazy Horse and Sitting Bull and hundreds of other great warriors of the Lakota and Arapaho and Northern Cheyenne. The significance of this place at that moment was not the defeat of George Armstrong Custer and his Army but rather the understanding that they were able to live today because of a stand taken by their ancestors so many years ago.

The battle was fought along the ridges, steep bluffs, and ravines of the Little Bighorn River from June 25 to 26, 1876. Today, the Little Bighorn Battlefield National Monument is a protected site, entrusted to the National Park Service (NPS). The location of a great conflict, the site also honors a battle of great consequence between the U.S. government and America's native people.

The NPS is charged with considering, recording, and sharing all of America's stories. The Battle of Little Bighorn is just one example of how the NPS can provide an opportunity to learn how Native Americans have had to take a stand for their people, culture, and lifeways over time. There are many native stories embodied within our nation, and it is

critical that we include these stories as a part of our collective history.

National Park Service

The National Park Service (NPS) is a federal agency that is charged with protecting and preserving land of ecological and cultural importance to our American heritage. In doing so, the NPS must be inclusive of landscapes significant to the entire American nation. As the NPS celebrates its Centennial Anniversary in 2016, it continues to carry out its mission to collect, maintain, and share the stories of our collective American history. Being the only federal agency charged with this important task, it is important that all stories be considered, recorded, and shared. There are many stories embodied within our nation, and, as we go into our second century of stewardship, it is critical that we express the stories from multiple perspectives, through the lenses of all people: the oppressor and the oppressed, the owner and the owned, the colonizer and the colonized.

Who Americans are as a nation is dependent upon how we remember our past. Both the NPS and teachers are positioned to help broaden our understanding of history and take steps toward inclusive storytelling. This is not always easy, especially when it comes to telling difficult truths about painful episodes in our past. Just as the Sigangu youth heard about their own history that

hot summer day in Montana, so must all of America hear not only about the U.S. Army's role in that fight but also about the deeds of the native warriors who were fighting for their people.

The challenge for the NPS, as well as teachers across America, is to incorporate all of our stories, including those of Native Americans' past and present. To understand the layers of history in America, it is important to realize that the United States was built on the backs of the First Nations. The fact that Native American populations are still here today is testimony to the strength and resilience of a people who have taken a stand throughout history to defend their rights, way of life, and cultural identities.

As a result of the European settlement of North America, Native Americans have been forced to adapt to the shifting landscape of a new nation, bent on building a country of immigrants on an already occupied continent. During the Colonial era, Native Americans made treaties with Europeans to cement alliances, establish trade, and concede land. Once the United States became a nation, President George Washington established a relationship between the new country and the Indian Tribes. In the newly ratified U.S. Constitution's commerce clause, Congress recognized the "inherent sovereignty" in tribal governments by naming them as equals in treaty and trade agreements.

The United States continued to sign treaties with American Indians—including agreements placing Tribal Nations on reservations—until 1871, when the House of Representatives ceased to recognize individual tribes within the country as independent nations. Since then, the government-to-government relationship has been defined by Congressional acts, Supreme Court decisions, and executive orders. In spite of the scope and sequence of federal Indian Law, many treaties and laws were abrogated or violated to the advantage of a growing United States.

Just as the warriors at Little Bighorn fought for their people and their rights as U.S. citizens, the fight continued into the twentieth century, as Native

Americans continued to battle for their sovereign rights in their relationship with the federal government. Products of those struggles include the Indian Civil Rights Act, establishing the legitimacy of Tribal Courts through adopting rules of evidence, pleading, and other requirements similar to those in state and federal courts. The creation of this law allowed Native Americans to have a fair and just system in which to fight for their rights as citizens of sovereign nations. The Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act of 1975 and the Indian Child Welfare Act of 1978 came about through a grassroots effort to combat the indiscriminate removal of native children from their homes in order to place them in boarding schools and for adoption for non-native families.

The 1978 American Indian Religious Freedom Act ended the laws restricting American Indians' ability to practice their ceremonial and traditional rights. In 1994, through an executive order, an amendment to this act gave Native Americans access to their sacred sites and the use and possession of sacred objects. The tribal entities had argued that rules abolishing their ability to practice their traditions and rituals violated their civil rights as U.S. citizens, as well as the rights of sovereign governments.

In interpreting and teaching the history of Native Americans, America has concentrated on the use of archaeology and ethnography to tell their stories. In 1916, the NPS was founded, based on romanticized perceptions of the West and Native Americans as depicted by artists such as George Catlin, James Fenimore Cooper, and Thomas Cole. Early archaeologists and anthropologists from the Bureau of American Ethnology went out West seeking to document the ruins of what they believed were dying American Indian cultures. The anthropologists sent sacred objects, human remains, and cultural items back to the Smithsonian Institution, drawing conclusions about Native Americans—without ever consulting those whose history they were "creating."

In the 1990 Native American Graves and Repatriation Act, Native Americans took a stand against appropriating cultural materials, as

well as allowing them to recover sacred items, human remains, and cultural objects taken by anthropologists and archaeologists. This act requires that all institutions receiving federal funding must make an inventory of their collections and publish it, so that Tribal Nations can determine whether they should claim repatriation.

Throughout modern history, Native Americans have often been forgotten or misrepresented by American culture. American culture still correlates Native American identity with stereotypes, and Hollywood movies continue to define what Native America is even today. Hollywood has utilized typecasts such as the “vanishing Indian” or the “noble savage.” The “vanishing Indian” stereotype is at the core of America’s frontier myth, which posits that Native Americans are noble and brave but they are destined to sacrifice both freedom and land for the making of America.

In reality, Native Americans are living, working, and practicing their culture in all parts of American society, not just some long-forgotten warrior epics. Many films, movies, books, and classroom activities available to educators have been produced by Native Americans, and these give an accurate portrayal of Native American history and contemporary life. The NPS also provides a variety of resources to help teachers bring Native American stories into the classroom. Together, the NPS and educators can bring the true history of Native Americans and their contributions to the United States to life for students.

American Indians have never ceased to believe that someday their voices would be heard. They have invested in maintaining their history through storytelling, oral traditions, and documentation. Native Nations run their own museums, in which they tell their creation stories and tribal histories, and also highlight how their people have survived and how they live today. Traditional activities, some public and some private and sacred, are still maintained as part of the rich heritage of American Indians because of the stand they have taken throughout American history.

The NPS and teachers are in a unique position to embrace native history by listening to native people and by giving voice to them in the course of classroom teaching. Educators are encouraged to use Native American educational materials and to visit www.nps.gov to find resources to help students understand how Native Americans have taken a stand to keep their stories and cultures alive.

American Indians are an integral part of the history of the NPS, and each and every park has a story to tell about the native culture that exists inside its boundaries—a great resource for teachers. For example, Great Smoky Mountains National Park in eastern Tennessee and western North Carolina sits on the ancestral homeland of the Cherokee Indians. When Great Smoky was established, the neighboring Eastern Band of Cherokee Indians proved vital to the park’s success.

In the 1930s, the Civilian Conservation Corps-Indian Division, made up of men from the Eastern Band of Cherokee Indians, helped to build many of the roads, trails, and buildings, some of which continue to be used today. Today, the Tribal Historic Preservation Office (THPO) at the Eastern Band works with the NPS to tell the stories of sacred spaces within the park boundaries, such as Clingman’s Dome, known as Kuwahi to the Cherokee.

Everglades National Park exists alongside its neighbor, the Miccosukee branch of Seminole Indians. Everglades National Park employed a Civilian Conservation Corps - Indian Division, made up of Seminoles who helped to clear the land for the town of Everglades and worked as firefighters during times of drought.

Recently, Hopewell Culture National Historical Park joined a group of national parks whose enabling legislation tasks them with telling the stories of North American indigenous peoples both past and present. Hopewell Culture educates the public about the day-to-day lives, contributions, perceived values, and interactions of the Hopewell peoples. Other parks with similar missions include Mesa Verde National Park, which interprets the Ancestral Pueblo

People; Canyon De Chelly National Monument; Casa Grande Ruins National Monument; Montezuma Castle National Monument; Navajo National Monument; and many more.

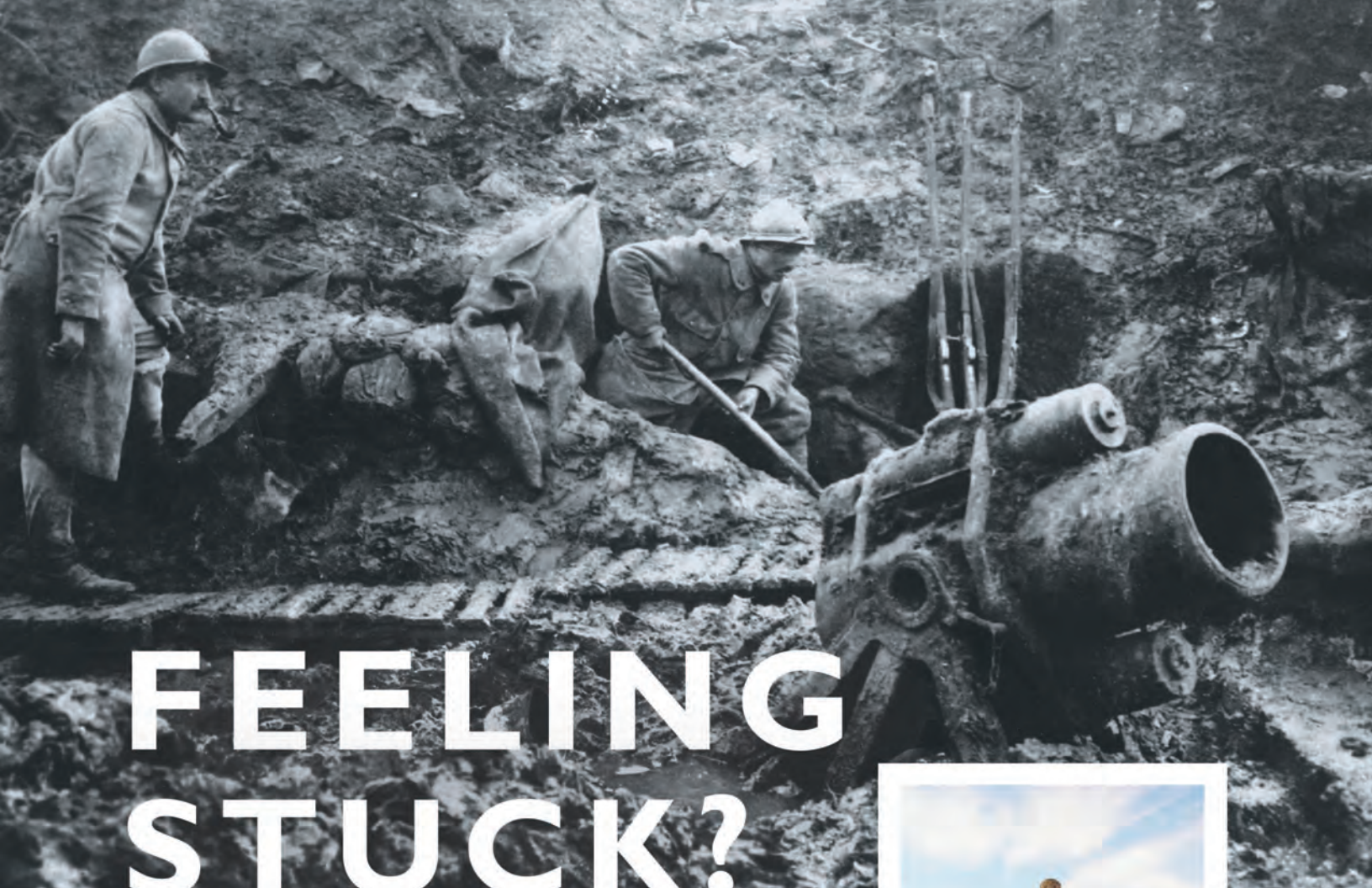
It is incumbent upon the NPS and all educators, both formal and informal, to reach out and seek insights and histories that will help America understand the struggles of our native people and the stands they have taken to maintain their culture, lifeways, and human rights throughout history.

Teaching About Native Americans

- The Hopi Tribe's living traditions and early American archeology on Hopi land are the subjects of the National Park Service lesson plan, *Enduring Awatovi: Uncovering Hopi Life and Work on the Mesa*: <http://www.nps.gov/nr/twhp/wwwlps/lessons/156awatovi/156awatovi.htm>.
- During the American Revolution, New York's Mohawk Valley became the setting for a fierce battle that pitted residents of the area, including the nations of the Iroquois Confederacy, against each other. Teach this story with the National Park Service lesson plan, *The Battle of Oriskany: Blood Shed a Stream Running Down*: <http://www.nps.gov/nr/twhp/wwwlps/lessons/79oriskany/79oriskany.htm>.
- Teach the complexity of American Indian politics and resistance with the lesson *The Battle of Horseshoe Bend: Collision of Cultures*, about a faction of Creek Indians who fought Americans, Creek, and Cherokee along the Tallapoosa River, Alabama, in 1814: <http://www.nps.gov/nr/twhp/wwwlps/lessons/54horseshoe/54horseshoe.htm>.
- *The Trail of Tears and the Forced Relocation of the Cherokee Nation* lesson plan from the National Park Service guides students to explore the causes and consequences of the violent migration West: <http://www.nps.gov/nr/twhp/wwwlps/lessons/118trail/118trail.htm>. The Trail of Tears National Historic Trail is part of the National Park Service. More lesson plans on the Trail of Tears can be found at: <http://www.nps.gov/teachers/classrooms/the-chokeee-people-ms-lesson.htm> and <http://www.nps.gov/teachers/classrooms/the-trail-of-tears-photo-and-interview-analysis.htm>.
- Civil War history units can integrate American Indian history with the National Park Service lesson plan, *Battle of Honey Springs: The Civil War Comes to Indian Territory*: <http://www.nps.gov/nr/twhp/wwwlps/lessons/68honey/68honey.htm>.
- Have your students compare and contrast the Homestead Act of 1862, which provided free land to U.S. settlers who developed public lands in the west for agricultural use, with the Dawes Act of 1887, which provided small parcels of reservation land to American Indians: <http://www.nps.gov/teachers/classrooms/dawact.htm>.
- The National Park Service has partnered with the University of Oregon to create a more culturally sensitive curriculum that reflects the mission to allow Native Peoples to tell their own stories at: <http://honoringtriballegacies.com/>.
- Planning a field trip? *The Places Reflecting America's Diverse Cultures Travel Itinerary* from the National Park Service offers information about American Indian cultural sites throughout the United States: http://www.nps.gov/nr/travel/cultural_diversity/index.html.



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MAKE WAY FOR DEMOCRACY: TAKING A STAND AS AMERICAN CITIZENS

Lora Vogt, Curator of Education, National World War I Museum and Memorial

Two score and ten years after one president used his power to expand liberty and opportunity for millions of Americans, President Woodrow Wilson cemented new racial barriers.¹ This 1913 policy of “post Civil War reconciliation” was a significant shift, which segregated federal institutions, dismissed African-American leaders in civil service, and restricted the lives and livelihoods of many families. Just months later, another war led by the world’s imperial powers created the necessity for an integrated response and effort by all American citizens. Fifty years before the Civil Rights Act of 1964, African Americans took a stand to make democracy safe for all Americans.

As a continent marched toward global war, President Wilson’s brief August 4, 1914, Declaration of Neutrality to Congress addressed an American population of which one-third were foreign-born or with a parent still overseas:

*The people of the United States are drawn from many nations, and chiefly from the nations now at war. . . Those responsible for exciting [division] will assume a heavy responsibility, responsibility for no less a thing than that the people of the United States, whose love of their country and whose loyalty to its government should unite them as Americans all, bound in honor and affection to think first of her and her interests. . .*²

But what did “Americans all,” mean in 1914? One in five Americans declared German heritage, while growing numbers fleeing the Mexican Revolution claimed Hispanic ancestry.³ Both prosperity and disparity defined American life, as 0.1 percent of the population owned over 20 percent of the nation’s wealth.⁴ Women, who made up nearly half the population, had voting rights in only ten of the 48 states.⁵ And despite the abolition of slavery, and the granting of citizenship and voting rights in the 13th, 14th, and 15th Constitutional Amendments, African Americans faced direct and indirect attacks on their citizenship throughout the country, from lynching to new institutional barriers against housing, employment, and voting rights.⁶

¹ Andrew Scott Berg, *Wilson* (New York: Berkley Publishing Group, 2014), 409.

² Woodrow Wilson, “Declaration of Neutrality, August 19, 1914,” Teaching American History, accessed January 18, 2016, <http://teachingamericanhistory.org/library/document/president-wilsons-declaration-of-neutrality/>.

³ Jens Manuel Krogstad and Michael Keegan, “From Germany to Mexico: How America’s Source of Immigrants Has Changed over a Century,” Pew Research Center, last modified October 7, 2015, accessed January 18, 2016, <http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2015/10/07/a-shift-from-germany-to-mexico-for-americas-immigrants/>.

⁴ Emmanuel Saez and Gabriel Zucman, “Wealth Inequality in the United States since 1913: Evidence from capitalized income tax data,” NBER Working Paper, last modified October 2014, accessed January 18, 2016, <http://equitablegrowth.org/exploding-wealth-inequality-united-states/>.

⁵ “20th Century Statistics, Resident Population of the United States: Estimates, by Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin, with Median Age,” U.S. Census Bureau, last modified December 28, 1998, accessed January 18, 2016, <https://www.census.gov/prod/99pubs/99statab/sec31.pdf>.

⁶ To learn more, visit the Tuskegee University Archive Repository at <http://192.203.127.197/archive/handle/123456789/507>. A recent study by the Equal Justice Initiative, *Lynching in America: Confronting a Legacy of Racial Terror* proposes previous studies and statistics are low. Learn more at <http://www.eji.org/files/EJI%20Lynching%20in%20America%20SUMMARY.pdf>.

America was far from safe for African Americans during this united “neutrality.” All Southern states had laws creating “separate but equal” realities, white and black. Yet this “neutrality” caused American industry to flourish and encouraged a migration of African Americans, many under increasing political and economic oppression of Jim Crow laws, to move from the agricultural South to industrial Northern cities, in one of America’s greatest internal demographic shifts and artistic booms.

From 1914 to 1916, the vast majority of Americans opposed military engagement. Yet in the truest sense of “Americans all,” African Americans joined millions of their fellow citizens across gender, religious, and ethnic lines in reacting to the devastating casualties mounting overseas. Whether due to cultural ties or other motivations, individuals like famed flier Eugene Bullard, the first African-American fighter pilot, enlisted to fight with organizations like the French Foreign Legion and the Canadian Army.⁷ Volunteers both abroad and stateside worked in a variety of organizations from the American Field Service to the Belgian and Near East Relief Committees.⁸ In humanitarian efforts, individuals also challenged new barriers. Frances Elliott Davis, the first African-American nurse to join the American Red Cross, was barred from joining the U.S. Army Nursing Corps.

When the nation turned to war, many volunteer organizations like the YMCA would provide essential services to meet soldiers’ physical, religious, recreational, and educational needs. Since over 20 percent of World War I inductees were illiterate,⁹ the YMCA also focused on literacy. The work of teaching literacy and civic education would affect nearly a generation of men

To learn more about the history of volunteerism from 1914–1916, view *The Volunteers*, <http://exhibitions.theworldwar.org/volunteers/>.



Volunteers loading a stretcher into an American Field Service ambulance. Photograph courtesy of the National World War I Museum and Memorial.



Educational classes at the Post School in Commerey, France. Photograph courtesy of the National World War I Museum and Memorial.

⁷ For more information on Eugene Bullard, visit the Smithsonian Air and Space Museum <http://blog.nasm.si.edu/aviation/eugene-j-bullard/>.

⁸ To learn more about the history of volunteerism from 1914-1916, view *The Volunteers*, <http://exhibitions.theworldwar.org/volunteers/#/>.

⁹ Jennifer Keene, “A Comparative Study of White and Black Soldiers in the First World War,” *Annales De Demographie Historique* 36 (2002): 71-90.

Volunteer organizations were not without their own struggles. Though the YMCA experienced tremendous growth in serving the African-American community under leadership of men like Jesse Moorland, the organization had its own segregation policies, and did not provide equal services during the wartime, as noted in a multitude of letters held by the National WWI Museum archive.¹⁰ Some, however, became the front lines of resistance to segregation: a YMCA at Camp Merritt in New Jersey had a common “Y-hut” for both white and black enlisted men, where a struggle to segregate led to the death of Private Edward Frye.¹¹ After the war, the YMCA reassessed its segregation policies and began work that reached fruition in World War II and beyond.¹²



Salvation Army workers giving fresh doughnuts to the soldiers just in from the line at Varrenes-en-Argonne, October 12, 1918. Photograph courtesy of the National World War I Museum and Memorial.

Despite President Wilson’s reelection under the slogan “He Kept Us Out of War,” American military involvement seemed imminent at the beginning of 1917. Russia was crumbling under political upheaval and over a million combatant casualties. Nearly two years after the sinking of the *Lusitania*, the German government reintroduced unrestricted submarine warfare in hopes of starving out the Allies. The loss of nine American ships to the Germans between January and April 1917 resulted in a breakdown in American-German diplomatic relations and was considered by many, including Wilson, an overt act of war.¹³ The breaking point came in March, when German Foreign Minister Arthur Zimmermann secretly offered to finance Mexico in a war against the United States and urged Mexicans to persuade Japan to join the fight.¹⁴

On April 2, 1917, President Woodrow Wilson went before Congress and asked for a declaration of war against Germany:

*The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them.*¹⁵

On April 6, 1917, the United States entered the war.

To see related images visit the National World War I Museum’s digital exhibition, Make Way for Democracy on Google Cultural Institute, at https://www.google.com/culturalinstitute/exhibit/make-way-for-democracy/TQISY1wF_VQzJQ.

¹⁰ Jennifer D. Keene, *Doughboys, the Great War, and the Remaking of America* (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 2001), 94.

¹¹ Keene, *Doughboys, the Great War, and the Remaking of America*, 96.

¹² Nina Mjagkij, *Light in the Darkness: African Americans and the YMCA, 1852-1946* (Lexington: University Press of Kentucky, 1994), 127.

¹³ *American Ship Casualties of the World War, Including Naval Vessels, Merchant Ships, Sailing Vessels, and Fishing Craft*, Corrected to April 1, 1923. Compiled by Historical Section Navy Department, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1923.

¹⁴ Horizons Theater Film Script, Donna Lawrence Productions. National World War I Museum and Memorial. Museum movie script. February 2006.

¹⁵ Woodrow Wilson, “Declaration of War Message to Congress, April 2, 1917,” Records of the United States Senate, Record Group 46, National Archives and Records Administration, <http://www.ourdocuments.gov/doc.php?flash=true&doc=61>.

Entry into the war transformed the United States. In 1914, the U.S. had a standing army of 120,000—and urgently needed to mobilize.¹⁶ The Selective Service Act of May 1917 included any male of fighting age without bias of color or foreign birth. The War Department recognized that it could not exclude any individual and that all workers, regardless of color, were of great importance to the war effort. The irony of such blatant hypocrisy was clear to both black and white communities, however, as illustrated in a letter by Louis S. Epes to his Virginia Congressman: “If this is a white man’s country then this war is a white man’s burden and not the negroes’...the use of the negro [in war] is an admission...that this is no longer a white man’s country but equally a black and white man’s country.”¹⁷

For many within the African-American community, the call to fight beneath the claim of “champions of the rights of mankind” rang hollow.¹⁸ Others approached the conflict as an opportunity to redefine their citizenship and improve social, political, and economic conditions within the United States. Prevalently, African Americans took up the burden of war for the same reasons as their white and foreign-born counterparts: honor, patriotism, and the American draft board.

Although African Americans made up only 10 percent of the U.S. population, African-American servicemen made up 13 percent of the total U.S. Armed Services during the war. Historian Jennifer Keene suggests several reasons contributed to these numbers: a desire for honorable wartime service, unsympathetic draft boards, and improved salaried wages. A total of 367,710 African Americans were drafted into the U.S. Army. Religious conscientious objection, illiteracy, landowners withholding draft notices, and lack of support for the war also led to a greater portion of black men failing to register or neglecting to report for the draft.¹⁹



African-American Men at Induction Center, World War I. Photograph courtesy of the National World War I Museum and Memorial.

Countless African-American women stepped forward in strong support of the war effort. They found varied and successful ways to serve stateside as nurses, ambulance drivers, Navy Yeomen, canteen workers, club administrators, office workers, railroad workers, munitions workers, and extremely successful fundraisers with a variety of government organizations and departments, relief organizations, and war industries. African-American poet and civil rights advocate Alice Dunbar-Nelson, recognized for her mobilization for the Council of National Defense, said: “[African-American women] went into every kind of factory devoted to the production of war materials, from the most dangerous posts in munitions plants to the delicate sewing in aeroplane [sic] factories. Colored girls and colored women drove motor trucks, unloaded freight cars, dug ditches, packed boxes. The colored woman running the elevator or speeding a railroad on its way by signals was a common sight.”²⁰

There was a great deal of pride in military service among the black community. When the U.S. entered the war, there were four segregated African-

¹⁶ America Mobilizes, Main Gallery Label. National World War I Museum and Memorial.

¹⁷ Christopher Joseph Nicodemus Capozzola, *Uncle Sam Wants You: World War I and the Making of the Modern American Citizen* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2008), 35.

¹⁸ Woodrow Wilson, *War Messages*, 65th Congress (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1917), 3-8.

¹⁹ Capozzola, *Uncle Sam Wants You*, 65.

²⁰ Emmett J. Scott, *Scott's Official History of the American Negro in the World War* (New York: Arno Press, 1919), <http://net.lib.byu.edu/estu/wwi/comment/scott/ScottTC.htm#contents>.



African-American Women's Corps driver. Photograph courtesy of the National World War I Museum and Memorial.

American units serving in the regular Army. These units (the 24th and 25th Infantry and 9th and 10th Cavalry regiments) were the “Buffalo Soldiers,” who had gained their nickname and fame serving on the Western frontier during the Indian Wars. Instead of being sent to fight in Europe, however, these men provided non-commissioned officers and specialists for the new African-American units created from volunteer and drafted troops. A black officer candidate school was created in Iowa, with over 1,000 candidates in its first class in May 1917. Lobbying efforts, particularly those led by Emmett J. Scott, helped to ensure that skilled positions in every technical branch of military service were opened to African Americans, something never previously achieved.²¹

Though the American military reflected the diversity of the population, black servicemen were not treated equally. Non-combatant troops, essential



The American advance northwest of Verdun, World War I. Photograph courtesy of the National World War I Museum and Memorial.

to any successful war effort, comprised over half of the total mobilization effort. Many government officials and Army commanders doubted that African-American troops could be relied upon to perform well in combat. Approximately 80 percent of African-American soldiers were organized into supply, construction, or other support units like Company A of the 4th Battalion, 161st Depot Brigade. Though many African-American soldiers hoped the uniform of the United States military would be accorded proper respect, black troops were still the victims of racial discrimination by civilians and Army commanders. Both stateside and overseas, African-Americans—primarily segregated from white troops—also found their equipment needs took lower priority.²²

Despite the doubts and reluctance of American officers in World War I, two predominantly African-American combat divisions were formed.

²¹ Keene, *Doughboys, the Great War, and the Remaking of America*, 275.

²² Jennifer D. Keene, *World War I: The American Soldier Experience* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 2011), 95.



92nd Division insignia. Photograph courtesy of the National World War I Museum and Memorial.



African American soldiers serving as stevedores in Bassens, France. Photograph courtesy of the National World War I Museum and Memorial.



General John J. Pershing reviewing troops in France. Photograph courtesy of the National World War I Museum and Memorial.

The 92nd Infantry Division, under U.S. command, and 93rd Infantry Division (comprised of four Infantry Regiments: the 369th, 370th, 371st, and 372nd), initially led by the French, saw combat in Europe. Even while under French command, many white American officers sought to maintain racial discrimination against the African-American troops. While General John J. Pershing, commander of the American Expeditionary Forces, publicly commended the capability and commitment of African-American troops, he told French commanders that they were not to treat these troops as equals, saying, “We must not eat with them, must not shake hands with them, seek to talk to them or to meet with them outside the requirements of military service. We must not commend too highly these troops, especially in front of white Americans.”²³

Yet in some camps across the country, the uniform was a powerful unifying force. When Sergeant Noble Sissle did not take off his hat to white civilians, ignoring Southern tradition and following military protocol, his fellow soldiers—white and black—rallied to his defense after he was attacked.²⁴ The December 1918 arrest of a black soldier by a white police officer in South Carolina led to a crowd of over 100 soldiers and sailors across color lines peacefully protesting outside the police station for his release. In the next world war, a U.S. Military Research Branch study would find that 93 percent of officers and 60 percent of enlisted men got along “very well” with the opposite race and that the majority had more favorable feelings thanks to serving in the same unit.²⁵

The 369th Infantry Regiment, part of the 93rd Infantry Division, proved the capabilities of African-American troops, serving the longest of any American combat troops in the trenches. It established an excellent reputation fighting under the French, earning the unit nicknames such as the Harlem Hellfighters. Among its members was

²³ Originally written in General Pershing’s “Secret Information Concerning Black American Troops.” Quoted in Isaac Hampton, *The Black Officer Corps: A History of Black Military Advancement from Integration through Vietnam* (New York: Routledge, 2013), 12-13.

²⁴ Capozzola, *Uncle Sam Wants You*, 33.

²⁵ Keene, *Doughboys, the Great War, and the Remaking of America*, 206.

Sergeant Henry Johnson, who was the first American recipient of the French *Croix de Guerre* for bravery. Private Needham Roberts, 369th Infantry Regiment, was the second recipient. A total of 68 *Croix de Guerre* and 24 Distinguished Service Crosses were awarded to men of the 93rd Infantry Division along with several unit commendations, making it one of the war's most decorated American units.²⁶ The performance of the 369th Infantry Regiment and other African-American combat units forced the American military to reconsider its segregation practices in later years.

Corporal Freddie Stowers of the 371st Infantry Regiment led his men during an assault to take two German trenches after senior officers had been killed, saving the lives of his comrades and dying in the process. For his remarkable courage and determination, his commanding officer recommended him for the Medal of Honor. While many black soldiers acted honorably in combat, prejudicial descriptions of battlefield action and “misplaced paperwork”—as the case for Corporal Stowers, who did not receive his award until 1991—downplayed African-American service.²⁷ In the Allied Victory parade in Paris, France, in 1919, African Americans were specifically excluded by high command. As a result, history has been distorted through whitewashed photographic evidence. Past institutional racism still presents a significant challenge for today's interpretations, making it all the more important to engage and support students and historians who endeavour to properly inform future public memory.

Americans took a stand for democracy in 1917, both in the battlefield and on the home front. Their participation created a geopolitical shift around the world that is still felt today, and which buoyed the United States' economic, political, and military power on the global stage. Many World War I leaders left behind an ambiguous legacy. President Wilson's vision propelled the U.S. to a century



Allied Victory Parade in Paris, France on July 14, 1919. Photograph courtesy of the National World War I Museum and Memorial

of global leadership and affirmed its democratic values. In the process, however, he made choices that failed to honor those values for all Americans, ensuring that our nation would face some of its greatest problems in the decades following the First World War. General Pershing proudly led American soldiers to victory, at the same time actively undermining the rights of black soldiers who risked their lives to follow him and serve their country.

The success of African Americans in the “war to end all wars” challenged the doctrine of white supremacy, bringing new battles to the home front. There were 36 lynchings in the United States in 1917; in 1919, there were more than double that number, a figure not reached since, even during the most turbulent days of the Civil Rights movement. Of the 76 lynchings that took place during what became known as the “Red Summer” of 1919, 11 of those killed were soldiers wearing uniforms.²⁸ In an article for the NAACP's magazine, *The Crisis*, in May 1919, W.E.B DuBois sounded a call to patriotism as the war for equal rights continued:

²⁶ Main Gallery label, National World War I Museum and Memorial.

²⁷ Chester Heywood, *Negro Combat Troops in the World War: The Story of the 371st Infantry* (Worcester: Commonwealth Press, 1928).

²⁸ For more information on the events of 1919, read Jennifer Keene, “The Memory of the Great War in the African American Community” <http://www.chapman.edu/our-faculty/files/publications/Memory%20of%20War%20in%20the%20African%20American%20Community.pdf> or Ann Hagedorn, *Savage Peace: Hope and Fear in America, 1919* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 2008).

*For the America that represents and gloats in lynching, disenfranchisement, caste, brutality and devilish insult—for this, in the hateful upturning and mixing of things, we were forced by vindictive fate to fight. We return. We return from fighting. We return fighting. Make way for Democracy! We saved it in France, and by the Great Jehovah, we will save it in the United States of America, or know the reason why.*²⁹

World War I was, in fact, the beginning of countless other wars. African-American involvement in this war did not end racial subjugation or segregation. For some, however, putting on a uniform was an act of defiance, while for others, it was an act of unity and equality. Participation in that conflict marked the beginning of a modern civil rights movement, a fight to define the true meaning of democracy.

²⁹ W. E. B. Du Bois, editor, *The Crisis: A Record of the Darker Races*, Vol. 18 (1) (New York: National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 1919), 13-14. <http://library.brown.edu/pdfs/1295987016703125.pdf>.



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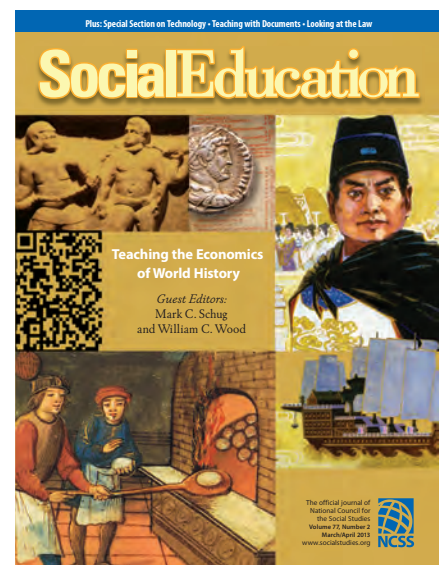


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TAKING THE STAND TO TAKE A STAND

Christopher Zarr, Education Specialist, National Archives at New York City

Throughout American history, activists of every stripe have taken the stand in court to give voice to their beliefs. Sometimes by force and other times by design, advocates stood up in court, standing by their positions despite controversy surrounding their actions. Regardless of the circumstances, federal court records held by the National Archives (including such original primary sources as testimony, depositions, exhibits, complaints, and opinions) can help researchers document the context and consequences of *Taking a Stand in History*.

National History Day's *Taking a Stand in History* theme is particularly well suited to the National Archives' celebration of the 225th anniversary of the Bill of Rights. While these ten amendments were crafted to protect certain unalienable rights, throughout our history these rights sometimes have been violated. Over time, many Americans have taken a stand to ensure these rights. While their views were often unpopular at the time, these cases have secured many of the freedoms we enjoy today.

During times of national stress, when issues of national security and safety have trumped personal liberty and individual rights, federal courts have served as the forum for debating these weighty issues. The federal court records of the National Archives can provide NHD researchers insights into the world of the past.

A few case studies involving the First Amendment during tense times in our history—the Quasi War with France and World War I—illustrate the stories of individuals who took a stand in the public sphere and dealt with the consequences in federal court.

Less than a decade after the Bill of Rights was ratified on December 15, 1791, individual rights were tested by the passage of the Alien and Sedition Acts. The U.S. was then fighting an undeclared naval war with France. The French wanted the U.S. to continue paying its revolutionary debt, and when it did not, they began seizing American ships. To clamp down on domestic dissent, the Federalist government passed the acts in July 1789, making it a crime punishable by two years in jail and a \$2,000 fine to “print, utter, or publish. . . any false scandalous, and malicious writing” against any part of the federal government.¹ Over two dozen people (all spouting anti-Federalist opinions) were arrested for violating these acts.



A view of the United States Supreme Court in Washington, D.C. (1990). Photograph courtesy of the National Archives and Records Administration (6446848).

¹ An Act Which Tightened Restrictions on Foreign Born Americans and Limited Speech Critical of the Government, 7/6/1789; Enrolled Acts and Resolutions of Congress, 1789–2011; General Records of the United States Government, Record Group 11; National Archives at Washington, DC [online version available through the National Archives Catalog (National Archives Identifier 5641586). at <https://catalog.archives.gov/id/5641586>].

William Durrell, publisher of the *Mount Pleasant Register* in Mount Pleasant, New York, was the first arrested under the Sedition Act. Durrell had reprinted a paragraph previously published in the *New Windsor Gazette* that compared John Adams to Benedict Arnold, the American general who infamously defected to the British Army.

Ann Greenleaf, publisher of *Greenleaf's New Daily Advertiser*, was indicted for publishing an article that questioned the "Tyrannical and Unconstitutional Alien and Sedition Bills" and reported that residents of the town of Flatbush (now a neighborhood in Brooklyn) were erecting "liberty poles" to show their disapproval of the U.S. Congress's policies.²

Jedidiah (sometimes listed in records as Jedediah) Peck, a former New York state judge and member of the state legislature, was arrested for distributing a petition that protested the recent "series of Evils" Congress had passed. The result of the Alien and Sedition Acts, in Peck's petition, would be a "foreign war, a violated Constitution and a divided People."³

Even Matthew Lyon, a sitting member of the House of Representatives from Vermont, was found guilty and sentenced to four months and jail and a \$1,060.96 fine. His crime: while running for reelection, he wrote a letter to *Spooner's Vermont Journal* that criticized President John Adams for his "continual grasp for power [and] unbounded thirst for ridiculous pomp, foolish adulations, and selfish avarice."⁴

For taking a stand and speaking their minds in print, these four citizens were arrested and charged with being "wicked, malicious, seditious, and ill-

disposed." The charges were dropped against Greenleaf after she sold her newspaper and left the publishing business. Peck's case was also dropped, as the U.S. Attorney decided against pursuing the case (after reaching out to John Adams himself). After waiting nearly two years for the trial—and with his family destitute—Durrell was found guilty and sentenced to four months in jail and a \$50 fine (and a \$2,000 bond guaranteeing good behavior). John Adams eventually partially pardoned Durrell and commuted his sentence as well as the fine. While he was imprisoned, Matthew Lyon ran for reelection for his seat in Congress and won by a landslide.

The court records themselves (including indictments, depositions, and other legal documents) really bring these stories and the stands these activists were talking to life for the NHD researcher. For example, Peck's indictment describes his crime of distributing a petition against the Alien and Sedition Act as "wickedly and maliciously intending and contriving to defame the Government. . . stir up sedition. . . and to excite the Hatred of the good People." Eyewitness accounts filed as depositions describe Peck as carrying "a bundle of papers at least six inches thick" and describe him in conversations saying that the "Alien and Sedition Bills. . . were contrary to the Constitution" and that the "rights of the people which were endangered of being destroyed by the Congress of the United States."⁵

More than a hundred years after the original Sedition Act expired, the government reacted to another period of national stress brought on

² *United States v. Ann Greenleaf*; Criminal Case Files; U.S. Circuit Court for the Southern District of New York; Records of District Courts of the United States, Record Group 21; National Archives at New York City [online version available through the National Archives Catalog (National Archives Identifier 18538768)] at <https://catalog.archives.gov/id/18538768>.

³ *United States vs. Jedidiah Peck*; Criminal Case Files; U.S. Circuit Court for the Southern District of New York; Records of District Courts of the United States, Record Group 21; National Archives at New York City [online version available through the National Archives Catalog (National Archives Identifier 18559138)] at <https://catalog.archives.gov/id/18559138>.

⁴ Indictment in the Case of *United States v. Matthew Lyon*; Case Files; U.S. Circuit Court for the District of Vermont; Records of District Courts of the United States, Record Group 21; National Archives at Boston [online version available through the National Archives Catalog (National Archives Identifier 24337395)] at <https://catalog.archives.gov/id/24337395>.

⁵ *United States vs. Jedidiah Peck*; Criminal Case Files; U.S. Circuit Court for the Southern District of New York; Records of District Courts of the United States, Record Group 21; National Archives at New York City [online version available through the National Archives Catalog (National Archives Identifier 18559138)] at <https://catalog.archives.gov/id/18559138>.

by World War I by passing the Espionage Act in 1917 and a later amendment commonly called the Sedition Act in 1918. The Espionage Act made it a crime to make any statements that would interfere with military operations, promote the success of the enemy, result in insubordination by soldiers, or obstruct the draft.

The Sedition Act took it a step further—it was now illegal to obstruct bond sales, write negatively about the U.S. government, the U.S. Constitution, the American flag, the military, or even the uniform of the Army or Navy. It also made it a crime to “advocate any curtailment of production. . . of any thing or things. . . essential to the prosecution of the war.”⁶ The maximum penalty for both laws was a \$10,000 fine and twenty years in jail.

More than 2,000 arrests and 1,000 convictions resulted from the passage of these acts. Despite the potential consequences, thousands of people took a stand to voice their opinion against what they saw as an unjust war.

When *The Masses*, a socialist magazine dedicated to progressive artwork and free thinking, planned its August 1917 issue, contributors created essays, poems, and artworks to show their disapproval of U.S. actions in the war. Their main target was the recently passed Selective Service Act, which required all men between 21 and 30 to register for the draft.

Conscientious objectors were praised in articles and printed letters. Anarchists Alexander Berkman and Emma Goldman were lauded in a poem called “Tribute” and an article titled “Friends of American Freedom.” In addition, four political cartoons covered topics such as the role of capitalism and



Eugene V. Debs giving an anti-war speech in Canton, Ohio, June 16, 1918. Photograph courtesy of the National Archives and Records Administration (2641496).

big business in leading to the war and the draft’s destructive effects on freedom. When *The Masses* was dropped off at the local postmaster, it was seized as “nonmailable,” and the editors, writers, and artists involved were eventually charged with violating the Espionage Act.⁷

Socialist Eugene Debs, whose rise to notoriety had begun during the Pullman Strike of 1894, violated the Sedition Act by giving a speech on June 16, 1918, in Canton, Ohio. In that speech he praised recently incarcerated comrades for having the moral courage to go to jail for their beliefs. Debs framed their arrests as results of “exercis[ing] the constitutional right of free speech in a country fighting to make democracy safe in the world.”⁸

After Russian immigrant Jacob Abrams and his small cadre of seven socialists printed and distributed thousands of leaflets around New York City, they were indicted for violating the Sedition Act. The first leaflet, “The Hypocrisy of the United States and Her Allies,” called Woodrow Wilson a hypocrite, a

⁶ “The Sedition Act of 1918,” PBS, last modified December 2006, accessed January 18, 2016, http://www.pbs.org/wnet/supremecourt/capitalism/sources_document1.html.

⁷ Indictment from *United States of America v. The Masses Publishing Company*, Max Eastman, Floyd Dell, C. Merril Rogers Jr., Henry J. Glintenkamp, Arthur Young, John Reed, and Josephine Bell, Case C10-327; Criminal Case Files; U.S. District Court for the Southern District of New York; Records of District Courts of the United States, Record Group 21; National Archives at New York City [online version available through the Catalog (National Archives Identifier 7595374) at <https://catalog.archives.gov/id/7595374>].

⁸ Speech Given by Eugene V. Debs in Canton, Ohio, *United States of America v. Eugene V. Debs*, Criminal Case #4057; Criminal Case Files; U.S. District Court for the Eastern (Cleveland) Division of the Northern District of Ohio; Records of District Courts of the United States, Record Group 21; National Archives at Chicago [online version available through the Catalog (National Archives Identifier 2641497) at <https://catalog.archives.gov/id/2641497>].

coward, and a tyrant for intervening in the Russian Revolution at the end of World War I. It also implied that Allied capitalism was working with German militarism (ostensibly its enemy) to destroy the Russian Revolution. Another leaflet, written in Yiddish and titled “Workers—Wake Up,” called for a general strike by munitions workers.⁹

Each of the activists involved with those publications knew that taking a stand against World War I was perilous, given the potential consequences. Before mailing their publication, *The Masses* publishers reached out to the government to make sure it was not violating the act. When the publication was held up by the postmaster, the publishers brought a civil suit against the postmaster to find out why specifically it was being denied entry to the mail. During Debs’s incriminating speech, he talked about having to be “exceedingly careful, prudent, as to what I say, and even more careful and prudent as to how I say it.”¹⁰ And on the flyer distributed by Abrams and his colleagues, a postscript notes that calling them pro-German was “absurd,” as they “hate and despise German militarism.”¹¹ Clearly they were referring to clauses in the Sedition Act that made it illegal to promote the cause or success of its enemies.

The writers, artists, and editors of *The Masses* were tried twice over a few years, resulting in hung juries. The U.S. Attorney decided to forego a third trial, as the war was already over at that point. Debs himself was not so fortunate—he was sentenced to ten years in jail. He ran for president in 1920 while incarcerated and was later released by the winner of that election, Warren G. Harding, in 1921. Abrams

and company brought their case to the U.S. Supreme Court, where the majority found that their speech was not protected by the First Amendment because they advocated violent acts. As with an earlier case (*Schenck v. United States*), their leaflet contained language that created a “clear and present danger,” so Congress could restrict it.¹²

These are just a handful of notable court cases where people took a stand on a First Amendment issue. Throughout our history, artists, activists, and everyday citizens have also taken a stand in federal court to further the cause of personal liberty. Some examples include:

- Birth control activist Margaret Sanger was indicted for violating obscenity laws when she sent her publication, *The Woman Rebel*, through the mail. The indictment refers to the offensive content—articles titled “The Marriage Bed,” “The Birth Control League,” and “Are Preventive Means Injurious”—as so “vile, obscene, filthy, and indecent” that it does not specifically quote from them, so as not to “defile the records of the court.”¹³
- Publisher Bennett Cerf, from Random House, took a stand on free expression by importing James Joyce’s controversial book *Ulysses*, knowing that it would be seized by the Customs Service. Wanting to publish a definitive copy within the United States, Cerf even informed the Customs agents when it would arrive.
- Instead of safely pleading the Fifth (and not incriminating himself), singer and activist Pete Seeger asserted his first amendment rights

⁹ *United States v. Jacob Abrams*, et al, Cases C14-457-459; Criminal Case Files; U.S. District Court for the Southern District of New York; Records of District Courts of the United States, Record Group 21; National Archives at New York City.

¹⁰ Speech Given by Eugene V. Debs in Canton, Ohio, *United States of America v. Eugene V. Debs*, Criminal Case #4057; Criminal Case Files; U.S. District Court for the Eastern (Cleveland) Division of the Northern District of Ohio; Records of District Courts of the United States, Record Group 21; National Archives at Chicago [online version available through the Catalog (National Archives Identifier 2641497) at <https://catalog.archives.gov/id/2641497>].

¹¹ *United States v. Jacob Abrams*, et al, Cases C14-457-459; Criminal Case Files; U.S. District Court for the Southern District of New York; Records of District Courts of the United States, Record Group 21; National Archives at New York City. ¹² “Landmark Cases: Schenck v. U.S. (1919),” PBS, last modified December 2016, accessed January 18, 2016, http://www.pbs.org/wnet/supremecourt/capitalism/landmark_schenck.html.

¹² “Landmark Cases: Schenck v. U.S. (1919),” PBS, last modified December 2016, accessed January 18, 2016, http://www.pbs.org/wnet/supremecourt/capitalism/landmark_schenck.html.

¹³ Indictment from *United States v. Margaret Sanger*, Cases C7-152-154; Criminal Case Files; U.S. District Court for the Southern District of New York; Records of District Courts of the United States, Record Group 21; National Archives at New York City.

of speech and association to the House Un-American Activities Committee (or HUAC). He was found guilty of contempt of Congress.

- When siblings John and Mary Beth Tinker (and others) wore black armbands to protest the Vietnam War, they were punished by their local school district in Des Moines, Iowa. They took their case all the way to the U.S. Supreme Court.
- Beyond the First Amendment (and beyond the Bill of Rights itself), inventors, innovators, artists, and activists have taken a stand on a whole slew of issues, ranging from copyright and patent infringement to school segregation and immigrant rights.

Using Court Records at the National Archives for NHD Research

To find these cases and more in the holdings of the National Archives, begin by searching the National Archives' Catalog (www.archives.gov/research/catalog). The catalog currently contains archival descriptions for 85 percent of the holdings of the National Archives and more than two million digitized copies of records. But with billions of records in dozens of facilities across the country, in many cases only small selections of some court cases have been digitized.

Researchers simply need to enter some keywords (name of case, defendant, plaintiff, issues, etc.) into the search box and hit Search. After completing an initial search, researchers can filter by type of material, location of record, and even descriptions that include digital objects.

Searching for *Tinker v. Des Moines*, for example, brings up a short selection from the Supreme Court case, including some testimony from John Tinker himself (<https://catalog.archives.gov/id/5641613>). In addition, the results include a nearly 250-page digitized selection of the lower-court case from the Central Division of the Southern District of Iowa (<https://catalog.archives.gov/id/7788707>). This selection includes the initial complaint, memos sent from the Des Moines school district, and newspaper

clippings, among other records. The catalog entry for this case also includes helpful information for further research—the name of the specific court, the case number (7-1810-C1), and the contact information for the National Archives at Kansas City (the location that has custody of the district court case).

If an initial search of the catalog reveals no helpful results, NHD students should not assume there are no records. If they have done their research properly and know that there is a federal court case involving their topic, the National Archives should have a record. While archivists are always describing and digitizing primary sources, not all individual court cases have been entered into the catalog. In these cases, students may have to do some additional research to track down more information (including such details as defendants, plaintiffs, location of the court, type of case, case file number, etc.) before contacting a specific National Archives location.

While performing secondary and primary source research, students should note specific courts mentioned or the locations where events took place. This is particularly important because District Court, Circuit Court, and Court of Appeals records are typically located in a field office location of the National Archives near the court's jurisdiction. For example, the National Archives at New York City has court records for the Districts of New York (Southern, Eastern, Northern, and Western), the District of New Jersey, the District of Puerto Rico and the District of the U.S. Virgin Islands as well as the court records of the Second Circuit Court of Appeals. For a full listing of federal courts and appropriate National Archives locations, visit <http://www.archives.gov/research/court-records/>.

If students find materials on a U.S. Supreme Court case, they should look for evidence of the lower court case location. Before arriving at the U.S. Supreme Court, cases could have been heard at a District Court and at a Court of Appeals—both of which potentially contain different unique primary sources. Sometimes the case title itself has helpful hints (like with *Tinker v. Des Moines*); other times it

may take a bit of digging to see what court originally heard the case. For example, though Pete Seeger was found guilty of contempt of Congress, the Southern District of New York heard his case because the HUAC hearing was held in New York City. Depending on how a case reached the Supreme Court, there could be related resources in a District Court and a Court of Appeals.

Knowledge of the type of court case can also be extremely helpful. Court records are typically separated into distinct series based on the type of proceeding—civil, admiralty, equity, law, criminal, bankruptcy, etc. The National Archives' Federal Court records are extremely voluminous (most likely well over a billion pages), so narrowing down to specific courts, specific proceedings, and dates allows the staff to narrow the potential areas to search.

If the records are found, staff can send copies or scans of select materials (for a fee). Or if a student has chosen a local topic and is close to a National Archives location, he or she can make plans to visit and work with the original primary sources—which can be an unforgettable experience. See <http://archives.gov/locations/> for locations around the country.

DocsTeach

A great place for students to brainstorm their potential topics is our educational resource, DocsTeach.org. This website can be used as students prepare to conduct research in court records, helping them to become familiar with the type of records they will encounter. With thousands of documents available, DocsTeach could serve as a great first step in an NHD research project. Students can enter keywords and get a sampling of the variety of documents available about many individuals who took a stand in history.

In addition, every document in DocsTeach links directly to our catalog. So if a student finds an example of a great exhibit from a federal court case, the DocsTeach page is linked to its entry in the catalog, which may include additional pages or other related documents. The catalog will also provide the contact information, in case a student wants to find out more about the entire case.

Teachers can also use DocsTeach to get their students to start thinking about analyzing and using primary sources. Educators across the country have created activities that focus attention on reading and analyzing primary sources. And now DocsTeach also works great with iPads, tablets, and other mobile devices! Visit www.docsteach.org today!



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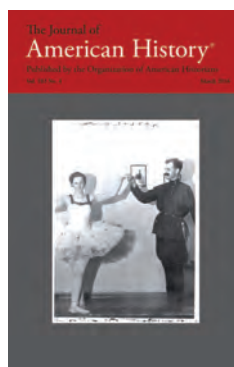
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TEN STRATEGIES FOR USING CHRONICLING AMERICA IN YOUR CLASSROOM

Lynne O'Hara, Director of Programs, National History Day

There are thousands of educational materials available to teachers. Sometimes teachers see a resource and realize its “cool” factor, but struggle to figure out how to integrate this content into a classroom setting. This article focuses on ten strategies to help bring the *Chronicling America* resource into the classroom. A classroom-ready worksheet for each of these strategies can be found at www.nhd.org/themebook.

What is *Chronicling America*?

Chronicling America (<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/>) is a database of locally-based U.S. newspapers from 1836 through 1922. This project, funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities and created by the Library of Congress, digitizes newspapers and then makes them key-word searchable. This is a source of literally millions of primary source documents, and includes everything from major city to small rural newspapers. Included in the collection are African-American newspapers and papers printed in languages other than English with an immigrant readership. In all, these sources provide a unique perspective on events in American and world history.

For this case study, we chose newspaper articles that deal with the issue of Imperialism from 1880-1920. One of the best ways for teachers to help students understand this year's *Taking a Stand in History* theme is to integrate that theme into daily classroom activities. Imperialism provides a great opportunity for U.S., European, or world history teachers to consider the perspectives of those who took a stand. This can take many forms—some pushed imperialist policies, others resisted. Imperialism also needs to be looked at from the perspective of the people who were colonized—many took stands to preserve their political, cultural, and social autonomy, with varying degrees of success.

Imperialism is just one example of hundreds of topics that can be explored. If you want an idea of some others to consider using with your students, go to the recommended topics list in *Chronicling America* (<http://www.loc.gov/rr/news/topics/topics.html>) to grab some really excellent, ready-to-use collections ranging from Carrie Nation and Booker T. Washington to the construction of the Panama Canal, the 1918 Influenza Pandemic, and the Mexican Revolution. In short, if your history class includes the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, there is content available for you.

The goal of this case study is to add to your teacher toolbox. You can choose to use the articles when you teach imperialism or you can choose to take the strategies and plug in different articles. Also note that the *Chronicling America* website provides maximum flexibility. You can view the articles with your students using laptops, tablets, or a projector in the front of the classroom. This will allow you to zoom in to make the text more readable. You can also download high-resolution images that you can use on a smartboard or

share with students as PDF files. Finally, you have the option to print the files as full pages (when printing a full page, print on 11 x 17 paper if possible) or take snapshots of a particular article, cartoon, or graphic.

Strategy One: Analyze a Front Page

Goal: Students compare and contrast front pages of two newspapers that cover the same event.

Looking at major world events (in this case, major events in the Spanish-American War) helps us to not only learn about history, but to also comprehend the reaction of the public to contemporary events. These front pages can be used together or separately during a study of the war.

With these samples, students can break down the newspaper. Encourage them to highlight interesting phrases, circle key words that they may (or may not) understand, and comment on the text. Based on class needs, the teacher can choose to give all the students the same page or split the class and then allow students to compare and contrast.



Option 1—*The San Francisco Call*, San Francisco, California, March 26, 1898
<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn85066387/1898-03-26/ed-1/seq-1/>



Option 2—*The Herald*, Los Angeles, California, August 4, 1898
<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn85042461/1898-08-04/ed-1/seq-1/>

Discussion prompts might include:

- How is this newspaper attracting readers on this particular day?
- How is this newspaper using visual elements to grab the reader's attention?
- How is this newspaper using textual elements to grab the reader's attention?
- How does this newspaper demonstrate its opinions about what is happening?
- Connect this day in history to three previous events in world history and explain the connections.
- Connect this day in history to three future events in world history and explain the connections.

Strategy Two: Political Cartoon Bell-Ringer

Goal: Students analyze a political cartoon to begin discussion on historical content or concept.

Political cartoons are great sources that allow students to engage in content in a visual format. Often there is much less to read, but there are symbols and imagery that need to be deciphered. At the end, political cartoons express a specific point of view, and the students need to be challenged to figure out and justify their response using evidence from the cartoon. Students will need some scaffolding and explanations to help them understand a cartoon, but when they “get it,” the lightbulb moment is priceless.



Austin's Hawaiian Weekly, July 22, 1899
<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn85047152/1899-07-22/ed-1/seq-7/>

Strategy Three: Reading for Detail Challenge

Goal: Students read an article and participate in a question challenge to check for understanding.

Reading for detail is a challenge that all students face, so why not have a little fun with it? Give students an article with an appropriate level of challenge, then have them respond to a series of detail-oriented questions to see how many specifics they can pull from the piece.

Ask students to read the article, and then challenge them to earn as many points as they can. Scaffold the activity as appropriate to your students' needs. Variations could include:

- Allow students to preview the questions in advance (or not).
- Have students take notes on the article that they can use to help answer questions.
- Allow students to use the article for part or all of the time to answer the questions.
- Create a question and answer period in which students can clarify their understanding before jumping into the game.
- Double the point value for questions answered correctly without the use of the article, then let students work with the article to receive more points.
- Vary the point value based on the level of difficulty of the questions.

This challenge can be conducted individually or in small cooperative groups.

Activity Options:

- Label as many objects as you can in the cartoon. Look for factual information, symbols, and clues.
- List three questions that you have about the cartoon.
- How does this cartoon connect to what we have already learned about imperialism?
- What is the opinion of the cartoonist? Support with evidence from the cartoon.

HE BREATHES HIS LAST IN A FOREIGN LAND, 2,400 MILES FROM HOME.

DEATH OF THE KING OF HAWAII.—The body will be taken to Honolulu on a United States War ship. The King's last hours were passed on the "Thetis" at San Francisco, Jan. 20.—Kalakaua, King of the Hawaiian Islands, died at the Palace Hotel in this city at 2:30 o'clock this afternoon. There had been no hope of the King's recovery since Sunday, though his alarming condition was generally known until last evening, when the attending physicians announced that his malady was Bright's disease and nervous.



KING KALAKAUA.

During his last night death was expected at any moment. The King's physicians and other attendants, including Counsel-General McKinley, Col. R. H. Baker, the King's chief of staff, Col. George MacFarlane, his chamberlain, and several ladies remained at the bedside or in the adjoining room. There was no improvement in the King's condition this morning, and by noon it was apparent to all that he could live but a few hours longer. At times it was impossible to distinguish his breathing at all, although the respiration, slight as it was, was very rapid. He continued to sink until 1:30 this afternoon, when Col. MacFarlane bent over the bed and asked the King if he knew him. No reply came to the question and not even the slightest token of recognition.

Then at the request of Col. MacFarlane, Dr. J. Sanders Reed, the rector of Trinity Episcopal Church, read a selection from the Scriptures, and the demonstrations of grief on the part of the Chamberlain and other attendants was very affecting.

Heading scriptural passages was continued nearly an hour, while the patient's breathing grew fainter every moment, and those who were watching at his bedside could scarcely see any sign of life. At 2:30 o'clock Medical Inspector Woods, who was bending over the King, announced that the last breath of life had fled.

The King's body will be embalmed at once. While no definite arrangements have been made yet for the funeral services here and the removal of the body to the Islands, it is probable that services will be held in Trinity Episcopal Church on Thursday, and that the body will be sent to Honolulu on the United States mail ship "Charleston" before the close of the week.

The next regular passenger steamer for Honolulu will not leave here until Jan. 27, and it is probable that the first intelligence of the King's death will be received by the Hawaiian people will be when the "Charleston" arrives at the harbor of Honolulu with the body of their King aboard.

The news of all the public buildings in this city was placed at half mast this afternoon, and the Hawaiian custom is also at half mast above the Palace Hotel. The malady of which King Kalakaua was a victim has been several years standing. Four years ago the King suffered severely from kidney trouble. On last Friday, soon after his return from his trip to southern California, he suddenly grew worse, and his physicians remained at his bedside. Col. MacFarlane, his Chamberlain, remained at his post of duty until Monday, when Admiral Brown, who also remained with the King.

On Saturday his Majesty awoke from a semi-conscious condition and talked with his faithful Hawaiian body servant for several minutes. Toward evening, however, the stupor returned, and all during the night and the following day the patient was in a semi-conscious condition. Saturday morning the symptoms were more threatening.

At 10 o'clock Dr. Woods noticed a sudden change in the patient's condition. Watching him he realized that the dangerous period was approaching. Presently there came to the patient a severe convulsion. The King survived this, however, and lay in a state of coma for hours, until 5 o'clock, when he rallied and seemed to regain his faculties.

Admiral Brown stood by his side. The King closed his eyes and recognized him with a smile, then tried to lift his hand to grasp the fingers of his friend, but failed in the attempt. The Admiral spoke to him, and the King said feebly: "Thank you."

Kalakaua was to have left here this week for Honolulu on the United States Dispatch "Charleston." He returned here last week from a tour through southern California. He was in poor health when he arrived in San Francisco some time ago, and it is believed that the banquets and receptions which he attended hastened his death.

David Kalakaua became ruler of the Hawaiian Islands on Feb. 13, 1874. His official title was King, and he was known as Kalakaua. He was born on Nov. 16, 1836, of pure Hawaiian blood, and was related to the royal family through the laws of the Hawaiians, which require that their monarch shall be elected by the King or Queen in office. The ruler before Kalakaua was Lunalilo, and he died without leaving a successor. The choice fell thus to the people Kalakaua was chosen. One of the first things he did was to name his brother as his successor; but he dying, the King proclaimed his sister, Princess Kaiulani, as his successor. Some time before the King died he called for his sister, Princess Kaiulani, at his bedside, and she, in the presence of the King, was vested with the powers of Vice-

Queen. Portuguese, English, and American. All of the empires is with the United States. Through England, however, the King's eyes were kept open. The King's last hours were passed on the "Thetis" at San Francisco, Jan. 20.—Kalakaua, King of the Hawaiian Islands, died at the Palace Hotel in this city at 2:30 o'clock this afternoon. There had been no hope of the King's recovery since Sunday, though his alarming condition was generally known until last evening, when the attending physicians announced that his malady was Bright's disease and nervous.



PRINCESS KAIULANI.

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Admiral Brown stood by his side. The King closed his eyes and recognized him with a smile, then tried to lift his hand to grasp the fingers of his friend, but failed in the attempt. The Admiral spoke to him, and the King said feebly: "Thank you."

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QUEEN KAPIOLANI.



QUEEN KAPIOLANI.

Finally, Kalakaua and his clique tried to divert to the crown the revenues of lands set apart for public improvements, and at last the American capitalists and other white residents booted a reform movement, which ultimately became the revolution of 1897. The King took \$11,000 from Alii, a Chinese, promising to give him in return the exclusive right to sell opium. Complications arising from this proceeding precipitated the revolution. The movement was managed by a secret political organization and aided military bodies. The revolutionists adopted resolutions declaring that the administration of government had ceased, through incompetency and corruption, and calling on Kalakaua to dismiss the Gibson Ministry. To rescue the \$11,000 taken as a bribe for the opium license, and to pledge that he would not meddle with the electoral and legislative rights of the people.

Walter M. Gibson, the particularly obnoxious adviser of the King, had come to Hawaii as land agent of the Mormons when they thought of emigrating from the United States. He was an ardent politician, and got in with Kalakaua and became a large land owner and Premier of the King's Cabinet. The revolutionists, besides demanding his dismissal from every sort of power, insisted that William L. Green should be asked to form the new Cabinet. Kalakaua refused and halted when the revolutionists' demands were presented, and sought to get the foreign representatives to interfere. They declined. Kalakaua then fled, and on July 1, 1897, the reformers gained the first victory. Their next triumph was secured on July 10, when the King affixed his signature to a new Constitution, by which his powers were largely abolished or reduced, and the principle of Ministerial responsibility established.

The new form of government displeased the Chinese, many natives, and the British element. Kalakaua's partisans declared the new Constitution invalid, and asserted that the King's oath to it had been given under duress. The new Cabinet, headed by William L. Green, an American planter, also had difficulty over financial affairs. English investors were deeply angered at the policy the Green Ministry threatened to enforce with regard to a British loan, and the British Consul declared he would summon a squadron to protect the rights of his countrymen. The Ministry avoided this trouble by changing their policy, and gradually the wheels of the new system got into smooth running order. The government now is mainly in the hands of the Ministers, and the legislative functions are vested in the twenty-four Representatives and twenty-four Nobles, who are elected by popular vote, and sit together as a Legislative Assembly.

Kalakaua was educated at the "Royal School for Chiefs." His first public office was that of clerk in the Land Commission Board at a salary of \$1,000 a year. He lived on that sum without going into debt; yet after the adoption of the new Constitution in 1897, an investigation showed that he was \$250,000 in debt. Much of his money was gambled away. He was a slenderly built man, and those who looked kindly upon his faults say that the worst trait he embodied in him is that he had the easy-going, pleasure-loving instincts of his race, and that the implicit confidence he had in his ability to govern, his realm led him too often to choose compliant counselors rather than able, high-principled men, who would not submit to dictation and corrupting influences.

"The Death of King Kalakaua," *The Sun*, January 21, 1891
<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83030272/1891-01-21/ed-1/seq-1/>

Instructions: Based on what you read, answer as many questions as you can.
Level One. Value: One point for each correct answer. No partial credit on this section.

1. King Kalakaua ruled the Hawaiian Islands for _____ years.
2. Kalakaua was _____ years old when he took the throne of Hawaii.
3. Kalakaua died because he had _____ disease.
4. King Kalakaua visited England because _____.
5. What was the Queen's name in the article? Queen _____.
6. King Kalakaua was the king of _____.

Level Two: Value: Two points for each correct answer. Partial credit may be given.

7. Why was Hawaii important to countries such as the United States, China, Japan, and Australia?
8. Which country was most connected with Hawaii? Why are these two countries so closely linked at this time?
9. What was the cause of the reform movement and revolution in Hawaii in 1897?
10. Who was primarily involved in the reform movement?

Level Three. Value: Three points for each correct answer. Partial credit may be given.

11. Why might some members of the royal family or administration be disliked by the general public? What is an example of this?
12. What were government funds largely used for by the royal Hawaiian family? How did this upset the people of Hawaii as well as Americans and investors?
13. What were the consequences of the king's journey to the United States? Give three examples.
14. In what ways can you detect bias in the newspaper article's author? Use three examples from the text to support your point of view.
15. Do you think the author of this article would support the annexation of Hawaii? Give three pieces of textual evidence to support your point of view.

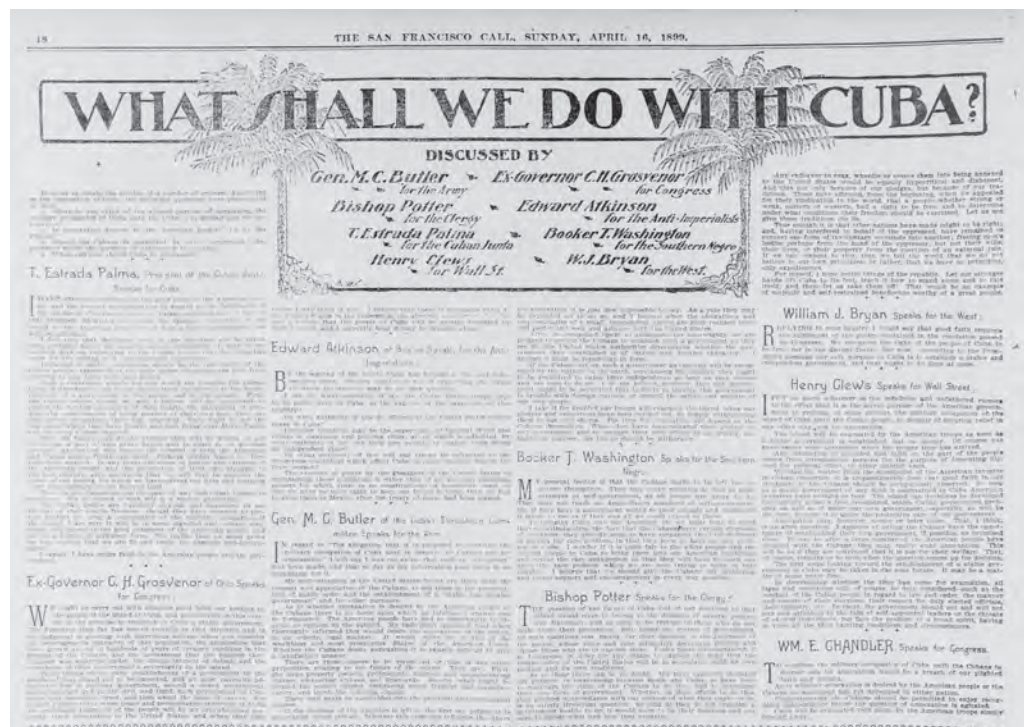
Strategy Four: Setup for a Simulation

Goal: Students analyze a primary source article to establish a point of view for a simulation.

Understanding point of view is a key skill in thinking historically. In this article, eight Americans answer the question “What shall we do with Cuba?” in 1899.

For this simulation, individual students (or groups of students) will be given one of eight roles. The date is Sunday, April 16, 1899. Students will be asked to read their primary source and answer the following questions to establish their point of view:

- What is the alleged purpose of continuing the military occupation of Cuba until Cubans, in despair, ask for annexation?
- Is annexation desired by the American people? The Cuban people?
- Should Cubans be permitted to enjoy recognized independence before the question of annexation is agitated?
- When and how should Cuba be evacuated?



“What Shall We Do With Cuba?,” *San Francisco Call*, April 16, 1899
<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn85066387/1899-04-16/ed-1/seq-18/>

Once students establish their point of view, the debate can begin. Some prompts for discussion, activity, or further exploration:

- There are two men who “Speak for Congress” within this article. Split up and look at the similarities and differences of the two. Who do you agree with more? Why?
- The two men who are in Cuba also have differing views. Compare and contrast the views of the president of Cuba Junte, T. Estrada Palma, and General M.C. Butler of the Cuban Evacuation Committee.
- Let’s get creative: Take a look at Booker T. Washington’s views on Cuban annexation and think about what a white southerner might say. Would it be the same or different?
- How would an ordinary Cuban citizen react? Write his or her response.
- Imagine you are a citizen reading this newspaper. Write to your member of Congress and express your opinion on U.S. actions in Cuba.
- Compare and contrast the opinion of an American farmer in Iowa versus an immigrant factory worker in New York City. How would they feel about the annexation of Cuba?

Strategy Five: Generating Buzz

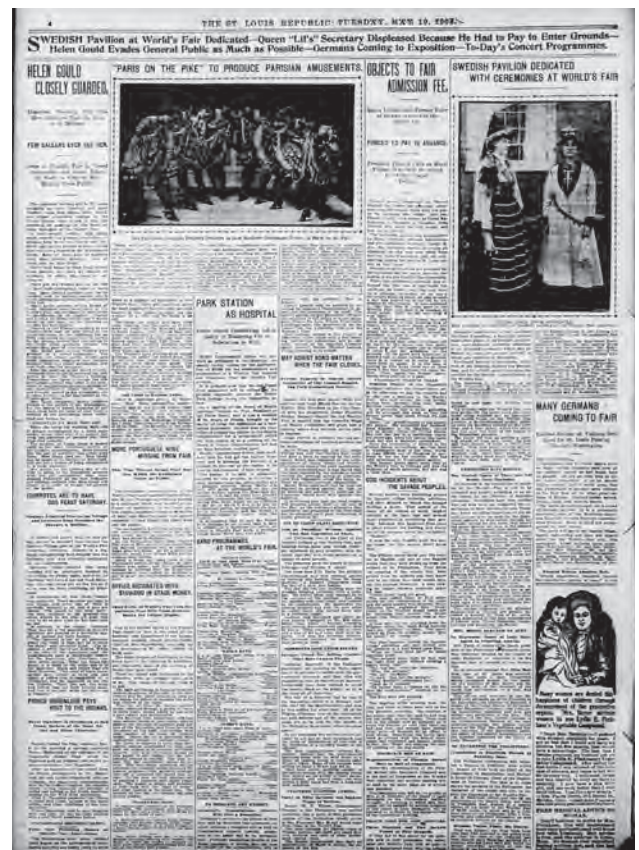
Goal: Students create “buzz-worthy” questions based on a page of a newspaper.

Sometimes in studying history we forget that people were, well, people. It can be fun and educational to take a look at a society page, to get an idea about how people lived during a period and what they would have been talking about on their way to work and in their homes. This buzz is historical context.

Newspapers do a great job of helping students understand historical context. In this activity, students are given one page of a newspaper and asked buzz-worthy questions to get them discussing the context of an event, in this case the 1904 World’s Fair in St. Louis.

“Helen Gould Closely Guarded”

- Describe some of the ways Gould stays anonymous even in such a high-profile place as a World’s Fair.
- Do you think those tactics can work in today’s world, especially considering the Internet?
- Do you think the same precautions would have been taken if Gould had been a man?
- Looking at the page as a whole:
 - Consider what these articles are about in general. Are they hard-hitting news stories? How does this compare to what is published today?
 - What was your favorite story on this page?
 - What does this page tell us about life in 1904?



The St. Louis Republic, May 10, 1904
<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84020274/1904-05-10/ed-1/seq-4/>
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Strategy Six: Using an Advertisement as a Primary Source

Goal: Students analyze an advertisement to gain historical perspective.

Advertisements provide fascinating insights into economic issues. This 1919 ad for Cuba promotes economic investment potential and refers to Cuba as “the Land of Opportunity” and the “Richest Country in the World.”

Analysis activities:

- Before students read the advertisement, ask what they think is different from and what is the same as advertisements today.
- What is this advertisement’s goal?
- What are some of the ways the ad tries to convince readers to come to Cuba?
- There are not many images, but that makes the ones used even more important. Why do you think they chose the few they did?
- Who do you think paid for this advertisement, and why?

Synthesis activities:

- Consider the world in 1919 and why people might want to move at this time (consider both push and pull factors). Have students choose another location and create an advertisement to entice immigrants.
- If you made this advertisement for the U.S. in 1919, what would it look like?
- Use this advertisement as a springboard to discuss other topics that resulted in challenges in U.S.-Cuba relations (Spanish-American War, Platt Amendment, Bay of Pigs, Cuban Missile Crisis, embargo).

NEW YORK TRIBUNE, TUESDAY, APRIL 15, 1919

CUBA

The Land of Opportunity

Do You Know that Cuba is the Richest Country in the World?

(Do you know that the money circulation today in Cuba is \$200 per capita against \$54.80 in the United States?)

THE Barlow-Cuba Company of Havana, with headquarters in Cuba represented by over \$4,000,000, has established at 4 East 13th Street in New York City, a branch office in the United States, and will endeavor to make Cuba better known to the people of New York and other American cities.

We want you to know something about the stupendous development of Cuba in the past few years, and what this development means for the future.

"Cuba, the World's Sugar Bowl" — "Cuba, the Land of Opportunity" — "Cuba, the real Treasure Island" — "Cuba, the Modern Land of Promise" — that is what Cuba is, and more, too. Not because investors are interested only because the army of tourists who enjoy its hospitality and sunshine in overwhelming numbers praise it with such enthusiasm, but also because commercially, industrially, financially, Cuba has found itself and passed itself.

And yet this is only the beginning of Cuba's prosperity, thanks to the enterprising spirit of the Cuban themselves, and to American capital and management.

Fortune has been and are being made in Cuba, and more opportunities will be made there in the immediate future, because the real development, the intense progress, development of Cuba is only just starting.

Cuba, the World's Sugar Bowl!

In 1911 sugar exports from Cuba were sold for \$52,342,835.

In 1917 sugar exports amounted to \$140,000,000.

The crop for this year, 1919, is officially estimated as being worth \$191,751,471, including \$5,000,000 worth of molasses.

To appreciate what these sugar exports signify to the economic life of Cuba, picture by comparison the vast steam sailing in and out of New York, Baltimore, Boston, New Orleans, Galveston, San Francisco, Seattle, and all other ports of the United States carrying wheat and other grains, beef and other packing house products, lumber and forest products, iron and other mine products, cotton and machinery and other manufactures, with considerable other items. All these United States exports carried by all these ships were valued, per capita, at:

In 1911 \$22
In 1917 \$57
In 1919 \$113

The Cuban Sugar Exports were valued, per capita, at:

In 1911 \$57
In 1917 \$113
In 1919 \$226

And the returns crop has averaged \$50,000,000 annually for the last ten years.

Think what all this means for the future of Cuba.

LETTER FROM J. L. BARLOW

Barlow-Cuba Company

The Barlow-Cuba Company's Service to Manufacturers and Exporters

The Barlow-Cuba Company has established its headquarters in Havana, Cuba, and is now operating in New York City, New Orleans, Galveston, San Francisco, Seattle, and all other ports of the United States carrying wheat and other grains, beef and other packing house products, lumber and forest products, iron and other mine products, cotton and machinery and other manufactures, with considerable other items. All these United States exports carried by all these ships were valued, per capita, at:

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BARLOW-CUBA Co.

J. L. BARLOW, President
New York Office: 4 East 13th Street

New-York Tribune, April 15, 1919
<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83030214/1919-04-15/ed-1/seq-17/>

Strategy Seven: Create an Anticipatory Guide to Access Prior Knowledge

Goal: Before reading an article, students answer questions. Then, as they read the article, they correct mistakes and all false statements.

Anticipatory sets can help pique students' interest, as well as give them a purpose for reading. Before giving students the article, ask them to mark the following statements as true or false. As they read, they evaluate their responses and correct their mistakes.

- There are more British physicians than American physicians.
- There are more than 250 mission stations.
- For each American missionary, there are 375,000 Chinese people.
- The Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church in the United States only deals with organized churches.
- Tibet has the greatest number of mission stations.
- Methodist and Congregationalist missionaries are primarily popular in the province of Chi-li.
- The American Bible Society is the most influential missionary organization in China.
- The first Protestant missionary in China was Young J. Allen.
- The first religious missionaries to arrive in China were the Roman Catholics in the 1400s.
- Monuments such as those erected by the Nestorians mark the history of the efforts of Christian missionaries in China.



Salt Lake City Tribune, June 3, 1906
<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83045396/1906-06-03/ed-1/seq-21/>

Strategy Eight: Write the Article

Goal: Students write an article based on a real news headline.

Students need to know how to write in all types of formats, and teachers need creative ways to assess student learning. After students learn about the Zimmermann Telegram, give them the header of the article and ask them to write the text.



The Washington Times, March 1, 1917
<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84026749/1917-03-01/ed-1/seq-1/>

Strategy Nine: Write the Headline

Goal: Students create a headline based on a real news article.

This approach is the converse of strategy eight: Given the text, have students write the headline. Then show them the real headline. Remember, the secret is not really in writing the headline, it is in reading and processing key information from the article.

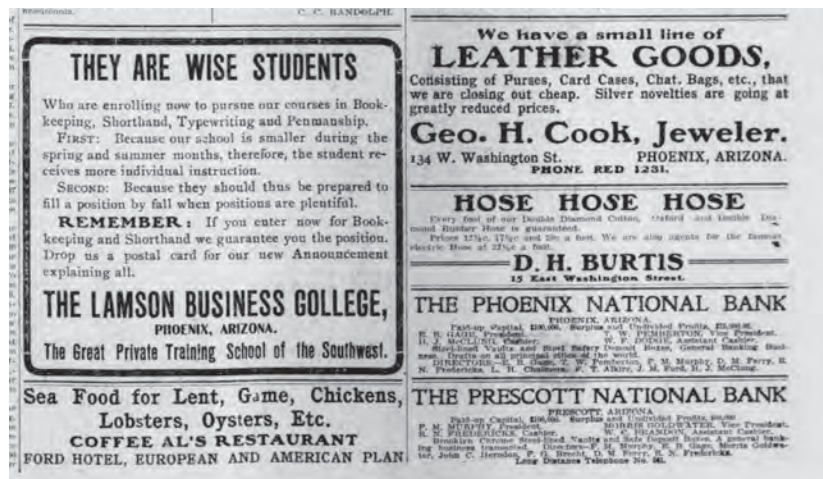


Bisbee Daily Review, September 16, 1909
<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84024827/1909-09-16/ed-1/seq-1/>

Strategy Ten: Use Advertisements to Set Historical Context

Goal: Students use contextual clues from advertisements to construct a historical context.

In helping to develop context, show students real advertisements from the time period. Allow them to analyze the ads and ask questions. You will be surprised at what interests them and how they can connect life in the past with life today!



Arizona Republican, February 29, 1904

<http://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84020558/1904-02-29/ed-1/seq-1/>



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Background photo by Alyse Bortolotto.

Taking a Stand in History: WORLD WAR II IN CHINA, BURMA, AND INDIA

Charlene Fontaine and Susan Makris, Flying Tigers 69th DRS Association

The China-Burma-India Theater offers teachers and students fantastic case studies of men, women, and armies taking a stand against tyranny during World War II. This theater provides many opportunities for students to consider some topics in World War II outside of the mainstream choices.

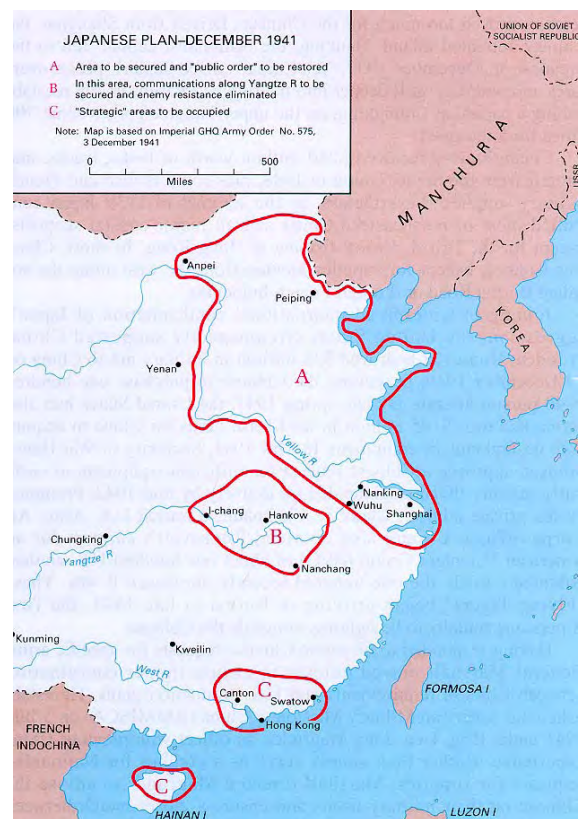
Invasion of China

World War II in Asia began in 1931, when Japan invaded China to gain access to Chinese natural resources and bolster its own geopolitical standing. China refused to surrender, and thousands of Chinese lost their lives resisting the occupation. In 1937, the Japanese launched a second attack, and in 1940 President Franklin D. Roosevelt announced that the United States would assist China.

Supporting China posed two significant challenges for the United States. First, China had been embroiled in a civil war between Nationalist leader Chiang Kai-shek and Communist leader Mao Zedong, resulting in political complications for Allied powers attempting to help the Chinese resist a Japanese takeover. In addition, Japanese expansion in the Pacific resulted in major challenges for supply routes. With the Japanese navy hampering shipping in the Pacific, transport planes were needed to get supplies over the Himalayan Mountains, to reach Allied forces in China.¹

The Flying Tigers

Chiang Kai-shek's wife, Madame Chiang, who was serving as the head of the Chinese Air Task Force, approached Claire Chennault, a retired U.S. military leader, for assistance. Chennault organized an American Volunteer Group (AVG) of decommissioned U.S. military pilots and ground crews. Known as the "Flying Tigers," they would be official members of the Chinese Air Task Force, stationed in China. After training in Rangoon, Burma, in 1941, the volunteers were divided into three squadrons and dispatched to protect the Burma Road, a key supply route to China.²



This map shows the Japanese plan to expand their control in China in December 1941. Map courtesy of the U.S. Army Center of Military History.

¹ *The U.S. Army Campaigns of World War II: China Defensive*, U.S. Center of Military History, last modified October 3, 2003, accessed January 20, 2016, <http://www.history.army.mil/brochures/72-38/72-38.htm>.

² Pamela Feltus, "Claire Chennault and the Flying Tigers of World War II," United States Department of Defense, last modified August 5, 2015, accessed January 20, 2016, <http://archive.defense.gov/home/articles/2005-12/a121905wm1.html>.

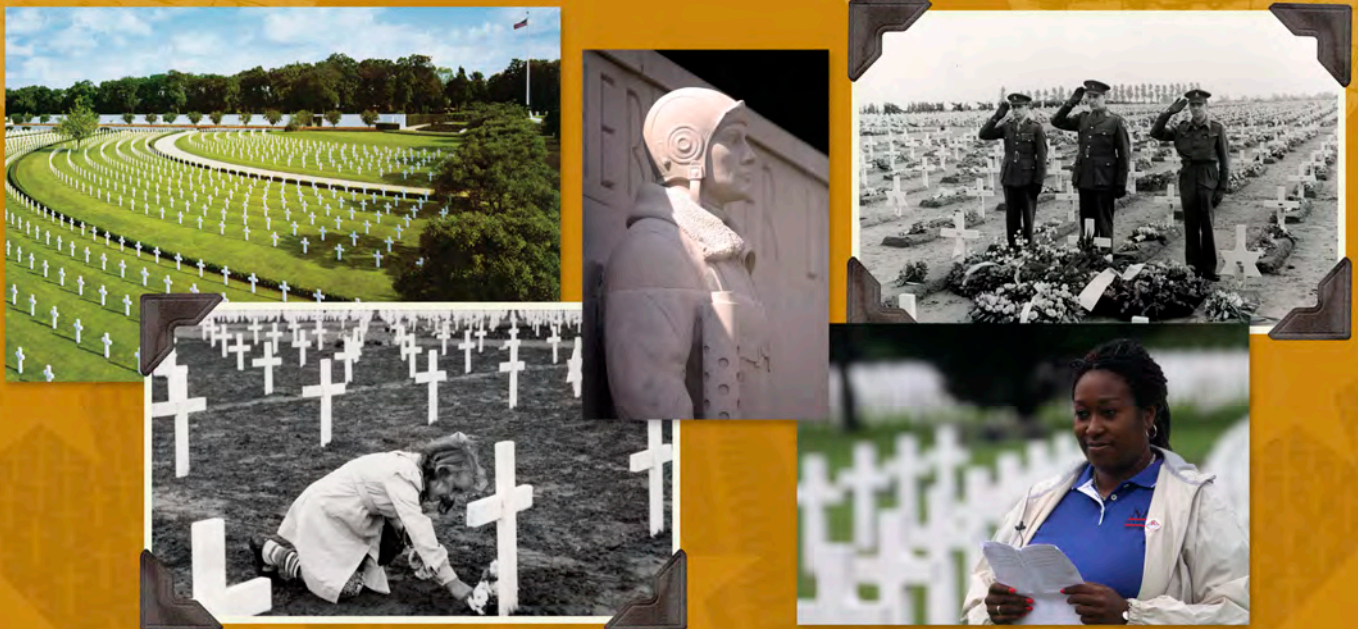


UNDERSTANDING SACRIFICE

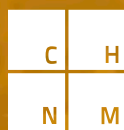


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Burma Road

Following the Japanese invasion, only two routes existed to reach China: a small railroad from Haiphong, French Indonesia (modern Vietnam), and the Burma Road, a rough, 712-mile-long gravel highway linking Lashio, Burma (now Myanmar), to Kunming, China.³ From December 1941 to July 1942, some Flying Tigers were based in Burma, to protect the western side of the Burma Road. During that period, the AVG pilots reportedly destroyed 297 enemy planes, while suffering the loss of only nine P-40s and ten pilots. When Burma fell to the Japanese in 1942, the Flying Tigers were forced to evacuate, leaving behind many of their aircraft and supplies.⁴

Flying “The Hump”

The Japanese conquest of Burma essentially shut down the land routes into China, forcing Allied forces to move heavy loads by airlift from India and Burma into China over the Himalayas—“The Hump” route. Because these were high-altitude flights, the pilots and their crews had to use oxygen and deal with numbing cold. They often encountered severe weather, including dense clouds, fog, monsoon rains, ice, and turbulence—as well as enemy fire.

The AVG’s successes can be credited to its innovative tactics, including the creation of a Chinese air warning system that consisted of a vast network of locals. These individuals also located and gave aid to AVG pilots who had crashed, as well as helped to find downed enemy planes. The AVG was disbanded in July 1942, and the Flying Tiger nickname was adopted by the Fourteenth Air Force. In addition to protecting air bases in eastern China from Japanese forces, the unit was credited with liberating prisoners of war held by the Japanese, including foreign nationals and missionaries from Britain, Australia, North America, New Zealand, and other countries, who had been living in China when Japan invaded.⁵ Many had been held for years in



A Chinese soldier guards a line of American P-40 fighter planes, painted with the shark-face emblem of the “Flying Tigers,” at a flying field somewhere in China. Photograph courtesy of the National Archives and Records Administration (NWDNS-208-AA-12X-21).



This map shows the Japanese invasion of Burma in April and May 1942. Map courtesy of the U.S. Army Center of Military History.

³ *The U.S. Army Campaigns of World War II: Burma, 1942*, U.S. Center of Military History, last modified October 3, 2003, accessed January 20, 2016, <http://www.history.army.mil/brochures/burma42/burma42.htm>.

⁴ Guangqiu Xu, “The Issue of US Air Support for China during the Second World War, 1942-45,” *Journal of Contemporary History* 36(3): 461

⁵ Guangqiu Xu, “Americans and Chinese National Military Aviation, 1929-1949,” *Journal of Asian History* 31(2): 174.

internment camps such as the Weihsien (Weixian) Internment Camp in Weifang, China.

Driving the Ledo-Burma Road

Flying over the Himalayas was dangerous and cost prohibitive. In order for the Allied forces to continue pushing back the Japanese in China, they also needed ground supply routes. There were many obstacles on the roads leading to China from central Asia, including the Himalayan Mountains, jungles, rivers that had to be spanned via suspension bridges, swamps, lots of mud, and plenty of dangerous wildlife.

Between 1942 and 1945, the Ledo Road was rebuilt by American soldiers, many of whom were African Americans. Originating in Ledo, India, it connected with sections of the Burma Road and ended in Kunming, China (a distance of over 1,000 miles). Building it necessitated every type of equipment one could imagine: bulldozers, elephants, donkeys, shovels, picks, sticks, and human hands. Under the leadership of Brigadier General Lewis A. Pick, the road nicknamed "Pick's Pike" had to be built through rain forests, over mountains, and through swamps. Along the way it crossed ten major rivers, requiring engineers to construct more than 700 bridges.⁶



A photograph from Sergeant John Gutman shows a U.S. Army soldier and a Chinese soldier placing the flag of their ally on the front of their jeep just before the first truck convoy in almost three years crossed the Chinese border. Photograph courtesy of the National Archives and Records Administration (208-AA-338A-1).

69th Depot Repair Squadron

Often students can find inspiration in various military units and their roles in the theater. For troops deployed to support the China–Burma–India Theater, the journey west was full of adventure and danger. In 1945, the 69th Depot Repair Squadron (DRS) deployed from San Antonio, Texas, to Riverside, California. From there they sailed to Melbourne, Australia, and eventually to Bombay, India. In India, they were divided into convoys to travel the treacherous roads to Kunming, China. While in China, the squadron's jobs included maintaining and driving convoys as well as maintaining and servicing American fighter planes, transports, and bombers.⁷



69th DRS trucks driving through a rock overhang on the Burma Road. Photograph courtesy of Lieutenant Richard Vogh, Flying Tigers 69th DRS Association.

Women Serving in the China-Burma-India Theater

During World War II, women served in all branches of the military and were involved in all theaters of the war. Their jobs ranged from clerks to nurses to pilots.

In July 1944, U.S. General Joseph Stillwell agreed to allow members of the Women's Army Corp (WACs) to serve in the Asian Theater. Many worked

⁶ Donald M. Bishop, "The United States and China During World War II: An Operational Outline," Embassy of the United States, Beijing, updated September 15, 2005, accessed January 20, 2015, <http://beijing.usembassy-china.org.cn/ww2operationaloutline.html>.

⁷ "History of the 69'ers," Flying Tigers D.R.S. Association, accessed January 27, 2016, <http://www.flyingtigers69thdrs.com/learn/history-of-the-69ers/>.

as stenographers, typists, file clerks, and telephone and telegraph operators. Three WACs, including Sergeant Henrietta Williams, were awarded the Air Medal, Williams for her work on an aerial reconnaissance mapping team.⁸



This 1944 U.S. government recruiting poster specifically targeted women, asking them to join “For your country’s sake today—For your own sake tomorrow.” Image courtesy of Armed Forces History, National Museum of American History (59413-M, 167949).

Conclusion

The China–Burma–India Theater provides many wonderful examples of men and women who took a stand, both individually and collectively. These Americans were tasked with perilous missions in the air as well as on land to open up supply routes and free China from Japanese control. We can honor them today by taking our stand in history on their shoulders—by remembering what they did and telling their stories. How will you take a stand in history?

To learn more about those who served in the China–Burma–India Theater, check out these resources:

- **Experiencing War: China–Burma–India, Library of Congress**
<http://www.loc.gov/vets/stories/ex-war-cbi.html>
- **Veterans History Project, Library of Congress**
<http://www.loc.gov/vets/>
- **Oral History Collection, National World War II Museum**
<http://www.nationalww2museum.org/see-hear/collections/oral-histories/>
- **History of the Transportation Corps, U.S. Army**
<http://www.transportation.army.mil/history/UnitHistories.html>
- **Flying Tigers of World War II, HISTORY®**
<http://www.history.com/topics/world-war-ii/world-war-ii-history/videos/the-flying-tigers-of-world-war-ii>
- **Flying Tigers 69th DRS Association**
<http://flyingtigers69thdrs.org/>
- **A Prelude to War, the Flying Tigers, National Archives and Records Administration**
http://www.archives.gov/exhibits/a_people_at_war/prelude_to_war/flying_tigers.html



For more information, resources, and ideas for NHD 2017, visit www.nhd.org/themebook

⁸ Judith A. Bellafaire, *The Women’s Army Corps: A Commemoration of World War II Service*, U.S. Center of Military History, last updated on February 17, 2005, accessed January 20, 2016, <http://www.history.army.mil/brochures/wac/wac.htm>.



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