NATIONAL HISTORY DAY 2013 EXEVNT: CABA STATE PEOPLE PROPERTY OF PROPE NATIONAL HISTORY DAY

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PROGRAM ACCREDITATION:

American Association for State and Local History American Historical Association Federation of State Humanities Councils National Council for the Social Studies Organization of American Historians

The National Association of Secondary School Principals has placed National History Day on the NASSP National Advisory List of Contest and Activities

NATIONAL HISTORY DAY IS PLEASED TO THANK THE NATIONAL PARK SERVICE FOR THE SPONSORSHIP OF THE 2013 THEME BOOK

NHD ALSO THANKS ITS GENEROUS NATIONAL SPONSORS

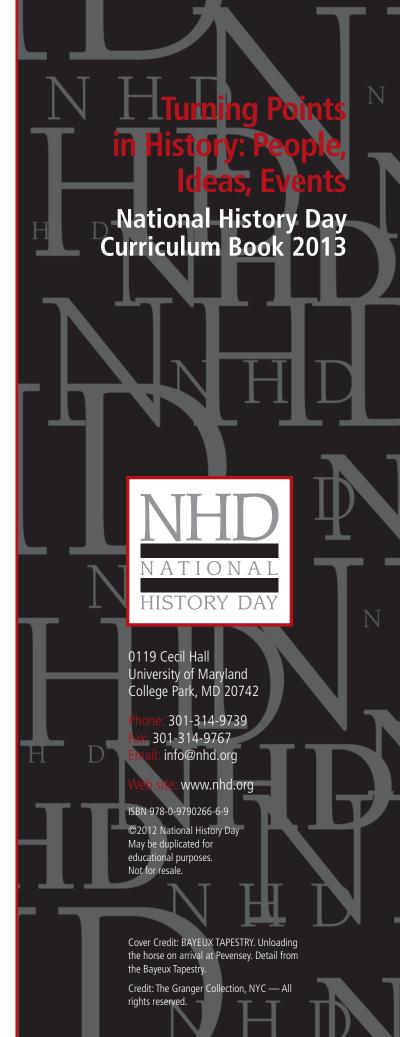


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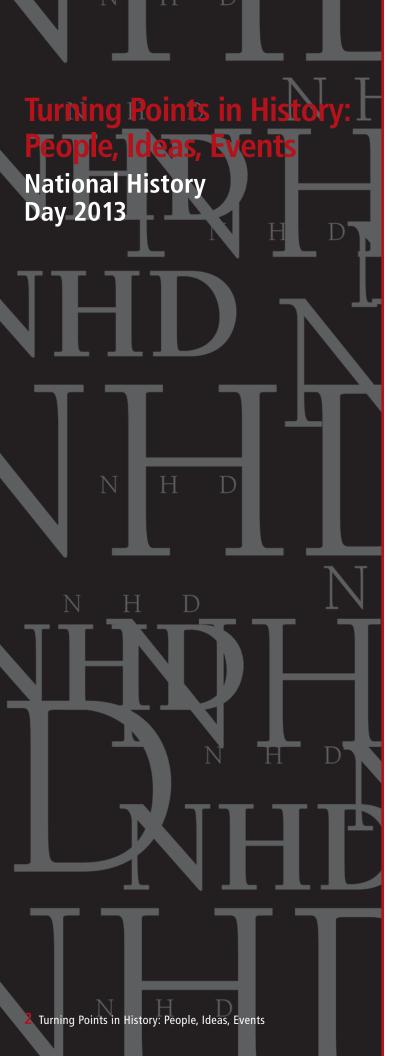


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This year's theme *Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events* is an exciting theme for research and is an apt description of National History Day as it enters its fourth decade of supporting students learning history. NHD is not getting older but is gaining in momentum: serving 600,000 students and 30,000 teachers across the U.S. and U.S. territories, in Department of Defense schools in Europe and Japan and in the program's fastest growing region — Asia — where there are fourteen schools in China, eight schools in Korea and twelve schools in Indonesia with a new program developing at an American school in the Congo. In addition to the increase in participation, NHD received several prestigious national awards: the Paul Gagnon Award from the National Council for History Education and the Midwest Archives Conference President's Award from the Midwest Archives recognizing National History Day for Excellence in History Education. In February 2012, Dr. Cathy Gorn was invited to a special ceremony hosted by President Obama to receive one of only nine highly coveted National Humanities Awards presented each year. National History Day received the only award given to an educational program. Read more about this award on page 21.

The theme *Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events* focuses on a point in time when history shifted because of a personal decision in the life of one person, or a political choice affecting millions; it might be an event or idea with global or local consequences; it might be the life of a single person who inspires or affects other people. Sometimes a turning point has immediate repercussions, making its significance obvious to people at the time; sometimes, however, the impact of the event or idea is only clear in retrospect. Whatever the selected research topic, the research must show a significant change in history because of a person, idea or event.

Thanks to the generous sponsorship of this year's theme book, we have four outstanding articles that serve as samples of decisive moments or turning points in history. On pages 22-44, an excellent civil rights lesson from the Teaching with Historic Places series developed by the National Park Service examines Civil Rights through public schooling: *Canterbury to Little Rock* and a lesser-known turning point of the Civil War: *The Battle of Glorieta Pass: A Shattered Dream*, also from the Teaching with Historic Places series. Other topic ideas for this year's theme include articles by Nathan Huegen from the National World War II Museum in Louisiana, *Turning Points in the Twentieth Century: World War II.* The article discusses turning points through the voices of veterans in their newest oral history project. Women and Turning Points, submitted by The National Women's Museum, presents a fresh look at turning points in women's history on page 16.

In addition, the theme book includes three articles on how to work with student researchers: A very important discussion as we continue to see more sources digitized and the use of the Internet expanding: *Plagiarism and Writing History* by Michael Kern; Lee Ann Potter from the National Archives explored integrating *Turning Points in History* throughout the school year with *An Archival Adventure for Students: What Changed after This Date*; Kim Gilmore, a historian and educator from HISTORY $^{\text{TM}}$ highlights the best resources from our long-time sponsor: *What's New in HISTORY* $^{\text{TM}}$?

Finally, please note the newly published book on the spirit of who we are as Americans through literature and our history: *So Proudly We Hail* by Amy and Leon Kass is a **must** for every history teacher's bookshelf.

Don't forget to download NHD's newest addition to teacher resources, *Teaching the Civil War in the 21st Century* at http://nhd.org/ClassroomConnection.htm.



N H D N H D

WHAT IS NATIONAL HISTORY DAY?

National History Day (NHD) is an opportunity for teachers and students to engage in real historical research. National History Day is not a predetermined by-the-book program but an innovative curriculum framework in which students learn history by selecting topics of interest and launching into a year-long research project. The purpose of National History Day is to improve the teaching and learning of history in middle and high schools. NHD is a meaningful way for students to study historical issues, ideas, people and events by engaging in historical research. When studying history through historical research, students and teachers practice critical inquiry: asking questions of significance, time and place. Through careful questioning, history students are immersed in a detective story too engaging to stop reading.

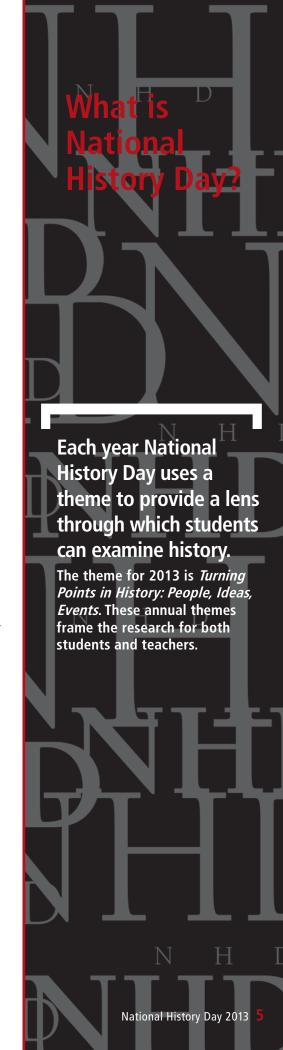
Beginning in the fall, students choose a topic related to the annual theme and conduct extensive primary and secondary research. After analyzing and interpreting their sources and drawing conclusions about their topics' significance in history, students then present their work in original papers, exhibits, performances, websites and documentaries. These projects are entered into competitions in the spring at local, state and national levels where they are evaluated by professional historians and educators. The program culminates with 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 2013 is *Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events.* The annual theme frames the research for both students and teachers. The theme 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 meet their interests. Program expectations and guidelines are explicitly provided for students, but the research journey is created by the process and is unique to the historical research. Throughout the year students learn about their heritage and develop essential life skills by fostering academic achievement and intellectual curiosity. 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 the state 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.

National History Day breathes life into the traditional history curriculum by engaging students and teachers in a hands-on and in-depth approach to studying the past. By focusing on a theme, students are introduced to a new organizational structure of learning history. Teachers are supported in introducing highly complex research strategies to students. When NHD is implemented in the classroom, students are involved in a life-changing learning experience.



National D History Day 2013 Theme: Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events

...a turning point in history is more than just an important event that happened a long time ago. It is an idea, event or action that directly, and sometimes indirectly, caused change...

SATURDAY EVENING POST. 'Saturday Evening Post' cover, 1917. The Granger Collection, NYC — All rights reserved. Turning Points in History

NATIONAL HISTORY DAY 2013 THEME: TURNING POINTS IN HISTORY: PEOPLE, IDEAS, EVENTS

By Adrienne Pritchard

Adrienne Pritchard is the Contest Manager for National History Day.

Congratulations on beginning your National History Day journey! This year's theme is *Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events*. For those of you who have traveled this road before, you know that creating a great NHD project takes you out of the classroom and into exciting libraries, museums and archives in search of primary sources related to your topic. And since you get to choose the topic, you know that you will be interested in learning about it! You will discover history firsthand - seeing the very documents or historic sites that you read about in your textbook and, based on your research, come to your own conclusions about historical events. For those of you who are brand new to the National History Day experience, welcome! You may be wondering where to begin this challenge and to that question we answer, right here! Reading through this theme sheet will give you guidance on the 2013 theme, *Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events*, helping you to successfully choose an interesting historical topic to research for your project.

Perhaps the first question you are asking yourself is, what exactly is a turning point in history? The dictionary defines 'turning point' as a point at which a decisive change takes place. So a turning point in history is more than just an important event that happened a long time ago. It is an idea, event or action that directly, and sometimes indirectly, caused change. This change could be social or cultural, affecting a society's way of thinking or way of acting. It could be political, leading to new legislation or to a new government taking charge. It could be economic, affecting how goods are produced, bought and sold, or how much or how little a society has to spend on such items. A turning point can even cause all of these changes and more.

Okay, you say, but how do I know what changes my topic has caused? Ah, good question. This is where you begin to dig for information about the time period in which it occurred, where it happened, the people involved and what else was going on in that area at that time. In other words, you are studying the context of your topic. This is one of the most important aspects of historical research. Events do not just happen all by themselves - there are always factors involving time, place and people that influence the causes and effects. Don't just think about how you understand the topic but also how people at the time thought about what was happening. It is important to examine the historical context of your topic so that you see your topic more clearly, understanding the "big picture." *Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events* always have at least two sides or opposing perspectives. Part of being a thorough researcher is looking at a topic from all angles to see the whole story. Discovering the historical background of your topic will allow you to do this.

Now that you have a better idea of the historical context of your topic, you can narrow in on the turning point more precisely. What act, idea or event caused a change in how people thought or what they did? How about the effects: new ideas, new laws, new technologies, new cultural standards? And how did these develop over time? What was the end result? Your answers to these questions will provide the historical evidence you need to form a conclusion about the event's significance in history and the impact that it had. Speaking of significance in

history, don't forget the very important "in history" part of the theme. To fit the theme, your topic must truly be historical and not just a current event or recent idea.

Remember that you can choose to focus on a turning point in local, state, national or world history. When many people think of significant turning points that changed the course of history, one of the first things that often comes to mind is wars. World War II significantly changed the hierarchy of nations as new global powers emerged and also altered large portions of the map as some nations were divided or added together with new borders and new identities. But to successfully choose a topic related to World War II, for example, you should focus on specific aspects of the war. An exhibit could discuss a turning point within the war, such as Guadalcanal in the Pacific or the invasion of Normandy on the European front. A web site could examine the war itself as a turning point in a particular geographical area, or even in a specific aspect of life for a group of people. To sustain economic needs with so many men at war, women in the United States increasingly held jobs in previously male-dominated fields such as manufacturing. How did this become a turning point for women's equality, and how did it affect their lives after the war? Did this happen for women in other countries too?

Or what about human advancements? How was the discovery of penicillin a major turning point in medical care? A performance could show how agricultural innovations such as irrigation and the use of fertilizer changed how crops are grown, creating a much more efficient method that can produce food for millions of people. You could also look at Henry Ford and how his advancements in the manufacturing of automobiles changed the way goods were mass produced. How has society and the world economy changed as a result? A web site could explore how the Interstate Highway Act led to the staggering growth of the American suburbs and how that was a turning point in American society. Gutenberg's printing press was a crucial turning point, leading to greater access to information. How did this affect education and communication? What religious implications did this have? How did it help advance the fields of science and art?

Environmental factors and natural events can also be explored. You could look at how the discovery of gold in California shifted the American focus and launched the great westward expansion. How did this further affect land rights, relations with the Native Americans and the map of the United States? Or what about turning points in the business world? A paper could explain how the Sherman Anti-Trust Act changed the scene of big business monopolies and gave the U.S. federal government power to protect competition in trade. What effects did this have on the businesses, the people involved or future related events?

You should also think about new ideas and the people who have been a part of significant turning points. How was Gandhi's "Quit India" movement a catalyst for change in India? Did the British imprisonment of the Congress set the stage for the Muslim League to gain ground in its "Pakistan Movement?" Or what about the development of the Impressionist movement in Paris? How did the artists' desire to capture change and fleeting moments change how people viewed art? A performance could explain how the case of *Brown v. Board of Education* was a significant turning point not only for civil rights, but also in the American public school system. People who brought the injustice and suffering of a group to the attention of the general public have also caused great change. A documentary could discover how the photography of Lewis Hine showcased the plight of child laborers. How did this lead to legislation that protected children in the workplace? What effects did this have on other aspects of manufacturing?

As you can see, the theme *Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events* has exciting possibilities for choosing a research topic. Think about the sorts of things you are interested in and then think about how they have changed the course of history. Almost any topic – from sports, to television, to science – can be turned into a National History Day project. You can begin brainstorming topic ideas with your classmates, your teachers and your parents. Read about areas of history that interest you and see what important turning points you discover. You can search on the internet or search through your textbook. It might be handy to carry a notebook with a list of topic ideas and as you find information, circle those you are interested in and cross off those that no longer seem appealing. Once you find the topic that fits the theme and interests you most, go ahead and jump right into research. Your local library is an excellent place to start!

Sample Topics: Some Turning Points in History

SOME TURNING POINTS IN HISTORY: PEOPLE, IDEAS, EVENTS:

- Reign of Terror: Radicalization of the French Revolution
- The Treaty of Versailles in 1918 and its Consequences
- Valley Forge and the Development of the Continental Army
- The Continental Association and the Coming of the American Revolution
- John Maynard Keynes and the influence of Keynesian Economics
- Brown v. Board of Education and the integration of American Schools
- Federal Power and the Case of McCulloch v. Maryland
- Plessy v. Ferguson and the Growth of Jim Crow
- Eleanor of Aguitaine's Pivotal Role in the High Middle Ages
- Ronald Reagan and the Resurgence of Conservatism in America
- The Effects of the Fall of Constantinople
- William the Conqueror and the Course of English History
- The Interstate Highway Act of 1956 and the Growth of Suburban America
- Martin Luther's 95 Theses and the Coming of the Protestant Reformation
- Turning Points of the Korean War: China's Entry
- The International Women's Day Strike in Petrograd: Spark of the Russian Revolution
- The Impact of Buddha's Teaching on India
- Ptolemy's Conquest of Egypt and the Growth of Kushite Civilization
- Consequences of the Recapture of Jerusalem by Salah ah Din
- Television in the 1950s and the Transformation of American Entertainment
- Genghis Khan and the Pax Mongolia

- Battle of Sekigahara and the Rise of Tokugawas
- Invention of the Spinning Jenny and the Rise of the Textile Industry
- The Great Migration of African Americans to the North and its Consequences
- The Russo-Japanese War: Introduction of Japan as a World Power
- First Victory of the Women's Suffrage Movement: Norwegian Women Gain the Right to Vote
- The Fall of the Berlin Wall and the Decline of the Soviet Empire
- The Transformative Impact of the Printing Press
- Bacon's Rebellion and the Transformation of Virginia
- Effects of the Crusades on Medieval Europe
- King Phillip's War and its Impact
- Ms. Magazine and the growth of the Feminist Movement
- 1492: A New World for America and Europe
- The Third Punic War and the End of Carthage
- Revocation of the Edict of Nantes and the Huguenot Migration
- Publication of the Koran and the Expansion of Islam
- Mary Wollstonecraft and the Early Women's Rights Movement
- Prince Henry the Navigator and Portugal's Exploration of Africa
- Irish Potato Famine and the Irish Diaspora
- Clovis and the Unification of France
- Midway: Turning the Tide in the Pacific War
- Walter Reed and the Conquest of Yellow Fever
- The Civilian Conservation Corps: Savior of Young Men
- The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo and the Coming of the Civil War

- The Impact of the Erie Canal
- Changing Middle East Politics: The Rise of OPEC
- The Sinking of the USS Maine and the Beginning of the Spanish American War
- The Great Railroad Strike of 1877 and the American Labor Movement
- Walt Disney and Mickey Mouse: A Cultural Transformation
- The Beatles and the British Invasion
- The Ayatollah Khomeini and the Islamic Revolution in Iran
- Roger Williams and the Separation of Church and State
- Watergate and the Weakening of the Presidency
- Breaking the Barrier: Jackie Robinson
- The Keating-Owen Act and Child Labor
- Birth of a Sugar-Planting Colony: The Dutch Occupation of Brazil
- The Great Fire of London and its Aftermath
- Harvard: First College of the Colonies
- Brigham Young and the Mormon Migration to Utah
- Samuel Gompers and the Founding of the American Federation of Labor
- The Marshall Plan and the Reconstruction of Postwar Europe
- The Homestead Act and the Settlement of the West
- Ho Chi Minh: Revolutionary Leader
- Henry Ford: Changing the Production Model
- The Tet Offensive and American Public Opinion
- Sears Roebuck Catalogue and the Rise of Mass Consumerism
- Rachael Carson's Silent Spring and the Growth of the Environmental Movement
- The Impact of Sigmund Freud on Psychiatric Practice
- Gorbachev, Glasnost and Perestorika: The Trifecta for the Soviet Union
- Lech Walesa and the Gdanska Shipyard Strike: The Rise of Solidarity
- Curt Flood and Free Agency Baseball
- Harry Truman: Changing the Way We Fight War and the Dropping of the Bomb



IN ESTIMATE BOARD

SOVIET BIDS VIENNA City Colleges' Board 2 TAX PROJECTS DIE

CEASE 'INTRIGUES'

National History Day 2013

SEGREGATION HEADLINE, 1954. Front page of The New York Times, 18 May 1954, announcing the upreme Court decision in the Brown v. Board of Education school segregation case. The Granger Collection, NYC — All rights reserved.

An Archival Adventure for Students

"What Changed After This Date"

AN ARCHIVAL ADVENTURE FOR STUDENTS: "WHAT CHANGED AFTER THIS DATE"

By Lee Ann Potter

Lee Ann Potter is the Director of Education for The National Archives Records Administration.

A few years ago, the Education Team at the National Archives in Washington, DC, developed an Archival Adventure for visitors entitled "What Changed After This Date." As with all of the team's Archival Adventures, it is an activity that addresses specific historical thinking skills, encourages document analysis and research, and employs a gaming approach.

To get students excited about this year's National History Day theme, you may wish to engage them in a round or two of "What Changed After This Date."

You will need:

- 12 file folders, each labeled with the months of the year
- Facsimiles of documents related to significant events that happened in each month (below is a sampling to get you started).

Procedure:

- 1. Print out the documents, attach citation labels to the back of each, and place them in file folders according to the month in which they occurred.

 For example, Thomas Edison's patent for the electric lamp was approved in January, so the patent drawing would go in the file labeled "January."
- 2. Invite students or pairs of students to select a single document from a single file folder and instruct them not to show their selection to anyone. You might facilitate this by asking students to select a document from the folder featuring their birth month, or by rolling two dice and selecting a document from the folder corresponding to the month associated with the number rolled (rolling a 1 would mean January, rolling a 12 would mean December).
- 3. Allow students time to research a bit about the event related to their document, and direct them to write down three clues that describe what changed as a result of their event.

For example, the student who selects Edison's patent drawing for the electric lamp might list the following:

- a. As a result of this event, the "night shift" was made possible.
- b. As a result of this event, people bought fewer candles.
- c. As a result of this event, the number of house fires eventually decreased.
- 1. After all of the students have written their three clues, ask them to sit in a large circle and invite one student to announce during what month his or her event occurred and to share a clue. Students who think they know what event is being described based on the clue should raise their hand. (If no hands are raised after the first clue, the first student should continue reading clues, and perhaps share the year of the event.) The student sharing clues should call on a classmate whose hand is raised, and if his or her answer is correct, that student should go next, sharing his or her clues and calling on a classmate. This should continue until all students have shared clues about their events.
- 2. When the "guessing game" part of this activity is complete, lead a class discussion about *Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events* by asking questions along the following lines: To what extent were the events featured in this activity "Turning Points"? Were they equally significant? Why or why not? What factors do you think determine their significance? What other *Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events* can you think of?

Suggested Documents:

Note that all of the following are available online at www.DocsTeach.org. Also, the "Document of the Day" feature of the National Archives website is also a great resource. See www.archives.gov/historical-docs/todays-doc/.

January

- 1. Emancipation Proclamation, January 1, 1863
- 2. Drawing for an Electric Lamp, January 27, 1880

February

- 1. Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo, February 2, 1848
- 2. Photograph of the arrival of Air Force One in Peking, February 21, 1972

March

- 1. Eli Whitney's Cotton Gin Patent Drawing, March 14, 1794
- 2. Alexander Graham Bell's Telephone Patent Drawing and Oath, March 7, 1876

April

- 1. Louisiana Purchase Treaty, April 30, 1803
- 2. President Wilson's Declaration of War Message to Congress, April 2, 1917

May

- 1. Image of Germany surrendering, May 7, 1945
- 2. Press release announcing the recognition of Israel, May 14, 1948

June

- 1. Lee Resolution for Independence, June 7, 1776
- 2. D-day statement to soldiers, sailors, and airmen of the Allied Expeditionary Forces, June 6, 1944

July

- 1. Northwest Ordinance, July 13, 1787
- 2. Presidential diary entry, July 20, 1969

August

- 1. Photograph of the atomic bomb blast over Hiroshima, Japan, August 6, 1945
- 2. Richard M. Nixon's Resignation Letter, August 9, 1974

September

- 1. United States Constitution, September 17, 1787
- 2. Sewing Machine patent by Elias Howe, September 10, 1846

October

- 1. Lithograph of Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, Virginia, October 19, 1781
- 2. Pilot's notes from the Ninth Powered Flight of the XS-1, October 14, 1947

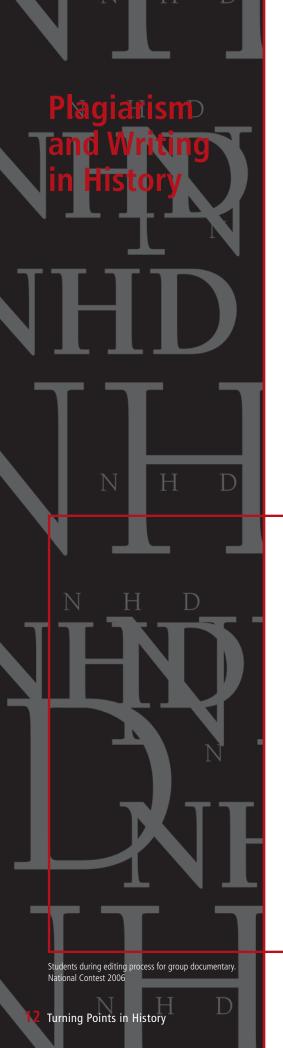
November

- Engrossed and corrected copy of the Articles of Confederation, showing amendments adopted, November 15, 1777
- 2. Patent Drawing for Joseph F. Glidden's Improvement to Barbed Wire, November 24, 1874

December

- 1. President Andrew Jackson's Message to Congress "On Indian Removal," December 6, 1830
- 2. Radiogram reporting the Pearl Harbor attack, from Commander in Chief of the Pacific Fleet (CINCPAC) to all ships in Hawaiian area, December 7, 1941





PLAGIARISM AND WRITING IN HISTORY

By Michael Kern

Michael Kern is the Program Assistant at National History Day.

Simply put, plagiarism is passing someone else's work off as your own. When most people think about plagiarism, they think of someone downloading a paper off of the Internet and putting their name on it, or copying and pasting text from a website and using it in a paper without quoting the source. These are examples of plagiarism, but there's more to it than just intentional plagiarism. It is very easy to accidentally plagiarize by being careless, or by not being knowledgeable about what needs to be cited in a project. In fact, most plagiarism is accidental. Plagiarism has become more frequent in NHD competitions in recent years and students have been disqualified from competition because they plagiarized material in their projects. Judges can and will check projects for plagiarized material. The good news is that plagiarism can be easily avoided by understanding what it is and by understanding how to cite sources properly.¹

Most people understand that using an author's words without quoting them is plagiarism. So if I wrote that these are the times that try men's souls, I would be plagiarizing Thomas Paine, who wrote those famous words in an issue of "The Crisis." What many people do not understand is that using someone else's ideas without giving the author credit for them is also plagiarism. For example, in *The Influence of Sea Power upon History, 1660-1783* Alfred Thayer Mahan argues that nations like Great Britain and France were powerful because they had strong navies. If I wrote that Great Britain was a powerful nation during the eighteenth century because of her strong navy and I did not give Mahan credit for the idea, I would be plagiarizing.²

So what's the big deal? Citing sources sounds like a lot of work, right? Why should I bother? Citing sources in a professional way does add more work for the researcher, but it is worth doing for several reasons. First, you can avoid getting in trouble. Students who plagiarize risk being expelled from school. People who plagiarize can also be sued by the author whose work was stolen, and forced to pay the victim for damages incurred. You also risk damaging your reputation and losing the respect of your teachers and your peers. Several historians have been caught plagiarizing and they have caused severe damage to their careers through their negligence or laziness.³

There are other reasons to avoid plagiarism besides just avoiding getting in trouble. By citing sources, you are giving the authors who helped you credit for all of the hard work that they did researching and writing their book or article. Most authors do not get large sums of money or impressive awards from writing books — they put in months or even years of hard work on research projects in the hope that others will read it and use it in their research. If you helped someone you would want to be thanked, so it is only right that we thank those authors who helped us. Listing your sources shows the judges that you looked at the most important primary sources and the most recent scholarship on your subject when you conducted your research (experienced historians look at a paper's bibliography

- 1 Definition of plagiarism, Kate L. Turabian. *A Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations: Chicago Style for Students and Researchers*, 7th Edition. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 2007, 77.
- 2 Types of plagiarism, Turabian, *Manual for Writers*, 77-79; *The Crisis*, Thomas Paine. "The Crisis," December 23, 1776; and Mahan, Alfred Thayer Mahan. *The Influence of Sea Power upon History*, *1660-1783*. New York: Dover Publications, 1987.
- 3 Negative consequences of plagiarism, Turabian, Manual for Writers, 77.

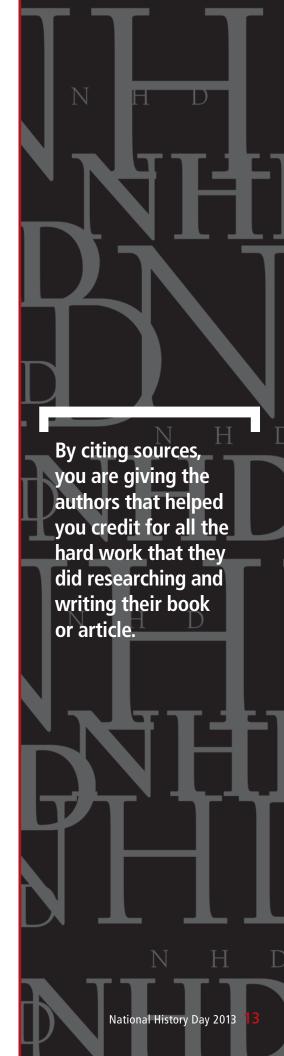
before anything else). It gives your opinion added weight when you can show that you considered the opinions of experts in the field (even if you disagree with them) and read the key primary sources on your topic. Lastly, citing your sources helps other researchers conduct their own research. Just as you may have been inspired by a book you read, or a movie you saw, or your teacher's lecture on a topic, another student or teacher may be inspired by *you* to research your topic. Citing sources helps other researchers find the sources you used for your project, which can provide the foundation for their own research. Kate Turabian, who literally wrote the book on professional standards in history, stated that "the first duty of a researcher is to get the facts right, but a second duty is to tell readers where the facts came from."⁴

Alright, so when do we cite sources and how do we cite them? Knowing when and how you cite a source is quite simple and will soon become second nature. You have to cite a source if you use an author's words, ideas, or data. It does not matter if a source is in a book or if it is available online for free. If you are using someone else's words, ideas, or data, you must credit the source. This also applies to photographs, maps, and other images. If you use an image, you must tell the judges where you got it from. Citing sources shows your readers that your facts are correct and are not made up. Following the Turabian style (also called Chicago style) citation format tells your readers that you embrace the values and goals of the historical profession. It shows the judges that your work is of a professional caliber and deserves to be taken seriously.⁵

If you want to use an author's words in your project, you must put them in quotation marks. So I can use Thomas Paine's words in my paper, as long as I quote him. For example, I could write: "These are the times that try men's souls," Thomas Paine wrote, seeking to rally colonists to the cause of the American revolutionaries. I would then cite the source with a footnote, which we will discuss later. If you do not put an author's words in quotation marks, you are committing plagiarism because you are leading people to believe that those are your words when they are not. Adding a few quotes makes a project more interesting, but the work should be your words, not someone else's, so do not use too many. If you do not want to quote an author, you can paraphrase his words instead. Paraphrasing is using an author's ideas, but not copying his exact words. Whenever you use someone else's ideas in a project, you must cite the source, unless it is common knowledge or the idea is not attributed to a single person. In my earlier example about Alfred Thayer Mahan, I need to give Mahan credit for the idea because it is not general knowledge and we can specifically trace that idea to his book, The Influence of Sea Power upon History, 1660-1783. I would cite this source with a footnote, just like any other citation. If I mentioned the idea of Manifest Destiny, I would not need to cite a source because most people should be familiar with that idea. If you use a statistic from a source, you must cite the source. You always need to cite statistics, unless they are common knowledge. For example, if I said that there are fifty states in the U.S., I would not need to cite that because everyone should know that. If I was including a statistic on the number of cars in the United States, or the number of cells in a human body, or something like that, I would need to cite the source. Those statistics are certainly not common knowledge.⁶

Writing citations for your sources is easy. The format for a citation changes a little bit depending on the type of source (book, article, movie, etc), but all citations should tell the reader who wrote the source, what the source is, who published the source and when it was published (if known). For example, here is a Turabian citation for *The Influence of Sea Power upon History, 1660-1783*:7

- 4 Other reasons to avoid plagiarism, Turabian, Manual for Writers, 133; and "the first duty," Turabian, Manual for Writers, 133.
- 5 When to cite sources, Turabian, *Manual for Writers*, 134; and reasons to follow standard practices, Turabian, *Manual for Writers*, 135.
- 6 When to cite sources, Turabian, *Manual for Writers*, 134; "these are the times," Paine, "The Crisis," December 23, 177; imagined communities, Mahan, *Sea Power*.
- 7 Citation format, Turabian, *Manual for Writers*, 135-136.



You can use either Turabian (Chicago) style citations or MLA style citations for your National History Day project. Turabian is the preferred style for the historical profession because it lets historians list multiple sources and provide additional information for readers using footnotes. Historians tend to use many sources in their papers and using footnotes helps keep the information organized and is not distracting to the reader. However, students who choose to use MLA style citations for their projects will not be penalized. Turning Points in History

continued from pg. 13

Alfred Thayer Mahan. *The Influence of Sea Power upon History, 1660-1783*. New York: Dover Publications, 1987.

The citation gives us everything we need to know about the source. We know the author, title, place of publication, publishing company, year of publication and the page referenced. We would put this in a footnote at the end of the sentence or paragraph which needs the citation. If we use this source again, we need to cite it once again, but we can use a shorter version of the citation. Just put the author's last name, the title (shortened if it's long) and the page number. For example: Mahan, *Sea Power*, 18. The best place to find information on when and how to cite sources is *A Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations: Chicago Style for Students and Researchers* by Kate Turabian. The University of Chicago Press's website also has a useful guide to writing citations:⁸ http://www.press.uchicago.edu/books/turabian/turabian_citationguide.html

You should be sure to include a bibliography or works cited page with your project. List each source you used for your project. These citations are very similar to the ones you used for your footnotes, except that the author's last name is listed first and additional lines of the citation are indented. If you use more than one work from an author, list additional works using an em-dash. List the sources in alphabetical order, by the author's last name. For example:

Mahan, Alfred Thayer. *The Influence of Sea Power upon History, 1660-1783*. New York: Dover Publications, 1987.

Paine, Thomas. Common Sense and The Crisis. Garden City, NY: Doubleday, 1960.

—. Rights of Man. New York: Heritage Press, 1961.9

That covers the basics of how to avoid plagiarism. It is a good idea to consult the National History Day Rulebook and your teacher for further guidance. You can find the most current version of the rulebook here: http://www.nhd.org/Rules.htm. With practice, citing sources will become quick and easy. Even though it adds a little more work, it is worth going the extra mile to make your project as polished and professional as it can be. Make these practices part of every history project you work on — for NHD and in your own classwork. You will be writing like a professional historian in no time. 10

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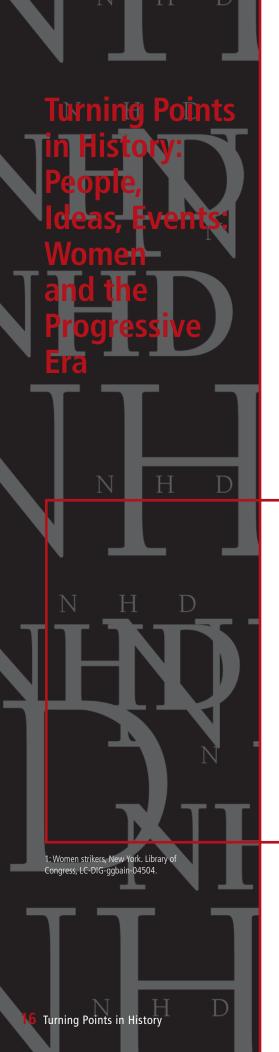
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- 9 Format, Turabian, Manual for Writers, 136; Mahan, Sea Power, Thomas Paine. Common Sense and The Crisis. Garden City, NY: Doubleday, 1960; and Thomas Paine. Rights of Man. New York: Heritage Press, 1961.
- 10 NHD Rule book, National History Day. "Contest Rules." Accessed November 8, 2011. http://www.nhd.org/Rules.htm



TURNING POINTS IN HISTORY: PEOPLE, IDEAS, EVENTS: WOMEN AND THE PROGRESSIVE ERA

By the National Women's History Museum

At the turn of the nineteenth century, America was experiencing rapid urbanization and industrialization. Waves of immigrants were arriving, many from southeastern Europe. As a result, countless city dwellers were crowded into tenement slums, with high rates of disease and infant mortality.

Although traditional histories of the Progressive Era focus on male figures such as Theodore Roosevelt and Upton Sinclair, in many ways women were the driving force behind progressive reforms. Women's efforts during the Progressive Era significantly affected the lives of countless Americans and led to many of the "luxuries" we take for granted today—including clean water, trash collection, hot lunches at schools, community playgrounds, fire codes for office buildings, public libraries and so much more. The Pure Food and Drug Act (1907) may be the most significant of these; it was lobbied through Congress largely by members of the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

In the Victorian Age, women were considered the "moral guardians" and protectors of the home—and during the Progressive Era, female reformers used this ideology to argue that in order to protect the home, women should move into the public sphere where they could exercise their moral authority over issues such as public sanitation and education, which ultimately affected the home. Efforts often began at the local level and expanded to the state

and national level. Women conducted research, implemented programs and lobbied for legislation to address social, political and economic problems.

Temperance was a popular issue for women reformers. Temperance reformers sought to limit the consumption of alcohol by Americans. This issue resonated with many women because alcohol consumption often increased the frequency and severity of domestic violence and abuse. In addition, men would sometimes squander limited household finances on alcohol. In December of 1873, in Ohio, New York and other states, women staged a revolt against saloon owners and several thousand saloons were temporally shut down. In 1874, the Woman's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) was founded. Under the leadership of Frances Willard, the WCTU became the most powerful women's organization in the late nineteenth century. Although its focus was on temperance, under the leadership of Willard, the WCTU advocated many social reforms, including women's right to vote.

Middle-class women began to found "settlement houses" in poor and working-class neighborhoods in urban areas. Reformers, usually women, would live in settlement houses and undertake reform work in surrounding neighborhoods. Settlement houses offered middle-class women the chance to live in a female-dominated space, independent of familial control. The most well-known settlement house was Hull House, founded in Chicago in 1889 by Jane Addams and Ellen Gates Starr. Also well known was the Henry Street Settlement, founded in 1893 in New York City by Lillian Wald; it was the beginning of public health nursing. By 1910,

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there were more than 400 settlement houses nationwide. In 1911, leaders formed the National Settlement House League to share expertise and coordinate programs.

Working-class women, alone and in concert with middle-class women, fought to raise wages and improve working conditions. Women initiated many strikes, including the "Rising of 20,000" shirtwaist workers in 1909-1910 in New York and Chicago, as well as the famous "Bread and Roses" strike of textile workers in Lawrence, Massachusetts, in 1912. Annie LoPezzi, the mother of seven, was fatally shot by

police in that strike. In both strikes, upper-class women donated money, arranged for legal representation, spoke to the press and even participated in picket lines. Some, including socialite Mary Drier, were arrested. Eventually, because their affluent customers boycotted new clothing, most factories recognized the International Ladies' Garment Workers Union (ILGWU). One that did not, the Triangle Shirtwaist Factory, continued to ignore safety standards to the point that 146 workers, mostly young immigrant women, died in a 1911 fire. After that tragedy the ILGWU, in particular, became a force to be reckoned with.

One of the best-known causes of the Progressive Era was the woman suffrage movement, which actually began in 1848, when the first women's rights convention was held in Seneca Falls, New York. For the next 50 years, supporters worked to educate the public about the validity of woman suffrage. Under the leadership of Susan B. Anthony, Elizabeth Cady Stanton and other women's rights pioneers, suffragists circulated petitions and lobbied Congress to pass a Constitutional amendment to enfranchise women. In the twentieth century, leadership of the suffrage movement passed to two organizations. The National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA), under the leadership of Carrie Chapman Catt, took a moderate approach. The second group, the National Woman's Party (NWP) under the leadership of Alice Paul, was more militant. In 1920, due to the combined efforts of the NAWSA and the NWP, the Nineteenth Amendment, enfranchising women, finally was ratified. This victory is considered the most

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^{4:} Y.W.C.A. In Service for the Girls of the World Poster, 1919. Library of Congress, LC-USZC4-3687.

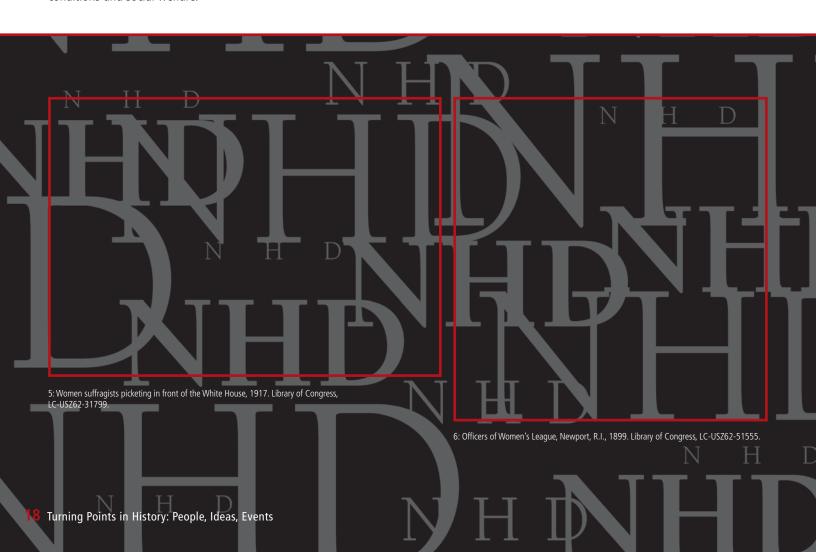
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significant achievement of women in the Progressive Era. It was the single largest extension of democratic voting rights in our nation's history, and it was achieved peacefully, through democratic processes.

Another distinction of the Progressive Era was like-minded women coming together to form clubs. In 1890, women from across the country joined to create the General Federation of Women's Clubs. Among its many goals were eliminating child labor, building libraries, environmental protection, and as noted above, regulating food manufacturing. Also in the 1890s, the growth of the black women's club movement worked to end lynching, especially journalist Ida B. Wells-Barnett. As she traveled the country lecturing about lynching, she also helped to found black women's clubs. Many of these clubs addressed problems similar to those addressed by white women's clubs, including health, sanitation, education and woman suffrage, but black women's clubs especially focused on combating racism and on racial uplift. In 1896, black women's clubs joined together to form the National Association of Colored Women's Clubs (NACW) under the leadership of Mary Church Terrell. The motto of the NACW was "Lifting as We Climb."

After the United States entered the war in 1917, women supported the war effort in numerous ways. In addition to continuing their pre-war reform work, women reformers in the club movement, the settlement house movement and the suffrage movement sold war bonds and conserved food. Women sent relief supplies to suffering Europeans. Some women's groups sent delegations to Europe to provide relief for American soldiers. During the war, women also entered the workforce in new ways. Women served in the Navy and Marines and thousands served as nurses. On the home front, women worked in factories and in the government.

Women in the Progressive Era achieved many important reforms. Perhaps their most concrete victory was the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment, enfranchising women. Yet, reform women also began to redefine the role of the federal government in American society. Reform women worked hard to expand the scope of the federal government in overseeing issues of education, sanitation, health, wages, working conditions and social welfare.



In the 1920s, the reform movement lost steam, as Americans focused on leisure, entertainment and conspicuous consumption. However, when the Great Depression hit in the 1930s, Americans again became interested in reform.

Some reform women from the Progressive Era were already in the government, in the Children's Bureau and the Women's Bureau in the Department of Labor. Other women who had grown up in the women's reform movement were brought into the federal government for the first time by Franklin D. Roosevelt. These women reformers were instrumental in proposing and implementing Roosevelt's New Deal legislation, much of which embodied many of the reforms developed and fought for by women reformers in the Progressive Era. For this reason, many historians believe that women reformers formed a bridge between the Progressive Era and The New Deal. Regardless, women reformers in the Progressive Era were certainly successful in improving the lives of countless Americans and in expanding the role of women in the economy, society and politics.

Starting Points to Think About:

- Can you think of any reform issues women are taking on today? How do they relate to the issues of the Progressive Era?
- How do you think the Progressive Era would have been different if women were not involved?
- Who were the women leaders of the Progressive Era? What are some of the things they accomplished?

About the National Women's History Museum:

The National Women's History Museum affirms the value of knowing women's history, illuminates the role of women in transforming society and encourages all people, women and men, to participate in democratic dialogue about our future. At present, NWHM is an Online Museum (nwhm.org), working to get a permanent site at the National Mall in Washington, DC.

For other historical information and lesson plans, visit nwhm.org.



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Organization of American Historians

Announcement! National Humanities Medal Awarded for Expanding Our Understanding of the World

NATIONAL HISTORY DAY AWARDED THE NATIONAL HUMANITIES MEDAL FOR EXPANDING OUR UNDERSTANDING OF THE WORLD

The National Humanities Medal honors achievements in history, literature, education and cultural policy. For the first time ever, a K-12 education program received the award. National History Day received the honor for being "a program that inspires in American students a passion for history. Each year more than half a million children from across the country compete in this event, conducting research and producing websites, papers, performances and documentaries to tell the human story." "It's an honor to be recognized by the President and your peers for doing work that you love — helping students understand and appreciate history," said Cathy Gorn, NHD Executive Director. "NHD represents the most ambitious humanities learning model for middle and high school students in the United States today. I have witnessed firsthand that the study of history can change the life of a young person far beyond this program. These students achieve not only academically but are also prepared for life."

"NHD is one of the nation's most successful educational efforts in the humanities and much of the credit goes to Cathy Gorn," said James F. Harris, chairman of the NHD board of trustees. "For 30 years, Gorn has dedicated herself to bringing history to life for students from across the nation and even the world. She is truly one of our nation's unsung heroes, working each day to help ensure our students are prepared for college, the workforce and their responsibility as U.S. citizens."

What began as a series of contests operating out of Case Western Reserve University in Cleveland, Ohio, is today an international, year-long academic program for 6th to 12th graders focused on historical research. NHD operates in all 50 states, the District of Columbia, U.S. territories, and is expanding internationally in Europe and Asia, serving more than half a million children annually with its unique approach to the hands-on learning of history.

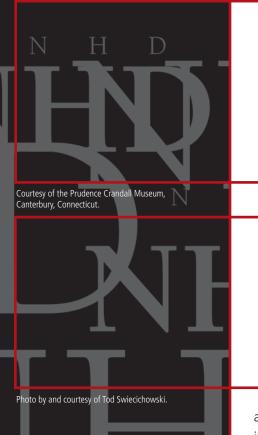
NHD, a non-profit organization, has long been the beneficiary of National Endowment for the Humanities support in its efforts to find creative ways to strengthen teaching of the humanities in American schools. NEH grants helped grow NHD, beginning in 1978 as a pilot start-up project to its current status as a self-sustaining organization.

Congratulations to Cathy Gorn and the entire National History Day Community!

Photo: UPI/Kevin Dietsch, used with permission

The National Park Service and Teaching with Historic Places Teaching with Historic Places turns students into historians

Teaching with Historic Places turns students into historians as they study primary sources, historical and contemporary photographs and maps, and other documents, and then search for the history around them in their own communities.



Turning Points in History

THE NATIONAL PARK SERVICE AND TEACHING WITH HISTORICAL PLACES

By the National Park Service

To see the lesson plans in their entirety please log on to: http://www.nps.gov/nr/twhp/wwwlps/lessons/crandall/crandall.htm and http://www.nps.gov/nr/twhp/wwwlps/lessons/91glorieta/91glorieta.htm. All images and suggested readings can be downloaded for the classroom.

Why Teach with Historical Places?

Real historic places generate excitement and curiosity about the people who lived there and the events that occurred there. From ancient ruins, homes of presidents and poets, and battlefields that comprise national parks, to the main streets, factories, and farms, places are listed in the National Register of Historic Places because they make a state or community special; places grab our attention. They offer experiences and information that help make the past real for anyone who visits or studies them. Rooted in this certainty, Teaching with Historic Places promotes places as effective tools for enlivening traditional classroom instruction.

What are the Benefits for Students?

Teaching with Historic Places lesson plans turn students into historians as they study primary sources, historical and contemporary photographs and maps, and other documents, and then search for the history around them in their own communities. They enjoy a historian's sense of discovery as they learn about the past by actively examining places to gather information, form and test hypotheses, piece together "the big picture" and bridge the past to the present. By seeking out nearby historic places, students explore the relationship of their own community's history to the broader themes that have shaped this country.

Following are two of the 140 lesson plans available to teachers from the National Park Service. From Canterbury to Little Rock: The Struggle for Educational Equality for African Americans and The Battle of Glorieta Pass: A Shattered Dream introduces students to the broad lens and different perspectives of a historic event that shaped our history.

Lesson One

From Canterbury to Little Rock: The Struggle for Educational Equality for African Americans

On the southwest corner of the main crossroads in the town of Canterbury, Connecticut, stands a gracious house. Although it resembles many other houses in the area in appearance, this house stands apart because of the unique role it played in promoting the educational opportunities of African Americans prior to the Civil War.

At the intersection of 14th and Park Streets in Little Rock, Arkansas, stands a large high school. Although it may resemble other large urban high schools built in the 1920s, Central High School captured the attention of the nation in 1957, when nine African-American students attempted to integrate Little Rock's schools.

Canterbury, Connecticut, and Little Rock, Arkansas, are links in a chain of events representing the long struggle for equal educational opportunities for African Americans. This lesson plan highlights two important historic places

and the role each played in testing the prevailing assumptions of the time regarding racial integration of schools. It also tells the story of conflict between the rule of law and the rule of the mob, and the importance of a free press in exposing social injustice.

N H D L N L L L L

N H D

Setting the Stage

Prior to the Civil War, African Americans were not recognized as citizens. Slaves were considered property, which could be bought, sold or transferred. Even former slaves and Free Blacks did not automatically enjoy the protections guaranteed to U.S. citizens. In New England, slavery ended gradually after the American Revolution. In Connecticut, slavery came to a complete end in 1848, although the majority of African Americans in the state were free by 1800. Many citizens of the New England states opposed slavery, but they did not necessarily approve of integrating African Americans into society as equals under the law. The colonizationist movement was strong in these states, proposing that African Americans would never be successfully integrated into white America, and that they should be returned to a homeland created for them in Africa.

Events in Canterbury, Connecticut, in the early 1830s brought race-related issues to the forefront when a young teacher named Prudence Crandall admitted an African-American student to her boarding school and subsequently opened a school strictly for black females. The town's negative and ultimately violent reaction sparked heated debate, especially between colonizationists, who supported sending Free Blacks to colonies in Africa, and abolitionists. The events received national attention through newspapers such as *The Liberator*.

After the Civil War, African Americans continued to suffer economically, politically and socially. Even with ratification of the Fourteenth Amendment in 1868, which guaranteed rights of citizenship to "all persons born or naturalized in the United States," harsh discrimination continued. In 1896 the Supreme Court decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson* established the "separate but equal" doctrine, which provided a legal basis for segregated schools. Theoretically, African-American students were to receive a comparable education to white children, but this rarely was the case. The "separate but equal" policy continued until the 1954 Supreme Court decision in *Brown v. the Board of Education of Topeka* determined that this policy violated the rights of African Americans to an equal education. Court-ordered desegregation affected school districts everywhere in the United States, but when nine African-American students attempted to integrate Arkansas' Little Rock Central High School amidst an angry mob in 1957, the eyes of the nation were upon them. The episode became the symbol and focus for the controversy over school segregation.





Questions for Map 1

- **1.** Locate Little Rock, Arkansas, and Canterbury, Connecticut (where Prudence Crandall operated her boarding school for young African-American women).
- **2.** In what region of the country is Connecticut located? Was slavery permitted in Connecticut at one time? If so, when did it come to an end, before or after the Civil War?
- **3.** In what region of the country is Arkansas located? Was Arkansas a slave state or free state prior to the Civil War?
- **4.** The events that unite Canterbury and Little Rock occurred more than a century apart and in different regions of the country. What does this indicate about the struggle involved in securing civil rights for African Americans?

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continued from pg.23

Determining the Facts

Reading 1: Prudence Crandall and the Canterbury Female Boarding School

In the fall of 1831, the residents of Canterbury, Connecticut, approached 27-year-old Prudence Crandall about opening a private school for young women in their community. Crandall accepted the invitation and paid \$500 as a down payment to purchase the recently vacated Paine mansion located on the town's green. Having been educated at the Friends' Boarding School in Providence, Rhode Island, and having taught at local district schools, Crandall came to the position with a fine reputation as a teacher. The Crandall family, Quakers from Rhode Island, moved to south Canterbury when Prudence was young.

The Canterbury Female Boarding School enjoyed the complete support of the community and was soon a success. Subjects taught included reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, history, chemistry, astronomy, and moral philosophy. Basic tuition and room and board cost \$25 per quarter. Students paid extra fees for instruction in drawing, painting, music, and French. With student tuition, Crandall was able to pay off the \$1500 mortgage within a year.

At the time Crandall opened her school in Connecticut, white and African-American children received a free elementary education at the district schools. No further public or private education was made available to black children. Crandall became aware of the injustices to African Americans in Connecticut and elsewhere through her housekeeper Marcia Davis, and Marcia's friend Sarah Harris, both African Americans. Sarah's father was the local distributor of the abolitionist newspaper, *The Liberator*. Marcia sometimes would leave copies of the newspaper where Crandall would find them.

In the fall of 1832, Sarah Harris asked Prudence Crandall to admit her to the Canterbury Boarding School. Originally from Norwich, Connecticut, a town traditionally having a larger population of African-American families, Harris hoped the education Crandall's academy offered could help her achieve her goal of returning to Norwich as a teacher. Crandall agreed to let Sarah attend the school as a day student. She immediately lost the support of the townspeople. A number of Canterbury's leading gentlemen, including the secretary of Crandall's Board of Visitors, supported the colonizationist movement, which feared the integration of the races and proposed sending all African Americans in America to Africa. This issue was being passionately debated at the time Crandall admitted Sarah Harris to her school.

Parents threatened to withdraw their daughters if Harris remained in the school. Crandall soon realized she must find some alternative to keep the school open. In the spring of 1833, she traveled to Boston to meet with William Lloyd Garrison, publisher of *The Liberator*. They discussed the possibility of closing the academy to white students and reopening with an African-American student body. With Garrison's assistance she traveled throughout New England to meet with upper-middle class families who might be willing to send their daughters to the school. She soon realized this idea could be successful. Newspaper advertisements were placed announcing that as of April 1, 1833, the academy would reopen for the purpose of educating "young ladies and little misses of color." According to Crandall, "the sole object, at this school [was] to instruct the ignorant and prepare teachers for the people of color that they may be elevated and their intellectual and moral wants supplied." A delegation of town leaders urged her to abandon the project and led a general boycott of the school when Crandall refused.

Although the school opened with only three students, Crandall recruited others from Boston, Providence and New York City. Enrollment soon rose to 24 students, most of whom were boarders. The curriculum was identical to that of Crandall's first Canterbury school. Both Crandall and her students endured harassment from angry townspeople. Shopkeepers refused to sell them food and townspeople pelted the building with stones and eggs. Under the shield of darkness, the school's opponents even attempted to set the building on fire in January 1834.

¹Randy Ross Ganguly, 67.

Crandall's Quaker upbringing contributed to her moral convictions and her decision not to bend to public pressure. The Quakers strongly opposed slavery and promoted education for women and minorities. Crandall herself believed in the cause of immediate abolition.

So determined and influential were Crandall's opponents that, on May 24, 1833, the Connecticut General Assembly enacted a measure known as the Black Law. This act restricted African Americans from coming into Connecticut to get an education and prohibited anyone from opening a school to educate African Americans from outside the state without getting the town's permission. The law did not prevent African Americans that were residents of Connecticut from going to district schools. Convinced the Assembly's action was neither morally just nor constitutionally correct, Crandall ignored the law and continued to recruit and teach her students until her arrest on June 27, 1833.

Crandall spent one night in jail for violating the Black Law. At her trial on August 23, 1833, the jury failed to reach a verdict. The case went to a second trial in October 1833, where she was found guilty. Judge David Daggett told the jury, "It would be a perversion of terms, and the well-known rule of construction to say that slaves, free blacks or Indians, were citizens within the meaning of that term, as used in the Constitution. God forbid that I should add to the degradation of this race of men; but I am bound by my duty, to say they are not citizens." According to this argument, the Constitution did not entitle African Americans to the freedom of education. Crandall appealed the decision to Connecticut's Supreme Court. While she and her abolitionist supporters pursued their legal challenges to the Black Law, her school continued to operate. When supporters visited the school, Crandall's students performed a song for them, revealing their fear and sorrow:

Sometimes when we have walked the streets
Saluted we have been
By guns and drums and cow bells, too
And horns of polished tin.
With warnings, threats, and words severe
They visit us at times
And gladly would they send us off
To Africa's burning climes.²

The Black Law and Crandall's resistance to it sparked a year-long debate among New Englanders on the issues of abolition and colonization. *The Liberator* thundered against the injustice, and soon all of America knew of Canterbury and Prudence Crandall. The conflict allowed abolitionists to dramatize the evils of prejudice. Leaders in the movement helped Crandall recruit students for her school, gave her support, and provided for her financially.

On July 26, 1834, the Connecticut Supreme Court of Errors dismissed the case against Crandall on a technical issue. The lower court decision that African Americans were not protected as citizens, however, remained standing. Although Crandall had won a technical legal victory and was free to return to her school, the townspeople of Canterbury would not accept the Supreme Court's decision. On the night of September 9, 1834, an angry mob broke in and ransacked the school building. With clubs and iron bars, the mob terrorized the students and broke more than 90 windows. What the Black Law and local ostracism had not been able to accomplish, this mob achieved. Fearing for the girls' safety, Crandall closed the school the following morning.



N H D N H D

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In 1834 Prudence Crandall married Calvin Philleo. They left their home in Canterbury shortly after the school closed. Her courage and persistence continued to win her national attention in abolitionist circles. She spoke and was entertained at banquets sponsored by abolitionists and African-American societies. In 1848 she moved to Illinois where she farmed land owned by her father and taught school. In 1877 she moved to Elk Falls, Kansas, where she started a school that served American Indians. In 1883, Mark Twain, a resident of Hartford, Connecticut, helped obtain a pension for Prudence Crandall from the Connecticut Assembly. He also offered to buy her former home in Canterbury for her retirement, but Crandall kindly declined the offer. She died in Elk Falls in 1890 at the age of 87.

Questions for Reading 1

- **1.** How did Crandall come to understand the injustices against African Americans in the New England states? What was *The Liberator*? Who first showed it to her?
- 2. Why did Crandall close her school the first time? What did she do next? Why?
- **3.** Why do you think the events at Canterbury captured such great attention at the time?
- 4. What was the Black Law? How did it affect Crandall's school legally? What was her reaction to the law?
- **5.** What was the legal result of Crandall's trial?
- **6.** What does the song that Crandall's students performed reveal about what they endured?
- 7. Why did Crandall close her school for good? What might you have done in her situation? How did she spend the rest of her life?
- 8. Based on this reading, how would you describe Prudence Crandall?
- **9.** In 1984 Prudence Crandall became the official heroine of Connecticut. In what ways were Sarah Harris and her fellow African-American students heroines?

Reading 1 was adapted from Dr. Page Putnam Miller, "Prudence Crandall House" (Windham County, Connecticut) National Historic Landmark Nomination Form, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1970; Marvis Olive Welch, Prudence Crandall: A Biography (Manchester, CT: Jason Publishers, 1983); and Randy Ross Ganguly, The Prudence Crandall Museum: A Teachers Resource Guide (Connecticut Historical Commission, State of Connecticut).

Determining the Facts

Reading 2: All Eyes on Little Rock Central High

Built in 1927 at a cost of \$1.5 million, Little Rock Senior High School, later to be renamed Little Rock Central High, was hailed as the most expensive, most beautiful and largest high school in the nation. Its opening earned national publicity with nearly 20,000 people attending the dedication ceremony. The next two decades there were typical of those at most American high schools, but historic events in the 1950s changed education at Central High School and throughout the United States.

On May 17, 1954, the Supreme Court of the United States made a historic ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* when it declared that segregation of public schools was unconstitutional. Thurgood Marshall, chief counsel for the National Association for the Advancement

of Colored People (NAACP) and future Supreme Court Justice, had successfully argued the case before the Supreme Court. As part of his argument to end segregation, he referenced the case Prudence Crandall's lawyers made against Connecticut's Black Law. As a result of the ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education*, the "separate but equal" doctrine set forth in the Court's 1896 decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson* was no longer valid. In May 1955, after carefully considering how the ruling should be implemented, the Court stated that Federal District Courts would have jurisdiction over the desegregation plans of local school districts and that these plans should be formulated and put into effect

Arkansas was considered a moderate southern border state on the issue of race relations and civil rights. A few days after the Supreme Court's decision, the Little Rock School Board held a special meeting to discuss its impact on the city's schools. A unanimous resolution declared that the Board would comply and gradual desegregation would begin at the high school level in the 1957 school year. Central High was selected to be the first to desegregate with lower grades following over the next six years.

There was little open dissent among the city's white citizens in the three years of planning for the desegregation of Central High School. In January 1956, several African-American students attempted to enroll in Little Rock's schools. In response, lower courts judged the 1957 desegregation date to be in line with the Supreme Court's ruling and denied admittance to the students. The effort of African Americans to enroll in white schools flamed public interest in the desegregation plan. During the summer of 1957, a few months before Central High was to desegregate, opposition began to crystallize as the Capital Citizen's Council, the Little Rock version of a white citizen's council, and the Central High Mothers' League launched a media campaign against the School Board's plan and integration in general.

Amidst growing turmoil, the superintendent and staff interviewed African-American students who lived in the Central High district and expressed interest in participating in school integration. Out of the students selected, several later decided to stay at their all-black high school. The remaining students became known as the "Little Rock Nine." The co-editor of the *Tiger*, Little Rock Central High School's student newspaper, summarized the events surrounding the planned desegregation in the September 19, 1957, issue as follows:

Classes were scheduled to begin promptly at 8:45 a.m, at Little Rock Central High School when incidents began happening which caused the school to be the center of nationwide publicity. Photographs and articles appeared in national magazines, and newspapers throughout the United States told the story of how nine Negro students were registered for admission to Central. To better understand the happenings of the past two weeks, here is a summary of the history of the school situation.

TIMELINE OF EVENTS

"with all deliberate speed."

Supreme Court Rules

On May 17, 1954 the United States Supreme Court ruled that racial segregation in the schools was unconstitutional. Just five days later the Little Rock School Board issued a policy statement that said it would comply with the Supreme Court decision when the Court outlined the method to be followed. In May 1955 the School Board adopted a plan of gradual integration under which the high school grades would be integrated starting in September 1957.

Injunction Proceedings

Pulaski Chancellor Murry O. Reed issued a temporary injunction against enrolling Negroes in Central High on August 29, after Mrs. Clyde Thomason, recording secretary of the Mother's League, had filed suit in Pulaski Chancery Court.

Federal District Judge Ronald N. Davies of North Dakota nullified the Pulaski Chancery Court injunction the next day and ordered the School Board to proceed with its gradual integration plan beginning with the opening of school on September 3.

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Governor Calls Guard

Governor Orval Faubus called out the Arkansas National Guard and the State Police on the night of September 2 to surround the LRCHS campus with instructions to keep peace and order. About 270 Army and Air National Guard troops under the command of Colonel Marion Johnson formed lines for the two blocks along the front of the school. The first day of school drew a crowd of about 300 spectators; the troops had closed the streets around the school to all traffic.

There were groups of uniformed men posted at each entrance and all sides of the building with orders to admit only students, teachers and school officials. Judge Davies again ordered integration to proceed at a hearing which lasted less than five minutes on the night of September 3.

Nine Negroes Arrive

Nine Negro students arrived to enroll at Central on the second day of school but were turned away by the National Guardsmen at the direction of Governor Faubus.

That afternoon Federal Judge Davies ordered an investigation by all offices of the Department of Justice to determine who was responsible for the interference of the court's order to proceed with integration. The National Guard remained on duty. A petition asking for a stay of the integration order was sought in the interest of education by the School Board on September 7, but it was denied by Judge Davies.

Governor Accepts Summons

A week after school had opened on September 10, Governor Faubus was served with a Federal Court summons. Federal Judge Davies ordered the Governor and the Arkansas National Guard made defendants in the case and scheduled a hearing for tomorrow, September 20. Later that day, the nine Negroes who had failed to enter LRCHS said they would not make another attempt until after the hearing. At a press conference after the summons had been accepted, Governor Faubus said that the Guard Troops would remain at Central for the time being.

Historic Meeting Occurs

Last Saturday an unprecedented conference took place between President Eisenhower and Governor Faubus at Newport, Rhode Island, to discuss the school situation. Although many details have been written about this meeting, no definite statements have been made as to the possible outcome.

The October 3, 1957, issue of the *Tiger* continued the story:

Nine Negro students attended Little Rock Central High School last week for the first time in history. They arrived at the school Wednesday, September 25, accompanied by crack paratroopers of the U.S. Army's 101st Airborne Division. An Army station wagon carried the students to the front entrance of the building while an Army helicopter circled overhead and 350 armed paratroopers stood at parade rest around the building.

Never before had Federal troops been used to enforce integration in a public school.

Third Attempt Made

This was the third attempt the Negro students had made to attend classes at Central. For three weeks the Arkansas National Guard had patrolled the school on orders of Governor Orval Faubus. Then on September 20, the troops were withdrawn by the Governor after the Federal Court had issued an injunction requiring him to withdraw the troops.



All was quiet over the week-end at CHS, but on Monday, September 23, eight of the Negro students enrolled at Central. Uncontrolled violence grew so swiftly in the area surrounding the school campus that city law enforcement officers decided it was wise to withdraw the Negro students shortly after noon on the same day.

Federal Troops Arrive

President Eisenhower took unprecedented action on September 24, when he called the Arkansas National Guard into active military service to deal with the Little Rock school integration crisis. President Eisenhower also authorized Secretary of Defense Wilson to use regular Army troops in addition to the National Guard Units.

Accordingly, about 1,000 paratroopers of the 101st Airborne division at Fort Campbell, Kentucky, began arriving at the Little Rock Air Force Base on the evening of September 24. They immediately took up positions around the school.

General Advises Students

The Department of the Army designated Major General Edwin A. Walker chief of the Arkansas Military District.

As commander of the troops in the Little Rock area, Major General Walker addressed the student body and explained his position clearly.

All Quiet Within

Halls were quiet within the schools as the Negro students entered. They proceeded to their pre-arranged classes and school work went on just about as usual. At least two dozen soldiers without bayonets patrolled the halls.

Many Central students were absent; of the 2,000 enrolled, about 1,250 attended classes. On Friday the attendance was back up to 1450. At press time it was almost normal.

Although some of the students, teachers, and administration attempted to maintain a sense of normalcy, for the nine students that integrated Central High School it was like going to war every day. One of the Little Rock Nine, Melba Pattillo Beals, describes their experience in her book Warriors Don't Cry:

My eight friends and I paid for the integration of Central High with our innocence. During those years when we desperately needed approval from our peers, we were victims of the most harsh rejection imaginable. The physical and psychological punishment we endured profoundly affected our lives. It transformed us into warriors who dared not cry even when we suffered intolerable pain.¹

Integration affected both their lives at school and at home. At school these students were elbowed, poked, kicked, punched, and pushed. They faced verbal abuse from segregationists as well as death threats against themselves, their families and members of the black community. At home, their families endured threatening phone calls; some of the parents lost their jobs; and the black community as a whole was harassed by bomb threats, gun shots and bricks thrown through windows. While the students received some support from their community, they also were alienated by those who felt their actions jeopardized the safety of others.

Eight of the Little Rock Nine bravely finished the school year. One student was suspended and later expelled due to altercations with segregationists. In May 1958, with federal troops and city police on hand, Ernest Green, the only senior of the Little Rock Nine, graduated from Central High.

After that year, however, the story was far from over. Although ultimately unsuccessful, the Little Rock School Board made attempts to delay further desegregation. In August 1958, Governor Faubus called a special session of the state legislature to pass a law allowing him

¹Melba Pattillo Beals, Warriors Don't Cry: A Searing Memoir of the Battle to Integrate Little Rock's Central High (New York: Washington Square Press, 1994), 2.

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to close public schools to avoid integration. Faubus ordered Little Rock's high schools closed the following month, forcing approximately 3,700 high school students to seek alternative schooling during the 1958-59 school year. Finally, in June 1959, a federal court declared the state's school-closing law unconstitutional, and the schools reopened in the fall. Under the guidance of the new School Board, Little Rock Central High reopened in August 1959. Although a group of demonstrators marched to the school's opening, the local police broke up the mob and the school year began peacefully as several of the Little Rock Nine returned to Central High School.

Questions for Reading 2

- **1.** Why do you think the Little Rock School Board decided to put off desegregation for three years after the 1954 ruling? Why do you think they did not attempt to desegregate all schools at once?
- **2.** Why do you think some students tried to enroll before the scheduled integration date? What was the result?
- **3.** Why do you think several African-American students selected to attend Central High ultimately decided not to switch schools? What might you have done in that situation?
- **4.** Who published the *Tiger*? From the account presented by the *Tiger* articles what impression do you have about the events surrounding the integration of Central High? Does the article appear biased either for or against integration? Why or why not?
- **5.** Why did Governor Faubus send units of the Arkansas National Guard to Central High? How do you think calling in the National Guard to keep the students out influenced public reaction to the integration of Central High?
- **6.** Why did President Eisenhower call on the National Guard to protect the students? Why did he send the 101st Airborne Division? How might you have felt if you were part of the Arkansas National Guard called to first enforce segregation, and then enforce integration?
- **7.** How have the two events discussed in Readings 1 & 2 influenced your understanding of the conflict that sometimes occurs between state and federal authorities?
- **8.** How did the experience of students at Central High compare to those that attended Prudence Crandall's school? Reread the song lyrics found in Reading 1. Did they also apply to the Little Rock Nine? If so, how?

Reading 2 was compiled from "Little Rock High School" (Pulaski County, Arkansas) National Historic Landmark Nomination Form, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1970; Georgia Dortch, "Central High Thrown in National Spotlight as it Faces Integration," The Tiger, September 19, 1957; "Integration Goes Forward at CHS," The Tiger, October 3, 1957; "Golden Years: Little Rock Central High School's 50th Anniversary Yearbook," published in 1977; and Melba Pattillo Beals, Warriors Don't Cry: A Searing Memoir of the Battle to Integrate Little Rock's Central High (New York: Washington Square Press, 1994).

Visual Evidence Photo 1: The Prudence Crandall Museum.

Photo 2: The Prudence Crandall Museum.

National Park Service, Photo by Dennis Oparowski

The 16-room mansion (built circa 1805) purchased for the Canterbury Female Boarding School was situated on the town green on three-quarters of an acre of land.

Questions for Photos 1 and 2

National Park Service, Photo by Dennis Oparowski

- **1.** How would you describe this building? Does it look like a typical school? Explain your answer.
- **2.** Where was the school located in the village of Canterbury? Why might Canterbury's citizens have purchased an existing house at this location to serve as the new school?
- **3.** At one time, 24 students lived and attended school here. Based on these photos, do you think that this arrangement would have been difficult? Why or why not?
- **4.** Where in the house do you think students slept? Where do you think the classrooms might have been located? Why?

Visual Evidence

Photo 5: Little Rock Central High School today.

Photo by and courtesy of Tod Swiecichowski

Central High's dedication program indicated that the building had 100 classrooms with a capacity to seat 3,000 students. The building is 564 feet long and 365 feet wide. Other features of the building included an auditorium that seated 2,000, a cafeteria that seated 910, a greenhouse for biology and other science work and 3,000 built-in or recessed lockers.

Questions for Photo 5

- **1.** How would you describe this building?
- **2.** Why do you think the residents of Little Rock were willing to spend so much money on this school? What does this indicate about the importance placed on education in the community?
- **3.** How does the size, building style, building materials, etc. of Central High compare to that of the Canterbury Boarding School?
- **4.** How does Central High's appearance compare to that of your school? What might account for some of the differences?

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Putting It All Together

The following activities will help students better understand the relationship between the events that occurred in Canterbury, Connecticut, and Little Rock, Arkansas.

Activity 1: The Road to Educational Equality

Referring back to the information in *Setting the Stage* and *Determining the Facts*, ask students to circle the dates that they find and underline the event(s) that occurred. Next, have students construct a timeline of events related to school desegregation that are connected to the Prudence Crandall Museum and Little Rock Central High School. Encourage them to use their textbooks or other sources to fill in any gaps. After the timelines are complete, hold a class discussion to explore some of the challenges faced by African Americans and white supporters in the struggle for integrated schools.

Activity 2: From Canterbury to Little Rock

Have students complete the chart below. After they have finished, have them study the results and then write a brief essay comparing and contrasting events in Canterbury and Little Rock. They should look for similarities and differences between the people involved, the chronology of events, the characteristics of the communities, prevailing social and political conditions of the times, the end result and so forth.

Questions	Canterbury	Little Rock
1. When did the significant events occur at the school?		
2. In what region of the country did the events occur?		
3. What was the prevailing attitude toward African Americans at the time?		
4. Was the school involved public or private?		
5. Was the community supportive of establishing the school? How can you tell?		
6. For whom did the community originally intend the school?		
7. What had prevented African Americans from attending the school in the first place?		
8. What alternatives did the community offer for educating African Americans?		
9. Did changes made by the local, state or federal government affect admission of African-American students to the school? If so, when and how?		
10. What was the reaction to African Americans attending the school?		
11. Did the local, state or federal government attempt to control public reaction? If so, what action did they take?		
12. What kind and how much publicity did the events receive?		
13. When and why was the school closed? Did it close permanently?		
14. What was the ultimate result of the events that occurred at the school?		

Activity 3: History of Public Education in the Local Community

Have students work in groups to research the history of public education in their community and prepare a report/presentation. Students should try to find answers to the following questions and then summarize how public education has changed over the years.

- 1. When was public education first available in the community? How were children educated prior to this?
- 2. What did the early school(s) look like? What grades and subjects were taught?
- 3. Were public schools segregated? If so, what group(s) was/were separated? Was there a legal basis for the segregation?
- 4. Was the community affected by desegregation? In what ways? How did the community react to desegregation?
- 5. Approximately how many schools—of all types—did the community have in the 1830s? 1950s? Today?
- 6. Approximately how many students were enrolled in public schools in your community in the 1830s? 1950s? Today?

From Canterbury to Little Rock

Supplementary Resources

By looking at the lessons of From Canterbury to Little Rock, students can more easily understand the enormity of the struggle involved in securing equal educational opportunities for African Americans. Those interested in learning more will find that the Internet offers a variety of materials.

National Park Service

Central High School National Historic Site http://www.nps.gov/chsc/index.htm is a unit of the National Park System. The park's web page provides general information on the events that occurred at the school in the late 1950s.

Brown v. Board of Education National Historic Site http://www.nps.gov/brvb/index.htm is a unit of the National Park System. The site is located at Monroe Elementary School in Topeka, Kansas. Monroe was the segregated school attended by the lead plaintiff's daughter, Linda Brown, when Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka was initially filed in 1951. The park's web page provides information on the park's establishment as well as directions and hours of operation.

The National Register of Historic Places' on-line travel itinerary, We Shall Overcome: Historic Places of the Civil Rights Movement http://www.cr.nps.gov/nr/travel/civilrights/ provides information on 49 places (in 21 states) listed in the National Register for their association with the modern civil rights movement.

Racial Desegregation in Public Education in the U.S.

In 1998, Congress authorized the National Park Service to prepare a National Historic Landmarks Theme Study on the history of racial desegregation in public education http://www.cr.nps.gov/history/online_books/nhl/school.htm. The purpose of the study is to identify historic places that best exemplify and illustrate the historical movement to provide for a racially nondiscriminatory education. This movement is defined and shaped by constitutional law that first authorized public school segregation and later authorized desegregation. Properties identified in this theme study are associated with events that both led to and followed these judicial decisions.

Library of Congress offers a supporting website

The African-American Mosaic: A Library of Congress Resource Guide for the Study of Black History and Culture http://www.loc.gov/exhibits/african/intro.html offers a collection of materials and essays on the topics of colonization and abolition.

Yale-New Haven Teachers Institute

The Yale-New Haven Teachers Institute http://www.yale.edu/ynhti/ is an educational partnership between Yale University and the New Haven Public Schools designed to strengthen teaching and learning in schools. The web site features curricular resources produced by teachers participating in Institute seminars, including "Slavery in Connecticut 1640-1848" http://www.yale.edu/ynhti/curriculum/units/1980/6/80.06.09.x.html and "From https://www.yale.edu/ynhti/curriculum/units/1982/3/82.03.06.x.html. Desegregation." https://www.yale.edu/ynhti/curriculum/units/1982/3/82.03.06.x.html.

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Little Rock Central High School

The Central High Museum and Visitor Center Web site http://www.centralhigh57.org/index.html includes profiles of each member of the Little Rock Nine, a timeline of events significant in the school's history, a photo gallery and visitor information. Also included on the website is extensive information on Little Rock Central High, including the history of the building, a chronology of events during the 1957-58 school year and the 1997 celebration of the 40th anniversary of integration at the school.

The Eisenhower Library and Museum

The Eisenhower Library and Museum manuscript collections contain many documents related to the Little Rock School Integration Crisis. Visit the library's web pages http://www.eisenhower.archives.gov for documentation on the exchanges between the president and Governor Faubus.

PBS: The American Experience—Stand Up for Your Rights

The American Experience Way Back: U.S. History for Kids https://pbskids.org/wayback/tech1900/index.html explores different aspects of U.S. History, including School Desegregation. Click on "Buzz" for an exclusive interview with Little Rock Nine member Melba Pattillo Beals who describes her experience at Central High. Also visit the School Desegregation feature for a brief history of the Little Rock Nine at Central High.

For Further Reading

Students and teachers interested in learning more about the Civil Rights movement might want to look at the following books. *Warriors Don't Cry* by Melba Pattillo Beals (New York: Washington Square Press, 1994) is a powerful autobiographical account of the 1957 integration of Central High from one of the Little Rock Nine students. *Parting the Waters* by Taylor Branch (New York: Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1988) is an award-winning biography of Martin Luther King Jr., a history of the civil rights movement and a portrait of an era. *Weary Feet, Rested Souls* by Townsend Davis (New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 1998) is a comprehensive guidebook to the battlegrounds and back roads of the civil rights movement in the deep South.

The Battle of Glorieta Pass: A Shattered Dream

A peaceful ranch, once a stage stop on the Santa Fe Trail, rests in a circular valley clasped by steep mountains. Spanish conquistadors named these mountains Sangre de Cristo, "blood of Christ," but in 1862, it was the blood of warring brothers that bathed the land near Pigeon's Ranch.

This battle—the Battle of Glorieta Pass—represented the high water mark for a bold Confederate offensive into Union Territory on the western frontier. Here volunteers from Colorado clashed with tough Texans intent on conquering New Mexico. Victory here would be a necessary prelude to detaching the western states from the Union and expanding the Confederacy to the Pacific Ocean. Referred to as the "Gettysburg of the West" by many historians, this running battle along canyon and ridge from



Roy Anderson, artist; Courtesy of Pecos National Historical Park

March 26-28, 1862, culminated in the retreat back to Texas of the invading Confederate forces. Glorieta Pass was another great turning point in the Civil War, the battle that shattered the western dreams of the Confederate States of America.

Setting the Stage

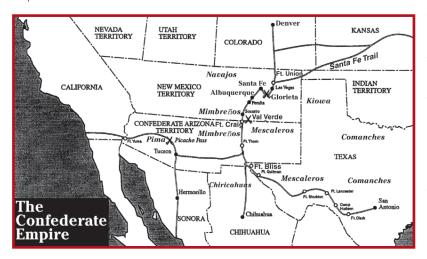
Henry Hopkins Sibley dreamed of fulfilling his nation's destiny of spanning the American continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Sibley's nation was the Confederate States of America, and Confederate President Jefferson Davis shared Sibley's vision of southern Manifest Destiny. If Sibley could overcome the weak Union forces in their isolated forts, the Confederacy might conquer the vast New Mexico Territory (consisting of modern New Mexico and Arizona). Once New Mexico was conquered, the doors to the Colorado Territory with its rich gold and silver mines would be opened. Sibley's dream culminated with the invasion and conquest of California.

President Davis authorized General Sibley to raise volunteers for the Confederate Army of New Mexico. He assumed command on December 14, 1861, and marched the Fourth, Fifth, and Seventh Texas Mounted Riflemen westward from San Antonio to Fort Bliss, outside of El Paso. On January 18, 1862, the Confederacy declared that the southern half of the United States' New Mexico Territory would become the Confederate Territory of Arizona. Sibley ordered his men to move north toward Albuquerque, launching a winter invasion up the Rio Grande valley.

The troops encountered major obstacles that they had not foreseen, including cold weather and a barren and dry landscape. The Hispanic population of New Mexico viewed the Confederate forces as thieves who would steal their livestock, food and money. Small, detached units had even more to fear from the Apache who killed a number of Texas volunteers. Most crucially, Sibley miscalculated the determination of the quickly assembled Union volunteers of the western territories to halt the Confederate advance. In Glorieta Pass, New Mexico, on March 28, 1862, the dream of a Confederate Western Empire gave way.

Locating the Site

Map 1: Southwest United States in 1862.



Adapted from Donald S. Franzier, Blood and Treasure: Confederate Empire in the Southwest, Texas A&M University Press, 1995.

The Santa Fe Trail was crucial to the Battle of Glorieta Pass. This commercial route from Independence, Missouri, to Santa Fe, New Mexico, received official sanction for legal use in 1821, when Mexico won its independence from Spain. The Santa Fe Trail immediately became the principle trade and travel route between the United States and the northern province of Mexico, Chihuahua.

In 1862, Confederate general Henry Sibley planned to follow the Santa Fe Trail north from Texas, capture Fort Union in New Mexico Territory, and then march up the trail to invade Colorado. The First Colorado Volunteers traveled down the Santa Fe Trail to Fort Union, and then followed it west to Glorieta Pass, a gap in the Sangre de Cristo mountains.

Questions for Map 1

- 1. Study the territories and states as they existed in 1862. How does this map differ from a modern map of the United States?
- 2. Locate the Santa Fe Trail. Name the states or territories shown on this map through which the trail passed on the way to Santa Fe.
- 3. Why did the Confederacy want to win control of New Mexico Territory?
- 4. What Indian tribes may have had an interest in the outcome of the war between the Union and the Confederacy in this region?

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Determining the Facts

Reading 1: The Gettysburg of the West

[Refer to Map 1 to locate places mentioned in the following account of the battle.]

The trans-Mississippi West, New Mexico Territory in particular, was far removed from many of the passions and issues that defined the Civil War for people east of the Mississippi River. For large areas of the West that were recently won from Mexico or still organized under territorial government—where people were still struggling to survive in hostile environments—arguments over secession and states rights may have seemed rarified. Nonetheless, men answered the call to join eastern armies, so the frontier armies were drastically reduced. Indian raids began to increase as some tribes seized the chance to regain lost territory while others turned to raiding for subsistence, their U.S. treaty allotments having been disrupted by the war. Yet, the Civil War was not strictly an eastern war, and in 1862 Confederate forces invaded New Mexico Territory.

Henry Sibley, who resigned his commission in the U.S. Army to join the Confederate Army, realized that the void created in the West could be an opportunity for the South. After raising a brigade of mounted Texas riflemen during the summer of 1861, Sibley led his 2,500 men to Fort Bliss and launched a winter invasion up the Rio Grande Valley.

Colonel Edward Canby, who had been appointed the Union Commander of the Department of New Mexico in June 1861, anticipated the invasion and had already begun to consolidate his 2,500 regular army troops. By early 1862, Canby had almost 4,000 soldiers he could put into the field.

Sibley's Brigade approached Canby's Union forces near Fort Craig in south-central New Mexico. Threatening to cut off the fort by controlling a nearby ford, Sibley drew Canby's soldiers out from the fort and engaged them in a closely contested battle at Valverde on February 21, 1862. The smaller Confederate force prevailed against Canby's troops, who retreated to the security of nearby Fort Craig. Sibley believed the U.S. forces had been defeated too soundly to present a rear-guard threat, so he advanced north. The Confederates occupied Albuquerque on March 2. Sibley then sent the Fifth Texas Regiment, commanded by Major Charles Pyron, to the unprotected territorial capital of Santa Fe. The few Union troops retreated to Fort Union, destroying ammunition and supplies.

The only thing that appeared to be standing between Sibley's Confederate Brigade and Colorado was Fort Union, the major army depot on the Santa Fe Trail. By seizing the supplies and weapons kept at Fort Union, the Confederates would be able to continue their march north through Raton Pass to Denver, the territorial capital of Colorado.

The First Colorado Volunteers, an infantry brigade of 950 miners, were quickly organized under the command of Colonel John P. Slough. They marched the 400 miles from Denver through the deep snow of Raton Pass to Fort Union in only 13 days, arriving at the fort on March 10. After a brief rest and re-supply, Slough defied orders to remain at Fort Union. Joined by some regular army troops and New Mexico volunteers, Slough's 1,350 soldiers departed Fort Union on March 22, and they followed the Santa Fe Trail westward to meet the enemy. By March 25, the Union advance troops, under the command of Major John M. Chivington, set up Camp Lewis at Kozlowski's Stage Stop east of Glorieta Pass, a gap in the Sangre de Cristo Mountains.

Meanwhile, Pyron's Fifth Texas Regiment had left Santa Fe, following the Santa Fe Trail eastward, marching on Fort Union. After following a southward swing through Glorieta Pass, he intended to join with other Confederate troops. Pyron's Texans camped at Johnson's Ranch in Apache Canyon, just west of Glorieta Pass, unaware of the Union troops only nine miles away.

On the morning of March 26, 1862, a scouting party of Colorado Volunteers led by Chivington left Camp Lewis to locate the Texans. They discovered and captured a Confederate scouting party in Glorieta Pass, then ran into the main body of the Confederate force in Apache Canyon, about 16 miles east of Santa Fe. A two-hour scrimmage, known as the Battle of Apache Canyon, ensued. Although Chivington captured 70 Confederate soldiers, he fell back to Pigeon's Ranch. By evening, both sides called a truce to tend to their wounded.

The following day, when Union spies notified Colonel Slough that the Confederates had been reinforced, Slough decided to divide his forces. Slough's 900 soldiers would proceed west along the Santa Fe Trail and block Glorieta Pass, while Chivington and Lieutenant Colonel Manuel Chavez of the New Mexico Volunteers would take 450 men over Glorieta Mesa to attack the Confederate right flank or rearguard. Colonel Scurry decided to leave his supply train at Johnson's Ranch and march his 900 men eastward along the Santa Fe Trail the next morning to force the battle where he wanted it.

On the morning of March 28, Slough's men broke ranks near Pigeon's Ranch to fill their canteens at Glorieta Creek. Scurry's quickly advancing Confederates came upon the Union troops and opened fire on them. The Union soldiers quickly formed a defensive line along Windmill Hill, but an hour later, fell back to Pigeon's Ranch.

Scurry's Confederate soldiers faced the Union artillery at Pigeon's Ranch and Artillery Hill for three hours, and finally outflanked the Union right. From Sharpshooter's Ridge they could fire down on the Union troops, so Slough ordered another retreat, setting up a third battle line a short distance east of Pigeon's Ranch. The Texans charged the line shortly before sunset. Slough ordered his soldiers back to Camp Lewis leaving the Confederates in possession of the field. Both sides were exhausted after six hours of fighting, each having sustained more than 30 killed and 80 wounded or missing.

Believing he had won the battle, Scurry soon received devastating news. After a 16-mile march through the mountains, the Union force led by Major Chivington had come upon the Confederate supply train at Johnson's Ranch. They had driven off the few guards, slaughtered 30 horses and mules, spiked an artillery piece, taken 17 prisoners and burned 80 wagons containing ammunition, food, clothing, and forage. Scurry was forced to ask for a cease-fire.

Lacking vital supplies, Scurry could no longer continue his march on Fort Union so he retreated to Santa Fe. Two weeks later, General Sibley ordered his army to retreat from Santa Fe and relinquished control of Albuquerque. There was no further Confederate attempt to invade the western territories. The Battle of Glorieta Pass had decided conclusively that the West would remain with the Union.

Questions for Reading 1

- **1.** Identify the issues that concerned residents of the western territories at the time of the Civil War. How were they different from or similar to issues that interested easterners and why?
- **2.** What developments convinced General Sibley that a Confederate campaign through the far West could be successful?
- **3.** Approximately how many soldiers were involved in the fights at Valverde and Glorieta Pass? Compare these numbers with those of battles farther east, which occurred at nearly the same time, in the Shenandoah Valley at the Battle of Kernstown or at Shiloh (Pittsburg Landing).
- **4.** What role did geography play in determining that Glorieta Pass would be the site of a battle? How did Scurry and Slough adapt their battle plans to the geography of the area?
- **5.** Why was the destruction of the Confederate supply train at Johnson's Ranch an insurmountable problem for the Confederate invasion? What additional hardships would it have created during the long retreat from New Mexico?



Determining the Facts

Reading 2: Combatants' Accounts

Alfred B. Peticolas, a young lawyer, enlisted in the Fourth Texas Mounted Volunteers in Victoria, Texas in May 1861. Sergeant Peticolas recorded the call Colonel Scurry's troops answered to march to the support of Major Pyron at Apache Canyon the evening of Wednesday, March 26, 1862.

Laid over today and waited for the 3rd Regt. Towards evening it came in and two or three hours after, an express from Major Pyron came in informing us that he had been attacked by a large body of Pike's Peak men during the day; that he had gotten the best of the engagement and had fallen back to wood and water, which he would hold till we came up to him. The order was immediately given, and in an hour after we received the express, we were all under way. This, however, made it about 8 o'clock when we started, and we were told that the distance we had to go was 12 miles, but before it was walked we found it to be at least 15. Pyron had two men killed and 3 wounded.

The forces were about 350 on our side, 3 or 4 companies of the 2nd Regt, and from 600 to 1000 of the enemy. We started off at a brisk gait and made the first six miles of our journey in a very little time, but footsore and weary we did not travel from that point so fast as we had been doing, but there was no murmuring at our suffering, and on the want of comfort on this our forced march, but every man marched bravely along and did not complain at the length of the road, the coldness of the weather, or the necessity that compelled the march.

We passed over a very steep pass in the mountains not far from a ranch buried in a circular valley in the bosom of the mountains, and as the ascent and descent was extremely difficult, we were nearly two hours crossing, and while the command was waiting for the artillery and ammunition wagons to cross over, they made large fires at the foot of the pass and warmed chilled hands and feet. About ½ past 3 we reached a ranch down the canion [sic] and were directed to get wood wherever we could and make fires. Now we had not blankets, and Jones proposed to me to go and try and get into a house to sleep, which I succeeded in doing. He and I slept together on the floor with no bedding, and only a few articles of women's wearing apparel which we found scattered round the house.¹

Ovando J. Hollister was living in the mining district of South Clear Creek, Colorado, in the summer of 1861, and enlisted in Captain Sam H. Cook's company of mounted volunteers. He served with the First Colorado Volunteers from the time of its organization through its campaign in New Mexico and return to Denver. Hollister sustained injuries during the campaign that rendered him an invalid unfit for military duty in January 1863. He described the forced winter march by the Colorado Volunteers from Denver to Fort Union to meet the advancing Confederate forces.

The teams, relieved of their loads, took aboard a full complement of passengers, leaving, however, between three and four hundred to foot it. Away into the wee hours of morning did we tramp, tramp, —the gay song, the gibe, the story, the boisterous cheer, all died a natural death. Nothing broke the stillness of night but the steady tramp of the men and the rattle of the wagons. We were now to prove the sincerity of those patriotic oaths so often sworn, and right nobly was it done. At length the animals began to drop and die in harness, from being overworked and underfed, which forced us to stop. But for this, we would doubtless have made Union without a halt. Col. Slough rode in the coach. That never stops between Red River and Union. Why should we?

Thirty miles would not more than measure this night's march, in which the men proved their willingness to put forth every exertion on demand. But feeling as they did, that there was no call for it but the Colonel's caprice, their 'curses were not loud but deep.' During the halt, they hovered over the willow brush fires or shivered under their scanty blankets, nursing their indignation by the most outrageous abuse of everything and everybody. A soldier would grumble in heaven. As it is all the solace they have for their numerous privations and vexations, and is very harmless, let them growl.

N H D N H D

At the first sign of daylight "Assembly" sounded as shrilly as if waking to renewed exertion the iron sinews of a steam engine, instead of a weary mass of human energy scarcely composed to rest. But it was none the less inexorable, and satisfying nature with a crust of hard bread, we were on the road again.²

Questions for Reading 2

- 1. Who gives a better description of the land through which he marched, Hollister or Peticolas? Why?
- **2.** How did their patriotic oaths, made when the volunteers enlisted, help Hollister's companions to continue their 30-mile night march toward Fort Union? Why did Colonel Slough's actions cause them to complain?
- **3.** Peticolas' companions made a forced march of 15 miles. Why did they not complain?
- **4.** In what ways were both soldiers' experiences similar? In what ways were they different?

¹Don E. Alberts, ed., Rebels on the Rio Grande: The Civil War Journals of A. B. Peticolas (Albuquerque: Merit Press, 1993).

²Ovando J. Hollister, *History of the First Regiment of Colorado Volunteers* (Denver: Thomas Gibson & Co., 1863).

Determining the Facts

Reading 3: Reports of the Battle of Glorieta Pass

Colonel John P. Slough, a Denver attorney turned soldier, was commanding officer of the First Colorado Infantry. He dispatched his battle report to Colonel Edward S. Canby the day after the fight at Pigeon's Ranch.

Kozlowski's Ranch, March 29, 1862

COLONEL: Learning from our spies that the enemy, about 1000 strong, were in the Apache Canyon [sic] and at Johnson's Ranch beyond, I concluded to reconnoiter in force, with a view of ascertaining the position of the enemy and of harassing them as much as possible; hence left this place with my command, nearly 1,300 strong, at 8 o'clock yesterday morning. To facilitate the reconnaissance I sent Maj. J.M. Chivington...with about 430 officers and picked men, with instructions to push forward to Johnson's. With the remainder of the command I entered the canon, and had attained but a short distance when our pickets announced that the enemy was near and had taken position in a thick grove of trees, with their line extending from mesa to mesa across the canon, and their battery, consisting of four pieces, placed in position. I at once detailed a considerable force of flankers, placed the batteries in position, and placed the cavalry—nearly all dismounted—and the remainder of the infantry in position to support the batteries.

Before the arrangement of my forces was completed the enemy opened fire upon us. The action began about 10 o'clock and continued until after 4 p.m. The character of the country was such as to make the engagement of the bushwhacking kind. Hearing of the success of Major Chivington's command, and the object of our movement being successful, we fell back in order to our camp. Our loss in killed is probably 20...; in wounded probably 50...; in missing probably over 100. In addition we took some 25 prisoners and rendered unfit for service three pieces of their artillery. We took and destroyed their train of about 60 wagons, with their contents, consisting of ammunition, subsistence, forage, clothing, officers' baggage, etc.... During the engagements the enemy made three attempts to take our batteries and were repelled in each with severe loss.

The strength of the enemy, as received from spies and prisoners, in the canon was altogether some 1,200 or 1,300, some 200 of whom were at or near Johnson's Ranch, and were engaged by Major Chivington's command. The officers and men behaved nobly. My thanks

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are due to my staff officers for the courage and ability with which they assisted me in conducting the engagement. As soon as all the details are ascertained I will send an official report of the engagement.

After the retreat of his army to Santa Fe from the battlefield at Glorieta Pass, Colonel Scurry reported what he considered a Confederate victory to General Sibley.

Santa Fe, N. Mex., March 30, 1862

GENERAL: I arrived here this morning with my command and have taken quarters for the present in this city. I will in a short time give you an official account of the battle of Glorieta, which occurred on day before yesterday, in the Canon [sic] Glorieta, about 22 miles from this city, ...when another victory was added to the long list of Confederate triumphs.

The action commenced at about 11 o'clock and ended at 5:30, and, although every inch of the ground was well contested, we steadily drove them back until they were in full retreat our men pursuing until from sheer exhaustion we were compelled to stop.

Our loss was 33 killed and I believe, 35 wounded. ... Major Pyron had his horse shot under him, and my own cheek was twice brushed by a Minie ball, each time drawing blood, and my clothes torn in two places. I mentioned this simply to show how hot was the fire of the enemy when all of the field officers upon the ground were either killed or touched....

Our train was burned by a party who succeeded in passing undiscovered around the mountains to our rear. ... The loss of the enemy was very severe, being over 75 killed and a large number wounded.

The loss of my supplies so crippled me that after burying my dead I was unable to follow up the victory. My men for two days went unfed and blanketless unmurmuringly. I was compelled to come here for something to eat. At last accounts the Federalists were still retiring towards Fort Union. The men at the train blew up the limber-box and spiked the 6-pounder I had left at the train, so that it was rendered useless, and the cart-burners left it.

...From three sources, all believed to be reliable, Canby left Craig on the 24th. Yours in haste, W.R. SCURRY

P.S. I do not know if I write intelligently. I have not slept for three nights, and can scarcely hold my eyes open. W.R.S.²

Questions for Reading 3

- **1.** Of the two reports filed by Slough and Scurry following the battle, which provides the most complete information? Which is more clearly written? Which one is written under more difficult conditions? In your opinion, which is the more valuable report to a historian and why?
- **2.** Based on the reports alone, from the description of the fighting and casualties listed, was either side a victor at Glorieta Pass? Explain your answer.
- 3. How did each commander recognize the efforts of the men who fought under him in these battle reports?
- **4.** Slough and Scurry filed these reports to their superior officers. What incidents from the battle might each have included to impress a supervisor? Do you think either of the officers' evaluations of the outcome of the battle was written to impress a supervisor? Why?
- 5. How do these reports of a battle differ from the personal accounts of soldiers like Peticolas and Hollister?

¹U.S. War Department, *The War of the Rebellion: A Compilation of the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies.* Vol. 9 (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1883) 533-34.

²U.S. War Department, *The War of the Rebellion: A Compilation of the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies.* Vol. 9 (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1883) 541-42.

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Visual Evidence

Painting 1: Fight at Pigeon's Ranch.

Questions for Painting 1

- **1.** Look at the painting briefly and describe your first impression.
- **2.** Look carefully at the painting. Describe the actions of the soldiers in the foreground of the picture. Describe the actions of the soldiers in the background of the picture.
- **3.** How are the soldiers in the foreground using the terrain to their advantage? How are the soldiers in the background using the buildings to their advantage?
- **4.** Compare Painting 1 with the description of the fight at Pigeon's Ranch in Readings 1 and 3. What information does the painting provide that the readings do not? What information do the readings provide that the painting lacks?



Roy Anderson, artist; Courtesy of Pecos National Historical Park

Visual Evidence

Photo 2: Glorieta Pass battlefield from Sharpshooters Ridge.

This photograph was taken in 1990 from Sharpshooter's Ridge, just north of Pigeon's Ranch. It was the location of the Union right flank during the last day's battle. Much of the land in and around the battlefield remains intact because of its isolation from cities and the nature of the terrain.

Ouestions for Photo 2

- 1. Why was Sharpshooter's Ridge a strategic position for the Colorado Volunteers serving in the Union army?
- 2. Do you think it is important to preserve the battlefield from any future development and change? Why or why not?

Putting It All Together

The following activities engage students in a number of ways that let them explore the impact of the Civil War on the people who lived through it. Students will also have an opportunity to examine the past



Photo by Charles Bennett; Courtesy Museum of New Mexico, Neg. No. 148655.

military experience of people in their community, state or region and be able to compare it with the events at Glorieta Pass, New Mexico.

Activity 1: Considering Life as a Soldier

Soldiers on both sides of the western conflict in the Civil War proved themselves brave in battle and strong-willed in their respective causes. Have students assume the identity of a Civil War soldier and write a diary entry about an episode or experience the soldier thought worthy of recording in the diary. Remind students to consider all aspects of a soldier's life, and then pick one in particular they think is important. Some students might believe that food, clothing or a warm bed to sleep in at night would be important; others may want to explore in their writing the adventure, companionship with fellow soldiers or why this cause was worth risking their lives for.

Activity 2: Impact of the Confederate Invasion

Have the class examine Peticolas' diary entry in Reading 2 and discuss the following questions:

- **1.** What evidence does he include about a local residence?
- **2.** Why do you think there were no people at the house?
- **3.** When the people who lived at the house returned to their home after the battle, how do you think they might have felt when they discovered that soldiers had broken into their home and slept there using the woman's clothes like a blanket?
- **4.** How do you think the residents might have felt if they returned to their ranch to find bodies of dead or wounded soldiers or fresh graves?
- **5.** Do you think that individuals holding either strong Union or Confederate views would react differently than those who held to the frontier tradition of helping out those in need? Why or why not?

Activity 3: War Memorials in the Local Community

Explain to students that the National Park Service and other state and local organizations preserve the history of many of the country's Civil War battlefields. Monuments, military artifacts, historical markers, park interpreters, and cemeteries all help to tell the story of what happened. Ask students to research whether there was a Civil War or other historical battle that took place in their community, region or state, locate it on a map, and determine if there are any markers, memorials or parks commemorating the location. Have students report the information they learn in class presentations and debate the value of commemorating events from our past and preserving the places where these events occurred. For any of the battles students identified that are not commemorated by memorials or interpretive markers, have students write letters to local community officials to encourage them to commemorate this location. In the letters, the students could also suggest the appropriate text and/or design the commemorative markers.

The Battle of Glorieta Pass: A Shattered Dream

Supplementary Resources

By looking at The Battle of Glorieta Pass: A Shattered Dream, students will learn about the battle which ended the Confederacy's dream of expanding westward. Those interested in learning more will find that the Internet offers a variety of interesting materials.

Pecos National Historical Park

The Pecos National Historical Park http://www.nps.gov/peco/index.htm is a unit of the National Park System which preserves 12,000 years of history from pre-Columbian pueblos to a 20th century ranch, as well as the site of the Battle of Glorieta Pass.

Fort Union National Monument

Fort Union National Monument http://www.nps.gov/foun/index.html is a unit of the National Park System. Fort Union National Monument: An Administrative History explains the role of the fort before, during and after the Civil War and is illustrated with historic photographs.

American Southwest—National Register of Historic Places Travel Itinerary

The American Southwest with its distinctive building traditions, its languages, religions and foods reflects the vitality of the Spanish, Mexican, Indian and Anglo cultures which formed its history and the Southwest we see today. This National Register of Historic Places Travel Itinerary http://www.cr.nps.gov/nr/travel/amsw/ highlights over 58 historic places, including Pecos National Historical Park, teaching us about the contributions of the various people who settled this distinctive area.

Civil War History Resources

The American Battlefield Protection Program

http://www.nps.gov/hps/abpp/, a division of the National Park Service, provides detailed on-line publications featuring different topics in the Civil War. Included is a battle summary of the Glorieta Pass battle.

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National Park Service Civil War Website

Visit the official National Park Service Civil War Web Site http://www.nps.gov/civilwar/index.htm. Offering the current generation of Americans an opportunity to know, discuss and commemorate this country's greatest national crisis while at the same time exploring its enduring relevance in the present, the website includes a variety of helpful features and links such as the About the Civil War page that offers a timeline and stories from various perspectives. Also included are links to Civil War Parks, NPS education programs and much more.

Civil War Soldier and Sailors System

The National Park Service's Civil War Soldier and Sailors System http://www.itd.nps.gov/cwss/ is a database of service records to locate individual soldiers, find out about unit histories and battles and locate Civil War battlefields, prisoner of war camps, and cemeteries administered by the National Park Service. Tour the "Camp Life" exhibit to understand army life better.

The Valley of the Shadow:

Two Communities in the American Civil War

The Virginia Center for Digital History Valley of the Shadow project *valley.lib.virginia.edu/VoS/choosepart.html* is an archive of thousands of primary source documents, including letters, newspapers, diaries, photographs, maps, church records, census records, military records, and reports pertaining to two communities, Augusta County, Virginia and Franklin County, Pennsylvania.

The United States Civil War Center

The Civil War Center www.civilwar.org/education/history has two primary goals: to locate, index and/or make available all appropriate private and public data regarding the Civil War; and to promote the study of the Civil War from the perspectives of all professions, occupations and academic disciplines. As part of this mission it has compiled a list of more than 2,100 web resources related to the war.

Library of Congress

The Library of Congress created a selected Civil War photographic history http://www.loc.gov/rr/print/coll/048.html in their "American Memory" collection. Included on the site is a photographic time line of the Civil War covering major events for each year of the war.



TURNING POINTS OF WORLD WAR II HISTORY

By Nathan Huegen

Nathan Huegen is the National History Day state coordinator of Louisiana.

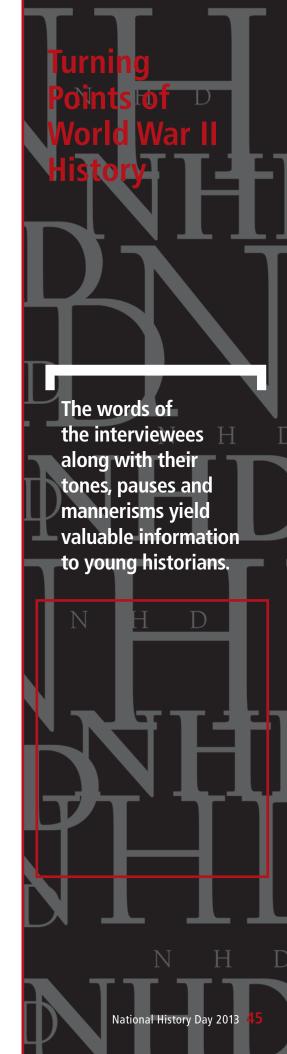
The 20th Century is a popular time period for students completing National History Day projects. The amount of primary source material, surviving witnesses to history and variety of secondary sources provide students with great opportunities to learn historical methodology. World War II stands as a pivotal moment in the 20th Century, and is an especially popular topic at all grade levels. At The National WWII Museum in New Orleans, we are ready to assist students from across the nation with their WWII projects by providing access to portions of our archives and oral histories. From the shock of Pearl Harbor to the social changes of the G.I. Bill, our collection provides a wealth of resources for students.

As of this publication, 150 of our oral histories are being digitized for online accessibility. The oral histories in our research collection were conducted by our team of professional researchers and highlight the perspectives of people who witnessed turning points in World War II history. The words of our subjects along with their tones, pauses and mannerisms yield valuable information to young historians. Their reactions to the turning points are apparent. The soldiers stationed in England and preparing for D-Day knew they were going to be involved in a major turning point. Others, such as those stationed at Pearl Harbor in 1941, were shocked into their place in history.

Lloyd Childers, a radioman stationed at Pearl Harbor in 1941 had just finished breakfast and sat down with a cup of coffee shortly before 8 a.m. on the morning of Sunday, December 7, 1941. He discusses hearing loud noises and wondering why civilians would be working on a Sunday morning. The sight of a Japanese plane flying overhead brought the reality of the situation to him. In his interview with our researchers, students will hear his account of the confusion and chaos that was rampant that morning with fires burning on the decks of ships, debris flying throughout the area and chunks of ships falling near the docks. By lunchtime, he knew that his life was at a turning point and he would be forced to go to war. In just a few days, he would find himself on a destroyer sailing to Wake Island to confront the Japanese.

Artifacts from Pearl Harbor tell stories as well. On display in our galleries is a wristwatch that belonged to Roy "Swede" Boreen who was aboard the USS *Oklahoma* on the morning of the attack. At 7:55 a.m. the call to battle stations was sounded, and Boreen looked out of a porthole to see the face of a low-flying Japanese pilot. Soon after, the first of several torpedoes struck the *Oklahoma*, and he heard the order to abandon ship. After witnessing the massive explosion on the USS *Arizona*, Boreen leapt into the water. He climbed to safety aboard the nearby USS *Maryland* where he later had a cup of black coffee and the first cigarette of his life. He looked at his watch and realized that it had stopped at 8:04 a.m., the second he hit the water after jumping from the *Oklahoma*.

Following Pearl Harbor, enlisted men and women knew they were entering a turning point in world history. Some would see action on the frontlines, while others, like Admiral Mac Showers, would be involved in intelligence operations integral to the success of American forces. In 1942, Showers was serving as an ensign in Colonel Joseph Rochefort's intelligence operation at Pearl Harbor, working with a team of cryptanalysts and linguists to decipher coded Japanese messages and provide daily intelligence reports. Showers's job was to take the English translations of Japanese messages and help produce the intelligence reports. In March 1942, Rochefort's team produced the first usable pieces of information from Japanese



codes that gave valuable information to the United States Navy in the Battle of the Coral Sea. During the course of that battle, new messages indicated a larger Japanese operation targeting a location in the Central Pacific, a location coded by the Japanese as "AF."

With the characteristics of a talented instructor, Showers describes how code breakers were able to identify the Japanese code group "AF" as Midway Island. Students who listen to his explanation will gain insight into the problem solving skills that enabled our forces to be in the right place at the right time. The United States Navy surprised the Japanese at Midway on June 4, 1942 and dealt a decisive blow to their navy. The United States took the offensive against Japan and began the "island hopping" campaign soon after. Showers, reflecting on the success of the operation, is quick to point out that "Intelligence did not win the battle...intelligence made it possible to be there." He emphasizes, "The pilots won the battle."

One of those pilots was Austin "Bud" Merrill. On the morning of the battle, Merrill took off from the USS *Yorktown* and headed toward a Japanese carrier force near Midway. Along the way Merrill and other members of his bombing squadron lost their bombs due to an electrical malfunction in the arming switch of their dive bombers. Despite the malfunction, Merrill made his dive on the Japanese fleet in hopes that his aircraft would divert anti-aircraft fire away from other members of his squadron. For his efforts, he was awarded the Navy Cross. His citation, signed by Admiral Chester Nimitz, is in our Museum and digitized for student access.

Midway marked the turning point in the Pacific, but in Europe, Germany still maintained a tight grip. To defeat Nazi Germany, an entry point in Western Europe was essential. Soldiers sent to England between 1942 and 1944 knew they would likely be part of an invasion into France. Strict secrecy assured that soldiers went about their training with little knowledge of the date or location of this operation. Two men whose actions helped ensure victory in the invasion of Normandy underwent their preparations knowing that they would be a part of history.

Len Lomell volunteered to become a United States Army Ranger with the goal of being the "best of the best." He began training at Camp Forrest, Tennessee, before leaving for Europe. In England, his training required climbing cliffs over 400 ft. high. Lomell knew that he would be facing cliffs in an invasion, but he was unsure of the location. When he received his exact orders, he learned that his unit, Company D of the U.S. 2nd Ranger Battalion, would climb 100 ft. cliffs on Pointe du Hoc and destroy six 155 mm. German coastal guns, the heaviest firepower along the Atlantic Wall. Late to arrive on Omaha Beach, Lomell and the rest of D Company began scaling the cliffs against German resistance. Once arriving on top, they could not find the guns. Through acute observation, Lomell and fellow Ranger Jack Kuhn noticed wagon tracks leading further inland. Covering one another, Lomell and Kuhn arrived at the guns and knocked them out of commission helping to ensure safer landing conditions for men coming ashore.

Paratrooper Don Malarkey also helped safeguard the landings, but he arrived in a different way. Malarkey dropped into Normandy with "Easy" Company of the 506th Parachute Infantry Regiment. "Easy" Company received an assignment to destroy German artillery firing on Utah Beach. Malarkey helped knock out three of the four guns, providing better landing conditions. These actions, known as the Brecourt Manor Assault, gained fame through Stephen Ambrose's book *Band of Brothers* and the HBO miniseries based on the book. Through our interview with Malarkey, students will be able to hear first-hand the accounts of his training and of the grueling world-record forced march he encountered as part of this training.

In the case of Karl Mann, who came with his family to the United States from Germany in 1936, training could not prepare him for witnessing the horrors of the Dachau Concentration Camp. Mann was born in Germany and moved with his family to the United States at the age of eleven. He did not pay much attention to the anti-Jewish propaganda evident in Germany during his youth, remarking that he was aware of it, but too young to fully understand. Mann was drafted into the Army while a sophomore in college, and his German language skills helped

him become a translator. As a member of the 45th Infantry Division, he advanced into Dachau in April, 1945 and heard a "joyful roar" of liberation from prisoners held inside the camp as he approached.

With a somber voice, Mann describes the layout of the camp, the condition of the prisoners and the reactions of his fellow soldiers. He says, "It was upsetting to see these great, great, number of prisoners in the...enclosure, emaciated in their striped pajamas. It's something that people will never forget." More than the words, his tone and pauses reveal his full reaction to this camp. Viewing this interview reveals his emotions as he tries to recount his feelings that day and how much he expected to see based on what he may have known from his upbringing in Germany.

According to Mann, Dachau represents "man's inhumanity to man." He says that although people are exposed to inhumanity through news reports, movies and television, "you can't really appreciate how terrible some of these things are until you've been exposed to them directly." He says that prevention of these events is a "responsibility for future generations to figure out...to eliminate them for all the years to come." Out of the Holocaust, education programs emphasizing tolerance have sprung with the goal to make sure that something like this never happens again.

Away from the battles in Europe and the Pacific, American women experienced turning points on the Home Front. Women arrived in factories to fill the jobs previously worked by men. One of these women, Rose Rita Samona, worked as a burner for Delta Shipyards, cutting and burning holes in sheets of steel for the production of Liberty ships. Samona received \$1.20 per hour, a higher amount than most women because of the dangers involved in the job. She received the "E-award" and Ships for Victory medal for excellence in war production. Her identification badge, burner's goggles and pay stubs from the Museum's collection provide insight into the daily lives of female factory workers.

In her oral history, Dr. Virginia Hamilton describes her role as a female reporter for the Associated Press. She remarks that her position was very different from the jobs that most women attained during the War and that had more men been available for journalism jobs, she might not have advanced as far. Assigned to cover wartime activities in Louisiana and Mississippi for the Associated Press, she later found herself in Washington, D.C., covering the death of President Franklin Roosevelt, a story unlikely to be assigned to a female reporter prior to the War. After the War, she decided to get married and left her job at the AP to return to her home in Birmingham, Alabama. Hamilton says that male journalists "were very hospitable" during her employment in journalism, but that she did feel pressure to "resume the traditional wifely role." Hamilton did not see herself as a pioneer during the War, feeling then that it was a necessary job for the country. Later, while earning her Ph.D. in history, she began to see herself as a pioneer and understood that World War II resulted in dynamic changes for all women.

World War II was a major turning point in world history filled with smaller turning points that lend themselves to close examination by students. The National WWII Museum gladly opens its oral histories, artifacts and archival material for students researching this pivotal event. We are placing our oral histories with corresponding artifacts online for National History Day students and look forward to hearing from students nationwide who have used our resources.

WHAT SO PROUDLY WE HAIL

A New Approach to Making Citizens

What So Proudly We Hail is a new project in civic education with the goal of helping produce better patriots and better citizens—men and women who are thoughtfully attached to our country, devoted to its ideals, and eager to live an active civic life. At the center of the project is What So Proudly We Hail: The American Soul in Story, Speech, and Song, an anthology compiled by Amy Kass, Leon Kass, and Diana Schaub (ISI Books, 2011). Addressing hearts as well as minds using the soul-shaping powers of story, speech, and song, it is designed to make Americans more appreciatively aware of who they are as citizens of the United States. The book is also the basis of a new e-learning curriculum on "The Meaning of America," available at our website, www.whatsoproudlywehail.org/curriculum.



Our approach to making citizens provides a much-needed supplement for programs of instruction that emphasize American history, political thought, and civic institutions and for programs that focus on service learning. For these worthy efforts will not by themselves produce love of country or the habits of discourse that allow students to think more deeply about the character and purposes of the country in which they live and serve.

Developing robust and committed American citizens is a matter of *both* the heart and the head. Like all character-building activities, it requires educating our moral imaginations, sentiments, and habits of heart—matters displayed in but also nurtured by great works of imaginative literature. Works of fiction speak most immediately, engagingly, and movingly to the hearts and minds of readers of all ages. They furnish the imagination; educate the sentiments; and, by giving us characters to identify with, provide concrete mirrors for self-discovery and self-examination. For these reasons, we have adopted a literary approach to making citizens, an approach centering on stories—supplemented by great public speeches and patriotic songs.

THE MEANING OF AMERICA

Our e-learning project seeks to extend the reach of the book and our approach to civic education. Specifically, it aims to demonstrate concretely how stories can shed light on the meaning of American identity, character, and citizenship by promoting learning not through lecturing but through genuine inquiry and searching conversation. We ask real questions to promote real thoughtfulness; we avoid simplistic answers to reveal the actual complexities of the subject.

Our website (www.whatsoproudlywehail.org/curriculum) hosts a ten-part course on "The Meaning of America," with each part based on one story from the anthology. Materials for each session include detailed study guides, each of which gives information about the author, a plot summary, and a series of thematically arranged questions for thinking about the story and for thinking with the story about larger American themes and the American principles of freedom, equality, rule of law, enterprise, and religious freedom and toleration. Going beyond lesson plans intended to help students get the facts straight, they aim to help readers probe the meaning of the story for enduring insights about important American and human matters.

In addition to the study guides, the curriculum for each session includes a video discussion of the story, conducted by a guest host with the editors of the anthology. Short clips from the videos are interspersed throughout the study guides to help teachers (and students) see how they can discuss the questions in the spirit of genuine inquiry.

The sessions include:

- · NATIONAL IDENTITY AND WHY IT MATTERS: Edward Everett Hale's "The Man without a Country"
- FREEDOM AND INDIVIDUALITY: Jack London's "To Build a Fire"
- · EQUALITY: Kurt Vonnegut's "Harrison Bergeron"
- ENTERPRISE AND COMMERCE: Mark Twain's "The Man That Corrupted Hadleyburg"
- Freedom and Religion: Nathaniel Hawthorne's "The May-Pole of Merry Mount"
- SELF-COMMAND: Benjamin Franklin's "Project for Moral Perfection"
- · LAW-ABIDINGNESS AND JUSTICE: Susan Glaspell's "A Jury of Her Peers"
- COURAGE AND SELF-SACRIFICE: Joshua Lawrence Chamberlain's speech to the troops before the battle of Gettysburg and George S. Patton's speech to the Third Army
- . COMPASSION: Herman Melville's "Bartleby, the Scrivener"
- MAKING ONE OUT OF MANY: Willa Cather's "The Namesake"

The Meaning of America curriculum is aimed primarily at high school and college teachers. It should be of special interest to any institution of learning—private or public—that aims high and that allows teachers the freedom to find their own materials and to teach up to their students. It reflects the editors' own long experience in teaching and the principles derived from that practice: be serious; speak up, not down to students; ask them genuine questions; and encourage them in thoughtful reflection and honest conversation. Students treated in this fashion, more often than not, will rise to the occasion and vindicate your trust in their capacity to learn and grow—in mind, in heart, and in soul.

(Teachers interested in how our curriculum (and book) can be used in connection with specific National History Day themes should feel free to contact us at: Cheryl@whatsoproudlywehail.org.)





"TURNING POINTS IN HISTORY: PEOPLE, IDEAS, EVENTS": EXPLORING THE PAST THROUGH VIDEO

by Kimberly Gilmore

Kimberly Gilmore is Historian and Director, Corporate Outreach for HISTORY™

Each year, the National History Day theme presents a unique and compelling way for students to explore the texture and contours of the past. In 2013, the theme *Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events* gives students an outstanding starting point to engage with some of the key elements of historical inquiry, including charting social and political transformations, identifying change over time and assessing the role of individuals and groups in bringing about historical change. While we often think of "turning points" as the pivotal moments when change happens, the theme also allows students to consider the ways ordinary people making seemingly small-scale decisions that have helped precipitate national or global shifts.

Finding an entrée into an excellent National History Day project can start with an exploration of topics or events that students find compelling. As teachers know, one of the key criteria for students to get truly involved in a research project is their personal interest in the topic or project. *Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events* gives students the chance to think carefully about topics they care about and look for the transformative moments within the subject areas they care about most—whether that be medieval history or 20th century popular culture. For group projects, one student's interest in a topic can help motivate the entire group to become passionate about one aspect of history.

HISTORY™ has a wealth of video resources that can help capture student interest and spark ideas for National History Day projects across all categories. In this article, I can identify a few recommended video resources and websites for students looking for topics that fall under the "Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events" theme. In recent years, HISTORY™ programming has focused on the role of everyday people and individual decision-making in shaping the past. This approach to history can help students conceptualize the past on a human level and understand that historical change is not inevitable but is the result of human action and interaction.

History Channel's recent series *America: The Story of Us* is a 12-part program which traces the role of everyday people and technology in driving American history. I think this series can be a fantastic well-spring of ideas for students to understand how large "turning points" are often instigated by events or innovations that seem simple at the time of their creation. For example, students can learn in this series about the role of an African American inventor named Lewis Temple. Temple's experiments with whaling harpoons revolutionized the whaling industry at the turn of the 19th century. This "turning point" connects with the larger history of whaling and sheds light on the development of American industry.

Technology plays an omnipresent role in the lives of students today. The fast-paced nature of technology in our lives may make students feel as if technological change is characteristic of their lives in a way that it has never been before. Yet historical exploration allows us to gain historical context for understanding the role of technological advancement throughout history. Another series I recommend to help jumpstart student research projects is called *Engineering an Empire*. This series examines the role of engineers and scientists in societies worldwide—from ancient Rome to Russia to Latin America.

Engineering an Empire provides students with insights into the ways individuals forged the construction of bridges, aqueducts and monuments to their gods. Each of these architects and inventors started with ideas—and their ideas helped bring about turning points in their

societies, which profoundly affected the lives of ordinary people. This series also shows how those who may have seemed to be on the sidelines of history were often providing labor and ideas to help propel societies beyond their status quo.

Starting in 2012, commemorations of the War of 1812 will kick off as we look back to that era to understand how and why that conflict shaped the world. The HISTORY special *First Invasion: The War of 1812* offers a gripping take on the role of the War of 1812 in establishing the United States as a power on the world stage. Throughout this special there are many smaller turning points—the burning of Washington, the preservation by Dolley Madison of key American documents and works of art, and the rise of Andrew Jackson in the Battle of New Orleans (not to mention Francis Scott Key's famous poem)—which could prompt students to explore the deeper dimensions of this conflict. Exploring the broader turning points of conflicts like the War of 1812 or the Civil War can also inspire students to investigate the ways these wars were experienced at the state or local level and to see how their own communities may have been affected by these events.

I think video and digital media can be a dynamic way to prompt students to plunge into the primary sources to learn more about how people lived in the past and how they became engines of change. Whether students

choose a U.S. history or a world history topic, the 2013 theme gives them an excellent framework to delve into aspects of history they find intriguing. Year after year, National History Day helps students build essential citizenship and critical thinking skills while exploring the past. "Turning Points in History: People, Ideas, Events" is a rich and vibrant theme that will turn many new young people into historians in 2013.

Additional Resources

Visit History.com and History Classroom for short videos, original articles, maps and other resources:

www.history.com/classroom

Find great digital history resources through HISTORY's partnership with HMH: http://www.hmheducation.com/history/index.php

The National Archives' Our Documents site is an outstanding primary source destination: www.ourdocuments.gov

The World Digital Library from the Library of Congress is a great site for world history sources: http://www.wdl.org/en/

Center for History and New Media at George Mason University http://chnm.gmu.edu/

National History Education Clearinghouse http://teachinghistory.org/



The National World War II Museum Salutes National History Day



The National World War II Museum in New Orleans, state sponsor for Louisiana History Day, invites all National History Day participants to explore the fascinating, complex and relevant history of *The War That Changed the World*.™

If you are creating a World War II-themed project, we can help!

- ★ Contact our Education Staff to schedule a telephone interview or for general guidance.
- * Visit our website to learn how to conduct oral histories.
- ★ Download a WWII bibliography from our website.

For more information, go to: www.nationalww2museum.org/education







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