



National History Day 2020

***Breaking
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In History***



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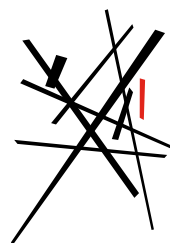
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What is National History Day[®]?



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

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

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

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

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

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

2020 Theme Narrative: Breaking Barriers in History

Cathy Gorn, Ph.D., Executive Director, National History Day®

We have a new theme for National History Day (NHD) 2020—*Breaking Barriers in History*. At first glance it seems fairly straightforward; however, sometimes things are not always what they seem. Your first task is to think carefully and critically about what “breaking barriers” means before you choose a topic to research.

The *Merriam-Webster Dictionary* defines a barrier as “something material that blocks or is intended to block passage.” What comes to your mind when you think of physical barriers? Why are barriers built in the first place? Who builds them and what do they hope to accomplish?

Merriam-Webster also defines a barrier as “a natural formation or structure that prevents or hinders movement or action.” What natural barriers come to mind that made movement by people difficult? Rivers, mountains, oceans, deserts, jungles, and more have been barriers in history. How did people come up with ways to break, or perhaps more likely hurdle, such barriers? Why was that important and what were the consequences? How did breaking such barriers influence the development of your community?

The *Dictionary* also explains a barrier as “something immaterial that impedes or separates.” How is something a barrier if it is not a physical barrier? Think about ideas as barriers. In what ways might legislation create or break barriers? Consider the history of your community. How did legal decisions decide questions about social or racial barriers? Were such barriers broken? How and why?

For a barrier to be broken, it must exist in the first place—either naturally like a mountain or created by humans and societies. For example, why was the Berlin Wall built? To protect people? From what? To control people? Why? What impact did it have locally? How about globally? Why did the Berlin Wall come down—why was it broken apart? What impact did that have on people in Berlin and around the world?

So, barriers can be physical, natural, or ideological. When you think of barriers, it is common to assume a barrier is a negative thing—created by people and societies, keeping them from the freedom to move or think for themselves. But are all barriers negative? Let us turn this upside down.

What barriers have had positive consequences in history? How about barriers against the spread of disease? Against pollution? Think about the Constitution of the United States. Did the Founders include barriers to protect democracy? Why did they feel it was necessary? The Founders were careful to consider historical context and understood that they could not predict

the future. Did they create a process to break barriers within the document or add new ones? How and why? How did this process influence the course of the history of the United States?

Think about life in rural areas. How and why was barbed wire used in some places? How did it change the way in which people thought of private versus public property? Were there long-term consequences? If so, what were they?

“Firsts” might come to mind when you hear the theme for 2020. For example, the first to break the sound barrier. Why was it useful to break that barrier? What impact did that have on the history of flight? Of engineering? Of time? Was being first the most important message in this case, or was it the breaking of the barrier that transformed engineering and scientific opportunities and created change? A perennial favorite topic for NHD has been Elizabeth Blackwell, the first woman admitted to medical school in the United States. Did she break a barrier or did she put a crack in it?

2020 marks the one hundredth anniversary of women’s suffrage. The Nineteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution gave women the right to vote. But women (and their male supporters) had been fighting for this right for decades, so why did male politicians pass and ratify the amendment in 1920? What was different from other attempts? Did you know that women in the Wyoming Territory gained the right to vote in 1869? Was this done because men in Wyoming believed women were their equals and thus should have the same privileges? Or was there another, more expedient reason? To understand this question, you must examine it (as you must with any topic) by placing it into historical context.

Can you think of breaking barriers in world history? What kind of a barrier was feudalism in Medieval Europe and for whom? How did it structure society? Why? How long did it last and why was it finally broken? Can you think of political barriers and their consequences in China? In the Soviet Union? What were these barriers designed to achieve? Why? Can you explain how and why political barriers might be overcome?

Rarely is it one individual who breaks a barrier on his or her own; often it takes groups or movements to break barriers. In the year 1215, King John of England was forced to sign the Magna Carta. Why? By whom? What was the document and how did it influence the history of democracy?

Some barriers are theoretical, like state or national boundaries, and many boundaries are redrawn over time. These might be the result of war, treaties, or exploration. How were such boundaries decided? Why? What impact did they have on the

course of history—locally, nationally, or globally? For example, before 1871 Germany was not unified; instead, it was made up of numerous states. What brought these German states together? Why? How did German unification affect Europe and the world? What were the consequences?

Attitudes can be barriers. Some people have experienced physical or mental barriers. Historically, people with disabilities were often considered unfit for society. Today, we are more welcoming and accommodating to people with physical or mental issues. What happened to change such attitudes? What barriers were overcome and how? What was the Americans with Disabilities Act? What were the consequences for individuals and the communities in which they lived? Did attitudes related to race, poverty, or education cause people to create barriers. How? Why? Or how about barriers related to language and communication?

Do not forget about topics related to science and technology. How were attitudes regarding religion sometimes barriers to science? Consider the debate between Galileo and the Catholic Church. Or, you might think about the technological developments that broke barriers. What barrier did the invention of the printing press overcome? What changed as a result? What significance did this invention have in the short and long terms?

Why is historical context important? Considering the time and circumstances in which your topic took place is critical to drawing conclusions about your topic's significance in history. It is not enough to describe what happened; you must explain why your topic was important in history. Why and how did something happen? Most significantly, what were the consequences and how did your topic influence the course of history? This is what historians do and the year 2020 reminds us that our job is to see into the past. We do not have perfect 20/20 vision, but we do have the advantage of hindsight and the ability to conduct research and look at multiple perspectives. And historians have time and distance to examine change, consequences, and significance.

As you consider possible topics related to the theme, check out the essay in this book by Dr. Susan O'Donovan about the steps to researching and creating your NHD project.

Regardless of your topic, whether you chose from local, national or world history, no matter what time period, do not forget to answer the most important question:

SO WHAT?

TO ACCESS MORE THEME RESOURCES, GO TO [NHD.ORG/THEMEBOOK](https://www.nhd.org/themebook).

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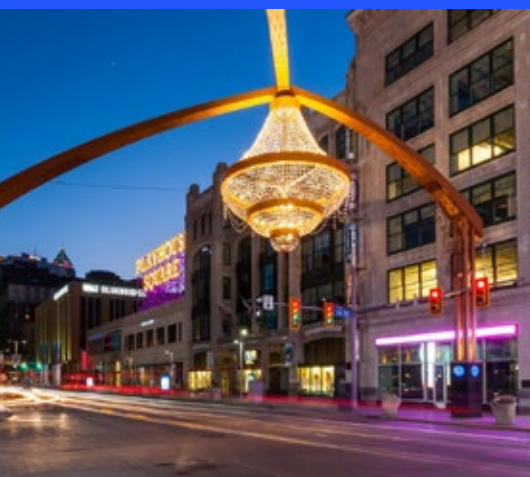
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The Five Steps of a History Day Project

Susan Eva O'Donovan, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Department of History, The University of Memphis

A lot of mystery surrounds what it is historians do, and what it means to think like a historian. In large part, this mystery stems from the fact that the history we encounter in our daily lives is usually the finished product. Books, documentaries, journal articles, even lectures mark the end, not the beginning or even the middle of historical thinking. They communicate the conclusions we reach through our thinking, not the thinking itself.

Making matters worse, the order in which historians present their information is not the same order in which they find and analyze their information. As Senator Ben Sasse of Nebraska (himself a historian) recently observed, the order of discovery is not the same as the order of presentation. Yet it is often the case that our students do not recognize these differences and end up combining and sometimes confusing what should be a series of clearly defined steps. It is a misunderstanding that can result in inside-out and upside-down thinking that encourages students to decide what form their projects will take and the points their projects will make without realizing that not all entry categories fit all topics, causing them to force-fit their topics into specific categories. The result can be projects that are light on research, light on analysis, and light on thinking while being heavy on presentation. In other words, projects with lots of bells and whistles and not much by way of substance.

The good news is that outcomes of this kind are entirely avoidable. All it requires is for us to help our students get

turned around and marching (thinking!) in the right direction. As most professional historians know, historical thinking unfolds in a near universal sequence, one that holds true regardless of what we are studying. It is a sequence that can be boiled down into five basic steps. When followed, these steps will not only ensure that discovery and presentation assume their proper relationship, but our students will better understand why and how discovery is different from and needs to precede final decisions about presentation. More importantly, in directing our students through these steps, we will help them become better historical thinkers by letting them experience first-hand what it is professional historians do on a daily basis.

Final presentation cannot occur before discovery is concluded. In most cases, students will complete the discovery phase prior to determining their entry category. However, there will be students with strong entry category preferences, or classroom situations in which a particular entry category is simply not an option. In those cases, we must help our students understand that not all topics can be properly presented in all entry categories, and guide them to select topics that can be clearly and effectively communicated in their preferred category. Regardless of when the entry category decision is made, students must confirm that their category will allow them to thoroughly convey their research and reasoning.



Students often focus on the final stage of an NHD project, but there are five steps to create a successful learning experience. Courtesy of National History Day.



Successful NHD projects start when students formulate a research question to drive their research process. Courtesy of National History Day.

STEP ONE: FORMULATING A RESEARCH QUESTION

Regardless of whether a professional historian is writing a blockbuster book or a student is preparing an entry for the National History Day® (NHD) contest, all historical research begins with a question. Research questions function as both compass and map. They tell us where to go, and they tell us how to get there. Research questions are not themes, nor are they topics. They are, however, related to both. Think of research questions as the operational side of a topic or theme. Take, for instance, the 2019 theme, *Triumph & Tragedy in History*. It tells students what they need to think about. But in itself, *Triumph & Tragedy in History* is not a question, nor is the topic about which our student is interested. Think of theme and topic as the soil within which we plan on digging. Like an archaeologist, we need something to be digging for, and that is where a research question comes in. Questions remind us what it is we are trying to figure out or discover.

For instance, if our student is thinking in terms of tragedy and triumph and is interested in the topic of the American Civil War, there is a whole range of questions she can ask. She can ask about women's experiences during the war, she can ask about the war's impact on the environment, she can ask about how the war changed technology or medicine or relationships between citizens and the federal government, she can ask about the impact of war on the national economy. If a student struggles to identify a question, point her toward the library and have her open up a secondary source on her chosen topic. Since a good book often generates questions (Why didn't the author think this? What if the author had thought about that?), historians often find their research questions in the secondary literature.

Notice, though, that I have not mentioned much about the theme. I did that purposefully. Our student needs to start

digging into the primary sources, using her research question as her shovel, before she can begin to decide if what she discovers constitutes a triumph or a tragedy. All we want her to do at this stage is keep that theme tucked away in the back of her mind.

STEP TWO: LOOKING FOR INFORMATION (OTHERWISE KNOWN AS RESEARCH)

After weighing her options against the NHD theme and maybe a having a few conversations with her teacher, our student has settled on a research question. She wants to know how the American Civil War impacted technology. She may want to refine her question a little bit more (technology is still a pretty big subject), perhaps by narrowing it down to medical technology or transportation technology, but regardless, she knows that she is on the hunt for information about technology during the Civil War. Her research question is her road map and compass all rolled into one. It points her toward the more useful sources and, at the same time, reminds her about what she is supposed to be looking for: information about technological change during the American Civil War. Questions, in other words, make research more efficient.

Our student may want to start that research by seeing what kind of primary sources have been used by other historians of Civil War technology. She can do this by consulting their books and scholarly articles and reading through their bibliographies and footnotes. It is a quick way to get started on her research. But she is not going to want to depend exclusively on other historians' sources. She needs to strike off into the archives on her own. Armed with her question, she can do subject searches in places like the Library of Congress and other online and conventional archives.

Librarians and archivists are also fantastic resources. They know the primary sources in their collections and they are eager to help NHD students identify and use the most appropriate sources for the questions they are asking. Then comes the fun part (and honestly, my favorite part of being a historian): delving into those acid-free boxes or downloading

National History Day maintains an (ever-growing) list of partner organizations who have resources for NHD students. We update it annually. Check out out at <https://www.nhd.org/partner-resources>.

sources from a library or university website. All of those sources are precious treasure chests, brimming with valuable hints and information that could very well provide answers to my research question.

The wider a student's research, the better. Using her research question, the student wants to circle around her topic, asking the same question over and over, but from different directions (ie: perspectives). In the case of our Civil War historian, she may want to ask about different kinds of technology or about Union technology as well as Confederate technology. She may want to ask about technological change on the home front as well as the battlefield. She might want to ask if women and men were differently affected by technological change. She needs to see as many sides of her topic as possible. No historian can know the whole story by only looking at a part of it.

The need to ask her question from many perspectives will often mean that our student will end up digging through different kinds of primary sources: letters, maps, diaries, photographs, newspaper clippings, court cases, and government documents, to name just a few. Each of these sources provides a different angle or view onto the past and allows students to more thoroughly answer their research questions. This is what judges look for when evaluating an entry's bibliography.

STEP THREE: ANALYSIS, OR MAKING SENSE OF THE EVIDENCE

Having used her question to dig all sorts of amazing information out of her primary sources, our student is ready to tackle the third step, which is making sense of all that information. Historians have a saying: "Facts don't speak for themselves, we speak for them." Analysis is where all that talking begins to happen, and one of the first ways we start the process is by organizing the information we gathered into the order in which it was produced.

Arranging our information chronologically is helpful. It allows us to begin to get a sense of causal relationship. For instance, arranging our information in chronological order enables us to better see where a process began and when it ended, and how the in-between pieces connected. Just as importantly, arranging our information in chronological order helps us to put the topic we are studying into its historical context. Context is key to our understanding of the past. We are no more likely to understand the past without reference to the larger context than we are to understand words that have been taken out of a sentence or paragraph.

Arranging and thinking about our information in its chronological order allows us to begin asking what else was going on at the same time that might have bearing on the topic we are studying. This is another place where secondary sources come in handy. Students can use their textbooks and other scholarly books to fill in the context, rummaging through the pages to find out what else was going on that might have bearing on the past we are studying. For instance, our Civil War historian might want to know more about battles, their locations, and the size of the armies involved (battles, after all, need guns and cannons and other forms of technology). Our student might also want to pay attention to any efforts by government to promote new technology, where new factories were built, and when new weapons were developed and by whom. In working up a chronology, she might even discover that new factories followed hot on the heels of large military engagements. Contextual information helps us make sense of (speak for!) our facts.

Contextualization is not all that happens during the analysis phase. This is where students must also ask hard questions of their evidence. When was the document written, by whom was it written, and for what purpose was it written? Where was it written? Who was the intended audience? Who acts in the document, and who does not? Does the author use masculine or feminine pronouns, or does she use both? Historians ask



Good NHD projects lead students to place a topic in historical context, contextualize their evidence, and draw independent conclusions. Courtesy of National History Day.

questions like these in order to distinguish reliable from less-reliable information. We take our sources seriously, but we really do not want to be caught taking them literally. When that happens, it means we have skipped a very important analytical step.

STEP FOUR: ADDING IT UP, OR DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

With research and analysis complete, it is now time to start drawing conclusions. Here again, the question that governed our research and analysis provides a guide as we begin the mental work of adding up all the archival and contextual information we have found. Just as we would never want our physician to overlook or ignore even the smallest scrap of information, we should never allow ourselves (or our students) to overlook or ignore any scrap of information that has come to light through research and analysis. Everything must be taken into account.

Drawing conclusions can be hard work, especially when those conclusions contradict our previously held beliefs. However, historians cannot overlook, ignore, or override any piece of evidence, not even pieces that make us uncomfortable. Intellectual honesty demands nothing less. Suppose, for example, one of our students found evidence that some women flourished during the American Civil War while other women suffered terribly. Any conclusion our student draws must then reflect that ambiguity, or she could narrow her project and argue more simply that a certain group of women (for a certain set of reasons) flourished in war. What she cannot do is

conclude that the Civil War was a triumph for all women. That would be incorrect based on her evidence.

Drawing sound conclusions requires us to be honest with ourselves and honest about our evidence. Sometimes our conclusions take us to unexpected places, and our first inclination might be to resist. There are strategies we can employ that will help our students complete this stage of their projects without violating standards of intellectual or academic integrity. For instance, we can team up our student with a classmate who reads all the evidence she gathered and challenges her to explain how those pieces fit into her reasoning. If her reasoning does not fit her evidence, then we encourage her to adjust her conclusions accordingly.

Teaching with Primary Sources at Middle Tennessee State University has developed a series of graphic organizers that help students draw conclusions, guiding them through a process in which they take into account everything they have discovered during the research and development stages of their NHD projects. Go to https://library.mtsu.edu/ld.php?content_id=43508591 to access these four graphic organizers:

- Main Ideas and Supporting Evidence
- Multiple Perspectives: Point/Counterpoint
- Connecting Ideas Across Texts
- Causes and Effects

STEP FIVE: PACKAGING THE PROJECTS

Remember back at the beginning where I mentioned the distinction Senator Ben Sasse draws between the order of discovery and the order of presentation? Well, we have finally arrived at that stage where students are done discovering and must now prepare to present. As Senator Sasse suggests, presentation does not happen in the same order in which historians discover. If it did, all our students would have to do would be to describe their research and analysis process. Instead, they need to do something different in this final stage. They need to explain the conclusions they drew and what it was they saw in the evidence that led them to their conclusions. In other words, they need to explain their reasoning, not their research.



NHD projects make students into historians, drawing their own conclusions about their topic and presenting their unique argument and point of view. Courtesy of National History Day.



NHD's five project categories encourage students to choose a category that is well-suited to the topic they have selected. Courtesy of National History Day.

This is the point at which many students will determine the most suitable vehicle for conveying that explanation. Is it a paper? A documentary? A performance? A website or an exhibit? For those who previously selected an entry category, this is the point at which they must confirm that their chosen category will effectively convey their research and reasoning, and consider changing categories if that is not the case.

Like everything else having to do with historical thinking, choosing the form the final project takes is not a random act. Entry categories must be a function of the conclusions our students need to explain and the kind of evidence they will use to demonstrate their explanations.

For instance, if we have a student faced with explaining something complex and who will be using textual information, rather than images, to demonstrate his points, a paper might be the most reasonable choice. Papers allow students to use the written word to present their information. On the other hand, if we have a student researching a topic rich in images, an exhibit might be an excellent choice. Exhibits allow students to organize the “before” story, the big event, and the consequences of whatever it was that happened on a museum-like display, using still images and personal analysis to present the results of their research and reasoning.

Documentaries are an ideal option for topics that rely on visual, audio, and cinematic evidence to tell a story. They give students the opportunity to create multimedia presentations that convey

their analysis and conclusions using the sights and sounds of the past. Websites can also be a good way for students to present a variety of still images in combination with short film or audio clips. Because navigation through a website is not necessarily linear, websites allow students to lay out parallel lines of reasoning that are tied together through strategic use of tabs and links.

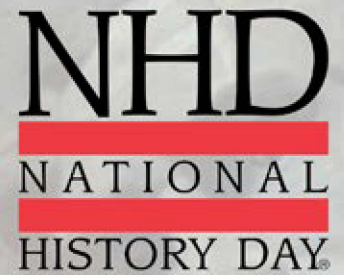
Finally, there is performance. It can be a great choice for students who want to present a dramatic portrayal of an event by combining historical fact and their own analysis with stage settings, costumes, facial and hand gestures, and body posture.

There is a big point here. None of these choices can be made without students knowing what they need to explain. Just like a doctor must be confident that a course of treatment is appropriate to treat a disease, each NHD student must make certain that his or her choice of entry category will be the best vehicle to present the answer to the historical question they are being asked.

The good news is that by the time a student has worked her way through the first four steps, she will have an answer to her research question, she will have thought her way through her evidence to a sound conclusion, and she will know which bits and pieces of her evidence to use to demonstrate those conclusions. All that will be left for her to do in step five is to present her reasoning (and the best of her evidence) to a team of admiring judges.

TO ACCESS MORE THEME RESOURCES, GO TO [NHD.ORG/THEMEBOOK](https://www.nhd.org/themebook).

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Discovering Pioneers and Those Who Broke Barriers Using Library of Congress Collections

Lee Ann Potter, Director of Learning and Innovation, Library of Congress

Stephen Wesson, Educational Resources Specialist, Library of Congress

INTRODUCTION

If you ask your students to brainstorm a list of individuals who broke barriers, Chuck Yeager breaking the sound barrier and Jackie Robinson breaking the color barrier in professional baseball are likely to be included.

Harriet Quimby, Frank Kameny, Mary Church Terrell, Bayard Rustin, and Jeannette Rankin may not immediately come to your students' minds. But, introducing these five individuals and the barriers that they confronted and broke may lead students to consider some truly unique National History Day® (NHD) projects—unique in terms of content as well as research possibilities.

Each of these stories lends itself to important considerations for students about the significance of breaking barriers. These three women and two men confronted professional barriers, gender barriers, and racial barriers, among others, at different times and in different places. Their motivations were both personal and collective. The relationships they had with others influenced their choices and actions. Their approaches and their impacts varied.

Numerous collections at the Library of Congress, containing sources in a variety of media, reveal a great deal about each of them. Some of the collections have been fully digitized and are fully text searchable, while others require searching through online finding aids. They all enable original student research.

FIVE WHO BROKE BARRIERS

HARRIET QUIMBY

"America's first Birdwoman is a San Francisco Girl," proclaimed the cover of *The San Francisco Call's* Sunday magazine, *The San Francisco Sunday Call*, on July 30, 1911. The article that followed reported, "American women are not usually slow when it comes to sports. But they have been slow in taking to flying. There are already several French women aviators, but only within the last week has the first American woman taken out a pilot's license. That woman is Miss Harriet Quimby. . ." Three days later, an article in *The San Francisco Call* confirmed that Quimby had been awarded her pilot's license on August 1, 1911, by the Aero Club of America, officially becoming the first woman in America to earn that distinction.



Front page of *The San Francisco Sunday Call* from July 30, 1911. Courtesy of *Chronicle America*, Library of Congress.

For the next ten months, newspapers from Utah to South Carolina, and from Washington to New York and beyond, featured stories about the 36-year-old journalist, originally from Coldwater, Michigan. The coverage further broadened when she became the first female pilot to cross the English Channel on April 16, 1912, (just one day after the sinking of the *Titanic*) by flying from Dover, Great Britain, to Calais, France, in a Blériot monoplane.

The attention ended quite abruptly on July 1, 1912, when Quimby and her passenger died in a plane crash during the Boston Aviation Meet. Her death, however, was certainly not the end of women breaking barriers in aviation. Her efforts inspired countless other women, including Amelia Earhart and Jacqueline Cochran.

The Library of Congress Chronicling America website features a special topics page related to Quimby that provides direct links to numerous articles. See www.loc.gov/rr/news/topics/quimby.html.

FRANK KAMENY

Sometimes people break barriers not only by fighting for a cause, but also by finding—or creating—new tools to use in the fight. When Frank Kameny, an astronomer with the U.S. Army Map Service, was fired in 1957 for being gay, the struggle for LGBTQ rights was in its earliest stages. Gay relationships were against the law in all 48 states, and activist groups were few and not widely known. Pioneers like Kameny had to create many of the movement's organizations and networks themselves.

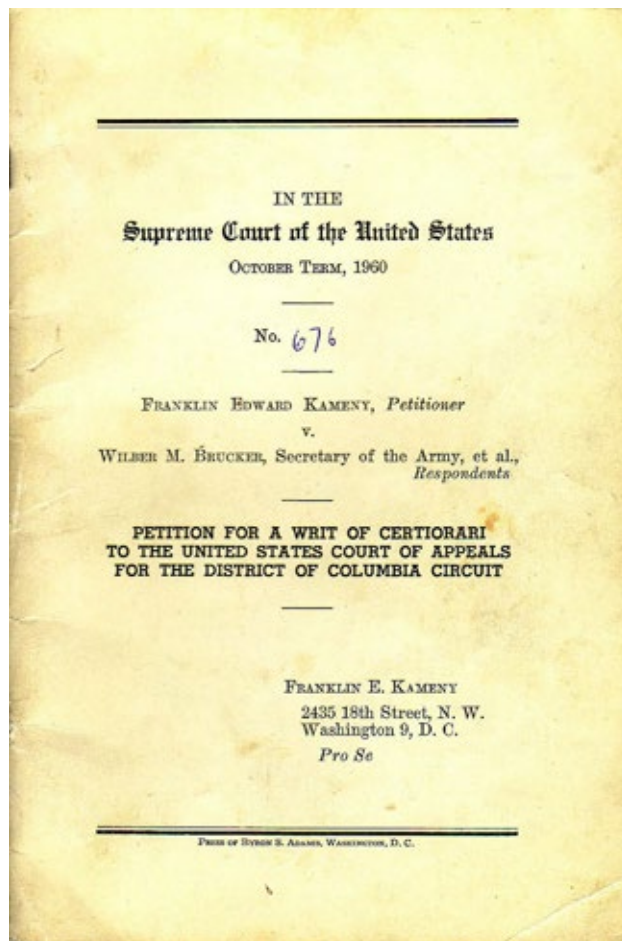


Library of Congress leaders join Franklin Edward Kameny, right, in a 2006 ceremony in which Kameny's papers were given to the Library. Courtesy of Gail Fineberg, Library of Congress.

In 1961, Frank Kameny founded the Mattachine Society of Washington, D.C., the city's first gay-rights advocacy group. Four years later, in 1965, he led the first public protests for gay rights in front of the White House. He went on to lead protests at the Pentagon, State Department, and United States Civil Service Commission, marching with fellow activists holding picket signs bearing messages such as "Homosexuals Ask for the Right to the Pursuit of Happiness." He also coined and promoted the slogan "Gay Is Good."

At the same time as he was leading street protests, Kameny worked to use the legal system to secure equal rights. In the late 1950s, he sued the government for reinstatement and appealed his case all the way to the Supreme Court, which refused to hear the appeal. He also supported civil servants

and members of the armed services in their battles against workplace discrimination, offering advice and legal research as well as representing gay and lesbian applicants before federal administrative review boards. Kameny filed the first civil rights claim based on sexual orientation ever pursued in a United States court, and in 1971 became the first openly gay candidate for the United States Congress when he campaigned for the District of Columbia's non-voting delegate seat.



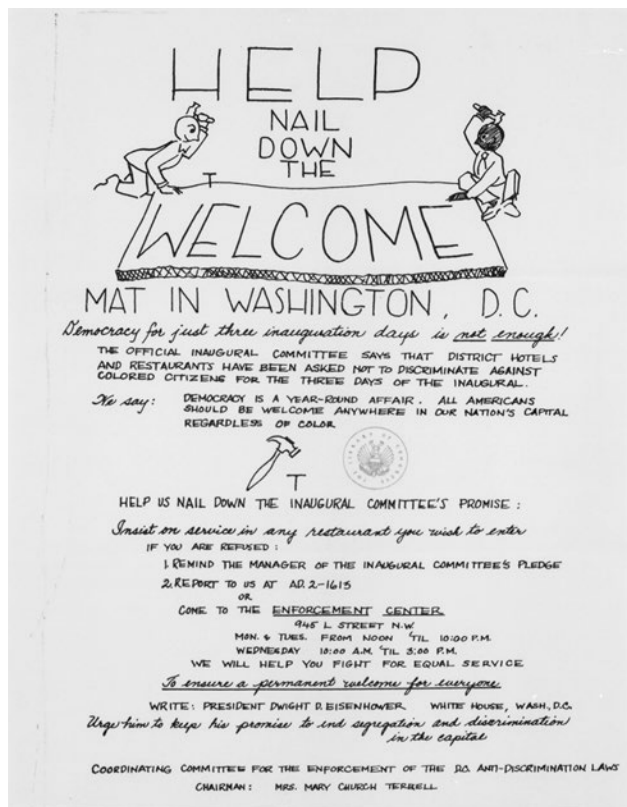
A petition to the U.S. Court of Appeals, District of Columbia Circuit, in the case of Franklin Edward Kameny v. Wilber Bruckner, Secretary of the Army, et al., from the U.S. Supreme Court, October Term 1960. Courtesy of Library of Congress.

By the 1970s, Kameny's efforts had resulted in the United States Civil Service Commission lifting its ban on gays and lesbians in federal employment, the reversal of Washington, D.C.'s, sodomy laws, and the elimination of policies that prohibited gays and lesbians from being granted security clearances. In 2009, the director of the United States Office of Personnel Management formally apologized to Frank Kameny for the "shameful action" of his 1957 dismissal and declared him "a true patriot." In 2011, less than a month after Kameny's death, his Washington home became the first LGBTQ historic site listed in the National Park Service's National Register of Historic Places.

In a video interview in the collections of the Veterans History Project of the Library of Congress, Dr. Kameny discusses his military service, his activism, and more. Go to <https://memory.loc.gov/diglib/vhp-stories/loc.natlib.afc2001001.05208/?locnr=blogloc>.

MARY CHURCH TERRELL

Throughout her long life, suffragist and civil rights leader Mary Church Terrell worked to break barriers in a wide range of fields and took on a variety of roles to do so. Born in 1863, the year Abraham Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation, Terrell went on to become one of the first African American women to earn a university degree and work as a journalist and educator in Washington, D.C. In her 30s, Terrell played an instrumental role in founding the National Association of Colored Women (NACW), serving as its first president, and later became a charter member of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP).



Flyer from the Coordinating Committee for the Enforcement of the D.C. Anti-Discrimination Laws, Washington, D.C., 1949-1954; in Mary Church Terrell Papers. Courtesy of the Library of Congress (mss425490264).

As a lecturer, club woman, and political campaigner, Terrell fought for women's suffrage, civil rights for African Americans, the Equal Rights Amendment, and educational programs for African Americans. She took on key roles in the political campaigns of Warren G. Harding, Calvin Coolidge, and Herbert Hoover. She knew and worked with civil rights and suffrage leaders spanning several generations of activism,

from Frederick Douglass and Alice Paul to W.E.B. Du Bois and Carrie Chapman Catt. While she was in her 80s, Terrell led the effort to desegregate restaurants and movie theaters in Washington, D.C., prompting a case that went all the way to the Supreme Court. Mary Church Terrell died months after the Supreme Court's *Brown v. Board of Education* decision ended segregation in public schools.

The Mary Church Terrell Papers are available online from the Library of Congress. They consist of approximately 13,000 items, including letters, diaries, speeches, and other writings that document Terrell's decades of activism and organizing. They can be found at www.loc.gov/collections/mary-church-terrell-papers/about-this-collection/.

The Finding Aid for the Mary Church Terrell papers, 1851-1962, can be found at http://findingaids.loc.gov/db/search/xq/searchMfer02.xq?_id=loc.mss.eadmss.ms009311&_faSection=overview&_faSubsection=did&_dmdid=d5153e6.

BAYARD RUSTIN

Taking a closer look at a well-known figure can reveal new areas of their life and work that are ripe for further exploration. Bayard Rustin is best known today as a master strategist of the African American civil rights movement. Working closely with the Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr., and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), he was an organizing force behind two landmark events of twentieth-century United States activism: the Montgomery Bus Boycott (1955-1956) and the 1963 March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom. However, Rustin's vision for social change was a global one, and throughout his life he worked to break barriers all over the world.

An activist from his teen years, Rustin was inspired by his Quaker faith to work for social reform abroad as well as at home. In the 1940s, as Rustin participated in early freedom rides in the southern United States, he also served as Fellowship of Reconciliation (FOR)'s chairman of the Free India Committee and traveled to India to observe freedom



Photograph of Bayard Rustin (center) speaking with (left to right) Carolyn Carter, Cecil Carter, Kurt Levister, and Kathy Ross, before demonstration, taken by Ed Ford World, published by Telegram & Sun, 1964. Courtesy of the Library of Congress (LC-USZ62-118982).

movements there. In London in the 1950s, he addressed a crowd of thousands in Trafalgar Square to launch the first great march against nuclear weapons in the United Kingdom. Later, he visited the capitals of Nigeria and the Gold Coast (present-day Ghana) to consult with independence leaders there. After his work in the civil rights movement of the 1950s and 60s, Rustin continued to advance the labor and human rights movements, and spoke out as a gay man against anti-LGBTQ discrimination. Fifty years after the March on Washington, Bayard Rustin was posthumously awarded the Presidential Medal of Freedom by President Barack Obama, who observed, "Mr. Rustin stood at the intersection of several of the fights for equal rights."

Although Rustin's papers are at the Library of Congress, they have not yet been digitized. However, there are a number of photographs in the online collections of the Library of Congress that document Bayard Rustin and his work in the civil rights movement. They can be found at www.loc.gov/photos/ (search "Bayard Rustin").

"A Time for Freedom" is a film in the Library's National Screening Room that includes footage at 21:08 of Rustin explaining his strategy of nonviolence. It can be accessed at www.loc.gov/item/mbrs01856600/.

Rustin was also mentioned by numerous individuals who were active in the Civil Rights Movement in the oral histories they recorded as part of the joint Library of Congress and Smithsonian Civil Rights History Project. Go to www.loc.gov/collections/civil-rights-history-project/about-this-collection/ and search "Bayard Rustin."

The American Archive of Public Broadcasting (AAPB), a collaboration between the Library of Congress and WGBH (Boston, Massachusetts), features The Educational Radio Network / ERN's coverage of the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom. It includes a sound recording of Bayard Rustin speaking at the March on Washington on August 28, 1963. Visit http://americanarchive.org/catalog/cpb-aacip_15-9707wn83.

JEANNETTE RANKIN

Jeannette Pickering Rankin became the first woman to hold federal office in the United States when she was elected to the House of Representatives from Montana in 1916. She was sworn into office on April 2, 1917, more than two years before the Nineteenth Amendment, which granted women nationwide the right to vote, was passed by Congress and ratified by the states.

Rankin campaigned as a suffragist, pacifist, and social reformer, prevailing against seven men in the Republican primary in her home state of Montana, where women had gained the right to vote in 1914.

She served in the 65th Congress, from 1917 to 1919, and again in the 77th Congress, from 1941 to 1943. In 1917, she was one of 50 members of the House of Representatives who, along with six senators, opposed United States entrance into World War I, and was the only member of Congress to vote against declaring



"Noted Character Analyst Reads Heads of First Congresswoman," published in *The Day Book* (Chicago, IL), February 12, 1917. Courtesy of *Chronicling America*, Library of Congress.

war against Japan in 1941, following the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.

Although her papers are not at the Library of Congress, materials related to her are included in numerous collections. For example, thousands of articles, editorials, and photographs that appeared in American newspapers featuring Rankin are available through *Chronicling America*. These can be found at <https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/> (search "Jeannette Rankin").

The National American Woman Suffrage Association Collection includes materials related to Rankin. For example, she is included in *The Woman Suffrage Yearbook 1917* that was originally produced for use by suffrage workers. It contained statistical information valuable for conducting a national suffrage campaign, such as a listing of the states and foreign nations in which either full or partial woman suffrage existed, a list of senators and representatives who both favored and opposed woman suffrage, and an analysis of various laws that affected women and children. For an explanation of the collection, visit www.loc.gov/collections/national-american-woman-suffrage-association/about-this-collection/. *The Woman Suffrage Yearbook 1917* can be found at www.loc.gov/item/17007468/.

Also, the text of proposed legislation related to honoring and commemorating Rankin through a postage stamp and a statue, as well as information about other associated legislative actions, are available through Congress.gov. Go to www.congress.gov, and search “Jeannette Rankin.”

CONCLUSION

The individuals featured in this article—Harriet Quimby, Frank Kameny, Mary Church Terrell, Bayard Rustin, and Jeannette

Rankin—and countless others who broke barriers can be discovered in the collections of the Library of Congress. These collections contain records of people whose names and faces are still well-known today as well as pioneers who were hailed during their lifetimes but have since been largely forgotten. It is important to remember that behind each of these leaders identified with a historic breakthrough were other people—sometimes generations of people—whose names never appeared in print, but who laid the groundwork for each barrier-breaking moment. Challenge your students to break barriers by telling their stories!

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Smithsonian American Women's History Initiative

Michelle Anne Delaney, Senior Program Officer for History and Culture, Smithsonian Institution

BECAUSE OF HER STORY



#BECAUSEOFHERSTORY

As the United States approaches the 100th anniversary of women's suffrage in 2020, the Smithsonian Institution is embarking on an ambitious five-year plan for an American Women's History Initiative. This pan-Institutional effort will encourage scholars and educators from across the Smithsonian's 19 museums, and its libraries, archives, and research centers, to focus on women's history and expand related collecting, exhibitions, publications, websites, and educational programming for art, history and culture, and science. Smithsonian staff is working with former members of the American Women's History Museum Congressional Commission, which after two years of intensive research submitted its report to Congress in November 2016. This Initiative was specifically highlighted within the Commission report to Congress. It serves as an opportunity for the Institution to amplify American women's history and reach its broad audiences through stories and objects that reflect the diverse women's stories in United States history.

Public and private funds are being raised for the Smithsonian's American Women's History Initiative through a Congressional federal appropriation of \$2 million annually for the five years and an active fundraising effort by the Institution. The Smithsonian's dedicated plan includes increased philanthropy, foundation grants, and new public support to expand and hire new curatorial staff, preserve existing collections, design and produce new exhibitions, publish books, enhance digital stories online, program educational outreach, and establish paid internships.


A major exhibition is being planned by the National Museum of American History that will explore the roles of women in American history. It will be on view for 18 months in 2020-2021, followed by a five-year nationwide tour of the exhibition through the Smithsonian Traveling Exhibition Service. The

National Portrait Gallery will display a second important exhibition of portrait paintings, photographs, and sculpture, which represent the stories of how women fought to gain political representation and the eventual right to vote.

Smithsonian American Women's History is a book planned for October 2019 release. It brings together 95 scholar authors from 16 Smithsonian museums, libraries, archives, and research centers to present individual objects, collections, and the stories of the unique holdings of the Institution. New insights from the curators' research, with creative design and juxtapositions of museum collections, are represented in chapters incorporating a chronological history of women's impact on society from pre-colonial times to the present in America, with major contributions from the collections of the National Museum of American History, National Museum of African American History and Culture, National Portrait Gallery, and National Air and Space Museum.

The American Women's History Initiative's new website (<https://womenshistory.si.edu/>) outlines that the project "will uncover and highlight the stories of women, their way of life and their achievements past and present. The program will increase our knowledge and appreciation of women's contributions to art, history, science, business, and culture." The Smithsonian will employ a "digital-first" strategy to attract new audiences and increase awareness of the accomplishments and achievements of women within the national narrative.

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Julia Huston Nguyen, Senior Program Officer, Division of Education Programs, National Endowment for the Humanities

Newspapers are an excellent resource for National History Day® (NHD) projects and for classroom teaching. They offer an “in the moment” perspective on local, national, and international events. The photographs, cartoons, advertisements, letters, and other items add richness and depth to our understanding of how people in the past lived.

Chronicling America (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/>), funded through a partnership between the National Endowment for the Humanities and the Library of Congress, is an excellent source of digitized historic American newspapers with over 14 million pages spanning the years 1789 to 1963. All material on *Chronicling America* is freely available to the public, and users can download individual pages in a variety of formats.

Finding primary sources can be a challenge for many National History Day students. *Chronicling America's* digitized newspapers can add useful context to a project dealing with a well-studied event, such as President Jefferson's commissioning of the Lewis and Clark expedition. Newspapers can be even more crucial for research on a topic like the experience of Italian immigrant miners in West Virginia, where participants left relatively few first-hand, written sources. Students researching topics on less-studied or marginalized groups face significant barriers as they work to uncover primary sources that represent the perspectives of those communities, and *Chronicling America* can help.

Many users are not aware that in addition to mainstream papers like the *New-York Tribune* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83030214/>) or *The Arizona Republican* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83025465/>), *Chronicling America* is also an excellent source for newspapers published by marginalized communities as well as those published in languages other than English. These newspapers can help students break through difficult research barriers in order to access the experiences and perspectives of communities not frequently included in typical primary sources.

AFRICAN AMERICAN NEWSPAPERS

The African American press served as a mouthpiece and resource for black communities across the nation in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Reading publications like *The Richmond Planet* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84025841/>) or *The Appeal* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83016810/>), published in St. Paul, Minnesota, can help students understand how African Americans fought against marginalization and racial oppression in communities around the country. For instance, *The Denver Star* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84025887/>) published editorials condemning Jim Crow segregation and urged its readers to boycott *The Birth of a Nation* when it was released in 1915.

The Denver Star (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84025887/>) published editorials condemning Jim Crow segregation and urged its readers to boycott *The Birth of a Nation* when it was released in 1915.



The Washington Bee, like many newspapers of its time, expressed a clear political opinion. Courtesy of Chronicling America.



The *Chronicling America* search tabs allow students to narrow their search and zero in on specific information. Most often, students will use one of these two tabs:

“Search Pages” tab (https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/#tab=tab_search) allows students to search for specific keywords and narrow results by state and date.

“All Digitized Newspapers” tab (https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/#tab=tab_newspapers), makes it easy for students to sort newspapers by state, language, and ethnicity.

Students can also learn about African American history and culture directly from black writers and editors rather than filtered through the perceptions and potential biases of white observers. Publications like the Washington, D.C., *The Colored American* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83027091/>) and *The Washington Bee* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84025891/>) adopted the practice of using their own reporters rather than relying on republished articles from other newspapers. That meant that events were covered from a perspective that spoke to the concerns and experiences of readers in African American communities.

Chronicling America partners have digitized a number of African American newspapers. One notable group comes from South Carolina, where Charleston’s *South Carolina Leader* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83025783/>) began publication in 1865. It can provide valuable insights into the transition from slavery to freedom at the end of the Civil War. *Chronicling America* also features several digitized newspapers published in the District of Columbia, most notably Frederick Douglass’s *New National Era* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84026753/>) from the 1870s.

Many African American newspapers emerged from outside the South. *The Seattle Republican* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84025811/>), for example, was founded in the 1890s by Horace Cayton, a former slave. The newspaper, which ceased publication in 1913, supported the Republican Party and advocated for fair treatment of African Americans in the Pacific Northwest and beyond. Cayton was also an anti-corruption crusader, which sometimes made him powerful enemies. In the Midwest, the early twentieth-century *The Tulsa Star* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn86064118/>) represented the views and concerns of that city's vibrant black community, urging economic reliance among the flourishing businesses of Tulsa's "Black Wall Street" and campaigning against lynching. The newspaper ceased publication when its office was destroyed in the 1921 Tulsa race riot and its publisher was forced to leave the city.

This dramatic history of activism and repression is echoed in the experiences of other black publishers and editors. Their newspapers can help students better understand events and political developments that have shaped the African American experience. These newspapers also serve as vital conduits to a social and economic world that often seems lost in the past. Advertisements can help uncover the development of black-owned businesses. Poetry, fiction, and music highlight prolific cultural production while editorials and letters to the editor show students the concerns, both big and small, of a city's black residents.

THE IMMIGRANT PRESSES

Immigrant communities, too, had newspapers focused on their members' needs and concerns. The range offered on *Chronicling America* defies shallow categorization. As one might expect based on settlement patterns, the site includes a number of German immigrant newspapers published in the upper Midwest in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. However, it also features newspapers from outside the Midwest such as the Allentown, Pennsylvania, *Der Lecha County Patriot* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn88080711/>), published in various incarnations from the 1830s to the 1870s, and Nashville's *Tennessee Staatszeitung* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn86053575/>) from the 1860s.

These publications served as resources for immigrants, guiding their adjustment to life in a new country by helping them find work, homes, and community organizations. They carried advertisements for businesses owned by and tailored to the needs of fellow immigrants and offered advice about their new lives in the United States. *The Patriot* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn85054967/>), a bilingual Italian American paper published in Indiana, Pennsylvania, encouraged its readers to seek United States citizenship and included the "Questions that a Good Citizen Should Know" column to help them in the process. Many other immigrant newspapers ran similar features.

Students can use the immigrant press to better understand some of the reasons people left their homes for the United

States. Articles about European wars, political crises, or economic troubles, for example, satisfied immigrant desires to keep up with the news in the countries they had left. They also point to some of the causes of later waves of immigration. Advertisements for land or jobs in American communities illustrate the attraction of the United States for people struggling to survive or get ahead in their home countries.

These newspapers can also illuminate the roots of distinctive immigrant-American cultures as they developed. *La Sentinella del West Virginia* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn86092310/>) served as the periodical for a growing community of immigrant workers in early twentieth century West Virginia and included articles about both Italian events and American political news. It reported on events taking place at local Italian American social clubs and churches as immigrants created new institutions and traditions. In its pages and those of similar periodicals, students can trace the development of immigrant-owned businesses; analyze community transitions through announcements of marriages, births, and deaths; investigate the rise of community political leaders; research concerns about language and cultural preservation; and much more.

As immigrant communities grew and matured, the nature of the newspapers serving them changed. In some cases, papers that had been published exclusively in the home language began to incorporate more English content. When *Zajedničar* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84024547/>), a newspaper serving Croatian immigrants, began publication in 1904 in Allegheny, Pennsylvania, it was printed only in Serbo-Croatian. By the 1930s, however, as a generation of children raised in the United States came of age, editors moved to a bilingual format. Toward the end of its five-decade run in the 1920s, editors of Minnesota's German language *Der Nordstern* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83045350/>) also added an English-language section in an effort to reach out to younger readers.

Other newspapers changed with the shifting political affiliations of their editors and readership. In the nineteenth century, periodicals of all kinds frequently embraced explicit political affiliations, and the immigrant press was no different. Over the course of a 50-year publishing history, Finnish-language *Uusi Kotimaa* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83025242/>), published in Minnesota, went from a conservative religious publication to a mainstream Republican newspaper and then from a radical journal with a farmer-laborer perspective to one that chronicled the interests of industrial workers, as editors responded to changing ownership and the rise of industrialization on Minnesota's Iron Range.

World War I also had an impact on many immigrant newspapers. As the United States went to war with Germany, a number of German language titles ceased publication amid fierce anti-German sentiment. Some, like the *Tägliche Cincinnati Volksblatt* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83045474/>), found themselves under investigation by the federal government for suspected sympathies with Germany. Others faced less official but equally serious problems. Advertising revenue fell, newsstands stopped carrying many

German language titles, and German Americans feared being seen reading them. Even long-running and well-established journals like Baltimore's *Der Deutsche Correspondent* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83045081/>), published since 1841, could not weather these difficulties. It folded in 1918. By 1920, the German American press had been decimated, and the number of publications available in German never again reached pre-World War I numbers.

In addition to newspapers published to serve very large immigrant groups, including German, Italian, and Polish, *Chronicling America* also has digitized newspapers in less common languages like Finnish, Icelandic, and Romanian. *Vinland* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn90060662/>), published in Minnesota, Minnesota, is thought to be the only Icelandic language newspaper in the United States, and Detroit's *Ad-daleel* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn98066259/>), published in Arabic, served southern Michigan's early twentieth century Lebanese immigrants.

Students who wish to consult newspapers from immigrant communities will face one big barrier. Many of the immigrant papers were published entirely in the immigrants' home language, which can be impossible for students to access without the necessary language skills. They can be excellent resources, however, for the foreign language classroom. Creative partnerships between history and language classrooms can help break through this language barrier, as can collaboration with community members and organizations such as historical societies or cultural groups.

A number of newspapers, however, included a mix of items in English and items in another language. For example, San Antonio's *Freie Presse für Texas* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83045227/>) was published primarily in German but included some advertising in English. In Pennsylvania, *The Millheim Journal* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83008556/>), like several others, followed a bilingual format with two pages in German and two in English. Because most Irish immigrants spoke English as a first or second language, Irish American newspapers were published in English, though some offered columns or scattered content in Irish. Publishers and editors made linguistic decisions based on their understanding of the community's needs, as well as their own assessments of how best to serve their readers and help them settle into life in a new country.

FRENCH, SPANISH, AND INDIGENOUS LANGUAGE NEWSPAPERS

Immigrants were not the only groups who confronted the issue of language when publishing newspapers. The French-speaking residents of Louisiana and the Spanish-speaking residents of the Southwest were not immigrants, but nineteenth century geopolitics thrust them into a new nation in the aftermath of the Louisiana Purchase (1803), the Mexican-American War (1846-1848), and the Spanish-American War (1898). Newspapers in these communities helped readers maintain their native languages and cultures as they adapted to new political realities. In Louisiana, for example, the *Baton-Rouge Gazette*

(<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn82003383/>) was founded in 1819 as a bilingual newspaper, publishing two pages in French and two in English. English-speaking settlers arrived in Louisiana rapidly after the purchase, however, and by the 1840s French content had disappeared from the *Gazette*. Smaller, more isolated communities like Napoleonville and Lucy (now Edgar), on the other hand, were able to maintain French language newspapers much longer, in some cases into the early twentieth century.



Chronicling America's collections include the Spanish language newspaper, La Prensa, from San Antonio, Texas. Courtesy of Chronicling America.

Publications serving Spanish-speaking communities in Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, and Puerto Rico can also be found on *Chronicling America*. In Tucson, Arizona, for example, *El Fronterizo* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn95070521/>), published for more than three decades in the late nineteenth century, advocated for Hispanic pride and against assimilation into mainstream Anglo-American culture. *El Nuevo Mexicano* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn94056869/>), by contrast, was the sister publication to the English-language *Santa Fe New Mexican* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn84020630/>) and took a more mainstream editorial stance, arguing in favor of statehood for New Mexico.

Students using *Chronicling America* can also find a few issues of a newspaper published by a Native community. For example, *The Cherokee Phoenix* (<https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83020874/>), published in Georgia in the 1820s and 1830s, printed the Cherokee Constitution and other documents related to tribal government and provided in-depth coverage of the Cherokee Nation's efforts to maintain control of their lands as the United States government pushed for removal.

CONCLUSION

We have highlighted just a few of the many ethnic newspapers available on *Chronicling America* and have only hinted at their broad range and the diversity of their content. Beyond the simple fact that the experiences—and therefore the publications—of African Americans were necessarily different from those of immigrants from Europe, and that immigrants from different countries and time periods also had different experiences, study of *Chronicling America's* newspapers can foster a deeper and more nuanced understanding of our nation's history and diversity.

Students should keep in mind that these newspapers, like the communities they served, did not always share common goals. In Washington, D.C., *The Washington Bee* was fiercely critical of noted black educator and author Booker T. Washington, while *The Colored American* supported Washington's views. Immigrant newspapers, too, reflected the diversity of those who came to the United States. Within the Czech American community, one could find newspapers catering to socialists, freethinkers, and Catholics. Among Polish language newspapers, readers could choose from titles supported by the Catholic Church as well as titles critical of the church's influence in Polish American communities.

Although these newspapers served very different communities, all provided valuable services to their readers and reflected community needs and concerns. They helped readers chip away at barriers to full participation in American society, as articles and editorials highlighted injustices, promoted community-owned businesses, and educated new immigrants. They can also help your National History Day students break through research barriers by helping them access the perspectives of communities that were often marginalized. By including material from *Chronicling America's* digitized historic newspapers, students can create stronger, more finely nuanced, and more richly contextualized projects.

To gain a deeper understanding of the ethnic and foreign language content of *Chronicling America*, take a look at these blog posts from [neh.gov](https://www.neh.gov):

- <https://www.neh.gov/divisions/preservation/featured-project/new-mexico-new-spain-old-cultures-historic-spanish-language->
- <https://www.neh.gov/divisions/preservation/featured-project/chronicling-americas-historic-german-newspapers-and-the-grow>
- <https://www.neh.gov/divisions/preservation/featured-project/published-the-elevation-our-race-ten-historical-african-american-south-carolina>

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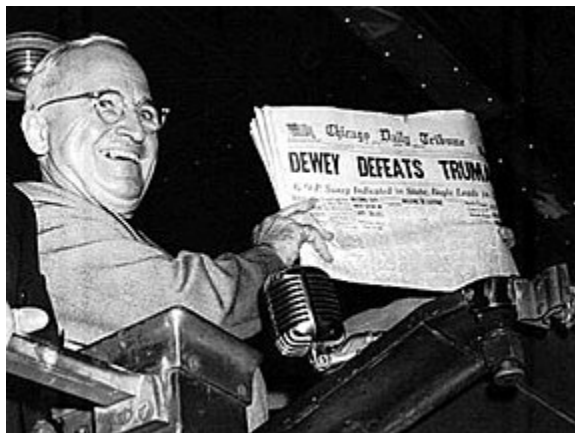
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Breaking Barriers: Being Black in a White Space

Jacquelyn Browning, NHD Resource Coordinator, National Museum of African American History and Culture, Smithsonian Institution

Candra Flanagan, Coordinator of Student and Teacher Initiatives, National Museum of African American History and Culture, Smithsonian Institution

In April 2018, two African American men were arrested in a Starbucks in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, as they sat to wait for a business associate. The racial bias that caused an employee to assume the worst about these men and call the police, who also displayed bias in their actions, reopened a deep conversation about where people of color, especially African Americans, belong.

Belonging is a vital and basic human need. A sense of belonging happens in a variety of spaces and is what connects people and allows them to feel like a part of a larger whole. African Americans have struggled throughout United States history to belong to the American experience. This struggle has often been beset by the direct message that African Americans did not belong in certain spaces because those spaces were reserved for white people.

Throughout the history of the United States, people of African descent have not been welcomed as full and equal participants in many spaces. Laws and norms were created and maintained to protect spaces that were largely for white people or in which white people held power. The most distinctive feature about these white spaces is the overwhelming presence of white people and the absence of black people.¹ For the purposes of this article, “white space” refers to tangible physical space such as a social club, a school, and public transportation as well as to non-physical spaces such as professions, people to people interactions, or even the intimate space of the household.

When African Americans enter white space, either physically or figuratively, they are put in the position of having to either fit into a preconceived notion of what black people are (often a stereotype) or to work hard to “prove” themselves as worthy or non-threatening (either in a physical sense or to the status quo).²

This article will outline some of the spaces that have historically been shaped by white people and/or white privilege and will provide examples of how African Americans have broken barriers—both physical and ideological—in the struggle for equality, recognition, and liberty. Through the stories of these African Americans, one can more fully understand the courage it takes to break barriers, the price that many have had to pay in doing so, and the steps toward African American equality in American society that have been gained by breaking barriers.



Photograph of Chase County High School (Kansas) Baseball Team, c. 1907. Courtesy of the Collection of the Smithsonian National Museum of African American History and Culture, Gift of Tyson D. Arnold.

THE PRIVATE SPACE

Nowhere is the feeling of belonging and being a part of a larger whole more personal than in the space one calls home. African Americans and white people have shared the private space of home in various groupings and relationships. Some relationships were established through coercion or force and other connections developed in more natural, loving ways. The socially accepted norms, or barriers, that considered people of color as less than human were often broken within private or personal spaces, where the proximity of African Americans and white people allowed for personal knowledge of one another and the opportunity to engage in one another’s humanity.

Regulation of the private space was vital to the creation of the power structure dominated by white, male property owners. The fact that persons of varied backgrounds could find commonality in intimate spaces threatened the status quo and opened the door for organizing against the ruling group. Therefore, laws were created to prevent African Americans and white Americans from interacting in private. During the

1 Elijah Anderson, “The White Space,” *Sociology of Race and Ethnicity*, 1, no 1 (2015):10-21.

2 Anderson, “The White Space,” 10-21.

era of enslavement, free and enslaved African Americans who had access to white persons in private spaces by being body servants, drivers, personal attendants, and in some cases sharing familial ties, had greater opportunities. The shared humanity between black and white in these circumstances could lead to African Americans gaining freedom through manumission, increased access to education and legal assistance, or more favorable economic opportunities.



George Washington with his family. Courtesy of the Collection of the Smithsonian's National Portrait Gallery.

The life of William “Billy” Lee, enslaved body servant to President George Washington, demonstrates the paradox that defined life for a person of color. Purchased at a young age, Lee remained close to Washington, taking care of his every need, riding with him to survey the land, and accompanying him throughout the Revolutionary War (1775-1783). While letters from Washington and others touch upon the relationship between Lee and Washington, it can be suspected that the two men spent hours together in situations that tested the expectations of enslaved and slave owner. The relationship between the two men compelled Washington to recognize Lee’s humanity. Upon his death, Washington immediately freed only one of his enslaved persons in his will. That person was William Lee.³

THE PUBLIC SPACE

The common spaces of society such as public parks, schools, and transportation, were often regulated in order to control who had access to them. Throughout history, these public spaces were reserved for white citizens through social norms and legal statutes. The barriers that were created further entrenched segregation and amplified feelings of “otherness” among races. Many whites tolerated the presence of African Americans and at the same time heavily monitored, restricted,

or limited access to remind them of their status as second-class citizens. African Americans fought to break barriers in these public spaces through individual protest, collective action, lawsuits, and civil disobedience.

One hundred years before Rosa Parks refused to give up her seat on a bus, Elizabeth Jennings Graham drew attention to the right of African Americans to access public space and questioned the second class status of African Americans in the antebellum North. In 1854, Graham was directed to disembark from a horse-drawn streetcar in New York City simply because she was a black woman. She refused. The white conductor wrestled her out of the car and threw her to the street. Although she was a free woman in a free state, she had to fight for her rights in the public space. She took her case against the Third Avenue Railway Company to court. She was awarded \$250 in damages and the line was ordered desegregated. This ultimately led to the desegregation of all of New York City’s streetcars.⁴

Educational institutions were another major public space where African Americans were barred from equal access. As early as the mid 1800s the battle over access to equal education had begun in Boston, Massachusetts, with *Roberts v. City of Boston* (1849). While this case ultimately led to the state enforcing discriminatory practices, the fire for the fight that would culminate in *Brown v. Board of Education* in 1954 had been ignited. The long, consistent struggle of African Americans demonstrated the power of collective action to open what had



“Turned Away” Roberts v. the City of Boston. Courtesy of the Digital Public Library of America.

been a white space to include others and offered a chance at intellectual improvement. This type of collective action continued for years and was coupled with intense legal action in the 1950s, which spurred the U.S. Supreme Court to rule in *Brown v. Board of Education* that segregated schooling was inherently unconstitutional. This landmark decision, one of the

³ Kenneth C. Davis, *In the Shadow of Liberty: The Hidden History of Slavery, Four Presidents and Five Black Lives* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 2016) 37-85.

⁴ John Hewitt. “The Search for Elizabeth Jennings, Heroine of a Sunday Afternoon in New York City.” *New York History* 71, no. 4 (1990): 386-415. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23175309>.

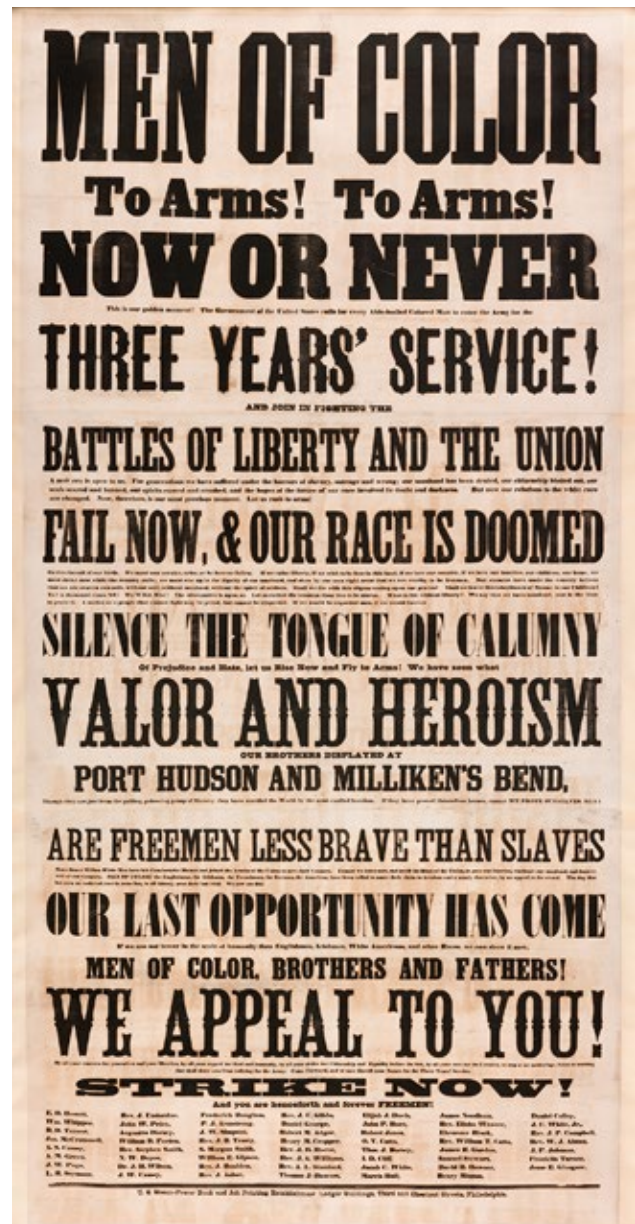
first cases argued in front of the court with African American legal leads, broke major barriers and changed the face of education in the United States forever.⁵

THE PROFESSIONAL SPACE

People's jobs and careers are a part of their identity and are often ascribed a hierarchy within our society. Menial work and blue-collar occupations such as maids, gardeners, farmers, mechanics, and sanitation workers are considered less professional than doctors, lawyers, educators, and business people. The barriers of racism along with lack of educational opportunities and access kept many African Americans from gaining entry into the more highly-respected professions. Over the course of American history, African Americans have fought to be in the professional space and to be respected for their contributions.

During the American Civil War (1861-1865), African Americans were initially prevented from participating as combat soldiers due to racist ideologies and beliefs. African Americans longed to join the Union Army and display their patriotism, demonstrate their fitness of citizenship, and defend their right to liberty. As the war stretched into 1863, a mix of conditions including pressure from the African American community and interracial abolition efforts, the dwindling of available white draft recruits, and the signing of the Emancipation Proclamation convinced President Abraham Lincoln to recruit African Americans into the Union Army. Nonetheless, the barrier of racism persisted. African Americans fought in segregated troops led by specially-selected white officers, initially received lower pay, and dealt with discrimination from white Union and Confederate soldiers and officers alike. Ultimately, the brave performance of U.S. Colored Troops at places such as Fort Wagner, Port Hudson, and Milliken's Bend helped to change the perception of the capabilities of African Americans as individual soldiers.

A shining exemplar of breaking barriers in the professional space was Dr. Alexander Augusta, a freeborn African American man who studied medicine in the United States and Canada. In 1863, Dr. Augusta became a surgeon of the 7th United States Colored Infantry and was ultimately elevated to head surgeon. His appointment brought pride and danger to his life and the community. He experienced violence and discrimination from white people unwilling to respect an African American in a high-ranking professional position. Nevertheless, Dr. Augusta went on to become the highest ranked African American commissioned officer in the U.S. military at that time.⁶ Dr. Augusta's professional standing allowed him to break other barriers by entering into spaces previous denied to black people, including, in 1864, the annual White House New Year's reception, where he was able to lend his voice to the fight for equality within the military with respect to pay, and in civilian life regarding discrimination on public streetcars.⁷



Broadside for "Men of Color" Recruitment, 1863. Courtesy of the Collection of the Smithsonian National Museum of African American History and Culture.

In the mid-twentieth century, the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics (NACA), which became the National Air and Space Administration (NASA) in 1958, began to hire women, including African American women, as "human computers" at their Langley laboratory. These "human computers" calculated complex equations that became increasingly more complicated as technology grew more sophisticated. While the job of "human computer" was considered low-level, it was one of the

5 To learn more about long term efforts in school desegregation, visit <http://americanhistory.si.edu/brown/history/2-battleground/pursuit-equality-1.htm>.

6 "Alexander T. Augusta" Consortium of History of African Americans in the Medical Professions. Accessed December 2018. <http://chaamp.virginia.edu/node/4100>.

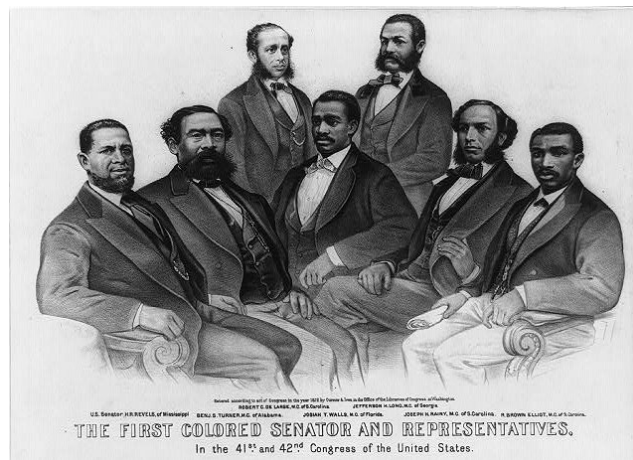
7 "African Americans Enter Abraham Lincoln's White House." White House Historical Association. Accessed September 2018. <https://www.whitehousehistory.org/african-americans-enter-abraham-lincolns-white-house-1863-1865>.

better-paying options for the hundreds of women employed at Langley. These positions gave women access to a male-dominated workspace that had long excluded them. Yet, gender bias hampered the advancement of women throughout the agency, and for black women, it was even more so. Despite doing the same work as white “human computers” and sometimes working side by side, African American women were segregated in all other aspects at Langley, including bathrooms, dining areas, and living facilities. However, black women made strides in such spaces, despite the gender and racial discrimination they faced. Women such as Katherine Johnson, Dorothy Vaughan, and Mary Jackson helped America advance in the Space Race and broke barriers for African Americans and women in the sciences.⁸

THE POLITICAL SPACE

Access to the democratic process is a major part of being an American citizen. It is in this space that people can make their voices heard both as individuals and collectively. Since the beginning of the United States, white men have dominated and restricted access to the political space by African Americans, white women, Native Americans, youth, and other religious and ethnic minorities, whose lives were dominated by actions taken in this realm. For African Americans, the fight to be included in the democratic process required the breaking of tangible and intangible barriers. From lack of recognition as a member of the American body, to discriminatory practices designed to keep African Americans from voting, to outright violence, African Americans overcame and broke barriers to seize their place in the political space.

Legally, African Americans gained access to the political space through the Thirteenth (1865), Fourteenth (1868), and Fifteenth (1870) Amendments that abolished slavery, conferred citizenship, and granted the right to vote, respectively. In the two decades following the Civil War, more than 1,400 African American men held political office at the local, state, or federal levels. Robert Smalls of South Carolina epitomized the experience of Reconstruction Era black politicians who gained access to the political space. Born enslaved, Smalls gained national fame by commandeering a Confederate warship, the CSS *Planter*, and navigated it to Union lines.⁹ His political career began during the war as a delegate to the National Republican Convention. After the war, he returned to South Carolina where he actively engaged in local and state politics. In 1874, bolstered by a large black majority in his constituency, Smalls was elected to the United States House of Representatives where he served four terms. His congressional career focused on passing legislation that would improve the lives of African Americans in areas such as agriculture, infrastructure, and civil rights.¹⁰



The first colored senator and representatives—in the 41st and 42nd Congress of the United States. Courtesy of the Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division (LC-DIG-ppmsca-17564).

During the Progressive Era, the fight for woman suffrage, or the right to vote, became very prominent in national politics. The mainstream suffrage movement was dominated by white women who discriminated against African American women when it came to inclusion in the movement. White suffragists found it challenging to gain support for women’s voting and recognized that the inclusion of African American women in their movement was a barrier to their ultimate goal. That did not stop women like Ida B. Wells-Barnett and Anna Julia Cooper, two of the leading African American women who refused to have their voices for suffrage silenced. Both were active in developing groups to promote suffrage and other social issues that affected the black community.¹¹

THE SOCIAL SPACE

For African Americans living in the United States, both before emancipation and afterward, the ability to move through society as respected equals proved to be elusive and a constant struggle. The barriers that existed one-on-one in a private space were magnified in social settings. Norms about etiquette, dress, speech, and decorum governed much of the lives of people of all races during the eighteenth, nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The pervasiveness of racist ideologies demanded that African Americans were expected to be subservient or second-class citizens in social settings. How they were treated socially indicated the level on which white Americans were willing to accept African Americans as citizens. African Americans faced challenges in both informal and formal social settings. Throughout these challenges, African Americans declared their worthiness and right to be in these social spaces.

⁸ For more information on the African American women who worked at NASA read, Margot Lee Shetterly’s *Hidden Figures: The American Dream and the Untold Story of the Black Women Mathematicians Who Helped Win the Space Race*, (New York: William Morrow, 2016).

⁹ Philip Dray, *Capitol Men: The Epic Story of Reconstruction Through the Lives of the First Black Congressmen* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 2008).

¹⁰ *History, Art & Archives, U.S. House of Representatives*, “SMALLS, Robert,” <https://history.house.gov/People/Detail/21764> Accessed December 28, 2018).

¹¹ “African American Women in the Suffrage Movement” Turning Point Suffragist Memorial. Accessed December 2018. <https://suffragistmemorial.org/african-american-women-leaders-in-the-suffrage-movement/>.

Places where people spend their leisure time have often been contested spaces when it comes to who belongs. The popular warm weather attraction of the beach and its swimming spaces has been no exception to the racial ideas that have plagued the U.S. In one searing historical example, a young African American boy was stoned by white youths after he drifted across an invisible racial line while swimming off the shore of Lake Michigan in 1919. Early in the twentieth century, resorts and vacation areas such as Oak Bluff, Massachusetts, Idlewild, Michigan, or Highland Beach, Maryland, were spaces that flourished to provide safe space for African Americans to vacation. The ability to vacation, as well as control and run those spaces, demonstrated how African Americans continued to embrace their full humanity and reject notions of limited access on the basis of race.¹²

In the fall of 1901, one of the most formal social spaces was opened. As president of Tuskegee Institute and a leading voice for the African American community, Booker T. Washington had gained the ear of President Theodore (Teddy) Roosevelt. When President Roosevelt extended an invitation to a private dinner at the White House, Washington took advantage of the opportunity to share details about the state of the African American community with the leader of the country. The moment was unique enough to make national news. It was the first time that an African American had been invited to the White House for a private dinner. The breaking of this barrier was heard nationwide. It opened conversations and began to change people's minds about which white spaces could be inhabited by African Americans.¹³

THE ECONOMIC SPACE

One of the most recognizable lines found in the Declaration of Independence, "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," represents the foundation of the ideal notion that is known as the American Dream. This Dream, including ideas such as access to a good paying job and owning a home, has existed in the American psyche and narrative but has not always been available to all. For instance, in the early twentieth century, most African Americans still lived in the agricultural South. Jim Crow laws and segregation often excluded African Americans from economic opportunities that would allow them to secure economic success. To escape Jim Crow, many African Americans migrated to urban centers in the North, Midwest, and West. This was known as the Great Migration (1916–1970). Although African Americans found better economic opportunities in urban centers, the results of Jim Crow pervaded throughout the nation. African Americans, in efforts to insulate themselves from the effects of segregation and continue to strive for the American Dream, created their own communities that supported their economic development. Established and prospering black communities such as in

Wilmington, North Carolina, and Tulsa, Oklahoma, are examples of locations where discrimination and violence at the hands of white people frustrated by the success of African Americans was experienced. In spite of recurring violence in reaction to economic prosperity, community members and generations of African Americans continued to persist as they strove for the American Dream. Increased access to economic opportunities allowed for the flourishing of a black middle and professional class. The strong pull toward urban areas created majority black centers, such as Washington, D.C., an example of one economic space that became a political power block for African Americans and contributed to the election of the first black mayors of major cities in the 1960s and 1970s such as Mayor Carl Stokes of Cleveland, Ohio.¹⁴



Bumper sticker endorsing Carl Stokes for Mayor of Cleveland, c. 1967. Courtesy of the Collection of the Smithsonian National Museum of African American History and Culture, Anonymous Gift.

CONCLUSION

African Americans have continually embraced and claimed the United States as their own. They have sought to belong to the body of American citizens in ways large and small. As a major part of the fabric of American history, African Americans have worked tirelessly to break down barriers—both physical and ideological—to gain acceptance, recognition, rights, and a piece of the American Dream.

Breaking barriers was often challenging, sometimes lonely, and did not always achieve immediate results. However, the sacrifice that many of the individuals endured built a foundation upon which the African American community was able to wedge open the doors to equality, recognition, and a stronger sense of belonging to the American society.

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RESOURCES, GO TO [NHD.ORG/](https://www.nhd.org/)
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¹² For more information on African beaches, leisure places and resort towns, read Ash Carter, "How Oak Bluff Became a Summer Haven for the African American Elite," *Town and Country Magazine*, June 29, 2016, <https://www.townandcountrymag.com/society/tradition/a6668/oak-bluffsafrican-american-community/>.

¹³ Deborah Davis, *Guest of Honor: Booker T. Washington, Theodore Roosevelt, and the White House Dinner that Shocked a Nation*, (Atria Books: New York, 2012).

¹⁴ Washington, D.C. became known as Chocolate City. For further information about Washington, D.C. check out Chris Myers Asch and George Derek Musgrove's *Chocolate City: A History of Race and Democracy in the Nation's Capital* (2017).

John F. Kennedy graduates
from Harvard University, June 1940

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regardless of whether
it is popular."

John F. Kennedy, *Profiles in Courage*

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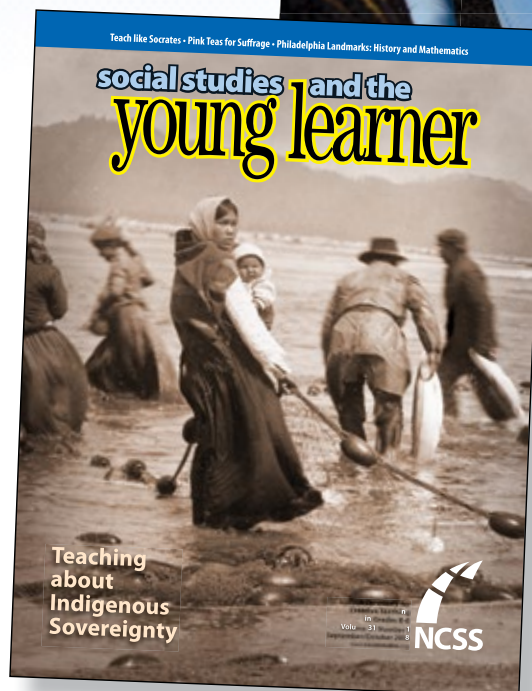
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THE MEDIEVAL ACADEMY



OF AMERICA

Discovering Stories of Broken Barriers in America's National Parks

Linda Rosenblum, Education Program Manager, Office of Interpretation, Education and Volunteers, National Park Service

Adeline Warfield was born in Massachusetts in 1833. She married at age 25 and relocated with her husband to the American West, eventually settling in the Colorado Territory in 1861. The young family filed a claim for 160 acres of land under the Homestead Act (1862) in a mining region northeast of Denver. Adeline's husband died in 1864, leaving her with three young children and a farm to manage on her own. Despite the difficulties of life on the frontier, Adeline was able to support herself and her children from the crops and livestock she raised on her farm. She married again, but was soon abandoned by her second husband. By 1878, Adeline Warfield Hornbek moved away from the homestead farm north of Denver, relocating to the Florissant Valley, west of Colorado Springs, where she established another homestead claim, founded a ranch, and prospered. As a single woman raising four children on a homestead on the frontier, Adeline broke through traditional gender roles of the Victorian era.

Adeline's tale demonstrates just one story of breaking barriers in history. The National Park Service (NPS) preserves and protects the places and resources that tell America's stories. There are over 400 units of the National Park Service and nearly two-thirds of these units preserve and interpret historical or cultural resources and stories. Some stories are of breakthroughs in technology, diplomacy, or medicine. Others may be breakthroughs in social status or justice.

The following examples were selected from lesson plans found on the NPS Educators' Portal. They were chosen to reflect a variety of stories from a diverse group of NPS sites, and all can be directly related to the National History Day® (NHD) theme of *Breaking Barriers in History*. They are arranged in groups with similar themes.



Portrait of Adeline Hornbek, a single woman who created a homestead in the American western frontier. Courtesy of the National Park Service.

BREAKING SOCIAL BARRIERS

FLORISSANT FOSSIL BEDS NATIONAL MONUMENT (COLORADO)

The fossils, rocks, hills, and valleys that make up Florissant Fossil Beds National Monument reveal to us an ancient story of redwood forests, volcanic eruptions, and a climate much different than today. In addition to a rich ancient history, the Florissant valley also contains the stories of prehistoric hunting and gathering Paleo-Indians, the Ute and Jicarilla Apache peoples, the travels of a pioneer nation, and early scientists making their way through discovery into a different time.

› **Adeline Hornbek and the Homestead Act: A Colorado Success Story**

<https://www.nps.gov/teachers/classrooms/67hornbek.htm>

Adeline Warfield Hornbek, a woman who broke historical gender barriers, was presented in the introduction of this article. Activities include map interpretation, reading informational text, finding contextual clues in photographs and images, and applying evidence from a variety of sources to create a project on homesteading in the U.S. in the nineteenth century or researching historical women.

WOMEN'S RIGHTS NATIONAL HISTORICAL PARK (NEW YORK)

Women and men gathered at Seneca Falls, New York, in the summer of 1848 to rally and organize for women's rights. During the Seneca Falls Convention, they wrote and signed a list of demands for equal rights for women. Some of these demands were realized in their lifetimes, but many were not. These activists were breaking gender barriers in the social structure.

› **The M'Clintock House: A Home to the Women's Rights Movement**

<https://www.nps.gov/nr/twhp/wwwlps/lessons/76mclintock/76mclintock.htm>

How did a home in upstate New York become the site for the creation of one of the most important human rights documents in American history? Why? Students use historical maps, images, cartoons, and readings to try to answer these questions and explore the lives of the women and men who attended the convention.



M'Clintock House. Courtesy of the National Park Service.

FREDERICK DOUGLASS NATIONAL HISTORIC SITE (DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA)

"I would unite with anybody to do right and with nobody to do wrong."

Frederick Douglass spent his life fighting for justice and equality. Born into slavery in 1818, he escaped as a young man and became a leading voice in the abolitionist movement. People everywhere still find inspiration today in his tireless struggle, brilliant words, and inclusive vision of humanity. Douglass's legacy is preserved here at Cedar Hill, where he lived his last 17 years.

› **Journey from Slavery to Statesman: The Homes of Frederick Douglass**

<https://www.nps.gov/wori/learn/education/classrooms/teaching-with-historic-placesjourney-from-slavery-to-statesman-the-homes-of-frederick-douglass.htm>

Using Douglass's own words, maps, and other primary sources, students will learn about the life of this great American hero. Douglass broke through the barriers of slavery and race from the Eastern Shore of Maryland, as a slave, to New Bedford, Massachusetts, as a freedom seeker, to Washington, D.C., as an author, journalist, lecturer, and statesman.

JOSEPH BELLAMY HOUSE (CONNECTICUT)

The Reverend Dr. Joseph Bellamy was a leading preacher, author, and educator in New England during the second half of the eighteenth century. Bellamy graduated from Yale College in 1735 and went on to study theology with the famous preacher and theologian Jonathan Edwards in Massachusetts. Bellamy joined Edwards in promoting the cause of the Great Awakening, a religious movement that stressed a deep personal conversion in Christianity that led to a fundamental change in American Protestantism and evangelicalism. This new religious fervor allowed the lower and middle classes to break social structure through spiritual awakening and embracing a new individualism. The Joseph Bellamy House is on the Register of National Historic Places, a National Park Service program.

› **The Joseph Bellamy House: The Great Awakening in Puritan New England**

<https://www.nps.gov/nr/twhp/wwwlps/lessons/85bellamy/85bellamy.htm>

The rural town of Bethlehem, Connecticut, still conveys an image its first minister would recognize. The stark white steeple of the First Church of Christ (Congregational) fills the horizon. To the north, opposite the village green, the Reverend Dr. Joseph Bellamy's immense white clapboard house rises from the top of a hill, an imposing presence that makes the village appear diminutive in comparison. The house stands today as a reminder of Bellamy's role as a leading preacher, author, and educator in New England from 1740 to 1790. Students use historical maps, readings, and images to piece together the story of how Bellamy and other clergy lead a movement that changed American religion and social structures.



A New Deal Homestead Farm, ca. 1934. Public domain image courtesy of Arthurdale Heritage, Inc.

ARTHURDALE HISTORIC DISTRICT (WEST VIRGINIA)

Arthurdale, West Virginia, was the first of 100 homestead communities built from the ground up by the federal government during the Great Depression. First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt promoted the development of such communities to Congress as part of a humanitarian effort to improve the living conditions of coal miners and other chronically impoverished families. For politicians and policy commentators, it was a flashpoint for the great debate over the role of government during an economic crisis. Eleanor Roosevelt and others who supported her humanitarian reforms encouraged lawmakers to break through traditional roles of government to include social improvement and humanitarian programs.

› Arthurdale: A New Deal Community Experiment

<https://www.nps.gov/nr/twhp/wwwlps/lessons/157arthurdale/157arthurdale.htm>

Students will explore the role of government in community planning, building, and social welfare of the people. Through exploration of historical maps, images, personal accounts, and informational readings, students will learn about the goals of the New Deal and its alphabet soup of social welfare programs during the Great Depression. Students will use evidence from research of these primary documents to argue whether they believe that the Arthurdale community and ultimately the goals New Deal social programs were successes or failures.

BREAKING BARRIERS TO EDUCATION

LITTLE ROCK CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL NATIONAL HISTORIC SITE (ARKANSAS)

Little Rock Central High School is recognized for the role it played in the desegregation of public schools in the United States. In 1957, nine African American students persisted in attending the formerly all-white Central High School despite strong protest from the white community of Little Rock, Arkansas. It was the most prominent national example of the implementation of the May 17, 1954, Supreme Court decision *Brown v. Board of Education*. The National Park Service interprets the story of how these students broke through the barrier of segregation to have equal access to education at Little Rock's Central High School, which is still serving the community as a public high school.

› Every Person Has a Story of Courage: The Little Rock Nine

<https://www.nps.gov/chsc/learn/education/upload/The%20Little%20Rock%20Nine%20lesson%20plan.pdf>

In 1957, nine African American students entered Little Rock Central High School. Each had chosen to go to the previously all-white high school for various reasons—it was close to their homes, it offered more courses than their other schools, and/or they exercised their right to attend the high school following the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision. No matter what their reasons, the nine students showed great character and courage in the face of adversity. This lesson identifies the nine students, now known to history as the “Little Rock Nine,” and discusses the issue of courage and character development for students of all ages.



Little Rock Central High School, site of the 1957 enforcement of desegregation of public education. Courtesy of the National Park Service.

BREAKING BARRIERS THROUGH TECHNOLOGY

CANAVERAL NATIONAL SEASHORE (FLORIDA)

Lessons about the space race teach some of the most extreme highs and lows in recent human history. The first Apollo moon landing on July 20, 1969, was the culmination of breakthroughs in the fields of aviation, space flight, computer science, navigation, and a multitude of other technologies and sciences. The National Park Service protects and interprets the Canaveral National Seashore, the Atlantic coast location of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) Kennedy Space Center and the Cape Canaveral Air Force station.

› **America's Space Program: Exploring a New Frontier**

<https://www.nps.gov/teachers/classrooms/101space.htm>

In a lesson plan featuring Canaveral National Seashore in Florida and other historic sites, discover how NASA, private industry, and research institutions across the country cooperated to develop and implement the complex technology that enabled humans to walk on the moon.

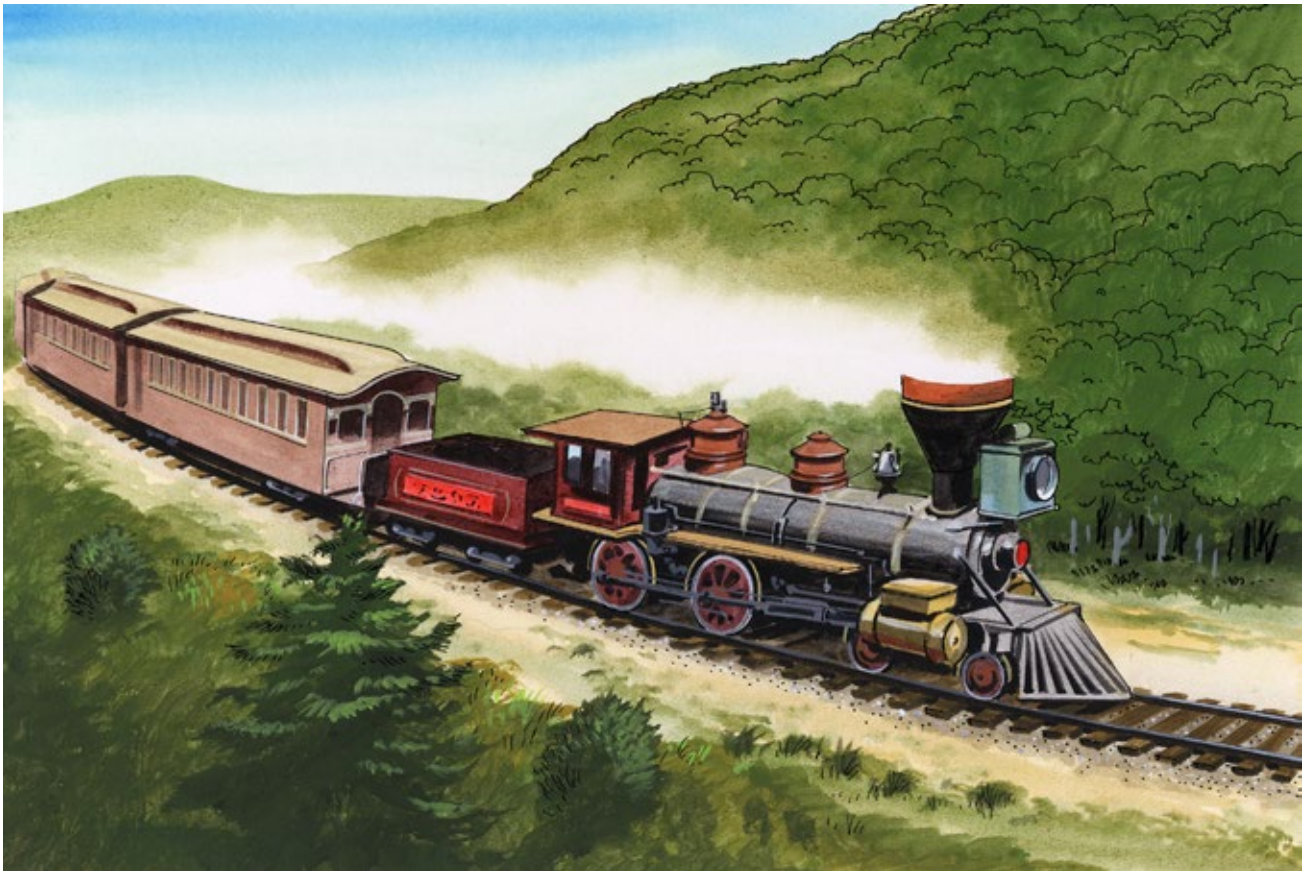
ALLEGHENY PORTAGE RAILROAD NATIONAL HISTORIC SITE (PENNSYLVANIA)

As the first railroad to circumvent the Allegheny Mountains, the Allegheny Portage Railroad was the finishing piece of the Pennsylvania Mainline Canal. "The Portage" opened in 1834, marking the first time there was one direct route between Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. All things to all people, it served merchants, passengers, slaves in pursuit of freedom, and soldiers from the Mexican-American War (1846-1848). Follow nineteenth-century travelers as they cross the treacherous Allegheny Mountains using this innovative inclined railway.

› **Allegheny Portage Railroad: Developing Transportation Technology**

<https://www.nps.gov/teachers/classrooms/23allegheny.htm>

As the nineteenth century dawned, it became clear that the transportation problems facing the new United States were as enormous as its territory. Post roads ran along the Atlantic seaboard, but by the 1820s it seemed everyone wanted to move west, beyond the coastal mountains. As these new lands were opened for settlement, the few roads penetrating the mountains became clogged with wagons and travelers on horseback and on foot.



View of curve on Allegheny Portage Railroad, where in 1834 a new system of inclined planes allowed the railroad to connect Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. Courtesy of the National Park Service.

Railroads and canals provided more efficient transport, but early railroads could not handle the steep slopes of the Allegheny Mountains. The Allegheny Portage Railroad, which consisted of a series of ten inclined planes connected by level sections of track, provided an innovative solution to this problem. Stationary steam engines towed railroad cars up the first five inclines and lowered them down the remaining five. This railroad was part of a much larger system, the Pennsylvania Main Line of Public Works, built by the state of Pennsylvania to compete with the Erie Canal in New York.

BENTONVILLE BATTLEFIELD STATE (NORTH CAROLINA)

In March 1865, Confederate General Joseph E. Johnston maneuvered 20,000 troops toward the small town of Bentonville, North Carolina. After three days of fighting, there were more than 4,000 wounded. Over 550 of these wounded soldiers were treated at Bentonville in a Union field hospital, a new innovation developed as the Civil War dragged on. Of the 6,000 acres on which the Battle of Bentonville occurred, only 120 are maintained today as Bentonville Battleground State Historic Site. The battleground is maintained by an agency of the North Carolina Department of Cultural Resources and is listed in the National Register of Historic Places.

› **The Battle of Bentonville:
Caring for Casualties of the Civil War**

<https://www.nps.gov/nr/twhp/wwwlps/lessons/69bentonville/69bentonville.htm>

Students will research through historical maps, images, readings, and primary accounts the development of the military field hospital over the course of the Civil War, culminating in the hospital at the home of John and Amy Harper in Bentonville, North Carolina, the location of one of the last major engagements of the war. By 1865, the United States Army Medical Department had developed an effective system for operating field hospitals and an ambulance corps.

Lesson plans and other educational resources produced by the National Park Service and some of its partners are available to educators through the NPS Educators' Portal <https://www.nps.gov/teachers/index.htm>. A simple keyword or subject search of the educators' portal can provide examples of lesson plans and activities that can provide a starting place for finding great stories on which to base a student National History Day project.

TO ACCESS MORE THEME RESOURCES, GO TO [NHD.ORG/THEMEBOOK](https://www.nhd.org/themebook).



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Email education@whha.org



The White House Historical Association is a private non profit educational organization with a mission to enhance the understanding and appreciation of the Executive Mansion.

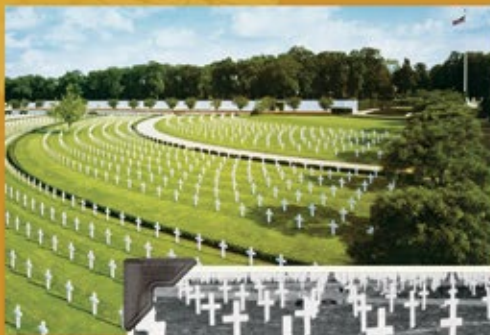


UNDERSTANDING SACRIFICE



Discover the stories behind the cemeteries and memorials of World War II

What stories can you tell? Find out at abmceducation.org



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PHOTO CREDITS

TOP LEFT TO RIGHT:
Victor (left) and John Almonzo, 1943
The Almonzo brothers' graves are one of 30 sets of brothers who rest side by side at Lorraine American Cemetery.
Almonzo Family Collection
Applying Sand to a Headstone, 2015
Teacher Brian Weaver applies sand from the beaches of Normandy to the grave of Charles Crossley at Ardennes American Cemetery.
Chris Peppers
Ceremony at Temporary Cemetery in Normandy, 1947
Members of the military participate in a ceremony at a temporary American military cemetery in Normandy.
U.S. Army Signal Corps

Photographing a Battle Map, 2015
Teacher Donald Davis photographs a battle map mosaic at Lorraine American Cemetery.
Chris Peppers
BOTTOM LEFT TO RIGHT:
Overview of Cambridge American Cemetery, 1960s/70s
Cambridge American Cemetery honors more than 8,000 Americans that gave their lives during World War II.
American Battle Monuments Commission
Dutch Girl Lays Flowers at Temporary Cemetery in Netherlands, 1940s/1950s
A Dutch girl lays flowers at a temporary American military cemetery in the Netherlands as a symbol of thanks.
American Battle Monuments Commission

Airman Sculpture at Cambridge American Cemetery, 2015
Teacher Karimah Williams pauses during her eulogy for Richard Townsend at Henri Chapelle American Cemetery.
Joe Boyle
Offering a Eulogy in Belgium, 2015
Teacher Karimah Williams pauses during her eulogy for Richard Townsend at Henri Chapelle American Cemetery.
Joe Boyle
Military Men Salute at Temporary Cemetery in Netherlands, 1940s
Members of the military salute during the Memorial Day Ceremony at a temporary American military cemetery in the Netherlands.
American Battle Monuments Commission

BACKGROUND IMAGES, TOP TO BOTTOM:
Map Schematic of Cambridge American Cemetery, 1950
A map schematic of Cambridge American Cemetery from 1950 details the plot plans for the completed cemetery.
American Battle Monuments Commission
Overview of Lorraine American Cemetery, 2014
Lorraine American Cemetery honors more than 15,000 Americans who gave their lives during World War II.
American Battle Monuments Commission/Warrick Page



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