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WORLD WAR II HOMEFRONT

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**On the cover:** In 1943, Ansel Adams documented the Manzanar War Relocation Center in California and the Japanese Americans interned there during World War II. Adams's Manzanar work, which he gifted to the Library of Congress in 1965, is a departure from his signature landscape photography. While many images in the collection are portraits, Adam's photographed Manzanar's daily life, agricultural scenes, and sports and leisure activities. Here teenagers carrying books walk along a street in Manzanar. (Library of Congress image LC-DIG-ppprs-00354 DLC)



## A CALL FOR CONTRIBUTIONS

The *OAH Magazine of History* invites you to contribute to our upcoming issues. Our regular columns include:

Letters to the Editor

Dialogue—A forum for issues on the teaching of history

Classroom Media—A column that explores the use of a wide range of media

National History Day—A discussion of National History Day projects

Studentspeak—A column for student opinions and views concerning history

On Teaching—A discussion and analysis of various teaching strategies and activities

Lesson Plans—Lessons for the subject period or topic of each issue

### Topics of Upcoming Issues

New Right	Development of the Sunbelt	Transatlantic World
Witchcraft	Jim Crow	Vietnam War

### Editorial Guidelines

Selection of articles will be made on the basis of interest and usefulness for our audience and the appropriateness of style. We welcome articles that are broadly related to the topic. Authors are encouraged to query the Managing Editor about specific deadlines and topics before submitting materials.

Submissions should not exceed ten double-spaced typewritten pages. Longer articles may be condensed by the Guest Editor if accepted. Regular columns (Dialogue, On Teaching, Classroom Media) should approximate fifteen hundred to two thousand words in length. Lesson Plans are one to two thousand words in length.

Articles should be written in a style that is readable and accessible for a broad audience of high school, middle school, and college teachers interested in all aspects of history education, including recent scholarship, curriculum, and developments in educational methodology. We would appreciate suggestions regarding appropriate illustrations for your article. We encourage you to add your own lesson plans, ideas for discussion, etc., to an article that would be appropriate for use in the classroom. Please include biographical information about current and former teaching positions.

The *Magazine* uses *The Chicago Manual of Style*, 14th ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1993). Authors should use the documentary-note or humanities style as presented in section 15, "Documentation One." Endnotes should be kept to an absolute minimum. For bibliography and reference lists, we prefer that you use the "Humanities Style" as outlined in section 15.69.

If your article has been prepared on an IBM or compatible word processing system, we would appreciate your sending us a copy of the article on diskette along with the printed manuscript.

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# The Homefront Experience During World War II

Allan M. Winkler

**W**orld War II had a profound impact on the United States. The war demanded unprecedented military and diplomatic planning to coordinate strategy and tactics with other members of the Grand Alliance. It required a monumental productive effort to provide the materials necessary to fight. And it resulted in a reorientation of economic and social patterns at home.

The war ended the Great Depression. Military spending that started in 1940 gave the country's economic system the boost it needed, and the nation began to revive as Americans returned to work to make weapons of war. Renewed prosperity vindicated the theory of English economist John Maynard Keynes, who had earlier argued that government spending could end a depression if the private sector was unable to engage in such spending itself.

Outsiders, previously denied access to the American dream, found themselves with better jobs than they had ever held before. As male soldiers went overseas, women plunged into war work in ever-increasing numbers and played a major role in homefront production, while African Americans and other minority groups demanded and received better positions in the industrial sector when it became clear that their participation could help win the war.

The basic structure of American society became increasingly complex. New executive agencies proliferated, and the power of the presidency expanded in response to the demands of war. In virtually every area of homefront activity, Americans in the years

between 1940 and 1945 confronted shifting social and political patterns. Propaganda came of age, as the government cajoled the public into supporting the war effort. With such encouragement, people collected raw materials (such as rubber) that were in short supply, planted victory gardens to provide extra food, and became accustomed to the rationing of scarce resources. They embraced the changes, even as they clung to the values they had held before: Americans wanted a better America within the framework of the past.

For the most part, Americans got what they wanted and looked back fondly on the war in subsequent years. They had fought against totalitarian dictatorships for democratic ideals, and they had won. The world was a better place for the sacrifices they had made, and veterans and non-combatants alike took pride in a job well done. For many Americans, this

was, in the phrase journalist Studs Terkel helped popularize in the title of his 1984 Pulitzer Prize-winning book, *The Good War*. Yet in the last decade and a half of the twentieth century, that view began to change, at least among scholars seeking to understand the long-term impact of the struggle. Some pointed out that in the pursuit of victory, the United States occasionally failed to live up to its own democratic principles. It continued to discriminate against blacks; it denied women full equality in both private employment and military service; and it imprisoned Japanese Americans in internment camps in the greatest violation of civil liberties in the history of the United States.

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**Americans' vision of the future included no brave and bold new world, but a revived and refurbished version of the one they had known before.**

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Scholars also debated the degree to which the war was a watershed that changed the nation's course. Some highlighted the enormous changes that took place. The war clearly brought a return of prosperity after the dismal depression of the 1930s. Massive spending was the best possible demonstration that aggressive public policy *could* make a difference. The way was clear for continuing experimentation with fiscal policy to avoid economic crisis in the years ahead.

The war promoted the growth of big business, as it underscored the military-industrial links that made possible the massive production that brought victory. War Department ties with the nation's largest firms were stronger than ever after the struggle was over. Similarly, the war contributed to the development of organized labor, which became less militant but more firmly entrenched in the industrial marketplace, and thus more influential in bargaining over wages and working conditions.

The war brought about permanent demographic change. The migrations toward war production centers created population shifts that affected the postwar geographic balance. Cities in the West and the South received a boost that spurred their development. The baby boom that accompanied the return of service personnel affected the development of all American institutions in the decades that followed. And for groups discriminated against in the past, the war was a vehicle for lasting social and economic gains. For women and blacks in particular, the war was a stimulus—and a model—for future change.

At the same time, the war changed configurations of political power. Americans now looked to the federal government to deal with problems which were previously handled in private, or before at the state or local level. Decisions to build war plants in certain locations and not others determined the pattern of future industrial development. Housing constructed to meet wartime needs continued to be used in later years. The government had played the dominant role in deciding numerous issues, and even when private initiative became more important again in the 1950s, people still sought guidance and direction from Washington.

The presidency grew even more powerful than it had been in the 1930s. Faced with the most pressing demands any chief executive had ever encountered, Franklin D. Roosevelt proved willing to experiment and act, just as he had during the Great Depression. His involvement in military and diplomatic affairs, his acceptance of the need to create new agencies to meet mobilization demands, and his willingness to take whatever executive action was necessary to win the war, were all factors that contributed to the long-term expansion of the presidential role.

And yet, as other scholars observed, continuity with the past was also important, and basic American values endured. As Americans looked ahead, they did so through the lens of the past. They remained attached to the status quo as they sought to create a more attractive, stable, and secure future based on the model that still influenced their lives. Americans hungered for the prosperity they recalled from the 1920s, so elusive in the 1930s,

now once again possible thanks to war spending. Their vision of the future included no brave and bold new world, but a revived and refurbished version of the one they had known before. The war restored the self-confidence they had felt prior to the depression and convinced them that what they wanted was within their grasp. The American dream, its contours the same, remained alive and well.

Despite such continuities, the changes that occurred between 1940 and 1945 stand out vividly. Even when seen in a broader perspective, the transformation the United States experienced was profound. Military requirements and production demands resulted in significant social and economic shifts. In responding to extraordinary challenges, the United States was undeniably different at the end of the war than it had been at the start.

Some of the changes were beneficial; others were not. Some brought benefits to everyone affected; others caused unintended consequences. Business concentration and centralization, for example, made for greater efficiency in the marketplace but posed a threat to both the independent entrepreneur and the ordinary American, who were concerned with personal well being and advancement in a world where economic mobility was slowly being choked off. Technological and entrepreneurial expertise developed the atomic bomb that helped win the war but in the process created a curse that plagued the world for years to come.

War, by its very nature, has always been a catalyst for change, and World War II followed that pattern. In the United States, World War II made Americans more willing to involve themselves—politically and diplomatically—with the outside world. It also expanded their hopes and expectations and forever altered the patterns of their lives at home.

This issue of the *OAH Magazine of History* explores a number of facets of the homefront experience during World War II. It starts with three overview essays highlighting the experiences of women, African Americans, and Japanese Americans, and then provides five lesson plans examining these and other issues so important in the United States during the wartime years. □

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# World War II Homefront: A Historiography

In recent years, the World War II homefront has become a fertile field for historical scholarship. For several decades after the war, historians wrote extensively about the New Deal and the Cold War but neglected the wartime homefront. Then, in the 1970s and 1980s, scholars began to fill that gap with a number of outstanding comprehensive accounts and many more specialized studies. As the United States celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of the war in the 1990s, historians looked at the impact of the war even more closely than before, and we now have a rich collection of scholarship dealing with the entire wartime experience. The following are highlights of that scholarship, dealing with the themes appearing in this issue of the *OAH Magazine of History*, for students and teachers interested in pursuing these issues further.

Two recent books provide the best brief introduction to the war at home. Allan M. Winkler's *Home Front, U.S.A.: America during World War II*, 2d ed. (Wheeling, IL: Harlan Davidson, 2000) deals with the economic, social, and political effects of the struggle and argues that the war was a watershed that laid the framework for the postwar years. John W. Jeffries's *Wartime America: The World War II Home Front* (Chicago: Ivan R. Dee, 1996) likewise offers a clear overview of the changes that occurred but suggests that continuities with the past were equally important and argues that basic American values survived the conflict intact. Both of these books contain full bibliographies of all the recent scholarship.

Other books help fill out the picture. William L. O'Neill's *A Democracy at War: America's Fight at Home and Abroad in World War II* (New York: The Free Press, 1993) offers a good overview of all sides of the struggle. The two best books from the 1970s, still useful today, are Richard Polenberg, *War and Society: The United States, 1941-1945* (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1972); and John Morton Blum, *V Was for Victory: Politics and American Culture During World War II* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1976). Polenberg provides an evenhanded and useful

assessment of the important wartime developments. Blum includes a fuller sense of the culture and its constraints in his more extended account. Two other older works that are likewise still helpful are Richard R. Lingeman, *Don't You Know There's a War On? The American Home Front, 1941-1945* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1970); and Geoffrey Perrett, *Days of Sadness, Years of Triumph: The American People, 1939-1945* (New York: Coward, McCann, and Geohegan, 1973). Lee Kennett's *For the Duration: The United States Goes to War, Pearl Harbor-1942* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1985) published more recently, examines the first six months of the struggle. Anthologies that can be used to supplement the above works include: Richard Polenberg, ed., *America at War: The Home Front, 1941-1945* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1968); Chester E. Eisinger, ed., *The 1940s: Profile of a Nation in Crisis* (Garden City, NY: Anchor Books, 1969); and the much more recent Mark P. Parillo, ed., *We Were in the Big One: Experiences of the World War II Generation* (Wilmington, DE: Scholarly Resources, 2002).

On the issue of whether the struggle was a good war, see Studs Terkel, *"The Good War": An Oral History of World War II* (New York: Pantheon Books, 1984). Paul Fussell paints a much more devastating picture of the impact of the conflict in *Wartime: Understanding and Behavior in the Second World War* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1989). Richard Polenberg, who authored one of the best early analyses of the homefront experience in 1972, returned to the subject twenty years later in "The Good War? A Reappraisal of How World War II Affected American Society" published in the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* 100 (1992). In this latter essay, he focuses less on the positive accomplishments of the struggle and more on the way the war narrowed individual freedom and reinforced conservative tendencies in all areas of American life.

On Franklin D. Roosevelt, such a dominant figure during the war, there is a vast literature. A number of the standard books

about FDR in the early New Deal and war years still give the best sense of the man. To begin, see William E. Leuchtenburg, *Franklin D. Roosevelt and the New Deal, 1932-1940* (New York: Harper and Row, 1963); Arthur M. Schlesinger Jr., *The Age of Roosevelt: The Coming of the New Deal* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1958); and Schlesinger, *The Age of Roosevelt: The Politics of Upheaval* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960). Equally useful are James MacGregor Burns' two volumes, *Roosevelt: The Lion and the Fox* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1956); and *Roosevelt: The Soldier of Freedom* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1970). The best recent book, which is much more than a biography, is Doris Kearns Goodwin, *No Ordinary Time: Franklin and Eleanor Roosevelt: The Home Front in World War II* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1994). To fill out the picture with speeches and public statements, see Samuel I. Rosenman, ed., *The Public Papers and Addresses of Franklin D. Roosevelt, X-XIII* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950).

Economic policy helped win the war. On war mobilization and the economic changes it brought, an official account that provides a good starting point is the United States Bureau of the Budget, *The United States at War: Development and Administration of the War Program by the Federal Government* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1946). John Morton Blum, *From the Morgenthau Diaries: Years of War, 1941-1945* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1967) gives a clear overview of events from the vantage point of the Secretary of the Treasury. Eliot Janeway, *The Struggle for Survival* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1951) is a still useful description of the governmental effort. Alan Clive, *State of War: Michigan in World War II* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1979) gives a full description of the effects of mobilization on one state, while Robert G. Spinney, *World War II in Nashville: Transformation of the Homefront* (Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press, 1998) provides an assessment of mobilization on one city, and Marc Scott Miller, *The Irony of Victory: World War II and Lowell, Massachusetts* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1988) describes the impact on another. For labor issues, see Nelson A. Lichtenstein, *Labor's War at Home: The CIO in World War II* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982).

Propaganda played an important part in mobilizing the American public for victory. Allan M. Winkler, *The Politics of Propaganda: The Office of War Information, 1942-1945* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1978) remains the best introduction to the American propaganda effort. Holly Cowan Shulman's *The Voice of America: Propaganda and Democracy, 1941-1945* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1990) is an outstanding account of wartime broadcasting activities.

In recent years, there has been a good deal of creative work on the status of women in World War II. The best starting point is William Chafe, *The American Woman: Her Changing Social, Economic, and Political Roles, 1920-1970* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1972). Since Chafe wrote, a number of other scholars have examined in greater detail shifting work patterns and the related question of social role. Two very useful surveys of women's

wartime experience are Karen Anderson, *Wartime Women: Sex Roles, Family Relations, and the Status of Women during World War II* (Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1981); and Susan M. Hartmann, *The Home Front and Beyond: American Women in the 1940s* (Boston: Twayne Publishers, 1982). See also a perceptive study by D'Ann Campbell, *Women at War with America: Private Lives in a Patriotic Era* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1984). For women's own voices, two excellent collections that work well in the classroom are Judy Barrett Litoff and David C. Smith, eds., *Since You Went Away: World War II Letters from American Women on the Home Front* (Lawrence: University Press of Kansas, 1991); and *American Women in a World at War: Contemporary Accounts from World War II* (Wilmington, DE: SR Books, 1997). On the related issue of the war's impact on children, see William M. Tuttle Jr., *"Daddy's Gone to War": The Second World War in the Lives of America's Children* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1993).

On women's employment, the best starting points are Sherna Berger Gluck, *Rosie the Riveter Revisited: Women, the War, and Social Change* (Boston: G. K. Hall, 1987); and Maureen Honey, *Creating Rosie the Riveter: Class, Gender and Propaganda during World War II* (Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press, 1984). For further study, see Antonette Chambers Noble, "Utah's Rosies: Women in the Utah War Industries during World War II," *Utah Historical Quarterly* 59 (1991); and Paddy Quick, "Rosie the Riveter: Myths and Realities," *Radical America* 9 (1975).

The role of African Americans during World War II has also received a good deal of attention. Neil A. Wynn, *The Afro-American and the Second World War* (New York: Holmes and Meier, 1976) provides a comprehensive overview and is the place to start. Richard M. Dalfiume's article, "The Forgotten Years of the Negro Revolution," *Journal of American History* 55 (1968) is still essential. Other useful studies include Lee Finkle, *Forum for Protest: The Black Press During World War II* (Rutherford, NJ: Fairleigh Dickinson University Press, 1975); John Kirby, *Black Americans in the Roosevelt Era: Liberalism and Race* (Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press, 1980); and August Meier and Elliott Rudwick, *CORE: A Study in the Civil Rights Movement, 1942-1968* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1973).

For the difficulties of the Fair Employment Practice Committee, the best recent works are Andrew E. Kersten, *Fighting for Fair Employment: The FEPC in the Midwest, 1941-1946* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 2000); and Merl E. Reed, *Seedtime for the Modern Civil Rights Movement: The President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice, 1941-1946* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1991).

Wartime racial violence has also come under close scrutiny. Useful works on the riot in Detroit include Robert Shogan and Tom Craig, *The Detroit Race Riot: A Study in Violence* (Philadelphia: Chilton Books, 1964); Alfred McClung Lee and Norman D.

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Judy Barrett Litoff and  
David C. Smith

# American Women in a World at War

Early in 1943, Max Lerner, the well-known author and journalist, writing for the New York newspaper *PM*, predicted that “when the classic work on the history of women comes to be written, the biggest force for change in their lives will turned out to have been war.” With the renewed interest in American women’s history that has occurred over the last quarter century, most historians interested in women and World War II have addressed the implication of Lerner’s statement by asking the question “Did World War II serve as a major force for change in the lives of American women?” Our reading of approximately thirty thousand letters written by more than fifteen hundred women representing a broad cross-section of the wartime population has led us to conclude that the events of World War II did indeed have a dramatic and far-reaching effect on the lives of American women.

For more than a decade, we have been engaged in a nationwide effort to locate, collect, and publish the wartime correspondence of American women. Our search began in the late 1980s as we were making the final revisions for a book, *Miss You: The World War II Letters of Barbara Wooddall Taylor and Charles E. Taylor* (1990), which was based on thousands of pages of correspondence between a young war bride and her soldier husband. We found the Taylors’ letters to be extremely powerful documents, chronicling a grand story of romance, making do, and “growing up” during wartime.

We were convinced that Taylor’s story was similar to those of other women during the war. But how could we be sure? While conducting the research for *Miss You*, we learned that the letters written by men in combat had often been carefully preserved by loved ones, donated to military and university archives, and made into many books. But what had happened to the billions of letters written by American women? No one seemed to have an adequate answer to this question.

During the early stages of our search for the missing letters, many of our colleagues and friends discouraged us from taking on this challenge because of the perceived wisdom that few, if any,

letters written by American women had survived the vicissitudes of the war and the postwar years. After all, it was well known that men in combat were under orders not to keep personal materials such as diaries and letters. Moreover, we were repeatedly warned that should we locate letters written by women, they would include little, if any, significant commentary because of strict wartime censorship regulations. Others discounted our effort, arguing that women’s letters would contain only trivial bits of information about the war years. Yet the historical detective in each of us was not persuaded by these arguments.

In the spring of 1988, we intensified our search for women’s wartime correspondence by devising a brief author’s query requesting information from anyone who had knowledge about letters written by American women during the Second World War. We sent the query to every daily newspaper in the United States—about fifteen hundred newspapers in all—and requested that the query be printed on the letters-to-the-editor page. Much to our delight, newspapers throughout the United States complied. Very shortly thereafter, wartime letters from across the United States began to pour into our offices. We soon realized that we had struck a gold mine of information.

We supplemented our author’s query to the nation’s newspapers with more than five hundred letters of inquiry to magazines and newsletters specializing in issues of concern to women, World War II veterans, and minorities. We wrote letters about our search to every state historical society and to dozens of research and university libraries. In an effort to locate the correspondence of African American women, we solicited the advice of prominent black historians, surveyed archives specializing in African American history, and sent out a special appeal to five hundred predominately black churches around the nation. In total, we have written more than twenty five hundred letters of inquiry. We often

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Humphrey, *Race Riot* (New York: Octagon Books, 1943); and Harvard Sitkoff, "The Detroit Race Riot of 1943," *Michigan History* 53 (1969). For a treatment of the Harlem uprising, see Dominic J. Capeci, *The Harlem Riot of 1943* (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1977).

There have been a number of outstanding treatments of the Japanese American experience during World War II. Roger Daniels provides the best starting point in three different books: *Concentration Camps U.S.A.: Japanese Americans and World War II* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971); *The Decision to Relocate the Japanese Americans* (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1975); and *Prisoners Without Trial: Japanese Americans in World War II* (New York: Hill and Wang, 1993). John Armor and Peter Wright's *Manzanar* (New York: Times Books, 1988) contains photographs by Ansel Adams and a commentary by John Hersey. Another useful account is Mike Masaoka with Bill Hosokawa, *They Call Me Moses Masaoka: An American Saga* (New York: Morrow, 1987). See also Bill Hosokawa, *Nisei: The Quiet Americans* (New York: William Morrow and Company, 1969); and Michi Weglyn, *Years of Infamy: The Untold Story of America's Concentration Camps* (New York: Morrow, 1976). For court cases, the best source is Peter Irons, *Justice At War* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1983).

Images are important in understanding the war. Ronald H. Bailey and the editors of Time-Life Books have done a first-rate job of collecting photographs in *The Home Front: U.S.A.* (Alexandria, VA: Time-Life Books, 1977). William L. Bird Jr. and

Harry Rubenstein, *Design for Victory: World War II Posters on the American Home Front* (New York: Princeton Architectural Press, 1998) is an outstanding collection of wartime posters. Stan Cohen, *V for Victory: America's Home Front during World War II* (Missoula, MT: Pictorial Histories Publishing Company, 1991) is another good compilation of wartime images.

Oral history, likewise, can give a feeling for the period. Studs Terkel, *"The Good War": An Oral History of World War II* (New York: Pantheon Books, 1984); and Mark Jonathan Harris, Franklin D. Mitchell, and Steven J. Schechter, *The Homefront: America during World War II* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1984) are especially useful in this area.

Fiction, likewise, tells us a good deal about the war. Harriette Arnow's moving novel *The Dollmaker* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1954) vividly conveys the crowded conditions and human difficulties in wartime Detroit. Allan M. Winkler's novel for young adults, *Cassie's War* (Unionville, NY: Royal Fireworks Press, 1994) describes the war at home through the eyes of a young girl, and is appropriate for classroom use. □

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wonder if this might qualify us for inclusion in the *Guinness Book of World Records*.

Today, some thirty thousand letters and seven books later, we can state, without question, that the perceived wisdom about women's wartime correspondence was wrong. The thirty thousand letters we have collected were written by more than fifteen hundred women representing diverse social, economic, ethnic, and geographic circumstances from all fifty states. We have collected letters written by grade-school dropouts, but we also have letters composed by college graduates. Our archive includes letters by women from rural and small-town America, as well as large metropolitan areas. The letters of sweethearts, wives, mothers, stepmothers, mothers-in-law, grandmothers, daughters, sisters, aunts, nieces, the "girl next door," and just plain friends of men in the military have been donated to us. Moreover, we have letters written by representatives of the four hundred thousand pioneering women who joined one of the women's branches of the army, navy, marines, and coast guards, as well as from those extraordinary women who flew military aircraft of all types for the Women Air Force Service Pilots (WASPs). In addition, we have powerful letters written by women who served overseas with the American Red Cross and the Army and Navy Nurse Corps.

Many of the women who have donated materials to our archive have included the note that they doubt there is anything of value in their letters because they were careful to follow the dictates of strict wartime censorship regulations. Others have apologized for the allegedly cheery, upbeat quality of their letters, noting that they did not want to cause the recipients, who were often family members, undue worry and stress. Yet these same letter collections contain commentary about the stresses of balancing a war job with raising young children alone, the difficulties of "making do" on meager allotment checks, the fear of losing a loved one to battle, the challenges of performing emergency surgery in evacuation hospitals near the front lines, what it was like to provide aid and comfort for returning prisoners of war who had been incarcerated by the Japanese, and the caring for the survivors of German concentration camps. We have come to realize that what is most extraordinary about the letters in our archive is how *much*—rather than how *little*—frank and detailed discussion they contain.

These letters are honest accounts, written "at the scene" and "from the heart" for a limited audience and with little idea that historians such as ourselves would one day be interested in their



Riveter at Lockheed Aircraft Corporation, Burbank, California, ca. 1940-1945. (NARA 86-WWT-3-67)

content. They offer perceptive insights, untempered by the successive events of the past fifty years, into heretofore unexplored but fundamental aspects of the war. Indeed, they provide us with the first significant opportunity to incorporate the actual wartime voices of American women into our accounts of the Second World War.

One of the most striking themes expressed in the letters is the new sense of self experienced by wartime women. Whether the writer was a stepmother from rural South Dakota reassuring her recently departed stepson that "you've always been a model son whether you're my blood or not" or a Mexican American migrant worker from Kansas discussing with her combat-decorated sweetheart whether she should go to Denver in search of a new job, the challenges of

the war necessitated that women develop a new sense of who they were and of their capabilities.

Young war wives frequently wrote of how they were becoming more self-reliant individuals as they traveled across the country to distant places to be with their husbands, learned how to live on meager allotment checks, coped with raising young children alone, grappled with worry, loneliness, and despair, and shared their experiences with what *The New York Times* described as those "wandering members of [that] huge unorganized club" of war brides.

Early in 1945, war bride Frances Zulauf wrote to her husband in the Army Air Force and discussed how the events of the war had contributed to her growing sense of self:

Personally, I think there's no doubt that this sacrifice we're making will force us to be bigger, more tolerant, better citizens than we would have been otherwise. If it hadn't been for all this upset in my life, I would still be a rattle brained . . . spoiled 'little' girl in college, having dates and playing most of my way thru school . . . I'm learning—in this pause in my life—just what I want for happiness later on—so much different than what I wanted two years ago.

With more than 16 million men serving in the military, the need for new war workers was unprecedented. Responding to this need, some 6.5 million women entered the workforce, increasing the female labor force by more than 50 percent. In fact, Rosie the Riveter became a national heroine. In their letters to loved ones, women expressed pride in their war work and often commented, with enthusiasm, about the new sense of responsibility and independence they were achieving.

Polly Crow, a young mother living with her parents in Louisville, Kentucky, for the duration, explained in a June 1944 letter to her army husband why she wanted a war job. She also highlighted the advantages of swing shift work for working mothers:

I'm thinking seriously of going to work in some defense plant . . . on the swing shift so I can be at home during the day with Bill [their young son] as he needs me. . . . Of course, I'd much rather have an office job but I couldn't be with Bill whereas I could if I worked at nite which I have decided is the best plan as I cain't save anything by not working and I want to have something for us when you get home.

After securing a job at the Jefferson Boat and Machine Company in nearby Anderson, Indiana, Polly Crow wrote a letter in which she proudly proclaimed, "You are now the husband of a career woman—just call me your little Ship Yard Babe!" Her letters describe the "grand and glorious feeling" of opening her own checking account for the first time, gas rationing, the challenges of automobile maintenance, and what it was like to join a union. Late in 1944, upon learning that the work of building landing ship tanks at the shipyard would be completed within the next few months, she wrote a letter in which she bemoaned the fact that "my greatly enjoyed working career will [soon] come to an end."

Betty Bleakmore, a nineteen-year-old blueprint supervisor at Douglas Aircraft Company in Tulsa, Oklahoma, wrote to her sweetheart and husband-to-be, a marine corps pilot, and reported that she was responsible for keeping "all [blue]prints up to date so that the [workers] in the factory can build the planes perfectly for people like you to fly." She then continued: "Imagine, [me], little Betty, the youngest in her department with seventeen people older than her . . . under her. Of course, I too, have higher ups to report to—but I am the big fish in my own little pond—and I love it."

In the fall of 1945, with the war finally over, Edith Speert, a supervisor at a federally funded day care center in Cleveland, Ohio, took the opportunity to tell her husband that she had received a great deal of satisfaction from her war work. On 21 October 1945, she commented:

Last night [we] were talking about some of the adjustments we'll



Women welders, including the women's welding champion, of Ingalls Shipbuilding Corporation in Pascagoula, Mississippi, ca. 1943 (NARA NWDNS-86-WWT-85-35).

have to make to our husbands' return. I must admit I'm not exactly the same girl you left—I'm twice as independent as I used to be and to top it off, I sometimes think I've become "hard as nails"—hardly anyone can evoke any sympathy from me.

Three weeks later, she reiterated:

Sweetie, I want to make sure I make myself clear about how I've changed. I want you to know *now* that you are not married to a girl that's interested solely in a home—I shall definitely have to work all my life—I get emotional satisfaction out of working and I don't doubt

that many a night you will cook the supper while I'm at a meeting. Also dearest—I shall never wash and iron—there are laundries for that! Do you think you'll be able to bear living with me?

World War II also brought about significant changes in the lives of farm women as 6 million agricultural workers departed from rural America to don military uniforms or seek more lucrative work in war industries. The crucial role played by American women in the planting and harvesting of the nation's wartime crops is demonstrated by the fact that the proportion of women engaged in agricultural work increased from 8 percent in 1940 to 22.4 percent in 1945. Of particular significance were the 3 million women who came "to the rescue of the nation's crops" and joined the federal Women's Land Army. One young farm woman wrote to a friend in the service and proudly announced, "I'm quite the farmer, Jack. You should see me—I ride the horse after the cows, drive hay trucks, and yesterday I even learned to drive the tractor."

The correspondence of the four hundred thousand American women who exchanged their civilian clothes for military uniforms is replete with examples of how their wartime experiences opened up new, and heretofore, unimaginable opportunities for women. In choosing to support the war effort by joining one of the newly created women's branches of the military, these trailblazers challenged fundamental assumptions about the "proper" role of women in American society. For many women in uniform, World War II was *the* defining event in their lives.

The letters of women in uniform contain telling accounts of the courage of African American women as they combated racism at home and fascism abroad; the agony and isolation experienced by the only Jewish servicewoman at her duty station; glimpses of the stress and strain that lesbians in the military encountered; the blossoming of heterosexual love in the face of battle; establishing Red Cross clubs in remote areas around the world; dodging “buzz bombs” in England; helping to perform emergency surgery in evacuation hospitals near the front; and the intense camaraderie that women in uniform shared as they faced new and challenging responsibilities for the sake of the war effort.

Entrance into the military presented many new job opportunities for women. Although a large percentage of women in uniform performed traditional “women’s jobs,” such as administrative and clerical work, many other employment possibilities existed, especially in the field of aviation where women served as metalsmiths, aircraft mechanics, parachute-riggers, air traffic controllers, link trainer instructors, and flight orderlies.

One of the most unusual and exciting of the new jobs for women was that of ferrying military aircraft of all types throughout the United States for the WASPs, a quasi-military organization affiliated with the Army Air Forces. From September 1942 until December 1944, when the WASPs were disbanded after not being accorded full military status, approximately one thousand women had the distinction of flying military aircraft throughout the United States. The WASPs gloried in their work, and their wartime letters are filled with details of their love of flying. In a 24 April 1943 letter to her mother, Marion Stegeman of Athens, Georgia, recounted her joy of flying:

The gods must envy me! This is just too, *too* good to be true. (By now you realize I had a good day as regards flying. Nothing is such a gauge to the spirits as how well or how poorly one has flown.) . . . I’m far too happy. The law of compensation must be waiting to catch up with me somewhere. Oh, god, how I love it! Honestly, Mother, you haven’t *lived* until you get way up there—all alone—just you and that big, beautiful plane humming under your control.

While uniformed women from the United States did not participate in organized combat during World War II, they were regularly assigned to postings that brought them up to or near the front lines of battle. Army nurse June Wandrey served in North Africa, Sicily, Italy, France, and Germany, where her work as a combat surgical nurse brought her close to the front lines of action. Writing from “Poor Sicily” in August 1943, she bluntly informed her parents:

We were so close to the [front] lines we could see our artillery fire and also that of the Germans . . . Working in the shock wards, giving transfusions, was a rewarding, but sad experience. Many wounded soldiers’ faces still haunt my memory. I recall one eighteen year old who had just been brought in from

the ambulance to the shock ward. I went to him immediately. He looked up at me trustingly, sighed and asked, “How am I doing, Nurse?” I was standing at the head of the litter. I put my hands around his face, kissed his forehead and said, “You are doing just fine soldier.” He smiled sweetly and said, “I was just checking up.” Then he died. Many of us shed tears in private. Otherwise, we try to be cheerful and reassuring.

By the time of the 6 June 1944 D-Day invasion of France, almost two million American troops were stationed in England. To help provide for these service personnel, the American Red Cross opened service clubs and operated one hundred and fifty clubmobiles throughout Great Britain where Red Cross “doughnut girls” distributed coffee and doughnuts to the troops.

Four days after D-Day, on 10 June 1944, army nurses and Red Cross hospital workers arrived in France to set up field and evacuation hospitals. Army nurse Ruth Hess arrived in France in late June 1944. In a long retrospective letter, written to friends and colleagues at the Louisville, Kentucky, General Hospital, Hess described her first days as a combat nurse in Europe:

We embarked by way of a small landing craft with our pants rolled up—wading onto the beach a short distance . . . We marched up those high cliffs . . . about a mile and a half under full packs, hot as ‘blue blazes’—till finally a jeep . . . picked us up and took us to our area . . . For nine days we never stopped [working]. 880 patients operated; small debridement of gun shot and shrapnel wounds, numerous amputations, fractures galore, perforated guts, livers, spleens, kidneys, lungs, . . . everything imaginable . . . It’s really been an experience . . . At nite—those d–d German planes make rounds and tuck us all into a fox hole—ack ack in the field right beside us, machine guns all around—whiz—there goes a bullet—it really doesn’t spare you—you’re too busy—but these patients need a rest from that sort of stuff.

As the Second World War drew to a close in the late summer of 1945, letter writers both at home and abroad turned their attention to the larger meaning of the conflict and how the experience of four years of total war had changed their lives. Writing from Snoqualmie Falls, Washington, on 14 August 1945, war wife Rose McClain spoke for many women when she expressed the hope that World War II would mark “the end of war for all time,” and “that our children will learn, the kindness, patience, honesty, and the depth of love and trust we have learned, from all of this, without the tragedy of war.”

From her duty station in the Southwest Pacific, Jane Warren, a member of the Women’s Army Corps, forthrightly asserted in a letter, “You know, Mother, my life has really changed. I’ve learned in these past two years that I can really do things and make a difference as a woman . . . I truly think that this war and opportunity it has provided for women like me (and women at

home in the war effort) is going to make a profound difference in the way a lot of women think and do after the war is over.”

Writing to her parents from Germany in late August 1945, army nurse Marjorie LaPalme explained how the experience of war had dramatically transformed her life:

One thing is sure—we will never be the naïve innocents we were . . . none of us . . . It was a wonderful experience—no doubt the greatest of my entire life. I am sure nothing can surpass the comradeship and friendship we shared with so many wonderful men and women from all over our country—the good and the bad, suffering death and destruction falling from the skies, but perhaps most of all I will remember the quiet courage of common, ordinary people.

The lives of American women were dramatically changed by the experience of war. The war transformed the way women thought about themselves and the world in which they lived, expanding their horizons and affording them a clearer sense of their capabilities.

Although the postwar decade witnessed a renewed interest in motherhood and the family, which resulted in a return to a more conventional way of life for many women—what Betty Friedan would label as “the feminine mystique”—the immense changes wrought by World War II were not forgotten. A generation later, these changes provided the foundation for the rejuvenation of the contemporary women’s movement. Indeed, the legacy of World War II inspired a new generation of women—the daughters of our World War II foremothers—to demand greater equality for women in the workplace and in society at large.

Life would never be the same for the women who lived through World War II. With fortitude and ingenuity, they had surmounted the challenges posed by total war. As the women of the wartime generation are quick to acknowledge, “We knew that if we could overcome the trials and tribulations of the war years, we could do anything.” What better legacy to leave to us as we face the challenges and the opportunities of the twenty-first century. □

#### Suggestions for Further Reading

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# African Americans and World War II

Thirty years ago, it was commonplace to refer to the era of World War II as the “forgotten years of the Negro revolution” (1). Beginning in the late 1960s, however, scholars started to focus attention on the black experience during the early 1940s, examining both the battle and homefronts. At first, historians concluded that this period constituted a watershed in history. They maintained that African American men and women made major advances as workers and military personnel and that communities across the United States witnessed a dramatic rise in black social activism and political participation. Over time, however, historians have tempered their enthusiasm for this interpretation. Social, economic, and political gains were often lost in the postwar period, something which contributed to the disillusionment and upheaval of the 1960s. Still, there is no denying the importance of the war years. Accompanying the global conflict were transformations in employment, geography, and social status that permanently affected not only African Americans but all Americans in general. Thus the Second World War may not be a watershed, but it was an unprecedented era in which African Americans sought a “Double V,” a victory over fascism abroad and apartheid at home.

A central component to the Double V was the quest to eradicate job discrimination, particularly in the defense industries. When the Second World War began with the German invasion of Poland in 1939, President Franklin D. Roosevelt began in earnest to put the country on a war footing. For the average American, the results of the defense preparedness program were dramatic and beneficial. By the time of the Pearl Harbor attack in late 1941, conversion to war production was

occurring nationwide. Gigantic factories such as the one at Willow Run near Detroit were built, and American workers as well as businessmen profited from the increased economic activity. Unemployment rapidly decreased from 8,120,000 persons in 1940 to 5,560,000 in 1941 to 2,660,000 in 1942. Moreover, union membership rose from roughly 8 million in 1940 to 10 million in 1941 (2).

But not all felt the return of prosperity equally. Some Americans, blacks in particular, were left behind as the economy geared up for war. Since the 1920s, African Americans had suffered from high rates of un-

employment. 1920 was a high water mark for black employment in American industry. The Great Depression however, had wiped out these advances. Despite the New Deal’s assistance, black and other minority workers languished through the lean and stagnant



Guy L. Miles, a skilled machine operator, makes parts for medium tanks at the Pressed Steel Can Company in Chicago, Illinois, September 1942. (Office of War Information, LC-USE6-D-005951)

years of Roosevelt's first two terms. As the United States prepared for war at the end of FDR's second term, they were again left out in the cold (3).

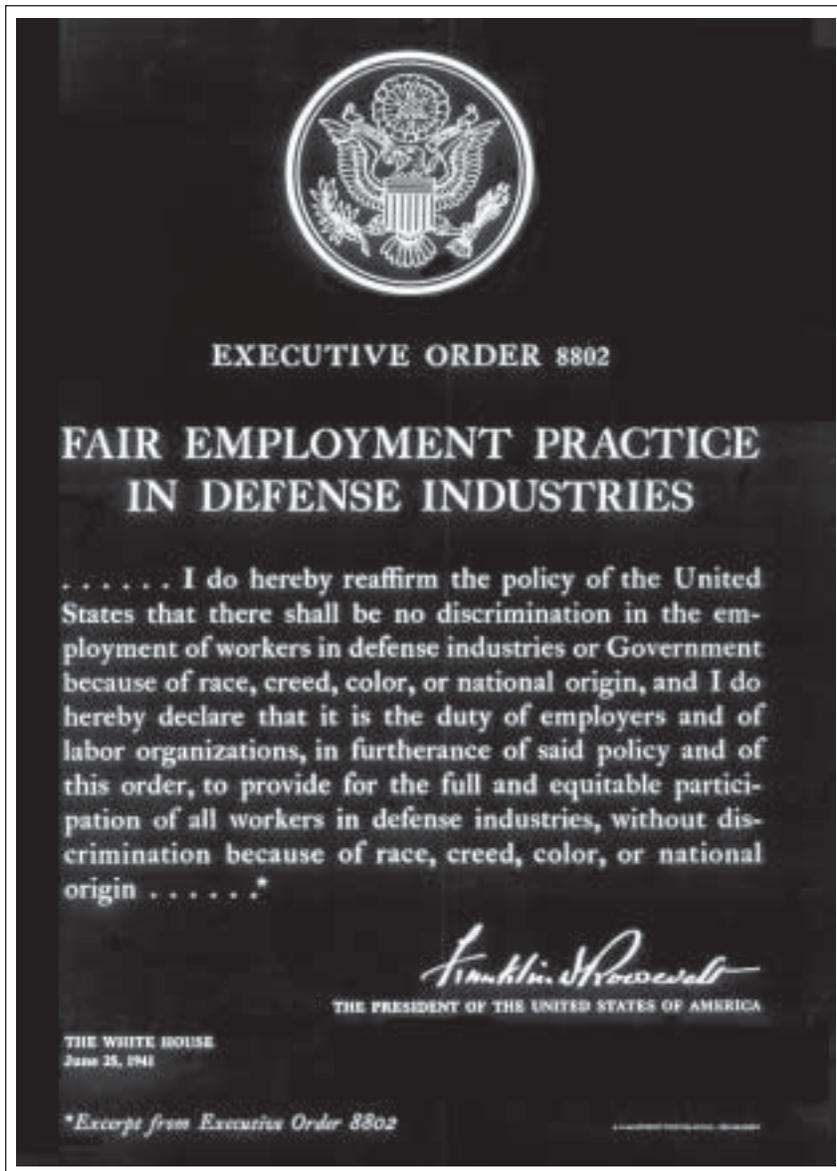
As American industry converted to war production, African Americans demanded equal treatment in obtaining the new jobs. At first, that was not forthcoming. Less than six months after the bombing of Pearl Harbor, a little over half—144,583 out of 282,245—prospective war-related job openings were reserved for whites only. Moreover, blatant job discrimination was not merely a southern phenomenon. In Texas, African Americans were barred from over 9,000 out of the 17,435 openings (52 percent) for defense jobs. In Michigan the figure was 22,042 out of 26,904 (82 percent); in Ohio, 29,242 out of 34,861 (84 percent); and in Indiana, 9,331 out of 9,979 (94 percent) (4). Even before the Japanese attack on Hawaii, civil rights leaders and organizations sought to end discrimination in employment and the military. In January 1941, one black leader, A. Philip Randolph, president of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, announced that if the Roosevelt administration did not take action against discrimination in the defense program he would parade one hundred thousand African Americans down Pennsylvania Avenue in Washington, D.C., on 1 July 1941. Through that winter and spring, Roosevelt and his advisors negotiated with Randolph without result. Finally, on 25 June 1941—six days before the scheduled protest march—FDR issued Executive Order 8802 banning employment discrimination because of race, creed, color, or national origin for employers with defense contracts, labor unions, and civilian agencies of the federal

government. To enforce the policy, FDR set up an executive agency, the Fair Employment Practice Committee (FEPC), that accomplished much during the war. With no more than one hundred and twenty officials, the FEPC exposed prejudice in the war industries and broke some racial barriers, processing over twelve thousand complaints of discrimination and settling nearly

five thousand to its satisfaction. The committee also vigorously pursued an educational campaign in order to create more harmonious industrial relations between white and minority workers. Above all, the FEPC influenced the course of civil rights reform as it became a postwar model for city, state, and federal efforts against employment discrimination (5).

Despite its successes, the Fair Employment Practice Committee did not rid American society of job bias. At most, it opened some new opportunities where there previously had been none. Nevertheless, African American workers rushed to fill these new employment openings, often moving from their homes in the South to cities in the Midwest, North, and West. During the war, the black population of San Francisco increased by over five hundred percent. In the Willow Run area near Detroit, the percentage growth of African Americans was nearly ten times that of whites (6). These job seekers were at times

frustrated by discrimination and yet often with the assistance of the FEPC and civil rights organizations, such as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and the National Urban League, African Americans found war jobs. In addition to well paying defense jobs, black migrants, especially to northern and western cities, found it possible to escape the oppressions brought by Jim Crow. Marion Clark,



daughter of John Clark, head of the St. Louis Urban League, provides an illustrative example. In 1942, Marion moved to Chicago. Describing the city in a letter home, she wrote, "it is fun, as you agree, to be able to breathe the freer air of Chicago" (7). Northern and some western cities offered other amenities that African Americans found welcoming. Housing in cities such as Chicago and New York was much better than that of the rural South. Blacks also had access to superior health care and to foods higher in nutrition. As a result, during the war, the black mortality rates dropped considerably and the birthrate rose. Generally speaking, the four hundred thousand African Americans who moved out of the South during the war created significantly better lives for themselves.

To improve their new lives, many African Americans joined civil rights groups such as the NAACP, the Urban League, and the newly formed Congress of Racial Equality (CORE). These groups were dedicated to the Double V. Not only did they attempt to create new employment opportunities, but they challenged racism and segregation in public accommodations, housing, and education. In many ways, these activists laid the groundwork for the modern civil rights movement. Although housing in northern ghettos was often an improvement, there was not enough to meet the needs of southern black migrants. City governments responded to the crisis slowly. Eventually the Roosevelt administration sought to alleviate the situation. For instance in 1942, the federal government in cooperation with Detroit's city government built the Sojourner Truth Housing Project to relieve overcrowding in the black ghettos. Pressure from a white "improvement association" caused a reversal in policy, resulting in the exclusion of blacks in the project. Vigorous objections from civil rights activists caused another quick about-face. Yet as blacks attempted to move into the housing, whites formed a picket line, burned crosses, and used violence to turn the residents away. In the end, federal officials held firm, but the Sojourner Truth Housing controversy demonstrated not only how desperate the housing situation was but also how tense race relations were in America. During the war, there were dozens of incidents of racial violence. The war's worst riot happened again in Detroit, one year after the violence at the Sojourner Truth homes. On 22 June 1943, at Belle Isle Park, Detroit's main recreational area, fights broke out between white and black men. As news of the fights and rumors of murder and rape spread, so did the conflict, which lasted four days. By the time federal troops had restored order on 24 June, twenty-five African Americans and nine whites were dead, nearly seven hundred were injured, and two million dollars worth of property had been destroyed (9).

The wartime race riots as well as employment discrimination and segregation greatly lowered black morale for the war. At no point were African Americans as a group disloyal. Nevertheless, as a federal official wrote in 1942, the lack of racial equality in the United States had given rise to "a sickly, negative attitude toward national goals" (8). In its extreme form, disaffection with the war effort resulted in draft resisters who refused to fight "the white

man's war." More commonly, cynicism produced scathing editorials and newspaper articles condemning the hypocrisy of American democracy. Some of President Roosevelt's White House advisors pressured him to indict black editors for sedition. FDR refused to sanction such an action. Instead his administration began to collect information on black morale. A 1942 Office of War Information report detailed the widespread discontent. One Cincinnati housemaid told investigators that to her it did not matter if Hitler won the war. "It couldn't be any worse for colored people—it may and it may not. It ain't so good now," she commented (10). The Federal Bureau of Investigation also conducted its own investigation. In its RACON (racial conditions in America) report, the FBI concluded that although most African Americans supported the war, racism undercut the government's efforts to build a unified nation in wartime. Nevertheless, the bureau noted that while cynicism was found in nearly every black community, so was the strong desire to aid the war effort. In fact, other federal officials close to the situation had discovered the same "positive attitude toward racial aims and aspirations" (11).

While one goal of the Double V campaign was to conquer employment discrimination another was to eradicate discrimination in the armed services. Like the fight for fair employment, the battle to end racism and prejudice in the military began before formal American entry into the Second World War. At the start of the war, there were minimal opportunities for African Americans in the military. Although blacks had served valiantly in all American conflicts from the Revolution to the First World War, the War Department systematically discriminated against them. In 1939, African American participation in the army was at a nadir. There were only 3,640 black soldiers, five of whom were officers (three of them were chaplains). All were segregated into four units under white command. The navy was even worse. African Americans could only enlist to work in the galleys. The Coast Guard's racial policies were slightly more enlightened and were far more liberal than the marines and the Army Air Corps, which prior to the Second World War did not allow any blacks to serve.

African Americans took great pride in their past service in American wars and were angry at their exclusion from the military preparedness program. Initially, Rayford W. Logan, black historian, World War I veteran, and leader of the Committee for the Participation of Negroes in National Defense, led the charge to break the racial barriers in the military. The committee's major success was the inclusion of nondiscrimination language in the 1940 Selective Service Act which required that draftees be taken and trained regardless of race. To open more avenues in the military, on 27 September 1940, Walter White, executive secretary of the NAACP, T. Arnold Hill of the National Urban League, and A. Philip Randolph met with President Roosevelt. They brought a list of seven demands: that black officers and men be assigned on the basis of merit, not race; that more black officers be trained; that African Americans be allowed to serve in the Army Air Corps; that blacks be allowed to participate in the selective service process; that black women be permitted to serve



Captain Andrew D. Turner, who in a few minutes will be escorting heavy bombers en route to enemy targets, signals to the chief of his ground crew before taking off from a base in Italy in September 1944. (National Archives, Records of the Office of War Information)

as nurses; and that “existing units of the army and units to be established should be required to accept and select officers and enlisted personnel without regard to race” (12). Although Roosevelt seemed receptive to these ideas, he later signed policy statements which reaffirmed segregation in the military and established a racial quota system to limit black participation in the military to nine percent, roughly the African American proportion in the general population.

FDR’s actions sparked a flurry of protests. To pacify black leaders and to encourage blacks to vote for the Democratic Party in the November elections, Roosevelt made some concessions such as forming an all-black Army Air Corps unit, promoting Colonel Benjamin O. Davies to the rank of general (making him the first African American to hold that rank), and appointing Colonel Campbell C. Johnson as Negro Advisor to the Selective Service Director and William H. Hastie, dean of Howard Law School, as civilian aide to the Secretary of War. Following Roosevelt’s appointments came moderate improvement in the armed services for black Americans. In 1941, an Army Air Force training base was established at the Tuskegee Institute. Although still segregated, African Americans were accepted into regular service in the navy and the marines. Moreover, the number of black servicemen in the army rose dramatically, from 98,000 in late 1941 to 468,000 in late 1942. Still, serious problems re-

mained. The army never met its promised quota of becoming nine percent African American. At most, only five percent of the total number of G.I.s were black. Moreover, over eighty percent were stationed in the United States. This was partly due to requests of Allied governments such as Australia that the War Department not send African American troops so as to not upset local whites. Moreover, African Americans were not shipped overseas, because ranking officials in the military believed them to be inferior soldiers. African American soldiers were also largely confined to the Corps of Engineers and the Quartermaster Corps. Working conditions for black servicemen on the homefront were at times horrible. Nothing demonstrated this more than what happened on 17 July 1944 at Port Chicago in San Francisco Bay. Two hundred and fifty black stevedores were killed when two ammunition-carrying ships they were load-

ing exploded. The survivors were sent to Vallejo where they were asked to stow munitions in similar dangerous conditions. Initially almost two hundred and sixty refused to accept this assignment. In the end, all but fifty returned to work. The navy court-martialed the protestors, handing down sentences of fifteen years hard labor and dishonorable discharge (13). The Port Chicago incident, as it became known, was the most extreme case of hazardous duty, but even basic training was often treacherous. Across the nation, black soldiers encountered not only segregation and discrimination but also racially motivated violence. Racial tensions on and off base were high and clashes between whites and black were altogether too common. In a scathing report to his superiors in the War Department, Civilian Aide Hastie summarized these problems. His protests fell on largely deaf ears, and he later resigned.

Despite the obvious handicaps to military service, African American men and women made considerable contributions to the victory over the Axis powers. General Dwight D. Eisenhower publicly praised the 99th Fighter Squadron which had trained at Tuskegee as well as the engineer and antiaircraft ground units stationed in Italy. Perhaps black soldiers’ greatest achievement came in December 1944 when Nazi forces launched a last-ditch offensive at the Ardennes. In the Battle of the Bulge, the American army was caught desperately short of infantry replacements. To fill the voids in the American lines, General Eisenhower sent

in black platoons which were partially integrated into regular units. Thus reinforced, the Americans defeated the Germans. Moreover, after the Battle of the Bulge, all branches of the military began instituting integration policies. The navy, including its Women's Accepted for Voluntary Emergency Service (WAVES), was first and followed shortly thereafter by the air force and the army.

By helping defeat the Axis, black Americans realized one-half of their Double V. The remaining half—a victory over discrimination and segregation in American life—remained elusive. And yet, blacks made remarkable strides in four short, war-torn years. With the federal government's assistance, African Americans attacked employment discrimination and achieved some positive results. Civil rights organizations such as the NAACP were reinvigorated. Moreover, African American communities across the nation became healthier and more socially and politically dynamic. Perhaps the greatest achievements came in the military, which continued after the war to break down barriers to not only African Americans but to women and minorities generally. V-J Day may have marked the end of the military conflict, but it did not signal an end to the struggle for civil rights on the homefront. Indeed, these efforts became the basis for a postwar civil rights movement which has continued for more than fifty years. □

#### Endnotes

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2. United States Bureau of the Census, *Historical Statistics of the United States: Colonial Times to 1957* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1960), 98, 446, 466.
3. "Out in the Cold," *Crisis* (July 1940): 209.
4. Andrew E. Kersten, *Race, Jobs, and the War: The FEPC in the Midwest, 1941-46* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 2000), 37.
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6. Allan M. Winkler, *Home Front U.S.A.: America During World War II*, 2d ed. (Wheeling, IL: Harlan Davidson, 2000), 67 and Neil A. Wynn, *The Afro-American and the Second World War* (New York: Holmes and Meier, 1993), 62.
7. Letter, Marion Clark to John Clark, 22 November 1942, St. Louis Urban League Papers, series 1, box 9, Washington University Archives.
8. Cornelius L. Golightly, "Negro Higher Education and Democratic Negro Morale," *Journal of Negro Education* 11 (July 1942): 324.
9. Thomas J. Sugrue, "Crabgrass-Roots Politics: Race, Rights, and the Reaction against Liberalism in the Urban North, 1940-1964," *Journal of American History* 82 (Sept. 1995): 551-578.
10. Office of War Information, "Negroes and the War: A Study in Baltimore and Cincinnati, July 21, 1942," appendix D, vi, Franklin D. Roosevelt Presidential Library, Presidential Office Files, OF 4245G, box 7.
11. Golightly, "Negro Higher Education and Democratic Negro Morale," 324.
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13. After the war, the convictions were set aside.

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# Incarcerating Japanese Americans

The day after the Imperial Japanese government's devastating attack on Pearl Harbor, President Franklin D. Roosevelt, in his war message to Congress, declared that the day of the attack, 7 December 1941, would be "a date which will live in infamy" (1). Seventy-four days after the attack, 19 February 1942, he issued Executive Order 9066, which became the authority for the United States Army to exile nearly 120,000 persons of

Japanese birth or ancestry from their homes in California, Oregon, Washington, and other West Coast areas and coop them up in what the government called assembly centers and relocation centers, but which the president himself called "concentration camps" (2). Many scholars regard the issuance of the order as the "date of infamy" as far as the Constitution of the United States is concerned, although others would hold that the "honor" should be reserved for the two decision Mondays in 1943 and 1944, on which the Supreme Court, in effect, held that the wartime incarceration was constitutional.

Roosevelt's action was implemented by Congress without a dissenting vote, in the name of military necessity, and it was applauded by the vast majority of Americans. Today, however, it is all but universally regarded in a different light. On 10 August 1988 President Ronald Reagan signed into law the Civil Liberties



These two little girls, wearing ID tags which bear the number that was assigned to their family, are waiting in the Oakland, California, train station to be taken to an "assembly center." (Photo by Dorothea Lange, from Bernard K. Johnpoll.)

Act of 1988. It provided an unprecedented apology to the survivors of the wartime incarceration and authorized the payment of twenty thousand dollars to each of them (3). The presidential commission investigating the incarceration in the early 1980s judged that:

"The promulgation of Executive Order 9066 was not justified by military necessity, and the decisions which followed from it—detention, ending detention and ending exclusion—were not driven by analysis of military conditions. The broad historical causes which shaped these decisions were race prejudice, war hysteria, and a failure of political leadership. Widespread ignorance of Japanese Americans contributed to a policy conceived in haste and executed in an atmosphere of fear and anger at Japan. A grave injustice was done to American citizens and resident aliens of Japanese ancestry who, without individual review or other probative evidence against them, were excluded, removed, and detained by the United States during World War II" (4).

The rest of this essay will attempt to explain what was done to Japanese Americans during the war and, in its conclusion, to raise the troubling question, "Could such a thing happen again?"

When the great Pacific War began in December 1941, there were fewer than three hundred thousand Japanese Americans. More than half of them lived in Hawaii, not yet a state. Although

Hawaii had borne the brunt of the first attack by Japan and Japanese Americans constituted about a third of the population, only a tiny percentage of them were deprived of their liberty. Their story will not be told here (5).

Of the 130,000 Japanese living in the continental United States, more than 90,000 lived in California, and most of the rest lived in Washington and Oregon. They were the ones on whom the burden of Executive Order 9066 fell. Almost all were incarcerated, most of them for years. Most of the few thousand Japanese Americans living in the other forty-five states were left in nervous liberty throughout the war.

The West Coast Japanese constituted law-abiding communities primarily engaged in agriculture and the marketing of agricultural products. More than two-thirds of them were native-born American citizens. Their parents, most of whom had immigrated to the United States between 1890 and 1924 (when Congress barred further immigration of Japanese), were “aliens ineligible to citizenship” because of their race. Like all persons of color in the United States, both generations of Japanese Americans experienced systematic discrimination. The immigrant *Issei* generation, in addition to being barred from citizenship, were legally forbidden to enter a number of professions and trades and, even more importantly for a farming people, were forbidden to own agricultural land in the states where most of them lived. The second or *Nisei* generation, although legally citizens, were not accorded equal rights. In California, for example, they were segregated in theaters, barred from swimming pools, and limited in employment (6).

The outbreak of war put the *Issei* generation at peril—they were “alien enemies” and, as such, some eight thousand, mostly men, were interned beginning on the night of 7-8 December 1941. A similar fate befell perhaps twenty-three hundred German nationals and a few hundred Italian nationals (7). The standard phrase, “the internment of the Japanese Americans,” should only be used to describe those eight thousand (8). While it is clear that some of those interned did not receive “justice,” their confinement did conform to the law of the land, which had provided for wartime internment since the War of 1812. What happened to the rest of the West Coast Japanese Americans was without precedent in American law and whatever one wishes to call it, it was not internment.

There is no evidence that the federal government planned a general round-up of Japanese Americans before the war. But the terrible war news of the winter of 1941-1942, in which seemingly invincible Imperial Japanese forces overran the Philippines, much of Southeast Asia, and seemed to threaten Australia and perhaps the United States itself, produced a state of panic, especially on the West Coast. The escalating demands of the press, politicians, some army and navy officers, and the general public for harsher treatment of Japanese Americans, whether they were aliens or citizens, helped to change public policy. The first major step was a dawn-to-dusk curfew for German and Italian nationals and all persons of Japanese descent. Then, with the press and radio filled with false stories of espionage by Japanese of both generations, the demand grew for putting all Japanese into some kind of camps.

There was not one case of espionage or sabotage by a Japanese person in the United States during the entire war. One West Coast law enforcement officer, California Attorney General Earl Warren, admitted to a congressional committee on 21 February 1942 that there had been no such acts in California, but found that fact “most ominous.” It convinced him that “we are just being lulled into a false sense of security and that the only reason we haven’t had a disaster in California is because it is timed for a different date.” “Our day of reckoning is bound to come,” he testified in arguing for incarceration (9). Of course, if there had been sabotage by Japanese Americans in California, Warren would have used that to argue for the same thing. As far as Japanese Americans were concerned, it was a no-win situation.

Although we can blame the incarceration on military bureaucrats like Lieutenant General John L. De Witt, the West Coast military commander, on the press, on politicians, and on the almost reflexive racism of the general public, in the final analysis the decision was made by President Roosevelt, who, responding directly to the urging of Secretary of War Henry L. Stimson, told him that he could do what he wished with the Japanese Americans, but that he should be “as reasonable as you can” (10). Eight days later FDR signed Executive Order 9066, which the army’s lawyers had prepared. The order named no ethnic group but gave Stimson and other commanders he might designate nearly absolute power over persons in duly constituted “military areas.”

The government, however, was not at all prepared to move, guard, house, and feed more than a hundred thousand persons. The exiling of Japanese American men, women, and children from their homes did not even begin until 31 March and the process was not completed until the end of October. Before that could happen, a new federal crime had to be invented, failing to leave a restricted area when directed to do so by a military order. Congress quickly enacted a statute drafted by army lawyers making the failure to obey such an order punishable by a year in prison and/or a fine of five thousand dollars. Senator Robert A. Taft (R-OH) called it the “sloppiest” criminal law he had ever “read or seen anywhere” but, because of the situation on the Pacific Coast, he did not object and the statute passed the Senate by unanimous consent (11). Once it was passed, the army could proceed with its mass evictions.

Most Japanese Americans were subjected to a two-step process. The army, with the help of technicians borrowed from the Census Bureau, divided the West Coast area to be evacuated—the entire state of California, the western halves of Washington and Oregon, and a small part of Arizona—into 108 districts and issued separate Civilian Exclusion Orders for each. The first such order, which covered Bainbridge Island opposite Seattle in Puget Sound, was posted on 26 March throughout the island. It ordered “all persons of Japanese ancestry, both alien and non-alien” to be prepared for removal on 31 March. (A “non-alien,” of course, was a citizen, but the army did not like to remind the public that American citizens were being sent to camps based on their ancestry alone.) Japanese were to bring, for each member of the family: bedding and linens (no mattress); toilet articles; extra clothing; knives, forks, spoons,



A map of relocation centers, 1942-1946, which was adapted from the U.S. Department of War's *Final Report: Japanese Evacuation from the West Coast 1942* (Washington, D.C., 1943).

plates, bowls and cups; and essential personal effects. They were informed that the size and number of packages was limited to what "can be carried," that no pets were allowed, and that nothing could be shipped to the assembly center.

The exiles were not told where they were going or how long they would be gone. Because no other place was ready, the 267 Bainbridge Islanders were sent by train to Manzanar, in Southern California, which was being built in part by Japanese American "volunteers." Most exiles were sent to a temporary camp relatively close to home. Although they did not know it at the time, this was merely a preliminary move. The assembly centers, which often used existing facilities such as race tracks and fair grounds, with some families quartered in horse and cattle stalls, were run by the army. By the end of October, all Japanese Americans had been transferred to ten purpose-built camps, called relocation centers, administered by a new civilian agency, the War Relocation Authority (WRA) (12).

The WRA was established by executive order on 18 March 1942. Each of its two directors, Milton S. Eisenhower, who resigned in disgust in June 1942, and his successor, Dillon S. Myer, believed that mass incarceration was unnecessary, but neither criticized its assumptions publicly. Eisenhower did write, privately, a few days after he took over the job, that after the war "we as Americans are going to regret" the "unprecedented migration" (13).

The WRA ran its camps humanely, but security was handled by military detachments that manned the gates and guard towers. On three occasions in three separate camps, armed soldiers shot and killed unarmed incarcerated American citizens. The WRA itself contributed to much of the turmoil that erupted in the camps

by attempting to determine the "loyalty" of its prisoners and to segregate the "disloyal" in a separate camp (14). Further contention arose over the issue of military service for draft-eligible men. Prior to Pearl Harbor, Japanese American male citizens of military age were treated as were other Americans in the selective service, or draft, which had begun in October 1940. Shortly after Pearl Harbor, the Selective Service System stopped inducting Japanese Americans, and many of those already serving in the army were discharged. In March 1942, the draft illegally reclassified all American-born Japanese Americans as "IV-C," a category for aliens (15).

In the summer of 1942, however, army intelligence, desperate for Japanese linguists, conducted recruiting missions in the camps with some success. Eventually some five thousand Japanese Americans served in the army as military intelligence specialists. Most had to be trained in the language. Many Japanese American leaders wanted the draft reinstated, and the army, desperate for manpower, eventually

agreed. There was already one all-Japanese Hawaiian National Guard unit in the army, which had been pulled out of Hawaii and sent to Wisconsin for training. By January 1943, the army decided to allow Japanese Americans, in and out of WRA camps, to volunteer for military service, and almost two thousand young men from within the camps did so. Starting in January 1944, the draft was reinstated for Japanese Americans. Thousands were called up, including almost twenty-eight hundred still in WRA custody. As is well known, the Japanese American units fighting in Italy and France, eventually consolidated into the famous 442nd Regimental Combat team, compiled a splendid record. Much of the literature about Japanese Americans in World War II makes it seem as if most of the twenty-five thousand Japanese Americans who served in the military came from the camps. As the quoted figures show, this was not the case, although nearly one in five who served did enter the service from behind barbed wire. Many others had resettled in locations outside the camps before serving.

Still other Japanese Americans were so outraged by their treatment that, as a matter of principle, they refused to submit to the draft while avowing loyalty and a willingness to serve if their civil rights as Americans were restored first. 293 young men were indicted for draft resistance while in camp, and 261 were convicted and served time in federal penitentiaries.

The reaction of the Japanese American people to all of this was remarkable. The vast majority accepted the various government decisions with what appeared to be patient resignation. The leading national organization of the citizen generation, the Japanese American Citizens League (JACL), advocated a policy of acquiescence and even collaboration with the government's plans,

hoping by such behavior to “earn” a better place for Japanese Americans in the postwar world. This kind of accommodation is not unknown among other American minority groups.

But, in addition to the draft resisters mentioned earlier, some Japanese Americans did protest in a variety of ways. A few individuals tried to stop the incarceration process by using the American legal system, and three of those challenges by young *Nisei* adults, two men and a woman, were eventually adjudicated by the Supreme Court. The first

to be decided, more than a year after the incarceration began, was the case of Gordon K. Hirabayashi, a college student who had refused to obey De Witt’s curfew. A unanimous court held that his appeal was without merit. The second case, decided in December 1944, was Fred T. Korematsu’s challenge to the government’s right to exile him solely because of his ancestry. The Court said that he had no right to refuse. The justices, however, were no longer unanimous as three of the nine argued that the government’s action was unconstitutional.

The third case, decided the same day, involved Mitsuye Endo’s application for a writ of *habeas corpus* to get out of the government’s concentration camp in the Utah desert. Paradoxically, the six justices who had said that it was constitutional to send Japanese Americans to a concentration camp based solely on ancestry now joined the three dissenters in a unanimous decision declaring that an American citizen could not be held in a concentration camp without specific charges and saying that she could not be prevented from returning to her home in California (16).

By this time, late 1944, the WRA had already released tens of thousands of Japanese Americans from camps to work and attend school somewhere east of the forbidden zone. Ironically, in 1945, as the war was ending, the WRA had great difficulty in getting some Japanese Americans—mostly older members of the *Issei* generation—to leave the camps. Many had lost their means of livelihood and even though they had once been willing to take the great risk of emigration to a strange land, they were now afraid to return to the places where they had lived for decades.

The third and largest group of protesters consisted of Japanese American citizens who were so outraged by the government’s callous violation of their civil rights that they resisted anything the government tried to do. They sparked most of the protests



The “main street” of the camp at Heart Mountain, Wyoming. The picture, with the mountain in the background that gave the camp its name, gives some sense of the desolation of the “relocation centers.” (Photo by Tom Parker, War Relocation Authority.)

against specific camp conditions, some of which, as noted above, resulted in fatal violence. During the war, 5,766 *Nisei* formally renounced their American citizenship and applied for expatriation to Japan. This happened largely at the Tule Lake camp for “disloyals” where chaotic conditions prevailed for several months. Most later reconsidered their rash action, and although the government intended to send them to Japan after the war, federal courts prevented this, ruling that documents executed behind barbed wire were invalid. Yet, among the 4,724

Japanese Americans who were repatriated or expatriated to Japan during and after the war were 1,116 adult *Nisei* and 1,949 American citizen children accompanying repatriating parents.

In the more than half century since the last American concentration camp closed, nothing even remotely similar to the incarceration of the Japanese Americans has occurred. Much of the rhetoric accompanying the passage of the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 stressed that one of its purposes was to prevent any recurrence of such an event. But the historian must point out that no similar crisis has occurred and that, in the darkest days of the cold war Congress passed, over President Harry S. Truman’s veto, the Internal Security Act (1950), which ordered the maintenance of concentration camps, declaring:

The detention of persons who there is reasonable grounds to believe probably will commit or conspire with others to commit espionage or sabotage is, in a time of internal security emergency essential to the common defense and the security of the territory, the people and the Constitution of the United States.

The law’s sponsors pointed out that it was an improved version of the procedure used to incarcerate Japanese Americans. Happily, the necessary triggering mechanism—a presidential executive order declaring an internal security emergency—never came, but the law was on the books until 1971 (17). One can easily imagine a future crisis in which similar expedients might be utilized. □

## Endnotes

1. Samuel I. Rosenman, comp. *The Public Papers and Addresses of Franklin D. Roosevelt: 1941 Volume: The Call to Battle Stations*. (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950), 514. This is often misquoted as “day of infamy.”
2. E.O. 9066 is not in the *Public Papers*. It may be most conveniently examined, along with other relevant documents, in materials published by the so-called Tolan Committee, U.S. Congress. House. *Report 2124*. 77th Congress, 2d Session, 1942.
3. The act is Public Law 100-383. More than eighty thousand survivors were eventually compensated.
4. Commission on the Wartime Relocation and Incarceration of Civilians, *Personal Justice Denied*. (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1982).
5. The best account of Hawaii’s Japanese is Eileen Tamura, *Americanization, Acculturation, and Ethnic Identity: The Nisei Generation in Hawaii*. (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1993). For legal aspects of the Hawaiian situation, see Harry N. and Jane L. Scheiber, “Bayonets in Paradise: A Half-Century Retrospect on Martial Law in Hawaii, 1941-1946,” *University of Hawai’i Law Review* 19, (1997): 478-648. For evidence of long-term government suspicion of Hawaiian Japanese, see Gary Okihiro, *Cane Fires: The Anti-Japanese Movement in Hawaii, 1895-1945*. (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1991).
6. The terms *Issei* and *Nisei* are forms of the Japanese words for one and two.
7. See essays by John J. Culley, Roger Daniels, Jörg Nagler, and George Pozzetta, *Alien Justice: Wartime Internment in Australia and North America*, edited by Kay Saunders and Roger Daniels. (St. Lucia, Queensland, Australia: University of Queensland Press, 2000). The total number of enemy aliens registered of each nationality were: Italians, 695,363; Germans, 314,715, and Japanese, 91,858. The Europeans, except for those with less than five years residence, were eligible for naturalization. A handful of *Issei* men who had served in the U.S. Army in World War I were, because of the service, able to be naturalized.
8. The best account of an individual internment is Louis Fiset. *Imprisoned Apart: The World War II Correspondence of an Issei Couple*. (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1998).
9. U.S. Congress. House. *National Defense Migration. Hearings*. (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1942), 11011-12. These are the Tolan Committee hearings.
10. Stetson Conn, “The Decision to Evacuate the Japanese from the Pacific Coast,” in *Command Decisions*, ed. Kent Roberts Greenfield, (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1959), 143.
11. The statute was Public Law 503. For Taft see *Congressional Record*, 19 March 1942, 2726. Some historians have reported erroneously that Taft voted no.
12. The army’s role is self-described with excruciating detail in United States Department of War, *Final Report: Japanese Evacuation from the West Coast, 1942* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1943). For text of Civilian Exclusion Orders, see page 97.
13. Executive Order 9102, creating the WRA, is printed in Rosenman, comp., *Public Papers . . . FDR*, 1942 volume, 174-76. On pages 176-80, Rosenman gives an apologetic account of the wartime incarceration.
14. U.S. War Relocation Authority, WRA: *A Story of Human Conservation* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1946), is an official history. Richard Drinnon, *Keeper of Concentration Camps: Dillon S. Myer and American Racism* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1987) is a hostile biography, while Dillon S. Myer, *Uprooted Americans* (Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1971) is self-serving.
15. For the treatment accorded Japanese Americans, see U.S. Selective Service System, *Special Groups*, 2 vols. Special Monograph 10 (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1953), I:113-42. I say illegal because the Selective Service Act of 1940 specifically barred racial and other discrimination.
16. A courageous scholarly protest against the court decisions was made by Eugene V. Rostow in two important articles: “Our Worst War-time Mistake,” *Harper’s* 191 (1945): 193-201; and “The Japanese American Cases—A Disaster,” *Yale Law Journal* 54 (July 1945): 489-533. The most detailed scholarly analyses are in two books by Peter Irons: *Justice at War. The Story of the Japanese Internment Cases* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1983); and *Justice Delayed: The Record of the Japanese American Internment Cases* (Middletown, CT: Wesleyan University Press, 1989). The latter work contains an account of the so-called *coram nobis* cases in which Irons and a group of Asian American lawyers got the original convictions of Hirabayashi and Korematsu overturned in 1984, because the government lawyers had deliberately misled the Supreme Court. The terrible war-time decisions, however, still stand as precedents.
17. For the act and its repeal, see Roger Daniels. *The Decision to Relocate the Japanese Americans* (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1975), 57, 130-32.

#### Suggestions for Further Reading

- Daniels, Roger. *Prisoners Without Trial: Japanese Americans in World War II*. New York: Hill & Wang, 1993. A concise account.
- Dower, John. *War Without Mercy: Race and Power in the Pacific War*. New York: Pantheon, 1986. A gripping account of racism on both sides of the Pacific.
- Fiset, Louis. *Imprisoned Apart: The World War II Correspondence of an Issei Couple*. Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1998. About internment in the INS camps.
- Hansen, Arthur A., ed. *Japanese American World War II Evacuation Oral History Project*. Westport, CT: Meckler, 1991, 5 vols. A large collection of oral histories of people involved in all aspects of the incarceration.
- Irons, Peter. *Justice at War. The Story of the Japanese Internment Cases*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1983.
- Okihiro, Gary. *Storyed Lives: Japanese American Students and World War II*. Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1999. A nuanced account of how the incarceration affected *Nisei* college students.
- Taylor, Sandra C. *Jewel of the Desert: Japanese American Internment at Topaz*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1993. The best study of a single camp.
- Uchida, Yoshiko. *Desert Exile: The Uprooting of a Japanese American Family*. Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1982. A sensitive memoir by a skilled writer.

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# Rosie the Riveter Remembers

Pat Kaufman

In all wars fought by Americans, women have played major roles on the homefront as well as on the battlefield. During World War II, the government and media launched a campaign to encourage women to support the war effort by getting a job. (These were, ironically, the same women who had been told during the Great Depression that they should not take jobs from men.) By the end of war, six million women had entered the labor force for the first time. American women put on their work overalls—they handled lathes, cut dies, traced blueprints, and inspected plane parts. They also filled many civil service jobs, especially those involving clerical work. They ran the trains and busses and did every type of work imaginable. Women made up twenty percent of the labor force in 1920; by 1945 they comprised thirty-six percent. Once the war was won, government and businesses launched a new campaign to return women to their domestic sphere as consumers. Women were laid off from their jobs despite the fact that many would have preferred to continue working. Companies reinstated their prewar policies against the hiring of married women. But the seeds had been sown for what became the women's movement of the 1970s. Mothers like Frankie Cooper (whose reflections appear below) told their daughters, "You don't have to be just a homemaker. You can be anything you want to be."

### Lesson Procedures

Have students (either individually or in small groups) read the following selections and reflect on the following questions:

1. What kinds of opportunities opened up to women as a result of World War II?
2. What motivations or reasons did these women give for taking defense related jobs?
3. What challenges did they face as they took on these new responsibilities and new jobs? What about issues of discrimination? Equal pay? Union activities?

4. What reactions, positive or negative, did they face from their families? From male coworkers? From management?

5. How did their attitudes change about themselves and for what reasons?

6. What sense of accomplishment did they develop? Why did some say that they would never be the same again?

7. Inez Sauer said, "The war changed my life completely. I guess you could say, at thirty-one, I finally grew up." What do you think she meant by that? In your opinion, what wartime experiences led to that realization? Her mother had warned her that she would "never want to go back to being a housewife." What do you think about that warning? Do you agree or disagree? Why or why not?

8. As a young man or woman today, can you think of any types of experiences that might give you similar feelings about "growing up?" For example, jobs? sports? physical or mental challenges?

9. What do you think gave women their ability to overcome their frustrations and meet the challenges they encountered?

10. What common experiences did these women have? What different experiences?

11. How do you think some women felt about having to leave their jobs when the war was over? What kinds of arguments and reasons might have been given to get women to return to their domestic sphere?

### Inez Sauer: Chief Clerk, Toolroom

I was thirty-one when the war started and I had never worked in my life before. I had a six-year-old daughter and two boys, twelve and thirteen. We were living in Norwalk, Ohio, in a huge home in which we could fit about two hundred people playing bridge, and once in a while we filled it. . . . Before the war my life was bridge and golf and clubs and children. . . . When the war broke out, my husband's rubber-matting business in Ohio had to close due to the war restrictions on rubber. We also lost our live-in maid, and I could see there was no way I could possibly live the

way I was accustomed to doing. So I took my children home to my parents in Seattle.

The Seattle papers were full of ads for women workers needed to help the war effort. "Do your part, free a man for service." Being a D.A.R. [Daughters of the American Revolution], I really wanted to help the war effort. I could have worked for the Red Cross and rolled bandages, but I wanted to do something that I thought was really vital. Building bombers was, so I answered an ad for Boeing.

My mother was horrified. She said no one in our family had ever worked in a factory.

"You don't know what kind of people you're going to be associated with." My father was horrified too, no matter how I tried to impress on him that this was a war effort on my part. He said, "You'll never get along with the people you'll meet there." My husband thought it was utterly ridiculous. I had never worked. I didn't know how to handle money, as he put it. I was nineteen when I was married. My husband was ten years older, and he always made me feel like a child, so he didn't think I would last very long at the job, but he was wrong.

They started me as a clerk in this huge toolroom. I had never handled a tool in my life outside of a hammer. Some man came in and asked for a bastard file. I said to him, "If you don't control your language, you won't get any service here." I went to my supervisor and said, "You'll have to correct this man. I won't tolerate that kind of language." He laughed and laughed and said, "Don't you know what a bastard file is? It's the name of a very coarse file." He went over and took one out and showed me.

So I said to him, "If I'm going to be part of this organization, I must have some books, something that shows me how I can learn to do what I'm supposed to do." This was an unheard-of request. It went through channels, and they finally brought me some large, classified material that showed all the tools and machinery needed to build the B-17s. So gradually I educated myself about the various tools and their uses, and I was allowed to go out and roam around the machine area and become acquainted with what they were doing. The results showed on my paycheck. Eventually I became chief clerk of the toolroom. I think I was the first woman chief clerk they had.

The first year, I worked seven days a week. We didn't have any time off. They did allow us Christmas off, but Thanksgiving we had to work. That was a hard thing to do. The children didn't understand. My mother and father didn't understand, but I worked.



Two female welders at the Bethlehem-Fairfield shipyards in Baltimore, Maryland, May 1943. (Farm Security Administration, Office of War Information Photograph Collection, Library of Congress.)

I think that put a little iron in my spine too. I did something that was against my grain, but I did it, and I'm glad.

Since I was the chief clerk, they gave me the privilege of coming to work a half-hour early in the morning and staying over thirty to forty minutes at night. Because I was working late one night I had a chance to see President Roosevelt. They said he was coming in on the swing shift, after four o'clock, so I waited to see him. They cleared out all the aisles of the main plant, and he went

through in a big, open limousine. He smiled and he had his long cigarette holder, and he was very, very pleasant. "Hello there, how are you? Keep up the war effort. Oh, you women are doing a wonderful job." We were all thrilled to think the President could take time out of the war effort to visit us factory workers. It gave us a lift, and I think we worked harder.

Boeing was a real education for me. It taught me a different way of life. I had never been around uneducated people before, people that worked with their hands. I was prudish and had never been with people that used coarse language. Since I hadn't worked before, I didn't know there was such a thing as the typical male ego. My contact with my first supervisor was one of animosity, in which he stated, "The happiest day of my life will be when I say goodbye to each one of you women as I usher you out the front door." I didn't understand that kind of resentment, but it was prevalent throughout the plant. Many of the men felt that no woman could come in and run a lathe, but they did. I learned that just because you're a woman and have never worked is no reason you can't learn. The job really broadened me. I had led a very sheltered life. I had had no contact with Negroes except as maids or gardeners. My mother was a Virginian, and we were brought up to think that colored people were not on the same economic or social level. I learned differently at Boeing. I learned that because a girl is a Negro she's not necessarily a maid, and because a man is a Negro doesn't mean that all he can do is dig. In fact, I found that some of the black people I got to know there were very superior—and certainly equal to me—equal to anyone I ever knew.

Before I worked at Boeing I also had had no exposure to unions. After I was there awhile, I joined the machinists union. We had a contract dispute, and we had a one-day walkout to show Boeing our strength. We went on this march through the financial district in downtown Seattle. [As] we came down the middle of the street.

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I saw my mother. . . and I waved and said, "Hello, Mother." That night when I got home, I thought she was never going to honor my name again. She said, "To think my daughter was marching in that labor demonstration. How could you do that to the family?" But I could see that it was a new, new world.

My mother warned me when I took the job that I would never be the same. She said, "You will never want to go back to being a housewife." At that time I didn't think it would change a thing. But she was right, it definitely did. I had always been in a shell; I'd always been protected. But at Boeing I found a freedom and an independence I had never known. After the war I could never go back to playing bridge again, being a clubwoman and listening to a lot of inanities when I knew there were things you could use your mind [for]. The war changed my life completely. I guess you could say, at thirty-one, I finally grew up.

### Adele Erenberg: Machinist

**W**hen the war started, I was twenty-six, unmarried, and working as a cosmetics clerk in a drugstore in Los Angeles. I was running the whole department, handling the inventory and all that. It felt asinine, though, to be selling lipstick when the country was at war. I felt that I was capable of doing something more than that toward the war effort.

There was also a big difference between my salary and those in defense work. I was making something like twenty-two to twenty-four dollars a week in the drugstore. You could earn a much greater amount of money for your labor in defense plants. Also it interested me. I had a certain curiosity about meeting that kind of challenge, and here was an opportunity to do that, for there were more openings for women.

So I went to two or three plants and took their test. And they all told me I had absolutely no mechanical ability. I said, "I don't believe that." So I went to another plant, A. D. E. L. I was interviewed and got the job. This particular plant made the hydraulic valve system for the B-17. And where did they put women? In the burr room. You sat at a workbench, which was essentially like a picnic table with a bunch of other women, and you worked grinding and sanding machine parts to make them smooth. That's what you did all day long. It was very mechanical and it was very boring. There were about thirty women in the burr room, and it was like being in a beauty shop every day. I couldn't stand the inane talk. So when they asked me if I would like to work someplace else in the shop, I said I very much would.

They started training me. I went to a blueprint class and learned how to use a micrometer and how to draw tools out of the tool crib and everything else. Then one day they said, "Okay, how would you like to go into the machine shop?" I said, "Terrific." And they said, "Now, Adele, it's going to be a real challenge because you'll be the only woman in the machine shop." I thought to myself, well, that's going to be fun, all those guys and Adele in the machine shop. So the foreman took me over there. It was a big room, with a high ceiling and fluorescent lights, and it was very

noisy. I walked in there, in my overalls, and suddenly all the machines stopped and every guy in the shop just turned around and looked at me. It took, I think, two weeks before anyone even talked to me. The discrimination was indescribable. They wanted to kill me.

My attitude was, "Okay, you bastards. I'm going to prove to you I can do anything you can do, and maybe better than some of you." And that's exactly the way it turned out. I used to do the rework on the pieces that the guy on the shift before me had screwed up. I finally got assigned to nothing but rework.

Later they taught me to run an automatic screwing machine. It's a big mother, and it took a lot of strength just to throw that thing into gear. They probably thought I wasn't going to be able to do it. But I was determined to succeed. As a matter of fact I developed the most fantastic biceps from throwing that machine into gear. Even today I still have a little of that muscle left.

Anyway, eventually some of the men became very friendly, particularly the older ones, the ones in their late forties or fifties. They were journeymen tool and die makers and were so skilled that they could work anywhere at very high salaries. They were sort of fatherly, protective. They weren't threatened by me. The younger men, I think, were.

Our plant was an open shop, and the International Association of Machinists was trying to unionize the workers. I joined and worked to try to get the union in the plant. I proselytized for the union during lunch hour and I had a big altercation with the management over that. The employers and my leadman and foreman called me into the office and said, "We have a right to fire you." I said, "On what basis? I work as well or better than anybody else in the shop except the journeymen." They said, "No, not because of that, because you're talking for the union on company property. You're not allowed to do that." I said, "Well, that's just too bad, because I can't get off the grounds here. You won't allow us to leave the grounds during lunch hour. And you don't pay me for my lunch hour, so that time doesn't belong to you, so you can't tell me what to do." And they backed down.

I had one experience at the plant that really made me work for the union. One day while I was burring, I had an accident and ripped some cartilage out of my hand. It wasn't serious, but it looked kind of messy.

They had to take me over to the industrial hospital to get my hand sutured. I came back and couldn't work for a day or two because my hand was all bandaged. It wasn't serious, but it was awkward. When I got my paycheck, I saw that they had docked me for time that I was in the industrial hospital. When I saw that I was really mad.

It's ironic that when the union finally got into the plant, they had me transferred out. They were anxious to get rid of me because, after we got them in, I went to a few meetings and complained about it being a Jim Crow [segregated] union. So they arranged for me to have a higher rating instead of a worker's rating. This allowed me to make twenty-five cents an hour more, and I got transferred to another plant. By this time I was married. When I

became pregnant I worked for about three months more, then I quit. For me defense work was the beginning of my emancipation as a woman. For the first time in my life I found out that I could do something with my hands besides bake a pie.

### Sybil Lewis: Riveter, Arc Welder

**W**hen I arrived in Los Angeles, I began to look for a job. I decided I didn't want to do maid work anymore, so I got a job as a waitress in a small black restaurant. I was making pretty good money, more than I had in Sapulpa, Oklahoma, but I didn't like the job that much; I didn't have the knack for getting good tips. Then I saw an ad in the newspaper offering to train women for defense work. I went to Lockheed Aircraft and applied. They said they'd call me, but I never got a response, so I went back and applied again. You had to be pretty persistent.

Finally they accepted me. They gave me a short training program and taught me how to rivet. Then they put me to work in the plant riveting small airplane parts, mainly gasoline tanks. The women worked in pairs. I was the riveter and this big, strong white girl from a cotton farm in Arkansas worked as the buckler. The riveter used a gun to shoot rivets through the metal and fasten it together. The buckler used a bucking bar on the other side of the metal to smooth out the rivets. Bucking was harder than shooting rivets; it required more muscle. Riveting required more skill. I worked for a while as a riveter with this white girl when the boss came around one day and said, "We've decided to make some changes."

At this point he assigned her to do the riveting and me to do the bucking. I wanted to know why. He said, "Well, we just interchange once in a while." But I was never given the riveting job back. This was the first encounter I had with segregation in California, and it didn't sit too well with me. It brought back some of my experiences in Sapulpa—you're a Negro, so you do the hard work. I wasn't failing as a riveter—in fact, the other girl learned to rivet from me—but I felt they gave me the job of buckler because I was black.

So I applied to Douglas Aircraft in Santa Monica and was hired as a riveter there. On that job I did not encounter the same prejudice. I worked in aircraft for a few years, then in '43 I saw an ad in the paper for women trainees to learn arc welding. The salary sounded good, from \$1.00 to \$1.25 an hour. I wanted to learn that skill and I wanted to make more money, so I answered the ad and

they sent me to a short course at welding school. After I passed the trainee course, they employed me at the shipyards. That was a little different than working in aircraft because in the shipyard you found mostly men. There I ran into another kind of discrimination; because I was a woman I was paid less than a man for doing the same job.

I was an arc welder, I'd passed both the army and navy tests, and I knew I could do the job, but I found from talking with some of the men that they made more money. You'd ask about this, but they'd say, "Well, you don't have the experience," or, "The men have to lift some heavy pieces of steel and you don't have to," but I knew that I had to help lift steel too.

They started everyone off at \$1.20 an hour. There were higher-paying jobs, though, like chippers and crane operators that were for men only. Once, the foreman told me I had to go on the skids—the long docks alongside the hull.

I said, "That sounds pretty dangerous. Will I make more than \$1.20 an hour?" And he said, "No, \$1.20 is the top pay you'll get." But the men got more.

It was interesting that although they didn't pay women as much as men, the men treated you differently if you wore slacks. I noticed, for example, that when you'd get on the bus or the streetcar, you stood all the way, more than the lady who would get on with a dress. I never could understand why men wouldn't give women in slacks a seat. And at the shipyards the language wasn't the best. Nobody respected you enough to clean up the way they spoke. It didn't seem to bother the men that you were a woman. During the

war years men began to say, you have a man's job and you're getting paid almost the same, so we don't have to give you a seat anymore or show the common courtesies that men show women. All those niceties were lost.

I enjoyed working at the shipyard—it was a unique job for a woman—and I liked the challenge. But it was a dangerous job. The safety measures were very poor. Many people were injured by falling steel. Finally I was assigned to a very hazardous area and I asked to be transferred into a safer area. I was not granted that. They said you have to work where they assign you at all times. I thought it was getting too dangerous, so I quit.

The war years had a tremendous impact on women. I know for myself it was the first time I had a chance to get out of the kitchen and work in industry and make a few bucks. This was something I had never dreamed would happen. In Sapulpa all that women had



Women working as chippers, removing beads after a joint has been welded, at the Bethlehem-Fairfield shipyards in Baltimore, Maryland, May 1943. (Farm Security Administration, Office of War Information Photograph Collection, Library of Congress.)

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to look forward to was keeping house and raising families. The war years offered new possibilities. You came out to California, put on your pants, and took your lunch pail to a man's job. This was the beginning of women's feeling that they could do something more. We were trained to do this kind of work because of the war, but there was no question that this was just an interim period. We were all told that when the war was over, we would not be needed anymore.

### Frankie Cooper: Crane Operator

**T**he first job I had lasted only a month. . . . Then I heard of an opening at American Steel for a crane operator, . . . I applied for it and got it. Then I had to learn it. The men said, "You won't learn it. Women can't do that job." But they were wrong. . . . It took a while to be accepted. We had a big coke stove and we'd gather around it to get warm. On occasion, when I had time to come down and I take my breaks, the men would stand so close together around the stove that there wasn't room for me. So I just leaned up against the wall. The wall was warmer than where they were standing anyway because it had absorbed the heat from all the hours the fire had been going. So I would lean up against the wall and laugh at their jokes. And I would offer them a doughnut if I had one and so forth. So actually I made the overtures. And after a while they began to accept me.

During the war the morale inside the plants was extremely high. Not just myself, but everybody, gave everything they had. They wanted to do it. Today you don't sit around and talk about patriotism while you're drinking a beer, but you did back then. I mean you had a neighbor next door—maybe he lived states and states away—and if you were like me, often you couldn't understand what he said, but you had this great thing in common. You were all pulling together for one great war effort.

I was never absent, and I wasn't unique in that. There was very little absenteeism where I worked. If I woke up in the morning and I didn't feel too good and I really didn't want to work, I could make myself go by thinking, "What about those boys who are getting up at five o'clock, maybe haven't even been to bed? Maybe they're leaning their chin on a bayonet just to stay awake on watch. I don't even know their names. They don't even have faces to me, but they're out there somewhere overseas. And I'm saying that I don't feel like going to work today because I've got a headache?" That would get me out of bed and into work. And by the time I'd stayed there a couple of hours, it was okay. I was going to make it. So I never stayed at home.

There was only one really difficult problem with working. That was leaving my two-and-one-half-year-old daughter. When a mother goes away from home and starts to work for her first time, there is always a feeling of guilt. Any mother that has ever done this has had this feeling. I couldn't cope with it at first.

I relate so much with women who are trying to get into nontraditional jobs today, because during the war we had those jobs out of necessity, and then after the war they were no longer there. Women have actually had nontraditional jobs since the first wagon train went across the country. When they arrived at

the place where they wanted to settle, they helped cut the logs, they helped put them together, they helped put the mud between the log cabins, and they made a home and had their babies inside. And everytime a war comes along, women take up nontraditional work again. During the Civil War they worked in factories, they helped make musket balls, they made clothing for the troops, and they kept the home fires burning the way they always have. World War I came along and they did the same thing. After the war was over, they went back home. World War II, it was exactly the same thing, but the women were different in World War II they didn't want to go back home, and many of them haven't. And if they did go back home, they never forgot, and they told their daughters, "You don't have to be just a homemaker. You can be anything you want to be." And so we've got this new generation of women.

These interviews all come from the February/March 1984 issue of *American Heritage*, from the article: "Rosie the Riveter Remembers" (excerpted from *The Homefront: America During World War II* by Mark Jonathan Harris, Franklin D. Mitchell, and Steven J. Schechter: New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1984).

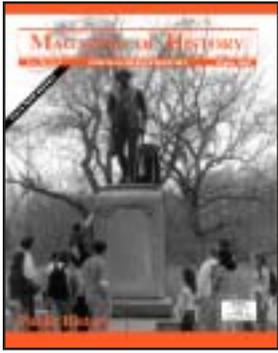
### Other Activities

Students could also read selections from the recent best seller, *The Greatest Generation*, by Tom Brokaw, which tells the stories of ordinary Americans who came of age during the Great Depression and World War II. These stories personalize historical events and draw young people into those times much better than a textbook account. As the women and men of this generation pass away it is important to record their stories. Students could interview their grandparents, great aunts and uncles and next door neighbors and record their findings. These primary sources will not only be valuable tools for future historians, but also provide students with real life stories that put individuals at the center of historical events. Students could come up with their own interview questions or compile a class list. Interviews could be transcribed into a "book" and certain "guests" could be invited to class to share their stories. This would make for a great community effort.

The Internet is also rich in primary sources. Just type the words "women world war II posters" into your search engine. For example, the World World II Poster Collection from Northwestern University Library <<http://www.library.northwestern.edu/govpub/collections/wwii-posters/>> has many posters that deal with women's participation and contributions during this historical period. Students could use these posters to talk about the government's propaganda campaign to get women into the work force as well as to get them back into their homes after the war was won. □

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## OAH Magazine of History

In its sixteenth year of publication, the quarterly *OAH Magazine of History* presents the latest historical scholarship in a format easily adapted for classroom use. Each issue focuses on a different theme in American history and contains articles and lesson plans. The *Magazine* is an invaluable resource for precollegiate teachers, college faculty, historical society and museum programs, students of education, and graduate students preparing to teach American history.

## OAH-NCHS Teaching Units

Copublished with the National Center for History in the Schools (NCHS), OAH has published several new teaching units based on primary documents for U.S. history at the pre-collegiate level. Units were written by teams of teachers and historians and contain reproducible images and documents for use in the classroom. Selected chapters can be read online at <http://www.oah.org/pubs/teachingunits/>.

### ● **Causes of the American Revolution: Focus on Boston**

Using documentary materials focusing on the Stamp Act riots, the Boston Massacre, and other fiery incidents to examine British colonial relations between 1763 and 1775, this unit draws upon court testimony, correspondence, newspapers reports, and contemporary cartoons to give students a “you-are-there” approach. *Grades 7-12 • 87 pages*

### ● **Commemorative Sculpture in the United States**

Helps students see and understand the importance of commemorative public sculpture in the United States and explains how certain major themes in United States history have been commemorated. The unit brings into focus how our democratic principles are embodied in public sculpture and monuments through a wide range and variety of images of individuals from across the United States. *Grades 8-12 • 70 pages*

### ● **The Antebellum Women’s Movement, 1820 to 1860**

Examines how the industrial revolution and the abolition movement led to changes in women’s roles both within and outside the home. Letters of a young woman working in Lowell, Massachusetts, interviews with former slaves, handbills, songs, and resolutions from abolitionist and women’s rights conventions help students fathom the experiences women faced in laboring to achieve equal status in antebellum American society. Students analyze and evaluate the impact of the women’s rights movement and link past and present by drawing connections to contemporary society. *Grades 8-11 • 67 pages*

### ● **Early Chinese Immigration and the Process of Exclusion**

Students use statistics, legislation, personal letters, and political cartoons to examine the challenges that early Chinese immigrants had to overcome in order to make a significant contribution to the industrial development of late nineteenth-century America. Students read translated works of early Chinese immigrants and explore the historical context of popular sentiment and local and national policy that isolated and excluded early Chinese immigrants from the mainstream. *Grades 8-12 • 69 pages*

### ● **The Great Depression and the Arts**

A variety of documents examine how the Great Depression and the New Deal impacted artistic expression in the 1930s. The lessons in this unit explore the film script of *The Plow that Broke the Plains*, a New Deal documentary on the drought and Dust Bowl; John Steinbeck’s *The Harvest of Gypsies*, portraying the condition of migrant workers; John Ford’s *The Grapes of Wrath*, based on Steinbeck’s popular novel; the New Deal’s “Living Newspaper” plays *Power* and *One Third of a Nation* promoting New Deal programs. Students also read excerpts from witnesses called before the House Un-American Activities Committee and address the degree to which government agencies used the arts to propagandize New Deal programs and are challenged to debate issues relating to government’s role in supporting the arts. *Grades 8-12 • 108 pages*

### ● **World’s Fairs and the Dawning of “The American Century”**

Explores the 1876 Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia and the 1893 World’s Columbian Exposition in Chicago through a variety of primary source materials, including guide books and pamphlet speeches, cartoons, and newspaper accounts. Materials are designed to help students consider the role the World’s Fair movement played in reconstructing American “national” culture after the Civil War, the extent to which the fairs encouraged both American technological progress and an attitude of cultural superiority, and the relationship between one of the fairs’ messages and the growing interest in American overseas expansion. *Grades 9-12 • 74 pages*

### ● **U.S. Indian Policy, 1815-1860: Removal to Reservations**

The cultural interaction between Euro-Americans and the original inhabitants of North America constitute one of the most compelling and defining conundrums in American history. This teaching unit plumbs the depths of nineteenth-century ideology as it manifested itself in prevailing public attitudes, justifications for actions, and the formation of government policy. Opposing viewpoints are presented on the policy of Indian Removal as well as a variety of Native American responses providing substance for discussion and debate. Specific attention is paid

to shifting attitudes among the Cherokees as their circumstances changed. The unit concludes with an examination of the transition in U.S. policy from Indian Removal to concentrating the remaining eastern Indians on reservations. *Grades 8-12 • 87 pages*

### ● **Asian Immigration to the United States**

Since 1965 the rapid growth of immigration from Asia has contributed to the tremendous diversity in the racial and ethnic composition of the United States population. In the 1990 census, Asian Americans represented the fastest growing group of immigrants, but the diversity among Asians is even more complex than indicated by the census data. This unit provides a study of the new Asian immigration in historical perspective, an analysis of the forces that have governed U.S. attitudes toward Asian immigration in the past, and an examination of the reasons why Asians immigrate to the United States. Primary and secondary sources presented in this unit will complement U.S. history textbook content on late twentieth-century U.S. history, including Cold War competition with the USSR, the impact of U.S. military involvement in Indo-China, and the impact of technological innovation on Asian immigration to the United States. *Grades: 8-12 • 83 pages*

### ● **“The Hardest Struggle:” Women and Sweated Industrial Labor**

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# Change Over Time: The Integration of the American Army

Tim Dugan

**S**outhern white oppression and new opportunities resulting from global war and urban and industrial growth in the twentieth century led to a massive movement of African Americans out of the South and into the rest of the United States. This migration changed forever the nation and African Americans. A poignant dimension of this story is the integration of the United States Armed forces during World War II.

The following lesson plan is based on primary sources available online at the Truman Document Library <<http://www.trumanlibrary.org/educatio.htm>>. Although the online library hosts a wide range of scanned documents from the 33rd president's life, the exercise below draws on a selected few from the period, 1938 to 1944. Each relates to the inclusion of black soldiers in the U.S. military and reflects the changing attitudes of and toward African Americans.

### Time Frame

This unit is designed to take either two or five days, depending on whether the instructor chooses to use excerpts or the full documents. The first several days are spent reading and discussing the documents in the class. As students read each document they provide a cursory analysis, which the instructor then follows with questions or comments. The culminating written analysis could take the form of a teacher-prepared question similar to the Document Based Questions of the Advanced Placement Test in United States History. These documents are all considerably longer than normal DBQ documents on the AP test, but as such they give students the ability to see the context of their actual test documents.

### Student Objectives

1. To develop a better understanding of the role of complete documents in historical analysis.
2. To consider a collection of documents which are related, but show a variety of sources and viewpoints.
3. To understand the historical events and their causes that led to the integration of the American armed forces.

4. To realize the social and cultural ramifications a change in government policy has on society.

5. To enhance the skills of historical analysis of documents necessary for advanced historical assessments (e.g., Advanced Placement or International Baccalaureate exams).

### Procedure

The documents chosen cover the period 1938 to 1945 and have also been selected to represent a variety of categories and positions. The descriptions below include some commentary of major points to be addressed in analyzing each document. All documents are used with permission of the Truman Library. Most, however, are in the public domain. Teachers who visit this extraordinary website will find the materials categorized by year.

Each document can be reproduced in three ways. First, if the instructor prints the document directly from the web page, the attribution information and description will be included (see page 33). Second, the documents can be saved as a separate image file and simply printed out without the attribution (see page 34). The third way would be to take small excerpts from each document and collect them in a smaller packet, which would eliminate significant reading time on the part of the students. A drawback to the third method however, is that students often miss the context clues when viewing only small portions of a primary source. This lesson is designed to give students the larger picture by viewing the documents in their entirety. This lesson could be done as students read standard text material summarizing World War II. As they are studying that period in a survey course, these documents could serve as an in-depth study of a related domestic issue.

### Document 1—Vann—Letter to the Editor (1938)

<[http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study\\_collections/desegregation/large/1938/daf117-1.htm](http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study_collections/desegregation/large/1938/daf117-1.htm)>

Questions and Comments:

In this personal letter, what clues do you have as to the motive of the author? Why was the letter directed to the President of

Oberlin College? What is the significance of the historical review in the letter? Why does the author specifically point out that “No American Negro, soldier or civilian, has ever been suspected or convicted of betraying this country?” What is the historical significance of pointing out that ninety-nine percent of Negroes are native born? Why was this significant in 1938? Even though the war is three years in the future for the United States, the references to Nazism, and fascism should also be noted. Instructors should be aware that the *Pittsburgh Courier*, one of the leading African American newspapers with a nationwide circulation, led a letter writing campaign at this time.

Document 2—Hamilton—Negroes Historical Role in National Defense (1940)

<[http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study\\_collections/desegregation/large/1940/daf155-1.htm](http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study_collections/desegregation/large/1940/daf155-1.htm)>

Questions and Comments:

Students should realize quickly that the author speaks at times in the first person of Negroes “our ancestors”. Students should review African American involvement from their past studies, from the Revolution, through the Battle of New Orleans, including the segregated units of World War I. Students may have a difficult time understanding why segregation was paramount to fulfilling national defense positions. Instructors should be aware that the Hampton conference included blacks and whites and took place in November 1940.

Document 3—Patterson—Negro Integration Into the Army (1941)

<[http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study\\_collections/desegregation/large/1941/daf141-1.htm](http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study_collections/desegregation/large/1941/daf141-1.htm)>

Questions and Comments:

Students may want to view the movie *The Tuskegee Airmen* for historical reference to the role played in World War II by black aviators. Why was this an unsuitable solution to the problem of black involvement in the war effort? It should be pointed out that each stage of desegregation led to another: from black aviators to black support troops for the planes, to housing of blacks on the same base, to transporting blacks with white troops. As the documents progress, this will eventually lead to requests for integration of schools for the children of military personnel. This is the first document that gives a military rationale for the use of more black troops, although not necessarily integrated.

Document 4—Sexton—“Negroes Unadvisable” (1942)

<[http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study\\_collections/desegregation/large/1942/daf163-2.htm](http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study_collections/desegregation/large/1942/daf163-2.htm)>

Questions and Comments:

The significance of this document is to highlight the response of the military to integration. It is especially important to note that it was written after Pearl Harbor had been attacked and the United States was at war. Many students will need to have the rank structure of the military, and particularly the navy, explained

to them. Such terms as *messmen*, *petty officer*, *enlisted officer*, and *pay grade* are significant terms that may not have a frame of reference for students. Note the interest, near the end of the document, the author expresses in “happy” assignments for the enlisted personnel. One wonders how often in military life the “happiness” of the individual soldier is actually considered. It is also useful to point out that a large number of recruits in the military came from southern states where the tradition of serving in the military was strong.



Document 2 as it appears as an Adobe Portable Document Format (PDF).

Document 5—Leonard—Treatment of African American Personnel (1943)

<[http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study\\_collections/desegregation/large/1943/daf157-1.htm](http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study_collections/desegregation/large/1943/daf157-1.htm)>

Questions and Comments:

This document can be used to point out that when the military changes rules, there is a clear process to ensure that new rules are followed. The role of the Inspector General Department may need to be explained. IGD inspections are routine in the military. An entire unit would be inspected by a team of personnel from the IGD office. This letter also points out the variety of issues racial integration raises, everything from recreational facilities to promotion rates.

Document 6—Lee—Need for soldiers at the front (1944)

<[http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study\\_collections/desegregation/large/1944/daf159-2.htm](http://www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study_collections/desegregation/large/1944/daf159-2.htm)>

Questions and Comments:

The date of the document is the first point in the discussion that should be mentioned. Students should be aware of the progress of the war and the number of casualties that have been endured. In particular, the Battle of the Bulge, as described in Kersten’s article in this issue, saw significant African American involvement. It is particularly significant to note that the Lieutenant General has stated that Negroes will be placed in Negro units

unless they do not have sufficient places for them. At that point Negroes will be incorporated into other organizations.

Document 7—Sengstacke—Full Integration into the Army (1945)

< h t t p : / / www.trumanlibrary.org/whistlestop/study\_collections/desegregation/large/1945/daf198-1.htm>

Questions and Comments:

Again, from the black perspective, changes have been made “from specific attempts to meet bad conditions and not from advance planning.” Sengstacke anticipates the end of the war and is interested in “proceed[ing] immediately with the preparation of plans looking to the fair and complete utilization and integration of Negroes in the peacetime Army and Navy.” The manner in which integration was not resolved at the end of World War I made African Americans particularly wary of what would happen at the end of World War II.

Students, while reading the documents, should have a basic timeline handy showing major events of the period. Students should read each document and take notes, making particular reference to the date of each document and the attribution: author, role of the author, nature of the document. After doing this, students should try to find one or two significant events in American history, particularly related to the war effort, that might have occurred in the same time as, or just prior to, each document. After completing this timeline and the notes on the documents, students are ready to discuss the articles in class.

Discussion in the class should center on the following general questions, making specific references using the comments included with the document references above:

1. What significant changes are evident in the collection of documents which can be matched with specific dates? Particular attention should be paid to the entry of the United States into the war, the pressures on the industrial sector to match the needs of the war effort, and the loss of life as the war progressed.
2. What differences can you attribute to different groups: private citizens, government boards, actual military officers, politicians? Each document should have an attribution which indicates the actual author. Some mention the background of the



Document 2 as it appears as a digital image.

author and his particular bias, while others may need to be researched. Students should make an attempt to group the documents in a variety of ways.

3. For Each document, identify the particular bias or interest level of the person both sending and receiving the document (e.g., Truman, military officer, white/black author). Is the response or opinion of the person what you think it should be? Select one document that you consider the most important and indicate why.

4. Does the nature of the document (e.g., private letter or public announcement) make a noticeable difference in the tone of the writing? What clues in each document might indicate this?

5. How does change over time manifest itself? Point out the progressive changes that occurred.

Assessment

The American history students would then use the documents and class materials, including their textbook, to develop a theme based on this topic.

Bibliography

1. Buchanan, A. Russell. *Black Americans in World War II*. Santa Barbara: Clio Books, 1977.
2. *Project Whistlestop*. U.S. Department of Education. 27 November 2001. <<http://www.trumanlibrary.org/educatio.htm>>. □

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Poster. *United We Win*, by Liberman/War Manpower Commission (1943).

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# Masaye Nakamura's Personal Story

Antonette C. Noble

**M**asaye was born in Hawaii on 7 August 1923, to a Japanese immigrant father and a Hawaiian-born Japanese American mother. When she was seven months old the young family moved to the Seattle, Washington, area and later, during the 1930s, to Los Angeles, California. Masaye was the oldest of four children. She graduated from Roosevelt High School in Los Angeles in 1941 and began attending UCLA, just months prior to the Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbor. Her family was required to leave California under President Franklin D. Roosevelt's Executive Order 9066. While waiting for more permanent camps to be built inland, the family was first detained in a temporary "Assembly Center" at the Santa Anita Race Tracks. Her family was then sent to the Heart Mountain Relocation Center in Wyoming, but she was fortunate to continue her higher education in Missouri. In 1999, at the age of seventy-six, Masaye told her personal story about this time in her life.

### Preparation

Instructor's use of Masaye's story: This personal story captures many issues involved with the evacuation and detention of Japanese Americans during World War II. These issues include how the government had restricted the rights of Japanese and Japanese Americans in the United States and the anti-Japanese racism of the era.

Her story should be used to discuss these issues. It also can be used to show how the larger national events surrounding Executive Order 9066 affected individuals, such as Masaye, a young woman starting college when the United States entered World War II. After reading Masaye's story, have the students discuss the following questions. Included are some suggested answers for this discussion.

### Procedure

1. List the ways the U.S. government restricted the rights of Masaye's family before and during the war. The answers should include how her father was prevented from becoming a citizen; her mother was stripped of her citizenship when she married a non citizen from Japan; the curfew requiring Masaye to leave school; and of course, the evacuation of Japanese Americans from the West Coast area.

2. Masaye's story is an example of racism against the Japanese in America. Discuss how this racism affected Masaye and her family. The answer should include answers discussed for question number one. There was also the assumption that because the Japanese Americans looked like the enemy, they were the enemy. Examples Masaye experienced were her train ride to college, her walk to town to the Post Office, and the clerk's surprise when Masaye spoke English.

3. Masaye mentioned that she felt she wasn't free, even in Missouri, far away from the internment camps. Give examples of how Masaye was treated like a "prisoner." Discussion can include how she had to leave UCLA due to the curfew; the sentries with guns when she left Santa Anita; the tags they were required to wear; her experience at Park College and not being able to leave campus unaccompanied.

4. In her conclusion, Masaye discusses how important it was to her that her parents had maintained their dignity throughout the evacuation and detention. How do you think this affected Masaye?



Masaye Nakamura as a student at Park College, 1943.

### Masaye's Story

When I graduated from high school I was very excited because I was going to go to college. I had been accepted at UCLA [University of California at Los Angeles]. My father felt that higher education was very important. I did quite well in school. My goal was to go to college. When I enrolled in September of 1941, I decided that I was going to take advantage of everything college had to offer. I soon joined the Freshman Council, becoming active in student government. I really studied hard and tried to get all that I could possibly get out of the classes that I took. In order to help with the finances, I worked as a school girl in Beverly Hills, a short distance away.

I was really enjoying college life until, of course, December 7, 1941, when Pearl Harbor was attacked. It was so sudden and unexpected. It was a complete shock to me when Japan attacked the United States. Of course, I had to leave UCLA because there was a curfew on all Japanese Americans and their parents. We had to be in our homes between certain times in the evenings and early mornings. Also, we could not go beyond certain miles; I think it was five miles beyond our homes. Of course, UCLA was beyond that, from East Los Angeles.

My father told me [after Pearl Harbor], "Since you're the oldest in the family, I expect you to take over when I leave." I said, "What do you mean, when you leave?" He said, "I'm not a citizen. I'm not able to become a citizen. I am an alien, as far as the United States government is concerned. I think they're going to round us up and imprison us." He had a suitcase packed. He was all ready to go. He said, "I don't think they'll take your mother, although she lost her citizenship when she married me." She was also born in Hawaii, although she lost her citizenship when she married my father. He said we would not be imprisoned because we were United States citizens.

I had felt up until that time that we were one hundred percent American citizens. I was aghast at the idea that I would not be considered one hundred percent American and that I would have to be looked on as an enemy and lose all my rights I had as a citizen. When the evacuation orders were posted in our neighborhood, and we were asked to leave, I think I felt a sense of relief that all of us were going together rather than just my parents or just my father.

Before we were evacuated, we were told that we would only be given probably two weeks to get rid of our belongings and to settle matters and so my mother decided that she would store some of the valuable things she wanted to keep, and sell the rest. One day a used salesman came to the door and he looked around and said, "I'll give you twenty-five dollars for the whole lot." My mother was enraged because we had a piano, a beautiful dining set, a living room set, and the bedrooms had beds and dressers. She thought twenty-five dollars for all this furniture was insulting. She uttered some words I had never heard her say and she had told us that we should never use, and she chased him out of the house and slammed the door. She gave the furniture away to some neighbors who had been very kind to us during this ordeal. She said she rather give the furniture away than to let some man take advantage of us.

When the order came we assembled at the church that we used to attend every Sunday, the Union Church in Los Angeles. We were given tags and boarded buses. We didn't know where we were going to go. The bus driver asked us to pull the shades down so that the people on the streets couldn't see us and also that we couldn't see them. The ride was fairly short. I was surprised when we got to our destination and I opened the shades, and the first thing I saw was the statue of a horse. We were at the Santa Anita Race Tracks. When we got off the bus we saw this whole pile of straw in front of some barracks. They brought some



Horse stalls at the Tanforan racetrack in San Bruno, California, were used as barracks to house Japanese American internees in 1942. (National Archives photo courtesy of the National Japanese American Historical Society <<http://www.nikkeiheritage.org/>>.)

bags along and said, "Fill these bags with straw and these will be your mattresses for your stay here." I started to sneeze and couldn't stop. I couldn't take the straw. I guess I was allergic to the straw. So, I didn't use the straw mattress and neither did the rest of the family because of my allergy.

As soon as we got settled my father asked, "Do you still want to go to college?" I said, "Of course I do." I told him it had been my dream, and now the dream was shattered and gone. He said, "I heard there are some church groups that are working to let some of the students out of the camps to go to colleges in the Midwest and in areas where people would feel that they would not be endangered by you." I said, "Endangered? What do you mean?" "They think you might be the enemy, because you look like the enemy."

He had been quite active in the Presbyterian Church, so he contacted a friend who contacted the Quaker organization and they had formed a committee to try to get some of the students out

of the camps so they could continue their education. I was able to get an application, apply, and they were able to find a place for me at Park College in Parkville, Missouri, where the president of the college had been in Los Angeles during the evacuation. He had been horrified at the fact that American citizens were taken out of their homes and herded into these camps. He decided that when he went back to Missouri he would encourage the staff and the administrators to accept Japanese American students who were in the camps into Park College. He was successful on the campus, but the townspeople of Parkville were up in arms with the fact they were going to bring Japanese American students to the college. They said that if any of the students were seen anywhere around, they would lynch them, or kill them, because they were enemies and how dare Dr. Young bring these enemy aliens to the school as students. It was known as the "Parkville War"; the war between the college and Parkville. Dr. Young stood firm and he did accept, I think there were seven students, and I was one of them, one of the lucky ones. I remember the day I left [the Santa Anita] camp, an army truck came into the camp to get me. There were three soldiers: two in the front and one in the back, and they all had rifles. It was an open truck and we left the camp and headed for Union Station in Los Angeles. They left me with one of the train men and he said, "Come with me and get on this car here." So I climbed aboard this car, and all the seats were occupied. All the people were staring at me as I walked in and they were not pleasant stares. I could feel this hate, this feeling of real anger for the fact that I was boarding that car. I said there wasn't any seat here. He said to sit in the front, there's a little space there, you can put your suitcase down and sit there.

When the conductor came through to pick up the tickets from us, I was the first one he saw. He approached and I put my ticket up. He snatched it and with a look of real hate, he spit on me. I was so taken aback with his action I could feel the spit rolling down my cheek. I couldn't even reach up and wipe it off. I felt so humiliated, and ashamed, and dirty. When he spit on me I could hear the gasps in the car, but no one spoke up, no one said anything as he went through the car. Everybody was looking at me and I just sat there frozen. I sat like that throughout the trip. I don't know how long it was—throughout the night and half the day. I didn't eat, I didn't move, I just sat there.

[When I finally arrived in Kansas City], Dr. Young and a few students were there waiting for me. He welcomed me and said, "The students at Park are excited about greeting you and accepting you as part of the student body. But, I want to warn you of one thing." Then he told me about the townspeople and how they felt and how I shouldn't go down to the town by myself.

When we got to the campus I met my roommate and I saw my dorm room for the first time. It had a nice soft bed and was nicely furnished. It was so different from camp! The teachers were all very fine. The classes I took were exciting. I really felt very grateful to the Quakers for allowing me to leave the camp and go to Park College.



Winter at Heart Mountain Relocation Center. (Wyoming State Archives, Department of State Parks and Cultural Resources)

After a while, however, I felt tired, or kind of frustrated about asking people to accompany me every time I went downtown. I didn't want to keep asking people to do things for me when I was perfectly able to do it myself. I still felt like I wasn't free, that it was almost like camp, to be enclosed in an area and not be able to leave without someone going with me. One afternoon I needed to get some stamps. I decided I was going to go down to the town by myself. As I was walking down I saw two young men sitting on this small bridge that I had to cross in order to get to the Post Office. As I got closer, I realized they were looking at me not pleasantly, but rather with almost hate in their eyes, and I started to get a little afraid. My knees started to feel weak, my heart started pounding, and I thought I should turn around and go back. But then I said, No, Why should I turn around? I don't want to look like they frightened me. So, I kept walking and did manage to walk by. Then I heard their foot steps behind me then other foot steps so I knew there were other people with them. Somehow I managed to get to the Post Office and walked in and asked the clerk for some stamps. The woman looked at me with a funny look on her face and said, "You speak English?" "Of course I speak English, that's the only language I know. I'm an American citizen, just like you," I responded. She gave me the stamps, gave me my change, and didn't say another word. I turned around to go, and the people who had followed me parted so I could get through. I walked out and back to campus.

I was back in my dorm room about ten minutes when my house mother came and said, "Dr. Young would like to see you in his office immediately." I walked into his office and he was pretty angry. He said, "You promised me you would always be accompanied when you went downtown, and this afternoon you went there by yourself. Do you know if something had happened to you how I would have felt? And how the rest of this campus would have felt? It's my responsibility, our responsibility to keep you safe here, and you broke one of the rules that you said you would keep." Of

course, he was right. He then grounded me for a month, not allowing me to participate in any of the activities they had at school for a month.

The second Christmas at Park College I was able to scrape enough money to buy a Greyhound bus ticket from Kansas City to Heart Mountain, Wyoming. When I got off the bus the first person I saw [at Heart Mountain] was my father. It was in the midst of a snow storm, a blizzard. It was very cold, wet, and miserable. We walked to the barracks and the unit where my family was. I saw how bleak it was, how desolate. Although there were decorations up for Christmas, the internees had tried to decorate their units for Christmas and to celebrate Christmas even in camp, I realized



Masaye Nakamura's college graduation photo, June 1945.

how different it was from the situation I was in at Park College. I saw the barbed wire, the sentry towers, and I burst into tears. Half of it was because I was happy to see them and half because I felt guilty that they had to live under such terrible conditions when I was really living a very good life outside the camp. Although I enjoyed my stay with them, I stayed a week, my heart was breaking during that time. I could see that they had not lost their sense of dignity, and also their spirit. The thing that really struck me was the fact that in spite of these terrible conditions, there were no complaints. They didn't have any bitterness in them. I realized how strong they were and I should learn from them that to be strong and to endure and to maintain dignity. They stayed for almost three years and then went back to Los Angeles to settle near where they had been before the evacuation. □

*Antonette Noble is the historian for the Heart Mountain, Wyoming, Foundation Board and an adjunct faculty member at Western Wyoming College. She earned her undergraduate degree in history at Bowdoin College in Brunswick, Maine, and her Master's degree in history from the University of Utah.*

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# Propaganda Posters

Darlene C. Mahaney

The purpose of this lesson is to give students a better understanding of the American homefront and war effort through the use of government propaganda posters. After a presentation/slide show from the teacher, students will search for examples of World War II propaganda posters on the World Wide Web (and/or in hardcover texts, magazine articles, etc.), and complete two different assessments of their understanding of the main concepts explained by the teacher.

### Background Information

Propaganda, the tool used to shape opinion and influence behavior in pursuit of governmental goals, has not only been employed by the Hitlers and Stalins of the world. Democratic nations such as the United States and Great Britain used propaganda extensively when they felt the need to get the backing of the public for a significant purpose. As Archibald MacLeish, Director of the Office of Facts and Figures during World War II, once observed, "The principal battleground of this war is not the South Pacific. It is not the Middle East. It is not England, nor Norway, nor the steppes of Russia. It is American opinion" (1). The Office of War Information was the U.S. government agency that developed out of the Office of Facts and Figures during World War II, and it had the responsibility of overseeing this vast propaganda campaign, although there were a number of other very active agencies and organizations involved (2).

Propaganda became a major industry, using famous actors, directors, artists, and writers to get points across to the people quickly and effectively. Government agencies commissioned everything from feature-length movies shown in theaters across the country to short stories that appeared in popular magazines, but the medium that most clearly and vividly illustrates this massive effort to educate and convince the public is the propaganda poster.

Posters did many things. They announced the call-to-arms for able-bodied young men, with such messages as, "Join the Army-Navy-Marines-Coast Guard." They recruited young women into

the auxiliary forces, the Women's Auxiliary Army Corps (WAACs), the Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service (WAVES), and the Women Airforce Service Pilots (WASPs) and told women of their duty to join the nation's workforce, whether in heavy industry or civil service. They encouraged factory workers to increase industrial production. They promoted conservation of gasoline, meat, rubber, canned goods, office supplies, waste fats, and more. They warned both soldiers and civilians against accidentally divulging war information, with the message, "Loose lips might sink ships." And, above all, posters asked people to "Buy War Bonds."

To be effective, these posters had to catch and hold the viewer's eye. Most American posters relied on powerful tugs at emotions, both positive and negative.

There were four basic types of posters:

The first carried a patriotic message. It could show men and women as proud and strong. The flexed forearm is a common image, along with the colors of red, white and blue. These depictions show a determined and optimistic America fighting a just and right cause.

The second carried a sentimental message. It might show a dog loyally waiting for the master who will never return home from combat, a young woman reading the V-mail from her loved one overseas, or a family rushing to embrace a returning G.I.

The third type of poster relied on humor to get the point across. An image might contain a caricature of a German or Japanese civilian, as a way of making the enemy appear silly.

The fourth kind of poster was more negative and blunt. It could show images of soldiers fighting and dying, warnings of the dire consequences of defeat, visions of the horrors of Fascist takeover, or demeaning stereotypes of the Axis leaders.

In all posters symbolism is crucial. When a message needs to be conveyed immediately, symbols provide a great deal of information and often spark a quick emotional response. Swastikas, the rising sun on the Japanese flag, the stars and stripes, V for victory,

and Uncle Sam all held specific meanings for most Americans in the 1940s (3).

A lesson plan based on propaganda posters can be a very effective way to introduce various aspects of America's involvement in World War II. As O.W. Riegel, a propaganda analyst for the Office of War Information once observed, "The function of the war poster is to make coherent and acceptable a basically incoherent and irrational ordeal of killing, suffering and destruction that violates every accepted principle of morality and decent living" (5).

#### Endnotes

1. Bredhoff, Stacey. *Powers of Persuasion: Poster Art from World War II* (published for the National Archives and Records Administration by the National Archives Trust Fund Board, 1994), introduction.
2. *Ibid.*, 6.
3. *Ibid.*, 2.
4. *Ibid.*, 20
5. *Ibid.*, back cover

#### Lesson Plan

##### Objectives

1. To understand the methods employed that make propaganda posters effective tools.
2. To identify the major types of American propaganda during World War II.
3. To identify the specific purposes of World War II propaganda.
4. To demonstrate understanding of these concepts by creating an original poster.

##### Part One

The teacher should give a brief presentation outlining the information presented above, using the four posters that illustrate the Background Information section to convey the basic ideas. Ask students to describe each of these four posters, and to try to articulate what the poster is asking people to do. How successfully do these posters work? The two quotations in this article (by Archibald MacLeish in the first paragraph and by O.W. Riegel in the last paragraph) also act as good prompts for discussion.

##### Part Two

Working individually or in pairs, students will search the internet for propaganda poster sites. A general search using the phrase "World War Two propaganda posters" will uncover a wealth of examples on the web. After they have found good examples, students should complete the following worksheet questions:

1. Find an example of a **Rationing/Conservation** poster.
  - a. Print out the poster and its web location.
  - b. In an analysis, describe the specific purpose of poster:
    - i. What emotions does this poster appeal to?
    - ii. Describe any symbolism used.

iii. Discuss your assessment of the effectiveness of this poster. What aspects appealed to you? Why?

(Students will answer these same questions for all of the following categories:)

2. **Recruitment/Armed Services**
3. **War Production or War Jobs**
4. **Buy War Bonds**

##### Part Three

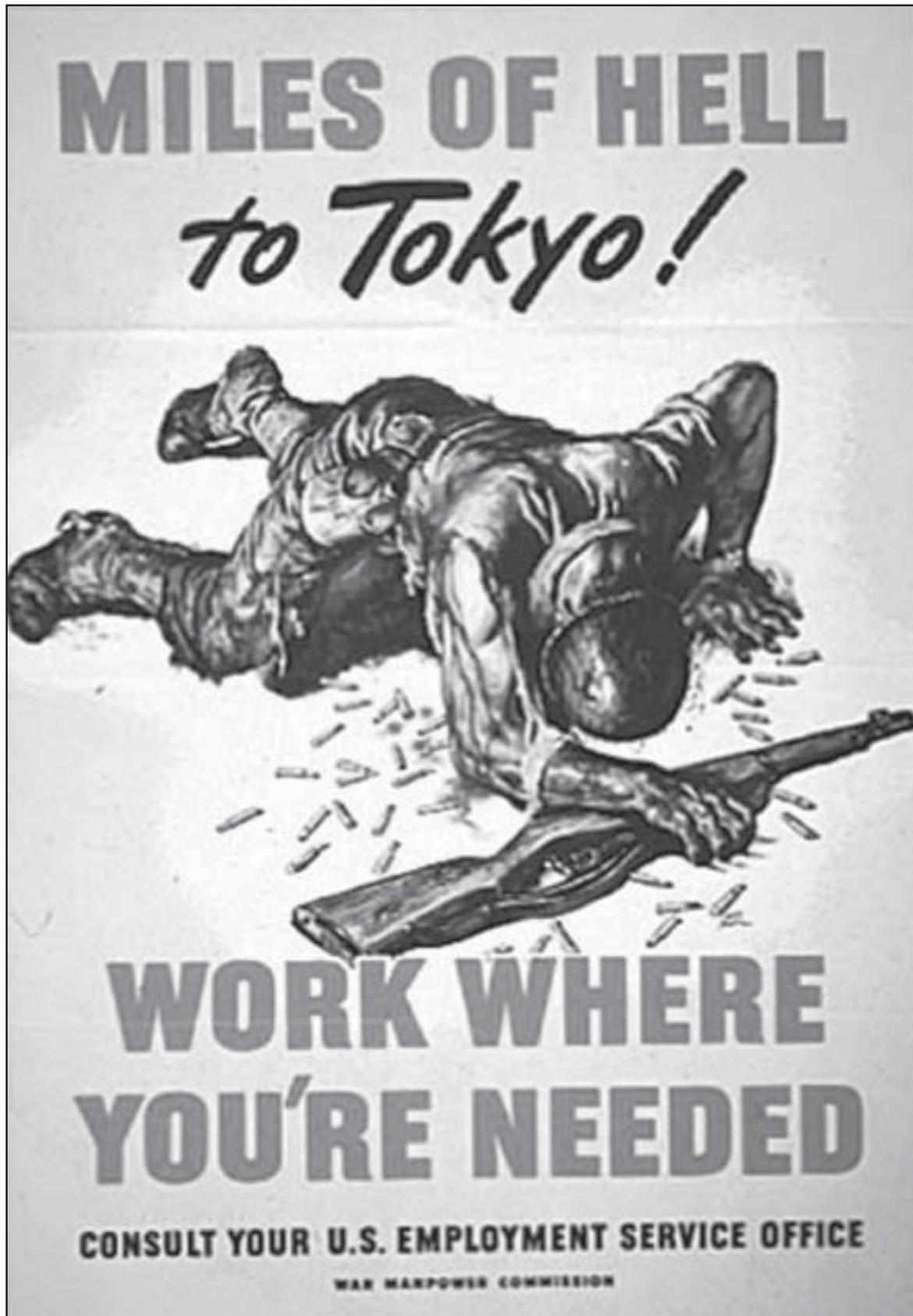
(The following project was developed together with former colleague Scott Kane, now a faculty member of Ohio SchoolNet.)

Students will create an original poster based on the concepts learned in this lesson. Attached to the poster should be a thorough description of the purpose of the poster and of the methods used by the student/artist. Posters will be scored on a scale of zero to five (where "0" is the lowest score; "5" is highest) on the ten criteria below:

	Score
1. Poster demonstrates a clear and distinct intent.	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Poster clearly appeals to the emotions.	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Text of the poster is student's original work.	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Artwork of poster is student's original work.	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Poster is historically accurate.	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Poster is creative and original.	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Artwork is neat, colorful, eye-catching.	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Analysis discusses purpose of poster.	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Analysis discusses emotional appeal of poster.	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Analysis discusses poster's symbolism, tactics, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>
Total Score:	<input type="checkbox"/>

As a follow-up activity, teacher may display posters in room and have class vote on the posters they find most appealing and effective. Discuss student impressions. □

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Poster. "Miles of Hell to Tokyo!" by Amos Sewell, 1945. Printed by the Government Printing Office for the War Manpower Commission. National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) Civil Reference Branch (208-PMP-45)

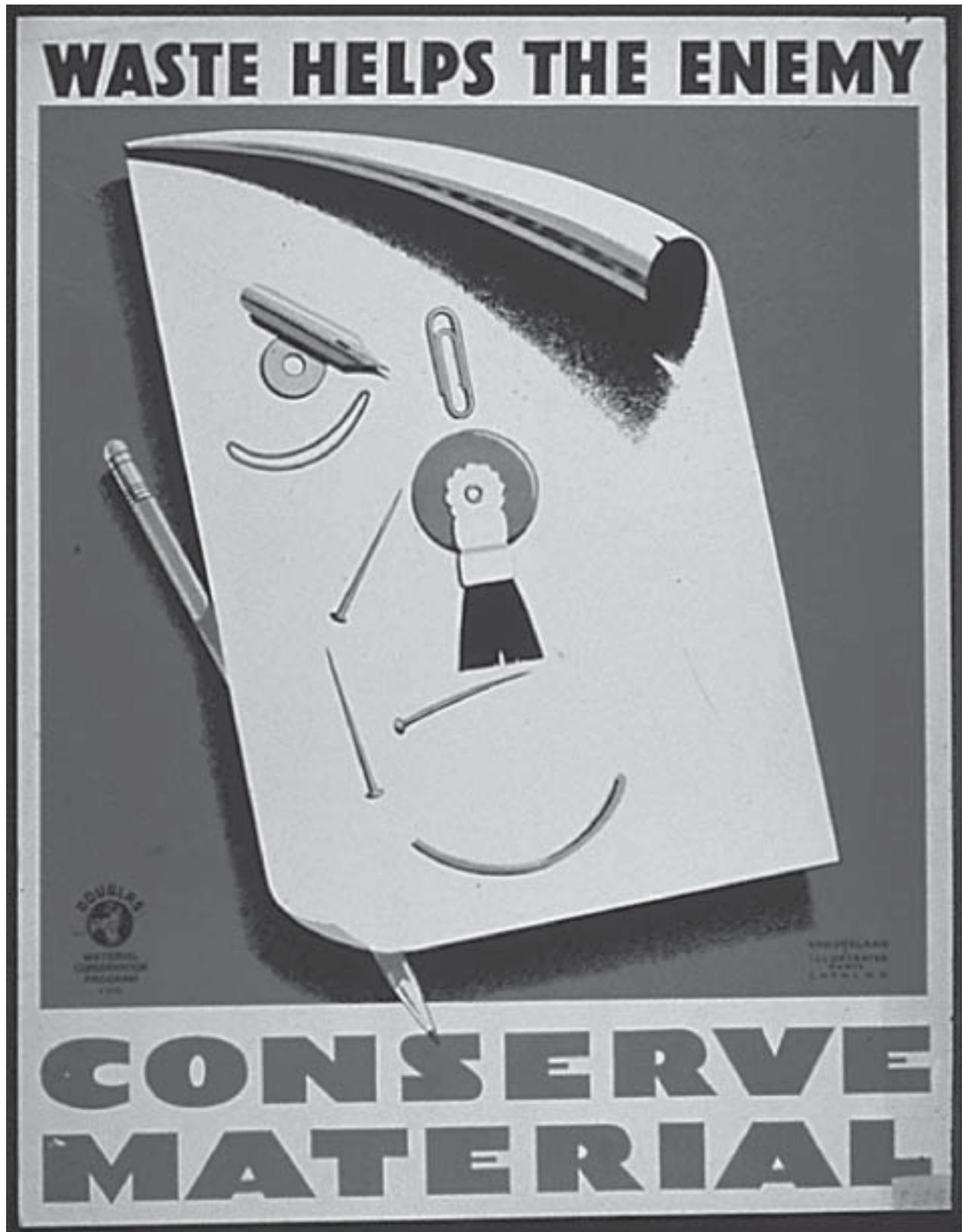
**VICTORY WAITS  
ON YOUR FINGERS—**



**KEEP 'EM FLYING, MISS U.S.A.**

UNCLE SAM NEEDS STENOGRAPHERS! • GET CIVIL SERVICE INFORMATION AT YOUR LOCAL POST OFFICE  
U.S. CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION, WASHINGTON, D.C.

Poster. "Victory Waits on YOUR Fingers." Office of Government Reports. United States Information Service. Division of Public Inquiry. Bureau of Special Services, OWI. National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) #NWDNS-44-PA-2272.



Poster. "Waste Helps the Enemy." War Production Board. National Archives and Records Administration (NARA)  
#NWDNS-179-WP-103



Poster. "More Production." Office of Government Reports. United States Information Service. Division of Public Inquiry. Bureau of Special Services, OWI. National Archives and Records Administration(NARA) #NWDNS-44-PA-117

## Wartime Production

Tracey Warm

*To American production, without which this war would have been lost.*

—JOSEF STALIN

This lesson will help students discover how U.S. production, both local and national, helped support the war effort and how American business contributed to victory. Students will see how war production became a national goal and will understand how the government helped promote business activity. Students will examine advertisements and propaganda produced by companies during this period to see how businesses supported the war effort. They will conduct research in local business archives to discover how local businesses responded to the demands of war production.

### Objectives

1. To identify some of the specific production activities undertaken by businesses on behalf of U.S. war efforts.
2. To discuss how American business and industry adapted to changes caused by the war.
3. To discover how local businesses responded to the nationwide call to mobilize.
4. To discuss the effect of national policies and priorities by the government on industry and business during World War II.

### Overview

United States involvement in World War II touched every aspect of life in this country, including business. Prior to formal entry into the war, the United States had begun to gear up for the possibility that it might have to play an active role and declare war. In order to help the Allied forces, President Franklin D. Roosevelt loaned American destroyers to the suffering British fleet and began the Lend-Lease program to provide necessary supplies.

After the attack on Pearl Harbor in December 1941, the United States had no choice but to enter the war. The preparations that had been made helped citizens as well as businesses take on the challenge of supporting a war. Companies began to shift from their traditional production to make goods that would help support the war effort. Firms tackled new production jobs and postponed the production of civilian goods in order to rally to the bigger needs of the nation. Companies cooperated by curtailing their normal production and devoting their time and resources to producing

many essential war products. Government agencies, such as the Army Ordnance Department, studied companies that had the skills, production capabilities, and manufacturing facilities that could help in the production of ordnance and munitions. The government asked auto makers to produce tanks and fighter planes instead of cars. Companies that had made consumer goods switched to producing guns, and their packaging and packing line techniques and skills were used to pack shells and bombs. The United States had the technology as well as the production and manufacturing capabilities to handle the change in production, making American war production output a crucial variable during the war.

The conversion from civilian to military products and the loss of a large portion of the labor force to the armed forces caused several changes within the business world. Most important was the increased involvement of the government. The government helped support increased production by offering monetary help as well as rewards for companies meeting production projections. To help meet the expenses of World War II, the U.S. government conducted war bond drives. Bonds were issued in denominations of twenty-five dollars to one thousand dollars and matured ten years from the date of issue. Citizens could purchase these bonds at a lower cost during the war and cash them in after the war was over to make a profit. These investments gave the government the money it needed to pay for production. For those companies meeting war production quotas the government awarded excellence, or "E", awards. Companies would display these awards in their advertisements to let consumers know that they too were doing their part for the war effort.

By 1944, American war production was twice that of the enemy and it helped the Allied forces turn the tide of the war. From 1939 to 1943 the country's gross war production rose from one billion dollars to almost fifty-five billion dollars and, production for the armed forces accounted for fifty-nine percent of all manufacturing.

There were numerous benefits for postwar consumers resulting from the innovations and inventions that were introduced in response to the scarcities and rationing during the war. Since companies had to curtail their production of essential consumer products, many of these goods were in short supply. Research done to find new uses for existing resources, and to find alternative options for scarce goods, brought about the faster development of

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many products. Television, air conditioning, wash-and-wear fabrics, cars, appliances, airplanes, and many other products benefited from this research. On an international level, the increased production capacity of American companies played a major part in rebuilding war-torn countries around the world.

### Activities

1. How did production change in World War II? Introduce students to the concepts by discussing the overview material. Have students create an outline titled, "United States Production and World War II." Direct them to include the following headings for their organization of the material: I. Prewar Preparations; II. Response of Industry; III. Changes in Production and Industry; IV. Government Involvement; V. Effects on Future Industry. Have students define the following vocabulary words within their notes:

Allotment: A share, part, or portion granted or distributed.

Ordnance: Military supplies including weapons, ammunition, combat vehicles, tools and equipment.

War Bonds: Documents issued by the government during wartime that receive their value, plus interest, after a set period of time.

Army-Navy "E" Award: An award of excellence from the U.S. government to firms meeting quality weapons production quotas.

2. How did the production of consumer goods transform into the production of military goods? Put students into small groups of four and ask them to consider Document 1, "American Fighting Man." Direct students to create a list of the ways Procter & Gamble's goods and services aided the war effort. Discuss as a class how this company's document helped it appear patriotic and dedicated to the war effort. After this class discussion, ask the small groups to consider how these goods and services might have had different uses before the war due to consumer demand and production possibilities. Have the small groups create their own advertisement that reflects the company's prewar mentality, or focus, on consumer goods. Discuss the following questions: Why did companies advertise to consumers how their goods and services were being used in the war effort? Why was the United States so well equipped to handle the change from consumer goods to military production? How did the change in production from consumer goods to military production affect civilians on the homefront?

3. How did increased production and industry become a mission of patriotism for United States citizens? Ask students to read the excerpt from Franklin D. Roosevelt's speech in Document 2. Discuss how the speech makes the students feel and ask them to reflect on how they might have felt as a worker or soldier in 1942 hearing that speech. Direct students to write a letter, from the point of view of a United States citizen, to a friend or family member overseas serving in the armed forces during World War II. In the letter, ask students to comment on the issues they read about in President Roosevelt's speech, such as some of the na-

tional changes that were occurring at home from an economic and production standpoint. Have students point out some of the things they would be doing individually to help in the war effort. Ask students to read some of their letters aloud to the class. Discuss the following questions: How did the government stimulate support from its citizens for the movement of consumer goods to military production? What part did nationalism and patriotism play in the government's call for increased production to meet the demands for war products?

4. How did the government support production efforts? Give each student a copy of Document 3, the front page of *The Banner*. Direct them to read each story and list ways the government and businesses were responding to increasing demands for war products. Discuss the importance of the Army-Navy "E" awards to businesses and also, the inclusion of war bond drives for industry employees to help the government pay for the war. Have students view the actual advertisements that included these "E" awards and war bond incentives at an online advertisement archive called Ad Access at <<http://scriptorium.lib.duke.edu/adaccess/>>. After students have read the stories from *The Banner* have them work backwards to brainstorm a set of general questions that a reporter might have asked in order to acquire the information needed to write these stories. Discuss the following questions: How did the government support businesses' efforts to increase production? Why did the government provide incentives for resources to be used in different ways? How did "E" awards and war bonds help stimulate production? Why did businesses try to encourage their workers to participate in the war bond drive?

5. How did businesses respond to increased demands and rewards for reaching production quotas? Create a source list of large local businesses that were operating during World War II. Put students in cooperative partner groups and have them choose one of the businesses on the list. Almost all large businesses have an archive that holds papers, advertisements, and production numbers and it is usually staffed by at least one full-time archivist. Direct the partner groups to contact the archives of these businesses and ask for information that would answer their already formulated general questions. Have students request any pictures or advertisements that the archives might have to aid them in obtaining information about their chosen business' activities during World War II. Besides a personal contact, many of the larger businesses will have some of their archival information online. After getting this primary information, have the students create their own front page of a World War II newspaper focusing on business accomplishments. Have them include a story about how their business met the needs of wartime industry and how the government was involved, if it was, in extending congratulations on their production efforts. Have students include a picture if available or create their own illustration that would be appropriate. Based on the advertisements they have viewed throughout this lesson, direct partner groups to also include an advertisement

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CITY \_\_\_\_\_ STATE \_\_\_\_\_ ZIP \_\_\_\_\_

Check enclosed (must be drawn in U.S. funds, on U.S. bank)

VISA 

MasterCard 

Card No. \_\_\_\_\_ Exp. Date \_\_\_\_\_

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Check appropriate income/dues category (members receive the *Journal of American History*, *OAH Newsletter*, and the Annual Meeting Program):

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- \$95, income **\$50,000-59,999**
- \$105, income **\$60,000-69,999**
- \$115, income **\$70,000-79,999**
- \$130, income **\$80,000 and over**
- \$150, **Contributing Member**
- \$55, **Associate**
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- \$1,200, **Life Membership** (may be paid in two annual installments)
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\$25, **Student** (You may choose to receive the *Journal* or the *Magazine*. You will also receive the *OAH Newsletter* and the Annual Meeting Program) **CHECK ONE:**  
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Organization of American Historians

that focuses on war bond participation. Discuss the following questions: Why does the consumption of consumer goods and services decrease during time of war? How do government and business-supported media convince citizens to accept and support these changes? How might changes in the use of resources affect production and industry in the future?

### Additional Online Resources

**World War II Electronic Archives:** <<http://gwis.circ.gwu.edu/~ww2>>. An electronic archive that includes several multimedia pieces.

**Alabama Department of Archives and History Introduction to the World War II Unit:** <<http://www.archives.state.al.us/teacher/ww2>>. Contains a variety of lessons and several primary documents and pictures.

**Expansion Games-Wargames and Alternate History Simulations:** <<http://www.expansiongames.com/>>. An Internet-based multiplayer simulation game about military, political, and economic affairs before, during, and after WWII.

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Please return to: OAH, 112 N. Bryan Ave., Bloomington, IN 47408-4199; (812) 855-7311; <[oah@oah.org](mailto:oah@oah.org)>

MHSP02

Document 1

WE'RE PROUD OF EVERY  
**AMERICAN FIGHTING MAN**  
WE'VE DONE OUR PART WITH HIS FOOD AND EQUIPMENT

Cotton and wool prepared and processed into cloth by special textile soaps.

Helmet processed by soap before painting.

Cooking fats used to prepare his bread, his favorite desserts, and in Emergency Rations. Fats are high-energy foods.

Cotton webbing cartridge belt which was given a long series of soap baths in its manufacture.

Glycerine and cellulose for the smokeless powder in the cartridges his rifle fires.

Soap used as a lubricant in machining the rifle barrel.

Soaps for the Army laundries which keep his uniform and equipment sanitary, spotless and ready for inspection.

Soap for his personal cleanliness and health and to clean and maintain his weapons in top condition.

Leather for shoes, belts and rifle straps made tough and pliable by penetrating soaps.

OVER 1500 PROCTER & GAMBLE  
MEN AND WOMEN ARE NOW IN UNIFORM

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## Document 2

### Excerpts from a speech, “A Call for Sacrifice” by Franklin D. Roosevelt 28 April 1942

Source: Internet Modern History Sourcebook <<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/1942roosevelt-sacrifice.html>>.

My Fellow Americans, it is nearly five months since we were attacked at Pearl Harbor. For the two years prior to that attack this country had been gearing itself up to a high level of production of munitions. And yet our war efforts had done little to dislocate the normal lives of most of us. Since then we have dispatched strong forces of our Army and Navy, several hundred thousands of them, to bases and battlefronts thousands of miles from home. We have stepped up our war production on a scale that is testing our industrial power, our engineering genius, and our economic structure to the utmost. We have had no illusions about the fact that this is a tough job—and a long one . . .

Not all of us can have the privilege of working in a munitions factory or a shipyard, or on the farms or in oil fields or mines, producing the weapons or the raw materials that are needed by our armed forces . . .

To build the factories, to buy the materials, to pay the labor, to provide the transportation, to equip and feed and house the soldiers and sailors and marines, and to do all the thousands of things necessary in a war—all costs a lot of money, more money than has ever been spent by any nation at anytime in the long history of the world. We are now spending, solely for war purposes, the sum of about \$100 million every day of the week. But, before this war is over, that almost unbelievable rate of expenditure will be doubled. All of this money has to be spent—and spent quickly—if we are to produce within the time now available the enormous quantities of weapons of war which we need. But the spending of these tremendous sums presents grave danger of disaster to our national economy. When your government continues to spend these unprecedented sums for munitions month by month and year by year, that money goes into the pocketbooks and bank accounts of the people of the United States. At the same time, raw materials and many manufactured goods are necessarily taken away from civilian use, and machinery and factories are being converted to war production . . .

All of us are used to spending money for things that we want, things, however, which are not absolutely essential. We will all have to forgo that kind of spending. Because we must put every dime and every dollar we can possibly spare out of our earnings into war bonds and stamps. Because the demands of the war effort require the rationing of goods of which there is not enough to go around. Because the stopping of purchases of nonessentials will release thousands of worker who are needed in the war effort . . .

I know the American farmer, the American workman, and the American businessman. I know that they will gladly embrace this economy and equality of sacrifice—satisfied that it is necessary for the most vital and compelling motive in all their lives—winning through to victory . . .

As we here at home contemplate our own duties, our own responsibilities, let us think and think hard of the example which is being set for us by our fighting men. Our soldiers and sailors are members of well-disciplined units. But they're still and forever individuals, free individuals. They are farmers and workers, businessmen, professional men, artists, clerks. They are the United States of America. That is why they fight. We too are the United States of America. That is why we must work and sacrifice. It is for them, It is for us. It is for victory.



Vol. 1

WOLF CREEK, TENN., November 12, 1942

No. 12

# Plant Is Awarded Army-Navy "E" Flag



—Photo by U. S. Army Photo Corps

**THE E FLAG** — Part of the award symbolizing excellence in quality production in light of controlling factors, this flag will be awarded employees at numerous institutions set for December 3.

## Presentation Ceremony Set For December 3rd; Program Being Planned

**All Employees Will Receive Coveted Lapel Button As Citation For Service On Home Front**

The men and women of Wolf Creek have been awarded the coveted Army-Navy E Award for excellence in quality production in the light of controlling factors, it has been officially announced.

Plans are going forward for the presentation ceremonies which are tentatively set for Dec. 3 at 3:30 P.M. All employees will attend the ceremonies. Although not yet complete, tentative plans call for presentation of the award to the Defense Corporation by an Army officer, representing Robert F. Patterson, Under-secretary of War.

The award to Wolf Creek employees was made October 21, together with awards for employees of 30 other war plants. The award consists of the E flag to be flown from the Plant flagpole, and a lapel pin to be worn by every worker in recognition of the high contribution made to the war effort.

The Army-Navy E is the highest award given for production, instituted by the Navy in 1936. It was first awarded in the West for gunnery, but was later extended to include outstanding work in engineering and communications.

With the award made of men in Germany, the Navy E was awarded to recognize those plants and organizations which showed excellent production of fighting equipment for the Navy.

Thus, with typical Jap treachery, came Pearl Harbor. And with it, the demand for production such as the world has never known plus the awareness that our fighting forces and rear and women's production are partners in this great struggle to save humanity as we know it.

On the part of Americans there came a grim and enduring resolve to work and fight together until we have won the war and the peace. From that high resolve the Army-Navy Production award was born—and at Wolf Creek it will stand as our fighting forces' recognition of exceptional performance on the production front. It symbolizes the substantial spirit which can be satisfied only by achieving today what yesterday seemed impossible.

**Keep 'Em Shooting!**

## Army-Navy "E" Award Sets High Standard For Us To Follow

The Army-Navy E Award for excellence in production of war materials has been awarded Wolf Creek, but we must continually look ahead.

In receiving this coveted symbol bearing our success on the home front with the success of our men in fighting fields from Guadalcanal to the Atlantic coast, we must redouble ourselves in the great task which still faces our enemy if not whipped, he is still fighting.

We have often said our victory must be complete. There is not room for Hitler in this world—he must be crushed. To do that our own must have materials in ever-increasing quantities. Few doubt their ability after the 1917-1918 war.

We have a great chance now to strike a killing blow—but men by themselves cannot do it. In addition, they had the materials and they did the job. Let's see again what "too little" and "too late" will not become martyrs of our future campaigns.

We know at Wolf Creek our greatest foe—and we live up to the standard set when the E Award was conferred upon us. Excellence here means enough and so time wherever they are fighting. Our Armies are whip-

pling the Japanese on the Pacific's best the Axis in production. Along that road the victory—complete, decisive, total victory. Let's get moving!

## Safety Study Is Started

**Industrial Safety Course Is Being Studied By Employees**

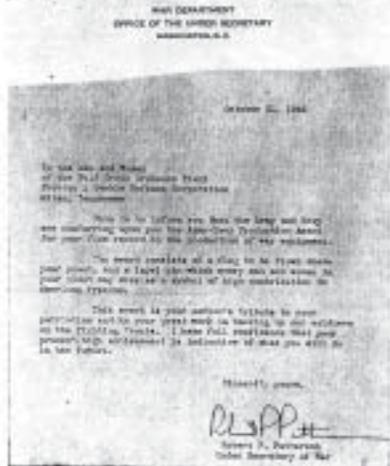
Several Plant and Ordnance Department employees last week began a 12-week course in Industrial Safety Engineering, sponsored by the Extension Service of the University of Tennessee. Instructor for the course is W. C. Shaw, Industrial safety engineer.

Enrolled in the two classes were: L. J. Alexander, C. E. Arnold, M. F. Bartholomew, L. E. Cow, H. W. Fuller, J. L. Gordon, C. H. Helms, I. B. Reyer, C. W. Rogstad, S. F. LaGrone, Fred Long, Oscar Marbury, H. F. McDougall, H. C. Panchard, Jr., Robert

(Continued on page 1)

### RECORD KEPT

Message of a new fire was extended from 12,000 to 13,000 miles by reducing average speed from 43 miles an hour to 28 miles an hour.



**THE OFFICIAL ANNOUNCEMENT**—This is the official announcement that the award has been conferred upon Wolf Creek employees for excellence in production of war materials.

## Reds Lay Claim To League Crown

Forward-winner of the 1942 Wolf Creek Baseball League was the Reds, who were either out top or pushing for the spot all season. Sparking them in the championship was the star play of Bob McAdoo, Moby Zagarski, Jimmy

Huggins, Percy Panchard, and Roy Schlemmer. Four members of the team hit 300 or better for the season. They were: McAdoo, Schlemmer, George Helms, and Huggins. Herb Humphreid, pitcher and manager, led the team victories and was charged with three defeats.

### HUNTERS ENLISTED

Club members are asked by the State Fish and Game Department to turn in all deer fat from the game they shoot in order to avoid the deer's waste fat collection by about 100,000 pounds.

## Ordnance Department Reorganized

**Duplication of Work Discontinued by Move**

Far-reaching reorganization of the Ordnance Department, announced last week, was practically complete this week with the Procter and Gamble Defense Corporation taking over many of the Department's functions.

Designed as a measure to conserve critically-needed manpower, various sections of the Ordnance Department whose work was being duplicated by the Defense Corporation were abolished and all work centralized under the Defense Corporation.

Basic for the change was an order from the Chief of Ordnance after a study of contractor operated plants revealed that various functions of the Ordnance Department could be transferred to the operating contractor with a saving in manpower. The re-organization at Wolf Creek is similar to that being made in contractor-operated plants throughout the country.

Many former Ordnance employees have become members of the Defense Corporation here and every effort is being made to facilitate the transfer of functions from the standpoint of personnel. Major K. W. Kennedy, Commanding Officer, has asked that personnel affected by the change make every effort to keep down

# The World War II Homefront: An ERIC/ChESS Sample

Laura Pinhey

**E**RIC (Educational Resources Information Center), sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education, is the largest and oldest education information system in the world. The ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education (ERIC/ChESS) is one of sixteen subject-oriented clearinghouses that compose the ERIC system. The heart of the ERIC system, the ERIC database of education-related literature, contains over one million citations with abstracts to journal articles, teaching and curriculum guides, bibliographies, research reports, conference papers, and other materials, all pertaining to education.

The citations with abstracts listed below, all drawn from the ERIC database, are for teaching materials and background information on the homefront during World War II. The key to obtaining the full text of the materials cited below is the unique "ERIC number" assigned to each item in the ERIC database. Journal articles, denoted by "EJ" numbers (for example, EJ412432), can be obtained at most academic libraries, borrowed through interlibrary loan, or purchased from commercial article reprint services such as Ingenta and ISI. Research reports, conference papers, and other materials besides journal articles are denoted by "ED" numbers (for example, ED388583); paper or microfiche copies of most of these documents can be purchased from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), 7420 Fullerton Road, Suite 110, Springfield, VA 22153-2852, (800) 443-3742; <<http://edrs.com/>>; <[service@edrs.com](mailto:service@edrs.com)>; or copied at an ERIC microfiche collection, available at many libraries.

ERIC/ChESS welcomes requests for general information or sample database searches on topics within the social studies, social sciences, music education, and art education. Contact ERIC/ChESS by telephone at (800) 266-3815 or (812) 855-3838, or by e-mail at <[ericso@indiana.edu](mailto:ericso@indiana.edu)>.

## Background Materials

"1940s: Camping in the War Years." *Camping Magazine* 72:6 (November/December 1999): 22-23. EJ595834. Camps contin-

ued to operate during World War II, but young male counselors, food, and supplies were difficult to obtain. An illustrative article from 1943, "Meal Planning for Summer Camps in Wartime" (Agnes B. Peterson), presents a guide to planning nutritious meals for campers despite shortages caused by wartime rationing, increased food costs, and restricted deliveries.

Brant, Heather and others. *Muncie Remembers That Day of Infamy*. Muncie, Indiana: Muncie Community Schools, 1993. ED359137. This document presents an oral history project in which thirty-four residents of Muncie, Indiana, were interviewed about their experiences and memories of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on 7 December 1941. The project was conducted by the members of an honors U. S. history class at Muncie Southside High School. The students designed the interview instrument, selected the people to be interviewed, and interviewed them using tape recorders. Written transcripts were then arranged in a readable format. The document contains a sixteen-item bibliography and appendices (participant letter, release form, interview log sheet, and interview questionnaire).

Cooper, B. Lee. "Popular Music During World War II: Patriotism and Personal Communications." *International Journal of Instructional Media* 23:2 (1996): 181-92. EJ569014. Cooper argues that recorded music from 1941-1945 served as a domestic and overseas morale booster for Americans. He discusses the audio images of homefront stability communicated to soldiers and provides a bibliography of over sixty popular recordings illustrating direct references to letter exchanges, epistolary tendencies in lyrical communication, and songs recorded by male and female vocalists.

Field, Sherry L. "Roosevelt's World War II Army of Community Service Workers. Children and Their Teachers." *Social Education* 60:5 (September 1996): 280-83. EJ534973. The author profiles the extraordinary World War II public support efforts conducted by school children and teachers across the United States. Encouraged by the Roosevelt administration, teachers and

pupils mobilized support for war bond sales and salvage collection drives. Many children raised "Victory Gardens" producing food to help the war effort.

Hutchins, Leonard. "Our Last Total Commitment." *Echoes: The Northern Maine Journal* 7:2 (June-August 1994): 18-21. EJ488525. The author reminisces about his childhood during World War II and the impact the war had on the rural community in which he lived. During wartime, children worked on farms after school and during the summer, commodities were rationed, and communities took part in air-raid drills. School lessons revolved around the war's events.

Marin, Christine. *Mexican Americans on the Home Front: Community Organizations in Arizona During World War II*. Paper presented to the National Association for Chicano Studies (Boulder, Colorado, April 1987). ED315252. During World War II Arizona's Mexican American communities organized their own patriotic activities and worked, in spite of racism, to support the war effort. These societies spoke out after several blatant incidents of discrimination against Mexican American teenagers, and later organized a Phoenix youth group that collected twenty-two hundred pounds of old rubber for the war effort. Community organizations in Phoenix and Tucson also organized volunteer cotton pickers when a labor shortage threatened the crop, badly needed for parachute and blimp manufacture; sponsored social gatherings in honor of Chicano military cadets; arranged bilingual community education classes in American citizenship; collected donations to provide cigarettes to soldiers overseas; sold war bonds and war stamps; collected clothing for the Red Cross; planted victory gardens; collected scrap metal and foil for recycling; and provided child care services for mothers performing war-related activities. This paper contains thirty endnotes.

Mathis, Susan. "Propaganda to Mobilize Women for World War II." *Social Education* 58:2 (February 1994): 94-96. EJ485623. The author describes government efforts to mobilize U.S. women during World War II. Further, she discusses the need for women's participation and the problems confronted by women who joined the wartime labor force and describes efforts to increase participation by women in the armed forces.

Norrell, Robert J. "Dixie's War." *Humanities* 16:2 (March/April 1995): 16-20. EJ509178. Norrell maintains that World War II brought profound social and economic change to the southern United States. He discusses the impact of a total war on demography, women in the work force, and the regional economy. The article includes six photographs of wartime life in the South.

Procter, David R. and Emily Webb. "A Grandmother's Role in Wartime Communications." *Social Education* 58:2 (February 1994): 96-97. EJ485624. This article describes a National History Day project based on students' grandmothers' experiences with prisoner of war communications during World War II. It relates how brief communications from prisoners were relayed to soldiers' families through U.S. War Department channels and discusses development of historical research and interpretation skills.

Siler, Carl R., ed. *The Way It Was: Muncie in World War II*. Indianapolis, Indiana: Indiana State Department of Education, 1991. ED342701. This oral history project was completed by a Muncie, Indiana high school honors U.S. history class. The students interviewed Muncie residents who during World War II either served in the military or experienced the war on the homefront. Two interview instruments were designed, one for the military front subjects and the other for the homefront subjects. The students interviewed twenty-three participants using a video camera. Written transcripts were prepared from the videos and are included. The interview instruments are appended.

Tuttle, William M., Jr. *America's School-Age Children Fight the War: Political Socialization, Participation, and Patriotism*. Paper presented at the convention of the Organization of American Historians (Chicago, Illinois, 4 April 1992). ED349248. U.S. children who were of school age during World War II underwent a socialization process that led them to have great pride in their country, to believe in the moral certainty of U.S. victory, and to feel united in their participation on the homefront. Excerpts from letters of individuals who were of school age during the war are used to illustrate this process of political socialization. The excerpts included memories of Franklin Delano Roosevelt both during the war and at the time of his death. Various measures undertaken by educators to promote the values of democracy and other ideals are discussed. Research on the political socialization of children, and the psychological aspects of child development are reviewed.

"The War at Home: Oral Histories from Japanese Americans at Seabrook Farms." *Humanities* 16:2 (March/April 1995): 32-35. EJ509180. This article discusses the Japanese American relocation program during World War II. It maintains that one alternative to the camps was to move to Seabrook Farms, a vegetable and food processing facility in New Jersey. It also presents oral historical accounts and photographs of Seabrook.

### Teaching Materials

Bonfield, Lynn and Karen Lewis. "A Picture Tells a Thousand Words: Photographs of Women, Work, and the 1940s." *Social Studies Review* 29:1 (Fall 1989): 55-64. EJ412432. The authors present an essay and several photographs describing the experiences of U.S. women in the 1940s. They suggest that wartime employment greatly impacted the role of women in society. They also describe ways to help students learn how to interpret a photograph and provides questions for classroom discussions.

Brooks, Margaret. *Through My Eyes: A Child's View of World War II*. Kansas City, MO: National Archives-Central Plains Region: Johnson County Museum System: Veterans of Foreign Wars, 1995. ED388583. This activity book is designed for grades 5-8 to learn about America at home during World War II. The work examines the efforts of the men, women, and children who supported and supplied one of the greatest mobilizations of people





# World War II Homefront

Rachel Garcia

## The Homefront

*WWII: The Homefront*: <<http://library.thinkquest.org/15511>>. Sponsored by ThinkQuest, a library of educational web sites created by students and educators. Created by high school students, this site allows the viewer to simulate what life was like in the home during World War II. It also provides timeline, artifact museum, resources, and participation options.

*Homefront Advertising*: <<http://www.gettysburg.edu/~mbirkner/fys120/ads.html>>. Compiled by Michael J. Birkner, chair and professor of history at Gettysburg College. Contains links to ads that were published in *Life Magazine* in January, February, May, and June 1943. Displays how advertisers used various techniques to boost support of the war while selling their products.

## Japanese Americans

*War Relocation Camps in Arizona, 1942-1946*: <<http://www.library.arizona.edu/wracamps/>>. Compiled by the University of Arizona Library, this site gives background descriptions of the War Relocation Authority camps in Arizona as well as providing images depicting various aspects of life in the camps. Also contains a list of suggested readings about WRA camps and links to other WRA web sites.

*Japanese-American Internment in WWII Photographs Exhibit, University of Utah*: <<http://www.lib.utah.edu/scp/photo/9066/9066.htm>>. The site, run by the Special Collections Department, J. Willard Marriott Library, University of Utah, includes photographs and artifacts from Tule Lake and Topaz Japanese Relocation Camps which depict daily life at the camps.

*Dear Miss Breed: Letters from Camp . . .*: <<http://janm.org/breed/title.htm>>. Part of the Japanese American National Museum, this site focuses in a personal way on how children and teenagers dealt with their experiences in internment camps. Through letters and postcards to Miss Breed, who was the Children's Librarian at the San Diego Public Library, students can see what it was like for kids their own age to go through such hard situations. Oral histories and home movies are also included.

## Women in WWII

*Women Come to the Front*: <<http://www.loc.gov/exhibits/wcf/wcf0001.html>>. Exhibition provided by the Library of Congress about female journalists, photographers, and broadcasters during World War II. Features essays about women's roles in the war and specifically focuses on the contributions of eight women.

*WASP, Women Pilots of WWII Home Page*: <<http://www.wasp-wwii.org/>>. Created by Nancy A. Parrish, daughter of a WASP and director of Wings Across America, a project dedicated to preserving the history of the WASPs. Features photo and audio gallery, resources, and records documenting the role of the WASPs in World War II.

*Women and World War II—Female Soldiers—Roles of Women—Home Front—Concentration Camps*: <<http://womenshistory.about.com/cs/warwwii>>. Extensive web site listing of essays, photographs and research resources of women's roles in WWII from the homefront to concentration camps. Sponsored by about.com and powered by the History Net.

*The Women's Army Corps*: <<http://www.army.mil/cmh-pg/brochures/wac/wac.htm>>. Part of the U.S. Army Center of Military History website. Written by Judith A. Bellafaire. Contains detailed history of the WAC including photographs of members of the WAC during the war.

*A People at War: Women Who Served*: <<http://www.nara.gov/exhall/people/women.html>>. Exhibit from the National Archives and Records Administration's National Personnel Records Center which gives a brief synopsis of women who were allowed to participate in noncombatant battles, particularly the Women's Auxiliary Ferrying Squadron (WAFS) and later, the Women's Airforce Service Pilots (WASP).

*What Did You Do in the War, Grandma?*: <[http://www.stg.brown.edu/projects/WWII\\_Women/tocCS.html](http://www.stg.brown.edu/projects/WWII_Women/tocCS.html)>. This site was written by students in the Honors English Program at South Kingstown High School. It includes oral histories from Rhode Island women, a timeline of WWII, glossary of terms, four essays, and links to other WWII references on the web.

## WWII Posters

*World War II Posters: Powers of Persuasion:* <<http://www.nara.gov/exhall/powers/powers.html>>. Compiled by the National Archives and Records Administration, this site is divided into two parts. The first displays posters which were positive and patriotic. The second displays posters which were darker and appealed to people's fears of death, spies, and hatred.

*World War II Poster Collection from Northwestern University Library:* <<http://www.library.northwestern.edu/govpub/collections/wwii-posters/>>. Over three hundred posters are available at this site which is sponsored by the Government Publications Department at Northwestern University Library. These posters were issued by Federal agencies, and the site allows you to search for specific posters or display all of them. It offers full descriptions of the issuing agency, the year the poster was released, and what it is displaying.

## African Americans and WWII

*World War II:* <<http://www.coax.net/people/lwf/ww2.htm>>. Site maintained by Bennie J. McRae Jr., LWF Communications. Links to African American contributions in World War II. Contains special reports, records, and photos.

*Tuskegee Airmen:* <<http://www.wpafb.af.mil/museum/history/prewwii/ta.htm>>. Part of the U.S. Air Force Museum. Gives background information and pictures about the Tuskegee Airmen.

*African Americans in the U.S. Army:* <<http://www.army.mil/cmh-pg/topics/afam/afam-usa.htm>>. Part of the U.S. Army Center of Military History web site. Contains documents and photo galleries explaining the various positions that African Americans held throughout the history of the U.S. Army, including World War II.

## Lesson Plans

*Using Primary Sources in the Classroom—World War II:* <<http://www.archives.state.al.us/teacher/ww2/index.html>>. From the Alabama Department of Archives and History, this unit plan offers seven lessons, including primary documents, for teaching World War II.

*"A Date Which Will Live in Infamy":* <<http://www.nara.gov/education/teaching/fdr/infamy.html>>. "Teaching With Documents" section of the National Archives and Records Administration which includes the first typed draft of Franklin D. Roosevelt's war address and a sound recording of the address. A worksheet is included on the website in order for students to analyze the sound recording.

*Lesson Plan Finder TeacherVision.com:* <<http://www.teachervision.com/tv/curriculum/lessonplans/index.html>>. Powered by TeacherVision.com, a Learning Network Teacher Channel, this web site is created by teachers for teachers. Users can browse by topics, themes, and grade levels.

*PBS Teacher Source:* <<http://www.pbs.org/teachersource/>>. Boasting over twenty-five hundred lesson plans and activities, the site is organized in six major categories and is available for

searching across disciplines, including Social Studies. Grades pre-kindergarten to twelve.

*Baylink:* <<http://www.baylink.org/>>. Baylink is an educational site that includes lesson plans, student projects, a media center, and links to web sites geared toward those living in the Chesapeake Bay area. Lesson plans include World War II topics.

*Social Studies Lesson Plans and Resources:* <<http://www.csun.edu/%7Ehcedu013/index.html>>. Compiled by Marty Levine, Professor Emeritus of Secondary Education at California State University Northridge, this site contains lesson plans and resources from the Internet.

## Additional Resources

*National Museum of American History: Home:* <<http://americanhistory.si.edu/>>. Powered by the Smithsonian Institution, this site contains virtual exhibitions, resources for teachers, timelines, a music room, and a special hands-on resource section.

*Library of Congress Home Page:* <<http://www.loc.gov>>. Contains a wealth of information including online exhibitions, library for kids and families, and the American Memory center. This center has primary source materials and over seven million digital items from more than one hundred historical collections.

*National Archives and Records Administration Home Page:* <<http://www.nara.gov>>. NARA is an independent federal agency that oversees the management of all federal records. This site contains a digital classroom, exhibit hall, and archives and preservation resources among other sources of information.

*President Truman—Harry S. Truman Presidential Museum & Library official home page:* <<http://www.trumanlibrary.org/index.html>>. Audio materials, educational resources for teachers and students, and a special section for kids is available. A special World War II feature is also included. □

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## Upcoming OAH Annual Meetings

2003 • MEMPHIS, TENNESSEE • 3-6 April

*Memphis Cook  
Convention Center*

2004 • BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS  
25-28 March

*Marriott Copley Place*

[www.oah.org/meetings](http://www.oah.org/meetings)

# Recording Wartime Reminiscences: Using Oral History to Teach World War II

Nicholas P. Ciotola

## Introduction

The generation of American men and women who lived through the Second World War is rapidly disappearing, and with them a wealth of firsthand information regarding one of the most important events in twentieth century history. This lesson plan describes a classroom exercise in which students record the memories of people who lived through the World War II era, and in so doing, learn the impact of those times on the lives and identities of American citizens.

## Timeframe

This lesson involves two forty-minute class periods, a one-hour out-of-school activity, and one homework assignment.

## Objectives

1. To help students understand the impact of World War II on the lives of everyday Americans.
2. To expose students to unusual primary source materials—the oral reminiscences of their elderly family members or other senior citizens.
3. To teach students interviewing techniques and good listening skills.

## Procedure

This lesson plan is incorporated into the section of an American history survey course dealing with World War II. Background reading dealing with the social, economic, political, and military significance of the war is an important precursor to the lesson.

The first forty-minute class period involves an exercise commonly known as the oral history fishbowl, aptly named for it allows students to peer into an oral history interview as it is being conducted. As part of this exercise, students arrange themselves in a circle around a historical personality selected by the course

instructor—in this case, someone who lived through the World War II era. With students looking on, the instructor conducts a thirty-minute interview with this person about his or her experiences during the war and reflections on the war era. Students should be instructed to pay careful attention not only to the answers, which will provide an interesting social history lesson, but also to the questions that are asked and interviewing techniques used by the instructor. By sitting through this fishbowl interview session, students learn what an oral history interview entails and how to go about asking questions that elicit important information about the past. After the interview is complete, the instructor should encourage students to ask any additional questions that they feel are relevant, thus giving them a chance to formulate historical inquiries of their own.

The next stage in the lesson involves students conducting their own oral history interviews. First and foremost, they must identify their interviewees. In many instances, the subject will be a family member such as a grandparent. However, the instructor might want to make advance contact with a local senior citizens organization to arrange a pool of potential interviewees for use by those students without a family interviewee. Next, using their previous fishbowl experience and the three sample interview guidelines that follow, students conduct an oral history interview of their own. If resources are available, students should record their interviews on audio or video recording devices, thus allowing them to listen to them at a later date or, ultimately, donate them to a local historical society or library.

The final part of the lesson involves interpreting the interview testimony. After the interview is completed, students should listen to the recorded interview in its entirety, or review their notes if the interview was not recorded, and think deeply about their interviewee's words. Next, each student should select three direct quotes that get to the heart of their subject's involvement

in, and reflections on, the World War II era. If quotes are not succinct enough, the student instead records three general themes. Finally, each student develops an oral history storyboard for his or her interviewee. These storyboards are a piece of poster board to which copies of photographs of the interviewee and the three quotes or themes are attached. Creativity should be encouraged here allowing students to present their findings in any way they see fit. Then, in the final forty-minute class period, each student presents his or her storyboard to the class by explaining the background of the person they interviewed and the highlights of their testimony on the World War II era. If resources are unavailable, students may simply present these findings orally, without visual aids. The presentation component of the lesson plan is extremely important as it allows the class to see how the World War II experience differed from person to person.

After the students have had a chance to learn the findings of their fellow students, the class instructor organizes a brief lecture and discussion that relates the oral histories to the broader themes in the history of the war. This final effort by the class instructor is very important as it solidifies in the minds of the students the fact that World War II had a definitive impact not just on political and military leaders and the course of world history but on the lives of everyday Americans. □

#### For Further Reading

Clegg, Luther B.. "Creating Oral History Projects for the Social Studies Classroom." *Social Studies Review*, 32 (Fall 1992): 53-60.

Crocco, Margaret Smith. "Putting the Actors Back on Stage: Oral History in the Secondary School Classroom." *Social Studies*, 89 (Jan-Feb 1998): 19-24.

Grim, Valerie. "Integrating Oral History into the Classroom Curriculum: A Tool for Helping Students Understand the American and African American Experience." *Teaching History: A Journal of Methods*, 20 (Spring 1995): 3-19.

Kneeshaw, Stephen. "Recasting World War II: Using Oral Histories to Understand the Greater War." *Teaching History: A Journal of Methods*, 20 (Spring 1995): 33-43.

Paul, Paula J. "Fish Bowls and Bloopers: Oral History in the Classroom." *OAH Magazine of History*, 11 (Spring 1997): 43-46.

Ritchie, Donald A.. "Teaching the Cold War Through Oral History." *OAH Magazine of History*, 8 (Winter 1994): 10-12.

#### Sample Oral History Interview Questions

1. What is your name and date of birth?
2. What are your parents' names and where were they from?
3. Where did you grow up?
4. What are your earliest memories as a child?
5. How old were you when World War II began?
6. What event stands out in the years preceding the beginning of the war?

7. Where were you and what you were doing when the announcement of war came?
8. What was the general feeling in the United States when the announcement was made?
9. Did the announcement of war take you by surprise?
10. Did you or any of your family members enter the armed forces?
11. What were your (your family member's) experiences in the armed forces?
12. What were your impressions of military and political leadership during the war?
13. To what extent did the media cover the war?
14. What one event of the war stands out in your memory?
15. How were the Japanese, German, and Italian Americans perceived during the war?
16. How did the war affect the lives of women in your family?
17. How did the war affect the lives of men in your family?
18. How did the war affect the course of your life? And the lives of your loved ones?
19. In your opinion, what was the overall impact of the war on American society?
20. What was your opinion of the dropping of the atomic bomb?
21. Where were you when you heard that the war had ended?
22. What was the general American reaction to the end of the war?
23. What were your general feelings about the war?
24. Did your feelings change over time?
25. Did your feelings differ from those of your contemporaries?
26. What event stands out in the immediate postwar period?
27. In your opinion, how did the war impact the course of twentieth-century history?
28. How does World War II compare to other more recent American wars?
29. Do you consider World War II a just war?
30. What is the legacy of the World War II era?

#### Twelve Suggestions for Conducting A Good Oral History Interview

1. Contact the interviewee, arrange an interview date and time, and make sure that he or she understands the project.
2. Arrive at the interview on time and act professionally.
3. If recording the interview, be completely familiar with the equipment and how it works prior to the actual interview so that no problems arise.
4. Remember that the interview is not a conversation. The interviewee will do the majority of the talking and you, the interviewer, should resign yourself to asking good questions.
5. Never use questions that will result in a simple "yes" or "no" response. The objective of the interview is getting long, detailed answers from your subject.
6. Do not feel confined by your question set. Incorporate any other questions that you see fit based on the particular experiences of your interview subject.
7. When the opportunity arises, utilize "why" and "how" questions

as follow-ups to other questions in order to capture the interviewee's personal feelings.

8. Do not interrupt the interviewee, especially during long, awkward pauses. Always allow him or her to complete every thought before asking another question. Pauses are a sign of thought and usually precede an important and interesting statement.
9. Do not voice your own opinions in the interview.
10. Finish the interview by giving the interviewee a chance to say anything else that he or she thinks is important to the subject.
11. Have the interviewee sign a release form, thus allowing for the possibility of donating the interview to a library or historical society. (see sample at right)
12. Send a thank you note to the interviewee.

### Sample Oral History Release Form

I hereby authorize \_\_\_\_\_ to possess and use my tape or video recorded oral history memoirs. It is my understanding that the original tape and an acceptable copy, tape abstract, or transcription will become the property of the abovementioned person. I also understand that the interview may be donated to a library or museum collection and that information from my interview may be used for research, quotation, and other purposes in the study of the World War II era.

Interviewee	Date
Address	Telephone
Student Interviewer	Date
Address	Telephone

For additional oral history resources, please point your web browser to <<http://www.oah.org/pubs/magazine/oralhistory/>>

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and material that the world has ever witnessed. The activities were planned to complement the exhibit of the same name, but they can be used to enrich any study of World War II and the home front. A glossary and twenty-one references are included.

Mukai, Gary. *Teaching about Japanese-American Internment*. ERIC Digest. Bloomington, Indiana: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 2001. Note: Portions of this ERIC Digest were summarized from the curriculum module "Civil Rights and the Japanese-American Internment," Stanford Program on International and Cross Cultural Education, Stanford University, 2000. ED447066. This ERIC Digest provides six suggestions for teaching about the Japanese American internment, touching on civil rights, immigration, the media, "loyalty," redress and reparations, and primary and secondary sources. The Digest also includes five Internet resources and six references and ERIC resources.

Nelson, Murry R. "An Alternative Medium of Social Education—The 'Horrors of War' Picture Cards." *Social Studies* 88:3 (May/June 1997): 100-07. EJ551249. Nelson explores the production, distribution, and content of the "Horrors of War," a series of trading cards produced between 1938 and 1942. Created by a Baptist advertising executive, the cards used graphic images to communicate an antiwar message to young adolescents. The author discusses possible learning activities for use with the cards.

Percoco, James A. "Baseball and World War II: A Study of the Landis-Roosevelt Correspondence." *OAH Magazine of History* 7:1 (Summer 1992): 55-60. EJ463210. The author presents a lesson plan using original documents of the wartime correspondence between President Franklin Roosevelt and baseball commissioner Kenesaw Landis. The lesson explores the status of baseball during World War II to determine the importance of sports in American culture. The article includes background information and copies of the correspondence.

Smulyan, Susan, Carolyn Goldstein, and Jane Gerhard. "The Stocking Story: You Be the Historian." *OAH Magazine of History* 12:2 (Winter 1998): 31-35. EJ565819. The authors present a lesson plan where students read an introductory essay, locate and examine a set of documents, and write an account of the introduction of nylon stockings and the effect of World War II on use of this fiber. The lesson includes student handouts, background information, and reproduction of an E. I. DuPont press release. □

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# Embracing the Future to Teach the Past: How the Internet Can Enhance Learning in History Classes

Anne Kelsch

For some time I had been deeply frustrated by students who ignored a wealth of valuable scholarly sources in the library, and instead brought unsatisfactory and undigested information from the Internet to bear on classroom assignments. My students approached Internet resources uncritically, assuming the inherent value of more information, regardless of its quality. Eventually “http” in a student’s citation provoked dread, and I seriously considered forbidding use of web material for class assignments. But as a historian, I recognized the electronic tide was against me.

Fortunately I was given the chance to develop a solution. With the assistance of a Summer Instructional Development Professorship from the University of North Dakota’s Office of Instructional Development, I taught a new upper division course last fall entitled, “Women in Victorian Europe.” Due to a strong popular and academic interest in the subject, the course offered me a tremendous opportunity to introduce students to informed use of electronically accessible information. Numerous web sites shed light on the nineteenth century—from images used in advertising and popular culture to analysis of clothing, growing government activism, working class life, unionization, and the emergence of female professions. Furthermore, using electronic media would allow my students access to primary sources in European social and economic history, which are hard to come by in our library. Several major document collections are available online, as are census records. An extensive project on Victorian women writers has historically relevant material, and there are a number of university-based web sites devoted to Victorian research. As with many sources on the web, this information was unfiltered and of mixed quality. With this class I hoped to provide both the critical thinking skills and the intellectual content students need for an intelligent approach to this increasingly pervasive electronic format and a rapidly expanding body of knowledge.

The course allowed me to embrace the advantages of electronic resources while learning how to guide my students around some of its pitfalls, and the process was rewarding for my students and me. In a midterm assessment conducted by an external evaluator, and in their end of the semester class evaluations, students consistently expressed their enthusiasm for web-based learning. They liked being able to read material on the web and to follow links I provided for additional information. They liked accessing our class web page for announcements and assignments. They liked the exposure to primary source material that allowed them to come to their own conclusions. In general, they had little trouble accessing web sites, although there was the occasional glitch.

Internet access also allowed me to try assignments that lead to a very productive learning environment. Using the *Spartacus Encyclopaedia of British History: 1700-1950* <<http://www.spartacus.schoolnet.co.uk/Britain.html>>, which has a vast wealth of topically arranged primary and secondary source material, I assigned each student a historic figure (a specific factory owner, reformer, child worker, doctor, newspaper editor) who took part in the nineteenth-century debate on child labor. I assigned them the task of composing a biography of their character and a speech defending the position they had taken in regard to child labor. On the day students handed their papers in, they enthusiastically enacted a debate that allowed them to explore the nuances of a very complex social and economic issue. In the process they got excited, angry, and deeply concerned. They engaged in the material and the ideas fully. The class enjoyed this experience so much they asked me to create another in-class debate. In our second enactment each wrote about and then spoke in the voice of a person that supported or opposed women’s suffrage. These experiences allowed my students to be part of the interpretive process, and to see history as relevant and pertinent to their own lives.

While most of my experiences with using technology in my classroom were positive, there were some problems. Our class began the semester with required contributions to a threaded online discussion based on the weekly reading assignments. These were to be analytical in nature. Although I was generally pleased with the comments submitted, the class persistently resisted this forum. When I broached this in class, students made clear their preference for face-to-face discussion. They worried that in print their ideas took on an unintended inflexibility. We ended up replacing online discussion with a different exercise. The final writing assignment, a group research project that asked students to consider web and printed resources, revealed another problem. For this assignment students chose to either turn in a traditional paper or create a web page. A number chose the latter. Some topics lent themselves readily to this approach. One group looked at the images of women in nineteenth-century art, combining an analysis of artists, composers, paintings, and music (including images and sound recordings) into a nicely designed and well thought out format. On the other hand, some students put the time and thought they should have applied to analyzing their material into creating an eye-catching site. On the whole I felt that a number of the web projects lacked the thoughtful analysis required. With this kind of assignment in the future, I would strongly emphasize to students that the intellectual content of their work should be the same regardless of the medium.

I applied lessons gleaned from this class to other courses. Last semester in my American history survey (which had eighty students), I created two web-based writing assignments. I derived the first assignment from the *ICYouSee Guide to Critical Thinking About What You See on the Web*, <<http://www.ithaca.edu/library/Training/hott.html>>, designed by John Henderson, a reference librarian at Ithaca College. The page has several critical thinking exercises and also contains excellent links to other guides for evaluating web material. I modified one of Henderson's assignments, requiring students to compare a number of different web sites on Mayan culture and to evaluate them based on authors, style, citations, sources, etc. I asked students to select the most authoritative site and to defend their choice. For the second

writing assignment students looked at documents and photographs pertaining to slavery from the Library of Congress Historical Collections from the National Digital Library <<http://memory.loc.gov/>>. They then distinguished between primary and secondary sources, and evaluated the sources based on a number of criteria. In their second paper students clearly showed a more sophisticated analysis than in the first,

and a development in their critical edge. These assignments also gave me a chance to talk to my class about history as an ongoing dialogue in which they can and should take part.

My decision to embrace electronic resources has led to additional benefits as well. I have become comfortable enough to use an online syllabus for all my classes, and I integrate some Internet material into most assignments. There is a significant reduction in class hand-outs since I post all assignments by linking them to our class web page. This allows me tremendous space to describe the assignment in detail and to refer students through links to relevant information that helps them think about their work. It also ends the problem of making sure that every student, even those absent when the assignment was given, knows exactly what the assignment is since it is always available online. As I am now familiar with reputable web resources in my field, I can recommend good sites to my students. I link relevant web pages to our class homepage so that students can look at material that interests them just for fun. While they

will not necessarily go to the library and check out a book to know more about the French Revolution, they will look at a web site on Robespierre. I also recognize material that comes from the Internet and am able to catch the occasional student who succumbs to the temptation to cut and paste from the web. Perhaps most importantly, I no longer dread students' use of electronic information. And I get the added satisfaction of being able to make an important contribution to their education not just by teaching them history, but also by helping them to live more intelligently in an electronic world. □

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The American Memory website maintained by the Library of Congress <<http://memory.loc.gov/>>

# Empires, Exceptions, and Anglo-Saxons: Race and Rule between the British and United States Empires, 1880-1910

“Teaching the JAH” uses online tools to bridge the gap between the latest scholarly research in U.S. history and the practice of classroom teaching. Journal of American History authors demonstrate how featured articles might be taught in a U.S. history survey course. Here is a summary and sample teaching document from the current feature, Paul A. Kramer’s “Empires, Exceptions, and Anglo-Saxons: Race and Rule between the British and United States Empires, 1880-1910,” *Journal of American History* 88 (March 2002): 1315-53. See the entire installment at <<http://www.indiana.edu/~jah/teaching/>>.

In 1898, the United States experienced internal tensions regarding its colonialist practices, primarily related to the annexation of the Philippines and the attempts to justify such actions. Our featured article explores the relation between empire, race, and nationalism debated by Americans and Britons as each nation expanded its global presence in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. As their empires grew, Americans and Britons searched for ways to explain and justify their worldwide expansion. The article will help students appreciate the far-reaching and subtle terms of the ensuing dialogue. At a decisive moment, American colonialists justified the annexation of the



John C. Turk, an engineer from the United States, and his wife aboard a private railroad car in Burma in 1901, attended by servants. Contracts between British colonial governments and American industrial enterprises, such as the one Turk worked for, constituted an important site of contact and exchange between empires. *Reprinted from the World's Work, Sept. 1901.*

Philippines through an appeal to Anglo-Saxon racial exceptionalism. Blood, culture, and history united the British and American people, the argument went, and as Anglo-Saxon nations both deserved to dominate the world. Anti-colonialists in the United States countered by arguing an American national exceptionalism. They claimed that traditional American republican values had no place for overseas colonies

and worldwide expansion. However, once the United States had established itself in the Philippines, colonialists were more likely to abandon Anglo-Saxon racial arguments and rely instead on a revised ideology of the exceptional American nation: Americans had a special mission to govern “dependencies” abroad and to teach “democratic” principles to other peoples. □

“Teaching the JAH” may be found online at <<http://www.indiana.edu/~jah/teaching/>>. Previous installments include Todd Bennett’s, “Culture, Power, and Mission to Moscow: Film and Soviet-American Relations during World War II” (September 2001) and Constance Areson Clark’s, “Evolution for John Doe: Pictures, the Public, and the Scopes Trial Debate” (March 2001).

**Beyond Books web site**, a service of New Forum Publishers, Inc., 555 North Lane, Suite 6040, Conshohocken, PA 19428. Toll-free telephone: 1-877-946-4622. <<http://www.BeyondBooks.com>>.

The Beyond Books web site can keep one clicking through web pages for hours. New Forum Publishers is an Internet-based company that provides a full-service curriculum including detailed lesson plans with scripts for the teacher, worksheets for the students, and hypertext links to more detailed information, such as the Beyond Books-sponsored text or the American Memory web site at the Library of Congress. The curriculum encompasses seventy-eight middle- and high-school level Social Studies lesson plans: American history (fifty-five), government (four), European history (six), and world cultures (thirteen). In keeping with its full-service objective, Beyond Books offers lesson plans for the following subjects: science, literature and language, math, world languages, and electives. The website has several outstanding strengths and few weaknesses.

Beyond Books provides teachers with an extensive Help section. There are easily navigable teacher guides, an organizing web page for teachers called "Teacher Door," and clearly outlined connections between lesson plans and the respective state and national standards. While the level of teacher support was the most impressive feature for me, Beyond Books heavily advertises its "Ask the Expert" opportunities. A teacher can arrange to have a live video conference between the class and an expert speaking on a particular subject. The "Ask the Expert" would be a unique opportunity, but in the day-to-day usage of the web site, other positive features are the high-quality pictures, maps, "Did you know?" and "Check it Out" sidebars, and links to Internet sites that are not affiliated with Beyond Books.

Beyond Books provides a wide array of supportive materials. Students and teachers will click easily through the Program, Unit (Locus), Focus, and Links pages. The sheer comprehensiveness of the program raises the question of how we integrate technology into our classrooms. The program has a considerable number of bells and whistles; it is colorful, directive and prescriptive for teachers and students. As teachers, do we want technology to recreate the classroom on the computer screen? Should technology substitute or supplement?

Stepping aside from the theoretical questions, Beyond Books provides teachers a complete package for their classrooms. Before deciding on purchasing access to the program, you can click on a map to identify which schools in your state currently subscribe. Also, you would want to read a number of the lesson plans to gauge if the level of difficulty suits your students. In conclusion, for a beginning teacher with access to an adequate number of computers, Beyond Books would be a good safety net of lesson plans and activities. For experienced teachers who might not appreciate the scripted lesson plans, Beyond Books would offer your students interesting supportive materials for Social Studies lessons. □

Jenny Marien, Ed.D.

Harvard Graduate School of Education

Braun, Joseph A. Jr., and C. Frederick Risinger, ed. ***Surfing Social Studies: The Internet Book***. Washington DC: National Council for the Social Studies Publications, 1999. (ISBN: 087986-078-2)

At first glance *Surfing Social Studies: The Internet Book*, edited by Joseph A. Braun Jr. and C. Frederick Risinger, looked like it was going to be a rehash of the same old thing, but it was not. The book is divided into nineteen subject-specific chapters, each authored by experts in that particular field. These chapters allow readers to focus in on the specific topic of their potential lesson. Risinger's statement in Chapter 4, "Teaching History," really sums it all up—seventy-five to eighty-five percent of all World Wide Web sites have some relevance to the social studies curriculum.

*Surfing Social Studies* offers many tips as well as information and ideas about how to use the web in the social studies classroom. The web can be used for research, displaying or assigning work, and providing historical and personal accounts of history. For example, Chapter 5, "The Virtual Tour," shows how to take a virtual tour of a remote site, such as a museum, without ever leaving the classroom. There are chapters on teaching geography, teledemocracy (which examines perennial issues and taking social action on such issues), civic activities, economics, cross-cultural understanding, global issues, multicultural education, problem based learning, and civic-moral development. The topics can be explored through text, graphics, sound and/or music, and video. Each chapter has separate lesson plans for elementary, middle, and high school level and several web sites on the subject matter. The lesson plans are listed step by step and are in an easy to follow format.

This book shows teachers how they can use the web for their own education and learning. Two chapters are on Internet basics and are worth a read even for someone already familiar with the Internet. The teacher's knowledge and guidance is a key to Internet teaching. Teachers must use this in picking appropriate and relevant web sites for viewing and keeping their students safe on the Internet. Several examples of how to do this are included. *Surfing Social Studies* also notes that there are several negatives to the Internet such as slow response time or sites that are not frequently updated that may hamper teaching.

In conclusion, this practical work, *Surfing Social Studies*, is a recommended reading for anyone who teaches social studies from elementary through high school. It provides many real world examples about how to use the Internet to enhance your current curriculum. The chapters are set up by teaching topics so it is easy to find what you want, and even those who are already Internet savvy may learn some new ideas from this book. □

Scott R. DiMarco

Herkimer County Community College

Makler, Andra, and Ruth Shagoury Hubbard, ed. *Teaching for Justice in the Social Studies Classroom: Millions of Intricate Moves*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, 2000 (225 pages, ISBN 0-325-00264-9).

Discussions regarding the concept of justice, and perhaps more importantly how to instill such values in the hearts and minds of the next generation, certainly have a long and distinguished history. This text, edited by Makler and Hubbard, contributes to this consideration. The text consists of fifteen chapters relating to suggested practical applications of connecting the concept of justice in the social studies curriculum and classroom. Based upon the short biographies of the contributors, most of the chapter authors are socially active educators from the Portland, Oregon, area.

Sample chapter titles include: "Collective Action: Speaking Up and Standing Together—The Story of Rachel and Sadie" (Childs); "The Lives Behind the Labels: Teaching About the Global Sweatshop, Nike, and the Race to the Bottom" (Bigelow); "That Hard Thing: Getting Inside the Social Protest Movements in United States History" (Gallo); "Students in the Soup Kitchen" (Burke-Hengen and Smith); and "Teaching What's Not in the Book: The Lives of Migrant Farmworkers" (Frewing). Chapters include numerous service-learning projects and activities, integrated literature from books and poetry, and diverse suggestions for assessment. Every effort is made to emphasize student participation, application, and analysis, and the concept of a democratic classroom culture certainly is present throughout. Legitimate social issues are included and the emphasis upon student awareness, advocacy, and activism is abundant.

Numerous social science and history educators will find these chapters to be invigorating and liberating. School is a social change agent and real history, finally, will be taught. Boring texts, lectures, and traditional curricular content are to be limited. Passion abounds, as does personal and interpersonal communication, reflection, and introspection. The authors are dedicated to their social causes and very much wish to inculcate similar zeal within their students. Numerous other social science and history educators will find these chapters to be blatant efforts of indoctrination that seek to instill politically correct values in impressionable youth. The role of the school is to educate and teach curricular content, not a place and an opportunity to advance a personal agenda. Content will be sacrificed to partisanship. Students will know how to protest but will not know in which century the American Civil War was fought, what the 18th Amendment is, or who Hitler was. Students in such an environment will not do well on the history or social studies section of the next standardized test.

There's the rub. The opposing issues of the continuing debate regarding the purpose and the content of social education absolutely will impact the individual analysis and opinion of this text. As indicated above, some educators will love it and some educators will hate it. Some will utilize the suggestions offered and some

will dismiss them out of hand. The debate is healthy, and this text will provide stimulus for both sides. □

John Freese  
Wisconsin Lutheran College

Percoco, James. *Divided We Stand: Teaching About Conflict in U.S. History*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, 2001. (xii, 238 pages, illustrations, ISBN 0-325-00329, \$19.00).

One of the complaints levied against traditional secondary American history textbooks is that they distort history by minimizing conflict in order to enhance national unity and the march of progress in American life. James Percoco's volume is designed to rectify this shortcoming by helping social studies teachers guide students in making sense of the dynamics of conflict in American history. He asserts that conflict can be an agent for historical change with beneficial results and demonstrates this by sharing examples of his own instructional lessons that deal with conflict. These lesson plans are rooted in serious scholarship and allow students to discover that the key to implementing change lies in understanding the past.

The author is well qualified to do this. A practicing American history teacher at West Springfield High School in Springfield, Virginia, Percoco is the recipient of numerous awards for excellence in teaching. These recognitions include the Walt Disney Outstanding Social Studies Teacher Award in 1993, nomination to the first USA Today All-USA Teaching Team during 1998 and 2000, and the American Historical Association's James Harvey Robinson Prize for a prior publication on creative teaching.

*Divided We Stand* is organized into six chapters, each dealing with a separate historical theme. The themes are placed in chronological order with the first chapter/theme focusing on the American Revolution. Intervening chapters deal with Anglo-Native American relations in the Old West, race in American history, the civil rights movement from 1954 through 1968, gender issues in American history, and the Vietnam War. Each chapter constitutes a descriptive unit plan for teaching the theme, accompanied by the author's explanation of his instructional practice and reflections on his students' reactions to the learning experiences.

The units are "standards-based," in the sense that they were written to meet the national history standards, and the lessons incorporate the higher levels of Bloom's Taxonomy. Percoco asserts that these plans also satisfy Gardner's multiple intelligences theory, though how this is accomplished is not completely clear. What is clear is that Percoco does an outstanding job of utilizing a vast array of instructional materials, including commercial film, art, music, primary source documents, literature, historical studies, simulations, and history re-enactments. Furthermore,

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### In-House Teacher Workshops on American Memory

Workshops on the American Memory collections will explore how to effectively work with primary source materials, how to integrate resources into classroom activities, how to search for collections by interest, and how to use the collections without using a computer. Workshops are offered in the National Digital Library Learning Center at the Library of Congress Madison Building in Washington, DC. Each workshop is three hours long. For information and dates concerning workshops visit <<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/ndlpedu/educators/workshop/index.html>>. Direct questions or registration questions to <[thelearningcenter@loc.gov](mailto:thelearningcenter@loc.gov)>.

### Duke University's New Online Database

"Medicine and Madison Avenue" (MMA) is an online database which includes over six hundred health-related advertisements printed from 1911 to 1958, and thirty-five historical documents which relate to the creation of the advertisements. Instructor and Students Guides are also available. MMA was funded by the Ahmanson Foundation and is a collaboration of the National Humanities Center, the John W. Hartman Center for Sales, Advertising, and Marketing History, Duke's Digital Scriptorium, and the State University of New York at Stony Brook. Visit the website at <<http://scriptorium.lib.duke.edu/mma/>>.

### Congress in the Classroom

The 2002 workshop for secondary school teachers and junior and community college faculty will be held from 29 July to 1 August 2002 in Bradley University's campus in Peoria, Illinois. This year's theme will be "Congress and Public Policy." Cost is free and enrollment will be limited to thirty-five. Deadline for application is **17 April 2002**. Register online at <<http://www.pekin.net/dirksen/CiApplication.htm>>. For more information contact Frank H. Mackaman, The Dirksen Congressional Center, 301 South 4<sup>th</sup> Street, Suite A, Pekin, IL 61554; (309) 347-7113; fax: (309) 347-6432; <[fmackaman@pekin.net](mailto:fmackaman@pekin.net)>.

### Graduate Center, CUNY and American Social History Project

The Graduate Center of the City University of New York (CUNY) and the American Social History project will host one of nine regional summer seminars sponsored by the National Endowment of the Humanities. The seminars will focus on the development of multimedia instruction in the humanities classroom. The program entails a five day seminar from 2 June to 7 June, a year long online seminar, and follow-up meetings. Selection of participants will include faculty, librarians, educators and archivists at New York metropolitan universities, colleges, high schools, and public history and cultural institutions. Deadline for applications is **25 April 2002**. For more information contact Professor David Jaffee, Graduate Center of the City University of

New York, Department of History, 365 Fifth Avenue, Suite 5114, New York, NY 10016; (212) 650-7453; <[djaffee@gc.cuny.edu](mailto:djaffee@gc.cuny.edu)>. Guidelines and application materials are available online at <<http://www.cuny.cuny.edu/humanities/jaffee/nmc.html>>.

### Twelveth Berkshire Conference on the History of Women

The theme of the conference is "Local Knowledge <-> Global Knowledge" and will be held from 6 June to 9 June 2002 at the University of Connecticut, Storrs. Preregistration has already begun; to avoid a late fee, register by **6 May 2002**. To receive more information contact Conference Services Office, 1 Bishop Circle, Unit 4056, Storrs, CT 06269-4056; (800) 622-9905; fax: (860) 486-5221. Registration is available online at <<https://secure.necaweb.com/uconn/berkshire-regform.html>>.

### Undergraduate Studies Essay Competition

ProQuest Information and Learning and the Early English Books Online (EEBO) Text Creation Partnership are sponsoring an essay competition for undergraduate students. Papers must rely on research through the EEBO collection of primary texts. Deadline is **31 October 2002**. For more information visit <<http://www.lib.umich.edu/eebo/documents/essay2002.html>>.

### Ohio Summer Teacher Institute

The Nearby History Institute is conducting a workshop focusing on integrating local history resources and historical research for K-12 social studies and language arts curriculum. Workshop is from Monday, 24 June, through Friday, 28 June. The course is open to public historians from area archives and museums, and faculty from Dayton Public Schools and Wright State University. Twenty-five participants are allowed. For more information and permission to register contact Dr. Marjorie McLellan, Director, Public History Program, History Department, Wright State University, 3640 Colonel Glenn Hwy., Dayton, OH 45435-0001; (937) 775-3110; <[marjorie.mclellan@wright.edu](mailto:marjorie.mclellan@wright.edu)>.

### Outstanding History Educator Award

National History Day (NHD) is seeking nominations for "Outstanding Contribution in History Education" sponsored by The History Channel. The winner will receive \$3,000, a television, VCR, and a video library for his/her school. Participants in the National History Day program (including teachers, media specialists, district or state History Day coordinators, judges, or other volunteers) are eligible for the award. For nomination information call (301) 314-9739; or visit the NHD website at <<http://nationalhistoryday.org>>.

### Eisenhower Academy

The Eisenhower Academy summer institute for teachers, sponsored by the National Park Service, Gettysburg College, and

Mount St. Mary's College, will be held from 14 July to 19 July at Gettysburg College and Eisenhower National Historic Site in Gettysburg, PA. The focus of the seminar will be Dwight D. Eisenhower's presidency and effective strategies for teaching the Cold War era in the classroom. For more information contact John Joyce, Eisenhower National Historic Site, 250 Eisenhower Farm Lane, Gettysburg, PA 17325; (717) 338-9114; <john\_joyce@nps.gov>, or visit the Summer Program website at <<http://www.nps.gov/eise.instit.htm>>.

#### National New Deal Preservation Association

A New Deal Book event will be included in the National New Deal Preservation Association's convention from 3 May to 4 May. Authors will be able to sign, sell, and talk about their New Deal books. For information on presenting a New Deal Book contact Heather Becker, President National New Deal Preservation Association, Midwest Chapter, 730 N. Franklin, Suite 701, Chicago, IL 60610; (312) 543-1462; fax:(312) 944-5479; <[hbec@earthlink.net](mailto:hbec@earthlink.net)>.

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he emphasizes the importance of field trips to historical monuments and other sites.

Each chapter provides a comprehensive list of resources, including addresses for obtaining the materials. Of particular value to the teacher is the inclusion of six appendices, which contain copies of the author's handmade materials such as worksheets, synopses of videos, viewing guides complete with scaffolding questions, and rubrics for assessment.

Percoco effectively demonstrates that conflict has been an essential ingredient in achieving social progress in American history. He also makes a tantalizing point in the introduction of the book that America has a history of violence and that violence is a component of the American character. He distinguishes between conflict and violence, noting that the two are closely linked yet not necessarily synonymous. This idea is not pursued further in the text, which is unfortunate given the current American preoccupation with school violence.

Particularly noteworthy in this book is the emphasis placed upon the importance of perspective in studying history and the effects of the "politics of patriotism" associated with forms of public history, including secondary school history. These topics are too often ignored in methods texts.

It is rare to find a textbook that demonstrates the best practices of pedagogy combined with an understanding of how history is created and the uses to which history is put.

*Divided We Stand* is a valuable resource that belongs on every history teacher's professional bookshelf. It is valuable not only for the instructional resources it contains but as a model for both the novice and veteran teacher as to how history should be taught.

William I. Mitchell  
Buffalo State College

#### Margaret Sanger Papers Project

Sponsored by the Department of History at New York University, the Margaret Sanger Papers Project is aimed to "locate, arrange, edit, research, and publish" the papers of Margaret Sanger, the founder of the birth control movement. Visit the web site at <<http://www.nyu.edu/projects/sanger/index.html>>.

#### Arthur and Rochelle Belfer

##### National Conference for Educators

The Education Division of the U.S. Holocaust Memorial Museum will host a conference about the Holocaust from 7 July to 9 July 2002, funded by a grant from the Belfer Foundation. Middle school and high school teachers with five or fewer years of teaching about the Holocaust are eligible. Sessions will emphasize planning and implementing lesson plans about the Holocaust. For more information contact Sylvia Kay, Conference Coordinator, United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, 100 Raoul Wallenberg Place, SW, Washington, DC 20024-2126; (202) 488-2639; fax:(202) 488-2696; <[skay@ushmm.org](mailto:skay@ushmm.org)>.

#### Arthur and Rochelle Belfer National Conference for Educators: A Next Step

This conference is available for middle and high school teachers with five or more years teaching experience about the Holocaust. Conference is from 21 July to 23 July 2002. Previous Belfer conference attendees will automatically receive an application. One or two specific themes or topics will be discussed in greater detail, as well as approaches to teaching the subjects. Contact information is the same as that for the conference on 7 and 9 July 2002.

#### Annenberg/CPB Workshop

An eight-part video workshop, web site and guide for high school teachers is available through the Annenberg/CPB Channel. Twelve high school teachers explore the use of primary source documents in American history in the videos. For the complete workshop which includes eight VHS cassettes and one workshop guide, the cost is \$199. For more information visit <[http://www.learner.org/channel/chnnl\\_workshops.html](http://www.learner.org/channel/chnnl_workshops.html)> or email <[channel@learner.org](mailto:channel@learner.org)>.

#### New Addition to American Memory Site

A new online collection entitled, *Washington during the Civil War: The Diary of Horatio Nelson Taft, 1861-1865*, was released by the Library of Congress and is available at the American Memory website. Excerpts from the diary include reports of President Lincoln's assassination and life in Washington during the Civil War. Mrs. Willoughby Davis, a descendant of Taft, donated the diary in 2000. Visit the website at <<http://memory.loc.gov/ammem/tafthtml/>>.

### New Curriculum Guides from the Jefferson National Expansion Memorial

The Jefferson National Expansion Memorial has completed the first section (Pre-K through 7th Grade) of a curriculum guide on the Lewis and Clark Expedition and the Louisiana Purchase. Those wishing to access the guide should start at this URL: <<http://www.nps.gov/jeff/LewisClark2/Education/CurriculumGuideMain.htm>> Lesson plans and activities in this curriculum guide have been planned to accommodate a wide range of student interests and capabilities rather than imposing a rigid age/grade structure upon the materials. Teachers are encouraged to adapt the materials according to the needs, interests, and capabilities of their classes. Classroom activities are based on the standards for social studies for Missouri, Illinois, and the national standards for social studies and history.

### Seminar on the Great Depression and World War II

The Franklin D. Roosevelt Residential Library and Museum will be hosting a teacher professional development seminar entitled *The Roosevelt Era 1929-45: The Great Depression and World War II* in Summer 2004. Seminars include daily writing workshops, Internet resources, teaching with historic places, and a special behind the scenes tour of the presidential archive. Cost of the seminar is \$2,500 and includes hotel, meals, transportation, books and supplies. For more information contact Jeffrey Urbin, Educational Specialist at the Roosevelt Library; (845) 229-8114 ext. 315; <[jeffrey.urbin@nara.gov](mailto:jeffrey.urbin@nara.gov)>. Or visit the web site at <<http://www.fdrlibrary.marist.edu>>.

## Call for Papers

### INNOVATIONS IN COLLABORATION: A SCHOOL-UNIVERSITY MODEL TO ENHANCE HISTORY TEACHING, K-16

The Organization of American Historians, the American Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies are sponsoring in June 2003 a national history conference, "Innovations in Collaboration: A School-University Model to Enhance History Teaching, K-16." The sponsoring organizations seek to showcase collaborations that have promoted new venues for professional development, dynamic curriculum designs, and instructional practices that engage students in the pursuit of a richer understanding of United States and world history.

All history educators, and especially those involved in an ongoing collaboration, are invited to submit a proposal that explains how their endeavors have resulted in more compelling teaching and learning that is reflected in multiple measures of higher student achievement. Topics that might be addressed in either a sixty-minute or a ninety-minute session include the following:

- enhancing teaching in ways that connect students to the discipline of history
- extending scholarship that deepens understanding of history
- building learning communities and networks dedicated to connecting K-16 educators (How? Why? To what effect?)
- generating a passion for learning
- grounding the teaching of American history in a global context
- profiling professional development models that strengthen the teaching of United States and world history
- using the study of history to develop the understandings, skills, and democratic character essential to civic engagement

A completed proposal will: 1) Indicate if the presenter(s) prefer a 60 or 90 minute session. 2) Be specific in (a) identifying session outcomes; (b) describing the content focus; (c) identifying the audience; and (d) describing how the session will be organized. Please limit this information to two pages. 3) On a cover sheet include the names, affiliation, and contact information (mailing address, e-mail [required], and telephone number) for each participant (e.g., chair, presenters, commentators, etc.). 4) Include a one-page vita or resume for each participant.

**Send five (5) collated copies of all materials to:** 2003 Teaching Conference Program Committee, Organization of American Historians, 112 N. Bryan Avenue, Bloomington, IN 47408-4199

The conference is scheduled for 26-28 June 2003, in the metropolitan Washington D.C. area. For more information, contact Program Committee Chair Michael Wildasin at <[michaelwildasin@earthlink.net](mailto:michaelwildasin@earthlink.net)>.

**The deadline for submitting a completed proposal is 15 July 2002.**

# CONGRATULATIONS TO THE 2002 OAH AWARD WINNERS

## OAH Distinguished Service Award

**John Hope Franklin, Gerda Lerner, and Anne Firor Scott**

## Erik Barnouw Award

*Scottsboro: An American Tragedy*, **Daniel Anker** and **Barak Goodman**, producers, 2001

## Binkley-Stephenson Award

Jeanette Keith, Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania, "The Politics of Southern Draft Resistance, 1917-1918" (*Journal of American History*, March 2001)

## Avery O. Craven Award

**Don E. Fehrenbacher**, Stanford University, and **Ward M. McAfee**, California State University, San Bernardino, *The Slaveholding Republic: An Account of the United States Government's Relations to Slavery* (Oxford University Press, 2001)

## Merle Curti Intellectual History Award

## Merle Curti Social History Award

## Ellis W. Hawley Prize

**David W. Blight**, Amherst College, *Race and Reunion: The Civil War in American Memory* (Harvard University Press, 2001)

## Huggins-Quarles Award

**Françoise Nicole Hamlin**, Yale University, "The Book Hasn't Closed, The Story Isn't Finished: Continuing Histories of the Civil Rights Movement"

## Jamestown Scholars Dissertation Fellowships

**Anna Sophia Agbe-Davies**, The University of Pennsylvania, "Up in Smoke: Tobacco, Pipe-Making, and Bacon's Rebellion"

**Michele Marie Hinton**, Saint Louis University, "Jamestown Medicine: Old World Practices in a New World Environment, 1607-1666"

**Karen Bellinger Wehner**, New York University, "Craft Production, Economy and Society in Early Seventeenth-Century Jamestown"

## OAH-JAAS Short Term Residencies in Japan

**Beth Bailey**, University of New Mexico; **Davison M. Douglas**, William and Mary School of Law; and **David Farber**, University of New Mexico

## La Pietra Dissertation Travel Fellowship in Transnational History

**Matt Masur**, Ohio State University, "Consumption Junction: American Consumer Culture in South Vietnam, 1954-1963"

## Lerner-Scott Prize

**Lisa G. Materson**, Yale University, "Respectable Partisans: African American Women in Electoral Politics, 1877 to 1936"

## WANT TO BE RECOGNIZED IN 2003?

## SEND AN APPLICATION.

Competition rules are posted at <http://www.oah.org/activities/awards/>.

Submission deadline for the book award competitions is **1 October**, and for most others is **1 December**.

## Richard W. Leopold Prize

**Dale Andradé**, U.S. Army Center of Military History and Kenneth Conboy, Control Risks Group, Indonesia, Spies and Commandos: *How America Lost the Secret War in North Vietnam* (University Press of Kansas, 2000)

**Gary E. Weir**, U.S. Naval Historical Center, *An Ocean in Common: American Naval Officers, Scientists, and the Ocean Environment* (Texas A&M University Press, 2001)

## Horace Samuel & Marion Galbraith Merrill Travel Grants in Twentieth-Century American Political History

**Cathleen D. Cahill**, University of Chicago, "The Indian Service: The State, Gender, and Labor in the Trans-Mississippi West, 1869-1928"

**Sara M. Gregg**, Columbia University, "From Farms to Forest: Federal Conservation and Resettlement Programs in the Blue Ridge and Green Mountains, 1924-1976"

**Adriane D. Smith**, Yale University, "All Things Sacred: African Americans and the First World War"

**Ann Marie Woodward**, University of Kansas, "Between Growth and Entitlement: Fiscal Conservatism, Postwar Tax Policy and the Politics of 'Pay-As-You-Go'"

## Louis Pelzer Memorial Award

**Lauren Rebecca Sklaroff**, University of Virginia, "Constructing G.I. Joe (Louis): War Officials and the Dilemma of 'Low Negro Morale' during World War II"

## James A. Rawley Prize

**J. William Harris**, University of New Hampshire, *Deep Souths: Delta, Piedmont and Sea Island Society in the Age of Segregation* (Johns Hopkins University Press, 2001)

**David W. Blight**, Amherst College, *Race and Reunion: The Civil War in American Memory* (Harvard University Press, 2001)

## Mary K. Bonsteel Tachau Precollegiate Teaching Award

**Ted Dickson**, Providence Day School, Charlotte, North Carolina

## David Thelen Prize

**Jürgen Martschukat**, University of Hamburg, Germany, "'The Art of Killing by Electricity': The Sublime and the Electric Chair" (*Amerikastudien/American Studies* 45:3, 2000)

## Frederick Jackson Turner Award

**Adam Rome**, Pennsylvania State University, *The Bulldozer in the Countryside: Suburban Sprawl and the Rise of American Environmentalism* (Cambridge University Press, 2001)



*Introducing*

# The WHHA-OAH White House History Fellowships



[www.whitehousehistory.org](http://www.whitehousehistory.org)

The White House Historical Association and the Organization of American Historians seek proposals for projects shedding light on the roles of the White House as home, workplace, museum, structure, and symbol. Teachers and scholars whose work enhances understanding of how the White House functions in its several capacities and of life and work at all levels within the walls of the President's House are encouraged to apply. (Studies that deal primarily with political or governmental policy issues would not be appropriate for this program.)

In an effort to reach a number of learning communities, the cosponsors offer three fellowships:

**White House History Fellowship in Precollegiate Education** for initiatives that reach the K-12 classroom

**White House History Research Fellowship** for forwarding or completing dissertation, postdoctoral, or advanced academic work

**White House History Fellowship in Public History** for public presentation in the form of exhibits, multimedia projects, films, etc., or for other projects that make historical collections available to broad audiences

Awards are \$2,000/month and a travel stipend is available. We will consider proposals for fellowships lasting one to six months. **How to apply:** Send c.v. or resume, a two-page summary of your project, including the proposed final product of the research, a one-page timetable, and three professional references to: White House History Fellowships, Organization of American Historians, 112 N. Bryan Avenue, Bloomington, IN 47408-4199. Applications may be submitted electronically, via e-mail, to:

[awards@oah.org](mailto:awards@oah.org). Applicants must be current members of the OAH. Awards are announced prior to the OAH annual meeting in spring 2003.

**Deadline for application materials is 1 December 2002**



