Our Documents

A National Initiative on American History, Civics, and Service

Teacher Sourcebook, Volume II

The Sourcebook is sponsored by:

Our Documents is a program of:
The National Archives and Records Administration, National History Day and The History Channel are proud to partner in the Our Documents initiative and this second volume of the Our Documents Teacher Sourcebook. This program is not just about looking at old documents. The documents are a catalyst for getting teachers, students, parents, and all Americans to strengthen their understanding and appreciation of the records and values that undergird our democracy. Exploring the historical milestones they represent teaches us about our continual quest to “form a more perfect union.”

This year we are making more supporting material for the 100 documents available, sharing new ideas on how you can use these documents in your classes, and inviting you and your students to participate in a vote on the 10 most significant documents in our history.

When President Bush launched the Our Documents initiative in September 2002 he noted, “Our history is not a story of perfection. It is a story of imperfect people working toward great ideas.” We hope you find this sourcebook helpful as your classes explore the great ideas at the heart of our union.

John W. Carlin
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Our Documents: A National Initiative on American History,

A Timeline: THE 100 DOCUMENTS IN CHRONOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

1776
Lee Resolution—
Richard Henry Lee, Virginia delegate to the Second Continental Congress, urges the Congress to declare colonial independence from Great Britain on June 7. His statement to the Revolutionary Congress, which is adopted and forms the basis of the Declaration of Independence, is known as the “Lee Resolution.”

Declaration of Independence—
The formal statement of separation and list of grievances, as well as the principles that inform them, is issued by the Continental Congress on behalf of the 13 American colonies against Great Britain.

1777
Articles of Confederation—
This is the first “blueprint” of government adopted by the Continental Congress during the Revolutionary War. Wary of a strong central power in the wake of their experiences with Britain, the Articles reserve the right for each state to maintain its sovereignty, freedom and independence. The Articles identify Americans as citizens of their own state first, and of the United States second.

1778
Treaty of Alliance with France—
Believing that they would benefit militarily by allying themselves with a powerful nation, the revolutionary colonies form an alliance with France against Great Britain. According to this first military treaty of the new nation, the United States will provide for a defensive alliance to aid France should England attack, and neither France nor the United States will make peace with England until the independence of the United States is recognized.

1782
Original Design of the Great Seal of the United States—
Several years in the making, the Great Seal is adopted by Congress; it symbolizes the sovereignty of the new nation.

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Original Design of the Great Seal of the United States—
Several years in the making, the Great Seal is adopted by Congress; it symbolizes the sovereignty of the new nation.
**Treaty of Paris**—Ending the war between Great Britain and its former colonies, this treaty formally recognizes the United States as an independent nation.

**Virginia Plan**—Having agreed the Articles of Confederation were too weak a basis on which to build a new national government, the delegates to a convention charged with creating a new Constitution for the United States adopt this new blueprint for government on May 29. Written by Virginia convention delegate James Madison, this plan proposes a strong central government composed of three branches: legislative, executive, and judicial. It also enables the legislative branch to veto state laws and use force against states that fail to fulfill their duties.

**Northwest Ordinance**—This ordinance, passed by the Confederation Congress on July 13, establishes the United States’ control over the territory north of the Ohio River and east of the Mississippi River. The ordinance lays the groundwork for national westward expansion by defining steps for the creation of new states.

**National History Day** is a nationally acclaimed history education program that is promoting the study of civics and citizenship among the nation’s students and teachers. National History Day is encouraging students in grades 6-12 to participate in its annual student competition on *Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History* and is challenging teachers to develop lessons to restore the study of our nation’s heritage to a prominent place in the classroom. To find out more, go to www.nationalhistoryday.org.

**The National Archives and Records Administration** is a federal agency that provides ready access to essential government records that document the rights of American citizens, the actions of Federal officials, and the national experience. Through the National Archives Experience, the National Archives is developing new, interactive educational programs to give people a deeper understanding of the contemporary importance and value of our country’s recorded history. To find out more, go to www.archives.gov.

**USA Freedom Corps** is a White House Coordinating Council created by President George W. Bush to help foster a culture of service, citizenship and responsibility in America’s communities. To find out more, go to www.usafreedomcorps.gov.

**The Teacher Sourcebook** is sponsored by The History Channel. Now reaching 83.2 million Nielsen subscribers, The History Channel brings history to life in a powerful manner and provides an inviting place where people experience history personally and connect their own lives to the great lives and events of the past. The History Channel received the prestigious Governor's award from the Academy of Television Arts & Sciences for the network’s Save Our History campaign dedicated to historic preservation and education. Find out more at www.historychannel.com.
1787 continued

Constitution of the United States—
After months of debate in Philadelphia, the Convention charged with constructing a system of government to replace that created by the Articles of Confederation adopts a new national Constitution. This Constitution creates a representative democratic republican form of government with a system of checks and balances. The new government will have three branches: the Legislative branch that will include a House of Representatives and a Senate, an Executive branch, and a Judicial branch.

Federalist Paper No. 10—
In order for the newly drafted Constitution to become law, it needs to be ratified by nine of the 13 states. Some voters in the states have to be convinced that the new Constitution is worth adopting. The Federalist Papers, which are a series of newspaper essays written by James Madison, Alexander Hamilton, and John Jay, are written to promote the ratification of the Constitution. In Federalist No. 10, Madison argues that the representative democratic republican form of government created by the new Constitution provides a remedy for the diseases to which such governments are most prone: factions.

Contents

Introduction: Expanding Initiative

4 Toward “A More Perfect Union”: The Our Documents Initiative in its Second Year

7 The People’s Vote, Town Hall Meeting & The Preservation Video

Working with Our Documents

10 Understanding Our Documents: A Competition for Students

11 Teaching Our Documents: A Lesson Competition for Educators

13 List of the 100 Milestone Documents

15 Introducing Students to Primary Source Documents

Lesson Plans:

20 Numerous, Various, Revealing, Ubiquitous, and Teachable Documents

35 Worksheets for Analyzing Historical Sources

42 Using Our Documents to Meet Local Standards: A View from Virginia

47 Lessons that Work: Last Year’s Our Documents 3 Educator Competition Winners

48 Jefferson and the Exploration of the West

51 George Washington’s Farewell Address

57 “Jim Crow Must Go”: the Civil Rights Act of 1964

More About Our Documents

72 Preserving Our Documents: The Charters of Freedom

78 Selected Bibliography

in order to form a more perfect union

we the people

discover... investigate... participate

> www.ourdocuments.gov
Toward “A More Perfect Union”:

The Our Documents initiative revolves around 100 milestone documents drawn from thousands of public laws, Supreme Court decisions, inaugural speeches, treaties, constitutional amendments, and other national artifacts that have shaped us as a people. These documents, which reflect the diversity and unity of our nation, are available to the public through the Our Documents Web site: www.ourdocuments.gov. The goal of the initiative is to engage students, teachers, parents, and members of the general public in reading the milestone documents, reflecting upon them, and discussing them in the hopes of creating “a more perfect union.”

It is the purpose of Our Documents: A National Initiative on American History, Civics, and Service, sponsored by the National Archives and Records Administration, National History Day, and the USA Freedom Corps to promote public exploration of how our democracy has changed over time.

Last year, that engagement took many forms. The 100 Documents and the Our Documents Teacher Sourcebook were posted on the www.ourdocuments.gov website. 40,000 hardcopies of the Teacher Sourcebook were distributed to educators across the country. Our Documents sponsored a teacher lesson plan competition to generate use of the documents and appreciation for the nation’s history in the schools. The winning lessons from last year’s competition are published in this volume of the Teacher’s Sourcebook. Our Documents also conferred recognition upon students who used the documents in their 2003 National History Day projects in historically innovative ways.

This year, the Our Documents initiative continues. The updated Web site and this volume of the Teacher Sourcebook are available to educators. Our Documents will also hold another lesson plan competition for educators, and students will again be recognized at the June 2004 National History Day Awards Ceremony for making excellent use of the documents in History Day projects. We are, moreover, encouraging educators and students to join the general public in a national Our Documents vote. Starting on September 17th, 2003, Constitution Day, Americans will begin casting votes for their personal top ten most significant documents in United States history. Participants can write in their own choices, or choose from the list of 100 milestone documents (see pages 7-8 for more details). Cast your vote at www.ourdocuments.gov.
The Our Documents Initiative in its Second Year

The Our Documents Teacher Sourcebook: Volume II

What do Matthew Brady, Carrie Chapman Catt, Ansel Adams, Orson Welles, and J. Howard Miller have to do with the 100 milestone documents? A few hints: Matthew Brady created the first photographic documentation of a war. Carrie Chapman Catt was the president of the National American Woman Suffrage Association in 1920. Orson Welles produced plays for the Federal Theater Project, a program of the Works Progress Administration established during the Depression to relieve unemployment among artists and writers. J. Howard Miller created some of the most memorable posters designed to rally the public for war in the 1940s, including the easily recognizable “Rosie the Riveter” poster calling women to work in the nation’s factories as men left for battle overseas.

Indeed, these individuals may not be the first to come to mind when looking over the list of milestone documents, but their lives are very much connected to them. Without Matthew Brady, we would know less than we do about Document 39, the Articles of Agreement Relating to the Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia, because Matthew Brady photographed the location where those articles ending the Civil War were signed. Without Carrie Chapman Catt’s diligent efforts, Document 63, the Nineteenth Amendment, might not have been ratified and women might still not possess the right to vote. After Franklin Roosevelt’s joint address to Congress leading to a Declaration of War against Japan in 1941, Document 73, J. Howard Miller and an army of artists were charged with creating dozens of posters designed to unify Americans behind the war effort. These individuals have left what we might view as the “supporting record” of the 100 milestone documents. These supporting materials are the focus of the lessons and activities contained within this volume of the Our Documents Teacher Sourcebook. One aim here is to expose the range and variety of materials related to the milestone documents, materials that reveal the depth and character of the documents themselves. Accordingly, the lessons and materials within this volume focus on selected photographs, posters, fliers, print documents and other materials that support the 100 milestone documents themselves.
This volume of the Our Documents Teacher Sourcebook also seeks to relate the milestone documents to this year’s National History Day theme, Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History. All of the individuals mentioned above, for example, can be connected to this year’s National History Day theme. Matthew Brady’s use of the new media of photography, for example, yielded a record of war that transformed Americans’ views of military encounters. Suffragist Carrie Chapman Catt helped to transform the nature of political exchange in the United States by pushing for the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment. The milestone documents’ supporting materials do not necessarily have to relate to individuals, however. Orson Welles was a director involved in the Federal Theater Project, but one does not have to focus on him or any other director in research on that subject. Print materials like the playbill you will see within this Sourcebook came from the Federal Theater Project, part of the second half of the New Deal (Document 69). Such items are supporting materials that can be examined for the encounters and exchanges they generated between artists, the public, and the federal government.

This sourcebook offers the educator several resources designed to facilitate the use of the milestone documents in the classroom. The list of documents, timeline, and selected bibliography are reprinted here to generate basic comprehension and further exploration of our nation’s archived past. Information on this year’s student and educator competitions are included, as well. This volume also contains thoughtful lesson plans and worksheets that illuminate the variety of primary sources supporting the milestone documents, from photos to posters to other kinds of print materials. The lesson plans also tie the milestone documents and supporting materials to this year’s National History Day theme, Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History. Another activity shows how one teacher adapted Our Documents to effectively meet local standards. Finally, Our Documents recognizes last year’s teacher competition winners by publishing their lesson plans, with the hope that other teachers will benefit from their innovative use of the documents.
The People’s Vote, Town Hall Meeting, & The Preservation Video

Discover... Investigate... Participate in Our Documents

We invite all Americans to participate in Our Documents through a series of events and programs to get us thinking, talking, and teaching about the milestone documents that have helped create the United States of America. The initiative includes:

The People’s Vote: 100 Documents That Shaped America

Starting on Constitution Day, September 17, all Americans will be able to vote on what they have found to be the 10 most significant documents in American History. Write in your favorite documents or choose from the list of the 100 milestone documents provided by the National Archives. Whole schools can get involved in this discussion and then vote at www.usnews.com/vote.

U.S. News and World Report is sponsoring the national vote by creating a special issue detailing these milestone documents. The commemorative issue will provide a paper ballot for the national vote and be available on newsstands starting September 15. Go to www.usnews.com/vote for more information or to vote for your top 10 documents.

Our Documents Poster

Celebrate the documents that founded our nation and made America what it is today. Siemens is helping Americans understand the importance of these milestone documents by underwriting an exciting commemorative poster. Contact your NHD coordinator at www.nationalhistoryday.org or e-mail info@nationalhistoryday.org to receive a copy of this special poster for your classroom, library, and school.
Web Site Fosters Dialogue About Democracy

Go to www.ourdocuments.gov and see the original speeches, international treaties, Supreme Court cases, patent designs, and Constitutional amendments that changed the course of history. Read transcriptions and historical interpretations of these documents. Have your class view a comprehensive annotated timeline of the documents and use these resources to prepare NHD projects.

Our Documents Town Hall Meeting

The History Channel presents Our Documents Town Hall Meeting, exploring National Archives's collection of 100 milestone documents and what these documents mean to our lives today. Stacey Bredhoff, Senior Curator from the National Archives, Dr. James Horton from George Washington University, and Dr. Steven Gillon from the University of Oklahoma will lead the discussion with middle and high school student participants. This program may be taped for classroom use. Go to www.historychannel.com or check your local cable listings for show times.

Save Our History™: Our Documents A Preservation Documentary

Airdate: Saturday, December 20, 2003. The National Archives reopened the Rotunda for the Charters of Freedom on September 17, 2003. The U.S. Constitution, Declaration of Independence and the Bill of Rights have been conserved and their encasements have been updated. But what technology is used for preservation? What are some of the lesser known documents in the collection that have had an important impact on our lives? Find out the answers to these and many other questions when The History Channel explores Our Documents in a new Save Our History documentary, dedicated to historic preservation and history education. A free study guide for students and teachers will be available on line at www.savehistory.com closer to air date. Go to www.historychannel.com or check your local cable listing for show times.

Our Documents: A Hundred Documents That Shaped The Nation

Oxford University Press has published a commemorative book of the 100 milestone documents that have shaped our nation. Comprised of documents judged by the staff of the National Archives to be essential in the development of the United States from its founding to 1965, Our Documents begins with a forward by award-winning historian Michael Beschloss, a preface by the Archivist of the U.S., and an essay on how the documents were selected. Filled with color photos and historical information on documents such as the original design for the Great Seal, the patents for the electric light bulb, the check that purchased Alaska, and many other fascinating documents, this book is the perfect companion for students, teacher, and all Americans who appreciate the historical legacy of the nation's archives. Order your book today at www.oup-usa.org!

Help us form a More Perfect Union...

Go to www.ourdocuments.gov today!
1788

Federalist Paper No. 51—
Hamilton and Madison argue in Federalist No. 51 that the three branches of government created by the Constitution effectively divide power among them, allowing each branch to check the power of the others, as well as itself. Adopting the new Constitution would therefore create a government capable of resisting tyranny, and hence, securing freedom. Nine states ratify the Constitution, and it then goes into effect. However, New York and Virginia only agree to ratification on the condition that a Bill of Rights be added. The Constitution on its own only defines the rights of the state and federal governments in relation to each other, and these states want a series of amendments to the Constitution that protect the rights of individual citizens.

1789

President George Washington’s First Inaugural Speech—
George Washington is unanimously elected President by the Electoral College, and John Adams serves as the nation’s first vice president. The new President gives the First Inaugural Address on April 30.

Federal Judiciary Act—
In accordance with the new Constitution, Congress passes the Federal Judiciary Act, signed by President Washington on Sept. 24, creating the Supreme Court and the lower federal courts.

1791

Bill of Rights—
The first 10 amendments to the Constitution, known as the Bill of Rights, are ratified by the states. These Amendments define citizens’ rights in relation to the government and include guarantees of freedom of speech and religion, and the right to a speedy and public trial.
For more than 25 years National History Day (NHD), a non-profit history education program dedicated to improving the way history is taught and learned, has promoted systemic educational reform related to the teaching and learning of history in America’s schools. The year-long NHD program engages students in grades 6–12 in the process of discovery and interpretation of historical topics. Student participants produce dramatic performances, imaginative exhibits, multimedia documentaries, and research papers based on research related to an annual theme. These projects are then evaluated at local, state, and national competitions. Through participation in the competitions, students not only gain a deeper understanding of history, they improve their research, presentation, and critical thinking skills. With programs in 49 states and the District of Columbia, NHD engages all types of students—public, private, parochial and home-school students; urban, suburban, and rural. More than 700,000 students participate in the NHD program yearly.

In joining with the National Archives and Records Administration and the U.S.A. Freedom Corps in the Our Documents Initiative this year, NHD hopes to expand appreciation of our nation’s history among students, as well as to promote excellent teaching in the nation’s schools. Students are invited to enter the Our Documents contest by using one or more of the milestone documents in projects related to this year’s National History Day Theme, Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History.

As in past years, any student in grades 6–12 may participate in the National History Day program in either the Junior (grades 6–8) or Senior (grades 9–12) divisions. Winners of the National History Day/Our Documents Competition will be announced at the national contest held at the University of Maryland at College Park, June 13–17, 2004. For more information on National History Day, visit the NHD website at www.nationalhistoryday.org.
Teaching Our Documents
A Lesson Competition for Educators

Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History

Again this year, NHD is offering an opportunity for history, social studies, civics, and government teachers to develop document-based lesson plans for national awards and distribution. Teaching Our Documents: A Lesson Competition for Educators invites teachers to develop and test a classroom lesson focusing on one or several of the 100 Milestone Documents in United States history. Lessons should engage students in a meaningful examination of the documents within their historical context. Awards will be announced at the annual National History Day national competition June 13–17, 2004, at the University of Maryland at College Park. Teachers should adhere to the following guidelines in preparing for the Our Documents teacher competition.

Contest Rules:

I. Participation

- Participation is open to history, social studies, civics, and government teachers in public, private, parochial, and home schools.
- Participation is open to teachers in upper elementary grades (grades 4-6), and middle and high schools.

II. Lesson Content

- Our Documents Connection

Your lesson should focus on a teaching activity related to your choice of one or several of the 100 Milestone Documents, and should explain its connection to NHD’s 2004 theme, Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History.

- Historical Background

Your lesson should include a brief section on the historical background (context) of the document(s).

- Cross-curricular Connections

You should include a statement explaining your lesson’s relationship to history as well as to classes in other disciplines. (e.g., How can this lesson be used in classes other than American History?)

Mail your lesson by March 15, 2004 to:
Teaching Our Documents,
National History Day,
0119 Cecil Hall,
University of Maryland,
College Park, MD 20742
Teaching Activities
Your lesson should include a substantive teaching activity that engages students in a critical examination of the documents within the context of United States History (and World History, if appropriate). The lesson should also identify skills that are developed through this lesson (e.g., technological skills, reading, etc.)

III. Lesson Format
Your lesson must follow the following format:
- Title
- Our Documents and Theme Connection
- List of Document(s) (List the Our Document(s) in the order in which they are used.)
- Historical Background
- Cross-Curricular Connections
- Teaching Activities (All teaching activities must be written so that other teachers might understand and use them.)

IV. Lesson Success
- Include a two-page report on the success and usefulness of your lesson. This means you must pilot your lesson in your classroom!
- Include two letters of recommendation from your students detailing their experience and perspective on the success of your lesson.

V. Awards
Awards will be presented to teachers in elementary, middle and high schools for the Outstanding Document Lesson related to Exploration, Encounter, Exchange in History.
The following is a list of 100 milestone documents, compiled by the National Archives and Records Administration, and drawn primarily from its nationwide holdings. The documents chronicle United States history from 1776 to 1965.

The list begins with the Lee Resolution of June 7, 1776, a simple document resolving that the United Colonies “are, and of right, ought to be free and independent states. . .” and ends with the Voting Rights Act of 1965, a statute that helped fulfill the promise of freedom inherent in the first documents on the list. The remaining milestone documents are among the thousands of public laws, Supreme Court decisions, inaugural speeches, treaties, constitutional amendments, and other documents that have influenced the course of United States history. They have helped shape the national character, and they reflect our diversity, our unity, and our commitment as a nation to continue to work toward forming “a more perfect union.”

The decision not to include milestone documents since 1965 was a deliberate acknowledgement of the difficulty in examining more recent history. As stated in the guidelines for the National History Standards, developed by the National Center for History in the Schools, “Historians can never attain complete objectivity, but they tend to fall shortest of the goal when they deal with current or very recent events.”
42. Treaty of Fort Laramie, 1868
43. 14th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: Civil Rights, 1868
44. 15th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: Voting Rights, 1870
45. Act Establishing Yellowstone National Park, 1872
46. Thomas Edison's Patent Application for the Light Bulb, 1880
47. Chinese Exclusion Act, 1882
48. Pendleton Act, 1883
49. Interstate-Commerce Act, 1887
50. Dawes Act, 1887
51. Sherman Anti-Trust Act, 1890
52. Plessy v Ferguson, 1896
53. De Lome Letter, 1898
54. Joint Resolution to Provide for Annexing the Hawaiian Islands to the United States, 1898
55. Platt Amendment, 1903
56. Theodore Roosevelt's Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine, 1905
57. 16th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: Federal Income Tax, 1913
58. U.S. 17th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: Direct Election of Senators, 1913
59. Keating-Owen Child Labor Act, 1916
60. Zimmermann Telegram, 1917
61. Joint Address to Congress Leading to a Declaration of War Against Germany, 1917
62. President Woodrow Wilson's 14 Points, 1918
63. 19th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: Women's Right to Vote, 1920
64. Boulder Canyon Project Act, 1928
65. Tennessee Valley Authority Act, 1933
66. National Industrial Recovery Act, 1933
68. Social Security Act, 1935
69. President Franklin Roosevelt's Radio Address unveiling second half of the New Deal, 1936
70. President Franklin Roosevelt's Annual Message to Congress, 1941
71. Lend Lease Act, 1941
73. Joint Address to Congress Leading to a Declaration of War Against Japan, 1941
74. Executive Order 9066: Japanese Relocation Order, 1942
75. Eisenhower's Order of the Day, June 6, 1944
76. Servicemen's Readjustment Act, 1944
77. Manhattan Project Notebook, 1945
78. Surrender of Germany, 1945
79. United Nations Charter, 1945
80. Surrender of Japan, 1945
81. Truman Doctrine, 1947
82. Marshall Plan, 1948
83. Press Release Announcing U.S. Recognition of Israel, 1948
84. Executive Order 9981: Desegregation of the Armed Forces, 1948
85. Armistice Agreement for the Restoration of the South Korean State, 1953
86. Senate Resolution 301: Censure of Senator Joseph McCarthy, 1954
89. Executive Order 10730: Desegregation of Central High School, 1957
90. President Dwight D. Eisenhower's Farewell Address, 1961
91. President John F. Kennedy's Inaugural Address, 1961
92. Executive Order 10924: Establishment of the Peace Corps, 1961
93. Transcript of John Glenn's Official Communication With the Command Center, 1962
94. Aerial Photograph of Missiles in Cuba, 1962
95. Test Ban Treaty, 1963
96. Official Program for the March on Washington, 1963
97. Civil Rights Act, 1964
98. Tonkin Gulf Resolution, 1964
99. Social Security Act Amendments, 1965
100. Voting Rights Act, 1965

All of the documents listed above are in the holdings of the National Archives and Records Administration, except where noted with an **.
Introducing Students to Primary Source Documents
— By Lee Ann Potter, National Archives and Records Administration
Reprinted Courtesy of National Archives and Records Administration

Primary source documents, such as those included in the Our Documents project, fascinate students because they are real. They are not simply words that were written decades ago, but rather, the actual, tangible evidence that exists today that links us to the past and to those individuals who came before us.

Perhaps because they are of such interest to students, using primary source documents in the classroom helps to teach and reinforce important historical thinking skills.

Primary Documents are useful in the classroom because:
1. They prompt students to ask questions.
2. They encourage students to acknowledge various points of view.
3. They help establish context for historical events.
4. They allow students to discover evidence.
5. They help students see cause-and-effect relationships.
6. They encourage students to compare and contrast evidence.
7. They help students understand continuity and change over time.
8. They force students to consider and recognize bias.
9. They make students question where information comes from.
10. They drive students to determine validity and reliability of sources.
11. They enable students to realize the importance of referencing multiple resources for information.

1794
Patent for the Cotton Gin—Eli Whitney’s invention of the cotton gin, for which he receives a patent on March 14, creates a more efficient and rapid method of processing cotton.

1796
President George Washington’s Farewell Address*—In his farewell presidential address, President Washington advises American citizens to view themselves as unified, to avoid political parties, and to be wary of attachments and entanglements with other nations.

1798
Alien and Sedition Acts—Passed in preparation for an anticipated war with France, these acts are also intended to stop the Democratic Republican opposition in a Federalist-controlled Congress. The acts tighten restrictions on foreign-born Americans (many of whom favored the Democratic Republicans) and limit speech critical of the government.

1803
President Thomas Jefferson’s Secret Message to Congress Regarding Exploration of the West—In his secret message of Jan. 18, President Thomas Jefferson asks Congress for $2,500 to explore the West—all the way to the Pacific Ocean. At the time, the territory does not belong to the United States. Congress agrees to fund the expedition that would be led by Meriwether Lewis and William Clark.

Louisiana Purchase Treaty—In this transaction with France, signed on April 30, the United States purchases 828,000 square miles of land west of the Mississippi River for $15 million. For roughly 4 cents an acre, the country doubles in size, expanding the nation westward.

www.ourdocuments.gov
Introducing students to primary sources can turn them on to history like little else can. The National Archives and National History Day recognize this power and suggest the following guidelines for using primary sources as teaching tools:

1. Determine what is usable in the document.
2. Decide how the document can be dropped into the curriculum.
3. Relate the document to larger issues or concepts of study.
4. Determine what personal application the document has for students.
5. Establish the context of the document.
6. Work directly with the document.
7. Use documents to raise questions for further research.
8. Use documents when longer reading assignments would be too much for the time available.
9. Allow the student to become the historian and examine the document as a historian’s tool.

Finally, we offer the following suggestions for incorporating primary sources into instruction.

1. **Focus Activity**
Introduce document analysis as a regular activity at the beginning of each class period to focus student attention on the day’s topic.

For example: Place a document on an overhead projector for students to see as they enter the room; or meet students at the door and hand them a document as they enter. As soon as the bell rings, begin a discussion.

2. **Brainstorming Activity**
Launch a brainstorming session prior to a new unit of study with a document. This will alert students to topics that they will study.

For example: Distribute one or more documents to students and ask them what places, names, concepts, and issues are contained in it/them, along with what questions they prompt. Write these on a sheet of butcher paper. Keep this list posted in the room for the duration of the unit. Check off items as they are studied in the unit.

3. **Visualization Exercise**
Encourage students to visualize another place or time by viewing and analyzing graphical materials.

For example: Post photographs, maps, and other visual materials created during the period that you are studying around your classroom. Change these images as the units change.

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1803 **Marbury v Madison**—Supreme Court Chief Justice John Marshall establishes the Supreme Courts role as chief interpreter of the Constitution in his ruling on the Marbury v Madison case. The decision establishes the right of the courts to determine the constitutionality of the decisions of the other two branches of government.

1814 **Treaty of Ghent**—This treaty ends the War of 1812, between Great Britain and the United States. Often called the Second War of Independence, the War of 1812 began amid strained relations between the two countries as the United States established itself as a nation. The treaty confirms the new nation’s sovereignty.

1819 **McCulloch v Maryland**—This Supreme Court case addresses the issue of federal power and commerce. In the majority opinion, Chief Justice John Marshall concludes that Congress does have the right to create a national bank, and that states do not have a right to tax that bank, as federal power is greater than that of the states.

1820 **Missouri Compromise**—This compromise is a series of measures designed to address the issue of the spread of slavery. It admits Missouri as a slave state, and Maine as a nonslave state at the same time, so as not to upset the balance between slave and free states in the nation. It also outlawed slavery above the 36º 30´ latitude line in the remainder of the Louisiana territory.

1823 **Monroe Doctrine**—This doctrine, laid out in President James Monroe’s annual message to Congress on Dec. 2, states that the “American continents… are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers.” The European powers, according to Monroe, are obligated to respect the Western hemisphere as the United States’ sphere of interest.

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16 www.ourdocuments.gov
4. Project Inspiration
Let documents serve as examples for student created projects.
For example: If your economics assignment is for students to create a poster encouraging young people to save money, share examples of WWII savings bond campaign posters with them.

5. Dramatic Presentation Activity
Use documents to inspire dramatic presentations by your students.
For example: Share with students a presidential speech and ask a student volunteer to deliver it to the class; or ask a student to present a dramatic reading of a letter; or assign students to write a script containing quotes from primary source documents.

6. Writing Activity
Use documents to prompt a student writing activity.
For example: Share with students a letter and ask them to either respond to it or write the letter that may have prompted it.

7. Listening Activity
Provide opportunities for students to listen to sound recordings and imagine being present at an historical event.
For example: Dim the lights in your classroom while you play a sound clip from an historical event and ask students to describe or draw the scene and/or the emotions in the voices.

8. Creating a Documentary
Show vintage film footage to encourage student-created documentaries.
For example: In place of a traditional unit assessment, assign student groups the creation of a 10 minute documentary about the time period they have just studied. Ask them to incorporate film footage, photographs, sound, and quotes from other primary sources.

9. Cross-Curricular Activity
Use documents to suggest and reinforce collaboration with a colleague in another department on assignments for students.
For example: If a physics teacher assigns students to create an invention, share with students a patent drawing and ask them to draw one for their invention along with a specification sheet. Or, share documents with students related to the novels (or authors) that they are reading in Language Arts.

1824
Gibbons v Ogden—
The Constitution grants Congress the right to regulate commerce among the states, and this Supreme Court case upholds that power. The Supreme Court rules that states cannot enact any legislation that interferes with Congress’ right to regulate commerce among the separate states.

1830
President Andrew Jackson’s Message to Congress “On Indian Removal”—
The president calls for the relocation of eastern American Indian tribes to land west of the Mississippi River, thereby opening new land for settlement by members of the United States.

1848
Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo—
This treaty ends the war between the United States and Mexico. By its terms, Mexico cedes 55 percent of its territory, including parts of present-day Arizona, California, New Mexico, Texas, and parts of Colorado, Nevada, and Utah, to the United States.

1850
Compromise of 1850—
This is a series of bills that addresses issues related to slavery. The Compromise provides for slavery to be decided by popular sovereignty (where settlers choose whether slavery will exist in a territory), in the admission of new states—prohibits the slave trade in the District of Columbia, settles a Texas boundary dispute, and establishes a stricter Fugitive Slave Act.

1854
Kansas-Nebraska Act—
This act creates two new territories, Kansas and Nebraska. It also repeals the 1820 Missouri Compromise that prohibited slavery above the 36° 30’ latitude line, allowing settlers to choose whether slavery will exist in the new territories through popular sovereignty.
10. Current Events Activity
(What is Past is Prologue) Use documents to launch a discussion about an issue or event currently in the news.
For example: Select a document that relates to a person, event, or place that is currently in the news. Strip the document of information about the date of its creation and distribute it to students. Ask students to speculate about when it was created.

11. Drawing Connections Activity
Use documents to help students recognize cause-and-effect relationships.
For example: Provide students with two seemingly unrelated documents and ask them to connect them using other documents. One possibility might be to ask them how the Lee Resolution and the Homestead Act are connected. Student answers might include, “Three committees were set up as a result of the Lee Resolution. One committee drafted the Declaration of Independence. Its principle author was Thomas Jefferson. He was the President at the time of the Louisiana Purchase. The territory that became part of the United States as a result of the Louisiana Purchase included much of the land that became available for settlement under the Homestead Act.”

12. Integrating Geography Activity
Use documents to teach and emphasize the locations where significant events have taken place.
For example: Post a large map of the United States or the world on the classroom wall. Each time a new milestone document is discussed, place a pin in the location where the document was created and/or where its impact was the greatest.

13. Small Group Hypothesis Activity
Use documents to encourage students to think creatively and consider the relative significance of a particular document.
For example: Divide students into small groups, provide them with a document, and ask them to consider “what if” the document never existed.

14. Reflection Exercises
Use documents to prompt student understanding of how actions of the government and/or events of the past affect their lives today.
For example: Provide students with copies of the 19th Amendment and the Voting Rights Act and ask students to consider the documents’ implications on their lives.

1857
Dred Scott v Sanford—
Dred Scott, a slave from Missouri, claims his freedom on the basis of living in a free state and free territory for seven years. His case ultimately goes to the Supreme Court. In its ruling, the court holds that no slave or descendant of a slave had ever been a citizen, or could be a United States citizen.

1861
Telegram Announcing Surrender of Fort Sumter—
When President Abraham Lincoln orders United States soldiers to resupply the federal arsenal at Fort Sumter, South Carolina, the fort is attacked by members of the new Confederate States of America. This clash marks the start of the Civil War. Major Robert Anderson, commanding officer of the troops at Fort Sumter, surrenders the fort to the Confederacy.

1862
Homestead Act—
This act, passed on May 20, grants adult heads of families 160 acres of surveyed public land after their payment of a filing fee and five years of continuous residence on that land. For $1.25 an acre, the settler could own the land after six months’ residence. The act accelerates the settlement of the western territory.

Pacific Railway Act—
Passed on July 1, this act provides federal subsidies in land and loans for the construction of a transcontinental railroad across the United States.

Morrill Act—
This act, passed on July 2, makes it possible for new western states to establish colleges for their citizens. It grants every Union state 30,000 acres of public land for every member of its congressional delegation. The states are to sell this land and use the proceeds to establish colleges in engineering, agriculture, and military science.
1863
Emancipation Proclamation—President Lincoln issues the Emancipation Proclamation on Jan. 1. It declares, “that all persons held as slaves within the rebellious states are, and henceforward shall be free.”

War Department General Order No. 143: Creation of the U.S. Colored Troops—President Lincoln approves the recruitment of African-Americans into the military. This results in the War Department issuing Order No. 143 on May 22, creating the United States Colored Troops.

1864
Gettysburg Address—Delivered by President Lincoln at the memorial for the Battle of Gettysburg on Nov. 19. Lincoln urges Americans to remember the cause for which the soldiers at Gettysburg died, and to recommit themselves to the principles of freedom and equality announced in the Declaration of Independence.

Wade-Davis Bill—This bill creates a framework for Reconstruction and the re-admittance of the Confederate States to the Union.

1865
President Abraham Lincoln’s Second Inaugural Address—In his Second Inaugural Address, President Lincoln speaks of mutual forgiveness, North and South, asserting that the true mettle of a nation lies in its capacity for charity.
Numerous, Various, Revealing, Ubiquitous, and Teachable Documents

By Daniel Rulli and Lee Ann Potter
National Archives and Records Administration

Thousands, if not millions, of supporting and resulting documents exist for each of the 100 milestones included in Our Documents. Unlike the majority of Our Documents, which are textual records, related materials come in a variety of formats. They can include photographs, posters, maps, cartoons, motion pictures, sound recordings, and additional textual records. These materials often reveal the social and economic causes and effects of the milestone documents, which tend to be more political in nature. And they are everywhere—in the holdings of the National Archives, other archival facilities, libraries, historical societies, museums, and personal collections.
Photographic Documents

Image #1: “Yellowstone Falls” by Ansel Adams, 1933–1942; Records of the National Park Service; Record Group 79; National Archives.

Relates to: Document 45,
Act Establishing Yellowstone National Park, 1872

About the Document
The photograph featured here is one of hundreds taken by Ansel Adams when he worked for the U.S. Department of the Interior. Adams (1902–1984) became one of the most celebrated photographers of all time. His images of the American landscape, and especially those of the American West, are familiar to millions. Born and raised in San Francisco, Adams studied music as a youth with the hope of becoming a concert pianist. At age 14, while on a family vacation, he took his first snapshots of Yosemite National Park. From that time on, Adams was captivated by the idea of recording nature on film. While in his twenties, he abandoned his musical ambitions for a career in photography, working as a portrait and commercial photographer. By the 1930s he achieved success for his visionary yet highly detailed photographs of western landscapes, especially those taken in Yosemite National Park. With the arrival of World War II, Adams went to Washington, D.C., where he worked as a photonaturalist for the U.S. Department of the Interior. Over the next decades, Adams continued to work as a photographer, staging exhibitions and writing several important books on photographic technique. He also became a...
champion of the conservation movement in the United States, speaking out for environmental concerns and serving on the board of directors of the Sierra Club. Today, Ansel Adams’s photographs remain immensely popular, conveying to millions a vision of an ideal America where nature’s grand scenes and gentle details lived on in undiminished glory.

**Teaching Suggestion**

Provide students with a copy of the photograph, and lead a class discussion about it using questions from the photograph analysis worksheet (see page 36). Share information with students about the establishment of Yellowstone Park (refer students to materials on Document 45, Act Establishing Yellowstone National Park, 1872) and Ansel Adams. Next, divide students into six small groups, and assign each group to conduct research on one of the following topics related to the photograph:

a. Adams’s role as a “photonaturalist” with the U.S. Department of Interior
b. The conservation movement in U.S. history
c. The role and history of the National Park Service
d. Other naturalist image makers and their role in U.S. history, e.g., Bierstadt, Cole, Church, O’Keeffe, Miller, and Moran
e. Photonaturalists of today
f. Photography as art and politics: Adams and others who help crusade for various causes with artistic images, e.g., Lewis Hine, the Ash Can School, and Jacob Riis

Ask a volunteer from each group to share their findings with the class, and lead a class discussion about the relationships between the topics.

**Image #2: “McLean House, Appomattox Court House, Va., where the capitulation was signed by Lee and Grant,” by Mathew Brady, ca. 1860–ca. 1865; Records of the Office of the Chief Signal Officer; Record Group 111; National Archives.**

**Relates to:** Document 39, Articles of Agreement Relating to the Surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia, 1865.

**About the Document**

This photograph is from a series that consists of several thousand glass plates (and modern derivative copies including prints, duplicate negatives, interpositives, and microfilm) produced by the photographer Mathew Brady and his associates. Brady (1823–1896) was one of the earliest practitioners of daguerreotype in the United States and soon became a prolific portrait photographer. In his New York and Washington, D.C., studios, he and his assistants photographed many of the luminaries of the 1850s and 1860s.

With the outbreak of the Civil War in 1861, Brady endeavored to record the progress of the war with his camera. Although Brady himself actually may have taken only a few photographs of the war, he employed many other well-known photographers. He and his associates, notably Alexander Gardner, George Barnard, and Timothy O’Sullivan, traveled throughout the eastern part of the country and photographed many of the battlefields, towns, and people touched by the war. In addition, Brady photographed distinguished political and military personalities who found time to stop by his Washington, D.C. studio. The result was a collection of some 12,000 images (possibly more), which constitute a rich visual document of the Civil War period.

After the Civil War, business for Brady’s studios gradually declined. In July 1874, when Brady declared bankruptcy, Secretary of War
William Belknap purchased part of Brady’s collection of negatives (approximately 2,250 plates) at public auction for $2,500. In April 1875, the War Department purchased 3,735 plates directly from Brady under express congressional authorization to “acquire a full and perfect title to secure and purchase the remainder now in possession of the artists [for] $25,000.” The Library of Congress and other institutions later acquired significant collections of Brady photographs. Other collections of Brady photographs are in the Frederick Hill Reserve Collection and the New York Public Library’s collection. Among the more than 6,000 images in the National Archives are portraits of all of the well-known Union and Confederate commanders of the war, President Abraham Lincoln and his Cabinet officers, congressmen and senators, and other noted personalities of the time. In addition, Brady and his cameramen focused on the lives of ordinary soldiers, recording daily life in camp, troops on the move, and life in forward positions. Also of interest in this series are views of Union and Confederate naval vessels, railroads, supply dumps, and hospitals. All photographs contain captions and are available online in the National Archives Archival Research Catalog (ARC) database at http://www.archives.gov/research_room/arc/.

**Teaching Suggestion**

Provide students with a copy of the photograph, and lead a class discussion about it using questions from the photograph analysis worksheet (see page 36). Tell students that the house in the photograph was where Robert E. Lee surrendered to Ulysses S. Grant, effectively ending the Civil War (see Document 39). Give students a list of all 100 Our Documents, and ask them to identify the significant places associated with each document. Lead a class discussion about the significance of place in history.
The woman suffrage movement was first seriously proposed in the United States at Seneca Falls, New York, July 19, 1848, in a general Declaration of the Rights of Women prepared by Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucretia Mott, and several others. The early leaders of the movement in the United States—Susan B. Anthony, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucretia Mott, Lucy Stone, Abby Kelley Foster, Angelina Grimké, Sarah Grimké, and others—were usually also advocates of temperance and of the abolition of slavery.

When, however, after the close of the Civil War, the 15th amendment (1870) gave the franchise to newly emancipated African-American men but not to the women who had helped win it for them, the suffragists for the most part confined their efforts to the struggle for the vote.

The National Woman Suffrage Association, led by Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton, was formed in 1869 to agitate for an amendment to the United States Constitution. Another organization, the American Woman Suffrage Association, led by Lucy Stone, was organized the same year to work...
through the state legislatures. In the 1870s, disheartened by the response to the proposed Federal amendment, suffragists also tried other approaches to winning the vote. These included using the courts to challenge their exclusion from voting on the grounds that, as citizens, they could not be deprived of their rights as protected by the Constitution. In 1872, Susan B. Anthony attempted to vote, hoping to be arrested and to have the opportunity to test this strategy in the courts. She was arrested and indicted for “knowingly, wrongfully and unlawfully vot[ing] for a representative to the Congress of the United States.” Found guilty and fined, she insisted she would never pay a dollar of it. Virginia Minor, a suffrage leader in St. Louis, succeeded in getting the issue before the United States Supreme Court, but in 1875 the Court ruled unanimously that citizenship did not automatically confer the right to vote and that the issue of female enfranchisement should be decided within the states.

These differing approaches—i.e., whether to seek a Federal amendment or to work for state amendments—kept the woman suffrage movement divided until 1890, when the two societies were united as the National American Woman Suffrage Association. Later leaders included Anna Howard Shaw and Carrie Chapman Catt. Several of the states and territories (with Wyoming first, in 1869) granted suffrage to the women within their borders. By 1913, 12 states and territories had granted voting rights to women, so the National Woman’s party, under the leadership of Alice Paul, Lucy Burns, and others, resolved to use the voting power of the enfranchised women to force a suffrage resolution through Congress and secure ratification from the state legislatures. In 1920 the 19th amendment to the Constitution granted nationwide suffrage to women.

**Teaching Suggestion**

Provide students with a copy of the photograph, and lead a class discussion about it using questions from the photograph analysis worksheet (see page 36). Explain to students that this photograph illustrates one kind of activity that participants in the woman suffrage movement engaged in during the early years of the 20th century. Remind students that although the 19th amendment was ratified in 1920, the suffrage movement began nearly a century earlier, and even today women have yet to earn salaries equal to their male counterparts. Divide students into groups of two or three, and assign each group a decade between 1840 and 2000. Ask students to investigate what kinds of activities participants in the woman suffrage movement or equal rights movement engaged in during their assigned decade, and encourage them to draw a picture of it, labeling their drawing on the back. Invite students to post their drawings around the classroom and ask them to guess when each of the illustrated activities took place. Finally, lead a class discussion about the methods and activities used in the woman suffrage movement over the decades and their relationship to the 1st amendment to the Constitution.
Poster #1: “They Shall Not Have Died in Vain,” ca. 1942–ca. 1943; Records of the War Production Board; Record Group 179; National Archives.

About the Document
The poster featured here is one of hundreds created by the War Production Board (WPB) during World War II. One month after the attack on Pearl Harbor, the WPB was created, absorbing the Supply Priorities Allocation Board and the Office of Production Management. Its chairman was granted sweeping powers over the nation’s economic life. The WPB converted and expanded the peacetime economy to maximum war production; controls included assignment of priorities to deliveries of scarce materials and prohibition of nonessential industrial activities. During its three-year existence, the WPB supervised the production of $185 billion worth of weapons and supplies.

Teaching Suggestion:
Write the significant words from the poster on the board, e.g., “work, fight, sacrifice, this isn’t peace—it’s war.” Lead a class discussion about the words with the following questions:
■ What reactions do you have to the words?
■ How would you react if the words came from the government? Why? Would your reaction be different if the message followed the bombing of Pearl Harbor? Why?

Share the poster with students, and review Document 73, Joint Address to Congress Leading to a Declaration of War Against Japan, 1941. Ask students to compare the language in the poster language with Roosevelt’s language in the speech, and to consider the effectiveness of both.
Poster #2: “Our Flags,” ca. 1917–ca. 1919; Records of the U.S. Food Administration; Record Group 4; National Archives.

Relates to: Document 61, Joint Address to Congress Leading to a Declaration of War Against Germany.

About the Document:
The U.S. Food Administration was created during World War I when President Wilson issued Executive Order 2679-A. Its job was to:
a. assure the supply, distribution, and conservation of food during the war,
b. facilitate transportation of food and prevent monopolies and hoarding; and
c. maintain governmental power over foods by using voluntary agreements and a licensing system.

Herbert Hoover, former head of the Belgian Relief Organization, lobbied for and won the job of administrator of the Food Administration. The Lever Act had given the President power to regulate the distribution, export, import, purchase, and storage of food. Wilson passed that power on to Hoover. As head of the United States Food Administration, Hoover became a “food dictator.” To succeed, Hoover designed an effort that would appeal to the American sense of volunteerism and avoid coercion. He called for patriotism and sacrifices that would increase production and decrease food consumption. “Food,” Hoover and the Administration proclaimed, “will win the war.”

While Hoover preferred the emphasis on the “spirit of self sacrifice,” he also had authority to coerce. He set wheat prices and bought and distributed wheat. Coercion plus volunteerism produced results. By 1918 the United States was exporting three times as much breadstuffs, meat, and sugar as it had before the war.

To achieve these results, the Food Administration combined an emphasis on patriotism with the lure of advertising created by its own Advertising Section. This section produced a wealth of posters for both outdoor and indoor display. All of these posters, now part of Record Group 4, the Records of the U.S. Food Administration, testify to the
government’s intent to mobilize the food effort during World War I. An executive order of August 21, 1920, terminated the remaining branches of the U.S. Food Administration.

Teaching Suggestion:
- Find a color version of this poster on line at http://www.archives.gov/research_room/arc/ (ARC #512685), and share it with students. Ask them to identify the countries represented by the flags in the poster. Using their textbook and library resources, ask students to answer the following questions:
  - How did each of these countries fit into the general scheme of the war?
  - Were they part of alliances and if so, which alliances?
  - What other countries were a part of other alliances in World War I, including the United States?

Review the circumstances surrounding Document 60, Zimmermann Telegram, 1917, and Document 61, Joint Address to Congress Leading to a Declaration of War Against Germany, 1917. Lead a class discussion about the role of alliances in World War I, and assign students to create their own poster illustrating the alliances.


Relates to: Document 97, Civil Rights Act, 1964

About the Document
This poster was created by the Equal Employment Opportunities Commission in 1989 in celebration of the Commission’s 25th birthday.

In 1964 Congress passed Public Law 82-352 (78 Stat. 241), the Civil Rights Act. The provisions of the act forbade discrimination on the basis of sex as well as race in hiring, promoting, and firing. In the final legislation, Section 703 (a) made it unlawful for an employer to “fail or refuse to hire or to discharge any individual, or otherwise to discriminate against any individual with respect to his compensation, terms, conditions or privileges or employment, because of such individual’s race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.” The final bill also allowed sex to be a consideration when sex is a bona fide occupational qualification for the job.

Title VII of the act created the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) to implement the law. Subsequent legislation expanded the role of the EEOC. According to the U.S. Government Manual of 2002-2003, the EEOC enforces laws that prohibit discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, national origin, disability, or age in hiring, promoting, firing, setting wages, testing, training, apprenticeships, and all other terms and conditions of employment. Since its creation in 1964, Congress has gradually
extended EEOC powers to include investigatory authority, creating conciliation programs, filing lawsuits, and conducting voluntary assistance programs. Today, the regulatory authority of the EEOC includes enforcing a range of Federal statutes prohibiting employment discrimination. By the late 1970s, all branches of the Federal Government and most state governments had taken at least some action to fulfill the promise of equal protection under the law.

**Teaching Suggestion**

Distribute copies of the poster and Document 97, Civil Rights Act, 1964, to students. Ask them to compare the language of the act with the language in the poster. Encourage them to generate a list of similarities and differences, paying particular attention to how the act was expanded to include other types of discrimination. Once the list is complete, challenge students to find and bring into class other examples of this language in public papers. For example, students may find the language in job applications, real estate advertisements, and loan applications.
Textual Documents

Document #1: Playbill, Federal Theater Project: The Denver Unit, “Hell Bent for Heaven”; Records of the Works Progress Administration; Record Group 69, National Archives.

Relates to: Document 69, President Franklin Roosevelt’s Radio Address unveiling the second half of the New Deal, 1936.

About the Document
The Federal Theater Project (FTP) was the largest and most ambitious effort mounted by the Federal Government to organize and produce theater events. It was intended to provide work for unemployed professionals in the theater during the Great Depression and was administered from Washington, D.C., but its many companies stretched the full breadth of the nation. It functioned between 1935 to 1939 under the direction of Hallie Flanagan, formerly director of Vassar’s Experimental Theater, and its primary aim was the reemployment of theater workers on public relief rolls including actors, playwrights, directors, designers, vaudeville artists, and stage technicians.

In October 1935, funds amounting to $6,784,036 were made available to the FTP. Representatives of the Federal Theater Project, in cooperation with local WPA offices and the United States Employment Service, set up classification boards, auditioned theater personnel, and started theater groups. It was also hoped that the project would result in the establishment of theater so vital to community life that it would continue to function after the FTP program was completed. The Federal Theater Policy Board, made up of ten people who met every four months, decided on policies and plays for the next four months, reviewed regional reports, and advised the director. Federal Theaters were set up only in states where 25 or more professional theatrical people were on the relief rolls. By January 1939, 42 theater projects were operating in twenty states. As of January 15, 1939, the Federal Theater Project employed 7,900 people, 95 percent of whom were from relief rolls. The peak employment of 12,760 in June 1936 was reduced by cuts in appropriations and also by the return of more than 2,000 Federal Theater employees to private employment.

Stage productions fell into many categories, including but not limited to new, classical, children’s, revues and musical comedies, vaudeville, circus, dance productions, stock, modern foreign, former Broadway productions, puppet and marionette, and ethnic plays. In addition to performances, the FTP sponsored educational opportunities in theater, collaboration with CCC camps, coordination with radio, and other related activities. The entire project was shut down on June 30, 1939, after a congressional investigation that focused on allegations that the project was communistic.

Between 1935 and 1939, the FTP staged more than a thousand theatre productions in 22 different states. Many of these were presented for free in schools and community centers. Although performers were only paid $22.73 a week, the FTP employed some of America’s most talented artists. In 1936 alone, the FTP employed 5,385 people in New York City. Over a three-year period, more than 12 million people attended performances in that city. One play, It Can’t Happen Here, by Sinclair Lewis, in 1936 was produced simultaneously in 22 cities and community centers, and most productions included promotional materials and playbills such as the one featured here. During its four years of existence, the FTP launched or established the careers of such artists as Orson Welles, John Houseman, Will Geer, Arthur Miller, Paul Green, Marc Blitzstein, Canada Lee and Elmer Rice.
Textual Document #1:
Playbill, Federal Theater Project:
The Denver Unit, “Hell Bent for Heaven”
Teaching Suggestion
Provide students with a copy of the playbill, and lead a class discussion about the document. (The document analysis worksheet may be useful here—see page 35.) Share with students information about the Federal Theater Project and explain that it was one of many Federal projects designed to combat unemployment during the Great Depression. Ask students to read Document 69, Franklin Roosevelt’s speech on the unveiling of the so-called Second New Deal. Ask students to use research sources and work in pairs to create a poster-sized chart that compares the various New Deal programs designed to curb unemployment. Students may use any of the New Deal programs for this project. For example, brainstorming about the types of people put to work by the Federal Theater Project may suggest categories for the chart, e.g., actors, directors, set designers, lighting operators, and writers.

Document #2: “Proclamation: To the People of New Orleans,” December 20, 1803; Records of the United States House of Representatives; Record Group 233; National Archives.

Relates to: Document 18, Louisiana Purchase Treaty, 1803.

About the Document
Immediately following Senate ratification of the Louisiana Purchase Treaty in October 1803, President Thomas Jefferson asked Congress to pass the necessary laws to carry out the provisions of the treaty. Within weeks, both the Senate and the House had passed bills authorizing the creation of stock for the purchase, and authorizing the President to take possession and govern Louisiana.

The broadside featured here resides in the Records of the United States House of Representatives. It was created in December of 1803 by the Government for the purpose of clarifying for the people of New Orleans their citizenship status. That it was written in French, Spanish, and English reveals much about the territory’s population and its past.

Teaching Suggestion:
Review with students the various elements of the Louisiana Purchase. (See Document 17, Jefferson’s Secret Message to Congress Regarding Exploration of the West, 1803, and Document 18, Louisiana Purchase Treaty.) Ask students to pretend to be a government official in the Jefferson Administration that was responsible for informing the citizens of the Louisiana Territory about the change in ownership. Encourage student pairs to develop a plan of action. After students have developed their plans, share the broadside with them. Ask them to compare the methods used in the broadside with their proposed methods in a class discussion or in an individually assigned single-page comparison paper.
Textual Document #2: “Proclamation: To the People of New Orleans,
Document #3: Message of President Andrew Jackson nominating Roger B. Taney and Phillip B. Barbour to be Justices of the Supreme Court, December 28, 1835; Records of the United States Senate; Record Group 46; National Archives.

Relates to: Document 29, Dred Scott v Sanford, 1857

About the Document
As specified in Article II, Section 2 of the Constitution, the President has the power to appoint judges to the Supreme Court. With this 1835 document, from the Records of the United States Senate, President Andrew Jackson nominated Roger B. Taney.

In 1857, as the author of the Supreme Court’s majority opinion in Dred Scott v Sanford, Roger Taney ruled that the Constitution did not recognize the citizenship of blacks who had been born slaves, and that Congress could not forbid slavery in the territories of the United States. Republicans furiously expressed opposition to this second holding. When Lincoln became President, he considered Taney an arch foe. During the Civil War, Taney ruled in vain against Lincoln’s suspension of the writ of habeas corpus (see Ex parte Merryman, 1861). The Dred Scott decision sparked bitter opposition from Northern politicians and a heated defense from the South and was one of the most important events leading up to the Civil War. This single opinion cast a shadow over Taney’s distinguished legal career and his personal reputation for integrity. There was much antipathy to Taney at his death, but there has been a gradual increase in appreciation of his contributions to constitutional law.

Teaching Suggestion
[Use this activity as an end-of-term assessment for students in a pre–Civil War United States History course.] Provide students with a copy of Jackson’s message and a list of all 100 Our Documents. Ask students to create an annotated list of all items in Our Documents that are somehow related to the message. For example, the obvious match would be to Dred Scott v Sanford, because Taney wrote the court’s majority opinion in the case. Encourage students to “leave no stone unturned” in looking for relationships to people and events that might stem from Jackson’s message. Invite student volunteers to share and explain all the connections that they found.
Worksheets for Analyzing Historical Documents

Written Document Analysis Worksheet

1. **TYPE OF DOCUMENT** (Check one):
   - ___ Newspaper
   - ___ Map
   - ___ Advertisement
   - ___ Letter
   - ___ Telegram
   - ___ Congressional record
   - ___ Patent
   - ___ Press release
   - ___ Census report
   - ___ Memorandum
   - ___ Report
   - ___ Other _________________________

2. **UNIQUE PHYSICAL QUALITIES OF THE DOCUMENT** (Check one or more):
   - ___ Interesting letterhead
   - ___ Notations
   - ___ Handwritten
   - ___ “RECEIVED” stamp
   - ___ Typed
   - ___ Other _________________________
   - ___ Seals

3. **DATE(S) OF DOCUMENT:**
   __________________________________________________________

4. **AUTHOR (OR CREATOR) OF THE DOCUMENT:**
   ________________________________

   **POSITION (TITLE):**
   ______________________________________________________________________

5. **FOR WHAT AUDIENCE WAS THE DOCUMENT WRITTEN?**
   ________________________________

   __________________________________________________________

6. **DOCUMENT INFORMATION** (There are many possible ways to answer A-E.)
   A. List three things the author said that you think are important:

      __________________________________________________________

      __________________________________________________________

      __________________________________________________________

   B. Why do you think this document was written? ________________________________

      __________________________________________________________

   C. What evidence in the document helps you know why it was written?

      Quote from the document: ______________________________________

      __________________________________________________________

   D. List two things the document tells you about life in the United States at the time it was written:

      __________________________________________________________

      __________________________________________________________

   E. Write a question to the author that is left unanswered by the document:

      __________________________________________________________

      __________________________________________________________

---

Designed and developed by the
Education Staff, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, DC 20408.


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www.ourdocuments.gov  ■  35
Photograph Analysis Worksheet

STEP 1. OBSERVATION

A. Study the photograph for 2 minutes. Form an overall impression of the photograph and then examine individual items. Next, divide the photo into quadrants and study each section to see what new details become visible.

B. Use the chart below to list people, objects, and activities in the photograph.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>People</th>
<th>Objects</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

STEP 2. INFERENCE

Based on what you have observed above, list three things you might infer from this photograph.

_______________________________________________________________________________________

_______________________________________________________________________________________

_______________________________________________________________________________________

STEP 3. QUESTIONS

A. What questions does this photograph raise in your mind?

_______________________________________________________________________________________

_______________________________________________________________________________________

B. Where could you find answers to them?

_______________________________________________________________________________________

_______________________________________________________________________________________

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Map Analysis Worksheet

1. TYPE OF MAP (Check one):
   ___ Raised relief map   ___ Natural graph/mosaic   ___ Satellite photo resource map
   ___ Topographic map   ___ Military map   ___ Pictograph
   ___ Political map   ___ Bird’s-eye view   ___ Weather map
   ___ Contour-line map   ___ Artifact map   ___ Other _________________________

2. UNIQUE PHYSICAL QUALITIES OF THE MAP (Check one or more):
   ___ Compass   ___ Scale   ___ Notations
   ___ Handwritten   ___ Name of mapmaker   ___ Legend (key)
   ___ Date   ___ Title   ___ Other _________________________

3. DATE OF MAP: ____________________________________________________________

4. CREATOR OF THE MAP: ____________________________________________________

5. WHERE WAS THE MAP PRODUCED? __________________________________________

6. MAP INFORMATION:
   A. List three things in this map that you think are important:
      1. _______________________________________________________________________
      2. _______________________________________________________________________
      3. _______________________________________________________________________

   B. Why do you think this map was drawn? ______________________________________
      _______________________________________________________________________

   C. What evidence in the map suggests why it was drawn? _________________________
      _______________________________________________________________________

   D. What information does the map add to the textbook’s account of this event?
      _______________________________________________________________________
      _______________________________________________________________________

   E. Does the information in this map support or contradict information that you have read about this event? Explain. _________________________________
      _______________________________________________________________________
      _______________________________________________________________________

   F. Write a question to the mapmaker that is left unanswered by this map.
      _______________________________________________________________________
      _______________________________________________________________________

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Motion Picture Analysis Worksheet

STEP 1. PRE-VIEWING

A. Title of film: _____________________________________________________________________________
   Record Group source: _____________________________________________________________________

B. What do you think you will see in this motion picture? List Three concepts or ideas that you
   might expect to see based on the title of the film. List some people you might expect to see
   based on the title of the film.

   CONCEPTS/IDEAS                PEOPLE
   1. ________________________________________ 1. ________________________________________
   2. ________________________________________ 2. ________________________________________
   3. ________________________________________ 3. ________________________________________

STEP 2. VIEWING

A. Type of motion picture (check where applicable)
   ____ Animated cartoon ____ Propaganda film ____ Combat film
   ____ Documentary film ____ Theatrical short subject ____ Other _________________________
   ____ Newsreel ____ Training film

B. Physical qualities of the motion picture (check where applicable)
   ____ Music ____ Color ____ Animation
   ____ Narration ____ Live action ____ Dramatizations
   ____ Special effects ____ Background noise

C. Note how camera angles, lighting, music, narration, and/or editing contribute to creating an
   atmosphere in this film. What is the mood or tone of the film?
   ____________________________________________________________________________________
   ____________________________________________________________________________________
STEP 3. POST-VIEWING (OR REPEATED VIEWING)

A. Circle the things that you listed in the previewing activity that were validated by your viewing of the motion picture.

B. What is the central message(s) of this motion picture?

C. Consider the effectiveness of the film in communicating its message. As a tool of communication, what are its strengths and weaknesses?

D. How do you think the filmmakers wanted the audience to respond?

E. Does this film appeal to the viewer’s reason or emotion? How does it make you feel?

F. List two things this motion picture tells you about life in the United States at the time it was made:
   1. 
   2. 

G. Write a question to the filmmaker that is left unanswered by the motion picture.

H. What information do you gain about this event that would not be conveyed by a written source? Be specific.
1883
Pendleton Act—
This act establishes a merit-based system of selecting government officials and supervising their work.

1887
Interstate-Commerce Act—
With the rise of the railroad industry comes a revolution in transportation. Goods produced on farms and factories move through towns and states more rapidly than ever before, transforming national commerce. By the mid-1880s, farmers and merchants, in particular, want to see government regulation of the railroads transporting their goods. The Interstate Commerce Act, approved on Feb. 4, creates an Interstate Commerce Commission to oversee the conduct of the railroad industry. With this act, the railroads are the first industry subject to federal regulation.

1887
Dawes Act—
In an effort to draw Native Americans into United States society, lawmakers pass the Dawes Act on Feb. 8. The law emphasizes “severalty,” the treatment of Native Americans as individuals rather than as members of tribes. It provides for the distribution of 160 acres of Native American reservation land for farming, or 320 acres for grazing, to each head of an American Indian family that renounces traditional tribal holdings. Undistributed land will be sold to settlers, with the income used to purchase farm tools for the Native Americans. Those accepting the system will be declared citizens in 25 years.

1890
Sherman Anti-Trust Act—
With the rise of big industry come trusts, or agreements among corporations to control prices in order to reduce competition in an industry. This act attempts to outlaw such anticompetitive business practices.
1896

Plessy v Ferguson—When African-American Homer Plessy refuses to move from a white railroad car to one reserved for colored people in New Orleans because it violates the 13th and 14th Amendments, he is brought before Judge John Ferguson in a criminal court. Ferguson upholds the state law, which allows for “equal but separate accommodations for the white and colored races.” The Supreme Court upholds the federal court’s decision, arguing that separation of the two races does not “necessarily imply the inferiority of either race.”

1898

De Lome Letter—This letter, written by the Spanish Ambassador to the United States, Enrique Dupuy de Lome, criticizes American President William McKinley by calling him weak and concerned only with gaining the favor of the crowd. It is intercepted before reaching its destination and published on the front page of William Randolph Hearst’s popular New York Journal. Publication of the letter helps generate public support for a war with Spain over the issue of independence for the Spanish colony of Cuba.

1899

Joint Resolution to Provide for Annexing the Hawaiian Islands to the United States—The United States had been developing commercial interest in Hawaii for 50 years. By the late 19th century, American leaders actively seek control of the islands, resulting in its annexation.

1903

Platt Amendment—In its war with Spain in 1898, the United States successfully drives the Spanish out of Cuba, but U.S. policymakers fear another European power, particularly Germany, might take Spain’s place on the island. The Platt Amendment, attached to the Cuban Constitution, seeks to prevent such an occurrence and maintain some control over affairs on the island through several provisions, including the following: 1. Cuba cannot make a treaty that would give another nation power over its affairs. 2. Cuba cannot go into debt. 3. The United States can impose a sanitation program on the island. 4. The United States can intervene in Cuban affairs to keep order and maintain independence there. 5. The United States can buy or lease Cuban naval stations.

Timeline continued on page 46
A Note to Teachers

“W”hat a treasure trove,” I thought when I first came to see and hear about the on-line aspect of the Our Documents initiative. Within a few minutes of my perusal of the list it became abundantly clear that these 100 Milestone Documents aligned beautifully with the United States History Virginia Standards of Learning (SOLs)—the standards upon which students are tested each Spring after their nine-month study of American history. I was excited as I put the wheels in motion to utilize these documents in my effort to prepare students for their SOL United States History Test. It became evident that there were numerous ways to link Our Documents and the SOL Test. For example, according to the SOL Crosswalk Document on content to be covered pertaining to World War I, teachers in Virginia are expected to cover the Zimmerman Telegram and Woodrow Wilson’s Fourteen Points and the League of Nations. Those documents are milestone documents. Many other documents, moreover, are on both the list of milestone documents list and the Virginia SOL Crosswalk.

I realized that, rather than conduct a standard boring routine to review for the SOL Test, I could use Our Documents to conduct a review that would engage my students both
Standards: A View from Virginia

intellectually as well as tactically. The unit that evolved required that all students be engaged with each document, be they the student presenting material to the class or the student on the receiving end. I assigned each student three or four documents to research depending on my class size. Each student was asked to report to the class on the content and substance of his or her documents. Next, I created a template for students to use that would permit them to download an image of each document and insert it into the template, provide the name of each document, and then discuss the significance of each document and its seminal place in American history. The template, which is reproduced below, has three columns for the students to fill. Using this template freed the students from having to take notes, thus saving valuable class time.

Beginning with the fourth quarter, I would start each class period with two Our Documents student presentations. The day before the students presented they would bring to me their master copies and I would duplicate a class set to distribute to the rest of the class. After each student presented I would reiterate key points on which I wanted the class to focus their study. When the two students were finished with their presentations I would give the class a few minutes to review the material they had just learned. Then I would give an exit quiz, with one question based on each document covered in class.

Using the Internet made this assignment particularly easy, as I emailed my students the template. All they had to do was cut and paste an image of the document into the appropriate space on the template, completing it with a description of the document and its significance. As an added feature each student was asked to turn in note cards that included three questions that a historian might raise when using a given document. This allowed me to extend learning beyond the mere presentation of facts, to encourage students to place the documents within an historiographic context.

I found this activity so effective that I decided to base part of my final exam on Our Documents. The one hundred question multiple choice test I designed included a question based on each document. Students had the option of studying on-line or using the handouts their peers had provided during class. This activity was particularly effective in that it reached students with all kinds of learning styles and gave them freedom of choice as to how to learn the material. The presentation aspect of the unit asked students to employ their communication skills. This activity, in short, offered both teacher and students an opportunity to meet local standards in ways that went beyond rote learning and teaching.
The Student Activity
A Web-Based Standards of Learning Review

The list begins with the Lee Resolution of June 7, 1776, a simple document resolving that the United Colonies “are, and of right, ought to be free and independent states . . .” and ends with the Voting Rights Act of 1965, a statute that helped fulfill the promise of freedom inherent in the first documents on the list. The remaining milestone documents are among the thousands of public laws, Supreme Court decisions, inaugural speeches, treaties, constitutional amendments, and other documents that have influenced the course of U.S. history. They have helped shape the national character, and they reflect our diversity, our unity, and our commitment as a nation to continue our work toward forming “a more perfect union.”

You are going to be presenting a series of Milestone American Documents as part of review for the SOL Exam in United States History.

For this project you will do the following:

1. Select five of the one hundred Milestone Documents from the National Archives Our Documents list. (You will pick your five or six documents from a hat.)
2. Research your documents online.
3. Prepare an Our Documents Report Sheet, on each of your selected documents, for your classmates.
4. Give an oral presentation to the class on your documents addressing the importance of the documents in United States History.
5. Raise three questions that a historian might ask when working with each document. These are to be typed and placed on index cards.

Points:
- Accurate completion of Our Documents Template = 50 points
- Appropriate Presentation to the Class = 15 points
- Note card consisting of three typed questions of historians = 10 points
- Professional Appearance = 25 points

TOTAL POSSIBLE POINTS = 100

James Percoco created this template for his students at West Springfield High School in Springfield, Virginia, to use as a study tool for their Virginia Standards of Learning Exam in United States History. He emailed the template to his students, asked them to download an image of each document and insert it into the space labeled “copy of the actual document.” He then asked his students to provide the name of each document and to discuss the significance of each document and its seminal place in American history. “Using this template freed the students from having to take notes, thus saving valuable class time” he explains.
Instructions

2. Copy miniatures of your documents and place them in the appropriate box on the notes sheet.
3. Write in your own words what the document is, as well as its significance in history.
4. Develop three questions about each of the five documents.
5. Turn in your work two class periods before you are scheduled to present.
6. Your work is graded. You will earn back points by making corrections.
7. I will copy a class set.
8. You will distribute the sheets as part of your presentation to the class.
9. Use the TV monitor to present each document to the class.
10. You must dress professionally for giving your presentation:
    - Gentlemen must wear a clean, wrinkle-free shirt that is tucked in with a tie.
    - Ladies must wear a dress, nice blouse with skirt or a pants suit
    - Neither gentlemen nor ladies are to wear sneakers
    - All ladies and gentlemen need to appear well-groomed
11. I will administer questions as an exit quiz to the whole class. Each quiz will be worth 100 points.
**1905**
President Theodore Roosevelt's Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine—President Theodore Roosevelt formulates his corollary in his annual messages to Congress in 1904 and 1905. It expands Monroe's 1823 doctrine that "the American continents" were no longer open to colonization by European powers by adding that "the United States has the right to intervene in affairs of Western Hemisphere nations if it is in their interest."

**1913**
16th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: Federal Income Tax—This amendment, which passes on July 2, establishes Congress' right to impose a federal income tax. It is the first personal income tax levied by the federal government.

17th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: Direct Election of U.S. Senators—With this amendment, which passes on May 13, voters are permitted to cast direct votes for United States Senators. Prior to its passage, Senators were chosen by state legislatures.

**1916**
Keating-Owen Child Labor Act—As the nation's industries expand during the Second Industrial Revolution, so too does child labor. By the early 20th century, social reformers express concern that long working hours and poor work conditions are harming the nation's youth. This act passes through the efforts of such reformers. The act limits the work hours of children and forbids the interstate sale of goods produced by child labor.

**1917**
Zimmermann Telegram—This telegram, written by German Foreign Secretary Arthur Zimmermann, is a coded message requesting Mexican support for Germany during the First World War. The message instructs the German minister in Mexico to propose an alliance with Mexico if war breaks out between Germany and the United States. In return, Germany and Japan will help Mexico regain the territories (New Mexico, Arizona, Texas) that it lost to the United States during the Mexican War. The telegram is intercepted by British intelligence, shown to President Woodrow Wilson, and helps pull the United States into the First World War.
During the 2002–2003 school year, NHD asked history, social studies, civics, and government teachers to develop and test lesson plans by relating one or several of the 100 milestone documents to the theme Rights and Responsibilities in History. We asked that lessons engage students in a meaningful examination of the documents within their historical context, and that the lessons make connections across the curriculum. We asked teachers to relate their lessons to sub-themes, including “The Nation and the Wider World,” “Individuals and Society,” and “State and Federal Power.” While we received many fine entries, our panel of judges chose the following lessons as the best in these three categories. Student evaluations of the lessons (required for the contest) were so illuminating, we thought we would include some of those here, as well.

NOTE: All documents (facsimiles as well as transcripts) referenced in the following lesson plans can be found online with the entire collection of milestone documents at www.ourdocuments.gov. All lessons and comments printed with permission of teacher and student authors.
Jefferson and the Exploration of the West

As fourth graders in Florida, my students have spent a lot of time learning about the exchanges of the land they live on throughout history. From the earliest Spanish explorers to the French who briefly touched our shores, from the British who won this land as a part of the spoils of war to the new Americans who took it over, the students have examined these countries and their impact on Florida. By the time Jefferson was looking at the land owned by the French for possible expansion of the United States, things seemed to be on an even keel for Florida. The seesaw of powers from the past had ended and the turmoil surrounding the Seminole Indians had not yet begun. Therefore, the time was right for the students to take a look at what was happening elsewhere. The Louisiana Purchase would bring about the excitement of a “new world” to the United States and expand the horizons in a multitude of new ways.
Our Document Used

Historical Background
From the 4th grade perspective, the historical background of the document takes on a very simplistic role in history. With the rapid growth of the country and the desire to expand in different directions, the addition of the land known as the “Louisiana Purchase” is of great importance for the future of the new country. The Native Americans continue to be a problem for the settlers who feel the need to move beyond the present boundaries and President Jefferson believes his expedition into the new lands of the west will help lessen the tensions in that area. He makes it clear in the document that he is concerned for the “Indians” as well as the citizens and proves once again that he is a compassionate man. By asking for appropriations from Congress to finance an expedition, he is preparing to meet the challenges head on. This will prove to be an important legacy for the future.

Teaching Activities
The lesson will begin with a review of the events at the end of the eighteenth century and their context for the people of Florida as well as the new nation. The teacher will present a map of the United States in 1800 and lead students in a discussion of problems that might lie ahead for the new nation. Students should point out that there is a vast amount of land to the West that would benefit the country. As the land belongs to another country, a debate then takes place about how to best acquire the land. As the options are discussed — just moving there and taking over, fighting to get it, asking permission, or purchasing it — the students will list the pros and cons of each option. At this point, the teacher will explain Jefferson’s viewpoint and introduce the letter. An explanation of primary sources will take place and the students will be given copies of the letter to examine. After a discussion about handwriting and spelling, students will work in groups to decipher the letter. This allows them to understand Jefferson’s ideas and interests. The students are then instructed to rewrite the letter in the language of today, making it easier for them to understand.

As this is the introduction to the thematic unit on the Lewis and Clark Expedition, there will be many opportunities to refer to the document throughout the coming lessons. The students also discuss the situation Jefferson faces in comparison to the world today and our concerns throughout the world today. They debate whether our current president could address the problems we face today in a similar manner. This allows for critical thinking and applies the knowledge of the past to current events.
Cross-Curricular Connections
This lesson is the first in a unit that I have compiled from the many resources available for the classroom and for the general public. The following is a list of the cross-curricular activities that go with the unit.

Reading: The teacher will have students read from various historical novels, such as Lewis and Clark and Me, The Incredible Journey of Lewis and Clark and In the Path of Lewis and Clark: Traveling the Missouri to compare and contrast the viewpoints and experiences of the participants in the expedition. This can be recorded in a Venn diagram, T-Chart or paragraph.

Spelling: Using the document and copies of the journals of the expedition, the teacher may compile lists of misspelled words and words that are spelled differently today. The word lists are then corrected and discussed. The teacher will also provide passages that have misspelled words to be corrected by the students, in order to practice the skill of locating words in context.

Writing: The teacher will have students compose their own letters to Congress using the language of today. Students will also keep journals of the lessons each day throughout the unit in which they respond to the experiences of the people involved in the exploration.

Math: Using information about the items taken on the trip, mileage, and money spent for the Corps of Discovery provided by the teacher, students will create word problems using the four operations. They may also design logic problems with the same information. Graphs and charts will be drawn to show the miles traveled per month and to compare the cost of items (land, supplies, labor) then and now.

Science: Using maps and journal information, the teacher will provide lists of the plant and animal life that was seen by the members of the expedition for the students to research. Each student will create a product (poster, brochure, diorama) to teach the class about their research.

Student Reactions

Reading this primary source was difficult. I experienced something new. While I was reading it I saw that Thomas Jefferson had nice writing. Can you believe that I saw the same words as the Congressmen? I guess seeing the primary sources was a great deed and I learned a lot too.

— Ashley Powell, Fourth Grade, Meadow Woods Elementary School, Orlando, Florida

I think Jefferson’s document is excellent! I think reading primary sources are exciting! Jefferson’s secret message is difficult to read. That is what I think about primary sources.

— Chris Ettel, Fourth Grade, Meadow Woods Elementary School, Orlando, Florida
Bidding Adieu: On Teaching the Historical Significance of George Washington’s Farewell Address

Plenty of ink has been spilled in addressing the historical importance of President George Washington’s role in shaping the new republican government and his political legacy. Although not known as one of our country’s more eloquent rhetors, with the aid of Alexander Hamilton, Washington crafted a compelling and observant message near the end of his second term that continues to resonate today. This lesson plan is designed to aid educators in discussing the significance, both past and present, of Washington’s Farewell Address.

The Farewell Address touches on the “Individuals and Society” theme promulgated by Our Documents. Washington played a pivotal role in defining the office of the presidency and establishing precedence for the Executive branch. Although much American History has been maligned recently for focusing on “dead white men,” failure to consider Washington’s role in the founding of our nation discounts the notion that individuals can have a profound impact on society and its institutions. Certainly, the success of the young republic resided equally in both the ideas contained in the Constitution and the persons responsible for helping to realize them. Today, at a time when civic participation is waning, this message of civic virtue needs to be reinforced in hopes of reinvigorating public life.

Historical Background
George Washington’s first term in office was marked by broad political support and the virtual absence of public opposition. Nonetheless, within his own cabinet, Washington endured a contentious conflict between Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton and their polemic debate over a “weak” or “strong” federal government. With Hamilton’s success in establishing The National Bank, advocates for a “weak” government were becoming increasingly discontent. Jefferson, along with James Madison, began to disseminate their ideas more widely through the press, eventually leading to the formation of the Democratic-Republican Party. The Democratic-Republican Party was in its nascent stage in the election of 1792 and as a result, did not play a decisive role in the outcome of the election.

Even if political parties such as the Democratic-Republican Party had become political forces, Washington’s public status was unassailable at the time. In his second term, however, the American Cincinnatus began to show signs of vulnerability, experiencing for the first time in his career open political opposition. Age began to catch up to him as he suffered from fatigue running...
the new government. In addition, he became seriously ill with influenza as well as fell off his horse, straining his back, which further slowed him down. Some people began to speculate as to whether Washington's cognitive abilities were beginning to diminish. While deterioration of the body was difficult enough, Washington felt the most pain from the increasing number of open attacks against the government and his presidency, both of which the President took personally. Some critics from the Democratic-Republican Party went so far as to appeal to the public's antipathy toward anything monarchical by arguing that Washington had made himself into a quasi-king.

Coupled with the discernable decline of Washington's public persona was a foreign policy dilemma that was becoming increasingly contentious. England and France were warring in Europe and both were looking to elicit support from the young United States. Francophiles such as Jefferson believed that the United States was obligated to support France, out of respect to the Franco-American alliance of 1778, which was strategic in obtaining French military assistance and winning the Revolution. Anglophiles believed that despite the Revolution, America's true allegiance resided with the mother country. Moreover, many wanted to preserve the profitable economic trade relationship that existed at the time between the two nations.

Washington made his position well known with the Proclamation of Neutrality (1793), which declared the United States a bystander to the ongoing European conflict. As to be expected, this decision did not endear him with either camp. As the conflict escalated between France and England, Washington sent Chief Justice John Jay to London to negotiate a deal to avoid war with England. Out of this encounter emerged the Jay Treaty (1794), which among other things recognized English naval and commercial dominance, and championed a version of American neutrality that was decidedly favorable toward England. Working behind the scenes, Jefferson and Madison plotted to prevent congressional approval of the treaty while calling into question the treaty-making power vested in the Executive Office. Once again, this debate invoked disparaging remarks about Washington's monarchical tendencies. Eventually, the treaty was approved, in large part, due to the prestige of its number one supporter—Washington. The President was able to maintain his doctrine of neutrality, but at a cost that his critics viewed as excessive.

Overall, Washington's Farewell Address sought to address three pressing issues: 1) The potential threat that political parties and interest groups pose to the democratic process as evinced by the conflict within his own cabinet; 2) The mounting criticism of the government, and in particular, of Washington and the way in which he exercised his authority; and 3) The proper role of the United States in international politics. These issues defined the political context and framed the rhetorical situation that elicited from Washington his Farewell Address.

Generally, Washington's speech was well-received. Although his advice on avoiding political parties was not heeded, he accurately predicted some of the problems that arose with party politics. By resigning on his terms, Washington's Farewell Address communicated to the public that his allegiances were completely republican, again reaffirming his status as the American Cincinnatus. Finally, his advice on foreign affairs was closely followed for some time. Washington's advocacy for neutrality helped to postpone a war with England until America was capable of fighting one.
Teaching Activity

Materials:
Copies of George Washington’s Farewell Address (facsimile and transcript of the Farewell Address available at www.ourdocuments.gov), butcher paper, markers, and tape.

Activities:
1. For a warm-up, ask students to give an example illustrating when political neutrality is advisable in international politics and when military involvement is the preferred course of action.
2. Discuss with students the advantages and disadvantages of isolationism versus global activism. Work with students by using their examples to illustrate how foreign policy decisions are often based on three dominant and interrelated issues: national security, economic development, and political ideology.
3. Extend the discussion by asking students whether and how their opinions would change if the year was 1800 and the nation had a modest economy, a weak military, and limited influence in world affairs. Again, help lead students to the conclusion that although their recommendations might have changed, the concerns (national security, economic development, and political ideology) underlying their decisions most likely have not.
4. Use the warm-up as a springboard to instruct students on the historical context and events that compelled Washington to publish his Farewell Address.
5. Once students have a clear understanding of the political context and rhetorical situation, distribute copies of Washington’s Farewell Address.
6. Instruct students to read the text at least a couple of times carefully. Moreover, tell them as they read through the text the first time to identify the introduction, body, and conclusion as well as the topic of each paragraph in the body of the text. This will help students recognize the various themes.
that Washington addresses as well as how he organizes his speech.

7. Assign students the following questions:
   A. Identify the major issues/topics in Washington’s Farewell Address. Cite excerpts from the text to illustrate your point.
   B. What actions and/or advice does Washington offer in response to the three dominant issues confronting him in his second term in office? Again, cite excerpts from the text to support your response.
   C. In light of what you know about the historical context, choose one of Washington’s “issues” and argue whether his action/advice was wise or foolish. Be sure to provide a rationale for your response.
   D. Warning about political parties and “entangling alliances” are two issues that tend to dominate the better part of Washington’s Farewell Address. Explain how both of these issues relate to the present day and argue whether Washington’s advice is still applicable. (For example, think about the role political parties play in shaping public policy and the country’s fragile, newly formed international anti-terrorist coalition.)

8. Upon completing the questions, divide the class up into six groups and assign each group question B, C, or D. Instruct students to come up with a group answer to the assigned question. (Allow students some time to discuss their responses.) After the group is finished, ask those groups working on B to post their response on one wall, C on another wall, and D on yet another wall.

9. Instruct the B groups to read and critique the C responses, C groups to evaluate the D responses, and D groups to assess the B responses. Repeat this step until all groups have written a response to one question and critiqued two different questions.

10. Debrief the class by reviewing responses posted on the wall and in their own papers.

11. End the lesson by first explaining how Washington’s Farewell Address was received by the public and second, by asking the class whether it believes the Address transcends time and speaks to the present.

---

**Student Reactions**

To begin the lesson I studied some of Washington's background history. I also got a clear understanding of what happened during his presidency and why he decided to retire in the first place. When the class began to get into the Farewell Address I found it interesting but also very challenging.

Well, to begin with, I found this project interesting because I learned many new things about George Washington. I understood what he thought of political parties and his disagreement with them. I also learned that he believed that our country would thrive but only if it stays together. I also got a clear understanding of Washington's point of view on how domestic and foreign policy issues are interconnected. From this whole assignment I learned lots of new stuff about George Washington that I never knew before.

On the other hand, this lesson was a challenge. The language Washington's Farewell Address is written in can be hard to understand. I more than once had to ask for help understanding what a sentence or paragraph was saying. This assignment took a long time to complete and I must have read through it about five times to understand what it was saying. Even though I did want to learn a lot and understand what Washington's Farewell said, reading through it so many times was very time consuming and somewhat tedious.

All in all I enjoyed the assignment. In the end I felt like all the time I took to work on this assignment was time well spent. I learned lots of new things about George Washington that I never knew before and I was able to work on understanding documents written during that time.

— Rachel Ibarra, Eighth Grade, Morey Middle School, Denver, Colorado
Cross-curricular Connections

George Washington’s Farewell Address fits squarely in a class on American History. The applicability of this lesson, nevertheless, can extend beyond this conventional course. With some modification, this lesson can be utilized in most World History courses, particularly when addressing the thematic issue of foreign relations. China and Japan, for example, once energetically pursued a foreign policy based on isolationism. Cross comparisons could be made to determine the conditions under which such a policy might be deemed conducive and/or detrimental to national interests. In addition, instructors for political science and contemporary issues courses might find this lesson helpful when focusing on such topics as the formation of republican governments and the role of party politics and interest groups in public life. Indeed, Washington’s words can shed light on the current efforts underway in the establishment of new Afghanistan and Iraqi governments and the Republican-lead redistricting proposals in both Texas and Colorado. Finally, students in argumentation and debate and English classes can analyze the rhetorical features and arguments in Washington’s text and generate a text-based evaluation of his persuasive endeavor.

Student Reactions

In social studies we did a lesson on Washington’s Presidency. Overall, I had a moderately easy time doing this lesson, but that doesn’t mean it was all easy. Taking notes on the lesson was one of the easier aspects of the lesson, but reading the text was somewhat difficult. After we took notes on the lesson and read Washington’s Farewell Address, we had to answer three questions. Answering the questions was the most difficult part of the lesson for me.

When we began the lesson, our teacher put up notes on a projector and elaborated a great deal on them as we went. Taking notes during this section of the lesson was not hard, all I had to do was listen and write down the main ideas. Even though hearing the lesson was a great learning aid, I feel that taking notes on the main ideas really helped me grasp the concepts that were presented.

After we had the oral presentation and took notes, copies of Washington’s Farewell Address were passed out. I read the document, understood what it was about, but did not grasp the overall ideas presented in the document. When we were done reading the paper, the teacher elaborated on the document by explaining what some common concepts that were found in it were, by making connections to Washington’s life, and most by explaining some smaller subjects concealed inside of this document.

The last thing we had to do for this lesson was to answer three questions concerning Washington’s Farewell Address. Answering the questions was the hardest part of the lesson for me. The questions were somewhat difficult to begin with, but I believe they were especially hard for me because they were what brought the whole lesson together. By having these questions at the end of the lesson, my mind brought together everything I learned and sealed it in.

Overall, I had a moderately easy time doing this lesson. Even though the questions were difficult, I found them extremely helpful in the long run.

— Tristan McKay, Eighth Grade, Morey Middle School, Denver Colorado
Assessment
Review of each student's individual response to the assigned questions; review of each group's answer to the guiding questions; classroom debriefing discussion.

Lesson Review
Overall, the lesson was well received by the class. Students came away with a better understanding of the issues Washington faced during his presidency and some of his motives for leaving office after his second term. The debriefing played a critical role in helping students realize how the very act of resignation can serve as an argument that Washington was anything but monarchal. At first glance, most students were not quite sure if Washington addressed this topic. However, when I explained to students how a speech act could communicate additional meaning beyond the literal statement, they began to realize how the speech could function as a rejoinder to the monarchal argument. In review, I would recommend presenting this general idea in advance so students would be better prepared to read the Address in broader terms. Still, this teachable moment served as a great opportunity to reinforce the lesson of how Washington served as a model of civic virtue and thus, had a profound impact on shaping the Executive Office.

The students were most vocal on the topic of foreign policy, especially in light of the country's current involvement in the Eastern Hemisphere and with its war on terrorism. Students learned why Washington advocated for a policy of neutrality in terms of foreign affairs and were also quick to recognize and debate how Washington's advice might play out in today's foreign affairs climate. In contrast, students struggled more with Washington's advice on party politics. I believed part of the problem is that because my students do not see themselves as players in the political sphere due to their inability to vote, they had a hard time assessing how party politics shape public policy and in turn, their lives. Life experiences, or the lack thereof, seemed to be a limiting factor when it came to addressing this issue in the speech. A few students whose parents are active politically were able to address this aspect of the assignment competently.

Finally, the single and largest challenge that students had with this assignment is reading the actual text. I cautioned students that some might find Washington's Address difficult to read due to both its style and vernacular. Sure enough, this was the most common complaint about the lesson. Still, I am inclined to continue to have students read the entire text. A challenge working with some older, primary texts is that the language can be difficult to comprehend. Nonetheless, with time and practice, I have found that students eventually become accustomed to the language. Furthermore, reading the Farewell Address requires patience and diligence, which are key attributes that students need to develop if they hope to become skilled researchers. Finally, there is nothing more rewarding than reading the actual words of our first President and coming away with an appreciation of their importance for the time they were written and for the relevancy that they carry today. This will not happen unless students work with the primary source in question.
Historical Background
Jim Crow laws were created to deny African-Americans the right to vote (literacy tests, poll taxes) and to separate whites and African-Americans in a variety of ways. They included state laws requiring separate schools, drinking fountains, swimming pools and restrooms, and laws preventing African-Americans from entering white businesses and restaurants.

De jure segregation is defined as segregation imposed by law. It consisted of laws mandating the separation of the black and white races. Such laws existed in the South before 1964.

De facto segregation is defined as segregation “in fact.” This kind of segregation occurred in practice, but was not imposed by law. For example, separation of the black and white races was maintained by the fact that blacks could not afford to live in white housing developments, or because whites would not sell their homes to them, or because banks would only make home loans to them if they bought homes in certain areas.

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 ended legal segregation, but the Voting Rights Act of 1965 was also required before many African-Americans could exercise their right to vote.

Teaching Activities
Please look at the worksheets, overheads and documents before you read this section. (See pages 61-68.)

DAY ONE. The students are to copy the definitions of de jure and de facto segregation given to them by the teacher into their history journals and have a teacher-guided discussion about these issues. The teacher is to display the Declaration of Independence overhead and ask a student to read it to the class. Next, the teacher is to ask the question: “Did Thomas Jefferson mean that all men were created equal, or only that white people were created equal?”

After this discussion is over, the teacher is to display “Legal Rights vs. Actual Rights.”
on an overhead and discuss this with the class.

Next, the teacher displays the “Civil Rights Pictures PowerPoint,” using the teacher information sheet to describe the pictures to the students. (See outline of images I used on page 61.) The teacher will ask the students the questions on this sheet and instruct them to write their answers in the appropriate boxes on the Civil Rights pictures worksheet: “What Story Does the Picture Tell?” (See page 62.)

**DAY TWO.** The teacher is to choose two students to read the reverse side of the “Thoughts of Civil Rights” worksheet aloud to the class. (See page 63.) Next, the students are to listen to Martin Luther King, Jr.’s “I Have A Dream” speech and John F. Kennedy’s nationally televised civil rights speech of June 11, 1963. While the students are listening to these speeches, they are to fill the “heads” of Martin Luther King Jr. and John F. Kennedy with notes about what each leader thought about the Civil Rights Movement.

After the students have completed this activity the teacher may want to have them listen to the civil rights songs “Oh Freedom” and “Which Side Are You On?” They are to follow along with the words as the songs are played. This music is listed in the bibliography section of this lesson. The teacher is to explain that these songs helped inspire the non-violent protesters during the Civil Rights Movement, and were sung in church or during protests. An excellent film to show which effectively ties these songs with the movement is Disney’s Selma, Lord, Selma. After listening to the music, the teacher will engage the students in discussions by asking questions such as, “What does this song mean?” and “How does this song make you feel?”

**DAY THREE.** The students are to copy the “The Civil Rights Movement Idea Wheel” into their history journals. (See page 64.) They are to work in groups of four to make a mural out of the idea wheel. It works best for the students to move their desks into squares of four each, and for the teacher to have cut the mural to fit the desks ahead of time. The teacher will then hand out the documents that the students are to analyze for the mural. Each group should have its documents organized on a clipboard. Local news articles can be easily found in your county’s library, or the news articles and documents that are provided may be used. I used articles from my local newspaper to relate the lesson to local circumstances. (See the Bakersfield Californian pictured at left.) A map of the United States should also be provided for the students to use; this will enable them to find where the protests occurred. Next, the students are to read the documents as a group...
and decide what pictures and information should go in each category of the idea wheel. The students must provide a minimum of three descriptive sentences and three pictures for each section of the idea wheel. At this time the teacher is to pass around the printed copies of the Declaration of Independence, The Fourteenth Amendment, and the Civil Rights Act of 1964. These documents can be printed from the Our Documents website and are to be included in the making of the idea wheel. Each group is to read these documents.

**DAY FOUR.** The students are to finish their murals and each group is to present its mural to the class. Each group must explain why it chose the pictures and the descriptions for each section of their idea wheel. Each member of the group is to explain one section of the wheel, so everyone has a chance to speak. Moreover, the group is to answer the question: “Why was the Civil Rights Act of 1964 important?”

**Cross-Curricular Connections**
This lesson would be ideal for an American history class, although I teach it in my world history class. We study Africa in the seventh grade in California and when I finished this unit, I added in the study of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This lesson would also be a useful addition to a leadership or peer counseling class. Even though Jim Crow laws are gone today, our nation as a whole still needs to learn about prejudice and the problems it produces in society. There is still much work to be done, and learning about these issues at a young age makes prejudice less likely in future generations.

**Lesson Success**
This lesson had quite an impact on my students. The reaction to the PowerPoint Presentation was not what I had expected. Many students were sad when they saw the pictures. Even though they had heard of segregation, they had not seen pictures of it or understood the hopelessness of the situation. Quite frankly, it is hard for children to comprehend that kind of hate. Even for an adult, looking back at that moment in history, it is hard to understand.

Yet it is a lesson that must be learned so that it cannot happen again. Also, by analyzing the documents and listening to the sounds of the past it becomes possible to understand the situation of prejudice among people today. According to a 2001 poll by the Gallup Organization, 71 percent of blacks “think that they are not treated very well in U.S. society.”

On the other hand, the students really liked listening to Martin Luther King, Jr.’s “I Have a Dream” speech and John F. Kennedy’s nationally televised civil rights address. Although all of my students had heard of Dr. King’s speech, I believe only a few had ever actually listened to

**Student Reactions**

I recommend this to many teachers around the world to make your schools better and the people in it nicer. So learn, not to judge people by their color but by the content of their character.

Sarah Williams, Seventh Grade, Fruitvale Junior High School, Bakersfield, California

I think other kids should take this lesson because then they’d know what the blacks have gone through and hopefully grow up to love everyone for who they are and not the color of your skin.

Melody Bayert, Seventh Grade, Fruitvale Junior High School, Bakersfield, California
They were awestruck and very moved by it. President Kennedy’s words had a similar effect, especially when he asked Americans, “Who among us would be content to have the color of his skin changed and stand in his place?”

My favorite part of the lesson was the inclusion of local history. My students learned history from reading 1964 issues of their own local newspaper, the Bakersfield Californian. I had a great time finding the news articles on microfilm in my local library. I thought it would be hard to find articles about the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the changes that took place after it, but it was easy. There were actually so many that it was hard to choose which ones to include!

Indeed, the best moment of the lesson was when I gave a student who was “always doing what he is not supposed to be doing” the Declaration of Independence. He actually read it and was interested in it! This led to another fascinating discovery: none of my students had ever seen the Declaration of Independence, and all of them studied it quite deliberately when they had it in their hands. I believe this document has a special meaning to all citizens in these insecure times we are living in today. A question that was frequently asked was, “Is this really it?”

The students enjoyed the Civil Rights songs. They wanted to hear more songs, and hear them again and again. They even sang along. This also proved an appropriate time to explain what an “Uncle Tom” was. I followed up the songs with the movie Selma, Lord, Selma, which gave the students an opportunity to see how the songs were incorporated into the Civil Rights struggle.

I included a picture of Lyndon B. Johnson signing the Civil Rights Act of 1964 in the documents the groups were analyzing. I did this so that the students could see the President signing the bill while looking at the text of the law itself.

The study of history by primary documents is an excellent teaching tool. I believe that students learn more by analyzing the actual documents of the past—better than any history book could ever teach. These 100 documents are a sacred part of our history as Americans. I did not realize how truly special they were until I shared them with my seventh-graders.

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Student Reactions

I think this plan was great and I think it would be important for others to learn. Sure, we all cover segregation in elementary school but it was made so that it didn’t look like things were so bad. This was the “real deal.” We as seventh graders got exposure to the real world. The way this all was presented made us want to keep exploring and learn more. We got to do fun projects such as coloring murals while looking at articles from the Bakersfield Californian. We listened to “I Have a Dream” from Martin Luther King and a speech from the President. We saw several pictures and watched an interesting movie. I hope other students can have the privilege of learning with this lesson plan.

Brittany Hess, Seventh Grade, Fruitvale Junior High School, Bakersfield, California

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1 “Race Relations Today,” Junior Scholastic, 10 January 2003/ Vol. 105, no. 10:11.
The following pictures were shown by PowerPoint presentation to students as part of this lesson. The teacher should ask the students the questions on the pictures' list and instruct them to write their answers in the appropriate boxes on the Civil Rights pictures worksheet that follows.

1. Colored and white drinking fountains — 1940.
   This picture was taken in front of a tobacco warehouse in Lumberton, North Carolina. It is from the book Remembering J im Crow, edited by William H. Chafe et al.
   1. What is happening in this picture?
   2. Why are there two separate drinking fountains?
   3. How old do you think this picture is?

2. Segregated movie theater — 1939.
   This picture was taken in Leland, Mississippi. It is from the book Remembering J im Crow, edited by William H. Chafe et al.
   1. Describe this picture.
   2. Why does the painting on the building say “for colored people?” And what does that mean?
   3. Of what race are the actors in film playing at the Rex Theatre? Do you think the same films were shown at the white theatres in town?

   These law officers are organizing to prevent James Meredith from entering the University of Mississippi (“Ole Miss”), an all-white university. Governor Ross Barnett tried to stop James Meredith from entering the University of Mississippi. On September 30, 1962, federal marshals guarded Meredith as he attended the University. White riots erupted (there were approximately 3000 protesters), and more than 23,000 American troops had to restore order. Two people were killed and 160 injured. James Meredith graduated in 1963. This picture is from the website http://www.life.com/Life/blackhistory/p11.html
   1. What is happening in this picture? Are the people in the picture, happy or sad?
   2. What are the men preparing to do? And what items are in their hands?
   3. How does this picture make you feel?

4. Police dog attacks man — 1963
   This picture was taken in Birmingham, Alabama. Police commissioner Eugene “Bull” Conner used police dogs to attack peaceful civil rights demonstrators. Pictures like this and others from Birmingham angered the general public and President Kennedy. These pictures helped the Civil Rights Movement gain support.
   George Wallace, governor of Alabama, was a segregationist. Wallace attempted to block the enrollment of two black students in the University of Alabama in 1963. This defied federal law and put Wallace in the national spotlight. Later in life his views on segregation changed.
   This picture is from the book King: The Photobiography of Martin Luther King, Jr. by Charles Johnson and Bob Adelman.
   1. What is happening in this picture?
   2. Why do the policemen have dogs?
   3. Why would policemen do something like this?

   This picture was taken in Jackson, Mississippi at a lunch counter sit-in. This sit-in sparked demonstrations.
   John Lewis, a civil rights activist who took part in a sit-in in Nashville, Tennessee, explained what happened:
   A group of young white men came in and they started pulling and beating primarily the young women. They put lighted cigarettes down their backs, in their hair, and they were really beating people. In a short time police officials came in and placed all of us under arrest, and not a single member of the white group, the people that were opposing our sit-in, was arrested.
   This picture is from the book Parting the Waters: American In The King Years 1954–1963 by Taylor Branch.
   1. What is happening in this picture?
   2. Why are those people sitting at the counter?
   3. Why are the white people pouring things on them?

   This picture was taken at the March on Washington. The March was a mass gathering calling for equal opportunity and passage of civil rights legislation. An estimated quarter of a million people attended. This picture is from the book Walking with the Wind by John Lewis with Michael D’Orso.
   1. What is happening in this picture?
   2. Do you recognize anyone in the picture?
   3. Why are these people marching?

6. The Fox Theatre — 2002 (local history)
   This is a current picture of the Fox Theatre in Bakersfield, CA. Recently restored, it was originally opened on Christmas day, 1930. For many years the theater was segregated, with African-Americans and “Okies” (Dust Bowl migrants) required to sit in the balcony only.

Special note: Educators may choose to fill this section with a historical picture relating to segregation in their own community’s past.
   1. Describe this picture. Why do you think it is included with the other pictures?
   2. Have you been to this theater?
   3. Why do the think African-Americans and “Okies” had to sit in the balcony?

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### Civil Rights Pictures

What story does the picture tell?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Picture Description</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drinking Fountains</td>
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<tr>
<td>Movie Theater</td>
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<tr>
<td>Law Offices</td>
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<tr>
<td>Police Dog attacks Man</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lunch Counter sit-in</td>
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<tr>
<td>March on Washington</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Fox Theatre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Instructions: After listening to President F. Kennedy’s nationally televised speech about civil rights in June 1963 and Martin Luther King, Jr.’s “I Have a Dream” speech given at the March on Washington in August 1963, fill in the thoughts each speaker had in their heads about civil rights.

**Martin Luther King, Jr.**  
January 15, 1929 – April 4, 1968

Martin Luther King, Jr. was a clergyman and Nobel Prize winner. He was one of the principle leaders of the Civil Rights Movement. He encouraged nonviolent protest to achieve rights for African-Americans. He was assassinated in 1968 by a sniper. In 1969, James Earl Ray pleaded guilty to the murder of King.

**John Fitzgerald Kennedy**  
May 29, 1917 – November 22, 1963

Kennedy became President of the United States in 1961. Some of the problems he faced as President were the Cold War with the Soviet Union and its allies, the issue of segregation in the South, and unemployment. He called the African-Americans’ demands for equal rights a “moral issue,” and called for legislation providing equal rights for all.

Kennedy sent Congress a civil rights bill; due to strong white southern resistance the bill was not passed before Kennedy was assassinated in 1963 by a sniper. Lee Harvey Oswald was the accused killer.

After the assassination, President Johnson urged Congress to pass the bill, “No memorial oration or eulogy could more eloquently honor President Kennedy’s memory than the earliest possible passage of the civil rights bill...”

Passed the following June, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 outlawed racial discrimination in all public accommodations and it gave the Justice Department more power to act in school and voting matters, among other things.
Why was the Civil Rights Act of 1964 important?
Page from the Dunlap Broadside printed version of the Declaration of Independence distributed after the original was created in 1775. Go to www.ourdocuments.gov for facsimile and transcription.
The 14th Amendment

Go to www.ourdocuments.gov for facsimile and transcription.
Eighty-ninth Congress of the United States of America

At the First Session.

Begun and held at the City of Washington on Monday, the fourth day of January, one thousand nine hundred and sixty-five.

An Act

To achieve the Fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, and for other purposes:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That this Act shall be known as the “Voting Rights Act of 1965.”

Sec. 2. No voting qualification or prerequisite to voting, or procedure in connection therewith, shall be based on race or color.

Sec. 3. (a) Whenever the Attorney General institutes a proceeding under any statute to enforce the provisions of the Fifteenth amendment to any State or political subdivision the court shall authorize the appointment of Federal examiners by the United States Civil Service Commission in accordance with section 8 to serve for such period of time and for such political subdivisions as the court shall determine is appropriate to enforce the guarantees of the Fifteenth amendment (1) as part of any injunctive relief or if the court determines that the appointment of such examiners is necessary to enforce such guarantees or (2) as part of any final judgment if the court finds that violations of the Fifteenth amendment resulting from the failure of States or political subdivisions to appoint examiners has occurred in such States or subdivisions. Provided, That the court may not authorize the appointment of examiners if any incident of the appointing power is not in the public interest.

(b) Any action taken by any political subdivision to terminate, or by any State to terminate, the appointment of Federal examiners under the provisions of this section shall be invalid unless (1) it has been done in good faith and has been promptly and substantially corrected by the State or local action, (2) the continuing effect of such failure has been eliminated, and (3) there is no reasonable possibility that such recurrence will occur in the future.

(c) If in a proceeding instituted by the Attorney General under this Act to enforce the provisions of the Fifteenth amendment to any State or political subdivision the court finds that a test or device has been used for the purpose or with the effect of denying or abridging the right of any citizen of the United States to vote on account of race or color the court shall prescribe such remedies as it deems just.

Sec. 4. Nothing in this Act shall be construed to deny, impair, or otherwise adversely affect the right to vote of any person registered to vote under the law of any State or political subdivision.

Sec. 10. There are hereby authorized to be appropriated such sums as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this Act.

Sec. 11. If any provision of this Act or the application thereof to any person or circumstance is held invalid, the remainder of the Act and the application of the provisions to other persons or circumstances shall not be affected thereby.

Speaker of the House of Representatives.

Vice President of the United States and President of the Senate.

Approved

Aug. 6, 1965

[Signature]

[Signature]
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“President Will Sign Bill Tonight.” The Bakersfield Californian, 2 July 1964, 1.


“Terrorism Checks COFO Plans.” The Bakersfield Californian, 2 July 1964, 2.

1917  continued
Joint Address to Congress Leading to a Declaration of War Against Germany—
Following German U-boat attacks on American ships and the appearance of the Zimmermann telegram, President Woodrow Wilson delivers this address to a joint session of Congress on April 2, calling for a declaration of war against Germany. With Congressional approval, the United States officially enters World War I.

1918
President Woodrow Wilson’s 14 Points—
Hoping to provide a framework for worldwide peace following World War I, Woodrow Wilson presents Congress with a set of goals, called his 14 Points, on Jan. 8. Eight of the points deal with allowing emerging nations to pursue self-determination. Another seeks to solve disputes between colonized nations and European colonizers, while the remaining five offer a vision of freer trade, reduced numbers of arms, open treaty negotiation, and an organization for resolving international conflicts peacefully.

1920
19th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: Women’s Right to Vote—
After several decades of effort by women suffragists, this amendment is ratified on Aug. 18, specifying that “the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.”

1928
Boulder Canyon Project Act—
This act authorizes the construction of the Hoover Dam on the Colorado River and the All-American Canal to the Imperial Valley in California. Its purpose is to create a dam that will control flooding and produce a reliable source of water in the region.
1933
Tennessee Valley Authority Act—
This act of May 18 creates the Tennessee Valley Authority, which will oversee the construction of dams to control flooding, improve navigation, and create affordable electric power in the Tennessee Valley basin.

National Industrial Recovery Act—
This act of June 16 creates a National Recovery Administration, which will supervise fair trade codes and guarantee laborers a right to collective bargaining with employers.

1935
National Labor Relations Act—
Also known as the Wagner Act, this bill is signed into law by President Franklin Roosevelt on July 5. It establishes the National Labor Relations Board and addresses relations between unions and employers in the private sector.

Social Security Act—
This act of Aug.14 establishes a system of old-age benefits for workers, benefits for victims of industrial accidents, unemployment insurance, aid for dependent mothers and children, the blind, and the physically handicapped.

1936
President Franklin Roosevelt's Radio Address Unveiling Second Half of the New Deal—
Upon entering office in 1933, President Franklin Roosevelt enacts a series of measures commonly referred to as the First New Deal to end the nation's economic depression. The First New Deal is not successful in pulling the nation out of its depression. In this radio address, President Roosevelt responds to critics of his early measures by announcing a second set of measures, which are known as the Second New Deal. These include a series of new relief programs, such as the Works Progress Administration.
Preserving Our Documents

The following essay is intended to impart teachers and students with an understanding and appreciation of the process by which our nation’s documents are preserved.

Preserving the Charters of Freedom

By Mary Lynn Ritzenthaler, Supervisory Conservator, National Archives and Records Administration & Catherine Nicholson, Senior Conservator, National Archives and Records Administration
Reprinted Courtesy of the National Archives and Records Administration

In 1952 the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, and the Bill of Rights (collectively known as the Charters of Freedom) were first exhibited in the Rotunda of the National Archives Building in Washington, D.C. Shortly before they were displayed, the documents were placed into protective encasements under the best conditions that science and technology could provide.

For half a century, staff at the National Archives monitored the condition and evaluated the safety of the Charters to ensure their survival for future generations. As technology improved, new monitoring techniques were used. In the late 1980s small irregularities were observed on the inner surface of the encasement glass. Closer examination revealed tiny surface cracks, crystals, and droplets. Glass experts advised that the irregularities are symptoms of glass deterioration. Although the documents are not in any danger, eventually the deteriorating glass will turn opaque, obscuring the documents.

1941
President Franklin Roosevelt’s Annual Message to Congress—
This speech delivered by President Roosevelt on Jan. 6 is known as his “Four Freedoms Speech,” due to a short closing portion describing the President’s vision in which the American ideals of individual liberties extend throughout the world.

Lend Lease Act—
When war broke out in Europe in 1939, the United States officially remained neutral. President Roosevelt, however, believes the United States is obligated to assist Great Britain in its fight against Germany. Calling upon the United States to be the “great arsenal of democracy,” President Roosevelt proposes a system for supplying England with war goods without requiring cash payment. The system allows the lending or leasing of war supplies to any nation deemed “vital to the defense of the United States.” Congress approves the proposal as the Lend Lease Act on March 11, and the United States immediately begins shipping war supplies to England.

Executive Order 8802: Prohibition of Discrimination in the Defense Industry—
War is raging in Europe and Asia, and United States defense-related industries expand as the nation supplies war goods to the fighting nations. A. Philip Randolph, President of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, threatens to March on Washington if President Roosevelt doesn’t make employment opportunities in the growing government-run defense industries available to African-Americans in addition to whites. In response, Roosevelt issues Order 8802 in June, banning discriminatory employment practices by federal agencies and all unions and companies engaged in war-related work. The order also establishes the Fair Employment Practices Commission to enforce the new policy.
Joint Address to Congress Leading to a Declaration of War Against Japan—
On Dec. 7, Japanese torpedo planes and dive-bombers kill almost 2,400 Americans and destroy hundreds of aircraft, battleships, cruisers, and destroyers at the U.S. Naval Base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. In response, President Roosevelt asks Congress to declare war on Japan, to avenge what he calls “a date which will live in infamy” when “the United States of America was suddenly and deliberately attacked by naval and air forces of the Empire of Japan.” He receives near-unanimous approval from Congress to declare war on Japan, and the United States enters the Second World War.

Design
The National Archives and Records Administration and the National Institute of Standards and Technology are nearing the end of a multi-year project to design and fabricate new encasements for the Declaration Of Independence, Constitution, and Bill of Rights with funding provided from the United States Congress and the Pew Charitable Trusts. The deteriorating glass in the existing units presents the opportunity to entirely redesign the encasement. Using the best technology available, an interdisciplinary team of conservators, archivists, engineers, design and exhibit specialists, architects, chemists, and physicists are working with materials and fabrication experts to design and build new, state-of-the-art encasements that will preserve and protect the Charters for generations to come.

The existing encasements, which contain helium and a small amount of water vapor, are soldered shut and cannot be opened without breaking the seal. The design of the new encasements permits conservators to open and reseal them if it is ever necessary to examine the documents or modify the special monitoring and preservation components that are part of each unit. The documents will be mounted so that glass never touches them. The new design makes it possible to incorporate future conservation techniques as they are developed. On page 75, is a cutaway view of the encasement that shows some of the design details.

Prototypes
The National Institute of Standards and Technology has designed and fabricated prototypes of the new encasements. A manufacturing model was created, followed by Prototype 1. Delivered in late 1999, Prototype 1 currently encases the transmittal page of the Constitution. That prototype has been under constant monitoring since early 2000. The environment within the encasement is tested to ensure there is an airtight seal and that the document remains in the best condition possible.

Prototype 2 was delivered in the fall of 2000, and it houses the second page of the Constitution. Prototype 2 is the production model for the remaining encasements to be delivered to NARA conservators in 2001. Those encasements will house pages one, three, and four of the Constitution and its
Surrender of Germany—
In France, on May 7, German General Alfred Johl signs the unconditional surrender of all German forces on all fronts, ending the European phase of World War II. The official German surrender, scheduled to take effect on May 8, follows Nazi leader Adolph Hitler’s suicide, Berlin’s surrender to the Soviet Army, and the surrender of several major German armies to British forces in northern Europe.

United Nations Charter—
In Dumbarton Oaks, Washington, D.C., and San Francisco the Allied powers create an international agency that will resolve conflicts among members, and discourage aggressor nations with military force if required. This new agency is known as the United Nations.

Surrender of Japan—
On Sept. 2, Japanese representatives sign the official Instrument of Surrender, prepared by the War Department and approved by President Truman. In eight short paragraphs, Japan surrenders to the Allies.

Removing the Charters from the Old Encasements
National Archives conservators work very carefully when handling archival records, especially so with the Charters of Freedom. These photos show conservators at work as they remove the documents from their original encasements and place them in the new encasements. The documents undergo painstaking conservation treatment before they are transferred.

After months of planning and coordination with colleagues throughout NARA and NIST for the construction of new encasements for the Charters of Freedom, NARA’s conservators finally reached the day that pages 2 and 3 of the U.S. Constitution, along with the Transmittal Page, were transferred from their storage vault to the special, secure room where the conservation treatment would be carried out. The documents were removed from the vault in their old encasements for the last time.

The room in which the work is done is designed to assure close control of the temperature and humidity to which the documents will be exposed when they are removed from their old encasements.

Parchment responds to changes in moisture by expanding and contracting. When it is exposed to a moister atmosphere, it expands; when it is exposed to a drier atmosphere, it contracts. Because parchment is the stretched, preserved skin of an animal (often a cow or a sheep), different parts of the same skin may respond differently to changes in humidity, causing unexpected ripples and bumps on the surface.

1945
Manhattan Project Notebook—
The Manhattan Project, so-called because it is run after 1942 by a section of the army code-named the “Manhattan District,” is assigned the task of developing an atomic bomb. This notebook records an experiment of the Manhattan Project, the all-out but highly secret effort of the federal government to build an atomic bomb during World War II. Recorded here is the world’s first controlled, self-sustaining nuclear chain reaction, achieved on Dec. 2, 1942.

United Nations Charter—
In Dumbarton Oaks, Washington, D.C., and San Francisco the Allied powers create an international agency that will resolve conflicts among members, and discourage aggressor nations with military force if required. This new agency is known as the United Nations.

Surrender of Japan—
On Sept. 2, Japanese representatives sign the official Instrument of Surrender, prepared by the War Department and approved by President Truman. In eight short paragraphs, Japan surrenders to the Allies.

transmittal page, the Declaration of Independence, and the Bill of Rights.
NARA understood what conditions the earlier encasements were designed to achieve — 25% to 30% relative humidity inside the helium-filled encasement. But NARA also knew that the glass of the encasement was beginning to show signs of deterioration that is consistent with much higher humidity. In the months preceding the move of the first three pages of the Charters, NARA’s conservators explored a number of analytical techniques that could be used without breaking the seal to try to determine the amount of moisture within the encasement. NARA’s final attempt to get a handle on the moisture was extraction of a small portion of the gas within the encasement that was analyzed to determine the components that were present in the sample. But NARA never achieved consistent results with this analysis, and because of this inconsistency, our conservators were not sure what to expect when the first encasement was actually opened.

After all the preliminary testing, conservators selected a humidity level for the room based on their best analysis and prepared to open the Transmittal Page the first encasement selected for treatment. This would be the first time in 50 years that anyone had actually touched one of the pieces of parchment that make up the Charters of Freedom.

The encasements had been sealed with a lead ribbon soldered to the copper-coated surface at the edge of the glass that make up each box. This lead seal also included a sensor to allow for checks of the helium in each encasement. The only way to open an encasement is to break the seal, either by using heat to soften the metal or by cutting through the lead ribbon with a sharp tool. NARA’s conservators chose to use the sharp tool. One of the conservators working on the project made a tool with a hook-shaped blade that could be inserted into the lead. The tool was worked against the seal to cut it through without injuring the other parts of the encasement or the document. The team of conservators, a film crew documenting the process, and several observers settled in to the work. The process was

1947
Truman Doctrine—
Fears that Greece and Turkey might fall to the communist Soviet Union prompt President Harry Truman to articulate the “Truman Doctrine.” This doctrine states that world peace and the well-being of all Americans depends on the containment of communism around the world.

1948
Marshall Plan—
On April 3 President Truman signs the Economic Recovery Act of 1948. It becomes known as the Marshall Plan, named for Secretary of State George Marshall, who in 1947 proposed that the United States provide economic assistance to restore the economic infrastructure of post-war Europe.

Press Release Announcing U.S. Recognition of Israel—
At midnight on May 14, the Provisional Government of Israel proclaims a new State of Israel. On that same date, the United States, in the person of President Truman, recognizes the provisional Jewish government as de facto authority of the Jewish state (de jure recognition is extended on January 31, 1949).

Executive Order 9981:
Desegregation of the Armed Forces—
President Harry Truman establishes the President’s Committee on Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Services, committing the government to racially integrating the military.
1953
Armistice Agreement for the Restoration of the South Korean State—
This Armistice formally ends the war in Korea. North and South Korea remain separate, and occupy almost the same territory they had when the war began.

1954
Senate Resolution 301, Censure of Senator Joseph McCarthy—
In 1950 Senator McCarthy, spurred by national fears of communism, begins making accusations against members of the government, the entertainment industry, and business. Despite an inability to produce evidence for his charges, McCarthy grows increasingly aggressive in his accusations. By 1954, when the Senate votes to censure him, much of his power has dissolved. This censure describes his behavior as "contrary to senatorial traditions."

Brown v Board of Education—
The Supreme Court's decision in this case overrules the "separate but equal" principle set forth in the 1896 Plessy v Ferguson decision. The Court rules that "separate but equal" is inherently unequal and promotes racial supremacy. The unanimous decision states that state-sanctioned segregation of public schools is a violation of the 14th Amendment and is therefore unconstitutional.

1956
National Interstate and Defense Highways Act—
This act authorizes the building of highways throughout the United States, the biggest public works project in the nation's history.
1957
Executive Order 10730: Desegregation of Central High School—
Although the Supreme Court rules the principle of “separate but equal” illegal in the Brown v. Board of Education case, Little Rock, Arkansas’ Central High School refuses to comply with the court. President Dwight Eisenhower sends in federal troops by Executive Order to maintain order and peace, allowing the integration of Central High School to proceed.

1961
President Dwight D. Eisenhower’s Farewell Address—
In his farewell address, President Eisenhower warns against the establishment of a “military-industrial complex,” where power can easily be misplaced and misused.

President John F. Kennedy’s Inaugural Address—
President John F. Kennedy calls for the service of a “new generation of young Americans” to help protect liberty and freedom in the United States and throughout the world.

Executive Order 10924: Establishment of the Peace Corps—
Following the ideals set forth in his inaugural address, President Kennedy establishes the Peace Corps as a way for young Americans to assist developing nations by providing educational, technical, and medical assistance. Goals of the Peace Corps include: 1) To help the people of interested countries and areas in meeting their needs for trained workers; 2) To help promote a better understanding of Americans on the part of the peoples served; and 3) To help promote a better understanding of other peoples on the part of Americans.

www.ourdocuments.gov ■ 77
Timeline continued on page 88
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Aerial Photograph of Missiles in Cuba


Test Ban Treaty

Program for the March on Washington/Civil Rights Act/Voting Rights Act


Tonkin Gulf Resolution


Social Security Act Amendments


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1962
Transcript of John Glenn’s Official Communication with the Command Center—

John Glenn conducts the first manned space orbit of the earth, increasing the prestige of the United States internationally. In this transcript he communicates with Mission Control in Florida.

Aerial Photograph of Missiles in Cuba—

Instrumental in the early stages of the Cuban Missile crisis, these photographs show that the Soviet Union is amassing offensive ballistic missiles in Cuba. President Kennedy warns that any attempt by the Soviet Union to place nuclear weapons in Cuba will be seen as a threat to the United States.

1963
Test Ban Treaty—

After the fears created by the Cuban Missile Crisis, the Limited Test Ban Treaty is signed by the United States, Great Britain and the Soviet Union. After Senate approval, the treaty, which goes into effect on Oct. 11, bans nuclear weapon tests in the atmosphere, in outer space, and under water.

Official Program for the March on Washington—

On Aug. 28, approximately 250,000 people gather in front of the Lincoln Memorial to march in support of expanding civil rights for African-Americans. The highlight of the march is Martin Luther King’s “I Have A Dream” speech, in which he proclaims the Declaration of Independence applies to people of all races.
1964
Civil Rights Act—
Through the efforts of civil rights activists throughout the 1950s and early 1960s, many Americans come to support legislation that guarantees civil rights for African-Americans, and President Lyndon Johnson signs the Civil Rights act into law in July. The act prohibits discrimination in public places, provides for the integration of schools and other public facilities, and makes employment discrimination illegal.

Tonkin Gulf Resolution—
Passed by Congress after apparent attacks by the North Vietnamese on American ships in the Gulf of Tonkin, this act gives President Johnson authority to increase United States involvement in the war between North and South Vietnam.

1965
Social Security Act Amendments—
Amid rising concern for the elderly and the poor, these amendments are adopted. They establish Medicare, a health insurance program for the elderly, and Medicaid, a health insurance program for the poor.

Voting Rights Act—
This act outlaws the discriminatory voting practices adopted in many Southern states after the Civil War, including literacy tests as a prerequisite for voting. It also provides for federally supervised elections.
We the People...

Save Our History

NHD National History Day

USA Freedom Corps