This Official U.S. Navy Photograph was taken and distributed by the Public Information Office of the 3rd Naval District, located on Church Street in New York. Established in 1922 and last celebrated in 1949, Navy Day recognized the Navy’s contribution to the armed forces and the nation. The 1945 Navy Day, depicted here, was the largest celebration. Below is a transcript of text written by the Navy Public Relations Office and printed on the reverse of the photograph:

Navy Day in New York, 1945

Leading the nation in celebration of Navy Day, President Truman joined millions of Americans in New York on Saturday, October 27, to hail a triumphal return of the fleet that humbled Japan’s once-vaunted sea power. In a day-long many-sided program, the Chief Executive commissioned the new super aircraft carrier FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT, addressed the nation in a speech at Central Park, lunched on board the historic battleship MISSOURI, and climaxed the day by reviewing a seven-mile line of men o’ war anchored in the Hudson River as 1,200 Navy planes roared overhead.

3816-11 Smoke from her 21-gun salute lingers over the aircraft carrier ENTERPRISE, as the destroyer RENSHAW, carrying the President, comes abeam of the carrier MIDWAY. Ships in the reviewing column behind the RENSHAW are the destroyers WELLES and HOBBY and the destroyer escort FINNEGAN. Anchored at rights is the battleship MISSOURI. In foreground are some of the hundreds of small craft whose owners turned out to witness the fleet review.
Acknowledgments


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The New-York Historical Society

Since its founding in 1804, the New-York Historical Society (N-YHS) has been a mainstay of cultural life in New York City and a center of historical scholarship and education. For generations, students and teachers have been able to benefit directly from the N-YHS’s mission to collect, preserve, and interpret materials relevant to the history of our city, state, and nation. N-YHS consistently creates opportunities to experience the nation’s history through the prism of New York. Our uniquely integrated collection of documents and objects is particularly well-suited for educational purposes, not only for scholars but also for schoolchildren, teachers, and the larger public.

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Letter from the President, Dr. Louise Mirrer

Dear Educator:

The New-York Historical Society is proud to present this collection of educational materials and resources to accompany WWII & NYC. The exhibition highlights the vast contributions New York made to the Allied war effort and the lasting impact WWII had on nearly every aspect of the city. From the Brooklyn Navy Yard to the Stage Door Canteen, the role of women to the struggle for civil rights for African Americans, this period of history plays out in remarkable personal stories and dramatic objects and artworks. WWII & NYC is on view October 5, 2012 through May 27, 2013.

The content, classroom activities, and primary resources in the ten units that make up these materials align seamlessly with the New York City Social Studies Scope and Sequence and were compiled for use by both teachers and students. Elements within these classroom materials, including photographs, ephemera, documents, audio clips, films, and a large map of the city during wartime, illustrate how the war affected New York’s people and landscape. The “New Yorkers Who Served” profiles in Unit D and the life stories contained in the other units provide a close personal look into the lives of both prominent and lesser-known individuals and the roles they played in the war effort.

The Education Division of the New-York Historical Society is committed to providing stimulating and useful materials and programming to enhance the teaching and learning of New York and American history in the classroom. This collection of materials and resources has been designed both to complement and extend school visits to the exhibition and to help teachers and students from across the country address this central aspect of twentieth century American history.

To learn more about school programs designed for WWII & NYC and all education programs at the New-York Historical Society, contact us at (212) 485-9293 or visit the Education Division online at www.nyhistory.org/education.

Sincerely,

Louise Mirrer, Ph.D.
President and CEO
New-York Historical Society
**WWII & NYC · Curriculum**

**About the Exhibition**  
**October 5, 2012 – May 27, 2013**

**WWII & NYC** restores to historical memory New York City’s role in winning World War II.

In 1940, New York City was the most important industrial metropolis on earth, the busiest port anywhere, the capital of capitalism, and the largest and richest city on the planet. Between 1942 and 1945, it was the major port of embarkation for North Africa and Europe; the home of the busiest shipyard in the world; the great harbor where ships loaded with troops and supplies to Great Britain formed into convoys; the center of the Allied propaganda effort; the starting point for the super-secret effort to build an atomic bomb (called, appropriately, the Manhattan Project); the place, more than any other, where the end of war was celebrated; and the port that welcomed more returning soldiers to their homeland than any other.

The exhibition displays over 300 objects, including a mix of authentic artifacts, paintings, maps, models, photographs, posters, film, radio, and newly recorded eye-witness accounts. Many of the objects, documents, and graphic materials are from New-York Historical Society collections, but approximately thirty-five institutions and individuals have loaned items to the exhibition. Short films and interactive maps have been created for the exhibition.

**WWII & NYC** consists of an introduction and four major sections that proceed chronologically and thematically. The sections are organized in clusters that explore important elements of the wartime experience.

**Introduction**

The **Worldwide Aggression** cluster establishes the scale of international hostilities before the U.S. entry into the war. A large world map locates and annotates conflicts in Europe, the Soviet Union, Asia, and Africa, as well as the progression of Nazi persecution and murder of Jews. Accompanying the map is a radio clip from March 1938, when CBS linked broadcasts from multiple European capitals for the first time to report on Hitler’s march into Austria. Visitors hear Edward R. Murrow convey the events to American audiences in a display that not only establishes the global context for our focus on New York, but also demonstrates New York’s media supremacy. A large, illustrated, custom-made map and a 1940s radio set orient visitors to the period and its terrors.

**Section I. New York Before Pearl Harbor, 1933–1941**

The **War of Opinions** cluster demonstrates the intense engagement of many New Yorkers in the war abroad. At this early stage, there was no consensus for U.S. involvement and no agreement on which of the combatants to support, so the wall of art, photos, posters, and leaflets convey a cacophony of opinion and shows the range of rescue and relief efforts, fascist and antifascist organizations, and interventionist and non-interventionist groups that all operated in New York and vied for public attention. Objects include, for example, the 1939 **Medals of Dishonor** by the sculptor David Smith, photographs of the Nazi Bund rallies at Madison Square Garden, and materials about “Bundles for Britain.”

**A Nuclear Reaction: Manhattan Project** is a cluster that explores the early development of the atom bomb by American and European-exile scientists and the U.S. government. At Columbia University’s Pupin Labs in the late 1930s, the race with the Nazis to build the bomb began. The key object here is the seventeen-foot-long section of the cyclotron used by scientists at Columbia to experiment with splitting the uranium atom. A touch-screen video map shows ten Manhattan sites connected to the development of the bomb.

**The Attack on Pearl Harbor** cluster establishes the attack that marked America’s entry into the war and the quick consensus of support for the war that emerged in its wake. Objects include a canvas from the **Year of Peril** series painted by Thomas Hart Benton in the weeks following the attack.

**Section II. The New York Home Front, 1942–1945**

In the **Victory Begins at Home** cluster, visitors experience how thoroughly the “war emergency” changed the routines of daily life. Rationing, conservation of resources, civil defense activities, war bond sales, huge patriotic rallies, and the ubiquitous presence of service flags hanging in apartment windows meant that the war’s many sacrifices were omnipresent. Places like Madison Square Garden saw remarkable events like the 1943 pageant “We Will Never Die,” which marked growing public awareness of the Nazi campaign to murder the Jews of Europe. Nor did business proceed as usual for institutions like the New-York Historical Society, where a Red Cross bandage-rolling center opened on the ground floor. A fascinating mix of objects and graphic materials, including ration cards, an air-raid siren, V-mail, and contributions of the city’s cultural institutions (such as the army helmet prototype produced at the Metropolitan Museum of Art) recall these developments as visitors explore how the city and its private and public spaces dramatically changed.

**Produce for Victory** focuses on the city’s extensive and diverse wartime production. In addition to the prodigious output of the Brooklyn Navy Yard, private companies in the city and surrounding region built and repaired ships and planes, outfitted soldiers, equipped defense factories, and published war propaganda and news. Defense jobs re-employed the city’s workforce idled by the Depression, and with so many men serving in the military, helped lift barriers against employment of women and, to a lesser extent, racial minorities. A wall of products all “made in New York”—ships, M-1 carbines, soldier rations, patriotic posters, and more—drive home the huge surge in productivity that characterized the war years. Three short films accessible on video kiosks explore the round-the-clock activity at the...
mammoth Brooklyn Navy Yard and the challenges faced by African Americans as they struggled for democracy at home and abroad.

*The Mobilized Metropolis* cluster uses a seven-foot interactive map of the city to examine the war-mobilized landscape, including home defenses, military training bases, war industries, and military logistics. The shipment of men and supplies from the Port of New York was critical to Allied success. After the 1944 Normandy invasion, a ship left the harbor nearly every fifteen minutes. By war’s end, over three million men and women had shipped out from New York to theaters of operation. Two short films play on video kiosks here—one focuses on the detention of enemy aliens at Ellis Island, and one tours extant port sites such as the Brooklyn Army Terminal with Professor Kenneth T. Jackson as guide.

*The New York & the Battle of the Atlantic* cluster examines the city’s role in this longest campaign of the war. In order to unleash the great port’s power, the Battle of the Atlantic had to be won. Accordingly, this cluster explores the campaign against the German U-boats, significantly waged out of New York. A mural of a convoy laden with supplies departing from New York Harbor, a German Enigma machine, and many more artifacts convey this important topic.

New York’s landscape was also mobilized for the recreation and well-being of servicemen and women on leave or on their way to war. The *On the Town* cluster uses a range of objects, visual materials, music, and archival film to recall the nightclubs, bars, brothels, theater shows, restaurants, roller rinks, museums, and churches that welcomed the troops. Three short films explore in more depth how New York’s theatrical community interacted with the troops in places like the Stage Door Canteen and through productions like Irving Berlin’s *This Is the Army* and the homemade “soldier shows” that took place wherever American troops fought.

*Section III. Going to War, 1942–1945*

*The WAVES in the Bronx* cluster focuses on the boot camp at the former Hunter (now Lehman) College. The WAVES (Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service) took over jobs normally performed by Navy men, and did their basic training in the Bronx. A WAVES dress uniform (designed by the famous New York designer Mainbocher for efficiency and style), archival photographs, and a short film featuring an interview with a graduate from the “USS Hunter” recapture the excitement and dedication of the tens of thousands of young women who came to New York to do their bit.

*The Signal Corps in Queens* cluster explores the huge former Paramount movie studio in Astoria (now the site of the Museum of Moving Image and Kaufman Astoria Studios) where the Army set up its most important film training and production facility in 1942. At the Signal Corps Photographic Center, soldiers trained to be combat cameramen; soldiers and Hollywood-trained actors and directors made training and entertainment films that were shown to troops all over the world; and combat footage from battles throughout the world were assessed and distributed to news outlets across the United States. Archival film and photographs and two short films form the core of this display. One film features combat cameraman Philip Schultz; the other shows an excerpt from the Signal Corps morale film *Diary of a Sergeant*, where Harold Russell, who lost his hands in battle, provides encouragement to gravely wounded veterans.

*WWII and Me* is a film made in 1973 by Signal Corps-trained cameraman Francis Lee with footage he shot himself. Lee narrates his journey from East 10th Street in Manhattan to the beaches of Normandy on D-Day and the subsequent liberation of Paris and Berlin. This rarely seen film shows continually throughout the day in a small exhibition theater, bringing one man’s remarkable experience and the sights and sounds of battle to the exhibition.

In the *New Yorkers Who Served* cluster, eleven profiles of individuals stand in for the nearly 800,000 New Yorkers who saw duty in the armed forces. The profiles, each of which includes a remarkable story and personal artifacts, feature people who represent a range of backgrounds and wartime experiences.

A profile of FDR that includes documents, images, and personal belongings is included here. So is a profile of film director Samuel Fuller, with rarely seen film footage that Fuller shot of the liberation of Falkenau concentration camp. Another profile features a young New York college student, Ben Bederson, who was recruited to help build the atomic bomb in Los Alamos and was at Tinian Island on August 5, 1945 when the Enola Gay departed to drop “Little Boy” on Hiroshima. In a short film accompanying this display, Bederson, now a retired NYU physicist, reads from the diary entry he wrote that night.

*Section IV. Victory and Loss, 1945*

The *Celebrations and Mourning* cluster interweaves scenes of the massive and joyous celebrations that took place in Times Square and around the city at war’s end with images of the scale and trauma of the war and Holocaust. The visual anchor of this display is a large painting by Joseph Delaney called *VJ Day in Times Square*. This section also includes work by other artists and photographers, including Isamu Noguchi, Chaim Gross, and Weegee.

**Additional Exhibits and Displays**

As visitors depart the *WWII & NYC* exhibition, they enter the West Corridor and a complementary exhibition entitled *The War for Civil Rights*. Here they examine three instances of the “Double V” campaign for civil rights in New York—the Negro Freedom Rallies at Madison Square Garden, the fight to end Red Cross blood segregation, and the movement to overturn discriminatory tenant policies at the Stuyvesant Town housing development. In all three
cases, civil rights activists emphasized the discrepancy between the war against fascism and racial discrimination on the home front. Two short films set the stage. *Double Victory: Victory Abroad and At Home* features Dr. Farah Griffin of Columbia University and Dr. Martha Biondi of Northwestern University. *Harlem: August 1943* features Dr. Griffin and Celedonia Jones, Manhattan borough historian emeritus, discussing the riot that took place after a rumor of police brutality swept through Harlem.

In Visitor Response stations, set up near the conclusion of the exhibition, visitors can record their reactions to the exhibition or their own first-hand stories about New York during the war years.

Other significant displays in the Smith Gallery and Rotunda include one of the original four-foot plaster casts of the Iwo Jima monument by sculptor Felix de Weldon, a display of uniforms representing all branches of the service, a jeep of the kind shipped out by the thousands from the Port of New York, and a rotating display of digital images capturing home-front and battlefield scenes.

On the second floor, a rotating display showcases significant objects connected to the war years. The first to be displayed is the impressive Instrument of Surrender, signed by Japan on September 2, 1945 aboard the USS *Missouri*, a battleship built in the Brooklyn Navy Yard.

The second-floor Cabinet Gallery displays drawings and personal effects belonging to Ben Brown, a young Jewish infantryman in an artillery unit who kept a pen and watercolor sketchbook of his experiences as he slogged through Italy, France, and Germany. Mr. Brown’s son, a historian at CUNY, donated the materials to the New-York Historical Society.

In the fourth-floor Luce Gallery, a new display featuring objects, images, and documents explores how the New-York Historical Society and its staff supported the war effort.
Like the exhibition from which it is drawn, this curriculum tells the story of New York City before and during World War II. It was an extraordinary time. In the 1930s, a Nazi organization thrived in New York, and paraded down city streets with swastika flags raised high. The battle between interventionists and isolationists was at its loudest in this city, especially during 1940 and 1941. After Pearl Harbor, New York was so essential to the war effort that the U.S. Army called it “the mightiest port of war the world has ever known.” As a result, the city was also at risk. German air attacks never came, but they seemed possible. German U-boats did come, and they sometimes sank Allied ships within sight of people on Long Island. The history of New York City during World War II is far from a local story.

These materials were developed to support as closely as possible the New York City Social Studies Scope and Sequence for the teaching of World War II in grades 8 and 11. They are organized in ten units:

- Unit A: Nazis and Fascists in New York
- Unit B: Isolation and Intervention
- Unit C: Pearl Harbor Echoes in New York
- Unit D: New Yorkers Who Served
- Unit E: On the Town
- Unit F: Women in Wartime New York
- Unit G: Children and Teens in Wartime New York
- Unit H: African Americans in Wartime New York
- Unit I: Peril and Defense on the Home Front
- Unit J: The Port of New York

Several of the units link directly to major World War II topics, but provide a fresh way to explore them from a local perspective. For example, Unit F brings the national story of Rosie the Riveter home to Brooklyn, where Carmela Celardo worked on the battleship USS Missouri. Unit H explores both the racism faced by black New Yorkers and their successful efforts to integrate defense plants long closed to African American workers. Unit J takes the idea of war mobilization and maps it in and near New York, graphically illustrating not only the density of activity in the city but the fundamental role played by the great harbor during the war.

Other units either build on important topics, or introduce a new aspect of what it meant to live on the home front. The focus of Unit A, the public presence of Nazis in the city, is not specifically addressed in the Scope and Sequence for Grade 8 or 11, but the pre-war period in New York, and in the nation, can hardly be understood without it. And while the lives of children are not a specific focus of the Scope and Sequence, Unit G will give today’s students an understanding of what their counterparts did and felt during the war, when life was different and so much was expected of them.

Each unit consists of a set of primary resources that include text, photographs, and artifacts. Secondary sources include ten short films that were produced for the exhibition, biographies of five New Yorkers whose lives personalize important concepts, profiles of New Yorkers in uniform, and an excerpt from ‘Til We Meet Again: New York City During World War II by chief exhibition historian Kenneth T. Jackson.

The Classroom Notes were written for teachers, although the opening background text may be useful for students as well. Classroom suggestions are specific to grades 8 and 11, and include possible activities, discussion questions, and alignment to New York State Learning Standards and the Common Core State Standards. The links to outside films connect to some of the many films produced during the war. Most of the films are around ten minutes long and will show today’s media-conscious students what people on the home front saw and heard on screen.

The units are designed for maximum flexibility in the classroom. The resources have been assembled as a collection of individual pieces that collectively address the topic at hand. But they can be used individually, or combined in other ways. Please feel free to make use of the items in this curriculum in whatever way works best for your classroom.

All classroom materials are contained on two discs: this CD, containing the curriculum guide and primary resources, and a DVD of ten short films from the exhibition that align with the curriculum units. All materials on this disc can be reached from the Table of Contents. Individual resources can also be reached from the “Resources in This Unit” section in the Classroom Notes. To return to the Table of Contents from any page, click on the page number in the lower left-hand corner. The magnifying icon will take you to a full-screen version of a resource, minus the descriptive text. All full-screen versions of the resources can be accessed together in the “Resources” folder on this disc. All URLs in the text are live.
In November 1922, when Hitler was creating the Nazi Party, The New York Times called him spellbinding, anti-Semitic, and dangerous. Six months later, it reported that Hitler called the Weimar government “a Marxist-Jewish-international pigsty.” The Jewish Telegraphic Agency combed through reports from Europe, and made the news available to Jewish magazines and newspapers in the U.S. Many of New York’s Jewish residents also received urgent letters from relatives in Europe. Hitler’s beliefs and actions were no secret in New York.

There were Nazis even in the Bronx, where they opened a branch office in 1922. Eleven years later, when the Nazis took power in Berlin, they authorized a new American organization called the Friends of the New Germany. With offices now in Yorkville, it appealed to the new immigrants who had moved into this German American neighborhood. Berlin wanted them to feel proudly German and friendly to the new regime.

Other New Yorkers watched these developments with concern. After Hitler became Führer (“leader,” in German), a veterans’ group of Jews and non-Jews began to boycott German goods. But a more wide-scale boycott floundered, partly because some Jewish leaders worried that Hitler would retaliate against German Jews. So New Yorkers who were alarmed about Hitler marched, carried protest signs, wrote letters, attended rallies, and helped their German relatives in whatever way they could. They had an ally in Mayor Fiorello La Guardia, who was part Jewish. He joined in anti-Nazi activities and, as a result, was widely vilified in the German press.

Another ally was Congressman Samuel Dickstein, a Russian-born Jew, a New Yorker, and chairman of the House Committee on Immigration and Naturalization. He led a Congressional investigation into the Nazi propaganda produced by the Friends of the New Germany. Facing this pressure and wishing to avoid U.S. intervention in his affairs, Hitler ordered the Friends of the New Germany to fold in 1935.

But the Friends of the New Germany was quickly replaced by a new organization, the German American Bund, supposedly free of Hitler’s control. Fritz Kuhn, known as the Bundesführer, thought of himself as Hitler’s second-in-command, though Hitler disagreed. Among other activities, the Bund ran Camp Siegfried on Long Island, where German American families could study Nazi philosophy, proudly sport swastika armbands, and saunter down Hitler Street on warm summer nights.

If Hitler was popular with many German Americans in New York, Mussolini was even more beloved by the city’s Italians. Il Duce had his critics, including anti-Fascist newspapers, but the Nazi critics were more numerous, and noisier. The Jewish population of New York, climbing toward nearly a quarter of the city’s population, formed the core of the opposition to the Führer. But moderate, Americanized German organizations like the Steuben Society showed discomfort with events in the Third Reich. The Bund began losing traction, and even Hitler was distressed by Kuhn’s leadership. He declared that all German citizens should quit the Bund, and prohibited its use of the German flag. Kuhn defied him, the Bund remained open, and many members were unaware of Hitler’s displeasure.

Much of the world had watched Hitler’s rise through the 1930s with alarm. But 1938 was the explosive year when Hitler grew brazen and met little European resistance. He annexed Austria in March, to the cheers of the local German population. In September, Britain and France signed the Munich Agreement, transferring to Germany the part of Czechoslovakia known as the Sudetenland. In November, Jewish neighborhoods in the Reich were attacked, their residents beaten and property destroyed, in an event that became known as Kristallnacht. The word means literally “crystal night,” but is usually rendered in English as “the night of broken glass.” In New York, the German American Bund defended, even applauded, the rampage. Most Americans, and most New Yorkers, were horrified.

The Bund organized a massive celebration of George Washington’s birthday in 1939, largely to put itself in a better light after Kristallnacht. Instead, this public display prompted both Mayor La Guardia and the U.S. government to go on the offensive as Nazi aggression in Europe continued. Membership in the Bund slid. In November 1939, Fritz Kuhn was arrested, found guilty of embezzlement, and sent to Sing Sing prison. After the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in December 1941 and the subsequent declarations of war, the Bund was outlawed and its offices seized by the U.S. Treasury Department.

Jews at Nazi Protest; Carrying Signs, November 15, 1938. Photograph. Copyright ©Bettman/Corbis, BE034281.
**CLASSROOM SUGGESTIONS**

**Grade 8**

The Essential Question of Unit 5 of the Eighth Grade Social Studies Scope and Sequence—How do competing views of power and morality lead to global conflict?—can be explored very close to home with these materials about Nazis and Fascists in New York. Power and morality can look one way when they play out half the world away, and very different when the setting is the Bronx or Madison Square Garden. Several of these materials, particularly the life story of Florence Mendheim, will introduce students to the ways in which New Yorkers fought the Nazi presence in their own backyard.

**Activities**

- List the strategies New York Nazis used to present themselves as both German and American. Did they go too far in one direction? Why do you think so?
- Locate addresses and communities mentioned in the materials on a large map of New York City. If possible, visit these locations and photograph them. How are they the same or different today?

**Grade 11**

This unit supports Unit 6 of the 11th Grade Scope and Sequence: Peace in Peril, 1933–1950. In the topic “Failure of peace; triumph of aggression,” students can use these materials to follow the build-up to war as it played out in New York City. It is more than just a local story, and more than a less violent reflection of events in Europe. Hitler’s efforts to make German Americans friendly to his regime were headquartered in New York. The Nazis held their public parades in the city that housed the largest concentrated Jewish population on earth. But New York was not Berlin, and students can use these materials to explore the ways in which these two cities, and their countries, were different.

**Discussion Questions**

- Should the U.S. government or the City of New York have closed Nazi organizations in New York before the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor? Why or why not? Why do you think they didn’t?
- Focus on the life stories of Florence Mendheim and Fiorello La Guardia (in Unit I). How did their personal lives lead them to fight the Nazis in New York? What risks did they take, if any?
- What’s the most surprising thing about the Nazi presence in New York before the war? How does it challenge what you think of the city?
- How did competing views of power and morality lead to conflict in New York City?

**Activities**

- Separate the materials into pro-Nazi/Fascist and anti-Nazi/Fascist. Compare the ways that both groups used vivid images and language to make their points.
- Focus on Resource A7, the photographs of the 1939 Mass Demonstration for True Americanism. If possible, watch the footage of this rally in Part 4 of Nazi America: A Secret History (see link on p.12). Speculate about who, other than devoted members of the Bund, might have been in the crowd, and why. Imagine they had cell phones—what texts might they have sent from the meeting?
- Prepare an essay or oral report about Nazis and anti-Nazis in New York City in the years before World War II.

**Discussion Questions**

- Why were the Friends of the New Germany and its successor, the German American Bund, as successful as they were? Why weren’t they more successful?
- Should the U.S. government or the City of New York have closed Nazi organizations in New York long before Pearl Harbor was attacked? Why or why not? Why do you think they didn’t?
- How do immigrant groups today balance American patriotism with pride in their home country? How are they viewed by mainstream America?
**Curriculum Unit A**

## Nazis and Fascists in New York

### References
- Glossary
- Books and websites

### LINKS TO OUTSIDE FILM FOOTAGE

**Prelude to War.** Director Frank Capra (who directed, among other titles, the 1939 film *Mr. Smith Goes to Washington*) made a series of seven informational films for the war Department. The first, *Prelude to War*, was made in 1943 to provide a dramatic explanation of the events that brought the U.S. into the war and a spirited argument for continuing to fight. The film is fifty-two minutes long, and covers the actions of Germany, Italy, and Japan in the 1930s. The archival film footage appears with an American narration heavy with wartime propaganda messages. archive.org/details/PreludeToWar.

**Nazi America: A Secret History.** Produced in 2000 by the History Channel, this show follows the American Nazi movement up to 1999. It is available in nine parts on YouTube. Parts 2–5 focus on the 1930s and 1940s. Each part is about ten minutes long.

- **PART 2:** [www.youtube.com/watch?v=hlCzFYm3924&feature=relmfu](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hlCzFYm3924&feature=relmfu)
The Great Depression, German neighborhoods in New York and other cities, the rise of the Friends of the New Germany.

- **PART 3:** [www.youtube.com/watch?v=iR9BfuhqdcU&feature=relmfu](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iR9BfuhqdcU&feature=relmfu)
The “American Führer” Fritz Kuhn, Nazi youth camps on Long Island, anti-Nazi protests.

- **PART 4:** [www.youtube.com/watch?v=Bj7thvYlt1I&feature=relmfu](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Bj7thvYlt1I&feature=relmfu)
The February 20, 1939 Nazi rally at Madison Square Garden, U.S. government investigations of Fritz Kuhn, Pearl Harbor, alien internment camp at Crystal City, Texas.

- **PART 5:** [www.youtube.com/watch?v=dJ7aA0CAH2Y&feature=relmfu](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dJ7aA0CAH2Y&feature=relmfu)
Nazification of Crystal City camp, postwar period.

**March of Time: Outtakes.** The Steven Spielberg Film and Video Archive at the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum includes a nine-minute clip of film footage of Yorkville, probably taken in 1938. The Café Hindenburg, which plays a role in the Florence Mendheim life story, is visible in the first scene. Most of the footage is silent, but there is an episode with singing inside a beer hall. These outtakes were staged to support a “March of Time” newsreel called *Inside Nazi Germany*. The Yorkville locations, and other footage shot in Hoboken, New Jersey, were meant to suggest everyday life in German cities. resources.ushmm.org/film/display/detail.php?file_num=1851.
In the early 1930s, after a fairly quiet decade, sabers were rattling again in the world. Japan seized Manchuria in 1931. In Germany two years later, Hitler became Führer. It was not hard to imagine that these two aggressive nations would lead the world to another war, and most Americans wanted nothing to do with it.

Christian religious groups were among the first to take a hard antiwar stand. Among them were former chaplains who regretted encouraging young men to fight in the Great War, as World War I was then known. Impressed with the teachings of Gandhi, many became true pacifists, opposed to war for any reason. In their antiwar position, they were joined by many on the left, including socialists and communists, who were not so much opposed to war in principal as deeply cynical about the Great War. They saw it as a bald maneuver by arms manufacturers to make profits. In September 1934, Senator Gerald Nye began a two-year investigation of U.S. corporate activity during the war that exposed the very corruption the left had suspected. Many were determined to isolate the U.S. from distant battles. Some were simply Americans who were exhausted by the carnage of the Great War, or pained by their own losses. Some were people who thought the world’s turmoil was far away, on the other side of an immense ocean. Others were members of civil rights groups or the American Civil Liberties Union who wanted to see the nation’s energies focused on issues at home. And some were unwilling to defend European Jews from persecution. Father Coughlin, the radio priest known for anti-Semitic statements, was a staunch isolationist, as were most of his followers in the Christian Front. So were many German immigrants, especially those who called themselves Nazis and were members of the German American Bund. On other topics, these groups had vast differences, but they were united by a refusal to see the U.S. embroiled in another foreign war. When Washington passed a series of neutrality acts, beginning in 1935, it reflected the widespread isolationist mood of the country: “Never again.”

Antiwar sentiment was not universal, and it was challenged by events of the later 1930s, as fascists took control in Europe: Hitler, Mussolini, Franco. During the Spanish Civil War (1936–1939), 2,800 American volunteers fought with the Abraham Lincoln Brigade in the battle against the Nazi-backed Franco rebellion. Many were communists who had earlier been opposed to another war, but now saw no alternative to fighting. A good number were also Jews, determined to try to stop Nazi persecution in Europe.

President Franklin D. Roosevelt was no isolationist. He thought the U.S. would be drawn into the war, and that we should be ready. He believed we had an obligation to help our longtime allies, and that doing so would also protect the U.S. In 1939, with the beginning of war in Europe, he took steps to help the threatened British receive essential supplies shipped from the U.S. Congress and the president began ramping up the American shipbuilding industry, and started the nation’s first peacetime draft. In response to an alarm raised by physicists in New York, including Albert Einstein, the president authorized the top-secret research into atomic weapons that became known as the Manhattan Project. Some called FDR a war monger, but he had his greatest base of support in New York. By the late ’30s, the city’s Jews, Mayor La Guardia, black leader A. Philip Randolph, powerful players on Wall Street, and Henry Luce and others in the media all believed that the U.S. would and should intervene in Europe. These pro-interventionists denounced the nation’s primary isolationist group, the America First Committee, as fascistic, unpatriotic, and anti-Semitic.

The last charge had been leveled at some elements of the antiwar movement before. It gained momentum in 1941, when Charles Lindbergh became the AFC’s most prominent speaker. He had been warmly honored by Hitler’s Germany, and had once argued that, rather than fight against each other, Germany and Great Britain should work together to defend the white race against foreign invasion and “inferior blood.”

The Chicago-based America First Committee struck back. Seeing New York City as the headquarters of the interventionist movement, the AFC focused much of its activity in the city, with the help of its own strong local branch. The battle between the two sides was fierce through 1940 and 1941, but it ended dramatically when the Japanese bombed Pearl Harbor. On December 11, 1941, the America First Committee voted to disband and urged its followers to support the war. It noted, however, that it had been right, and that its approach could have prevented war.

CLASSROOM SUGGESTIONS

GRADE 8

These resources address the battle over isolationism that raged in the U.S. during the 1930s and early 1940s—right up to the attack on Pearl Harbor. They support the U.S. Involvement section of Unit 5 of the Scope and Sequence, and provide background to the end of isolationism. The first document, Again War Approaches, is from 1934. The others are clustered around the period between 1939 and Pearl Harbor.

Activities

- These materials can be read as an ongoing heated argument between those who wanted the U.S. to stay out of Europe’s conflict and those who felt America should play a role. Have students study the materials and separate them according to which side of the argument they represented. What do the isolationist materials have in common? The pro-intervention materials?
- Consider the point of view of Resource B2, Poison in the Melting-Pot. What did the people at the Christian Front meeting seem to think of Jews? What did George Britt think of the Christian Front? How can you tell? How do you think Britt discovered the details he was reporting?
- Read the life stories of John T. Flynn and Fiorello La Guardia (in Unit I). Where did each man stand on the question of a U.S. role in Europe? What did each do to promote his position?
- Using the arguments in these materials, schedule a debate between the two sides. Follow up with a discussion about the most important points of disagreement.

GRADE 11

These materials support Unit 6 of the Scope and Sequence, the “Isolation and Neutrality” topic in Peace in Peril: 1933–1950. The focus on New York reflects the reality that the city was the primary battleground between the pro- and anti-intervention sides. It also gives students a way to consider this hard-fought battle for America’s future in the familiar landscape of their own city.

Activities

- Ask students to do a careful reading of the earliest of these pieces: Resource B1, Again War Approaches. To whom is the pamphlet addressed? What arguments are used? How much attention is given to the prospect of another war? What possible arguments against war are missing from the pamphlet?
- Separate the pro-isolationist and the pro-interventionist materials in this unit. List the arguments they make. Which are based on known facts, and which are based on a sense of what the future holds?
- Consider the life stories of of John T. Flynn and Fiorello La Guardia (in Unit I). How did these New Yorkers differ in their opinions about the turmoil in Europe?
- Was there any common ground between the isolationists and interventionists? Any points they could agree on?

Discussion Questions

- How did each side define concepts like justice, patriotism, and morality?
- How did geography play a role in the isolationist argument, which was strong in the Midwest? How would geography have contributed to the strength of the intervention argument in New York City?
- Today, we have the advantage of hindsight. We know about Pearl Harbor, the Holocaust, the ultimate success of the long war to defeat the Axis powers. This may make the isolationist argument seem wrong and, given the anti-Semitic currents, immoral. Try to put yourselves back in the years between September 1939, when war was declared in Europe, and December 1941, when the U.S. entered. How do you think people your age felt about the prospect of war? What do you think they were afraid of? Angry about? Willing to risk?

RESOURCES IN THIS UNIT

| Resource B1:   | Again War Approaches |
| Resource B2:   | Poison in the Melting-Pot |
| Resource B3:   | Einstein’s Letter to FDR |
| Resource B4:   | Anti-European-Involvement Group Carrying Signs in New York City |
| Resource B5:   | Smashing Thru, Captain America Came Face to Face with Hitler |
| Resource B6:   | Stop’em Over There Now |
| Resource B7:   | America First Rally, Manhattan Center |
| Life Story:    | John T. Flynn |
| Related resources from other units: | La Guardia Life Story (Unit I) |
Isolation and Intervention

LINKS TO OUTSIDE FILM FOOTAGE

Nazi Conquest, No. 1. A newsreel in “The March of Time” series, produced by Henry Luce’s Time, Inc. This episode dramatically covers the Anschluss—the Nazi annexation of Austria—and shows how important the New York media’s support was to the pro-interventionist movement. The series is available at: www.hboarchives.com. After registering (free), select “archival” for a complete list of all “The March of Time” newsreels. Scroll down to 1938 for Nazi Conquest, No. 1. If you are already registered, the following link will take you to this newsreel: www.hboarchives.com/apps/searchlibrary/ctl/secure/gotoepisodedetails?key=MEDIAHBO103.

Charles Lindbergh, New York, April 23, 1941. The complete text of this speech at the Manhattan Center can be read at: www.pbs.org/wgbh/amex/lindbergh/filmmore/reference/primary/firstcommittee.html.

Charles Lindbergh, Des Moines, September 11, 1941. The text of the historic speech can be read at several sites online. A nine-minute film clip is available at: www.youtube.com/watch?v=54ozdotSW8. Note that it does not include the section in which Lindbergh discusses what he sees as the pro-war efforts of the British and Jews.

“Mister Lindbergh.” Woody Guthrie wrote this song in 1941, sharply criticizing the aviation hero and America First. Several versions are available on YouTube. For one with a good deal of historic footage, go to: www.youtube.com/watch?v=_k83WArW5XU.

“America First.” In 2005, Merle Haggard wrote an anti-Iraq-War song called “America First.” A video version can be viewed at: www.youtube.com/watch?v=NDoYsBAyFb0. It’s a helpful way to compare recent antiwar sentiments with those common in America before Pearl Harbor.

References

- Glossary
- Books and websites
Before December 7, 1941, most New Yorkers had never heard of Pearl Harbor. Hawaii was an American territory—not yet a state—more than 5,000 miles from Central Park. Few had visited the islands, or knew anyone who had. Berlin was closer in mileage and, in this city of European immigrants, much closer to people’s thoughts. There was a Nazi organization in New York, and the press coverage about the rise of fascism through 1940 had emphasized Hitler’s soldiers goose-stepping their way across Europe. Most New Yorkers did not expect the U.S. to be attacked. Those who did were looking east toward the Nazis, not west toward Japan.

The shock of the news in December 1941 was enormous: the attack on Pearl Harbor, the Japanese invasion of the Philippines, the declaration of war, all within twenty-four hours. Some found it impossible to believe. Some were enraged. Others looked to the skies, expecting German bombs to fall on New York at any moment. (One San Francisco newspaper carried a banner headline declaring “Enemy Planes Near N.Y. from Atlantic!”) Others bitterly replayed the long battle over whether the U.S. should intervene in Europe, certain that their own position had been proven correct. Nearly everyone wondered what it would all mean for them.

This unit focuses on New Yorkers over a narrow time frame, beginning with the announcement of the attack on Pearl Harbor over WNYC on the afternoon of December 7, 1941, and continuing for the next few days.
PEARL HARBOR ECHOES IN NEW YORK

CLASSROOM SUGGESTIONS

Grade 8

These materials, which focus on New York City in the first days after the attack on Pearl Harbor, will help students realize that while the attack took place thousands of miles away, New York felt the echoes immediately. This exploration of New York City’s response to the Japanese attack provides a way to address Unit 5 of the Scope and Sequence from a local perspective. For New Yorkers in 1941, Pearl Harbor was unfamiliar and far away. But the response to the assault on the U.S. Pacific fleet was deeply felt in this city, whether people tried to laugh it off, vowed to “lick” the enemy in quick order, bitterly revisited the isolationist battles of the previous months, or simply registered shock and fear.

Activities

- Before introducing all the materials, let students listen to Resource C2, the radio announcement of the attack. Ask them to make a list of words to describe how they think New Yorkers would have felt hearing this announcement.
- Introduce the other materials (minus the mayor’s and the president’s radio addresses). Ask students to make a list of the emotions they see or hear in these pieces. How different are they from the list they generated above?
- Use a globe, or an online virtual globe, to locate New York City, the island of Oahu, Tokyo, and Berlin. Calculate the distances between New York and the other locations, or use an online site such as www.distancefromto.net.

Activities

- Beginning with the radio announcement of the attack, put the items in this unit in chronological order, as you think they happened. Use them to make a timeline of New York as it tried to absorb the news.
- Identify the elements that focus on New Yorkers’ reactions, and select one to study closely. Make a list of the reactions and responses you see.

Discussion Questions

- Think about all the people represented here, from nameless New Yorkers to the mayor to the president. Did people respond the way you would expect? Whose reactions made the most sense to you? Did any of the reactions shock you? Why?
- How many of the people represented here express fear? How did they talk about it? Why do you think some people didn’t seem afraid?
- What would make New Yorkers more concerned about Germany than about Japan?

Grade 11

These materials support Unit 6 of the 11th Grade Scope and Sequence, specifically the topic “The United States in World War II.” The focus is not the bombing itself, or the loss of ships and life in Pearl Harbor, but the effect of the attack on leaders and common people in New York City. The resources explore what New Yorkers thought and did in the hours and days after learning of the attack, and they make clear the range of emotions and reactions people felt as they tried to absorb the news.

Activities

- Listen to Resource C4, Mayor La Guardia’s Radio Address. What does he say about Japan? How does he describe Hitler? Compare his address with Resource C6, President Roosevelt’s “Day of Infamy” speech. What might account for any differences you see between the mayor and the president?
- Find all the elements that indicate how people in their teens and early 20s responded to the news. Find evidence of how older people responded.
- Use Mayor La Guardia’s Radio Address and Resource C8, The New York Times article “Entire City Put on War Footing” to list the major actions taken against Japanese people in New York City.

Discussion Questions

- Did age make a difference in how people felt about the attack? Gender? If so, what might explain that?
- What role would the city’s ethnic composition, and its particular history during the 1930s, play in its reaction to the attack on Pearl Harbor?
- How were people feeling about the war they were entering? What language did they use to describe it? What does their language indicate about what they expected?
- How did the battle between isolationists and interventionists affect peoples’ reactions to the news of Pearl Harbor?
- Walcott Gibbs wrote about what he felt, and what he saw around him, in the days after the attack. Is his view of the city supported by the reactions you see in the other materials? How?
- How were Japanese people treated in New York? Was the treatment reasonable? Necessary? Fair? Why or why not?

RESOURCES IN THIS UNIT

Resource C1: The Radio Set
Resource C2: The Radio Announcement, WNYC
Resource C3: Kay Travers in a Red Convertible
Resource C4: Mayor La Guardia’s Radio Address
Resource C6: President Roosevelt’s “Day of Infamy” Speech
Resource C7: Man-on-the-Street Interviews, New York City, December 8, 1941
Resource C8: Entire City Put on War Footing
Resource C9: Volunteers Swamp Recruiting Offices
Pearl Harbor Echoes in New York

REFERENCES

- Glossary
- Books and websites

LINKS TO OUTSIDE FILM FOOTAGE

**Nazi Conquest, No. 1.** A newsreel in “The March of Time” series, produced by Henry Luce’s Time, Inc. This newsreel is about Hitler’s seizure of Austria in 1938, but the opening footage focuses on NBC’s scoop of the event and supports the focus on radio news in Unit C. “The March of Time” series can be viewed at: www.hboarchives.com. Registration at the website is required, but free. From the landing page, select “archival,” for a complete list of the newsreels. Scroll down to 1938 for Nazi Conquest, No. 1. Once registered, the following link will bring you to this newsreel: www.hboarchives.com/apps/searchlibrary/ctl/secure/gotoepisodedetails?key=MEDIAHBO103.


**An RCA Presentation: Television,** archive.org/details/RCAPrese1939, is a nine-minute 1939 film about the new medium of television.

**Bombing of Pearl Harbor.** A nine-minute 1942 film showing footage of the destroyed ships and planes at Pearl Harbor, with an emotional narration about the treachery of the “Japs.” archive.org/details/NewsPara1942.
In 1940, most Americans did not want to become involved in Europe’s war, but many in Congress believed it was likely to happen and that the U.S. should begin enlarging the Army. By one vote, the House of Representatives passed the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 on September 14, and President Roosevelt signed it the following day. A month later, 16 million men, ages 21 to 36, went to their local public schools and registered for the draft as required. Since only 900,000 were needed at that time, a lottery system determined who would be called from each local draft board.

New York City’s initial group of 200 men reported to Camp Upton on Long Island or Fort Dix in New Jersey to begin their training. Their term of service was to be one year of active duty and ten years in the reserves.

The attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941 changed things nearly overnight. Ultimately, all men between the ages of 18 and 64 were required to register for the draft. The youngest draftees, those under age 20, could not be sent into combat without a year of training. And men over 45 were required to register, primarily so the government would have a record of their skills and could find them quickly if they were needed on the home front.

For the first year of the war, many men enlisted voluntarily. But in December 1942, President Roosevelt issued Executive Order 9279, which ended voluntary enlistments. From that point on, all branches of the military were required to fill their ranks with draftees. This was designed largely to integrate all branches of the armed forces, since the draft applied to all male citizens, regardless of race. (For more, see Unit H: African Americans in Wartime New York.)

This unit contains profiles of some of the New Yorkers who served in World War II.
CLASSROOM SUGGESTIONS

Grade 8

These materials support the “war on two fronts” topic in Unit 5 of the 8th Grade Scope and Sequence. The profiles focus on eleven New Yorkers who served in the military during World War II. The New York Times article about the latest war casualties and the two films provide additional texture to the profiles and to students’ understanding of war as a large set of individual stories.

Activities

- Use a world map to identify the battles and military operations where these individuals served. Make a timeline to show all the troops’ experiences as mentioned in the profiles and shown in the photos and artifacts. How closely does your timeline represent the U.S. involvement in the war?
- Find out more about the locations where these New Yorkers served and battles in which they took part. Use your research to expand one of the profiles with more details and images.
- In the 1940s, there was no way for servicemen overseas to communicate with loved ones other than letters, and the mail was censored. What evidence do you see in the profiles of how people stayed in touch? What mementoes were important? How different was it from phone calls, Skype, and e-mail that keep loved ones in contact during wars today?
- Watch Resource D3, the short film about Ben Bederson’s work on the Manhattan Project. How different was his experience from those of the people in uniform?

Grade 11

These materials support Unit 6 of the 11th Grade Scope and Sequence, specifically “The United States in World War II.” Students will be able to use them to explore the human dimensions of the war, Allied strategy and leadership, the atomic bomb, the war’s impact on minorities, and to some extent demobilization.

Activities

- Use a world map to identify the battles and military operations where these individuals served. Make a timeline to show all the experiences mentioned in the profiles and shown in the photos and artifacts. How closely does your timeline represent the U.S. involvement in the war?
- Research to find out more about the locations where these individuals served and/or battles in which they took part. Use your research to write a larger version of one person’s story, with more details about that individual’s war experience.
- Select a battle or military operation mentioned in one of the profiles, and use The New York Times Article Archive (www.nytimes.com/ref/membercenter/nytarchive.html) to research how it was covered in the press at home. What were family and friends reading about these events? How would military censorship of servicemen’s letters affect how their families and friends read the news reports?
- Watch Resource D3, the short film about Ben Bederson’s work on the Manhattan Project. How different was his experience from those in the profiles?
- Watch Resource D4, the short film about all-male shows that provided entertainment for troops and inspiration for Broadway. How does entertainment, especially funny entertainment, help people deal with stress? Does it help you?
- Read Resource D2, The New York Times article “Latest War Casualties” and find the men who lived in your borough. Write a newspaper article that might appear in your local paper, focusing on the week’s war-related news for your borough.

Discussion Questions

- How do stories of individual people affect your sense of the war or of specific battles?
- What kinds of prejudice existed in the military? How did it reflect prejudice in the United States as a whole? Was it defensible in the military setting?
- How did people on the home front manage the fear and uncertainty of having loved ones in the war?
**New Yorkers Who Served**

**LINKS TO OUTSIDE FILM FOOTAGE**

*Safeguarding Military Information.* A ten-minute film sponsored by the U.S. Signal Corps stressing the importance of military secrecy on the front and at home. The phrase “loose lips sink ships” is not used, but that is the message. archive.org/details/Safeguar1941.

*Induction and Basic Training Camps.* A nine-minute film showing basic training for groups of white soldiers, Army nurses, and black soldiers. archive.org/details/WwiiBasicTraining.

*This Is the Army.* The nearly two-hour 1943 movie about the staging of an all-male soldier review, with music by Irving Berlin. archive.org/details/this_is_the_army.

Newsreels of World War II battles and the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki can be found online in the Prelinger Archives of the National Archives. archive.org/details/prelinger.
New York was the nation’s major embarkation point during World War II. More servicemen passed through Grand Central Terminal and Pennsylvania Station than through any other American city. Some were headed straight to troop ships and had little time to see the sights. Others had a precious few hours or days off. Some were stationed in or near the city for months or years at a time. Most had never seen New York in their lives. Others were born here. Allied service people were a presence too—English, Canadian, Australian. One thing these servicemen had in common: they were determined to enjoy their free time in the city.

New York made it easy. At official information booths around the city, service people could get a map, and directions to Coney Island (nine roller coasters!) or the Empire State Building. They could pick up free tickets to a movie, a Broadway play, or a baseball game (the Yankees, Dodgers, and Giants all played in New York at the time). When they wandered around the streets, American flags waved in patriotic welcome. People were friendly and gave them their seats on the subway. Restaurants offered special deals. The daytime hours were fun, but many soldiers and sailors were just waiting for the sun to go down and the nightlife to begin. They flocked to Times Square and Greenwich Village. They found nightclubs, fancy hotels, and basement dives. They found music, sometimes live big bands. They searched for liquor and girls. (Leonard Bernstein’s 1944 musical *On the Town* followed three exuberant sailors on twenty-four-hour shore leave, and introduced the song “New York, New York.”)

It could be a thrilling few hours for servicemen in the city, an unforgettable ride before they went to war. And it was an opportunity for New Yorkers to show their gratitude to the men who were fighting against a grave threat to the nation, and to the city. The mood was buoyant, but some of these men would not be coming home, and everyone knew it.

CLASSROOM SUGGESTIONS

Grade 8

These materials expand on the “home front” topic of Unit 5 in the 8th Grade Scope and Sequence. New York City was the last place many servicemen saw before they left for the front. With these materials, students can consider how servicemen from different parts of the country might have spent their time in the city before they faced the stress of the war.

Activities

- Use Resource E1, A Convenient Map of the City of New York for Service Men to identify the streets in Resource E2, the photograph of Times Square. Is the location of the Stage Door Canteen visible on the map or in the photo? What do the map and photo tell you about the war years in New York?
- Use the resources in this unit, and the outside film links that follow, to plan a twenty-four- or forty-eight-hour stay in New York for a soldier or sailor who will soon leave on a troopship. Give him a profile: age, history so far in the war, hometown, family. For example, you might write about a 20-year-old sailor from an Ohio farm who has never been away from home. Or a 34-year-old father who’s been working as a salesman in Maine. Or a black soldier from Queens who has only been to Manhattan once in his life. (Flesh out the story with details from the individual profiles in Unit D, or from the lives of people you know.) Your fictional serviceman is shipping out soon, but he has some time in New York. What does he want to do? Write a diary entry describing what the serviceman does and thinks about.

Discussion Questions

- How did a visit to New York City help servicemen deal with the prospect of war?
- How did the presence of so many servicemen shape the city and the life of its residents?
- How do people your age deal with stress? What similarities do you see with the strategies service people used during World War II?

Grade 11

These materials expand on the “experiences of men and women in the military,” a topic in Unit 6 of the 11th grade Scope and Sequence, within the “human dimensions of war.” They provide a way to look at the city’s history during this period, and also to consider how service people—many no older than high school students today—might choose to spend their free time before they were shipped out.

Activities

- Use www.archive.org or www.youtube.com to explore the popular music—the Hit Parade—of the war years. What kinds of music were the songs? How many were literally about the war? Were they dance songs, and if so, what kind of dance? Why were there so many love songs? What do popular songs indicate about what people were feeling? Music that was written or performed by black people was called “race music” and not included in the Hit Parade, but a separate “Harlem Hit Parade” was issued by Billboard magazine in 1942. To hear free clips of the “Greatest R&B Hits of 1940–1945,” go to: itunes.apple.com/us/album/greatest-r-b-hits-1940-1945/id353389504. How different were these songs from the “white music” on the Hit Parade? Do they capture different emotions about the war?
- Use the resources in this unit, and the outside film links below, to plan a twenty-four- or forty-eight-hour stay in New York for a soldier or sailor who will soon leave on a troopship. Give him a profile: age, history so far in the war, hometown, family. For example, you might write about a 20-year-old sailor from an Ohio farm who has never been away from home. Or a 34-year-old father who’s been working as a salesman in Maine. Or a black soldier from Queens who has only been to Manhattan once in his life. (Flesh out the story with details from the individual profiles in Unit D, or from the lives of people you know.) Your fictional serviceman is shipping out soon, but he has some time in New York. What does he want to do? Write a diary entry describing what the serviceman does and thinks about.
- Make a slide show or live presentation about New York in the war years. Read or record your diary entry (see above activity suggestion), or a portion of it. Add a sound track of popular music from the ’40s. For images, use resources in this book, online archival photos from the Library of Congress, the National Archives, or other websites. Focus on how an out-of-town serviceman might have seen and heard the city.

RESOURCES IN THIS UNIT

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Discussion Questions

- How did New York City help servicemen deal with the prospect of war?
- How did the presence of so many servicemen shape the city and the life of its residents?
- How do people your age deal with stress? How does it compare to the kinds of stress the soldiers and sailors felt, and the way they handled it?
On the Town

**LINKS TO OUTSIDE FILM FOOTAGE**

*Groovie Movie* is a funny nine-minute film showing how to do the jitterbug, with some history about the dances that preceded it. It was made in 1944. [www.youtube.com/watch?v=cbaNYWkQYYA](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cbaNYWkQYYA).

*Coney Island*. Made in 1940, this nine-minute film introduces one of the city’s best-known attractions. [archive.org/details/ConeyIsl1940](http://archive.org/details/ConeyIsl1940). (On April 26, 1942, blackout rules went into effect, and Coney Island was dark from dusk to dawn for the remainder of the war.)

*Arteries of New York City*, [archive.org/details/Arteries1941](http://archive.org/details/Arteries1941). This nine-minute film focuses on the roads, subways, and bus lines of the city, but in the process shows New York as it looked just before the U.S. entered the war.

*Around the World*, [archive.org/details/Aroundth1940](http://archive.org/details/Aroundth1940). Made in 1940, thirteen-minutes long. A tour of the world by way of ethnic New York, with the kind of sights a visiting serviceman might have seen if he decided to forgo the usual tourist attractions and just wander around New York.

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**References**

- Glossary
- Books and websites
**Women in Wartime New York**

**Background**

During the Depression, women were encouraged not to work, so men could take the few available jobs. When the U.S. entered World War II, and so many men were in the armed forces, the message changed dramatically. Women were needed in the workplace to keep war production high. The Office of War Information began a massive campaign to draw women to roles that had long been seen as strictly for men. The well-known Rosie the Riveter posters were part of this effort to glorify work as a woman's patriotic duty. By early 1944, 38 percent of the nation's industrial jobs were held by women. The figure was lower in New York—just under 28 percent of the workers at the city’s war plants were female.

In the beginning of the war, most female industrial workers were young, white, working class, and single. As the war went on, more married women entered the work force, and some people, especially men, found this deeply troubling, even dangerous. Women were blamed for abandoning their children, for allowing teenage daughters to go off with any soldier who came through town. Gangs of teenage boys were seen as women’s fault, as was the rising divorce rate (which was more likely related to spur-of-the-moment wartime weddings).

Still, nearly all women did something to support the war effort. Some were paid. Others volunteered for any one of many tasks the war required. At the New-York Historical Society, women rolled bandages that were needed for injured servicemen. Some were in uniform themselves as WAVES (Navy female reservists), or in one of the female branches of the other services: the WAC (Army), WASP (Army Air Corps), SPAR (Coast Guard), and Marine Corps Women’s Reserve. Mothers who remained at home, often as single parents while their husbands were overseas, managed the grocery shopping and ration books, grew victory gardens, canned food, and watched over their children.

Parents knew, early in the war, that there would be no program to evacuate children to the countryside and away from potential targets like New York City. The British had conducted a massive evacuation program, and the children had been so traumatized that experts agreed it was better for American children to remain with their parents. So mothers did not have to worry about saying good-bye to their children, but it was impossible for them not to feel anxiety about their youngsters’ safety and well-being. What would it mean for them to grow up in a world dominated in every way by war?

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Women in Wartime New York

CLASSROOM SUGGESTIONS

Grade 8

These materials address Unit 5 of the 8th Grade Scope and Sequence, specifically the home front during World War II. The role of women in the workforce and rationing are both covered, along with additional materials on women as members of the military, as sweethearts and wives waiting at home, and as mothers raising children in the wartime environment.

Activities
- Research the “Rosie the Riveter” campaign online. Compare the famous J. Howard Miller poster of Rosie in her red bandanna with her sleeves rolled up (www.archives.gov/exhibits/powers_of_persuasion/its_a_womans_war_too/its_a_womans_war_too.html) to the Norman Rockwell drawing that appeared as a cover on The Saturday Evening Post (www.saturdayeveningpost.com/2012/04/30/archives/then-and-now/inside-our-archives.html). Listen to the song at archive.org/details/RosieTheRiveter. Read the life story of Carmela Celardo Zuza. How was war work being presented to women? How close did it come to reality?

Discussion Questions
- How did the war affect family life?
- How similar and different were the lives of women in World War II from the women you know today?

Grade 11

These materials address Unit 6 of the 11th Grade Scope and Sequence, specifically The United States in World War II. Topics covered include the “arsenal of democracy,” the role of women, rationing, and experiences of women in military service. In addition, these materials explore the lives of wives and sweethearts at home, and the role of women raising children in the wartime environment.

Activities
- WNYC has posted a Twitter account for Mayor La Guardia, pulling tweet-length comments from his radio addresses. Here’s a sample from 1944: “I cannot recommend Grade B eggs too strongly. They are fine eggs, so take advantage of the 39 cent price.” Go to twitter.com/mayorlaguardia, and find some of La Guardia’s other comments about rationing and food. How did this popular mayor use his office to encourage cooperation with regulations governing food? Why do you think he did this?
- Use the resources to create a daily schedule for two New York women during the war, one unmarried and working at the Navy Yard, the other a married woman with children who works as a volunteer and whose husband is in the war. (Don’t forget the cooking and the housework!)
- Make a list of the feelings women workers might have had during the war—sadness, pride, anger, fear, loneliness. Use these resources to imagine a woman who had a job and was raising children, and write a letter you think she might send to her husband in the army, describing her day.

Discussion Questions
- How did the war affect the role of women? Was too much expected of them? Why do you think that?
- How did living in New York make the war years unique for the city’s women?

RESOURCES IN THIS UNIT

Resource F1:
They’re Either Too Young or Too Old

Resource F2:
Shipfitters on Lunch Break

Resource F3:
A Letter from Sid

Resource F4:
Black Trainees in the Metal Trades

Resource F5:
Homemaker’s War Guide

Resource F6:
Grow Your Own, Can Your Own

Resource F7:
War Ration Book Four

Resource F8:
War Play for Children—How Much?

Resource F9:
Boot Camp in the Bronx: A WAVE Remembers

Resource F10:
Brooklyn Navy Yard at War

Life Story:
Carmela Celardo Zuza

Related resources from other units:
- Mary Yamada Profile (Unit D, Resource Dlf)
- Lieutenant (jg) Harriet Ida Pickens and Ensign Frances Wills... (Unit H, Resource H2)
- Sayre R. Carter and T. A. Morgan at Sperry Gyroscope (Unit H, Resource H7)
- The Arsenal of Democracy (Unit J, Resource J6)
Women in Wartime New York

**References**
- Glossary
- Books and websites

**LINKS TO OUTSIDE FILM FOOTAGE**

*The Army Nurse.* A sixteen-minute film made shortly after the war’s end, honoring the work done by Army nurses at home and in the war zone. archive.org/details/ArmyNurs1945.

*As the Twig Is Bent.* A ten-minute film, made in 1943, addressed to parents on the importance of a “normal home life” in raising good citizens. archive.org/details/AstheTwi1943.

*Food and Magic.* The Office of War Information made this nine-minute 1943 film in which popular comic Jack Carson plays a carnival barker and delivers entertaining lessons about food waste, production, prices, and rationing. archive.org/details/FoodAndMagic.

"Rosie the Riveter." To hear the popular song by Redd Evans and John Jacob Loeb, go to: archive.org/details/RosieTheRiveter.

Sheridan Harvey, Women's Studies Specialist, Humanities and Social Sciences Division, Library of Congress, has written about Rosie the Riveter, and especially about Norman Rockwell’s famous *Saturday Evening Post* cover, at: www.loc.gov/rr/program/journey/rosie-transcript.html.

*New York City Hails War Heroes of United Nations.* This ten-minute 1942 film contains a number of unrelated episodes. The title refers only to the first, and the phrase “United Nations” is a reference to the Allies. Episode 4, “Shipbuilding Program Hits All-Time High,” begins at 03:30 and celebrates the shipbuilding effort around the country. archive.org/details/gov.archives.arc.38907.

*Supervising Women Workers.* A ten-minute film made in 1944 showing two supervisors discussing the particular difficulties of overseeing women working in an industrial plant. This film captures the attitudes women could face when they entered the work force. archive.org/details/Supervis1944.
Background

Children confronted a new reality when the U.S. went to war. Mothers were busier than ever at home, and many were also working at a job or doing volunteer work to support the war effort. Many fathers were in the service and gone for years at a time. It was hard to find favorite foods. (With sugar scarce, one family learned that a local store had a few bottles of maple syrup, and the mother and three children raced to get one, dreaming of pancakes. The youngest, an excited three-year-old, insisted on carrying the bottle the last few steps into the house. He dropped it, and was never forgiven by his brother and sister.)

Many New Yorkers felt the added anxiety that they were living in one of Hitler’s targets. In Great Britain, children had been evacuated from dangerous areas and sent on trains to live with rural families, far from their parents. By the time the U.S. entered the war, it was clear that evacuation had been deeply traumatic to British children, and the decision was made not to do it in the U.S. Knowing this was probably comforting to children and parents.

The war brought children a level of excitement they had never experienced. They were asked to help in grown-up ways, especially by collecting salvage materials. They had more independence. If they were old enough, they could make their way in the city, see the streets filled with soldiers and sailors, and the rivers and harbor filled with ships. Things seemed urgent and important, even though they were scary—because they were scary. Especially for children whose fathers were in uniform.

For people growing up in the 1940s, the war was inescapable—particularly in New York City, with its central role in the transporting of troops and military supplies. It affected every aspect of young people’s lives, at home, at school, and at play.

CLASSROOM SUGGESTIONS

Grade 8

These materials support Unit 5 of the 8th Grade Scope and Sequence. They examine the home front from the perspective of children and teenagers who lived through the war years.

Activities

- Use the resources to list the kinds of things middle school and high school students did to help in the war effort.
- Use the resources in this unit and Resource F8 in Unit F, War Play for Children—How Much?, to think about the way children played during the war. What kind of games did you play when you were eight or nine? If you played video games, which ones did you like? How did they portray war?
- Use Resource G2, Airplane Recognition Models, to consider the need to identify planes overhead. Do an online search for photos of helicopters, which fly low enough today to be recognized from the ground. How many different kinds of features do you see? Think of color, size, and shape. Use the photos to make a chart of some of the models you see. Many helicopters fly over New York City. If possible, watch one in flight, or use YouTube to find videos of helicopters in flight. Can you match what you see to the chart? How easy is it?
- The United States has been engaged in armed conflict since shortly after the attacks of September 11, 2001. Use current ads from toy stores (like the flyers included in Sunday newspapers) to research toys and games marketed to children today. What lessons are today’s toys teaching young children? How is it different from what you know about World War II?

Discussion Questions

- How did the war change life for children and teens? What seems familiar about the lives of young people during World War II? What seems different?
- A lot was expected of young people during the war. How does it compare with what is expected of them today?
- How do you think you could have contributed to the war effort if you had lived during World War II?
- Cledonia Jones, in Resource G3, the Tar Beach excerpt, says it’s hard for kids to take serious things seriously. Do you agree?
- Negative stereotypes of the enemy, especially of the Japanese, were found in toys and games and throughout popular culture during World War II. What was the purpose of those stereotypes? How do they compare with the portrayal of Muslims in America since the attacks of 9/11?

Grade 11

These materials support Unit 6 of the 11th grade Scope and Sequence. They examine the home front from the perspective of children and teenagers who lived through the war years.

Activities

- Use the resources to consider what was expected of children of different ages. How did children respond to these expectations?
- Watch the two animated short films listed below under “Links to Outside Film Footage.” Whom do you think the films were meant for? What message do you think young children would take from them? Why would studios use animation for these films?
- Study the two photos in Resource G6, High School Victory Corps. Make some quick notes about the ideas, questions, and reactions that come to mind as you look at them. Share all the notes with the class, and pick one or two to focus on in a class discussion.
- Research the street game known as ringolevio. (If you have access to it, use the DVD of New York Street Games, a Levy/Lifschutz Production, 2009. The ringolevio section begins at 38:00.) How do you think the war would affect how children would play this game?
- Go to archive.org/details/AstheteTwii1943, and watch the short film entitled As the Twig Is Bent, made in 1943. According to the film, what problems were children getting into? Who was responsible? What solutions were offered?

Discussion Questions

- What messages were teenagers given during the war? How were they supposed to behave?
- What were the biggest challenges people like you faced during the war?
- What are the biggest challenges high school students face today? How are you preparing?
- Why were boys and girls treated differently during the war? Are they still? Should they be? Why or why not?
- Cledonia Jones, in Resource G3, the Tar Beach excerpt, says it’s hard for kids to take serious things seriously. Do you agree?
Children and Teens in Wartime New York

**References**

- Glossary
- Books and websites

**LINKS TO OUTSIDE FILM FOOTAGE**

*Cap’n Cub.* A ten-minute animated film made in 1945 showing a bear cub as a pilot. [archive.org/details/CapnCub1945](archive.org/details/CapnCub1945).

*Out of the Frying Pan into the Firing Line.* A three-minute animated film with Pluto and Minnie Mouse about the campaign to save kitchen fats. [archive.org/details/OutOfTheFryingPanIntoTheFiringLine](archive.org/details/OutOfTheFryingPanIntoTheFiringLine).

*Coney Island.* Nine minutes long, this 1940s film celebrates the “dynamic funland of a nation,” and provides a look at war-era New Yorkers, many of them children and teens, at play. [archive.org/details/ConeyIsl1940](archive.org/details/ConeyIsl1940).
Background

Prior to World War II, the military was almost entirely whites-only. Both the Army and Navy accepted a few blacks, mostly in low-level, noncombat positions, or, in the case of the Army, in one of four segregated units. The draft law of 1940 created the nation’s first peacetime draft, and specified that “there shall be no discrimination against any person on account of race or color.” So the draft itself was color-blind, but the Army, the only branch of the military to rely on the draft early in the war, continued to place African Americans, and dark-skinned Latinos, in segregated units. If the units were full, able-bodied draftees of color were turned away, even if the Army needed men. In the fall of 1941, before Pearl Harbor, there were half a million men in the Army, but only 4,700 were black. The number of African Americans in the Navy was even lower, and the Marines accepted no black enlistees at all.

Unemployment at home was another major issue facing African Americans. The Great Depression had affected them more deeply than whites, and many were still without jobs even as the city and the nation began to recover. One reason for the recovery was ramped-up production in war industries, but blacks were systematically shut out of these jobs.

A. Philip Randolph, founder and head of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, came up with a plan to pressure the government to address simultaneously both the segregated military and the closed doors of the defense industry. He vowed to bring tens of thousands of African Americans to the nation’s capital for the first-ever March on Washington. The march never took place because the plan alone forced a showdown with the Roosevelt administration. The result was Executive Order 8802, which ended hiring discrimination in the defense industry.

Despite this victory in the workplace, however, segregation in the military would continue throughout the war. And economic conditions for African Americans in the city would remain far below those of white New Yorkers. The 1943 Harlem riot was one explosive result of this ongoing inequity.

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African Americans in Wartime New York

CLASSROOM SUGGESTIONS

**Grade 8**

These materials address the “limited progress for African Americans,” in Unit 5 of the Scope and Sequence. They explore the roles of African Americans in the military and in the workplace, the March on Washington movement and President Roosevelt’s Executive Order 8802, and the Harlem riot that erupted in the summer of 1943.

**Activities**

- Study Resource H1, African American Soldiers, and Resource H2, the photo of WAVES Harriet Ida Pickens and Frances Wills. Then, read the profiles of George Jones and Jacob Lawrence in Unit D. How did racism and segregation affect the lives of African Americans in the military in World War II? How different were the experiences of men and women?
- Watch the 1942 film *Close Harmony* at archive.org/details/CloseHar1942. Describe the way that Sam, the only black man in the film, is portrayed. How do the white men treat him? What does the film indicate about white attitudes toward black soldiers? Why would General Motors, which produced the film, have included Sam in this barbershop scene when he was not part of the story?
- Use the materials in Unit F, especially Resource F2, Shipfitters on Lunch Break, and Resource F4, Black Trainees in the Metal Trades, combined with Resources H1 and H2 from this unit, to compare the experiences of black and white women during the war.

**Discussion Questions**

- Why did black men want to fight in the war?
- Why did the March on Washington movement win one of its major objectives? What made it successful?
- How different were the experiences of black men and black women during the war?
- How different were the experiences of black and white New Yorkers during the war?

**Grade 11**

These materials support Unit 6 of the Scope and Sequence, specifically the topic “the war’s impact on minorities.” It addresses racial segregation in the military, but expands to explore the integration of the defense industry and the origins of the 1960s civil rights movement in strategies designed during the war.

**Activities**

- Combine Resource H1, African American Soldiers, with the profiles of George Jones and Jacob Lawrence in Unit D. Watch the 1942 film entitled *Close Harmony*, archive.org/details/CloseHar1942. Write an essay about the work African American soldiers performed and the attitudes they confronted.
- Focus on the 1942 film *Close Harmony* at archive.org/details/CloseHar1942. Describe the way that Sam, the only black man in the film, is portrayed. How do the white men treat him? What does the film indicate about white attitudes toward black soldiers? Why would General Motors, which produced the film, have included Sam in this barbershop scene when he was not part of the story?
- Study Resources H3–H7, which focus on the March on Washington movement. List what you see as the critical turning points in the effort to open defense industry jobs to black workers.
- Compare the resources in this unit with Langston Hughes’s celebrated 1951 poem “Harlem” (“What happens to a dream deferred?”). How does the poem reflect the experiences of black New Yorkers during the war?

**Discussion Questions**

- Before the war, the Army believed it was too risky to challenge prevailing American attitudes about race. What parallels to this thinking do you see today?
- Why did Randolph’s proposed March on Washington succeed, even though it was cancelled? What lessons do you think black leaders drew from this success?
- Could important but limited gains by African Americans—in the military and on the home front—have contributed to the Harlem riot? What happens when gains don’t go as far as people hope?
REFERENCES

- Glossary
- Books and websites

LINKS TO OUTSIDE FILM FOOTAGE

Close Harmony. Made in 1942, this eleven-minute film is set in a barber shop, where the white owner and patrons discuss how American manufacturers are changing over to war production. The film's subplot involves a black assistant to the barber, portrayed as stereotypically gentle and dim-witted, receiving his draft notice. It's a brief but stark look at the attitudes faced by black draftees. archive.org/details/CloseHar1942.

Negro Colleges in Wartime. An eight-minute film made in 1944 surveying programs in black colleges to prepare students for jobs in war industries. archive.org/details/NegroCol1944.

Supervising Women Workers. A ten-minute film made in 1944 showing two supervisors discussing the particular difficulties of overseeing women working in an industrial plant. All the women in the film are white. Black women workers faced these male attitudes in addition to racial bias. archive.org/details/Supervis1944.
Background

The Battle of the Atlantic was the longest military campaign of World War II. It began well before Pearl Harbor, even though the U.S. was officially neutral. America provided war supplies and food to Great Britain and the Soviet Union, first on a cash-and-carry basis, and then as loans to be repaid later. The merchant ships transporting these goods were protected from German U-boats (for Unterseeboote, or underwater boats) by British, Canadian, and some U.S. Navy warships. The U-boats were deadly. One escort ship, the USS Reuben James, was sunk by a German torpedo five weeks before Pearl Harbor, and became the first American warship lost in the war.

After the U.S. entry into the war, the Battle of the Atlantic came right to the coastline around New York. Military experts were not surprised by the presence of German U-boats so close to the U.S., but everyday New Yorkers no doubt were. The fear of a German air attack caused sleepless nights in New York homes, but the U-boats were actually a much bigger threat than the Luftwaffe.

New York was America’s largest city, its primary embarkation point for soldiers and sailors shipping out to the war theaters, and its leading industrial port. This unit focuses on the first chaotic months of 1942, when the local danger was greatest.
Peril and Defense on the Home Front

CLASSROOM SUGGESTIONS

Grade 8

These materials support the exploration of the home front in Unit 5 of the Eighth Grade Scope and Sequence.

Activities

- Read Resource I1, Reinhard Hardegen’s account of bringing his U-boat into New York harbor. If possible, view the 1994 filmed interview with Captain Hardegen (www.youtube.com/watch?v=1kKyrjgOUXM), in which he says he did not pass the Narrows, but he could clearly see Coney Island. Use the map in Resource J1, The Port of New York: Rear Echelon to the Warfront, and try to determine where Hardegen was. If he could see Coney Island and the glow of city lights, what else do you think he could see?
- Read Resource I3, and use a map of Long Island to locate Amagansett. Use the scale of miles to determine how far the German spies were from the Brooklyn Navy Yard or Times Square. How would New Yorkers have felt when they read this article?
- Using Resources I1–I3 only, break into small groups and brainstorm some solutions to the U-boat problem. What could be done to protect merchant ships? What could be done to protect New Yorkers?
- Use the remaining resources in this unit to learn about the actions the authorities took. Are the actions surprising? Were they on your own list of possible solutions?

Grade 11

These materials support Unit 6 of the Eleventh Grade Scope and Sequence. The topic “Allied strategy and leadership” can be explored in detail, close to home.

Activities

- Read Resource I11 and, if possible, view the 1994 interview with Reinhard Hardegen at www.youtube.com/watch?v=1kKyrjgOUXM. Hardegen was considered a brave, even reckless, commander. Do you see signs of this in his account? What do you think the German people thought of this passage when they read the book?
- Study Resources I1–I3, and write a statement about U-boats near New York in the early days of the war. What problems did the submarines, and the war itself, present to New York City?
- Brainstorm some ways to solve these problems. What could Mayor La Guardia, and U.S. military authorities, do to protect merchant ships? What could they do to protect New York City?
- Use the remaining resources to learn what precautions were actually put in place. How closely did it match your brainstormed ideas?
- Read the FBI summary of the Amagansett case at www.fbi.gov/about-us/history/famous-cases/nazi-saboteurs. The German news magazine Der Spiegel also provides a summary of the case at www.spiegel.de/international/zeitgeist/operation-pastorius-hitler-s-unfulfilled-dream-of-a-new-york-in-flames-a-716753.html. What additional details do you learn from these accounts? What did Hitler try to accomplish in New York? What kind of spy equipment did the men have? What does it suggest they intended to do? How did America treat the captured German spies?

Discussion Questions

- How were New Yorkers then different from New Yorkers today? Did they respond differently to threats? To rules?
- How do people handle living in danger? What makes them feel safer? How?
- What kinds of dangers do New Yorkers live with today? What precautions do we take? How much does a sense of danger affect our daily lives?
- How did Mayor La Guardia use his office and his personality to prepare New Yorkers for attack? What did he do best? What mistakes did he make?
- In a nation of immigrants like the United States, how should we treat U.S. residents and citizens associated with our enemies during war? Was our treatment of German Americans during the war? To what extent should we give to civilians in harm’s way? What, if anything, should be kept from them?

Find out more at new-yorkhistoricalsociety.org

continued on following page
German, Italian, and Japanese residents during World War II justified by national security? How different was it from our treatment of Muslim Americans since 9/11? How should we balance individual rights and public safety?

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Related resources from other units:
The Port of New York: Rear Echelon to the Warfront (Unit J, Resource J1, map)
Peril and Defense on the Home Front

References
- Glossary
- Books and websites

LINKS TO OUTSIDE FILM FOOTAGE

German U-boat Newsreel, Refuel at Sea.
archive.org/details/GermanU-boatNewsreelRefuelAtSea.
A seven-minute German propaganda film showing life on a U-boat in 1940. Narration is in German. Footage shows the submarine being resupplied from a nearby ship, and ends with a torpedo attack on a ship in the Atlantic, to the cheers of the U-boat crew.

New York at War. archive.org/details/parade_in_new_york.
A twenty-two-minute film, in color but without sound, following the huge “New York at War” parade held on June 13, 1942.

A seven-minute Disney film starring Donald Duck on the importance of paying income tax to help pay for war expenditures. Made in 1942, it was aimed at parents in movie theaters with children.

A nine-minute Office of War Information film, made in 1943, showing how Japanese Americans were relocated to internment camps.

Hardegen’s First Mission.
www.youtube.com/watch?v=1kKyrjgOUXM.
A two-minute clip from a 1994 Sharkhunters.com interview with Reinhard Hardegen, in which he describes his entry into New York Harbor in January 1942, and Admiral Ernest J. King’s failure to catch him.
The Port of New York

Background

Many American cities and towns played important roles in the war effort, but New York City was a place like no other. In 1940, New York City was the most important industrial metropolis on earth, the busiest port anywhere, the capital of capitalism, and the largest and richest city on the planet. Between 1942 and 1945, it was the major port of embarkation for troops bound for Europe and North Africa; more than three million servicemen sailed from New York to the front. New York was home to the Brooklyn Navy Yard, the busiest shipyard in the world. It was the manufacturing center for a huge range of products essential to the war, from explosives to penicillin to K-rations. In New York Harbor, ships loaded with supplies for the Allies formed into convoys to venture across the U-boat-infested Atlantic. New York was the center of the Allied propaganda effort, and the starting point for the super-secret effort to build an atomic bomb (called, appropriately, the Manhattan Project). Times Square became the emblem of the nation’s victory celebrations. And finally, New York welcomed more returning soldiers to their homeland than any other port.

The U.S. Army called New York City “the mightiest port of war the world has ever known.” Many factors made it so, some natural and some man-made: a great, deep harbor; an excellent industrial and shipping infrastructure; railway and water connections to the rest of the country and the world; and a talent pool of both leaders and workers in manufacturing, media, and other essential areas. These factors, along with the city’s location in the Northeast and its role in encouraging intervention against the Nazi regime, also made New York City a potential target. The German air strikes that many residents feared did not materialize, but in the early days of the war German U-boats sank Allied tankers within sight of Long Islanders.

The core of this unit is a map of New York’s five boroughs and parts of New Jersey and New York State. It is available in both digital form on this disc and as a printed poster in your curriculum packet. It shows the range of war-related activity in and near the city in 1944, the busy period when the nation was building up to final victory. The sites are organized in four categories: Military Training, Military Logistics, Defending New York City, and War Industries. On the digital version, the four categories can be viewed individually.

On each map, large facilities like the Brooklyn Navy Yard are identified by a colored shape; smaller sites, occupying an individual building or address, are noted with a colored dot. Size was significant, but many of the dotted sites were critically important, like the Port Director’s office at the lower tip of Manhattan. The purpose of the map is to show how the city’s landscape was dominated by war activity. There were in fact many more war-related sites than appear on this map, which can only offer a graphically convincing selection.

CLASSROOM SUGGESTIONS

Grade 8

These materials address the “mobilization of resources” topic of Unit 5 of the Scope and Sequence.

Activities

► Orient yourself on the printed map, or a printout of the digital map. Is your neighborhood shown? Can you identify the locations of landmarks, like your school, the Statue of Liberty, or the Brooklyn Bridge? Add three or four familiar locations to the map with removable stickers.

► Explore the New York region’s war-related activity. What sites were closest to your neighborhood? Where was the war activity concentrated? What were the largest facilities? What kind of boat traffic do you see? What World War II site do you land near on the Staten Island side?

Discussion Questions

► What role did New York’s waterfront play during the war?

► What role does New York’s waterfront play in your life today? How often have you been in New York waters in a boat? Do you think students in different parts of the city would answer these questions differently?

Grade 11

These materials address several topics in Unit 6 of the Scope and Sequence: the “arsenal of democracy,” mobilization, the Manhattan Project, and the incarceration of enemy aliens.

Activities

► Orient yourself to the map. Locate your neighborhood, school, and one or two important New York landmarks.

► Explore the New York region’s war-related activity. What sites were closest to your neighborhood? Where was the war activity concentrated? What were the largest facilities? How many of the largest facilities were not on the water? What does that tell you?

► Print out the four category maps (Military Training, Military Logistics, Defending New York City, and War Industries). Use the sample questions below to consider each category separately.

Discussion Questions

► Do you think of New York as a port? What role does the city’s harbor play in your concept of the city?

► Watch Resource J3: Tour the WWII Harbor with Kenneth T. Jackson. How is World War II history visible in the city today?

RESOURCES IN THIS UNIT

Resource J1: The Port of New York: Rear Echelon to the Warfront

Resource J2: The Arsenal of Democracy

Resource J3: Tour the WWII Harbor with Kenneth T. Jackson

Related resources from other units:

Allied Ships in New York Harbor (Unit B, Resource B8)
Brooklyn Navy Yard at War (Unit F, Resource F10)
German U-boat in New York Harbor (Unit I, Resource I1)
Control Room in Lower Manhattan (Unit I, Resource I4)
**The Port of New York**

**LINKS TO OUTSIDE FILM FOOTAGE**

*Manhattan Waterfront.* A 1937 film, ten minutes long, providing a tour of New York harbor before the Depression ended and the war began. archive.org/details/ManhattanWat.

*Close Harmony.* Made in 1942, this eleven-minute film is set in a barber shop, where the white owner and patrons discuss how American manufacturers are changing over to war production. archive.org/details/CloseHar1942.

*Troop Train.* An eleven-minute film made in 1943 by the Office of War Information, following a train being loaded with men and equipment “somewhere in the United States.” The film shows details of life aboard the train, including the soldiers trying to figure out where they are heading, since destinations were kept secret. Many troop trains were bound for New York City, the nation’s primary mobilization site for servicemen headed for Europe and North Africa. archive.org/details/TroopTra1943.

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NEW YORK HISTORICAL SOCIETY
The Friends of the New Germany was an effort to build a support group for the Third Reich in America, especially in New York. Official membership cards were printed, entirely in German, with a logo that combined the American flag with the swastika. This card was signed by Gertrüd Müller, who gave her address as 15 West 64th Street. She volunteered in the office and attended group meetings regularly for several months. Her membership number was 121, suggesting that 120 members may have signed up before her. The full size of the Bund is not known with certainty, but in one anecdote, members of the Friends laughed in private when one of them claimed the group had 10,000 members, a deliberate exaggeration.

“Gertrüd Müller” was not who she claimed to be. Read the life story of Florence Mendheim to learn who she really was.

Below is a translation of the resource:

The “Friends of the New Germany” League
National Headquarters

Local Chapter: New York City
[Small print circling the swastika:] Friends of the New Germany

Membership Card
No. 121
for
Mrs. Gertrüd Müller

Address: 15 W. 64th Street N.Y.C.

Joined on 21 June 1933

New York 1 February 1934 for the National Headquarters
[indecipherable signature]

[Seal on upper right:] Friends of the New Germany
[Seal on the lower left:] Friends of the New Germany, National Headquarters

[Back]
Please Note: Changes of address are to be reported immediately to the local chapter. Every member must report their departure to the local chapter before traveling to Germany. The membership card is only valid if current dues are paid up. After a year’s membership, upon sending in the membership card, 2 passport photos, and a 25-cent processing fee to the local chapter, a member’s certification will be issued.

[The abbreviations on the stamps: “F.D.N.D” stands for “Freund des neuen Deutschland,” or Friends of the New Germany; “Beitrag” means “dues”; “Sp” may stand for “Spende” or “donation”; and “M.B” is probably “Mitgliedsbuch,” the certificate that was issued after a year’s membership.]

Adolph Hitler became Chancellor of Germany on January 30, 1933, and began immediately pressing for absolute dictatorial power. When he got his wish and became Führer on March 23, 1933, the American Jewish Congress organized a demonstration for the following Monday at Madison Square Garden. Speakers included prominent Jewish and non-Jewish New Yorkers, but the main address was given by the head of the American Jewish Congress, Rabbi Stephen Wise. Speakers stood at a podium positioned between an American flag and a half-dozen or so stand-up radio microphones labeled CBS, NBC, WOR. One after another, they spoke out against the events in Germany, and especially against the Nazi persecution of German Jews.

The speakers were heard by the 20,000 people who had crammed into the Garden, by an overflow crowd listening to loudspeakers outside, and by radio audiences in other American cities and in Europe. Worldwide, over two million people heard the cold blast that greeted the Führer’s first week in power. Hitler responded by sending his storm troopers to raid Jewish businesses in Germany.
In the 1930s, New York’s Italian Americans eagerly followed Mussolini’s rise in Italy, and displayed his picture in their storefronts. Many took to the streets of New York after Mussolini, known as il Duce, the Leader, conquered Ethiopia. Here they crowd 116th Street in a spontaneous show of ethnic pride in the Fascist regime. After years of associating Italy with defeat, poverty, and weakness, it was a thrill for them to see that Italy had developed muscles and was not afraid to use them.

Many New Yorkers would have found this display unbearable. The local black community was especially outraged because Mussolini had seized an African country. A “Hands Off Ethiopia” rally was held at Madison Square Garden, with speakers from the NAACP. Some people within the Italian community also opposed Mussolini and took their news from the city’s two anti-Fascist newspapers, La Stampa Libera and Il Martello. Overall, though, Mussolini enjoyed wide public support among Italian New Yorkers through the 1930s.
Fritz Kuhn Orders New Uniforms for Nazi Storm Troops in U.S.

A new uniform for the members of the O. D. or Service Order was ordered by National Leader Fritz Kuhn of the German-American Bund. This order, marked General Order No. 6, reads as follows:

“We are keeping in mind that it is necessary for us to create a uniform suitable for an American organization which will not resemble the S. A. or S. S. uniform of Germany, nor that of the American army, or the National Guard. We must also bear in mind that we need a uniform in order to prevent certain things that have happened recently, when due to bad weather, certain members of our O. D. caught cold because the uniform they were wearing afforded them inadequate protection.

“A section of our O. D. had chosen for itself a black uniform coat. This uniform resembled very closely that of the S. S. in Germany. This aroused the ire of certain American officials who are unfriendly to this uniform. Now the time has come to determine once and for all what the O. D. uniform of the German-American Bund is to be. Following is the description:

- Long Black Trousers without cuffs
- Black shoes
- Steel grey shirt with breast pockets
- Long black tie
- Green-grey uniform coat (same cut as that of the American National Guard)
- Black caps with the Bund insignia (as worn by the American Legion)
- Black belts with shoulder straps.

“Insignia service stripes, arm bands, medals, etc. will be described in a special order. Every group will receive photographs, samples of material, prices, etc.”
On November 9–10, 1938, German Jews and their neighborhoods were attacked in a coordinated assault. Jewish property and businesses were destroyed, windows smashed, and Jews were beaten. The episode was known as the Night of Broken Glass, or Kristallnacht. It left little doubt that Hitler would act as he wished against Jews.

For New Yorkers listening to their radios and reading their newspapers, *Kristallnacht* did not seem like a faraway problem—not with Nazis right in the city, holding rallies, wearing swastikas, flashing *Sieg Heil* salutes, and railing against Jews. New York’s former governor, Al Smith, took to the airwaves with other politicians and called for action to end the savagery. Mayor La Guardia said the Third Reich’s anti-Semitism had reached “bestial heights.” At Hunter College, faculty and students protested. This photograph was taken on November 15 in New York’s large garment and fur district. Hundreds of workers, many of whom were Jewish, attended a protest meeting and marched with signs denouncing Nazi actions against Jews.

New Yorkers were alarmed and angry, and some wanted to punish the German economy with a boycott of goods. But they were not calling for war.
Help build the fighting Movement of the 100 Million Aryan (White Gentile) Americans to stamp out Jewish-Atheistic Communistic International Outlawry!

PUBLIC RALLY
NEW YORK TURNHALL
Lexington Avenue and 85th Street, N. Y. C.

Thursday, February 24th, 1938 at 8:30 P. M.
All White Americans Welcome!
Sensational Exposures by
Russell J. Dunn & Robert Edward Edmondson
and other outstanding Speakers.
GERMAN AMERICAN BUND, NEW YORK UNIT

Resource A6:
All White Americans Welcome!

The printed notice of this February 1938 rally uses the blunt language of anti-Semitism to aim directly at a certain audience, an American audience. There is no swastika on the notice, and other than the reference to the German American Bund, no suggestion of Germany or Hitler. The Bund leadership knew that there were other anti-Semites in the U.S., and brought in speakers who would appeal to them. Russell J. Dunn had spoken frequently against Jews and had ties to Father Charles Coughlin, a Catholic priest with an anti-Jewish philosophy and a popular radio show. Robert Edward Edmondson was a financial writer who wrote pamphlets with titles like “The Proof of a Jewish Conspiracy to Communize America and Rule the World.” Neither speaker was German.
Resource A7:

Mass Demonstration for True Americanism

On February 20, 1939, New York City witnessed a most unusual celebration of George Washington's birthday. The "Mass Demonstration for True Americanism" was held in Madison Square Garden and sponsored by the German American Bund.

The organizers of the mass demonstration borrowed two of America's patriotic icons—the flag and the first president. They blended them with the swastika, Sieg Heil salutes, uniformed guards, martial music, and a rousing pro-Nazi address by Fritz Kuhn. But many New Yorkers, particularly Jewish New Yorkers, were outraged and protested vigorously outside the event. It was just three months after Kristallnacht, which the Bund had publicly applauded. (A Gallup poll found that 94 percent of Americans disapproved.) The Bund was losing the public relations battle and would never have another powerful moment like this one.
A Nation Terrorized

As soon as we had fetched our tools from the shed near the canal and the prisoners had been allotted to their working positions under the supervision of the guards, I gave myself only a very brief pause for consideration and then jumped aside behind the embankment. . . . I now ran swiftly with long strides. . . . I had mentally divided my flight into four stages: getting clear of the place of work, through Oranienburg to Berlin, out of Berlin towards the frontier and then across the frontier. . . .

All at once a thought ran through my mind like a flash: what if my flight had yet been detected and Storm Troopers had hurried to Germendorf nearby and then telephoned to alarm the watch at the camp? Then for certain, fifty or sixty SA men, all of them knowing me by sight, would be racing back and forth on all the streets round Oranienburg. At any moment a cyclist or motorcyclist might come towards me and then all would be over.

Yet I marched forward. . . .

On the edge of Berlin I got into a tram. After the first two stopping places I now had for the first time a strange feeling of being incognito, nobody looked at me, everybody seemed concerned only with himself, the conductor was not surprised, or at least did not seem to be, that I had asked for my ticket in a voice almost inaudible with emotion, and for the first time for three hours my nerves partly relaxed. . . .

[L]ate in the evening, I reached the place from which I intended to carry out my fourth stage—the passage over the frontier.

It was an icy night of bright moonlight. The silent, snow-laden walls of the wood which fringed the road on both sides towered above me into the clear air. The hard frozen snow crunched under my feet, the breath from my mouth and nose almost turned to ice, and the nearer I came to the frontier the louder my heart throbbed. Would the frontier be guarded at the point I had selected for the passage? For the first six hours of this tramp through the night—and six hours are a very very long time!—I moved perpetually in expectant dread that at the next turn of the road a gendarme or SA man might come in sight, and all my efforts be in vain. For six hours I took the greatest care never to tread on a brittle branch, for six hours I marched on with aching muscles, with over-active senses which perceived every sound from the wood in the night air, with vibrating nerves stretched to breaking point.

It was just an inconspicuous stone which lay there forgotten before me in the wood, crusted with snow and illuminated by the full moon—the frontier mark! I took a step past it. . . . It was not my native country that I was in now, it was not the country for which I had fought in the war and served in the national parliament. But I had returned to a world in which a human being is recognized as such by his fellows, in which no one is subject to such unbounded, atrocious, bestial torment as in the Germany of Hitler. With the passage of the Czecho-Slovakian frontier I had returned to the world of culture, to the domain of civilization, from a prisoner in a concentration camp I had again become a free man.

Florence Mendheim, future spy, was born in Chicago but grew up in the Bronx. Her parents, Max and Bettie, had come from Germany in the 1880s and still had family there. In Berlin, the Mendheims were store owners, and their name appeared prominently on the signs over the doors. Florence had seen them when she was nine, on a family trip to Germany. Her mother’s people, the Kroners, lived in Berlin as well. Florence’s Aunt Hulda Kroner had visited the Mendheims in New York, and many letters went back and forth. The family ties between the Bronx and Berlin were strong.

By 1930, the Mendheims were living on West 163rd Street. Max was out of work, but Florence, 31, was a librarian at the New York Public Library. Her brothers, Jesse and Arthur, both had jobs. Together, they supported the family and paid the $135 monthly rent. The Mendheims, like roughly half of the Bronx, were Jewish. From the letters coming from German relatives, the news on the radio and in the newspapers, and things they heard in the neighborhood and at the synagogue, they knew early on that Jews in Germany were being targeted by a rising party called Nazis.

There were even Nazis in New York—right in the Bronx, beginning in 1922. In the spring of 1933, when Hitler became Führer, Berlin authorized a new American Nazi organization. The Friends of the New Germany, headquartered in the German neighborhood of Yorkville, gave Nazis a noticeable presence in the city. It also encouraged patriotic displays toward the fatherland. Swastikas appeared in store windows around East 86th Street, and some people greeted each other with stiff-armed Heils.

Jewish organizations, shocked by this development, went on the offensive. Rabbi J. X. Cohen at the American Jewish Congress decided to send spies into the Friends of the New Germany. When he asked for volunteers who were not Jewish-looking, Florence Mendheim, fair and blue-eyed, stepped forward. She was given a fake address on West 64th Street, a Nazi party pin, and a name that sounded unquestionably Aryan: Gertrüd Müller. She also had a code name, KQX, which she was to use in her contacts with Rabbi Cohen. She begged him to keep her real name secret, because she worried that her prominent Mendheim relatives in Berlin would suffer for her actions.

Florence told her brother Arthur that she was worried for herself, too. But “Gertrüd” began going to the Friends’ meetings in Yorkville, her Nazi pin secured to her blouse. She filed secret reports to Rabbi Cohen and to the New York City Police Alien Squad, passing along what she learned as she tried to win the Friends’ trust. In a report in mid-June, she mentioned an upcoming meeting at the Schwabenhalle in Brooklyn, and asked for a “goyisch-looking Jew” to go with her.

As it happens, she goes to the meeting alone. She brings along a police whistle, and takes public transportation to a completely unfamiliar area of Brooklyn. When she enters the Schwabenhalle, a few people recognize her and nod as she takes her seat. She is impressed by the orderly meeting. The Nazis speak, and they allow a group of German communists to take the floor and even to criticize Hitler. No one interrupts or calls out, but the Nazis then rebut the communists point by point. The meeting ends with three Heils for Hitler, and something she doesn’t expect: an offer of a ride home from Emil Paulsen, the man known as the local Führer. She is not sure she is safe, as a woman or a Jew. But she gets in the back seat of the car, with Paulsen on one side and Harry Procht, the Friends’ money man, on the other. The car is driven by Paulsen’s brother, whose girlfriend sits next to him. The girlfriend is in a cranky mood, and this proves an ongoing distraction to the men in the car.


Florence Mendheim is not a trained spy. When she hears details she thinks are important, she must try to remember them without looking as though she’s remembering. She must not look suspicious. She tries to ask questions that seem like innocent requests from a patriotic German eager to understand the wonders of Nazism. She uses the girlfriend’s moody outbursts to show herself as sweet and trustworthy. She listens for names, addresses, details, plans, which later she will write in her report. Sometimes she gets nothing but an indulgent smile for her questions, and she wonders if they suspect. She wonders why Paulsen tells her he’s worried, but won’t say why.
They stop at the Café Hindenburg on East 85th Street, in Yorkville, where they meet up with other Nazis. It’s a big group now. Florence eats only kosher food, so “Gertrüd” asks for coffee, nothing more. Others order cake, beer. She knows that two of the men find her attractive, and she makes use of it. She tells one he is a great speaker, an American Goebbels. He smiles, flattered: Goebbels is the firebrand of the movement in Germany. She asks for a copy of a propaganda manual she has heard about, but is told it doesn’t exist.

At around 2 am, the group leaves the café and stands on the sidewalk saying good night. They shake hands all around, smiling and repeating to each other, “Sterbt ein Jude.” “Let a Jew die.” It goes through her like a knife blade—later, in her report, she will call them “young, stupid, masochistic and sadistic devils.” But standing with them on the sidewalk, she can’t let them know how their words cut. She walks to the car with the Paulsens and the girlfriend, and they drive toward the West Side. She realizes they are taking her “home” to her fake address, and she tenses: she doesn’t know where the house is. It will look as though she can’t point out her own home, and it will give her away. By some miracle, Paulsen’s brother stops on the corner. She gets out, says her good-byes, and walks as naturally as she can down West 64th Street, looking for the building where she is supposed to live. She doesn’t know if they are watching her. She goes into the unlocked hallway, sees and takes a letter addressed to Gertrüd Müller from the Friends of the New Germany. She stands in the dim space for ten minutes, to give the Paulsen car plenty of time to leave the neighborhood. Then she hurries to the subway. It is after 3 am when she walks into her Bronx apartment, where her family is wide-awake and worried.

The following day, Florence Mendheim began her long report to Rabbi Cohen with these words: “There are moments experienced in this business of living when the greatest reality is to be found in the most unreal, hazardous setting. It appears that in order to live at all one must live dangerously.” She went on living dangerously for about a year, attending Nazi meetings, working as a typist in the Friends’ office, and filing her reports to Rabbi Cohen as KQX. At some point the Nazis discovered her ruse. They strung her along for a while, but by March 1936, “Gertrüd Müller” had evaporated and someone else was undercover reporting to Rabbi Cohen. Florence Mendheim went on with her life, serving as the secretary of the Committee for Arab-Jewish Understanding from 1936 to 1940. All of her German relatives died in the Holocaust.

Again War Approaches

The summer of 1934 marked the twentieth anniversary of the beginning of the Great War, as World War I was then known. For many Americans, it served as a grim reminder and a warning. With Hitler and Mussolini the absolute rulers in Germany and Italy, and Japan flexing its muscles, war again seemed possible. Among other groups, the Communist Party and its legal arm, International Labor Defense, were determined to build resistance to another foreign war.

These pages are part of a pamphlet that argued that the Great War had been a bloodbath and had accomplished nothing other than loading the pockets of bankers and arms manufacturers. It had not made the world “safe for democracy.” Many large political rallies were held indoors, but the pamphlet called for an outdoor demonstration “against war and fascism.” The plan was to meet at Columbus Circle and march several blocks to Madison Square, between East 23rd and East 26th Streets. Being seen and heard helped spread the message, even if the group of marchers was small.
Poison in the Melting-Pot

At a recent meeting of the Christian Front in Prospect Hall, Brooklyn, the Franco film, “Spain in Arms,” was shown, with speakers adding comment. The recorded voice on the film itself did not mention Jews although it repeatedly insinuated the idea. When a group of prisoners from the International Brigade with somewhat Semitic features was shown, it advised, “Watch their faces closely.” “Oy, Oy,” responded the audience. “Look at the kikes, the Christ-killers, the mockies.” One speaker solemnly warned, “I have been informed that the Jews are about to plunge America into a war with Hitler and Mussolini, and that Madame Perkins and President Roosevelt are in on the deal.” Socialists, Communists, and Jews received a common denunciation. But it remained for the chairman, one Harold Walsh, to accomplish a dialectical masterpiece with the blast: “The Jewish War Veterans can denounce communism all day and all night, and they can call themselves Americans, but we members of the Christian Front are not fooled — we will deal with these people when the time comes, and we will pay special attention to Jews who sing the Star-Spangled Banner.”

Resource B2:

Poison in the Melting-Pot

George Britt was working on a book about anti-Semitism when he wrote this article for The Nation, a left-leaning magazine founded during the Civil War. He argued that anti-Jewish activity had increased in New York City, and was now, in the spring of 1939, in “abundant, open manifestation.” People were saying and doing things that would have been unthinkable just a year before. He cited several examples, including two knife attacks against Jews. And then he detailed, in this passage from his article, the charge by the Christian Front—Father Coughlin’s group—that Jews were working with President Roosevelt and Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins to push the U.S. into the war in Europe.

Britt’s description shows the shifting of the original antiwar alliance of the early 1930s, brought on largely by the Spanish Civil War (the subject of the film being shown at the Christian Front meeting). Communists and socialists had both been on the antiwar side prior to Franco’s rise. But the struggle of the anti-Franco Loyalists in Spain changed the minds of many, and in New York, a new coalition linked socialists, communists, progressives, and liberals. Many had been antiwar earlier in the 1930s. They were not all comfortable with the idea of armed conflict, or with each other, but they believed that the rise of fascism demanded action. This sentiment only intensified when Franco managed to seize control of Spain.

In 1939, a visiting Danish scientist brought shocking news to his colleagues in New York: Nazi Germany was making progress in research on atomic fission, the key to developing an enormously destructive bomb. Many American scientists were Jews who had escaped the Third Reich. The possibility that Hitler might be the first to have this weapon prompted one of the physicists, Leo Szilard, to visit his friend Albert Einstein, who was vacationing on Long Island. Szilard had urgent business to discuss.

Einstein was the most celebrated scientist of his time. He had left Germany in 1933 and taken a research position at the Institute for Advanced Study in Princeton, New Jersey. After his conversation with Szilard, he agreed to work on uranium research and to help draft and then sign a letter to President Roosevelt. Dr. Alexander Sachs, another Jewish immigrant to New York, offered to hand-deliver the letter to the president, but with the outbreak of war in Europe, two months passed before he was able to do so. Roosevelt saw it for the first time on October 2, 1939, a month after Hitler invaded Poland.

Eventually, Roosevelt would authorize a massive research effort in several American laboratories but headquartered in New York City. Between 1940 and 1942, ultra-secret work on nuclear chain reaction took place on an enormous machine called a cyclotron, housed in a basement at Columbia University. The work was later moved out of New York, partly because the city was a potential Nazi target, but the research effort continued to be known as the Manhattan Project. Ultimately it resulted in the construction of two atomic bombs, one dropped on Hiroshima and one on Nagasaki, causing massive destruction and ending the war. The Third Reich never produced a successful atomic bomb, despite ongoing research.

(To watch Building the Atomic Bomb: Soldier-Scientist Benjamin Bederson, a short film about one scientist’s work on the Manhattan Project, insert the WWII & NYC Classroom Films DVD.)
October 7, 1939 was the day after Polish resistance ended and Poland fell to Hitler. Antiwar protestors took to the streets of Times Square with handmade signs, knowing that calls for intervention were bound to grow louder. These young men would be in uniform if the U.S. entered the conflict. They were hoping to launch a campaign to persuade Americans to resist the drumbeat for war.

The messages on their signs show some of the thinking on the isolationist side. In the sign on the left, the protestors called themselves a “Maginot Line,” a reference to the impressive fortifications that seemed, at the time, strong enough to protect France from Germany without U.S. help. The center sign may have been a swipe at the American Legion and the military in general, which tended to support intervention. “Commu-nazism,” mentioned in the third sign, did not exist, even though Nazi Germany and the Communist Soviet Union signed a non-aggression pact in August 1939. Many Americans thought Nazis and Communists were linked, a broad foreign-based danger on our own soil. But the two groups were on opposite sides of most questions. By the fall of 1939, many American Communists believed only an armed response would stop fascism. But the local Nazis were against any U.S. intervention in the war.
Since the early nineteenth century, New York City has been home base for the American publishing industry. In the 1930s, book and magazine publisher Martin Goodman set up a division to focus on comic books, which were fairly new but selling like hotcakes. Early in 1940, he hired Joe Simon and Jack Kirby (who had been born Jacob Kurtzberg, but Americanized his name) to work on the new venture. Still in their 20s, Simon was a story man and Kirby an illustrator. Goodman asked them to come up with a new superhero, someone who could take on Hitler. (Superman, unfortunately, had watched his super strength become a liability: if he went to Germany, Americans would expect him to eliminate the Führer in one swipe. He spent the war going after spies and traitors at home.)

The issue date of the first Captain America comic book was March 1941, but it appeared on the stands in late 1940. Hitler by then had taken much of Europe. No one knew where or if he would stop, but most Americans did not want to be caught up in another foreign war. So when Captain America landed his punch on Hitler’s jaw, he was also challenging isolationist thinking. Simon and Kirby sent this message on purpose, and they received hate mail and threats as a result. Hearing of this, Mayor La Guardia called to say they were doing a good job and the City of New York would protect them. The first issue sold a million copies.

Like many superheroes, Captain America had two identities. In regular street clothes, he was bland Steve Rogers, a private in the Army. His powers were revealed only when he pulled on his American-flag-inspired outfit and grabbed his shield. Then he was smarter, taller, and stronger than anybody around. But he was still human—he could not fly, or see through walls. He was a hero to many readers, including young men who would soon be soldiers, because they could imagine being like him. He symbolized America as it needed to be, muscular and brave.

Captain America, March 1941. Paper. © and TM Marvel and Subs. Used with permission.
What should the U.S. do about Hitler? This question became much more pressing as the Führer became more aggressive. Using a new offensive strategy called Blitzkrieg, he invaded and seized Poland, Norway, Denmark, Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and France—all between September 1939 and early summer of 1940.

While most Americans still wanted no part of Europe’s problems, in New York there were many who believed the U.S. should help stop Hitler. The city was the center of the intervention movement in this country. The loudest voice was the Fight for Freedom Committee, which operated out of offices on 6th Avenue. It pushed hard for the U.S. to help Great Britain, clearly then in Hitler’s sights. If England fell, America might be next.

The Fight for Freedom Committee was founded in April 1941. The next months were a flurry of activity—committee meetings, fundraisers, public rallies, social events, radio broadcasts, public relations campaigns. Prominent people took part, including Hollywood stars, military brass, and Mayor La Guardia. One of the leaders of the Fight for Freedom Committee was, strangely enough, Elizabeth Cutter Morrow. Her son-in-law, Charles Lindbergh, was the dominant voice of the isolationist America First Committee.

After Pearl Harbor, the Fight for Freedom Committee largely disbanded.

The America First Committee was the leading voice of the isolation movement. It was based in Chicago but set its sights on New York City, which was home base for the pro-intervention effort. America First was about one year old when it held a rally at the Manhattan Center, on the corner of 34th Street and 8th Avenue. The hall was packed long before the event began. The audience included isolationists of many different stripes, but they all opposed the new Lend-Lease law that allowed the U.S. to send war supplies to Great Britain. The three speakers used different arguments against the law, and against intervention in general. Charles Lindbergh argued that Great Britain was losing the war and the U.S. should not intervene to help them. Kathleen Norris, who made her living as a writer of romance novels, invoked memories of the brutal Great War: “The voices of our dead soldiers in the last war call to us: never again, never again!” Senator David Walsh, Democrat of Massachusetts, opposed sending a single piece of America’s war machinery to Britain, since our soldiers would need it all if the U.S. entered the war.

Lindbergh was the star attraction. In 1927, he had been the first person to fly alone across the Atlantic, and many Americans saw him as a great national hero. But there was another side to Lindbergh, who had recently joined America First. He had made anti-Jewish statements, and had been warmly received by the Third Reich during several visits to Germany in the 1930s. For some, his name was evidence that America First, and isolationists in general, had little interest in protecting Jews from the Nazis.
Allied Ships in New York Harbor

The American people wanted no part of Europe’s conflict while it was building, or after war was declared in September 1939. President Roosevelt, by contrast, supported the Allies and wanted to help them. But U.S. neutrality laws, passed in the 1930s, made favoring either side illegal. Those laws, however, did permit selling goods to any nation that could pay for them and send their ships to transport them. Because Great Britain’s powerful Royal Navy prevented German and Italian ships from sailing to the U.S., this “cash and carry” arrangement allowed FDR to supply only the British.

The problem developed when the British ran out of money several months into the war. The U.S. could not give them supplies and still appear impartial. But President Roosevelt believed the U.S. would be drawn into the war eventually. He thought we should serve as the “arsenal of democracy,” providing the Allies with the defense material and food it needed to fight the Axis powers, while preparing for war ourselves. Using the power of persuasion and the power of his office, FDR proposed a way for the U.S. to help the Allies without actually being part of the war. We would lend or lease war supplies to any nation deemed “vital to the defense of the United States.” In other words, though “neutral,” we could help our friends and they would pay us later. The Lend-Lease Act was passed by Congress on March 11, 1941, and immediately signed into law by the president.

Merchant ships carried the cargo, which included both military supplies and food, to Great Britain and, after Hitler’s invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941, to the Soviet Union as well. This photograph, taken on September 9, 1941, shows New York Harbor on one of the busiest days it had seen in years. These are some of the 104 British, Dutch, and Norwegian vessels that had arrived in the harbor in the previous thirty-six hours. The Staten Island docks are in the foreground, and Brooklyn’s shoreline and Fort Hamilton in the background.
Life Story:

John T. Flynn
(1882–1964)

On February 20, 1941, the New York City branch of the America First Committee rented the Mecca Temple in Manhattan (now the New York City Center) and held its first rally. The local group’s chairman, John T. Flynn, had lined up the main speakers, Senators Gerald Nye and Burton Wheeler, to deliver a public blast at President Roosevelt and the plan for helping Great Britain fight the Germans. New York was seen as the heart of Roosevelt’s support, but the rally showed the strength of the city’s antiwar movement. The audience was estimated at 3,500, a number that included at least one heckler, who called out as donations were being collected: “Who’s giving the money, Hitler or Mussolini?” The crowd called for the man to be ejected, but Flynn said no. “This is an American meeting, and if anyone has anything to say they are free to say it.”

Flynn was quick, however, to put a stop to a group handing out anti-Semitic literature to the crowd, and all the speakers distanced themselves from this message. But the charges of anti-Semitism in the isolationist movement were not new, and they would not go away. The day after the meeting, a local interventionist group commented that, whether intentionally or not, the AFC speakers were “making their appeal to the Nazis, Fascists, Communists, and their fellow-travelers in this country.” Most Americans were isolationists, and America Firsters had many reasons for joining the organization. But the running current of anti-Semitism suggested that for some members Europe’s Jews were simply not worth fighting for. Many in the U.S. might have felt this way, but America First went further and blamed Jews for trying to drag the U.S. into the war.

John Flynn grew up near Washington, D.C., where he graduated from law school. He was more interested in writing than in law, and he moved to New York City around 1920 to work as a journalist. He lived in Queens with his family. His politics were liberal and antiwar. He wrote books about the need to rein in corporate greed, and had a regular column in the New Republic, a liberal weekly.

At first, Flynn was pleased by the election of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, but he was increasingly at odds with the president’s position on European fascism. Flynn never believed Hitler would invade the U.S., or that the American economy was at risk. He thought FDR was whipping up war anxiety to get re-elected to a second term. In 1938, Flynn and others on the right and left formed the Keep America Out of War Congress (KAOWC), aimed at undoing the steps FDR had taken to prepare the U.S. for the possibility of war. Flynn was KAOWC’s national chairman.

In 1939 and 1940, when Europe was at war and much of the mainland had fallen to Germany, the pressing question was whether the U.S. should help Great Britain resist the Nazi Blitzkrieg. The British said they were out of money and material, and desperately needed assistance. In his January 6, 1941 fireside chat, President Roosevelt promised to keep the U.S. out of war, but proposed a program that would allow the U.S. to lend or lease arms and supplies to any country whose security was vital to American interests. The next day, Flynn issued a statement for KAOWC: “It is not merely a question whether Hitler will construe this act as an act of war. It is an act of war.”

Flynn, still the national chair of KAOWC and now also the chairman of the New York chapter of the America First Committee, threw himself into the battle against Lend-Lease. He took out an ad in The New York Times, declaring that Great Britain was not out of money and did not need U.S. help. He scheduled the February 20 America First rally at the Mecca Temple, where the issue was addressed by prominent U.S. senators. These efforts failed. On March 10, 1941, with the Land-Lease Act to become law the next day, Flynn labeled the Democrats the “war party” and promised that KAOWC would “fight to the last ditch to save the American people from this catastrophe.”

Another rally was planned for April 23 at the Manhattan Center. This one would be a huge protest against Lend-Lease and any U.S. role in Europe’s war. It would be a national, not just a local, event. The headlining speaker would be the prominent new member of the America First Committee: Charles A. Lindbergh. His name would draw enormous crowds, but it also put the issue of anti-Semitism right on the marquee. Lucky Lindy, the handsome aviation hero of the 1920s, had a history of making anti-Jewish statements. He had traveled to Germany and accepted an award from the Third Reich. Rumors spread that pro-Nazi
and anti-Semitic groups would attend the April 23 rally. Pro-interventionists determined to picket the event, and The New York Times quoted one interventionist’s prediction that the meeting would be “the largest gathering of pro-Nazi and pro-Fascists, of both domestic and imported brands, since the German-American Bund rallies in Madison Square Garden.” After the rally, newspapers reported that some 35,000 people had been inside and outside the hall. Many German accents were heard in the crowd. There was a suggestion that Nazi organizations had been given free tickets.

Flynn fought against the extremist groups he believed were damaging to the isolationist message. He banned Nazis, communists, Bundists, and followers of Father Coughlin from joining the New York chapter. But keeping extremist elements out of public meetings proved almost impossible. The press reported every sign of their presence. One critical writer called America First a “Nazi transmission belt”—accusing it of operating as the engine that delivered Hitler’s propaganda to American audiences.

As the summer went on, Lindbergh continued speaking for America First, and continued to be labeled a racist. He struck back at a meeting in Des Moines, Iowa, in September, where he blamed three groups for beating the drums of war: the British, the Roosevelt Administration, and the Jews. John T. Flynn was home in New York the next morning when one of his lieutenants called with news of Lindbergh’s speech, which Flynn had not heard. The caller found the straight talk thrilling and asked Flynn to issue a statement of support. Flynn, horrified, said there would be no statement from him or anyone in the local committee. He called the Chicago headquarters of America First, and learned that Lindbergh was not required to submit his speeches to them in advance. Flynn said he was “profoundly disturbed,” and that Lindbergh had “literally committed the America First Movement to an open attack on the Jews.” Lindbergh remained a major speaker for America First, and continued to draw crowds, but the organization did not recover from his talk in Des Moines. Anti-Semitism became the story line, not the argument over American policy.

Flynn made what was probably his last antiwar speech on December 4, 1941 in the Bronx. Four days later, following the attack on Pearl Harbor and the declaration of war on Japan, he released this comment: “The New York Chapter of the America First Committee accepts completely the statement of our national chairman, General R. E. Wood, pledging loyal support to the government by the members of America First. This committee was organized to oppose America’s involvement in European and Asiatic wars. Its counsels and advice were rejected at each step by the government. But the time for discussing that is past. We are now at war. It is the duty of the government to prosecute that war with all the energy of the nation. It is equally the duty of every citizen to stand behind the government to the uttermost in that task.”

The New York chapter of America First stopped operating after Pearl Harbor, and closed formally in the summer of 1942. It had been the largest and wealthiest of the branches, bigger and richer than even the main headquarters in Chicago. New York City was known as the base of the intervention movement, but the size of John Flynn’s chapter showed that many New Yorkers, like Americans in general, wanted no part of this war.

After World War II, John T. Flynn continued writing and speaking against interventionist foreign policies and militarism. His politics were increasingly conservative, but he was at odds with other elements of the rising conservative movement, and sometimes had difficulty getting his work published. He was a critic of the United Nations and a supporter of Senator Joseph McCarthy’s campaign against Communist infiltrators in the U.S.

The Radio Set

In 1930, the U.S. Census posed a question it never asked before or since: does this household own a radio? For more than 12 million homes, around 40 percent of the total, the answer was yes. City people were more likely to have a radio than others. In some buildings in the Bronx, filled with immigrant families who were hardly rich, nearly every apartment had a radio. Over the next ten years, even in the Depression, radio ownership increased. People were more and more able to buy a radio set, rather than parts they had to assemble themselves. Families gathered around the set and listened together. There were programs for everyone: comedies, variety shows, music. Superman began his radio career in 1940.

As the U.S. headed toward war, people were still getting most of their news from newspapers. But for breaking stories, radio was faster by many hours. The sound was not ideal. Scratchy “static” was unavoidable. Most radios had only two dials. One was on/off and volume. The other was turned to select the station, and sometimes had to be minutely adjusted to bring in the strongest signal. Listeners often had to lean in and concentrate. But there was something powerful about hearing an urgent voice deliver a shocking or frightening news story nearly as soon as it happened.

The Japanese struck the U.S. naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, on Sunday, December 7, 1941. It was early morning there, early afternoon in New York City. At around 2:30 pm, New York time—while bombs were still falling on Pearl Harbor—radio announcers began interrupting their programming to deliver the news to the American people. They continued regular programming, but broke in with frequent news flashes.

This announcement played on WNYC, the city's radio station, later in the afternoon. WNYC was the first station in the country to report the attack, but that first announcement was not recorded.
Kay Travers in a Red Convertible

I was with a fellow I was dating and a couple of other people. The boy whose car we were in was showing us his new red convertible. He was a wealthy boy and his father had given it to him, probably for his 21st birthday. We insisted on leaving the top down so everyone could see us. We were freezing. He put the radio on and someone announced there had been a bombing at Pearl Harbor. There were about six of us. Everyone in that car was a bright person. Most of the boys were halfway through college. Nobody except the fellow who was driving knew where Pearl Harbor was. The only reason he knew was because his family had visited Hawaii.

Everybody was stunned. Then they started talking about us going to war. We were all making such fun. “Imagine Jack in a uniform . . . imagine this one.” We thought it was hysterical. It was all sort of light-hearted. We couldn’t absorb it. It was such a shock.

Mayor La Guardia’s Radio Address

In 1941, WNYC was owned and operated by the City of New York. The radio station was located right across from City Hall, and Mayor La Guardia used the facility often to speak to New Yorkers. By chance, he was in the studio when the first news of Pearl Harbor arrived. As the leader of the city and as the head of the U.S. Office of Civilian Defense, he spent the next hours working frantically in both capacities. Later that day, he sat at a WNYC microphone and delivered a statement to the city. By that point, it was known that the Japanese had also attacked British interests in Thailand and Malaya. In firm tones, La Guardia spoke of crisis but urged calm. “My friends,” he said, “we must toughen up!” Within hours of his address, the Japanese began bombing American territory in the Philippines.
Robert Satter spent December 7, 1941 inside, at the Hayden Planetarium, where he worked as a guard. “In the afternoon I noticed that hardly anybody was there. I finished about 6 o’clock and walked across a little park toward Broadway. I had my supper at a restaurant. I was the only one in there. I walked across Broadway to get the subway up to Columbia. I hadn’t heard. I saw these blaring headlines in the *New York Enquirer*, but I didn’t believe what they said because I never believed the *Enquirer*.”

Many people dismissed the *Enquirer*’s blaring headlines, but on this December day they were true, and the *Enquirer* had a scoop. The other papers in town closed up shop Saturday afternoons and reopened Monday mornings. The *Enquirer* was a weekly that published on Sunday and held to a different schedule. It was able to produce an edition blasting news of Pearl Harbor ahead of its more respected competitors. (Many news vendors sold both magazines and newspapers. This man apparently also sold the popular magazine *The Saturday Evening Post*; the publishers probably provided his apron as a way to remind passersby to purchase the magazine.)

When *The New York Times* hit the newsstands the following day, the headline on the lead story was in smaller type and lower volume: “Tokyo Bombers Strike Hard At Our Main Bases on Oahu.” *The Times* did not use “Japs” in this headline, but it had used that term for many years, as far back as the 1860s. In World War II, newspapers, people on the street, politicians, and government publications used the term freely.

Robert Satter was interviewed by Richard Goldstein for his 2010 book, *Helluva Town: The Story of New York City During World War II.*

*Vendor in Times Square Distributing New York Enquirer* . . .

*Pearl Harbor Echoes in New York*

*Resource C5:*

Address to Congress Requesting a Declaration of War (December 8, 1941) - Franklin Delano Roosevelt

Mr. Vice President, and Mr. Speaker, and Members of the Senate and House of Representatives:

Yesterday, December 7, 1941—a date which will live in infamy—the United States of America was suddenly and deliberately attacked by naval and air forces of the Empire of Japan.

The United States was at peace with that Nation and, at the solicitation of Japan, was still in conversation with its Government and its Emperor looking toward the maintenance of peace in the Pacific. Indeed, one hour after Japanese air squadrons had commenced bombing in the American Island of Oahu, the Japanese Ambassador to the United States and his colleague delivered to our Secretary of State a formal reply to a recent American message. And while this reply stated that it seemed useless to continue the existing diplomatic negotiations, it contained no threat or hint of war or of armed attack.

It will be recorded that the distance of Hawaii from Japan makes it obvious that the attack was deliberately planned many days or even weeks ago. During the intervening time the Japanese Government has deliberately sought to deceive the United States by false statements and expressions of hope for continued peace.

The attack yesterday on the Hawaiian Islands has caused severe damage to American naval and military forces. I regret to tell you that very many American lives have been lost. In addition American ships have been reported torpedoed on the high seas between San Francisco and Honolulu.

Yesterday the Japanese Government also launched an attack against Malaya.

Last night Japanese forces attacked Hong Kong.

Last night Japanese forces attacked Guam.

Last night Japanese forces attacked the Philippine Islands.

Last night the Japanese attacked Wake Island.

And this morning the Japanese attacked Midway Island.

Japan has, therefore, undertaken a surprise offensive extending throughout the Pacific area. The facts of yesterday and today speak for themselves. The people of the United States have already formed their opinions and well understand the implications to the very life and safety of our Nation.

As Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy I have directed that all measures be taken for our defense.

But always will our whole Nation remember the character of the onslaught against us.

No matter how long it may take us to overcome this premeditated invasion, the American people in their righteous might will win through to absolute victory. I believe that I interpret the will of the Congress and of the people when I assert that we will not only defend ourselves to the uttermost but will make it very certain that this form of treachery shall never again endanger us.

Hostilities exist. There is no blinking at the fact that our people, our territory, and our interests are in grave danger.

With confidence in our armed forces—with the unbounding determination of our people—we will gain the inevitable triumph, so help us God.

I ask that the Congress declare that since the unprovoked and dastardly attack by Japan on Sunday, December 7, 1941, a state of war has existed between the United States and the Japanese Empire.

Franklin D. Roosevelt, Joint Address to Congress Leading to a Declaration of War Against Japan, December 8, 1941. Audio. National Archives, archive.org/details/FranklinDelanoRooseveltDayOfInfamySpeech (accessed 8-7-12, M. Waters).

Man-on-the-Street Interviews, New York City, December 8, 1941

The Salesman
I want it to be distinctly understood that I, as an American born and raised in this country, am in favor of everything which is beneficial to everyone living in this land. But I sincerely believe, had a different attitude been taken on the part of our president we would never have to face or be confronted with a condition that exists today. . . . Germany . . . has a right to expand, and there have been tyrants as great as Hitler. History shows that. And if Hitler would not have racial prejudice he’d really be a great man because he’d be looking out for his country.

. . . But I believe that Japan has made one great mistake by sending a peace envoy to this country. And then stabbing us, as Roosevelt would say, in the back. In other words, having a Bible in one hand and a dagger in the other. But people should not be disillusioned, because they are under the impression that they are going to go to a picnic. But that is not so.

The Building Trades Worker
I was very happy to hear our beloved president make the speech he did today. I feel that the time has come that we have to get after this fellow over in Japan and destroy Hitlerism and fascism and all that sort of thing. I think we’re a little late, I think we ought to have started it when Mussolini invaded Ethiopia, in fact. But, it’s not too late to give this fellow the licking and it won’t be very long till he finds out that he won’t tread on us. . . . And I’m only wishing that I was young enough to go, but I have two sons and I know they’ll both volunteer if it’s necessary, to lick that fella.

The Housewife
I’m . . . in my sixtieth year and living in New York City. I’m very sorry the United States has to get into this war.

The Student
I am eighteen years of age . . . . And seeing that the President, his opinions, were in favor of war means I might be a potential soldier in the very near future. Personally, I am a pacifist, but times, circumstances, overrule your personal opinions. I don’t believe that the president had any other alternative, but to declare war against Japan. . . . [T]he best thing to do now is to lick hell out of them.

When Pearl Harbor was attacked, Alan Lomax was 26 years old. Later he was the celebrated historian of American roots music, but in 1941 he had the title “assistant-in-charge” of the Archive of American Folk Song at the Library of Congress. That night—December 7, 1941—he contacted the Library’s Radio Research Project. He wanted help recording the reactions of everyday people to the Japanese bombing raid. He was aware that the life of every American had changed in a blink.

The following morning, Lomax sent telegrams to folklorists in seven locations in the U.S., including New York City. He asked them to send teams out to talk to and record “man-on-the-street” interviews quickly, within the next day or so. He conducted the Washington, D.C., interviews himself. The New York interviews were in the hands of Charles Todd and Robert Sonkin, who had documented migrant workers in California for the Farm Services Administration. Some two dozen New York City interviews, and accompanying transcripts, are now on the Library of Congress website.

On January 20, 1942, the project continued with interviews in which people were asked to address the president directly. The Dear Mr. President recordings and transcripts are also on the Library of Congress website.
Japanese Rounded Up by FBI,
Sent to Ellis Island—Vital
Services Are Guarded

The metropolitan district reacted swiftly yesterday to the Japanese attack in the Pacific. All large communities in the area, including New York City, Newark, Jersey City, Bayonne and Paterson, went on immediate war footing.

One of the first steps taken here last night was a round-up of Japanese nationals by special agents of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, reinforced by squads of city detectives acting under FBI supervision. More than 100 FBI men, fully armed, were assigned to the detail.

The prisoners were sent to Ellis Island, where they will be held pending action at Washington. It was indicated hundreds would be detained.

Earlier Mayor La Guardia had convened his Emergency Board and directed that Japanese nationals be confined to their homes pending decision as to their status and had their clubs and other meeting places closed and put under police guard.

A police sergeant and five policemen immediately went to the Japanese Consulate at 630 Fifth Avenue in Rockefeller Center where the Consul General, Morito Morishima, and his staff were preparing to leave, and posted a guard there. The Consul General and his staff were escorted to their homes when they left. They were not to move about the city without police in attendance.

Rear Admiral Adolphus Andrews, commander of the North Atlantic Squadron, told reporters at a conference in the Federal

Pearl Harbor Echoes in New York

Entire City Put on War Footing

The first edition of The New York Times to carry news of the Japanese attacks on Pearl Harbor and the Philippines appeared on December 8, 1941. The front page provided detailed articles about the events themselves: “Tokyo Bombers Strike Hard At Our Main Bases on Oahu” and “Guam Bombed; Army Ship Is Sunk.” Helpful maps were included to help readers locate places whose names were so unfamiliar to most Americans.

Another front-page article addressed actions of more immediate concern to New York residents. “Entire City Put on War Footing” was largely about steps taken to detain Japanese citizens and Japanese Americans in the city. Some of those steps were taken by Mayor La Guardia and Police Commissioner Lewis Valentine, some by federal authorities, and some by combined teams. The article was accompanied by five photographs of Pearl Harbor before the attack, because no news photos were yet available to show the destruction caused by the raids.

In 1940, New York City was home to over 2,000 residents of Japanese ancestry, more than any other city or town east of the Mississippi River. In the months before Pearl Harbor, many returned to Japan as Japanese corporations closed New York offices. By the time of the attack on December 7, 1941, most New Yorkers of Japanese descent were immigrants who had been in the U.S. for several decades, or American-born citizens in their teens, 20s, and 30s. Unlike German and Italian immigrants, most Asians were denied U.S. citizenship, so they had no choice but to remain aliens. They faced entrenched racial bigotry and often worked at menial jobs well below their level of education. By the middle of December 1941, 277 Japanese aliens, 217 German aliens, and 77 Italian aliens were housed at the Ellis Island Detention Center. Nearly all were men. Some were moved to internment camps elsewhere; some remained at Ellis Island for as long as four years.

“Entire City Put on War Footing.” From The New York Times, December 8, 1941 © 1941 The New York Times. All rights reserved. Used by permission and protected by the Copyright Laws of the United States. The printing, copying, redistribution, or retransmission of this Content without written permission is prohibited.
Volunteers Swamp Recruiting Offices

This photograph was taken in a recruiting office in New York. The original caption reads: “Stirred by Japanese attacks on United States possessions in the Pacific, thousands swamped recruiting offices of the Army, Navy and Marine Corps Monday, and repeated the performance Tuesday as the recruiting offices went on a 24-hour a day basis to handle the clamoring rush ‘to whip the Japs.’ The photo shows recruits sitting down, being interviewed as they wait. Those obviously ineligible for service were immediately sent away as others took their places.”

In addition to the hundreds of men who were eager to enlist within hours of the declaration of war, nearly 10,000 signed on to be air-raid wardens in New York City.
The New Yorker is a weekly magazine of arts, politics, and commentary that began publishing in 1925. The first issue to appear after Pearl Harbor carried a December 20, 1941 issue date, but the magazine was on the newsstands a week earlier, on December 13. The regular opening feature, called “The Talk of the Town” was usually a collection of short, breezy pieces about life in the city. In this issue, it was entirely given over to New Yorkers’ thoughts on and reactions to Pearl Harbor. “Notes and Comment” was the lead essay, written by 39-year-old staff writer Walcott Gibbs, though unsigned.

Gibbs’s piece was both a portrait of what he saw around him, and a personal reflection. He probably wrote this essay on December 10 or 11. His use of the first person plural for his own feelings is known as the “editorial we,” and was common in “The Talk of the Town” essays.

A powerful link can be made between this essay and one written and signed by John Updike for “The Talk of the Town” in The New Yorker’s first issue after 9/11. Both writers were responding to a shocking attack on the U.S. and to the loss of many lives. Both produced elegant works about individual and collective pain. But the two essays show New York City at different moments—in one case, responding to a faraway event, and in the other, reeling from an attack on the heart of the city. Subscribers to The New Yorker can access the facsimile of the Updike essay at archives.newyorker.com/?i=2001-09-24#folio=028. The transcript is available at www.newyorker.com/archive/2001/09/24/010924ta_talk_wtc.
Dr. Philip Freiman (1905–2000)

U.S. Army, 1st Infantry Division, North Africa

When Dr. Philip Freiman enlisted in the Army in 1942, he was 37 years old, married, and held a medical degree. Freiman was Jewish, born in Warsaw, Poland—a place the Nazis had turned into a lethal ghetto for the Jews. He would have known of this calamity when he enlisted and, very likely, of the genocide against the Jews then underway.

Freiman served with the Army’s 1st Infantry Division (the “Big Red One”), landing in Oran, Algeria during Operation Torch in November 1942. It was the Anglo-American invasion of French North Africa, part of the campaign to oust German and Italian forces from the continent.

Freiman tended to the medical needs of Italian prisoners of war, but he really earned their gratitude by having pasta added to the camp meals. In return, a few of the men fashioned handmade gifts for him.

While he was overseas, Dr. Freiman’s wife, Ethel, lived with her mother in Borough Park, Brooklyn. He sent her a photo to place in her heart-shaped locket. Freiman first “met” Nancy, his baby girl, in a V-mail letter in May 1943.

All objects and photographs are gifts of Ethel Freiman in memory of Dr. Philip Freiman. Collection of Museum of Jewish Heritage—A Living Memorial to the Holocaust.
It was June 1943 when Edwin Len—recent degree in air mechanics in hand—was drafted into the Army Air Forces. Harsh U.S. laws limited immigration from China, but Len had been born in the U.S. and experienced an assimilated childhood.

Len recalls, “I wasn’t happy to be there because I was afraid that most of the guys would be speaking more Chinese than English.”

Arriving in India, Len could have flown “over the hump” of the Himalayas to China. Instead, never having driven a car before, he drove a jeep for 15 days over the harrowing Ledo-Burma Road.

In China he worked as a mechanic on planes flown by the Flying Tigers—U.S. pilots based in China who were famous for fighting the Japanese even before the U.S. entered the war.

When Len was discharged in June 1946, he knew that, “aircraft mechanics were a dime a dozen.” So, he enrolled in New York University, and with the help of the GI Bill, purchased a house in Queens with his wife, Aurora, whom he married during the war.

All objects and photographs are courtesy of Edwin Len.
Fred Harris (1908–1944)
U.S. Army, Private, 9th Infantry Regiment, 2nd Division, Europe

Frederick Harris emigrated from Austria in 1929, married a fellow immigrant from Austria, and eventually settled in Queens. Drafted in January 1944, Harris left his wife and six-month-old son and, at age 36, crossed the Atlantic again, this time as a soldier.

Harris’s division landed in Normandy on June 7, 1944—D-Day + 1. They pushed inland, fighting to gain control of Saint-Lô, a regional crossroads. Harris was wounded in action near Grandcamp on August 1. He died the next day and was later awarded the Purple Heart.

Months passed before she learned from the Army of the circumstances surrounding his death: “Undoubtedly, the cause of his death was from shock as well as loss of blood from his wounds. The fact that you have not received a direct reply from your husband’s company commander or the chaplain, together with the date of his injuries, would indicate that his company was in the Normandie battle and that they presumably were all casualties.”

Families could not recover the remains of their loved ones during wartime. Some, like Anna Harris, opted to let them rest in Europe after the war. In April 1949, she received confirmation of her husband’s final internment with a military funeral service.

Anna Harris did not receive news of her husband’s injuries until August 20, or of his death until August 25.

All objects and photographs are courtesy of Frederick J. Harris.
In 1939, at the age of sixteen, George Jones joined the National Guard’s 369th Regiment—the Harlem Hellfighters—after growing up in the shadow of its armory in Harlem. “There was a long line of aspirants given the dire state of the economy,” he recalls. His guard unit came under Army jurisdiction when war broke out.

A soldier in an Army segregated by race—no different from American society, he points out—Jones faced subtle and blatant forms of prejudice. When he reported for duty as a 2nd lieutenant, his white commander greeted him with, “Goddamn it, they’ve sent me another nigger officer.”

Precluded from serving in a combat unit because of his race, Jones was assigned to the black-dominated “Red Ball Express” truck convoy unit which sped critical supplies to the Allied armies advancing toward Germany. This famous designation derived from railroad slang for a fast freight train. Jones recalls, “You got shot at, you got bombed. We were in combat, pure and simple.”

Jones reentered the 369th in 1946 and joined the NYC Fire Department in 1947. In 1950, his battalion was called up for the Korean War. Part of a newly integrated military, he became one of the first black officers to command a predominately white unit in combat. After retiring from the military as a full colonel in 1970, he was promoted to Brigadier General.

All photographs are courtesy of Brigadier General George A. Jones (Ret) NYG.
When Jacob Lawrence was drafted into a segregated Coast Guard in 1943, he was already a recognized African American artist with a strong social and black consciousness. Lawrence began his service, as did most black sailors, as a steward mate, serving meals to white officers. But thanks to an experimental integration policy and two enlightened commanding officers, he was assigned to the Navy’s first integrated ship and promoted in rank so he could serve as a combat artist. He felt “very fortunate all through that war period.”

Out of these experiences came his Coast Guard paintings, exhibited at the Museum of Modern Art in October 1944 alongside works from his Migration of the Negro series. His commanding officer, Captain Rosenthal, joined him at the opening of the show.

The paintings shown here, Disembarkation and Control Panel, are two of the fifty canvases that Lawrence produced for the Coast Guard.

Lawrence came of age and learned his craft in 1930s Harlem. In 1938, he found employment in the government’s WPA Federal Art Project. He became famous for his social realist depiction of the African American experience. Among his postwar works was the War Series (1946–1947).
Trained as a nurse, Mary Yamada always “expected that if there ever was a war, as part of my nursing career, I would report for military duty.”

So, it came as quite a disappointment when, in September 1942, the War Department denied her request to serve in the Army Nurse Corps. “Nurses of Japanese parentage are not eligible for assignment,” the rejection letter explained.

Yamada may not have been surprised. Living in New York, she had escaped the internment her Los Angeles family endured in Wyoming’s Heart Mountain Camp. Earlier that year, FDR’s Executive Order 9902 had empowered the army to “exclude” Japanese Americans from the West Coast and other designated areas. Fear of sabotage was the rationale, though no cases were ever discovered.

Yamada kept applying. In 1945 she was finally appointed to the Army Nurse Corps, assigned to Halloran General Hospital on Staten Island. She remained in the U.S. for the rest of the war, lamenting, “I had expected to go to England with the Bellevue unit that I had trained with.”

Despite hopes of becoming a physician after the war, Yamada became a school guidance counselor in New York City.
Nicholas Constantin Tanis (1914–1956)

U.S. Army, Technical Sergeant, 531st Engineer Shore Regiment, 4th Division, Europe

Nicholas Tsalapatanis, born in Greece, was not yet a U.S. citizen when his draft number came up in April 1942. Assigned to the 82nd Engineer Combat Battalion, he headed to Europe. Attached to various infantry units, the battalion went ashore in North Africa, Sicily, Italy, and France.

In Algeria Tsalapatanis changed his name to Tanis and became a U.S. citizen. Serving in the military eased the process.

Tanis's unit landed on Utah Beach two hours after D-Day's start. Their job was to clear mines, drain fields, and build roads. Three days later they joined the advance inland.

Although Tanis left his large family back in Astoria, Queens, he had the good luck to run into his brother Mike twice overseas. Just outside a mess hall in North Africa, he was startled to see Mike in a crowd of soldiers coming to find him.

And later, in Nice, France, after victory, he entered a darkened cinema and took the last seat, only to hear the cry of “Niko!” as Mike slapped his back with joy.
Drafted in 1943, Robert Fleischer hoped to see the world and avenge the death of an older cousin killed at Pearl Harbor. He served for over three years, some of that time locating and disarming mine fields in France and Germany.

World War II was the first time the military explicitly discriminated against homosexuals in recruitment, and discharged those it discovered. Nonetheless, many gay soldiers evaded detection. “I really wanted to serve my country,” Fleischer remembered, “even though I was petrified of being only with men and with ‘macho straight men.”

Fleischer found it possible to have relations with men in the Army. He also discovered the emotional intimacy that many soldiers experience. “There’s a closeness and an understanding. ... I think only being together that way, constantly at the very abyss of your life, can create that.”

As a Jew, Fleischer was shocked to experience anti-Semitism in his squad and explicitly from his commanding officer. His feelings of horror and fear were compounded by what he saw upon liberating Dachau concentration camp.

“The roads were clogged with walking skeletons in their striped uniforms. We were just flabbergasted. We started to give them our highly concentrated C-rations. They couldn’t digest it. I tried to talk. And all of a sudden it dawned on me, I wonder, ‘Es Juden?’ ‘Ja.’ Me too.”

All photographs are courtesy of the Gay, Lesbian, Bisexual, Transgender Historical Society.
“There’s no way you can portray war realistically. For moviegoers to get the idea of real combat, you’d have to shoot at them every so often. What I try to do is make audiences feel the emotional strife of total war.”

Fuller survived D-Day. “I was in the third wave. We began to see bloody bodies floating by us. We had to grit our teeth and look away, trying not to listen to the screaming men in the water begging us to pick them up.”

Of the 183 men in Sam Fuller’s company who landed at Omaha Beach, about 100 died, or were wounded or missing in action.

Fuller kept a diary and asked his mother to send him a 16mm camera so he could further document his experiences.

The day after Germany surrendered, Fuller filmed the liberation of Falkenau concentration camp at the request of his battalion commander. The commander ordered the townspeople, who claimed ignorance of the camp’s horrific activities, to prepare the dead for burial and take them to the cemetery.

Fuller became a prominent Hollywood film director known for making gritty movies such as *Pickup on South Street* (1953) and *The Big Red One* (1980).

All photographs are courtesy of Chrisam Films except where noted.
Called by a sense of duty, Sid Diamond left City College and enlisted in the army in 1942, although that meant being separated from his high school sweetheart, Estelle. Sid and ‘Stelle could only dream of marriage while sustaining their relationship with a stream of letters.

Fighting in Bougainville and the Philippines, Diamond suffered from the war and the harsh tropical environment on top of his longing for ‘Stelle.

Diamond was killed in battle on January 29, 1945 in Luzon, Philippines. For his gallantry in action he received the Silver Star. He was 22.

Estelle Spero saved the 525 letters she received from her fiancé, publishing them in the 2004 collection An Alcove in the Heart. “If I ever get home,” he wrote, “I’ll know there’s one place waiting for me—a small alcove in your heart.”

“Through the turmoil and strife, when I cried with fear my first night—there was always you and your heckling to make me laugh, to bring me back to normal. When I returned from the front with the nauseating stench of the dead lingering on my clothes it was the memory of the past, which is you, that made me throw off the melancholy. ... I don’t know when I’ll return. I don’t know whether or not you’ll still want me—but for your loyalty and warm affection I’m deeply and humbly thankful.”

—April 17, 1944

Bronx, 1941
During a rare moment of leave, Puente married his sweetheart, Milta Sánchez. “She was a war bride. Everybody was doing it. I didn’t want to wait.”

Coming home in 1945, Puente found his old job with Machito’s band taken. But within three years he would be leading his own.

Onboard the USS Santee, Puente and the piano-playing chaplain’s assistant recruited volunteers for a band. Music was important for morale, so the Navy supplied most ships with instruments, including what Puente liked most—drums. In between battles, the sounds of Miller, Dorsey, and Cugat helped the sailors pass the time and think about happier days.

Puente was also the ship’s bugler, sounding out take-offs and landings of aircraft during battle, and playing taps for the dead, a task he found horrifying. During the offensive in the Pacific, the USS Santee took direct hits from a kamikaze and a torpedo. On fire and about to sink, the carrier somehow righted itself and recovered its planes just as they ran out of fuel.

Puente, in bottom row, right. CVE stands for “Carrier Vessel, Escort.”
Latest War Casualties

Even after the war ended, the discovery and counting of the dead, missing, and wounded went on. For several more months, The New York Times ran a regular column updating war casualty numbers, a feature that it had begun during the fighting.

Firm casualty figures for the New York area are hard to come by. In October 1944, the chief of New York City’s Selective Service office put the number of local residents serving in the armed forces at 763,000, which was about 20 percent of the city’s total male population. In December 1945, marking the fourth anniversary of the bombing of Pearl Harbor, the Brooklyn Eagle noted that “there were 326,000 of the young of the borough in the armed forces, 3,000 of whom made the supreme sacrifice.” Overall, some 18,000 New Yorkers died in the war.
Resource D3:

**Building the Atomic Bomb: Soldier-Scientist Benjamin Bederson**

Benjamin Bederson is Professor of Physics, Emeritus, at New York University. In World War II, as a newly drafted young scientist, he was tapped to play a part in the Manhattan Project. In this film, produced for the New-York Historical Society, he describes his research at the highly classified Los Alamos facility that developed the atomic bomb, and his work on the island of Tinian, training the bombing crews that delivered the bombs to their two targets in Japan. The film is about three and a half minutes long.
Resource D4:

Staging Soldier Shows from Burma to Broadway

This three-minute film, produced for the New-York Historical Society, explores the all-male reviews that were the primary entertainment option for servicemen. With archival photos and footage from the 1943 motion picture This Is the Army, this film considers how these shows also became a form of expression for gay soldiers during World War II, the first U.S. war in which homosexuality was specifically forbidden among members of the military.

To view this film resource, insert the WWII & NYC Classroom Films DVD.
The Defense Recreation Committee was New York’s office for dealing with servicemen visiting the city, whether they were Americans or members of the Allied forces. It was staffed by volunteers and located in a city building on the corner of Park Avenue and East 40th Street. Servicemen could stop by for help with all kinds of issues, from reaching relatives to getting free movie tickets. The committee was set up even before the U.S. entered the war. Just days before Pearl Harbor, it was working to provide free passes to servicemen in the city on Christmas furlough, men who might be both lonely and broke.

This map identified certain New York highlights for visitors unfamiliar with the city. It doubled as a subway map, showing the lines of the IRT (Interborough Rapid Transit) and the BMT (Brooklyn Manhattan Transit). Most servicemen traveled to New York by train and arrived at either Penn Station or Grand Central, so they began their city tours from those locations.

Times Square

For many visiting servicemen, Times Square was the city’s irresistible magnet. During the war years, it was even more crowded than usual, and it was a thrill just to walk down the sidewalk. At night, blackout rules dimmed the bright lights, but not the excitement. Soldiers and sailors were admitted free to nightclubs like the Latin Quarter on Broadway. The glamorous Stork Club on East 53rd Street promised star-sightings, and maybe even a drink delivered by a Hollywood actress like Lana Turner or Greer Garson. The Stage Door Canteen, on the corner of West 44th Street and 7th Avenue, was only for those in the armed forces and welcomed everyone, regardless of race. As an integrated club in Manhattan, it was very unusual. Outside of Harlem, most New York nightclubs did not admit blacks, even men and women in uniform.

The war was never out of people’s minds, even in Times Square. This photograph was taken when the new movie *Thirty Seconds Over Tokyo* was playing after its November 5 opening. It starred Spencer Tracy, and told the true story of the celebrated Doolittle Raid in April 1942, when U.S. bombers struck Japan for the first time in the war. The War Finance Committee took advantage of the movie’s popularity and patriotic message to encourage Americans to buy war bonds.

Altogether there were eight war bond drives during the war, each lasting for a few weeks and accompanied by public events and large-scale advertising. The sixth drive ran from November 20 to December 16, 1944, and raised $21.6 billion. Bonds were available in different denominations, beginning at $18.75. When they matured after a set number of years, they could be turned in for the price of the bond plus interest. Over the course of the war, more than 85 million Americans purchased war bonds, contributing $185.7 billion to the nation’s war chest.

“Thirty Seconds over Tokyo” Premier Bond Drive, 1944. Photograph. Courtesy of Photofest.
Churches Welcome Service Men

Opening the doors wide to out-of-towners was one way that local religious institutions could help servicemen and their families. But First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt noted other gestures of kindness in her regular newspaper column on August 24, 1942:

I . . . have a letter from the Servicemen’s Council of the Federation of Churches, working with the YMCA of New York, Brooklyn and Queens. They enclose a report of the work which the churches are doing. Near the big camps, different denominations are helping the Army chaplains by providing music. These same churches often provide hospitality for parents, wives and friends of the men, who come long distances to visit them.

In many communities, Catholic, Protestant and Jewish churches are working together, and sometimes the auxiliaries send hometown newspapers to the boys far from home. Often they get together and send Christmas boxes. When she cannot reach her own boys, many a mother gets great satisfaction by cooking extra food and having boys who are on leave, or boys from the camps, come to her for Sunday dinner. The churches are one of the many organizations in every community working along these lines.

E.R.

Sammy’s Follies was a popular Bowery dive that attracted both the well-off and the down-and-out. It was known around town as the poor man’s Stork Club, a reference to the much fancier uptown establishment where people were often rich and famous, and the tables were covered with white linens. Sammy’s was located at 267 Bowery, just south of East Houston Street. It was in a seedy part of town, but patrons didn’t seem to mind. One thing all the city bars had in common until a midnight curfew was imposed late in the war: they didn’t close until 3 am—or later. In December 1944, *Life* magazine noted that “from 8 in the morning until 4 the next morning Sammy’s is an alcoholic haven.”

This photograph was taken by a well-known photographer who called himself Weegee. Born Usher (Arthur) Fellig, he had moved to New York from Austria as a boy. He became known for his grimly realistic crime-scene photographs in the ’30s and ’40s. He also loved Sammy’s and was there often, camera in hand.
During World War II, racial separation was the norm in America. The military was segregated, and so were most white-run nightclubs in New York City. Nearly every one made it clear that blacks were not welcome, even those in uniform. (The Stage Door Canteen was a notable exception.) So black men and women in the military headed uptown, to hot spots in Harlem. Many whites made the same trip, drawn by great jazz performers to places like the Apollo Theater on 125th Street and the Savoy Ballroom, Harlem’s largest dance club. The Apollo offered a number of free weekly tickets to men in uniform. The Savoy gave out 175 free passes a week, and the Harlem Defense Recreation Committee sponsored dances on the huge, celebrated dance floor, which was perfect for the Lindy hop.
Resource E6:

An Unidentified American Sailor and Young Woman Do the Lindy at the Stage Door Canteen During a USO Party

The Lindy hop was a jazz dance created in Harlem in the 1920s. The name probably came from the 1927 solo “hop” across the Atlantic by Charles Lindberg, known as Lucky Lindy. The dance had specific steps, often with helpful descriptive names, like hip-to-hip, and was a big hit in New York in the ’30s and ’40s. Other parts of the country had their own popular swing dances with their own fast, funny, acrobatic steps. Collectively, these dances were called jitterbugs. Some people had a knack for them, but others could just learn a few basic steps and cut loose. Or they could stand and watch while others danced. (A 1944 how-to-jitterbug film, called Groovie Movie, can be seen at www.youtube.com/watch?v=cbnYVwQYVY.)

The Stage Door Canteen, where the sailor in this photo is dancing, was set up by theater professionals especially for servicemen during the war. Located in the basement of a theater in Times Square, it was open every day from 5 pm to midnight. No liquor was served. Broadway stars dropped by regularly, the food was free, and all servicemen were welcome. It was one of the few racially integrated night spots in New York, outside of Harlem. The hostesses were volunteers, women who would talk to the boys, dance with them, and bring them food. Servicemen loved it—a friendly place, just for them.

An Unidentified American Sailor and Young Woman Do the Lindy at the Stage Door Canteen During a USO Party, 1944. Photograph. Associated Press, 440080016.
Resource E7:

**New York’s Stage Door Canteen**

This three-minute film was produced for the New-York Historical Society. It uses footage from the 1943 feature film *Stage Door Canteen* along with contemporary interviews to explore the popular integrated club for servicemen in Times Square. The Canteen was run by theater people—The American Theater Wing—and well-known actors and actresses dropped by frequently. They gave the club a glamour that many of the young soldiers and sailors had never experienced.

To view this film resource, insert the *WWII & NYC Classroom Films* DVD.
They’re Either Too Young Or Too Old

You rushed away and left this house as empty as can be
And I am like the driftwood in a deadly calm at sea
I can’t sit under the apple tree with anyone else but me
For there is no secret lover that the draft board didn’t discover

They’re either too young or too old
They’re either too gray or too grassy green
The pickings are poor and the crop is lean
What’s good is in the Army, what’s left will never harm me

They’re either too old or too young
So, darling, you’ll never get stung
Tomorrow I’ll go hiking with that Eagle Scout unless
I get a call from grandpa for a snappy game of chess

They’re either too warm or too cold
They’re either too fast or too fast asleep
So, darling, believe me, I’m yours to keep
There isn’t any gravy, the gravy’s in the Navy

They’re either too fresh or too stale
There is no available male
I will confess to one romance I’m sure you will allow
He tried to serenade me, but his voice is changing now

They’re either too bald or too bold
I’m down to the wheelchair and bassinet
My heart just refuses to get upset
I simply can’t compel it to, with no Marine to tell it to

I’m either their first breath of spring
Or else, I’m their last little fling
I either get a fossil or an adolescent pup
I either have to hold him off or have to hold him up

The battle is on, but the fortress will hold
They’re either too young or too old

(Orchestral Break)

I’ll never, never fail ya
When you are in Australia
Or out in the Aleutians
Or off among the Rooshians
And flying over Egypt
Your heart will never be gypped
And when you get to India
I’ll still be what I’ve been to ya
I’ve looked the field over
And lo and behold
They’re either too young or too old

Resource Ft:

They’re Either Too Young or Too Old

During World War II, most of the men in their 20s and 30s were in the armed forces. For wives and girlfriends, this meant months or years of loneliness, and nagging fears about the exotic women their soldier or sailor might meet. Estelle Spero voiced this concern in letters to her fiancé, Sid Diamond. He responded from the South Pacific: “My poor misguided ‘Stelle. There are no women here!!” Men at war worried too, mostly about getting a “Dear John” letter, written by a wife or girlfriend to say she had met someone else.

Loneliness and anxiety are the undercurrents of this light-hearted 1943 song “They’re Either Too Young or Too Old,” performed by Bette Davis in a movie called Thank Your Lucky Stars. She was not known as a singer, but the song was the star of the show. It exaggerated feelings men and women could easily recognize, and gave everyone a good laugh. Nominated for an Academy Award, the song’s lyrics were by Frank Loesser, and the music by Arthur Schwartz. Both were New Yorkers, and both became well-known writers of Broadway songs. Bette Davis’s rendition of this wartime hit can be viewed on YouTube.
The Brooklyn Navy Yard was founded in the early 1800s, but it never hired a woman for what were considered male jobs until World War II. Beginning in 1942, the Navy Yard began training women to enter the workforce as electricians, welders, riveters, truck drivers, and other essential but low-paying positions. By January 1945, there were 4,600 women working at the Navy Yard in traditionally male jobs. The Navy Yard, however, was the size of a city, employing more than 70,000 workers at its peak, so the women were a small percentage of the workforce. They were hired because of the war effort, and most were let go when the war ended.

The women in this photo were probably trainees in the Navy Yard’s shipfitting shop. Their lunch break included a sandwich brought from home and a glass of milk, which was thought to prevent some of the health problems that came from breathing in industrial fumes. From left to right, they are: Elsie Chassam, 20, 983 East 181st Street, Bronx; Rose Berry, 24, 163 South 9th Street, Brooklyn; Cynthia Cato, 21, 200 West 147th Street, Manhattan; and Cecilia Lowenstein, 23, 1411 Townsend Avenue, Bronx. The other two women are not identified.

Resource F2:

Shipfitters on Lunch Break

The Brooklyn Navy Yard was founded in the early 1800s, but it never hired a woman for what were considered male jobs until World War II. Beginning in 1942, the Navy Yard began training women to enter the workforce as electricians, welders, riveters, truck drivers, and other essential but low-paying positions. By January 1945, there were 4,600 women working at the Navy Yard in traditionally male jobs. The Navy Yard, however, was the size of a city, employing more than 70,000 workers at its peak, so the women were a small percentage of the workforce. They were hired because of the war effort, and most were let go when the war ended.

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A Letter from Sid

Mar. 29 [1944]
Darling,

I feel whoozy to the nth degree. Last night occasioned the luxury of twelve hours slumber. One gets that—“Oh how I hate to get up” feeling, but duty, chow, the birds all order—“Get the hell outta bed—soldier!”

We’ve brought our cots out to our holes and sleep is ever so much more enjoyable minus stumps, stones, rocks.

There’s very little to report. Your soldier-boy is still “sans” injury.

You ask about any hand-to-hand fighting. The closest I’ve come to any fight occurred a while ago. We were up in an O.P. [Observation Post] cut into a large boulder resting high atop a ridge.—Nippo attacked at night—Sitting high over it all, it was just like witnessing a fourth of July fireworks show from a grand stand seat. As the battle crept closer to us we all tightly clenched our carbines. A case of hand grenades was opened and distributed—We kept reporting the progress of the fray over the phone—Very similar to a blow-by-blow ringside description. In the morning Tojo started sniping and getting himself sent to his honorable ancestors.—But that was long ago.—

I’m getting more proficient in my work as time goes by—We’ve gotten several verbal commendations but the most pleasing of all is a remark from a front line infantryman.—The man that sits in his hole with no alternative but kill or be killed—“We sure were glad to have that mortar fire!”—’Stelle—if I could do anything to help them—dig holes with my fingernails, I’d do it. They are gallant men.

No—I never did write that letter.*—I have some courage—but not that much.

Remember Lt. Foster—my exec.—He’s “purple hearting”—only a slight wound—A Lt. House has come to me for training—I hate these men with wives and kids—they don’t belong here. . .

After the battle there was the usual souvenir hunt—Somehow I still have respect for the departed—couldn’t get myself to pick up a battle flag or something—

So ends our gory tale of carnage, and carrion— . . .

By the way I still love you—very much—However I’m still in doubt as to whether I’ll accept your leap year proposal if you make it.—Follow my “whim of the moment” as “some” people say—

Every time I go through a period of anxiety—I take it out on us—you particularly—don’t take it seriously—Just a child getting cranky for lack of sleep. Okay? . . .

I love you darling—overwhelmingly—Please—please know that—Please, please understand—that—well there are times a guy’s just not himself—You know what I mean. Or do you?—

I love you
Your
Sid

*To the wife one of his fallen men. In an earlier letter, Sid had described his struggle to write to her.
In 1940, as the U.S. began producing more war-related material, jobs in the defense industry increased and offered a way out of the Depression for many people. But most firms hired only white men. In 1941, A. Philip Randolph's pressure on the Roosevelt administration resulted in Executive Order 8802, which outlawed racial discrimination in the hiring practices of companies receiving government contracts. This opened the door to African Americans to find steady work at places like the Brooklyn Navy Yard and Sperry Gyroscope. (For more about Executive Order 8802, see Unit H: African Americans in Wartime New York.)

No Executive Order was necessary to bring women into the workplace. But deep-seated resistance to women in male jobs had to be overcome. The Office of War Information began an advertising campaign to encourage women to work in factories. The “Rosie the Riveter” campaign presented an attractive, young, white woman with her sleeves rolled up, and the message was that women could, and should, step forward. Many women also needed to earn money, and were eager to contribute to the war effort.

For black women, working in war plants was a double opportunity once denied both their race and their gender. The two women in this photo were part of a training program sponsored by the National Youth Administration in Brooklyn. The woman on the left was 18 and studying gas welding. With her was Elaine Ashe, 17, who was making a part known as a lop mold.

U.S. Youth Trains for War Jobs, June 12, 1944. Photograph. National Archives, 208-MO [Box 139]-DD-2280.
The task of the Office of War Information (OWI) was to control the messages that went out to ordinary Americans. The OWI produced the posters that introduced Rosie the Riveter and warned against casual talk that might give secrets to the enemy in the “Loose Lips Sink Ships” campaign. This poster was meant to show homemakers—married women with families—that they were also involved in the war effort. Victory, they were told, begins at home: do your part. The artwork across the top shows a woman in her home, almost in uniform like the hardworking women to her right and left. The poster text encourages efficiency and readiness in the name of patriotism.

OWI posters were mounted in public places all across America. One OWI spokesman said that “people should wake up to find a visual message everywhere like news snow—even man, woman and child should be reached and moved by the message.” “News snow” was a good analogy. If you were at work in a factory, in line at the post office or grocery store, or just walking down the sidewalk past store windows, you would see colorful posters reminding you that you were essential to winning the war.

Food was one of the great challenges of the war. The nation’s top priority was feeding men in uniform, and the government assigned America’s farmers to this task. Families at home used ration cards to make purchases in grocery stores, and they were encouraged to supplement their diet with food they grew and preserved. Even in New York City, there were more than 400,000 gardens by the end of 1943—on rooftops, in tiny patios and vacant lots, and on borrowed real estate on college campuses and parks all over the city. The average garden was 25 feet by 25 feet.

The Office of War Information helped promote the “Grow Your Own, Can Your Own” campaign with posters like this one. Visually, it tells the story of safety and abundance and solid American values, and of a mother providing for her family’s needs. But the child’s question (“We’ll have lots to eat this winter, won’t we Mother?”) reflects an underlying anxiety about food during the war.

Resource F7:

**War Ration Book Four**

As soon as the U.S. declared war, it was clear there would be food shortages. Importing became difficult, and fighting men needed to be fed. President Roosevelt set up the Office of Price Administration (OPA) in 1941 to design a fair system for distributing available supplies to the home front. The OPA did this with a series of ration booklets. War Ration Book One, issued in May 1942, covered the purchase of sugar. Books Two, Three, and Four appeared over the next months and controlled purchases of canned goods and meats. Every person in the country, regardless of age, received a ration book.

The inside pages of the ration books were printed with stamps, which the users were not allowed to remove. Instead, they took the book to the store with them, and the merchant tore the stamps out and saved them. Then he used the collected stamps to prove to a supplier that he had sold out, and he would be allowed to restock his shelves.

For the woman, or man, shopping to feed a family, rationing was a complicated system. The stamps were coded by number, letter, and color, each one worth a certain number of points. The price of items in the market was also set in points, but the number changed as supplies went up and down. The government set the maximum price that could be charged for nearly every item in a store. Consumers needed to follow the news to learn how and when they could use the stamps. In July 1943, for example, this information appeared in *The New York Times*: “The Office of Price Administration announced today that blue food stamps lettered R, S and T in War Ration Book Four would become valid on August 1 and remain good for canned and processed foods until Sept. 7.” Food shoppers could also listen to Mayor La Guardia’s regular radio addresses, since he helped people make sense of it all.

Non-food items were rationed too—gasoline, tires, shoes, nylon stockings. The war made it impossible to buy these products and many foods in the quantities people wanted, but the ration books at least spread the hardship around fairly.

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War Play for Children—How Much?

The period of greatest anxiety in childhood is roughly bounded by infancy on the one hand and the school years on the other. By the time children are seven or eight years old, it is likely to have faded out, and in these years, before adolescence brings a fresh wave of inner commotion and anxiety, their lives are likely to be relatively smooth. Smooth, however, to a careful observer never means wholly smooth, and these active, adventurous, self-assured youngsters between six and twelve have their own ways of showing strain.

John, for example, is nine and the proud only son of a father who is an instructor at an airfield. John has always been enormously interested in every kind of machine, and he has acquired amazing skill for his years in making models and knowing every type and make of war plane ever flown. He rates as an altogether normal boy, active and resourceful above the average. The anxieties of earlier childhood, if he ever showed any, were so slight as to be quickly forgotten. When his father entered the army air corps and left home, John and his mother saw him off at the station. He paid little attention to his father, the magnificent streamlined engine claiming apparently far more of his interest. But after the train had pulled out, he clung to his mother, suddenly overwhelmed with unaccustomed tears.

Except for this one outbreak, John is his old self again since his father’s departure, but with differences. He doesn’t fall asleep as readily, is a bit more irritable, and is given to temper outbursts more often than was usual. His voice is higher-pitched and his interest in the war and fighting, in guns, tanks, and airplanes, has assumed such proportions that it amounts almost to an obsession. News-reels and picturizations of war in all forms he seeks avidly; he makes endless drawings depicting war; he follows the progress of armies closely, reads by preference only tales of battle and death, and lives vicariously, in so far as he is able, the life of a dive bomber over the enemy lines.

How far, wonders his mother, shall she let this go on? . . .

A father in danger has implications for John which he dare not altogether face. . . . It is wise, therefore, not to force such a boy violently or prohibitively, for he needs just these outlets. It is better not to set a fixed limit on news-reels or to censor certain magazines and reading. But by careful watching, his mother may be able to guess how much these activities really help to reduce tension, and at what point he can profit by having his attention directed to other things.

Resource F9:

**Boot Camp in the Bronx: A WAVE Remembers**

In this three-minute film, produced for the New-York Historical Society, Nancy Ann Lynch recounts her years with the WAVES (Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service) at a boot camp located on the campus of Hunter College, now Lehman College, in the Bronx.

All the branches of the military set up women’s branches during World War II to take over jobs left by military men who were shipped out to the battlefront. The Army was first, establishing the Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC) in May of 1942, later dropping “Auxiliary” to form the Women’s Army Corps (WAC). The WAVES, a branch of the Naval Reserve, was established on July 30, 1942 by an amendment to the Naval Reserve Act of 1938. The act specified that women who served in the WAVES had to be at least 20 years old, were restricted to shore duty within the continental U.S., and would not be assigned to Navy vessels or combat aircraft. They performed clerical jobs and served as air traffic controllers, truck drivers, welders, and instructors. They managed 80 percent of the Navy’s administrative work.

The act that created the WAVES also called for women’s reserves within the Coast Guard and Marines. The Coast Guard created the SPAR, an acronym based on the Coast Guard motto, “Semper Paratus—Always Ready.” The Marines resisted but ultimately formed the Marine Corps Women’s Reserve on February 13, 1943.

The WAAC accepted black women from the start, though in segregated facilities that mirrored the racial organization of the Army itself. But the WAVES was an all-white group until pressure was brought to bear. For this story, click here.
Resource F10:

**Brooklyn Navy Yard at War**

This three-minute film, produced for the New-York Historical Society, examines the opening of the Brooklyn Navy Yard to female and African American workers during the war. Carmela Zuza, one of the women welders who worked there, and Clarence Irving, one of the African American workers, reminisce about their days at the shipyard.

Some Brooklyn Navy Yard statistics from the war years:

- Number of employees in June 1941: 20,000
- Number of employees in August 1943: 70,000
- Number of female applicants for helper-trainee positions when openings announced in August 1942: 20,000
  - Number hired: 200
- Number of women in production work in 1945: 4,600
- Number of African American workers in November 1940: 445
- Number of “nonwhite” workers in 1944: 5,500
- Number of torpedoed ships repaired: 5,000+
- Number of aircraft carriers and battleships built: 8
- Number of civilian ships converted to wartime use: 250
- Work schedule: 24/7

Life Story:

Carmela Celardo Zuza
(1924–    )

Carmela Celardo was 18 years old and she needed a job. It was a few months after Pearl Harbor. She was living at home with her family at 79 Dean Street in Brooklyn. Her brothers were in the service, her father was not well, and Carmela needed to make money to help her parents. She thought she would try to find work near home, but then she heard they were hiring women at the Brooklyn Navy Yard. It sounded interesting, even though it was farther away. She left high school in mid-term and applied for a job. She and a few other women were hired, and spent several weeks taking nightly training sessions that ended at 11 pm. The women were taught how to use heat to seal two pieces of metal together.

Her father was worried she would get hurt, but her brothers were proud of her. They lived in a friendly mixed neighborhood—blacks, Hispanics, Italians—and many of the local men worked in the Brooklyn Navy Yard. But Carmela was the only girl on the block who had taken a job there. She was also one of the few women at the Yard. Some of the men were nice to them, but others made fun of them. For her father, and for many other men, welding wasn’t something that women could or should do. But Carmela considered it delicate work that required a fine touch and a good eye, not brute strength. She loved to draw and sew—she once thought of becoming a fashion designer—and welding appealed to her artistic side.

Every morning, she took the bus to the Navy Yard and started work at 8 am. She wore a jumpsuit, and tucked her hair into a cap for safety. When she was welding, a metal helmet protected her face and eyes. There was a no-make-up rule that some of the girls broke, but not Carmela. She was there to help her country, and lipstick was not necessary. Sometimes she’d be at the water cooler getting a drink, and the men around her would use foul language because they didn’t know she was a woman. Then they’d realize it, and say they were sorry.

Along with other women welders, Carmela worked on the USS Missouri, a battleship that was constructed at the Navy Yard. The welding went on for two years, and the biggest job was welding the plates on the ship’s deck. Carmela was considered the best welder in the group. There was a man working on the USS Missouri who lived in her neighborhood. Carmela was friends with his daughter. Guys on the block would ask him, “What about Carmela? What’s she doing there?” And he would say, “You should see her work, you wouldn’t believe it!” In fact, some of the men at the Yard didn’t believe that a woman had done the first-rate welds they were seeing. One time she brought over the mechanical engineer who had trained her, and he set the record straight: “It’s her work.”

Carmela worked Monday through Friday. On weekends during baseball season, she walked from her house to Ebbets Field to watch her beloved Dodgers. Nights, she’d go somewhere to dance—she loved the Lindy hop. Or she and her friends would head to the Empire roller skating rink, and sometimes they’d meet soldiers and sailors and they would all go for ice cream. One night, she went out with a sailor she knew from the Navy Yard. His brother was in town, and the three of them went to a movie, and then to a bar for a beer. Her mother found out about the bar and was upset. Later Carmela learned that the sailor died in the war. Many of the boys in her neighborhood died too, but her brothers came home safely.

When their work on the USS Missouri was finished, Carmela and the other women welders were not assigned to another ship. Instead, they were given jobs in the office on one of the upper floors, above their old work site. They were there, with a perfect view of the proceedings, when the USS Missouri was launched in January of 1944 to a huge celebration. Carmela brought her little nephew with her so he wouldn’t miss it. Senator Harry Truman spoke, and thousands of people came to watch. Skippers in the

East River blasted their horns. All in honor of what The New York Times called the “latest and probably the largest and most powerful of the world’s battleships.” After the traditional champagne bottle was cracked open against the bow, the Missouri slid out of dry dock and the cheers went up. The day had been cloudy until that moment, but suddenly the sun came out. All her life, Carmela has vividly remembered the pride she felt that day.

A little more than a year and a half after its launch, the USS Missouri was the site of the Japanese surrender to Allied forces at the end of World War II. Retired since 1992, she is now permanently docked at Pearl Harbor as both a museum and memorial. Carmela’s daughter Sadie visited the ship recently and called her mother from the deck. “Ma, I’m standing on the deck plates. I can’t believe it. You actually worked on this ship!”

To see and hear Carmela Zuza describe her war work, insert the WWII & NYC Classroom Films DVD and view Brooklyn Navy Yard at War.

The war put a crimp in supplies of raw materials, just when they became most necessary. Japan controlled the sources of these materials, like plantations in Asia, or torpedoed the ships transporting them. Steel, tin, aluminum, rubber, and oil all became scarce. The only solution was to reuse what was already here. Most of the recyclable material came from industry, but there were regular collection drives that put families, and especially children, to work finding and turning in anything that could be useful.

Beginning in 1942, the nation’s schools were involved in this effort. The children in this photo are learning about salvage from their teacher. She is showing them the kinds of objects to look for—old chunks of metal, discarded tires—and probably explaining how these things could help the war effort. Teachers were also trained in civil defense and first aid, and were provided with kits for treating injuries.

When children went out collecting, they went in groups and were assigned to specific neighborhoods. They could also bring in things from home: toothpaste tubes (then made of metal), stacks of newspapers, empty tin cans. Collection points were scattered around the city, including ball fields, where scrap was sometimes exchanged for a free ticket to a game. Bacon grease and other oils were needed too, but they had to be taken to the butcher for eventual use in explosives.

Being in school during the war meant facing some of the scarier truths of those years. Every New York schoolchild was required to wear a plastic tag that contained his or her name, birthdate, and a coded number specific to each child, in case there were others with the same name. The tags would provide a way to identify a child in an emergency, and it was no secret what the emergency might be: an enemy attack. That explained the regular air-raid drills as well. But children and teenagers did not always focus on the frightening reasons for things. One man remembered that he hadn’t liked fire drills too much because he had to return to class afterward. He preferred air-raid drills, because going home was part of the drill.
As soon as war was declared, people began focusing on the skies over the city. Many worried that the U.S. mainland, or even the center of New York, might be attacked by air as Pearl Harbor had been. They thought they should learn to recognize the difference between a friendly plane (U.S. or British), and one belonging to Germany, Italy, or Japan. Many people volunteered to serve as aircraft spotters. They learned to identify planes by their size, profile, and markings, and then went to their posts with binoculars. An enemy airplane, obviously, was to be reported immediately to the Army.

Children also were given a job. It was one thing for civilian plane spotters and airport personnel to study a flat drawing of an enemy plane, but quite another to see a three-dimensional version. So “recognition models” of different planes were needed. The U.S. Navy Bureau of Aeronautics enlisted the help of students in junior high and high schools to build models of fifty different kinds of Allied and Axis planes. Schools supplied the materials—wood, glue, and black paint—and the Navy supplied templates and instructions. Teachers inspected the finished planes, and then mailed them in. Unfortunately, it was harder than it had seemed, and the students’ models were not accurate enough to be used as the Navy had intended.

Americans could learn to recognize airplanes in many different ways. Manuals, posters, books, and playing cards all helped teach the public how to know one plane from another. Some used drawings, others used photographs; some showed the plane as it would look from below (to someone with binoculars), and others took the perspective of a pilot in the air.

The larger model pictured here has a wingspan of about seven inches. The smaller model’s wingspan is about four and a half inches.

Collection of Mike Thornton.
Tar Beach in an Air-Raid Drill

I think that on the whole, people took the war very seriously, whether it was in Harlem or outside of Harlem. I mean they had given you enough education and proper candor about what could happen, so that it was something to be taken seriously. But after a while these serious things become routine and you deal with it in a routine manner. That’s how I remember things, not that you shouldn’t have always been serious but how long can you keep a kid serious? And especially teenagers. We used to have roof parties, you know, tar beach. We’d have the extension cord coming up from the top floor and a record player and they charged four cents or five cents, and you have a party of punch and cheese and crackers on the roof. And I remember one time an air-raid drill was scheduled. You know, an air-raid drill, a blackout, and we had this party scheduled and oh, we thought that was the worst thing in the world, you know, to interfere. Why can’t we have a party when there’s an air raid? We knew it was a drill so why can’t we have our fun? That’s the way we saw it as kids, you know.

Scout Collects Waste Fats for Explosives

During the war, if a family was lucky enough to have bacon for Sunday morning breakfast, the grease was carefully poured into a can and saved for the war effort. This was true for any leftover fats in home kitchens and restaurants. Cans were turned in to local butchers, often by Boy Scouts who collected them by going door to door. Fats were needed because they could be used to make explosives.

The Boy Scouts played other critical roles during the war. They were the primary distribution system for the posters churned out by the Office of War Information, and were at the forefront of the salvage effort. (By the end of 1942, the nation had collected 12 million pounds of aluminum; the Boy Scouts were responsible for 10.5 million of those pounds.) Boy Scouts were in a unique position to help with the effort. People would open their doors to them because they were seen as good, clean-cut kids. There were Scout troops in nearly every community, covering different races and ethnic groups. The boys knew their neighborhoods and their neighbors. The Scouts were well-organized and had done many community projects before the war.

In 1942, the Scout leadership conducted a survey of the New York–New Jersey area to find out how their members, boys 9–15 years old, were feeling about their war work. The Scouts answered that they wanted to do important jobs, and that buying war bonds and collecting scrap seemed more important than handing out leaflets or tending a victory garden. They didn’t care if the work was fun or not. They wanted it to be useful. A great majority of the boys felt they could do jobs that were only given to adults. They wanted to be junior air-raid wardens, plane spotters, fire watchers. They felt they could be doing more to help with the war effort.

The Girl Scouts were busy during the war as well. The leadership began programs to teach them first aid and child care. Girl Scouts collected clothes to send to war victims, tended victory gardens, and collected scrap metal. But they did not play as public a role as the Boy Scouts. One reason was that there were many more Boy Scouts than Girl Scouts. Another was probably the common attitude that boys (and men) were better at many tasks than girls and women. The Office of War Information, for example, specifically approached the Boy Scouts organization for help in distributing posters. Even the president was involved. Early in 1943, FDR wrote a letter asking the Boy Scouts to take “an important commission as Government Dispatch Bearers for the Office of War Information.” The Boy Scouts did their work well and are credited today with major contributions to the war effort at home.
Beauty and personality courses or girls from the age of 7 on up through those who are already holding jobs will begin today on an experimental basis at the center of the Police Athletic League at 12 West 108th Street. If the twenty-five-hour program in the essentials of good grooming proves a success, according to Mrs. Harry Hult, the teacher, similar sessions will be undertaken at PAL centers all over the city.

Under Mrs. Hult’s plan the girls in each age group will come to the center for an hour a day, five days a week. Three separate classes—for those 7 to 12, for those 13 to 15 and for those over 16—will be given by day and an equal number of evening classes is planned for working girls, Mrs. Hult said.

The schedule follows: Mondays, care of the hair and hair styling; Tuesdays, care of the skin; Wednesdays, what to eat according to simple nutrition rules; Thursdays, clothes, including how to remake them if necessary; and Fridays, personality, what to say, and how to speak. Each class will devote part of its period to exercises. On Tuesdays at 4 P. M. a “mass meeting” is planned for all girls in all the courses for mass exercises.

One hundred girls attended a preview of the course Friday evening at the center and heard Mrs. Hult say: “I don’t want any of you to think of me as a teacher or a welfare worker. Being anything that is troubling you to me and we’ll try to work it out together.”

She told the girls that arrangements were under way with the local library for the students to refer to simple texts Mrs. Hult has picked out for a reading list. In addition, she said that not more than twenty-five girls would be in a single session, to insure adequate attention to individual problems.

After the meeting some of the girls themselves offered ideas on why such a course was a “good idea.”

Mignon Smith, 16, of 3 West 108th Street, said: “It’s nice for all the girls. It’s free and will help them to occupy their time and keep down some of the juvenile delinquency that’s going on now. We’ll have a course in speech and everything. Maybe if girls took the course they’d take more pride in themselves and take things more seriously. It might help improve the rough girls, too.”

May Boyd, 13, commented: “There’s not much to do evenings except sing, sit on the stoop or play potsy. This will give us something to do in the daytime, anyway.”
In the first days after Pearl Harbor, some Americans may have believed the war would end quickly. But as the months went on, it was hard to ignore the possibility of a long and difficult fight. The High School Victory Corps was a program set up by the U.S. Office of Education to ready students for the home front and the battlefield. Boys and girls took additional exercise classes, studied first aid, and volunteered in the community. The office workers shown in one of these photos are working at teletype machines, a very important communication tool in World War II. They were typewriter keyboards connected to telegraph lines that allowed messages to be written quickly and sent instantly to any location.

The Victory Corps boys’ program was specifically meant to get teenagers in shape to be soldiers. The military had been alarmed by the poor physical condition of some of the men who were enlisting, so Victory Corps boys learned how to climb ropes, carry a wounded comrade, and get up and over eight-foot obstacles at top speed. It was rigorous commando-style training. And since the war would continue for nearly three more years, the Flushing High School boys shown clearing this hurdle may indeed have been in uniform before long.
During the war, many of the materials used to make toys, including metal and rubber, were rationed. Wood and imagination were not, and kids used them freely to play war games. They could dress up in old clothes (anything khaki could stand in for a soldier's uniform), and balance a stick on one shoulder to represent a gun. Sometimes a lucky child would have an actual toy gun, either a new one made of wood or an old one from before the war. The plots of these activities were the “us against them” games children had long played, like cops and robbers. Now it was Americans against the Nazis or the “dirty Japs.” The Americans always won. These were mostly games played by boys, just as the war itself was fought by men. Girls who wanted to play were often cast in the roles of nurses or prisoners.

In the 1940s, many items produced for children and teens, or for adults at play, had war-related themes. Pencil sharpeners were made in the shape of airplanes. Yellow piggy banks sported Hitler mustaches to encourage saving to buy war bonds. Board games had names like Dive Bomber and Plane Spotter. Resource G7, the “Sink the Japs” panel, was part of a pinball game in an arcade. Pinball is played on a flashy, noisy machine in which metal balls are sprung into action around an obstacle course, and points are scored. This panel was probably the upright piece that attracted passersby and displayed the score. People of all ages played these games, but arcades were a special draw for teens and younger children.

In many war-related items, images of the Japanese dominated, at least at the beginning of the war. This was true even though Germany was easily the most powerful of the Axis powers. A 1943 survey found that for Americans the Japanese were a more potent symbol of the enemy than the Germans. They were easier to hate. One reason was the attack on Pearl Harbor. But racial bias against Asians had a long history in the U.S. Stereotyped portrayals of Japanese fighters were commonplace during the war, as were shouts of “dirty Japs” on streets where children played.
Children and Teens in Wartime New York

Life Story:

**Celedonia Jones**

(1930– )

Celedonia Jones—people call him Cal—grew up during the Depression, and his family was, he remembers, the poorest of the poor. His mother’s biggest fear was that they’d be dispossessed, find all their furniture out on the sidewalk. That happened in Harlem in those days. But landlords gave a month’s free rent when people moved into a new apartment. So Cal’s family kept moving to take advantage of a month with no rent due. He was born on 153rd Street, but over the course of his childhood he lived on 145th, 144th, 148th, 143rd, and 150th. In 1939, Cal was nine and the family was living on 143rd Street between 7th and Lenox Avenues. The neighborhood was full of kids, and that’s where Cal learned the street games that kids played all over the city.

Like most people in the neighborhood, they were on relief during the Depression years. His father was out of work. Cal couldn’t join the Boy Scouts because he didn’t have the few cents it took to pay the dues. His friend Dickie was a Scout because his dad had a job. Then Cal’s father was hired by the WPA, the Works Progress Administration, which was part of President Roosevelt’s New Deal. It hired men to work on public projects. Cal’s dad planted trees at the Harlem River Houses. Cal’s mother used to pack his father’s lunch, and Cal would take his lunch pail to him every day.

Cal worked too. He sold newspapers late at night outside the Cotton Club and other Harlem nightspots, even when he wasn’t much more than 10 years old. He also went around picking up wine bottles he found on the street, because he could make a penny or two when he turned them in. Sometimes he found scrap on the street that he could sell to a junk dealer. He made money when neighbors paid him to do errands. He gave whatever he earned to his mother. He grew up knowing the family had to pull together.

When Cal was 11, the Joneses were living on 144th Street. One Sunday afternoon, they were listening to music and kidding around, having a good time. They were dancing to a song called “Five Guys Named Moe” when an announcement came over the radio and they stopped to listen. Then, like people all over America, they tried to figure out where Pearl Harbor was.

Things changed immediately. People thought Hitler would try to bomb New York City. At school, all the children were given plastic tags with their name and birthdate, so they could be identified in an emergency. Air-raid drills were added to fire drills. At home, there were ration books, and his mother would trade stamps with her friends, shoe stamps for sugar or coffee, whatever people needed most. When the blackout rules went into effect, air-raid wardens patrolled the neighborhood. They’d stand down on the street and call out: “Turn the light out on the fifth floor. We can see your lights.” The city buzzed with wartime activity. The harbor filled with ships, and soldiers and sailors were everywhere.

Then, Cal’s mother got a job in a factory making small beaded dolls. She was paid by the piece—a set amount for each doll she finished—so she’d bring them home and the whole family would make more of the dolls at night, sitting around the coffee table. But discrimination was constant. One day she came home and said her supervisor was giving her a hard time, wouldn’t let her do the work that paid a little better than what she was doing. It was especially hard, because Cal’s father was often unemployed and his mother was the family breadwinner. Sometimes his mother would say, “So-and-so’s got steady work, so now those kids can eat.” For Cal, “steady work” and eating regularly were riveted together in his mind.

When the war came, jobs opened up. There weren’t enough white men to work, so they hired black men. Then, there weren’t enough black men, so they hired women and young people. Cal’s sister got a job in a defense plant when she was 18. Cal himself lied about his age (he was really only 12), and was hired by Horn and Hardart, a popular New York City chain of restaurants where all the food was served from vending machines. Cal was a dishwasher, paid $18.75 per week. Busboys earned more—they collected the dirty dishes off the tables—but only whites got those jobs. Then, there weren’t enough white boys, and Cal was allowed to bus the tables.

Cal was working at Horn and Hardart in August 1943 when the Harlem riot erupted. His brother was a Western Union delivery boy, and came home with the news and stories about looting and pilfering. He wanted to go out and get a radio for himself, but his mother said, “No, no, no, you stay right in here.” It wasn’t hard to believe the rumor that started the riot—that a black soldier had been killed by a white policeman. Even kids playing stickball in the street knew what would happen if a policeman came along. Either he’d take the stick and break it, or he’d ask for $2 to look

continued on following page

New York Historical Society
the other way. Kids began each game by collecting money from all the players so they would have enough to pay off the police.

In 1945, when he was 15, Cal worked as a delivery boy at the American Bias Binding Company on 20th Street, which made cloth tape used in army uniforms. He had a cart that he’d load up and push from one end of the garment district to the other, from 10th Street all the way up to 38th or 40th. In August, people started to say that the war was about to end. Cal’s supervisor, Benny, asked him to pile up the burlap bags they used to put out paper trash, and put them by the windows so they could dump them out as a celebration. When the word came, Benny said, “Now, Cal.” Cal opened the window and shook the papers out of one of the bags. At first people below were annoyed, but then everybody opened their windows and sent papers fluttering down toward the street like confetti. Cal ran out and met his friends in Times Square, which was packed with people hollering and celebrating.

Cal Jones went on to earn a B.S. in accounting, and worked for the City of New York for forty-two years. He retired in 1990 from the Office of the Comptroller, where he had been director of the Office of Fiscal Services. In 1997, he was appointed Manhattan borough historian and was reappointed annually through 2006. Today he holds the title of Manhattan borough historian emeritus.

To hear Cal Jones reminisce about his Harlem childhood, visit storycorps.org/listen/stories/celedonia-jones-and-robert-harris/.

Resource H1: African American Soldiers

Military opportunities for blacks changed in small ways during the war. In 1942, the Army Air Corps, Navy, and Coast Guard each began taking a few more black enlistees. On December 5 of that year, FDR issued Executive Order 9279, requiring all branches of the military to fill their ranks through the draft, which held them to the anti-discrimination clause of the 1940 draft law. The Army then reversed its policy of limiting the number of black units, which had kept out black men who were willing and able to serve. The Army claimed not to accept any doctrine of racial inferiority, but saw segregated units as a practical necessity. Challenging the entire U.S. social order seemed risky to military officials. The armed forces would not be integrated until after President Harry Truman’s 1948 Executive Order.

Officially, black soldiers were kept in noncombat roles. Unofficially, and quietly, the Army used black units in combat if it needed them. They fought in North Africa and Australia early in the war. In Europe, the large invasion aimed at defeating Hitler required as much manpower as possible. So General Dwight D. Eisenhower, supreme commander of the Allied forces in Europe, approved adding black units to white combat units, and thousands of black soldiers volunteered for the available spaces. The black platoons fought with white units in Germany until the war ended. At that point, they either returned to all-black units or were discharged.
African American women faced a double hurdle during the war years. They had to overcome discrimination against both their race and their gender. In terms of military opportunities, the doors to women opened first. In 1942, the Army, Navy, and Coast Guard all established Women’s Reserve units, and the Marines followed in 1943. The Army accepted black women from the start, though in segregated facilities. But the Navy was resistant, and barred black women from joining the WAVES. African American leaders applied pressure on the White House, where President Roosevelt was running for re-election. Eleanor Roosevelt, the president’s wife, had also noted the absence of black faces among the WAVES and contacted the NAACP about the omission.

The Navy relented, and the announcement that the WAVES would accept black women came on October 19, 1944. Two days later, Brooklyn resident Harriet Ida Pickens (whose father was active in the NAACP) received a letter asking her to apply to be an officer in the WAVES. She became a WAVE in November, and began her training at the Naval Reserve Midshipmen’s School at Smith College in Massachusetts. She was returning to familiar territory: she had graduated with high honors from Smith in 1930. At the Naval Reserve School, she met Harlem resident Frances Wills, a social worker who had read about the integration of the WAVES in *The New York Times*. The women finished their training on December 21, 1944 and became the first two female African American officers in the U.S. Navy. Frances Wills was an ensign, and Harriet Pickens one step up at lieutenant, junior grade. They were assigned to the training facility at Hunter College. Pickens was an assistant advanced training officer, and Wills administered classification tests. Along with seventy black enlistees, they were among the 86,000 WAVES who served in World War II.

For more about the WAVES, view *Boot Camp in the Bronx: A WAVE Remembers*, and read the accompanying resource description.
A. Philip Randolph’s Call to Negro America (Excerpt)

We call upon you to fight for jobs in National Defense. We call upon you to struggle for the integration of Negroes in the armed forces. . . .

We call upon you to demonstrate for the abolition of Jim-Crowism in all Government departments and defense employment.

This is an hour of crisis. . . .

. . . Negroes, by the mobilization and coordination of their mass power, can cause PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT TO ISSUE AN EXECUTIVE ORDER ABOLISHING DISCRIMINATIONS IN ALL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENT, ARMY, NAVY, AIR CORPS AND NATIONAL DEFENSE JOBS. . . .

In this period of power politics, nothing counts but pressure, more pressure, and still more pressure, through the tactic and strategy of broad, organized, aggressive mass action behind the vital and important issues of the Negro. To this end, we propose that ten thousand Negroes MARCH ON WASHINGTON FOR JOBS IN NATIONAL DEFENSE AND EQUAL INTEGRATION IN THE FIGHTING FORCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

An “all-out” thundering march on Washington, ending in a monster and huge demonstration at Lincoln’s Monument will shake up white America.

It will shake up official Washington. . . .
Winning Democracy for the Negro

The March on Washington movement gave itself little time to pull off a very ambitious plan. A. Philip Randolph’s “Call to Negro America” was published in May, 1941; the March itself was scheduled for July 1. The movement leaders were able to mobilize quickly because they could work through the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, which Randolph had founded, and which had chapters all over the country. The Brotherhood supplied a well-organized and enthusiastic labor organization that could rally its members, plan logistics, and get the word out by posting notices like this one.

The bald man shown in the center of the drawing is A. Philip Randolph.
The March on Washington movement was planned and organized in New York City, and the local black community grew more enthusiastic about the March on Washington as the July 1 date grew closer. In Harlem, the Friday before the March, June 27, was set aside as National Negro Day, and a big celebration was planned as the kickoff to the weekend when people would travel to the nation’s capital for the March. The goals of the March were clear in people's minds: jobs in the defense industry and an end to segregation in the military.

The poster captures the sense of excitement and possibility as people planned for the March. It also demonstrates the potential for miscommunication with a simple printing mistake. Toward the bottom of the poster, the date for the mass meeting is given as Tuesday, June 27. But June 27, 1941 was a Friday, not a Tuesday. So it is not clear from the poster if the big meeting at the Abyssinian Baptist Church was scheduled for Tuesday, June 24, or Friday, June 27. This kind of easy-to-miss error is fairly common in printed materials. At the time, people probably clarified the date by word of mouth and came to the church on the right day.
Executive Order 8802: Prohibition of Discrimination in the Defense Industry (1941)

REAFFIRMING POLICY OF FULL PARTICIPATION IN THE DEFENSE PROGRAM BY ALL PERSONS, REGARDLESS OF RACE, CREED, COLOR, OR NATIONAL ORIGIN, AND DIRECTING CERTAIN ACTION IN FURTHERANCE OF SAID POLICY.

WHEREAS it is the policy of the United States to encourage full participation in the national defense program by all citizens of the United States, regardless of race, creed, color, or national origin, in the firm belief that the democratic way of life within the Nation can be defended successfully only with the help and support of all groups within its borders; and

WHEREAS there is evidence that available and needed workers have been barred from employment in industries engaged in defense production solely because of considerations of race, creed, color, or national origin, to the detriment of workers’ morale and of national unity:

NOW, THEREFORE, by virtue of the authority vested in me by the Constitution and the statutes, and as a prerequisite to the successful conduct of our national defense production effort, I do hereby reaffirm the policy of the United States that there shall be no discrimination in the employment of workers in defense industries or government because of race, creed, color, or national origin, and I do hereby declare that it is the duty of employers and of labor organizations, in furtherance of said policy and of this order, to provide for the full and equitable participation of all workers in defense industries, without discrimination because of race, creed, color, or national origin; and it is hereby ordered as follows:

1. All departments and agencies of the Government of the United States concerned with vocational and training programs for defense production shall take special measures appropriate to assure that such programs are administered without discrimination because of race, creed, color, or national origin;

2. All contracting agencies of the Government of the United States shall include in all defense contracts hereafter negotiated by them a provision obligating the contractor not to discriminate against any worker because of race, creed, color, or national origin;

3. There is established in the Office of Production Management a Committee on Fair Employment Practice, which shall consist of a chairman and four other members to be appointed by the President. The Chairman and members of the Committee shall serve as such without compensation but shall be entitled to actual and necessary transportation, subsistence and other expenses incidental to performance of their duties. The Committee shall receive and investigate complaints of discrimination in violation of the provisions of this order and shall take appropriate steps to redress grievances which it finds to be valid. The Committee shall also recommend to the several departments and agencies of the Government of the United States and to the President all measures which may be deemed by it necessary or proper to effectuate the provisions of this order.

Franklin D. Roosevelt
THE WHITE HOUSE, June 25, 1941.

In May 1941, A. Philip Randolph predicted that 10,000 black Americans would take part in the planned March on Washington. As the July 1 date neared, however, the estimate swelled and 100,000 marchers seemed possible. Nothing like this had ever happened before, and the Roosevelt administration worried about a race riot in the nation’s capital. The White House worked hard to persuade Randolph to call off the March. Eleanor Roosevelt, known as a good friend to the African American community, wrote Randolph herself with this request. Then the president called him to a personal meeting in the Oval Office on June 18, 1941. Randolph arrived with fellow-activist Walter White, and heard the president’s appeal to cancel the March. But Randolph stood his ground and said the March would go ahead as planned unless the president took action.

Roosevelt had little choice. He asked Randolph and White to work with members of the administration and draft a document that would satisfy them. The result of this process was Executive Order 8802, the wording of which was worked out in the days after June 18. On June 24, Randolph saw the version he could accept, and he telegraphed Mrs. Roosevelt that the March was “unnecessary at this time.” The president signed Executive Order 8802 the following day, June 25, 1941. It prohibited racially discriminatory hiring practices in the defense industry.

Because of Executive Order 8802, the 1941 March on Washington was cancelled. Most African Americans were thrilled with the opening of jobs in the defense industry. But some were disappointed by Randolph’s decision, since the Executive Order had not accomplished all the movement’s aims. The pragmatic Randolph believed they had won as much as was possible at that time. But he kept the movement alive in case he needed it for leverage at another time.

Twenty-two years later, in the summer of 1963, Randolph and other black leaders resurrected the plan for a March on Washington, and this time there was no cancellation. Some quarter of a million people heard Martin Luther King deliver his “I Have a Dream” speech from the steps of the Lincoln Memorial, galvanizing the civil rights movement of the 1960s.
The Sperry Gyroscope Company, headquartered in New York City, invented and manufactured navigation equipment that allowed a ship's captain to determine his position on the sea, steer the ship accurately, and fire the ship's guns toward targets, even in high seas.

Until 1941, Sperry was a workplace for white men. The company had five plants in Brooklyn and Long Island, and had many government contracts as the Roosevelt administration ramped up war production. But these plants employed only a few women, and no African Americans of either gender. Black organizations, working with the YMCA and the Communist Party, formed the Brooklyn Joint Committee on Employment, and put pressure on Sperry and other contractors to end their race-based hiring practices. But Sperry did not budge until Executive Order 8802 was signed by President Roosevelt in June 1941.

At that point, Sperry began to hire blacks and women for low-level jobs, working under white male supervisors. In this photo, company president T.A. Morgan speaks with Sayde R. Carter, probably a trainee at Sperry's plant in Lake Success, Long Island. By 1944, hundreds of African Americans worked at Sperry. Most were in skilled or semi-skilled jobs, but a few had been hired as engineers and shop stewards, and there was one black foreman.
On August 1, 1943, a hot Sunday evening, a rumor raced through Harlem. A black soldier tried to help a black woman involved in an argument with a white police officer. The officer, it was said, shot and killed the soldier. Much of the story was true, except for one critical detail: the soldier was alive. He had been wounded by the officer’s gun, but the officer had walked him to the hospital, and he would survive. The crowds did not know this, and the rumor of his death was enough to spark a riot, building on deep resentments in the Harlem community. Because of racial barriers, many had been unable to find work, despite new opportunities in the defense industries. Because of housing discrimination elsewhere in the city, black neighborhoods like Harlem were overcrowded and residents were vulnerable to white landlords who charged high rents. In addition, most police officers were white, and many were racist and not to be trusted. At the same time, black men were being drafted into a segregated military.

As the rumor spread, angry residents took to the streets, beginning along 125th Street and spreading several blocks in every direction. White-owned stores were looted and merchandise thrown to the sidewalks. Much of Harlem was in chaos throughout the night and into the next morning, with window glass crashing to the ground and property ablaze. This photo, taken on August 2, 1943, the day after the riot, shows a car overturned and still smoking, and a fire engine nearby. The streets are littered, the sidewalk in the distance crowded but quiet. Many of the photos of the riot were in fact taken hours after it began. They show the aftermath: looters with their arms full, streets littered with debris and merchandise, a massive police presence, and numerous arrests. The rage and despair that touched off the riot were not directly captured on film.
Fed by anger and resentment over racism, unemployment, and a rumor of a white police officer killing a black soldier, rioters took to the streets of Harlem on August 1, 1943, a hot Sunday night. The rumor of the soldier’s death was not true, but it seemed believable to the Harlem community, where most police officers were white and resentment against them ran very deep.

The riot began along 125th Street, with screaming crowds yelling, “Get the white man!” It spread from there, ultimately covering many blocks, from 110th Street to the 140s, and from 8th to Lenox Avenues.

Mayor La Guardia, Police Commissioner Lew Valentine, and various black leaders walked through Harlem, trying to bring the situation under control. The mayor ordered a massive show of police strength. The officers in this photograph have just arrived to relieve police who have been on duty all night. At one point in the disturbance, there were 6,000 officers on duty in Harlem. Slowly over the next days, order returned. But six people died in the riot, and Harlem’s economy would not recover for some time.
Resource H10: The March on Washington Movement: Organizing for Equality

This film, which is two and a half minutes long, was produced for the New-York Historical Society. It explores A. Philip Randolph’s plan to organize a huge March on Washington in the summer of 1941, demanding jobs for African Americans in the defense industry and equal opportunities in the military. To forestall the March, President Roosevelt issued Executive Order 8802, opening the defense industry to black workers. The March was cancelled as a result, but an important civil rights movement was born.

To view this film resource, insert the WWII & NYC Classroom Films DVD.
Resource H11: **Fighting Discrimination in Defense Industries**

This three-minute film, produced for the New-York Historical Society, is closely related to the story told in *The March on Washington: Organizing for Equality*. The focus here is on the larger story of African American New Yorkers’ struggle to pull out of the Depression, and the importance of war industry jobs. It explores the ongoing racism black workers faced at the Brooklyn Navy Yard, which briefly required a “W” or “C” on workers’ badges, designating the employee as white or colored. It ends with New York State’s passage of a fair employment law to safeguard the gains won by African Americans during the war.

To view this film resource, insert the *WWII & NYC Classroom Films* DVD.
The “Double V” campaign was born a few months after the March on Washington movement and the passage of Executive Order 8802, which outlawed racial discrimination in the war industry. Many people were involved in both efforts to win important gains for black Americans. “Double V” stood for victory at home and victory abroad. It was introduced by the Pittsburgh Courier, an important black-run newspaper. It became a significant civil rights strategy, linking the war against racism in Germany to the war against racism in the U.S. This two-minute film was produced for the New-York Historical Society.

To view this film resource, insert the WWII & NYC Classroom Films DVD.
German U-boat in New York Harbor

We had already been traveling for several weeks now. Crossing the North Atlantic in winter wasn’t exactly a pleasure. Storms and rain, heavy seas, squalls of hail, driving snow, and the thick fog on the Grand Banks of Newfoundland—this was our day-to-day monotony. We were already hugging the Canadian coast, and it was bitter cold. A thick layer of ice covered the boat, and the bridge watch would have icicles hanging from his beard. Now and then we had to submerge so the ice would melt off and we could remain battle-ready.

One day during the crossing I called the crew together and finally told the men our destination. We were to penetrate New York Harbor and from there operate closely along the coast. Their response was astonished disbelief. At first, people thought I was joking. New York—it sounded so far away, so unreal. But that’s where we were going!

I told them that in the First World War a U-boat touched briefly at Newport, and without further ado began the march home. Lieutenant Commander Rose sank a great number of steamers near the Nantucket lightship. Earlier, the Deutschland had been at Baltimore as a merchant submarine, and Captain König gladly made a second trip across the “great pond.” And at the end of the war, large underwater cruisers operated along the U.S. coast. Why shouldn’t we now be able to do the same?

[After sinking the British freighter Cyclops off the Canadian coast near Halifax.]

Our first hit had struck home, and we were in the best of moods as we headed for New York Harbor to reach our position at the appointed time.

A beautiful night with a new moon. The brightly glimmering lights of the metropolis work its way into me. Now I stood at the top of the Empire State Building and felt the pulse of this mega-city work its way into me. Now I was seeing it again for the first time, knowing that this time victory was all mine.

I can’t really describe the feeling with words, but it was incredibly beautiful, magnificent, and I’d have given a kingdom for such a moment, if I’d had one to give. We were the first to stand here, and for the first time in this war a German soldier was looking at American shores. Everyone on board knew that we had been called upon to strike the first blow here, and we were all animated by an irrepressible urge to hit as hard as possible, since this had to be a powerful opening for a new combat sector in this decisive war.

We encountered a group of trawlers, and off Sandy Hook we saw the tugs and pilot boats that stay there. Everything seemed as if it were peacetime. No one had any idea that the dark shadow avoiding all other vessels was a German submarine scouting out its position at the entrance to New York.

We had seen enough, and now lurked somewhat farther out for our prey. The hour of the “Drumbeat” had arrived, and the dance could begin. The Commander of Submarines was sitting over in France at his command post, his thoughts always with us, his U-boat men, waiting for the first dispatch from America. He wouldn’t have to wait long. That very night we sank our first tanker off New York.

I was standing on the bridge with Lieutenant Hoffmann, who, as Schneider’s successor, was making his first trip as chief petty officer, and observed a large, modern motor tanker approaching us. It was heavily laden, and had just left New York Harbor. Here, where it considered itself safe, the tanker showed a water depth of only a few meters. An emerging lights of New York’s Long Island suburbs.

Aha! It seemed that no one here believed in German U-boats! Then another explosion was heard. This time it took the hit aft in the engine room. It quickly sank deeper, till the stern was touching ground. The prow was sticking 30 meters straight up out of the water, which was very calm. Were they still mistaking German torpedoes for mines?

. . . On board we were proud and happy about the kickoff, and laughed at what fools the New Yorkers had made of themselves.

Not long after midnight on January 15, 1942, the British tanker Coimbra was hit by a torpedo from U-123, commanded by Reinhard Hardegen. The Coimbra was transporting a lubricating oil, which exploded when the torpedo hit and sent flames hundreds of feet into the air. The blaze was visible twenty-seven miles away in the Hamptons, on the eastern end of Long Island. Only nine of the forty-six crew members survived.

The Germans called the U-boat campaign against the U.S. “Operation Drumbeat.” The first wave, which included Hardegen’s U-boat and five others, sank seventeen Allied ships. More U-boats followed, and the damage continued: fourteen Allied ships sunk in February, twenty-seven in March, and twenty-three in April. The Nazis called it the “Happy Time.” The number of ships destroyed was impressive, but not surprising. All the U-boats had to do was surface at night and scan the horizon. The outlines of ships were easy to see against the bright lights on the shorelines. In Europe, blackout rules were in effect, but Americans were not yet in war mode.
German U-boats began attacking Allied merchant ships shortly after war was declared, and continued to hit hard for months. By June 1942, they had sunk 104 vessels. Despite many efforts, the American military seemed unable to stop them. The damage happened at sea, but sometimes in view of people on Long Island. Debris floated ashore and left little doubt what was happening, even though the military kept details secret. It was a bleak few months.

In July, a young Coast Guardsman on his watch in Amagansett, on eastern Long Island, found three German men on the beach, two of them in bathing suits. It was the beginning of a strange episode that proved U.S. vulnerability—Germans landing on U.S. soil!—but also produced a movie-worthy young hero who outwitted the enemy with classic American common sense. The fact that the Germans looked so woefully inept was icing on the cake.
German U-boats took a terrible toll on the Allies’ merchant shipping in the early months of 1942. Because of these attacks, supplies desperately needed by Great Britain were ending up on the ocean floor, along with the ships and most of their crews. The U.S. undertook a number of strategies to limit this damage, which threatened an early Allied defeat. Blackout rules were initiated to cut down on the reflected city light that made ships in coastal waters so easy to see. The Germans’ Enigma messaging system was cracked, and continually decoded as it was revised. Merchant ships were armed so they could defend themselves. The production of ships and planes and antisubmarine weapons was stepped up. Convoy formations were instituted, because ships traveling alone were easier to detect and torpedo.

The Army and Navy Joint Control and Information Center, located in the Federal Building at 90 Church Street in Manhattan, was responsible for overseeing the Battle of the Atlantic, as this ocean-wide conflict was known. In this photograph, WAVES and other Navy personnel are plotting the positions of merchant ship convoys, small boats (tugs and yachts) pressed into U-boat patrols, aircraft, and known or suspected U-boat positions. The information, updated every hour on two giant wall charts, helped the Port Director’s office choose the safest convoy routes. It also helped Army pilots and Navy captains find and sink German U-boats without mistakenly hitting an Allied vessel.
The lights of New York City cast a glow so bright it could be seen ten or even twenty miles at sea, and it made ships’ silhouettes easily visible at night. U-boat captains prowling the coastline had only to scan the horizon with their periscopes to find the exposed ships. In the first months of 1942, Allied ships were back-lit sitting ducks, and many went down. At the same time, New Yorkers feared German air attacks.

It was clear that New York needed to turn out the lights. But how? Soon after Pearl Harbor, Mayor La Guardia set up a series of tests, working first neighborhood by neighborhood, then in larger areas, where everything was to go dark for twenty minutes. Bright spots like Times Square and Coney Island designed systems to dim their lights, but not turn them out completely. Thousands of volunteer air-raid wardens went around the city unscrewing plates on street lights and shouting up at people living in apartments where light was visible from the street. It was a huge task and not a great success. It might work against an actual air raid, if there was enough time to respond, but twenty-minute dim-outs were not solving the problem at sea. All the U-boat captains needed to do was wait until the lights came back on and their targets were illuminated again.

In April 1942, the Army took over and set new blackout rules. On the coastlines, all-but-complete darkness was required. Coney Island’s nightlife ended, and the once-bright Statue of Liberty held only a single lamp in her torch. (She is shown here backlit by dusk.) In the city, lights above fifteen stories had to be dark between sundown and sunrise. Below fifteen stories, only low lights were permitted. New Yorkers scurried for blackout bulbs, and for special curtains that kept apartment lights from seeping onto the street.
Although Germany had no aircraft carriers and no Luftwaffe aircraft had the range to fly across the ocean, New York City was considered a prime target for a German air strike. Mayor La Guardia organized the Air Warden Service, even before Pearl Harbor was hit, and it was put into place as soon as the U.S. entered the war. A system was set up to alert residents to any incoming attack, using the best technology available: telephones, teletype machines, and telegrams. The chain of communication was spelled out clearly. If the Army learned that an attack was imminent, it would contact the NYPD’s Bureau of War Operations by using a phone set aside for this purpose only. The Police Department would alert the Fire Department, and then word would be sent to individual firehouses and station houses. From there, hospitals, schools, public utilities, and defense plants would be notified, along with the Air Warden Service.

The public would be alerted by a network of more than 450 sirens installed on police station houses. This part of the system was regularly tested, and the drills were announced in advance so people did not mistake them for an actual attack. If the alarm sounded, New Yorkers were to stay off the streets and out of the subways. School children were taken into corridors and overseen by teachers. If it was nighttime, all lights were to be turned out.

The Air Warden Service was staffed with nearly 300,000 volunteers. They were trained by watching civil defense films on television sets specially installed by NBC. This photo shows the Light Duty Rescue Squad attached to Precinct 14, in Midtown. “Light Duty” was a reference to the size and weight of the vehicles. The city had different-sized trucks to handle different kinds of emergencies. Light-duty vehicles were small but tough and maneuverable, and could handle rescue situations that larger, heavier trucks could not. The open-bed truck in the photo is mounted with searchlights so the night sky could be scanned for enemy aircraft.

After World War I, the Army worked on improving the gas masks that had been used in the trenches. In 1937, the Army’s Chemical Warfare Service planned the first gas mask for civilians on the home front, and by 1940 a design was ready. After Pearl Harbor, Fiorello La Guardia, the nation’s civil defense chief, ordered mass production of the masks in five sizes, including three for children of different ages, and two for adults. Walt Disney helped make one of the children’s masks less scary by giving it a Mickey Mouse face. The goal, in the beginning, was to produce 50 million civilian masks for the nation’s coastal areas. But rubber was required, and supplies were largely controlled by the Japanese. Production of gas masks for soldiers continued (along with research for a rubber substitute), but only five million masks were manufactured for civilian use in the United States.

This advertisement was produced by Goodyear, a tire manufacturer that had watched its business plummet during the rubber shortage. It appeared in The Saturday Evening Post, one of America’s most popular magazines. Some wartime ads appealed to patriotic feelings, but this one zeroed right in on parents’ nightmares. It was probably more fantasy than reality. Children in New York’s schools surely had their share of air-raid drills, but without gas masks. This classroom scene was gripping, but it almost surely never happened.

The photo was meant to shock parents into buying more war bonds, “double what you did before.” People were familiar with bond drives by the time this ad appeared. Four had been held previously, each lasting a few weeks and accompanied by an advertising blitz. The Fifth War Loan Drive, the focus of this ad, ran from June 12 to July 8, 1944, and was the most ambitious of the drives. It set a goal of $16 billion, which it actually exceeded by more than $4 billion. Buying war bonds was strictly voluntary, but it became the primary way for most Americans to support the war effort and express their patriotism. The bonds raised money and raised morale.

Resource I8:  

“New York at War” Parade

On June 13, 1942, New York City gave itself a huge parade lasting most of the day. Three hundred floats and half a million marchers proceeded up 5th Avenue from Washington Square to 79th Street, while 2.5 million people watched and cheered. The parade was Mayor La Guardia’s idea. He believed it would rouse patriotic feeling and showcase New York’s contributions to the war. The marchers in this photo were members of the health brigade of the International Ladies’ Garment Workers’ Union. Other marchers included military, industrial, and civilian organizations of many types. The mayor marched with the civil defense workers. No Japanese Americans, however, were allowed to take part.

By the time of this parade, New Yorkers had spent an exhausting six months at war. But things were looking up on this June day. The Nazis had not bombed the city. The U.S. Navy had brought U-boat attacks along the coastline to a halt. The civil defense system was in place. The city was feeling a little more prepared, and a little less vulnerable.

Resource 19:  
“Enemy Aliens” on Ellis Island

This four-minute film, produced for the New-York Historical Society, follows the wartime story of Erika Scheibe Seus, who was born in Brooklyn. Her father, a German immigrant, was arrested as an “enemy alien” and held at Ellis Island, which had been turned into a detention center for non-citizen immigrants from Axis countries. The U.S. suspected them of disloyalty, and feared spy rings within the nation’s boundaries. Erika and her parents were later sent to an internment camp that housed both German and Japanese people, where they remained for three years.

To view this film resource, insert the WWII & NYC Classroom Films DVD.
Life Story:

Fiorello La Guardia
(1882–1947)

Note: This life story covers La Guardia’s three terms as mayor, and can be used with several units of WWII & NYC.

Fiorello La Guardia was the mayor of New York City from 1934 to 1945. His term overlapped almost exactly with the presidency of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, and with Adolph Hitler’s years as German Führer. Both men, Roosevelt and Hitler, would profoundly affect New York and La Guardia’s years as its leader.

La Guardia did not look the part of a politician. He was short and round, with a high voice that he used to say exactly what was on his mind. His language was direct and informal. He liked the word “lousy.” He was confident, sometimes arrogant, determined, and honest. This last trait was particularly welcome in New York, which had had a long period of City Hall corruption going back decades and associated with Tammany Hall.

La Guardia’s parents were immigrants. His father was Italian, and his mother was Jewish. His first name meant “little flower.” He grew up in Arizona, where his musician father was a bandmaster with the U.S. Army. He moved to New York in his 20s and attended NYU’s law school at night. He was fluent in several languages and worked as an interpreter at Ellis Island, translating Croatian, German, and Italian. But he wanted a life in politics, and in 1916 he ran for and was elected to the U.S. House of Representatives. Except for a stint as a pilot in World War I, he held his Congressional seat for most of the next sixteen years. He was boosted out, with many other Republicans, in the wave that carried Democrat Franklin D. Roosevelt to the White House in 1932. The following year, he was elected mayor of New York City. He was 51 years old.

La Guardia was a Republican, but he strongly supported Roosevelt’s New Deal and, in fact, most of Roosevelt’s programs. After years in Congress, he did not shy away from international subjects, partly because he was hoping for national office himself, and partly because of what was happening on the world stage. He was enraged by the rise of fascism in Europe, and spoke out publicly against Hitler on many occasions, and against the Nazi organizations that had taken root in New York’s German neighborhood. He was part-Jewish, though not, as he liked to say, “enough to brag about.” (He went a little easier on Mussolini, who was popular among Italian Americans.)

A war veteran and pacifist, Mayor La Guardia originally hoped the U.S. would stay out of the growing conflicts in Europe. But by the late 1930s, he was convinced that the U.S. would have to help Europe resist the spread of fascism. He thought the neutrality laws, which outlawed American intervention, should be overturned. When President Roosevelt suggested the Lend-Lease program to provide essential material to Great Britain on a pay-later basis, La Guardia defended it in a February 1941 appearance before Congress.

Three months later, in May 1941, President Roosevelt asked La Guardia to become director of the Office of Civilian Defense (OCD), and he accepted the unpaid position with the understanding that he would remain mayor of New York. To many onlookers, it seemed impossible to do both jobs well, but La Guardia said he would be in Washington, D.C., every Tuesday through Thursday to do the civil defense job, and otherwise in New York being mayor. He was sure it would work, and he had big plans for getting the nation ready for war. He wanted 50 million gas masks, one for every person living along the Pacific, Gulf, and Atlantic coastlines.
He made national tours, speaking about what might be coming and how to prepare for it. In his role as mayor, he set civil defense procedures in place in New York that later gave the city the best-organized civil defense system in the country.

Until Pearl Harbor, however, many Americans thought La Guardia was an alarmist. Once the U.S. was at war, they were persuaded otherwise, and La Guardia was suddenly holding two more-than-full-time jobs. Eleanor Roosevelt was named co-director of the OCD, partly to take some of the weight off La Guardia’s shoulders. But civil defense needed a full-time leader, and La Guardia was replaced in this role a few weeks after Pearl Harbor. The city also needed a full-time mayor, and had just re-elected La Guardia to an unprecedented third term in office. He had plenty to do.

As the city’s chief executive during the war years, La Guardia used the full force of his personality and his office. In regular Sunday radio addresses, “Talks to the People,” he combined homespun advice and a “we-can-do-this” attitude. He worked hard to maintain the price ceilings set by the Office of Price Administration on essentials like food and rent, and scolded those who broke the rules. When gas rationing went into effect, he authorized the NYPD to crack down on people who were out for nothing more than a nice Sunday drive. He did his best to keep up morale in the city, once reading the Dick Tracy comics over the radio during a newspaper strike, so kids would know what was happening with a favorite character. But he wasn’t only folksy. He also persuaded FDR to intervene on the city’s behalf when the War Production Board favored industrial giants in the Midwest, South, and West with lucrative contracts at New York’s expense. New York’s many small manufacturers reaped the benefits.

La Guardia’s style was personal, hands-on. He was famous for appearing at fires to aid the Fire Department, and he once helped unpin a trapped firefighter. But he did not apply the personal touch to everyone equally. Like many products of immigrant New York, he was distant from black people. The 1943 Harlem riot changed his thinking somewhat. He committed more funds to Harlem than ever before, and set up a Committee on Unity to further “racial and religious harmony in our city.” His negative feelings toward the Japanese never saw such a change of heart, however. On the night of the Pearl Harbor attack, he assigned city detectives to help the FBI round up Japanese nationals and detain them on Ellis Island. He defended the internment camps where Japanese Americans were forced to live; prohibited Japanese Americans from marching in the 1942 “New York at War” parade; and protested against a 1944 plan to allow some Japanese Americans, considered no threat, to leave the camps and resettle in New York and other cities.

Most New Yorkers relied on La Guardia throughout the war, and trusted him. But they were not interested in seeing him run for a fourth term. The mayor left office on December 31, 1945, and died of pancreatic cancer nearly two years later.

The Port of New York: Rear Echelon to the Warfront

The Port of New York: Rear Echelon to the Warfront is a graphic portrait of the role New York played in the war effort, a role unlike that of any other American city. The map shows four categories of facilities during the period of peak activity leading up to final victory.

Military Training (Category A): Sites involved in training military and civilian men and women to perform a wide range of essential skills, from firing guns to filming combat.

Military Logistics (Category B): Locations related to the housing, storing, transporting, and shipping of troops and equipment.

Defending New York City (Category C): The network of facilities involved in protecting New York from attack by air or sea.

War Industries (Category D): New York firms and military installations involved in the production of war-related goods.
The Navy established a Midshipmen’s School at Columbia University in 1940 to train officers. These “ninety day wonders” learned navigation and engineering, receiving an ensign’s commission upon completion. By late 1943, the training program had become the nation’s largest midshipmen’s school.


The Navy ran its boot camp for the WAVES (Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service) at the former Hunter College in the Bronx, commissioning it the USS Hunter. A six-week course prepared about 80,000 WAVES to take over shore jobs to free men for duty at sea. Officers trained at Smith and Mt. Holyoke Colleges.

[WAVES color guard]. Courtesy of Lehman College, CUNY. Special Collections, Leonard Lief Library (Bronx, New York).

The Port of New York: REAR ECHelon TO THE WARFRONT

Military Training (Category A)
These two maritime academies came under Navy jurisdiction during the war. Naval Reserve officer candidates trained at Fort Schuyler’s New York State Maritime College. Apprentice midshipmen trained across the sound at the U.S. Merchant Marine Academy.


Men of the Army’s Port Battalions trained on this full-scale replica of a cargo ship. Once overseas, they worked as longshoremen, offloading troops and supplies. Many of the trainees were African American, and following the racial policies of the time, the Army insisted on housing them in segregated quarters on Staten Island.


At the former Naval Receiving Station in Brooklyn, the Armed Guard Center trained gun crews, signalmen, and radio operators to serve on merchant ships traveling in convoy without an armed naval escort. At its peak, the center was home to 2,500 officers and 45,000 enlisted men.


Men of the Army’s Port Battalions trained on this full-scale replica of a cargo ship. Once overseas, they worked as longshoremen, offloading troops and supplies. Many of the trainees were African American, and following the racial policies of the time, the Army insisted on housing them in segregated quarters on Staten Island.


At New York University and Pratt Institute, students and professionals in engineering, architecture, and related disciplines aided the military by working with camouflage, terrain model-making, and more. NYU held a special five-week course in industrial camouflage and Pratt set up an experimental research lab.


At Floyd Bennett Airfield, an experimental U.S. Coast Guard helicopter unit pioneered the use of power hoist equipment to rescue military personnel from the water. These air-rescue techniques were first practiced in the waters of Jamaica Bay in 1944 and are still employed today.


Sixty-five thousand men and women learned the basics of seamanship at Manhattan Beach, Brooklyn—the nation’s largest wartime Coast Guard training station. These newly trained Coast Guardsmen—more than a third of the force—departed from Brooklyn to serve in all theaters of war and defend the city’s harbor and shore facilities.

Two large Army staging camps—Camp Shanks in Rockland County, New York, and Camp Kilmer in New Jersey—processed and prepared most of the troops shipping out from New York. The brief stays at these camps often included recreational excursions into the city. When their orders came, troops boarded trucks, trains, and ferryboats that carried them to the waiting troopships.

**B1 Camp Shanks & Camp Kilmer**

Location:
- **B1.1** Shanks, Orangeburg, New York
- **B1.2** Kilmer, New Brunswick, New Jersey


Workers sorted as many as nine million letters and packages a day at the two Army Postal Terminals. During the long, worrisome separations, families, friends, and loved ones communicated with servicemen and servicewomen by sending letters and care packages.

**B3 Army Postal Terminals**

Locations:
- **B3.1** Midtown Manhattan (letters)
- **B3.2** Long Island City, Queens (packages)

Signal Corps United States Army, *[Sorting letters bound overseas]*. National Archives (SC-111-309391).
Merchant ship captains gathered at the Port Director’s Office in the Whitehall Building prior to each convoy departure to collect their orders and learn the latest intelligence regarding U-boat activity. These briefings were one way that the Port Director—responsible for organizing and coordinating convoy operations—tried to protect each ship heading overseas.

The Special Services Supply Division shipped informational and entertainment materials to troops abroad, handling about four million magazines and five million educational pamphlets each month. In this photo, women at the Special Services Terminal are packing paperback novels sized to fit in a GI’s pocket.

Civilian workers and sailors from the Coast Guard Explosives Loading Detail moved dangerous munitions from rail cars to ships waiting at Caven Point. Following a near-disastrous fire aboard the SS El Estero, volatile cargo handling moved from residential areas to a new terminal near Sandy Hook, New Jersey.

Inside Brooklyn Army Terminal—the largest warehouse of its day—the huge railway “well” facilitated the quick unloading and storage of freight. The terminal also housed the New York Port of Embarkation command headquarters that coordinated the complex logistics of moving soldiers and supplies to the European warfronts.

Tankers filled up with petroleum products at Howland Hook Terminal, then departed for Europe to fuel military vehicles. To avoid the U-boats that preyed on tankers traveling from the Gulf of Mexico, the U.S. built the Big Inch pipelines in 1943 to transport oil from Texas to the northeast. Completed in record time, the pipelines and terminal made New York the nation’s leading wartime oil port.

At Port Johnston Terminal, men and women prepared tanks, jeeps, and other combat vehicles for travel. Vehicles were greased, oiled, repainted, and rustproofed. Processed vehicles could withstand ocean weather for six months and be readied for combat within 30 minutes.
Standing watch over the harbor’s back door, Coast Guard units at Fort Totten patrolled Long Island Sound and monitored all ships seeking to enter the port via the East River. Merchant ships carrying munitions frequently relied on this route to avoid U-boat attacks.

Signal Corps United States Army, [Fort Totten], 1924. National Archives (111-SC-335980).

In 1942, with FDR’s support, William Donovan established the Office of Strategic Services (OSS) in Rockefeller Center, down the hall from British Intelligence operations. The OSS directed overseas espionage operations, which included planting agents, analyzing secret intelligence, and supplying partisan resistance groups. The success of the OSS inspired the creation of the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA).


WAVES and other Navy personnel directed convoys away from danger by plotting the positions of merchant ships and known or suspected U-boat positions on giant wall charts of the Eastern Seaboard. The charts also helped the Army Air Forces and Navy find and sink German U-boats.


continued
**C4 Ellis Island Detention and Deportation Center**

Location: Ellis Island

Ellis Island housed Germans, Italians, and Japanese who had been apprehended as “enemy aliens” under President Roosevelt’s wartime security proclamations. Up to 7,000 people spent anywhere from a month to several years confined on Ellis Island during the war. On a typical day, the population was about 500.


**C5 Eastern Defense Command**

Location: Fort Jay, Governors Island

Headquartered at Fort Jay on Governors Island, the Army’s Eastern Defense Command coordinated the troops, armored vehicles, and aircraft that defended the Atlantic Coast region from Maine to eastern Florida. First Army’s command also shared this post until called overseas in 1943 to prepare for the invasion of Europe.


**C6 Harbor Security Patrols**

Location: Marine Barracks, Brooklyn Navy Yard

Marines stationed at Brooklyn Navy Yard patrolled piers and shore installations along with the Coast Guard, defending against German U-boat attacks and sabotage. In June 1942, a U-boat deposited saboteurs on Long Island with orders to blow up defense factories. A Coast Guardsman spotted the Germans, and not long after the plot fell apart.

[Mobile searchlight]. NPS/Gateway NRA Museum Collection.

**C7 Fort Hamilton**

Location: Bay Ridge, Brooklyn

Searchlights and anti-aircraft gun batteries positioned at Fort Hamilton guarded the city from air attack. Transformed from a coastal artillery post into a staging area, Fort Hamilton prepared troops for embarkation overseas. As of today, Fort Hamilton is the last operational military post in New York City.


**C8 Fort Wadsworth**

Location: Staten Island

The Army’s Harbor Entrance Control Post at Fort Wadsworth operated an antisubmarine net and a torpedo boat boom, which prevented enemy vessels from entering the harbor. The John A. Roebling’s Sons Company, of Brooklyn Bridge fame, constructed the coiled steel cable net, which stretched underwater from Coney Island to Hoffman Island.

Battery Harris firing. NPS/Gateway NRA Museum Collection.

**C9 Tottenville Minesweeper Base**

Location: Tottenville, Staten Island

Two wooden Navy minesweepers based at Tottenville, Staten Island checked the harbor daily for magnetic mines laid by U-boats. The mines were triggered to explode by the steel hulls of passing ships. In November 1942, the minesweepers discovered and detonated five such mines.


**C10 Fort Hancock & Fort Tilden**

Location:

C10.1 Hancock, Sandy Hook, New Jersey

C10.2 Tilden, Rockaway, Queens

The six-inch guns at Fort Hancock in New Jersey guarded the harbor entrance in the Lower Bay. At Fort Tilden in Queens, the guns fired numerous shots across the bows of unidentified or suspicious ships attempting to enter the Upper Bay. Amazingly, given the crowded sea lanes, no casualties resulted from this defensive “friendly fire.”
The Port of New York

War Industries (Category D)

D1 Shipbuilding & Repair:
D1.1 Federal Shipbuilding & Dry Dock Co.—destroyers—Kearny Point, New Jersey
D1.2 Brooklyn Navy Yard—warships—Cumberland Street, Brooklyn
D1.3 Todd Shipyards Corp.—dry dock facilities—Erie Basin, Brooklyn

D2 Raw Materials:
D2.1 Standard Oil—petroleum—Tottenville, Staten Island
D2.2 Consolidated Grain & Barge Co.—grains—Erie Basin, Brooklyn
D2.3 Aluminum Co. of America—sheet aluminum—Newtown Creek, Queens

D3 Precision Instruments:
D3.1 Bulova—watches—62-10 Woodside Avenue, Queens
D3.2 Kollmorgen Optical Corp.—submarine periscopes—767 Wythe Avenue, Brooklyn
D3.3 Sperry Gyroscope Co.—gyroscopic compasses—40 Flatbush Avenue, Brooklyn

D4 Communication Equipment:
D4.1 Western Electric—headsets—6600 Metropolitan Avenue, Queens
D4.2 Tung-Sol Electric Co.—radio tubes—55 Nassau Street, Brooklyn
D4.3 Bell Telephone Labs, Inc.—telephones—463 West Street, Manhattan


continued
**D5 Medical Equipment & Supplies:**

D5.1 E.R. Squibb & Sons—antibiotics—25 Columbia Heights, Brooklyn
D5.2 Charles Pfizer & Co., Inc.—penicillin—630 Flushing Avenue, Brooklyn
D5.3 Novocol Chemical Manufacturing Co.—anesthetics—2911-23 Atlantic Avenue, Brooklyn

*Thanks to penicillin . . . he will come home!* Pfizer, Inc. Archives.

**D6 Weapons:**

D6.1 Carl L. Norden, Inc.—bombsights—80 Lafayette Street, Manhattan
D6.2 Horni Manufacturing Co.—mine detectors—515 Greenwich Street, Manhattan
D6.3 IBM—carbines—590 Madison Avenue, Manhattan

Office of War Information, [Minesweeping in Belgium], 1944. National Archives (208-MNC-174-1).

**D7 Rations:**

D7.1 General Foods—K-rations—250 Park Avenue, Manhattan
D7.2 National Biscuit Co.—war dog biscuits—449 West 14th Street, Manhattan
D7.3 Mars Candy Co.—chocolate rations—285 Badger Avenue, Newark, New Jersey

General Foods Corporation, Dinner Ration Type K. Museum of World War II, Boston.

**D8 Uniforms:**

D8.1 Brooks Brothers—dress uniforms—346 Madison Avenue, Manhattan
D8.2 Battery Uniform Co.—dress shirts—311 Fifth Avenue, Manhattan
D8.3 Maiden Form Brassiere Co.—bras—200 Madison Avenue, Manhattan


**D9 Training Aids:**

D9.1 General Register Corp.—target practice devices—1540 Broadway, Manhattan
D9.2 Office of War Information—booklets, films, & posters—122 E. 42nd Street, Manhattan
D9.3 Comet Metal Products—recognition models—94-01 132nd Street, Richmond Hill, Queens

Signal Corps United States Army, [Special effects artist at work]. Museum of the Moving Image.

**D10 Aircraft & Aviation:**

D10.1 Steinway & Sons—glider wings—19th Avenue & 37th–38th Streets, Queens
D10.2 Brewster Aeronautical—fighter planes—34-01 38th Avenue, Queens
D10.3 S.S. White Dental Manufacturing Co.—tachometer needles—Seguine Point, Staten Island

The Arsenal of Democracy by Kenneth T. Jackson

The industrial achievement of the United States in World War II was phenomenal by any measure. In 1940, when President Roosevelt issued a call for the production of 50,000 airplanes per year, it was widely felt to be a pipedream. Yet by 1944, American factories were producing almost 100,000 airplanes per year—about twice as many as both Germany and Japan together, and almost as many as the rest of the world combined. Statistics for jeeps, artillery pieces, self-propelled guns, oil, aluminum, and bombs were equally dramatic. The nation produced so many trucks and shoes that it shared its resources with the British Army and the Red Army, both of which desperately needed them. With the delegation’s success in Washington, New York’s industry grew rapidly. By 1944, there were a record 1.86 million people in manufacturing jobs in the city, of which 700,000 were war-related; this was at a time when one million men from the area were in the armed forces. The year before, almost 300 new industrial plants opened in New York between January and April. The products turned out in the city’s factories were wide-ranging: airplane parts, metal products, spun glass fibers, optical lenses and prisms, dehydrated foods, bombs, canvas goods, tents, tarpaulins, haversacks, leggings, mattress covers, powder bags, bandages, and life preservers. The Canal Street area was covered with small electrical and metal shops, many of which contracted with the War Department.

The Brooklyn Navy Yard was the busiest such facility in the world. With more than 75,000 employees (versus over 55,000 at the Philadelphia Navy Yard or more than 20,000 at the Wilmington Shipyard) working seven days a week and around the clock between 1942 and 1945, the Yard was a world unto itself. Its 290 acres contained seven huge dry docks, forty-seven mobile cranes on tracks, eight piers, two colossal steel shipways, two 1,200-foot-long graving docks, foundries, machine shops, warehouses, a power plant, and a hospital. It was crisscrossed by nineteen miles of paved streets and thirty miles of rails. Pier G was home to the Hammerhead, the largest crane in the world at the time. And just outside the gates were more than eighty supporting factories, which together reduced the amount of materials that needed to be transported there.

The Navy Yard was the foremost builder of battleships in the world, and it produced more of them than Japan during World War II.
Resource J3:

Tour the WWII Harbor with Kenneth T. Jackson

This three-minute film, produced for the New-York Historical Society, visits four of New York’s critical WWII sites as they are today: Fort Wadsworth, the Brooklyn Navy Yard, the Brooklyn Army Terminal, and—the only site still functioning as a military installation—Fort Hamilton. The tour guide is Kenneth T. Jackson, Columbia University historian and president emeritus of the New-York Historical Society.

To view this film resource, insert the WWII & NYC Classroom Films DVD.
anti-Semitism. Hostility toward or discrimination against Jews as a religious, ethnic, or racial group.

Aryan. An Indo-European language, or the people who spoke it. The Nazis adopted this term to refer to a so-called “master race,” northern European whites with Nordic features such as blond hair and blue eyes.

Blitzkrieg. A German word for “lightning war,” marked by surprise attack, overwhelming force, and coordinated air and ground assault along a narrow front. The Nazis used the Blitzkrieg, or Blitz, to overrun much of Europe early in the war. It was not successful against the island nation of Great Britain, which was protected by the English channel and the Royal Navy and Royal Air Force.

Bund. The German word for “league.”

chemical warfare. The use of gases or chemicals to choke, poison, contaminate, or otherwise incapacitate enemy soldiers. The use of mustard gas and other lethal agents in World War I led to the development of military gas masks and to international efforts to outlaw toxic chemicals in war. Chemical warfare was not used in World War II.

communism. A social system in which all property is owned in common. In the 1930s, the word was associated with the dictatorial Communist regime of the Soviet Union.

fascism. A form of government led by a dictator, marked by extreme nationalism and suppression of opposition.

Führer. The German word for “leader,” now almost exclusively associated with Adolf Hitler.

Great War. The name given to the world war fought between 1914 and 1919. It became known as World War I only after World War II broke out.

Il Duce. The Italian phrase for “the leader.” Previously used by other Italian leaders, it was taken by Benito Mussolini when he became dictator in 1925 and is mostly associated with him.

infamy. An evil reputation.

interventionism. A political philosophy that supports a nation’s right or obligation to intervene in the affairs of another country. In the 1930s, interventionists believed that the U.S. should help European countries trying to resist Nazi aggression.

isolationism. A political philosophy that promotes a nation avoiding becoming involved in the affairs of another country. Until Pearl Harbor, isolationists worked to keep the U.S. out of the escalating conflict in Europe.

Kristallnacht. Literally, in German, “crystal night,” but often translated into English as the “night of broken glass.” A violent attack on German Jews and Jewish neighborhoods on November 9–10, 1938.

Lindy hop. A popular swing dance among New Yorkers during the 1920s and through the 1940s.

Luftwaffe. Germany’s air force before and during World War II. In German, it literally means “air weapon.”

Manhattan Project. The code name, based on its origins in New York City, for the secret U.S. effort to design and build the atomic bomb.

Marine Corps Women’s Reserve. A woman’s branch of the Marine Corps, established February 13, 1943. The women were some-

Marine Corps Women’s Reserve. A woman’s branch of the Marine Corps, then part of the U.S. Army. Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service, or WAVES, was a branch of the naval reserve, not an auxiliary.

Nazi. The acronym of the National Socialist German Workers’ Party, the anti-Semitic fascist party that rose in Germany in the 1920s and led the German government from 1933 to 1945.

Ordungsdienst. A German word for private security forces, like the uniformed groups that would keep order at a big public event. During the war, the term was applied to the Jewish police,” who were forced into service in ghettos and concentration camps.

Siege. Hostility toward or discrimination against Jews as a religious, ethnic, or racial group.

Sieg Heil salute. A raised-arm patriotic gesture adopted by the Nazis in the 1930s, typically accompanied by the words Sieg Heil! (Hail victory!) or Heil Hitler! (Hail Hitler!).
Books


Websites

“WWII & NYC.” WWII & NYC. An overview of the New-York Historical Society exhibition, WWII & NYC, on view October 5, 2012 through May 27, 2013. The full exhibition text is available as a downloadable pdf, and the site features a gallery of twenty-five key images from the show. Other elements on the site include a calendar of New-York Historical Society public programs related to the exhibition, a guide to WWII attractions throughout New York City, and a bibliography of selected materials.
“WWII Photos from the New-York Historical Society Collection.”

“The Battle of the Atlantic Game.”
www.bbc.co.uk/history/interactive/games/battle_atlantic/index_embed.shtml. A fairly complicated online game about the long battle to control the Atlantic.

Fiorello H. LaGuardia Collection.

“New York Harbor.”
www.nyharborparks.org/visit/. A navigable map of the harbor from the National Parks of New York Harbor Conservancy. To understand the defensive importance of the Narrows as far back as the American Revolution, view the film at www.nyharborparks.org/visit/fowa.html.

“Ours to Fight For: American Jews in the Second World War.”

“The Real Rosie the Riveter Project.”
dlib.nyu.edu/rosie. The women who worked “men’s jobs” during the war tell their stories on video.

“Student Voices from World War II and the McCarthy Era: Farm Labor Project.”
oralhistory.ashp.cuny.edu/flpguide.html. Contemporary interviews with people who volunteered as farm laborers when they were Brooklyn College students during the war.

“U.S. Merchant Marine in World War II.”
www.usmm.org/ww2.html. The website of the U.S. merchant marine includes this section devoted to World War II.

“War Aims Through Art: The U.S. Office of War Information.”
americanhistory.si.edu/victory/victory5.htm. A Smithsonian Institution exhibition that follows the wartime conflict over how posters should be designed for maximum impact.

“Welcome to 1940s New York.”

“World War II.”

“World War Two.”
www.bbc.co.uk/history/worldwars/wwtwo/. Great Britain during the war, produced by the BBC. The experience of relocated British children is explored at: www.bbc.co.uk/schools/primaryhistory/world_war2 evacuation/.
**New York State Social Studies Standards**

**HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES AND NEW YORK**

Students will use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of major ideas, era, themes, developments, and turning points in the history of the United States and New York.

**Key Idea 1:** The study of New York State and United States history requires an analysis of the development of American culture. Students will...

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<td>Explore the meaning of American culture by identifying the key ideas, beliefs, and patterns of behavior, and traditions that help define it and unite all Americans</td>
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<td>Analyze the development of American culture, explaining how ideas, values, beliefs, and traditions have changed over time and how they unite all Americans</td>
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**Key Idea 2:** Important ideas, social and cultural values, beliefs, and traditions from New York State and United States history illustrate the connections and interactions of people and events across time and from a variety of perspectives. Students will...

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<td>Investigate key turning points in New York State and United States history and explain why these events or developments are significant</td>
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<td>Understand the relationship between and the relative importance of United States domestic and foreign policies over time</td>
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<td>Develop and test hypotheses about important events, eras, or issues in New York State and United States history, setting clear and valid criteria for judging the importance and significance of these events, eras, or issues</td>
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<td>Compare and contrast the experiences of different groups in the United States</td>
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<td>Analyze the United States’ involvement in foreign affairs and a willingness to engage in international politics, examining the ideas and traditions leading to these foreign policies</td>
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<td>Compare and contrast the values exhibited and foreign policies implemented by the United States and other nations over time with those expressed in the United Nations Charter and international law</td>
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**Key Idea 3:** The study about the major social, political, economic, cultural, and religious developments in New York State and United States history involves learning about the important roles and contributions of individuals and groups. Students will...

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<tr>
<td>Complete well-documented and historically accurate case studies about individuals and groups who represent different ethnic, national, and religious groups, including Native American Indians, in New York State and the United States at different times and in different locations</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gather and organize information about the important achievements and contributions of individuals and groups living in New York State and the United States</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### New York State Social Studies Standards continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate (continued):</th>
<th>Unit A</th>
<th>Unit B</th>
<th>Unit C</th>
<th>Unit D</th>
<th>Unit E</th>
<th>Unit F</th>
<th>Unit G</th>
<th>Unit H</th>
<th>Unit I</th>
<th>Unit J</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Describe how ordinary people and famous historic figures in the local community, state, and the United States have advanced the fundamental democratic values, beliefs and traditions expressed in the Declaration of Independence, the New York State and United States Constitutions, the Bill of Rights, and other important historic documents</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classify major developments into categories such as social, political, economic, geographic, technological, scientific, cultural, or religious</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Commencement:</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare and contrast the experiences of different ethnic, national, and religious groups, including Native American Indians, in the United States, explaining their contributions to American society and culture</td>
<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>Research and analyze the major themes and developments in New York State and United States history (e.g., colonization and settlement; Revolution and New National Period; immigration; expansion and reform era; Civil War and Reconstruction; The American labor movement; Great Depression; World Wars; contemporary United States)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prepare essays and oral reports about the important social, political, economic, scientific, technological, and cultural developments, issues, and events from New York State and United States history</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the interrelationships between world events and developments in New York State and the United States (e.g., causes for immigration, economic opportunities, human rights abuses, and tyranny versus freedom)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Key Idea 4:</strong> The skills of historical analysis include the ability to: explain the significance of historical evidence, weigh the important, reliability, and validity of evidence, understand the concept of multiple causation, and understand the importance of changing and competing interpretations of different historical developments. Students will...</td>
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<tr>
<td>Consider the sources of historic documents, narratives, or artifacts and evaluate their reliability</td>
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<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand how different experiences, beliefs, values, traditions, and motives cause individuals and groups to interpret historic events and issues from different perspectives</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare and contrast different interpretations of key events and issues in New York State and United States history and explain reasons for these different accounts</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>Describe historic events through the eyes and experiences of those who were there</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### WORLD HISTORY

Students will use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of major ideas, eras, themes, developments, and turning points in world history and examine the broad sweep of history from a variety of perspectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Idea 1: The study of world history requires an understanding of world cultures and civilizations, including an analysis of important ideas, social and cultural values, beliefs, and traditions. This study also examines the human condition and the connections and interactions of people across time and space and the ways different people view the same event or issue from a variety of perspectives. Students will...</th>
<th>Unit A</th>
<th>Unit B</th>
<th>Unit C</th>
<th>Unit D</th>
<th>Unit E</th>
<th>Unit F</th>
<th>Unit G</th>
<th>Unit H</th>
<th>Unit I</th>
<th>Unit J</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpret and analyze documents and artifacts related to significant developments and events in history</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
New York State Social Studies Standards

**Key Idea 2:** Establishing time frames, exploring different periodizations, examining themes across time and within cultures, and focusing on important turning points in world history help organize the study of world cultures and civilizations. Students will...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate: Develop timelines by placing important events and developments in world history in their correct chronological order</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit A</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Key Idea 3:** The student of the major social, political, cultural, and religious developments in world history involves learning about the important roles and contributions of individuals and groups. Students will...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate: Investigate the roles and contributions of individuals and groups in relation to key social, political, cultural, and religious practices throughout world history</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit A</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate: Interpret and analyze documents and artifacts related to significant developments and events in world history</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit A</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commencement: Interpret and analyze documents and artifacts related to significant developments and events in world history</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit A</td>
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<tr>
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</table>

**Key Idea 4:** The skills of historical analysis include the ability to investigate differing and competing interpretations of the theories of history, hypothesize about why interpretations change over time, explain the importance of historical evidence, and understand the concepts of change and continuity over time. Students will...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate: Explain the literal meaning of a historical passage or primary source document, identifying who was involved, what happened, where it happened, what events led up to these developments, and what consequences or outcomes followed</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit A</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate: Analyze different interpretations of important events and themes in world history and explain the various frames of reference expressed by different historians</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit A</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate: View history through the eyes of those who witnessed key events and developments in world history by analyzing their literature, diary accounts, letters, artifacts, art, music, architectural drawings, and other documents</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit A</td>
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</table>

**GEOGRAPHY**

Students will use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of the geography of the interdependent world in which we live - local, national, and global - including the distribution of people, places, and environments over the Earth's surface.

**Key Idea 1:** Geography can be divided into six essential elements which can be used to analyze important historic, geographic, economic, and environmental questions and issues. These six elements include: the world in spatial terms, places and regions, physical settings (including natural resources), human systems, environment and society, and the use of geography. (Adapted from The National Geography Standards, 1994: Geography for Life) Students will...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate: Map information about people, places, and environments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit A</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate: Understand the characteristics, functions, and applications of maps, globes, aerial and other photographs, satellite-produced images, and models (Taken from National Geography Standards, 1994)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit A</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate: Investigate why people and places are located where they are located and what patterns can be perceived in these locations</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit A</td>
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<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intermediate: Describe the relationships between people and environments and the connections between people and places</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit A</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
**New York State Social Studies Standards continued**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Idea 2: Geography requires the development and application of the skills of asking and answering geographic questions; analyzing theories of geography; and acquiring, organizing, and analyzing geographic information. Students will...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formulate geographic questions and define geographic issues and problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use a number of research skills (e.g., computer databases, periodicals, census reports, maps, standard reference works, interviews, surveys) to locate and gather geographical information about issues and problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpret geographic information by synthesizing data and developing conclusions and generalizations about geographic issues and problems</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ECONOMICS**

Students will use a variety of intellectual skills to demonstrate their understanding of how the United States and other societies develop economic systems and associated institutions to allocate scarce resources, how major decision-making units function in the U.S. and other national economies, and how an economy solves the scarcity problem through market and nonmarket mechanisms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Idea 1: The study of economics requires an understanding of major economic concepts and systems, the principles of economic decision making, and the interdependence of economies and economic systems throughout the world. Students will...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commencement:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the nature of scarcity and how nations of the world make choices which involve economic and social costs and benefits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Common Core State Standards

### Reading Informational Text—Grade 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Ideas and Details</th>
<th>Unit A</th>
<th>Unit B</th>
<th>Unit C</th>
<th>Unit D</th>
<th>Unit E</th>
<th>Unit F</th>
<th>Unit G</th>
<th>Unit H</th>
<th>Unit I</th>
<th>Unit J</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Cite the textual evidence that most strongly supports an analysis of what the text says explicitly as well as inferences drawn from the text.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Determine a central idea of a text and analyze its development over the course of the text, including its relationship to supporting ideas; provide an objective summary of the text.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Analyze how a text makes connections among and distinctions between individuals, ideas, or events (e.g., through comparisons, analogies, or categories).</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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<td>X</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Craft and Structure**

| 4) Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including figurative, connotative, and technical meanings; analyze the impact of specific word choices on meaning and tone, including analogies or allusions to other texts. | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| 5) Analyze in detail the structure of a specific paragraph in a text, including the role of particular sentences in developing and refining a key concept. | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| 6) Determine an author’s point of view or purpose in a text and analyze how the author acknowledges and responds to conflicting evidence or viewpoints. | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |

**Integration of Knowledge and Ideas**

| 7) Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of using different mediums (e.g., print or digital text, video, multimedia) to present a particular topic or idea. | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| 8) Delineate and evaluate the argument and specific claims in a text, assessing whether the reasoning is sound and the evidence is relevant and sufficient; recognize when irrelevant evidence is introduced. | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| 9) Analyze a case in which two or more texts provide conflicting information on the same topic and identify where the texts disagree on matters of fact or interpretation. | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |

**Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity**

| 10) By the end of the year, read and comprehend literary nonfiction at the high end of the grades 6–8 text complexity band independently and proficiently. | | | | | | | | | | |
### Common Core State Standards

#### Reading Informational Text—Grade 11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Ideas and Details</th>
<th>Unit A</th>
<th>Unit B</th>
<th>Unit C</th>
<th>Unit D</th>
<th>Unit E</th>
<th>Unit F</th>
<th>Unit G</th>
<th>Unit H</th>
<th>Unit I</th>
<th>Unit J</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Cite strong and thorough textual evidence to support analysis of what the text says explicitly as well as inferences drawn from the text, including determining where the text leaves matters uncertain.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Determine two or more central ideas of a text and analyze their development over the course of the text, including how they interact and build on one another to provide a complex analysis; provide an objective summary of the text.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Analyze a complex set of ideas or sequence of events and explain how specific individuals, ideas, or events interact and develop over the course of the text.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Craft and Structure</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>4) Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including figurative, connotative, and technical meanings; analyze how an author uses and refines the meaning of a key term or terms over the course of a text (e.g., how Madison defines faction in Federalist No. 10).</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>5) Analyze and evaluate the effectiveness of the structure an author uses in his or her exposition or argument, including whether the structure makes points clear, convincing, and engaging.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>6) Determine an author’s point of view or purpose in a text in which the rhetoric is particularly effective, analyzing how style and content contribute to the power, persuasiveness or beauty of the text.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Integration of Knowledge and Ideas</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>7) Integrate and evaluate multiple sources of information presented in different media or formats (e.g., visually, quantitatively) as well as in words in order to address a question or solve a problem.</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>8) Delineate and evaluate the reasoning in seminal U.S. texts, including the application of constitutional principles and use of legal reasoning (e.g., in U.S. Supreme Court majority opinions and dissent) and the premises, purposes, and arguments in works of public advocacy (e.g., The Federalist, Presidential addresses).</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>9) Analyze seventeenth-, eighteenth-, and nineteenth-century foundational U.S. documents of historical and literary significance (including The Declaration of Independence, the Preamble to the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, and Lincoln’s Second Inaugural Address) for their themes, purposes, and rhetorical features.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>10) By the end of grade 11, read and comprehend literary nonfiction in the grades 11–CCR text complexity band proficiently, with scaffolding as needed at the high end of the range.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects - Grade 8

#### Key Ideas and Details

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1) Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources.</th>
<th>Unit A</th>
<th>Unit B</th>
<th>Unit C</th>
<th>Unit D</th>
<th>Unit E</th>
<th>Unit F</th>
<th>Unit G</th>
<th>Unit H</th>
<th>Unit I</th>
<th>Unit J</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>X</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<td>X</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2) Determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source; provide an accurate summary of the source distinct from prior knowledge or opinions.</th>
<th>Unit A</th>
<th>Unit B</th>
<th>Unit C</th>
<th>Unit D</th>
<th>Unit E</th>
<th>Unit F</th>
<th>Unit G</th>
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<th>3) Identify key steps in a text’s description of a process related to history/social studies (e.g., how a bill becomes law, how interest rates are raised or lowered).</th>
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#### Craft and Structure

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<th>4) Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including vocabulary specific to domains related to history/social studies.</th>
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<th>5) Describe how a text presents information (e.g., sequentially, comparatively, causally).</th>
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<th>6) Identify aspects of a text that reveal an author’s point of view or purpose (e.g., loaded language, inclusion or avoidance of particular facts).</th>
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#### Integration of Knowledge and Ideas

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<th>7) Integrate visual information (e.g., in charts, graphs, photographs, videos, or maps) with other information in print and digital texts.</th>
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<th>8) Distinguish among fact, opinion, and reasoned judgment in a text.</th>
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<th>9) Analyze a case in which two or more texts provide conflicting information on the same topic and identify where the texts disagree on matters of fact or interpretation.</th>
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### Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity

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<tr>
<th>10) By the end of grade 8, read and comprehend history/social studies texts in the grades 6–8 text complexity band independently and proficiently.</th>
<th>Unit A</th>
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### Common Core State Standards

#### Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects - Grade 11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Ideas and Details</th>
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<tr>
<td>1) Cite specific textual evidence to support analysis of primary and secondary sources, connecting insights gained from specific details to an understanding of the text as a whole.</td>
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<td>2) Determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source; provide an accurate summary that makes clear the relationships among the key details and ideas.</td>
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<td>3) Evaluate various explanations for actions or events and determine which explanation best accords with textual evidence, acknowledging where the text leaves matters uncertain.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4) Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including analyzing how an author uses and refines the meaning of a key term over the course of a text (e.g., how Madison defines faction in Federalist No. 10).</td>
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<td>5) Analyze in detail how a complex primary source is structured, including how key sentences, paragraphs, and larger portions of the text contribute to the whole.</td>
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<td>6) Evaluate authors’ differing points of view on the same historical event or issue by assessing the authors’ claims, reasoning, and evidence.</td>
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#### Integration of Knowledge and Ideas

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<td>7) Integrate and evaluate multiple sources of information presented in diverse formats and media (e.g., visually, quantitatively, as well as in words) in order to address a question or solve a problem.</td>
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<td>8) Evaluate an author’s premises, claims, and evidence by corroborating or challenging them with other information.</td>
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<td>9) Integrate information from diverse sources, both primary and secondary, into a coherent understanding of an idea or event, noting discrepancies among sources.</td>
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#### Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity

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<tr>
<td>10) By the end of grade 12, read and comprehend history/social studies texts in the grades 11–CCR text complexity band independently and proficiently.</td>
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Note: To print the following pages with the correct portrait orientation, make sure you select Auto-Rotate in your print dialog box. Otherwise the resources will print horizontally, and the edges of some images may be missing.
AMERICAN JEWISH CONGRESS

“For the Protection of Jewish Rights Throughout the

MASS DEMONSTRATION

IN PROTEST AGAINST PERSECUTION,

IN GERMANY

Monday, March 27, 1933
8 P. M.

Madison Square Garden
Eighth Avenue and Fiftieth Street

Admission to Box No........
Fritz Kuhn Orders New Uniforms for Nazi Storm Troops in U.S.

A new uniform for the members of the O. D. or Service Order was ordered by National Leader Fritz Kuhn of the German-American Bund. This order, marked General Order No. 6, reads as follows:

“We are keeping in mind that it is necessary for us to create a uniform suitable for an American organization which will not resemble the S. A. or S. S. uniform of Germany, nor that of the American army, or the National Guard. We must also bear in mind that we need a uniform in order to prevent certain things that have happened recently, when due to bad weather, certain members of our O. D. caught cold because the uniform they were wearing afforded them inadequate protection.

“A section of our O. D. had chosen for itself a black uniform coat. This uniform resembled very closely that of the S. S. in Germany. This aroused the ire of certain American officials who are unfriendly to this uniform. Now the time has come to determine once and for all what the O. D. uniform of the German-American Bund is to be. Following is the description:

Long Black Trousers without cuffs – Black shoes – Steel grey shirt with breast pockets – Long black tie – Green-grey uniform coat (same cut as that of the American National Guard) – Black caps with the Bund insignia (as worn by the American Legion) – Black belts with shoulder straps.

“Insignia service stripes, arm bands, medals, etc. will be described in a special order. Every group will receive photographs, samples of material, prices, etc.”
Resource A5 • Fur Workers Protest Kristallnacht

Jews at Nazi Protest; Carrying Signs, November 15, 1938. Photograph.
Copyright © Bettman/Corbis, BE034281.
Help build the fighting Movement of the 100 Million Aryan (White Gentile) Americans to stamp out Jewish-Atheistic Communistic International Outlawry!

PUBLIC RALLY
NEW YORK TURNHALL
Lexington Avenue and 85th Street, N. Y. C.

Thursday, February 24th, 1938 at 8:30 P. M.
All White Americans Welcome!

Sensational Exposures by
Russell J. Dunn & Robert Edward Edmondson
and other outstanding Speakers.

GERMAN AMERICAN BUND, NEW YORK UNIT
Resource A7 - Mass Demonstration for True Americanism

Color Guard at Nazi Rally, February 20, 1939. Photograph. Copyright © Bettman/Corbis, U868789INP.
Resource A7 - Mass Demonstration for True Americanism

Resource A7 - Mass Demonstration for True Americanism

Bund Members Hailing Swastika Banner, February 20, 1939. Photograph. Copyright ©Bettman/Corbis, U8687881NP.
As soon as we had fetched our tools from the shed near the canal and the prisoners had been allotted to their working positions under the supervision of the guards, I gave myself only a very brief pause for consideration and then jumped aside behind the embankment... I now ran swiftly with long strides... I had mentally divided my flight into four stages: getting clear of the place of work, through Oranienburg to Berlin, out of Berlin towards the frontier and then across the frontier... All at once a thought ran through my mind like a flash: what if my flight had yet been detected and Storm Troopers had hurried to Germendorf nearby and then telephoned to alarm the watch at the camp? Then for certain, fifty or sixty SA men, all of them knowing me by sight, would be racing back and forth on all the streets round Oranienburg. At any moment a cyclist or motorcyclist might come towards me and then all would be over.

Yet I marched forward...

On the edge of Berlin I got into a tram. After the first two stopping places I now had for the first time a strange feeling of being incognito, nobody looked at me, everybody seemed concerned only with himself, the conductor was not surprised, or at least did not seem to be, that I had asked for my ticket in a voice almost inaudible with emotion, and for the first time for three hours my nerves partly relaxed...

[L]ate in the evening, I reached the place from which I intended to carry out my fourth stage—the passage over the frontier.

It was an icy night of bright moonlight. The silent, snow-laden walls of the wood which fringed the road on both sides towered above me into the clear air. The hard frozen snow crunched under my feet, the breath from my mouth and nose almost turned to ice, and the nearer I came to the frontier the louder my heart throbbed. Would the frontier be guarded at the point I had selected for the passage? For the first six hours of this tramp through the night—and six hours are a very very long time!—I moved perpetually in expectant dread that at the next turn of the road a gendarme or SA man might come in sight, and all my efforts be in vain. For six hours I took the greatest care never to tread on a brittle branch, for six hours I marched on with aching muscles, with over-active senses which perceived every sound from the wood in the night air, with vibrating nerves stretched to breaking point.

It was just an inconspicuous stone which lay there forgotten before me in the wood, crusted with snow and illuminated by the full moon—the frontier mark! I took a step past it... It was not my native country that I was in now, it was not the country for which I had fought in the war and served in the national parliament. But I had returned to a world in which a human being is recognized as such by his fellows, in which no one is subject to such unbounded, atrocious, bestial torment as in the Germany of Hitler. With the passage of the Czecho-Slovakian frontier I had returned to the world of culture, to the domain of civilization, from a prisoner in a concentration camp I had again become a free man.
Unit A Life Story - Florence Mendheim

1914 — 1934
TWENTY YEARS AFTER THE WORLD WAR
AGAIN
WAR
APPROACHES

An Urgent Message to
Every Worker
Every Student
Every Professional

1. THE FACTS ABOUT THE WORLD WAR

What the PROFITEERS Got:  What WE WORKERS Got:

United States Steel
    NET profits (1915-20) — $896,000,000
Du Pont Munitions
    NET profits (1915-19) — $139,000,000
Standard Oil Groups
    NET profits (1916-19) — $407,000,000

TEN million dead
TWENTY million wounded
FIVE million war widows
NINE million war orphans

This is the “balance sheet” of the “War to make the world safe for Democracy”

(Read other side)
2. TODAY—1934

The “Democracy” for which millions died for is shown by:

1. The use of soldiers by bayonet and shoot to death strikers in San Francisco, Minneapolis, Toledo, Alabama, the Midwestern States.

2. The use of injunctions by the courts and bosses to break strikes, to force workers to accept impossible wages. In New York this injunction “legally” issued against Brooklyn bakery workers even prevented them from talking about the strike.

3. Police attacks throughout the nation on the right of free speech, the right of assembly, the right to organize, strike and picket. In New York, Patsy Augustine, cafeteria union organizer, was tortured with cigarette burns and beaten with leather hose. Lechay and his wife, unemployed teachers, were knocked down, kicked and beaten, for exercising the right to petition! Four workers’ clubs were several times attacked by police.

4. The deliberate police attempts to arouse lynching hatred against the Negro people. In New York, Fletcher Bey, Negro worker, was murdered by detectives who entered the premises, shot him and stole jewelry valued at $327. Clyde Allen, Brooklyn Negro worker, was framed on a charge of being a “Negro ape-man”, and shot in the leg. His innocence was afterwards admitted.

5. Angelo Herndon, Georgia Negro worker, was given TWENTY YEARS in the chain gang, for demanding food for Negro and white workers of Georgia.

6. New York police permit Nazis and Fascists to hold their poisonous meetings, but the same police ruthlessly attack Anti-Nazi and Anti-Fascist meetings. New York City police have arrested workers for picketing the German Consulate. The pickets were there to arouse New York workers in defense of Ernst Thaelmann, leading Anti-Nazi fighter of Germany.

The Roosevelt “Democracy” is today spending $455,000,000.00 for better murder machinery. 75 thousand rifles have been given to the American Legion Posts complete with cartridge belts. Shells, battleships, bombs, airplanes, all are being feverishly prepared by “our” American Government.

The International Labor Defense, the only defense organization of the working class, has fought over 25,000 cases since 1926 in defense of working class rights. The International Labor Defense fights for free speech, the right to organize, picket and strike, for full rights to the Negro people, against injunctions and deportations of foreign born workers.

Now the International Labor Defense calls upon every reader to:
Show your desire for peace!
Show your fighting spirit Against War and Fascism!
Join our Ranks!

DEMONSTRATE AGAINST WAR AND FASCISM

on AUGUST 4th, at 1 P.M.
TWENTIETH ANNIVERSARY OF THE WORLD WAR
Assemble at COLUMBUS CIRCLE
and March to Madison Square
Bring your family, neighbors: All out against War!

Join the INTERNATIONAL LABOR DEFENSE, 870 Broadway, New York City.
Read the Labor Defender, Learn the Truth about Strikes and Labor Struggles.
Poison in the Melting-Pot

At a recent meeting of the Christian Front in Prospect Hall, Brooklyn, the Franco film, “Spain in Arms,” was shown, with speakers adding comment. The recorded voice on the film itself did not mention Jews although it repeatedly insinuated the idea. When a group of prisoners from the International Brigade with somewhat Semitic features was shown, it advised, “Watch their faces closely.” “Oy, Oy,” responded the audience. “Look at the kikes, the Christ-killers, the mockies.” One speaker solemnly warned, “I have been informed that the Jews are about to plunge America into a war with Hitler and Mussolini, and that Madame Perkins and President Roosevelt are in on the deal.” Socialists, Communists, and Jews received a common denunciation. But it remained for the chairman, one Harold Walsh, to accomplish a dialectical masterpiece with the blast: “The Jewish War Veterans can denounce communism all day and all night, and they can call themselves Americans, but we members of the Christian Front are not fooled — we will deal with these people when the time comes, and we will pay special attention to Jews who sing the Star-Spangled Banner.”
Albert Einstein
Old Grove Rd.
Nassau Point
Peconic, Long Island
August 2nd, 1939

F.D. Roosevelt,
President of the United States,
White House
Washington, D.C.

Sir:

Some recent work by E. Fermi and L. Szilard, which has been communicated to me in manuscript, leads me to expect that the element uranium may be turned into a new and important source of energy in the immediate future. Certain aspects of the situation which has arisen seem to call for watchfulness and, if necessary, quick action on the part of the Administration. I believe therefore that it is my duty to bring to your attention the following facts and recommendations:

In the course of the last four months it has been made probable - through the work of Joliot in France as well as Fermi and Szilard in America - that it may become possible to set up a nuclear chain reaction in a large mass of uranium, by which vast amounts of power and large quantities of new radium-like elements would be generated. Now it appears almost certain that this could be achieved in the immediate future.

This new phenomenon would also lead to the construction of bombs, and it is conceivable - though much less certain - that extremely powerful bombs of a new type may thus be constructed. A single bomb of this type, carried by boat and exploded in a port, might very well destroy the whole port together with some of the surrounding territory. However, such bombs might very well prove to be too heavy for transportation by air.
The United States has only very poor ores of uranium in moderate quantities. There is some good ore in Canada and the former Czechoslovakia, while the most important source of uranium is Belgian Congo.

In view of this situation you may think it desirable to have some permanent contact maintained between the Administration and the group of physicists working on chain reactions in America. One possible way of achieving this might be for you to entrust with this task a person who has your confidence and who could perhaps serve in an unofficial capacity. His task might comprise the following:

a) to approach Government Departments, keep them informed of the further development, and put forward recommendations for Government action, giving particular attention to the problem of securing a supply of uranium ore for the United States;

b) to speed up the experimental work, which is at present being carried on within the limits of the budgets of University laboratories, by providing funds, if such funds be required, through his contacts with private persons who are willing to make contributions for this cause, and perhaps also by obtaining the co-operation of industrial laboratories which have the necessary equipment.

I understand that Germany has actually stopped the sale of uranium from the Czechoslovakian mines which she has taken over. That she should have taken such early action might perhaps be understood on the ground that the son of the German Under-Secretary of State, von Weizsäcker, is attached to the Kaiser-Wilhelm-Institut in Berlin where some of the American work on uranium is now being repeated.

Yours very truly,

(Albert Einstein)
Resource B4 - Anti-European-Involvement Group Carrying Signs in New York City

Resource B5 - Smashing Thru, Captain America Came Face to Face with Hitler

Captain America, March 1941. Paper. © and TM Marvel and Subs. Used with permission.
Resource B7 - America First Rally, Manhattan Center

Charles A. Lindbergh Addressing America First Committee Rally, April 23, 1941.
Photograph. Associated Press, 410423073.
Unit B Life Story - John T. Flynn

John T. Flynn with His Fist Raised, July 17, 1945. Photograph. Copyright © Bettman/Corbis, U1021443HNP
Resource C1 - The Radio Set

Kay Travers in a Red Convertible

I was with a fellow I was dating and a couple of other people. The boy whose car we were in was showing us his new red convertible. He was a wealthy boy and his father had given it to him, probably for his 21st birthday. We insisted on leaving the top down so everyone could see us. We were freezing. He put the radio on and someone announced there had been a bombing at Pearl Harbor. There were about six of us. Everyone in that car was a bright person. Most of the boys were halfway through college. Nobody except the fellow who was driving knew where Pearl Harbor was. The only reason he knew was because his family had visited Hawaii.

Everybody was stunned. Then they started talking about us going to war. We were all making such fun. “Imagine Jack in a uniform . . . imagine this one.” We thought it was hysterical. It was all sort of light-hearted. We couldn’t absorb it. It was such a shock.

Mr. Vice President, and Mr. Speaker, and Members of the Senate and House of Representatives:

Yesterday, December 7, 1941—a date which will live in infamy—the United States of America was suddenly and deliberately attacked by naval and air forces of the Empire of Japan.

The United States was at peace with that Nation and, at the solicitation of Japan, was still in conversation with its Government and its Emperor looking toward the maintenance of peace in the Pacific. Indeed, one hour after Japanese air squadrons had commenced bombing in the American Island of Oahu, the Japanese Ambassador to the United States and his colleague delivered to our Secretary of State a formal reply to a recent American message. And while this reply stated that it seemed useless to continue the existing diplomatic negotiations, it contained no threat or hint of war or of armed attack.

It will be recorded that the distance of Hawaii from Japan makes it obvious that the attack was deliberately planned many days or even weeks ago. During the intervening time the Japanese Government has deliberately sought to deceive the United States by false statements and expressions of hope for continued peace.

The attack yesterday on the Hawaiian Islands has caused severe damage to American naval and military forces. I regret to tell you that very many American lives have been lost. In addition American ships have been reported torpedoed on the high seas between San Francisco and Honolulu.

Yesterday the Japanese Government also launched an attack against Malaya.

Last night Japanese forces attacked Hong Kong.

Last night Japanese forces attacked Guam.

Last night Japanese forces attacked the Philippine Islands.

Last night the Japanese attacked Wake Island. And this morning the Japanese attacked Midway Island.

Japan has, therefore, undertaken a surprise offensive extending throughout the Pacific area. The facts of yesterday and today speak for themselves. The people of the United States have already formed their opinions and well understand the implications to the very life and safety of our Nation.

As Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy I have directed that all measures be taken for our defense.

But always will our whole Nation remember the character of the onslaught against us.

No matter how long it may take us to overcome this premeditated invasion, the American people in their righteous might will win through to absolute victory. I believe that I interpret the will of the Congress and of the people when I assert that we will not only defend ourselves to the uttermost but will make it very certain that this form of treachery shall never again endanger us.

Hostilities exist. There is no blinking at the fact that our people, our territory, and our interests are in grave danger.

With confidence in our armed forces—with the unbounding determination of our people—we will gain the inevitable triumph, so help us God.

I ask that the Congress declare that since the unprovoked and dastardly attack by Japan on Sunday, December 7, 1941, a state of war has existed between the United States and the Japanese Empire.
The Salesman
I want it to be distinctly understood that I, as an American born and raised in this country, am in favor of everything which is beneficial to everyone living in this land. But I sincerely believe, had a different attitude been taken on the part of our president we would never have to face or be confronted with a condition that exists today. . . . Germany . . . has a right to expand, and there have been tyrants as great as Hitler. History shows that. And if Hitler would not have racial prejudice he'd really be a great man because he'd be looking out for his country.

. . . But I believe that Japan has made one great mistake by sending a peace envoy to this country. And then stabbing us, as Roosevelt would say, in the back. In other words, having a Bible in one hand and a dagger in the other. But people should not be disillusioned, because they are under the impression that they are going to go to a picnic. But that is not so.

The Building Trades Worker
I was very happy to hear our beloved president make the speech he did today. I feel that the time has come that we have to get after this fellow over in Japan and destroy Hitlerism and fascism and all that sort of thing. I think we're a little late, I think we ought to started it when Mussolini invaded Ethiopia, in fact. But, it's not too late to give this fellow the licking and it won't be very long till he finds out that he won't tread on us. . . . And I'm only wishing that I was young enough to go, but I have two sons and I know they'll both volunteer if it's necessary, to lick that fella.

The Housewife
I'm . . . in my sixtieth year and living in New York City. I'm very sorry the United States has to get into this war.

The Student
I am eighteen years of age . . . . And seeing that the President, his opinions, were in favor of war means I might be a potential soldier in the very near future. Personally, I am a pacifist, but times, circumstances, overrule your personal opinions. I don't believe that the president had any other alternative, but to declare war against Japan. . . . [T]he best thing to do now is to lick hell out of them.
ENTIRE CITY PUT ON WAR FOOTING

Japanese Rounded Up by FBI, Sent to Ellis Island—Vital Services Are Guarded

The metropolitan district reacted swiftly yesterday to the Japanese attack in the Pacific. All large communities in the area, including New York City, Newark, Jersey City, Bayonne and Paterson, went on immediate war footing.

One of the first steps taken here last night was a round-up of Japanese nationals by special agents of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, reinforced by squads of city detectives acting under FBI supervision. More than 100 FBI men, fully armed, were assigned to the detail.

The prisoners were sent to Ellis Island, where they will be held pending action at Washington. It was indicated hundreds would be detained.

Earlier Mayor La Guardia had convened his Emergency Board and directed that Japanese nationals be confined to their homes pending decision as to their status and had their clubs and other meeting places closed and put under police guard.

A police sergeant and five policemen immediately went to the Japanese Consulate at 630 Fifth Avenue in Rockefeller Center where the Consul General, Morito Morishima, and his staff were preparing to leave, and posted a guard there. The Consul General and his staff were escorted to their homes when they left. They were not to move about the city without police in attendance.

Rear Admiral Adolphus Andrews, commander of the North Atlantic Squadron, told reporters at a conference in the Federal
Continued From Page One

Building at 50 Church Street last night that:

"Every possible step has been taken to protect New York and to prevent any trouble wherever there may be a concentration of Japanese shipping in this port.

"Why, in a couple of weeks, this station will be ready for action."

Commissioner Valentine said that in the event of any attack on this country, "the police are prepared to act quickly and efficiently."

The New York Times reported that a large number of Japanese ships were seen in the harbor.

On the same day, Governor Platt announced that all Japanese nationals would be interned in camps for the duration of the war.

"We have taken every precaution to prevent any incidents from occurring and we are confident that the police will be able to maintain order," the governor said.

The New York police also announced that they were aware of any possible threats and had increased their presence in the city.

"We are ready for any eventuality," said Police Commissioner Valentine. "We have been alerted and we are ready to act."
The Talk of the Town

Notes and Comment

Each man was pretty much alone with his thoughts last week, turned inward, considering things privately. The man who met for lunch was preoccupied, adjusting his life to a new set of conditions, not yet completely understood. In their offices, on the street, at home, people met and talked as they always had, but they thought separately. Everybody exchanged military opinions based on what little information there was (it was a lonely season for clichés and false premises), but no one was very attentive, each busy with his own need to grasp the real dimensions of what had happened, to define his own relation to it.

Actually there was an uneasy duality in most men all that week. The realization of an absolute change from yesterday was never continuous. People waking up in the morning forgot for a little while, people working at their desks forgot, people shopping, reading, going to the movies, playing with children all forgot briefly that they were at war. This happy state was always brief. There was always something to bring back the consciousness of total separation from the past, putting familiar faces and scenes into sharp, uncustomed focus, giving the man who looked at them a sense of valuing them precisely for the first time, changing the identity of the man himself.

Any attempt to tell how people felt in New York during the first days of war necessarily has a personal basis. Our own emotions covered quite a good deal of ground. We wish we could say that we looked forward to being bombed with the calm fatalism recommended by our London friends, but we didn’t. Logic (and the military experts) told us there was no appreciable danger, but the peril was too far outside our experience —something that might come in from the sea without warning, very high and nearly silent, as impersonal as lightning. The wall of the sirens coming up thinly from the street, the controlled voice on the radio telling of destruction already conceived of its own devices, even the drumming of our own planes patrolling the threatened city—none of these sounds was particularly reassuring. We weren’t exactly afraid, but unlike one nerveless hero we met, we weren’t exactly bored, either.

There was some indignation, too; some things we were ashamed of: an heiress anxious to learn if the bombs had damaged her Hawaiian estate (and also the society columnists who reported her anxiety with respectful sympathy); an ornament of night-club society exploiting the crisis to advertise a restaurant; a few ingenious radio sponsors quick to seize their opportunity to plug patent medicines along with patriotism; especially the realization of how little had been done, by us and everybody else, to prepare for all this two years ago, when there still was so much time.

On the other hand, there was a good deal more to be proud of: the President’s magnificent speech on Tuesday night and the quick answer to it by a suddenly united nation; the brave men who died in the Pacific; the acceptance of the first bad news by everyone, without any illusions about its importance, but equally without discouragement or fear; the sense of civilian obligation, slow in coming but universal at last; the promise that boundless production was finally under way and not to be stopped until its certain purpose was accomplished. We felt some pride and confidence because of all these things.
**Latest War Casualties**

**DEAD—ARMY**

**New York**

HANT, Pfc. FRANK R.; mother, Mrs. Margaret Hant, 202 W. 109th St., New York.

HELCKE, Pvt. JOHN J.; mother, Mrs. Anna Heilcke, 723-109th Ave., Brooklyn.

WEINBERG, Pvt. JACK; father, Charles Weinberg, 539 E. 139th St., Bronx, N. Y.

**DEAD—NAVY**

**New York**

DAWSON, Lt. (jg) JOSEPH; parents, Mr. and Mrs. Homer W. Dawson, Rockville Centre.

HARKINS, Lt. JOSEPH; (previously reported missing); wife, Mrs. Pamela H. Harkins, 2405 Valentine Ave., Bronx, N. Y.

MURTO, S/2c JAMES W. (previously reported prisoner of war); mother, Mrs. Catherine M. Bialand, 565 Albany Ave., Brooklyn.

SCHNEIDER, 2c EDWIN J. (previously reported missing); wife, Mrs. Carol Schneider, 1701 Quentin Rd., Brooklyn.

TUNNEY, Ens. JOHN F. S. (previously reported missing); parents, Mr. and Mrs. John F. Tunney Jr., Cohoes.

**New Jersey**

FODACARO, S/1c NICHOLAS (previously reported missing); parents, Mr. and Mrs. Anthony Fodacaro, Waterford Works.

McNAMARA, S/1c DANIEL F. (previously reported missing); mother, Mrs. Sadie McNamara, Rutherford.

NABONE, Cqms JAMES C. (previously reported missing); parents, Mr. and Mrs. John Nabone, Trenton.

**Connecticut**

MILLER, S/2c EDWARD C. Jr. (previously reported missing); wife, Mrs. Virginia L. Miller, New Haven.

**MISSING—MERCHAND MARINE**

**New York**

MCKEEVER, Fireman PHILIP (previously prisoner of war); sister-in-law, Mrs. McKeever, 77 Ambassador Ave., Merchant’s Harbor S. I.

MORENO, Third Mate ADOLFO (previously prisoner of war); friend, J. Fernandez, 71 Columbus St., Brooklyn.

**LIBERATED PRISONERS—ARMY**

**New York**

BECHER, Sgt. WESLEY L.; father, Gustav Becher, 725 E. 120th St., Bronx, New York.

CAMARATA, S/Sgt. JOSEPH T.; sister, Mrs. Virginia Paterini, Jamestown.

DARDARIS, Pfc. SPEO; mother, Mrs. Besila Gay, Syracuse.

GOLDBRUM, Sgt. LOUIS; mother, Mrs. Esther Goldbrum, 271 Ocean Ave., Brooklyn.

GOLDSTEIN, Pfc. JULIUS L.; sister, Mrs. Pauline Weinst, 9253 E. 18th St., Brooklyn.

HART, Pfc. DONALD V.; father, Edward L. Hart, Newark.

JEMISON, Pvt. EDMUND L.; father, Wymar Jemison, Bayside.

KASLER, 1st Lt. CHARLES L.; sister, Mrs. Terese R. Kasler, Syracuse.

KEECAN, Pvt. ROGER J.; niece, Mrs. Helen Huse, 361 E. 163rd St., New York.

KUDDIAK, Sgt. MILTON J.; brother, Paul Kuddia, Binghamton.

LACZKO, Pvt. STEVE; friend, Miss Marior Ainsworth, Buffalo.

LA FRENZI, S/Sgt. MILTON P.; brother, Walter La Frenzi, Oakdale.

LEONE, Pvt. DONATO; mother, Mrs. Pasqua Leone, Schenectady.

MARANGILLO, Pvt. ANTHONY D.; father, Daniel A. Marangillo, Glen Cove.

PERCIA, Pvt. FELICE; mother, Mrs. Juan Sanchez, 118 E. 108th St., New York.

POLKOFF, Cpl. WILLIAM; mother, Mrs. Mary Polkoff, 186 Division Ave., Brooklyn.

ROSS, S/Sgt. LOUIS W.; friend, James Buck, Syracuse.

SCHUMAKER, Pvt. MAURICE F.; mother, Mrs. Caroline Gobin, 635 Dobbins Ave., Bronx, New York.

SEIDL, Cpl. FRANCIS J.; father, Frank Seidl, 233 E. 89th St., New York.

SLATER, S/Sgt. JOHN E.; father, John Slater, Albany.

STEVenson, Sgt. ROLLY; mother, Mrs. Mary Stevenson, Lockport.

**MISSING—NAVY**

**New York**

BEDNARSKI, Pfc. CAROL A.; mother, Mrs. Barbara Bednarski, Bayonne.

CARABINO, Pvt. DONALD J.; mother, Viola T. Carabino, Camden.

ROBST, Cpl. FRANK P.; mother, Mrs. Minnie Rosb, Union City.

SEDLAR, S/Sgt. JOSEPH; mother, Mrs. Susan Siedlar, Passaic.

**WOUNDED—NAVY**

**New York**

JESKE, Coxswain EDWARD C.; wife, Mrs. Anna F. Jeske, 579 Third Ave., Brooklyn.

**CONNECTICUT**

**REPORTED SAFE—NAVY**

**New York**

BURGROFF, Aces THOMAS J. (previously reported prisoner of war); parents, Mr. and Mrs. Hilton C. Burgdorf, Mineola.
THE NEW YORK TIMES

Resource D2 - Latest War Casualties

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NEW YORK CITY DEFENSE RECREATION COMMITTEE, INC.
In cooperation with U.S.O.

This is the official committee appointed by Fiorello H. LaGuardia, Mayor of the City of New York and Mrs. Anna M. Rosenberg, Regional Director, Defense, Health and Welfare Services of the Federal Security Agency, to extend the hospitality of the City of New York to service men.

Affiliated with this committee in providing hospitality, recreation, entertainment and amusement to service men are the following organizations:

Brooklyn Defense Recreation Committee
Navy & Concord Streets, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Brooklyn Navy Y. M. C. A.
167 Sands Street, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Harlem Defense Recreation Committee
2346 Seventh Avenue, N. Y. C.

Jewish Welfare Board
1 East 65th Street, N. Y.

National Catholic Community Service, Archdiocese of New York
17 East 31st Street, N. Y. C.

National Catholic Community Service, Diocese of Brooklyn
9249 Shore Road, Brooklyn, New York

New York City Department of Welfare

New York City Board of Education

Salvation Army
Pier 3-5, South Ferry, New York City

Staten Island Defense Recreation Committee
730 Van Duzer Street, Stapleton, Staten Island

Travelers Aid Society
144 East 44th Street, N. Y.

Works Projects Administration
Y. M. C. A. — 356 West 34th Street, N. Y. C.
Y. M. C. A. — 55 Hanson Place, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Y. W. C. A. — 129 East 52nd Street, N. Y. C.
Y. W. C. A. — 30 Third Avenue, N. Y. C.
“Thirty Seconds over Tokyo” Premier Bond Drive, 1944. Photograph. Courtesy of Photofest.
Resource E3 - Churches Welcome Service Men

Resource E4 - Sammy's on the Bowery

Resource E6 - An Unidentified American Sailor and Young Woman Do the Lindy at the Stage Door Canteen During a USO Party

An Unidentified American Sailor and Young Woman Do the Lindy at the Stage Door Canteen During a USO Party, 1944. Photograph. Associated Press, 4401080116.
They’re Either Too Young Or Too Old


You rushed away and left this house as empty as can be
And I am like the driftwood in a deadly calm at sea
I can’t sit under the apple tree with anyone else but me
For there is no secret lover that the draft board didn’t discover

They’re either too young or too old
They’re either too gray or too grassy green
The pickings are poor and the crop is lean
What’s good is in the Army, what’s left will never harm me

They’re either too old or too young
So, darling, you’ll never get stung
Tomorrow I’ll go hiking with that Eagle Scout unless
I get a call from grandpa for a snappy game of chess

They’re either too warm or too cold
They’re either too fast or too fast asleep
So, darling, believe me, I’m yours to keep
There isn’t any gravy, the gravy’s in the Navy

They’re either too fresh or too stale
There is no available male
I will confess to one romance I’m sure you will allow
He tried to serenade me, but his voice is changing now

They’re either too bald or too bold
I’m down to the wheelchair and bassinet
My heart just refuses to get upset
I simply can’t compel it to, with no Marine to tell it to

I’m either their first breath of spring
Or else, I’m their last little fling
I either get a fossil or an adolescent pup
I either have to hold him off or have to hold him up

The battle is on, but the fortress will hold
They’re either too young or too old

(Orchestral Break)

I’ll never, never fail ya
When you are in Australia
Or out in the Aleutians
Or off among the Rooshians
And flying over Egypt
Your heart will never be gypped
And when you get to India
I’ll still be what I’ve been to ya
I’ve looked the field over
And lo and behold
They’re either too young or too old
Resource F2 - Shipfitters on Lunch Break

Mar. 29 [1944]
Darling,

I feel whoozy to the nth degree. Last night occasioned the luxury of twelve hours slumber. One gets that—"Oh how I hate to get up" feeling, but duty, chow, the birds all order—"Get the hell outta bed—soldier!"

We’ve brought our cots out to our holes and sleep is ever so much more enjoyable minus stumps, stones, rocks.

There’s very little to report. Your soldier-boy is still “sans” injury.

You ask about any hand-to-hand fighting. The closest I’ve come to any fight occurred a while ago. We were up in an O.P. [Observation Post] cut into a large boulder resting high atop a ridge.—Nippo attacked at night—Sitting high over it all, it was just like witnessing a fourth of July fireworks show from a grand stand seat. As the battle crept closer to us we all tightly clenched our carbines. A case of hand grenades was opened and distributed—We kept reporting the progress of the fray over the phone—Very similar to a blow-by-blow ringside description. In the morning Tojo started sniping and getting himself sent to his honorable ancestors.—But that was long ago.—

I’m getting more proficient in my work as time goes by—We’ve gotten several verbal commendations but the most pleasing of all is a remark from a front line infantryman.—The man that sits in his hole with no alternative but kill or be killed—"We sure were glad to have that mortar fire!"—‘Stelle—if I could do anything to help them—dig holes with my fingernails, i’d do it. They are gallant men.

No—I never did write that letter.*—I have some courage—but not that much.

Remember Lt. Foster—my exec.—He’s “purple hearting”—only a slight wound—A Lt. House has come to me for training—I hate these men with wives and kids—they don’t belong here. . .

After the battle there was the usual souvenir hunt—Somehow I still have respect for the departed—couldn’t get myself to pick up a battle flag or something—

So ends our gory tale of carnage, and carrion—. . .

By the way I still love you—very much—However I’m still in doubt as to whether I’ll accept your leap year proposal if you make it.—Follow my “whim of the moment” as “some” people say—

Every time I go through a period of anxiety—I take it out on us—you particularly—don’t take it seriously—Just a child getting cranky for lack of sleep. Okay? . . .

I love you darling—overwhelmingly—Please—please know that—Please, please understand—that—well there are times a guy’s just not himself—You know what I mean. Or do you?—

I love you
Your
Sid

*To the wife one of his fallen men. In an earlier letter, Sid had described his struggle to write to her.
"We'll have lots to eat this winter, won't we Mother?"

Grow your own
Can your own
Resource F7 - War Ration Book Four

War Play for Children — How Much?

The period of greatest anxiety in childhood is roughly bounded by infancy on the one hand and the school years on the other. By the time children are seven or eight years old, it is likely to have faded out, and in these years, before adolescence brings a fresh wave of inner commotion and anxiety, their lives are likely to be relatively smooth. Smooth, however, to a careful observer never means wholly smooth, and these active, adventurous, self-assured youngsters between six and twelve have their own ways of showing strain.

John, for example, is nine and the proud only son of a father who is an instructor at an airfield. John has always been enormously interested in every kind of machine, and he has acquired amazing skill for his years in making models and knowing every type and make of war plane ever flown. He rates as an altogether normal boy, active and resourceful above the average. The anxieties of earlier childhood, if he ever showed any, were so slight as to be quickly forgotten. When his father entered the army air corps and left home, John and his mother saw him off at the station. He paid little attention to his father, the magnificent streamlined engine claiming apparently far more of his interest. But after the train had pulled out, he clung to his mother, suddenly overwhelmed with unaccustomed tears.

Except for this one outbreak, John is his old self again since his father’s departure, but with differences. He doesn’t fall asleep as readily, is a bit more irritable, and is given to temper outbursts more often than was usual. His voice is higher-pitched and his interest in the war and fighting, in guns, tanks, and airplanes, has assumed such proportions that it amounts almost to an obsession. News-reels and picturizations of war in all forms he seeks avidly; he makes endless drawings depicting war; he follows the progress of armies closely, reads by preference only tales of battle and death, and lives vicariously, in so far as he is able, the life of a dive bomber over the enemy lines.

How far, wonders his mother, shall she let this go on? . . .

A father in danger has implications for John which he dare not altogether face. . . It is wise, therefore, not to force such a boy violently or prohibitively, for he needs just these outlets. It is better not to set a fixed limit on news-reels or to censor certain magazines and reading. But by careful watching, his mother may be able to guess how much these activities really help to reduce tension, and at what point he can profit by having his attention directed to other things.
Carmela Celardo, ca. 1942. Photograph. Courtesy of Carmela Celardo Zuza.
Tar Beach in an Air-Raid Drill

I think that on the whole, people took the war very seriously, whether it was in Harlem or outside of Harlem. I mean they had given you enough education and proper candor about what could happen, so that it was something to be taken seriously. But after a while these serious things become routine and you deal with it in a routine manner. That’s how I remember things, not that you shouldn’t have always been serious but how long can you keep a kid serious? And especially teenagers. We used to have roof parties, you know, tar beach. We’d have the extension cord coming up from the top floor and a record player and they charged four cents or five cents, and you have a party of punch and cheese and crackers on the roof. And I remember one time an air-raid drill was scheduled. You know, an air-raid drill, a blackout, and we had this party scheduled and oh, we thought that was the worst thing in the world, you know, to interfere. Why can’t we have a party when there’s an air raid? We knew it was a drill so why can’t we have our fun? That’s the way we saw it as kids, you know.

Resource G3 - Tar Beach in an Air-Raid Drill

GIRLS, 7, CAN TAKE COURSE IN BEAUTY

Clothes, Personality, Nutrition Among Subjects of New Experimental Classes

Beauty and personality courses for girls from the age of 7 on up through those who are already holding jobs will begin today on an experimental basis at the center of the Police Athletic League at 12 West 108th Street. If the twenty-five-hour program in the essentials of good grooming proves a success, according to Mrs. Harry Hult, the teacher, similar sessions will be undertaken at PAL centers all over the city.

Under Mrs. Hult's plan the girls in each age group will come to the center for an hour a day, five days a week. Three separate classes—for those 7 to 12, for those 13 to 15 and for those over 16—will be given by day and an equal number of evening classes is planned for working girls, Mrs. Hult said.

The schedule follows: Mondays, care of the hair and hair styling; Tuesdays, care of the skin; Wednesdays, what to eat according to simple nutrition rules; Thursdays, clothes, including how to remake them if necessary, and Fridays, personality, what to say, how to speak. Each class will devote part of its period to exercises. On Tuesdays at 4 P.M. a "mass meeting" is planned for all girls in all the courses for mass exercises.

One hundred girls attended a preview of the course Friday evening at the center and heard Mrs. Hult say: "I don't want any of you to think of me as a teacher or a welfare worker. Bring anything that is troubling you to me and we'll try to work it out together."

She told the girls that arrangements were under way with the local library for the students to refer to simple texts Mrs. Hult has picked out for a reading list. In addition, she said that not more than twenty-five girls would be in a single session, to insure adequate attention to individual problems.

After the meeting some of the girls themselves offered ideas on why such a course was a "good idea."

Mignon Smith, 16, of 3 West 108th Street, said: "It's nice for all the girls. It's free and will help them to occupy their time and keep down some of the juvenile delinquency that's going on now. We'll have a course in speech and everything. Maybe if girls took the course they'd take more pride in themselves and take things more seriously. It might help improve the rough girls, too."

May Boyd, 13, commented: "There's not much to do evenings except sing, sit on the stoop or play potty. This will give us something to do in the daytime, anyway."
Resource G6 - High School Victory Corps

Resource G6 - High School Victory Corps

Resource G7 - “Sink the Japs” Pinball Game Panel

Resource H1 - African American Soldiers

Philip Randolph’s Call to Negro America (Excerpt)

We call upon you to fight for jobs in National Defense. We call upon you to struggle for the integration of Negroes in the armed forces. . . .

We call upon you to demonstrate for the abolition of Jim-Crowism in all Government departments and defense employment.

This is an hour of crisis. . . .

. . . Negroes, by the mobilization and coordination of their mass power, can cause PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT TO ISSUE AN EXECUTIVE ORDER ABOLISHING DISCRIMINATIONS IN ALL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENT, ARMY, NAVY, AIR CORPS AND NATIONAL DEFENSE JOBS. . . .

In this period of power politics, nothing counts but pressure, more pressure, and still more pressure, through the tactic and strategy of broad, organized, aggressive mass action behind the vital and important issues of the Negro. To this end, we propose that ten thousand Negroes MARCH ON WASHINGTON FOR JOBS IN NATIONAL DEFENSE AND EQUAL INTEGRATION IN THE FIGHTING FORCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

An “all-out” thundering march on Washington, ending in a monster and huge demonstration at Lincoln’s Monument will shake up white America.

It will shake up official Washington. . . .
March-on-Washington Movement
Mass Meeting

"Winning Democracy for the Negro is Winning the War for Democracy."

Tuesday Evening
June 16th
Madison Square Garden
New York City

Frederick Perry

CALL to NEGRO AMERICA

ALL OUT!

NATIONAL NEGRO DAY
FRIDAY, JUNE 27

CELEBRATE THE NEGROES' ACHIEVEMENT
COLORFUL PARADE THROUGH HARLEM!

March On to Washington
TUES. JULY 1st

For JOBS in National Defense

Abolition Of Discrimination in
Army, Navy, Marine & Air Corps-
In Federal and Municipal Gov-
ernments, Industry & Labor Unions

Mass Meeting · · · TUE. JUNE 27, 8 P.M.
ABYSSINIAN BAPT. CHURCH

Celebration · · · Entertainment · · · Dancing

Golden Gate Ballroom · · · Lenox Ave. & 142nd St.
Executive Order 8802: Prohibition of Discrimination in the Defense Industry (1941)

REAFFIRMING POLICY OF FULL PARTICIPATION IN THE DEFENSE PROGRAM BY ALL PERSONS, REGARDLESS OF RACE, CREED, COLOR, OR NATIONAL ORIGIN, AND DIRECTING CERTAIN ACTION IN FURTHERANCE OF SAID POLICY.

WHEREAS it is the policy of the United States to encourage full participation in the national defense program by all citizens of the United States, regardless of race, creed, color, or national origin, in the firm belief that the democratic way of life within the Nation can be defended successfully only with the help and support of all groups within its borders; and

WHEREAS there is evidence that available and needed workers have been barred from employment in industries engaged in defense production solely because of considerations of race, creed, color, or national origin, to the detriment of workers' morale and of national unity:

NOW, THEREFORE, by virtue of the authority vested in me by the Constitution and the statutes, and as a prerequisite to the successful conduct of our national defense production effort, I do hereby reaffirm the policy of the United States that there shall be no discrimination in the employment of workers in defense industries or government because of race, creed, color, or national origin, and I do hereby declare that it is the duty of employers and of labor organizations, in furtherance of said policy and of this order, to provide for the full and equitable participation of all workers in defense industries, without discrimination because of race, creed, color, or national origin;

And it is hereby ordered as follows:

1. All departments and agencies of the Government of the United States concerned with vocational and training programs for defense production shall take special measures appropriate to assure that such programs are administered without discrimination because of race, creed, color, or national origin;

2. All contracting agencies of the Government of the United States shall include in all defense contracts hereafter negotiated by them a provision obligating the contractor not to discriminate against any worker because of race, creed, color, or national origin;

3. There is established in the Office of Production Management a Committee on Fair Employment Practice, which shall consist of a chairman and four other members to be appointed by the President. The Chairman and members of the Committee shall serve as such without compensation but shall be entitled to actual and necessary transportation, subsistence and other expenses incidental to performance of their duties. The Committee shall receive and investigate complaints of discrimination in violation of the provisions of this order and shall take appropriate steps to redress grievances which it finds to be valid. The Committee shall also recommend to the several departments and agencies of the Government of the United States and to the President all measures which may be deemed by it necessary or proper to effectuate the provisions of this order.

Franklin D. Roosevelt
THE WHITE HOUSE,
June 25, 1941.
Resource H7 - Sayde R. Carter and T. A. Morgan at Sperry Gyroscope

Resource H9 - New Shift of Police Lined Up in West 123rd St.

German U-boat in New York Harbor

We had already been traveling for several weeks now. Crossing the North Atlantic in winter wasn’t exactly a pleasure. Storms and rain, heavy seas, squalls of hail, driving snow, and the thick fog on the Grand Banks of Newfoundland—this was our day-to-day monotony. We were already hugging the Canadian coast, and it was bitter cold. A thick layer of ice covered the boat, and the bridge watch would have icicles hanging from his beard. Now and then we had to submerge so the ice would melt off and we could remain battle-ready.

One day during the crossing I called the crew together and finally told the men our destination. We were to penetrate New York Harbor and from there operate closely along the coast. Their response was astonished disbelief. At first, people thought I was joking. New York—it sounded so far away, so unreal. But that’s where we were going!

I told them that in the First World War a U-boat touched briefly at Newport, and without further ado began the march home. Lieutenant Commander Rose sank a great number of steamers near the Nantucket lightship. Earlier, the Deutschland had been at Baltimore as a merchant submarine, and Captain König gladly made a second trip across the “great pond.” And at the end of the war, large underwater cruisers operated along the U.S. coast. Why shouldn’t we now be able to do the same?

[After sinking the British freighter Cyclops, off the Canadian coast near Halifax.]

Our first hit had struck home, and we were in the best of moods as we headed for New York Harbor to reach our position at the appointed time.

A beautiful night with a new moon. The brightly glimmering lights of the metropolis lay before us. There was certainly no blackout here. The lights were burning just as they had in peacetime, and we could clearly make out the lights of New York’s Long Island suburbs.

Slowly we pushed closer toward the coast, and our plumb showed a water depth of only a few meters. An emergency dive was no longer possible. If we were to be suddenly surprised by enemy naval forces, our most important defense—submerging—would be denied us. But what did we care about that now? Impudence reigned.

It was a wonderfully intoxicating feeling to stand there with the dark shadows of the coast before us, where a row of lights ranged along the seafront like a glimmering string of pearls, with now and then the headlights of a car flitting by. A few of the bigger lights were certainly hotels, and then behind them we saw the bright glow in the sky that only a city of millions gives off. Years ago, as a cadet, I stood at the top of the Empire State Building and felt the pulse of this mega-city work its way into me. Now I was seeing it again for the first time, knowing that this time victory was all mine.

I can’t really describe the feeling with words, but it was incredibly beautiful, magnificent, and I’d have given a kingdom for such a moment, if I’d had one to give. We were the first to stand here, and for the first time in this war a German soldier was looking at American shores. Everyone on board knew that we had been called upon to strike the first blow here, and we were all animated by an irrepressible urge to hit as hard as possible, since this had to be a powerful opening for a new combat sector in this decisive war.

We encountered a group of trawlers, and off Sandy Hook we saw the tugs and pilot boats that stay there. Everything seemed as if it were peacetime. No one had any idea that the dark shadow avoiding all other vessels was a German submarine scouting out its position at the entrance to New York.

We had seen enough, and now lurked somewhat farther out for our prey. The hour of the “Drumbeat” had arrived, and the dance could begin. The Commander of Submarines was sitting over in France at his command post, his thoughts always with us, his U-boat men, waiting for the first dispatch from America. He wouldn’t have to wait long. That very night we sank our first tanker off New York.

I was standing on the bridge with Lieutenant Hoffmann, who, as Schneider’s successor, was making his first trip as chief petty officer, and observed a large, modern motor tanker approaching us. It was heavily laden, and had just left New York Harbor. Here, where it considered itself clear of its own minefield, it increased speed and headed for the Nantucket lightship, from which it would then continue its trip to England. It would reach neither. A strong explosion jolted it midship. A tall column of fire shot up, eerily illuminating the night sky. When the column collapsed on itself, a ghastly mushroom cloud, smoky and black, stood over the ship, which now lay listing heavily. The masts had buckled and the antennas snapped. Its distress call could only be transmitted weakly, yet our diligent radio operators were able to pick it up. “The tanker Norness has hit a mine south of Long Island.”

Aha! It seemed that no one here believed in German U-boats! Then another explosion was heard. This time it took the hit aft in the engine room. It quickly sank deeper, till the stern was touching ground. The prow was sticking 30 meters straight up out of the water, which was very calm. Were they still mistaking German torpedoes for mines?

. . . On board we were proud and happy about the kickoff, and laughed at what fools the New Yorkers had made of themselves.
Resource 12 - Tanker Exploding from Torpedo Strike

Lone Coast Guardsman Put FBI on Trail of Saboteurs

By Lewis Wood

WASHINGTON, July 15—The discovery of the daring saboteur invasion of this country came when a solitary young Coast Guardsman on the Long Island shore saw two Germans emerging from the sea at midnight and another standing on the beach, the

United States Coast Guard revealed today in a graphic story of the incident.

The man in the water were in bathing suits, apparently landing at Amagansett from a U-boat, seen slowly through the fog and whose engines were heard roaring.

The 21-year-old Coast Guardsman, John C. Cullen, second class, was threatened with death by one of the Nazis in a bathing suit, who offered him a bribe of $50. But almost immediately, the young Coast Guardsman "accepted" the bribe, only to report the incident at once to his superior. Later Cullen found that he had been short-changed by $10.

(Vice Admiral R. E. Waesche, Coast Guard commandant, promoted Cullen to conservant to-night, according to The Associated Press.)
Lone Coast Guardsman Put FBI on Trail of Saboteurs

Continued From Page One

Cullen left the station at midnight for the picket post that night. The weather was willy-nilly poor. He had covered only 200 yards when he saw three men. One of them was in civilian clothes and the other two were in hunting suits. The man who was dressed was on the sly. The other two were in water up to their knees.

Cullen called out, "What the devil is this?"

Nobody answered. The man on the boat answered. Cullen reached for a flashlight. 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Resource IS - Turn Out the Lights

Wabash Appliance Corp, Blackout Units for Blackout Lighting, [ca. 1942-1945]. [Glass]. Museum of World War II, Boston
Resource 15 - Turn Out the Lights

Resource 16 - Air Warden Service

What can you tell an 8-year-old?

ANOTHER REASON TO “DO MORE THAN EVER BEFORE”

He’s eight years old, your boy — with a dime to spend, and it burns a hole in his pocket. “Buy a war stamp,” you tell him. And, because he’s only eight —

“Why?” he asks.

What will you say to your eight-year-old? Can you tell him how priests, mauled and maimed by Nazis, lie in their blood-stained vestments? Can you tell him of a woman’s outcry in the night? Of old men garroted? . . . Hardly. You can’t talk like that to an eight-year-old.

But something — you’ve got to say something. You’ve got to tell him in words that are true and simple. A little story — no bigger than an eight-year-old.

What would his school be like in Poland now? How would he feel, each day, each hour, wearing a gas-mask against the unexpected terror? . . . How about his breakfast, if he were in China; or prayers spoken in fright, while an enemy raps at the door?

Even then, your boy might not grasp it. At home there is food enough, and school in clean clothes, and prayer without fear. It has never been otherwise. . . . So, bewildered, he asks a final question:

“Dad, if you only had a dime to spend, what would you do?”

What is your answer — now — with more than a dime to spend? Buy more Bonds than ever before! And keep them — for him!

The United States Treasury considers the Fifth War Loan the most urgent of the whole war. The need is greater, and our response must be greater. Invest now — generously, to the limit — in the best and safest investment in the world!

BUY DOUBLE WHAT YOU DID BEFORE

Resource 18 - “New York at War” Parade

500,000 Marchers Demonstrate America’s Fighting Spirit in Nation’s Greatest Parade, June 13, 1942.
Photograph. National Archives, 208-MO-[Box 121]-A-2374.
The Port of New York: REAR ECHelon TO THE WARFRONT

Military Training
[WAVES color guard]. Courtesy of Lehman College, CUNY. Special Collections, Leonard Lief Library (Bronx, New York).
Resource Unit J, AS - Maritime Commission Training Station

United States Maritime Commission, [Merchant Marine cadets at the oars of a lifeboat]. National Archives (357-G-box 6-folder 105-2874).
Resource Unit J, A9 - U.S. Coast Guard Training Station

United States Coast Guard, [Knot-tying lesson]. National Archives (26-G-142-F).
United States Coast Guard, [Helicopter rescuing a man from the waters of Jamaica Bay]. New-York Historical Society.
The Port of New York:
REAR ECHelon TO THE WARFRONT
Military Logistics
Resource Unit J, B1 - Camp Shanks & Camp Kilmer

Resource Unit J, B6 - Caven Point – Claremont Terminal

United States Coast Guard, [Explosives Loading Detail]. Courtesy of Captain James McNamara.
Resource Unit J, B7 - Brooklyn Army Terminal

Resource Unit J, B8 - Bush Terminal & Staten Island Terminal

[Loading condensed milk]. Courtesy of Captain James McNamara.
Resource Unit J, B9 - Port Johnston Terminal

The Port of New York: REAR ECHELON TO THE WARFRONT
Defending New York City
Resource Unit J, C3 - Eastern Sea Frontier HQ

Resource Unit J, C4 - Ellis Island Detention and Deportation Center

Signal Corps United States Army, Bugler in field uniform and light pack, 1941. National Archives (111-SC-118985).
Resource Unit J, C6 - Harbor Security Patrols

Resource Unit J, C7 - Fort Hamilton

Signal Corps United States Army, [Mobile searchlight]. NPS/Gateway NRA Museum Collection.
Resource Unit J, C8 - Fort Wadsworth

Resource Unit J, C9 - Tottenville Minesweeper Base

Resource Unit J, C10 - Fort Hancock & Fort Tilden

Battery Harris firing. NPS/Gateway NRA Museum Collection.
The Port of New York: REAR ECHELON TO THE WARFRONT

War Industries

Resource J1 - The Port of New York - War Industries (Category D)
 todd shipbuilding company (erie basin) 
 july 21st, 1941

resource unit j, d1 - shipbuilding & repair
official u.s. navy photograph, [aerial view of todd shipyard, brooklyn], 1941. national archives (80-cf-uts 4 #6).
Resource Unit J, D3 - Precision Instruments

Resource Unit J, D4 - Communication Equipment

Thanks to penicillin . . . he will come home! Pfizer, Inc. Archives.
Resource Unit J, D8 - Uniforms

Resource Unit J, D9 - Training Aids

Signal Corps United States Army, [Special effects artist at work]. Museum of the Moving Image.
Resource Unit J, D10 - Aircraft & Aviation

The Arsenal of Democracy

Kenneth T. Jackson

The industrial achievement of the United States in World War II was phenomenal by any measure. In 1940, when President Roosevelt issued a call for the production of 50,000 airplanes per year, it was widely felt to be a pipedream. Yet by 1944, American factories were producing almost 100,000 airplanes per year—about twice as many as both Germany and Japan together, and almost as many as the rest of the world combined. Statistics for jeeps, artillery pieces, self-propelled guns, oil, aluminum, and bombs were equally dramatic. The nation-produced so many trucks and shoes that it shared its resources with the British Army and the Red Army, both of which desperately needed them. Meanwhile, America’s shipyards produced so many vessels that by the end of the conflict, the United States Navy was not only larger than that of any other nation, but it was larger and more powerful than all other navies in the world combined.

While World War II helped end the Great Depression of the 1930s by providing jobs for the unemployed, New York was slower to come out of the crisis than other industrial cities, and it received smaller war contracts than other places. In part, this reflected the federal policy of favoring big companies because they could ramp up war production faster than smaller companies could. The degree of concentration was startling. Through the summer of 1942, the largest 100 firms in America had received 73 percent of the war contracts by dollar value. But Gotham’s 27,000 factories, ever small, averaged only fifteen employees each, nothing like General Motors, Ford, and the Chrysler Corporation. And New York companies typically were not oriented to the production of tanks, rifles, boots, artillery, airplanes, jeeps, trucks, armored personnel carriers, and other major instruments of war. Not surprisingly, Detroit received approximately six times the per capita volume of contracts as New York did, and Newark, San Francisco, Cleveland, and Los Angeles garnered four times as much as Gotham. As a result, New York still had an unemployment crisis as late as 1942, when a special delegation went to Washington to convince federal officials to spend more money in the nation’s largest city.

With the delegation’s success in Washington, New York’s industry grew rapidly. By 1944, there were a record 1.86 million people in manufacturing jobs in the city, of which 700,000 were war-related; this was at a time when one million men from the area were in the armed forces. The year before, almost 300 new industrial plants opened in New York between January and April. The products turned out in the city’s factories were wide-ranging: airplane parts, metal products, spun glass fibers, optical lenses and prisms, dehydrated foods, bombs, canvas goods, tents, tarpaulins, haversacks, leggings, mattress covers, powder bags, bandages, and life preservers. The Canal Street area was covered with small electrical and metal shops, many of which contracted with the War Department.

The Brooklyn Navy Yard was the busiest such facility in the world. With more than 75,000 employees (versus over 55,000 at the Philadelphia Navy Yard or more than 20,000 at the Wilmington Shipyard) working seven days a week and around the clock between 1942 and 1945, the Yard was a world unto itself. Its 290 acres contained seven huge dry docks, forty-seven mobile cranes on tracks, eight piers, two colossal steel shipways, two 1,200-foot-long graving docks, foundries, machine shops, warehouses, a power plant, and a hospital. It was crisscrossed by nineteen miles of paved streets and thirty miles of rails. Pier G was home to the Hammerhead, the largest crane in the world at the time. And just outside the gates were more than eighty supporting factories, which together reduced the amount of materials that needed to be transported there.

The Navy Yard was the foremost builder of battleships in the world, and it produced more of them than Japan during World War II. Warships built at other facilities were frequently brought to the Brooklyn Navy Yard to be fitted with guns. More than 5,000 other ships were repaired at the yard during World War II, including the Royal Navy battleship HMS Malaya, which was refitted in Brooklyn to relieve the pressure on British shipyards.

The Brooklyn Navy Yard was but one of forty shipbuilding and ship-repair facilities in the city. Bethlehem Steel’s Staten Island yard built forty-seven destroyers, seventy-five landing craft, five cargo ships, and three ocean-going tugs during the war. Todd Shipyards in Brooklyn’s Erie Basin had 19,617 employees in 1943, occupied mainly with building and repairing destroyers. They reputedly could take a vessel that had been badly damaged by a German torpedo and put it back in service in a matter of days. Over the course of the war, Todd repaired and refitted some 3,000 vessels, and built twenty-four landing craft of the type which took American soldiers to the beaches of Normandy on D-Day.

Other New York factories were equally busy with war work. Inside a converted ice plant on Marcy Avenue in Brooklyn, Pfizer—a Brooklyn company founded by two German immigrants in 1849—built the first factory anywhere to mass-produce the world’s first life-saving antibiotic, penicillin. Having beaten other companies in finding a way to mass produce the brand-new drug, Pfizer bought the ice plant on September 20, 1943, and quickly converted the factory into the first penicillin factory in the world. Amazingly, within three months of the plant’s opening on March 1, 1944, it produced most of the penicillin to go ashore with American troops on D-Day, June 6, 1944. By that date, American penicillin production was 100 billion units per month, and Pfizer was making more than 50 percent of it. An advertisement of the time said, “American military men and women at the center of a line of civilians. Beneath them, a caption read: “These are alive today . . . because of PENICILLIN.”

The Carl L. Norden Company developed and manufactured the top-secret Norden bombsight for the Army Air Forces, which needed them for bombardiers over Germany and Japan. The Norden company had its headquarters and its major production

Continued on the following page
Continued from the previous page

facility at 80 Lafayette Street in Manhattan, and an additional
factory at 50 Varick Street. Meanwhile, the Sperry Gyroscope
Company on the Brooklyn side of the Manhattan Bridge and the
Ford Instruments Company in Long Island City were producing
other devices to help naval gunnery officers adjust their aim to
control for the tossing of the sea.

In Queens, the Steinway Piano Company was manufacturing gliders
on behalf of General Aircraft Corporation. On D-Day, they were
towed behind regular aircraft and then cut loose over the drop
zones in France to take airborne assault troops behind enemy lines.
Aircraft parts were made in Long Island City, and the Aluminum
Corporation of America built a 101-acre, 11 million-square-foot plant
along Maspeth Creek that employed 10,000 workers and produced
millions of tons of aluminum.

The city’s garment industry, long the center of American clothing
manufacture, produced a substantial number of military uniforms.
The Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America negotiated for
Army and Navy contracts to be dispersed among its many union
shops in different cities, but New York was assured that its 50,000
metropolitan-area members would have work. A contract for
1.22 million overcoats (valued at $2.8 million) was issued in 1942.
New York and Philadelphia shared a contract for 100,000 Navy
uniforms, and the Army gave contracts for 125,000 garments
to shops in Brooklyn and Manhattan. The United States Naval
Clothing Depot, at Third Avenue and 29th Street in Brooklyn, was
among the largest and most sophisticated clothing production
and distribution plants in the world. Within its walls, over 1,000
employees manufactured, packaged, and shipped all the white twill
and blue flannel uniforms and auxiliary garments that were worn by
the sailors of the entire United States Navy.

In the New York area, heavy industry was located in the suburbs
rather than in the city itself. Long Island in particular had been
important in aviation history from the time the Wright Brothers first
demonstrated the possibility of controlled flight. Republic Aircraft’s
Farmingdale plant made more than 15,000 P-47 Thunderbolt
fighters, many of which provided air support above Allied armies
in Europe. Similarly, Grumman Aircraft in Bethpage was the major
production center for the Navy’s Hellcat fighter planes and Avenger
torpedo bombers. And in New Jersey, the Curtiss-Wright Company
made aircraft engines and propellers in Caldwell and Paterson.

Many of the metropolitan area’s contributions to Allied victory
were intellectual and psychological rather than physical. The city’s
media prowess was tapped in the service of the war effort. From
the former Paramount Studios lot in Astoria, Queens, the Army
Pictorial Service made military training films and instructed combat
cameramen and photographers. At its peak it had both military
and civilian employees, including famous New York and Hollywood
filmmakers, the most renowned of whom was probably John
Huston, director of The Maltese Falcon. Particularly moving was
the story of Harold Russell, a demolition expert who lost his hands.
To inspire other maimed soldiers, he was the focus of a film made
in Queens, called Diary of a Sergeant. Russell later became better
known when he starred in the 1946 Hollywood film The Best Years
of Our Lives.

But New York’s most important contribution to the war effort
remained a secret until long after the final surrender. The
development of the atomic bomb began in the Pupin Physics
Laboratories of Columbia University, where Leo Szilard and Nobel
laureate Enrico Fermi, among others, began experimenting with
nuclear fission. The early effort employed a group of physicists
at Columbia, while members of the football team helped move
100-pound packs of uranium. After 1942, the bomb’s production
was overseen by the Army Corps of Engineers. The Corps named
the project the Manhattan Engineer District, believing that
following the convention of naming engineering commands for
the city in which they were headquartered would avert suspicion.
Eventually, even as it moved across the country, the entire
undertaking would come to be known as simply the Manhattan
Project. Its research team moved to the University of Chicago
and then to Oak Ridge, Tennessee, and Hanford, Washington. In
Los Alamos, New Mexico, the final development of the weapon
occurred, headed by J. Robert Oppenheimer, who had grown up at
155 Riverside Drive on the Upper West Side.