How did service in the Korean War shape views of discrimination?



Members of the 2nd Inf. Div. north of the Chongchon River. Sfc. Major Cleveland, weapons squad leader, points out Communist-led North Korean position to his machine gun crew in 1950. National Archives

Supporting Questions

- 1. What historical examples exist that reflect integration and segregation among servicemen/women?
- 2. In what ways did service in segregated and integrated units contribute to servicemen/women's views of discrimination?
- 3. How did Korean War veterans from underrepresented groups describe their service experiences related to discrimination?









Out	of the Shado	ows: Expe	eriences of Underrepresented Servicer	men and Servicewomen
Compelling Question	How did service in the Korean War shape views of discrimination?			
Standards and Practices	 D2.His.1.9-12. Evaluate how historical events and developments were shaped by unique circumstances of time and place as well as broader historical contexts. D2.His.2.9-12. Analyze change and continuity in historical eras. D2.His.3.9-12. Use questions generated about individuals and groups to assess how the significance of their actions changes over time and is shaped by the historical context. D2.His.4.9-12. Analyze complex and interacting factors that influenced the perspectives of people during different historical eras. D2.His.5.9-12. Analyze how historical contexts shaped and continue to shape people's perspectives. D2.His.17.9-12. Integrate evidence from multiple relevant historical sources and interpretations into a reasoned argument about the past. 			
Staging the Question	Listen to <i>Dealing with Racist Patients and Prisoners of War</i> and read the transcript of Oneida Miller-Stuart's experiences as a U.S. Army Nurse during World War II. *Prior to listening/reading, see important note on page 3			
Supporting Question 1		Supporting Question 2	Supporting Question 3	
What historical examples exist that reflect integration and segregation among servicemen/women?			In what ways did service in segregated and integrated units contribute to servicemen/women's views of discrimination?	How did Korean War veterans from underrepresented groups describe their service experiences related to discrimination?
Formative Pe	erformance Ta	sk	Formative Performance Task	Formative Performance Task
Identify and describe examples of integration and segregation in major wars in the United States.		major	Using a Venn Diagram, analyze Korean War veteran interviews to determine similarities and differences in their experiences.	Develop a thesis statement (claim) that is descriptive of the experiences of discrimination of Korean War veterans.
Featured Sources			Featured Sources	Featured Sources
Source A: <u>Robert Gould Shaw Memorial</u> Source B: <u>Executive Order 9981,</u> <u>Desegregating the Military</u> Source C: <u>African American Service and</u> <u>Racial Integration in the U.S. Military</u>		981, Y vice and	Source A: <u>John Gragg*</u> Source B: <u>Diana Kathleen Cattani</u> Source C: <u>Rudolph Valentine Archer</u>	Source A: <u>Roy Orville Hawthorne</u> Source B: <u>Willard Maktima</u> Source C: <u>Beverly Lawrence Dunjill</u>
Summative Performance Task	Argument		ce in the Korean War shape views of discrim at supports or refutes the notion that service nation.	-
	Extension	Analyze	demographic data of the United States arme	ed forces for 2017–2022.
Taking Informed Action	Students can contribute to the <u>Library of Congress Veterans History Project</u> by interviewing veterans in their community, particularly veterans from underrepresented groups. In addition, we encourage students to add a veteran profile to <u>The 22</u> , a Korean War veteran registry of the Korean War Legacy Foundation.			









Inquiry Description

Out of the Shadows seeks to guide students to an understanding of the experiences of underrepresented groups of servicemen and servicewomen. In particular, the focus is placed on underrepresented groups of Korean War Veterans, including Hispanics, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, and women. Listening to the voices of select veterans, students will gain new knowledge related to the history of discrimination in American society - particularly in the U.S. military. Students will observe change over time and offer analysis by considering prior knowledge of racial inequalities in the United States.

Out of the Shadows employs scaffolded learning, as each supporting question and formative task builds students' ability to offer thoughtful, evidence-based opinions that answer the compelling question. Therefore, three to five 40-minute class periods are recommended. Teachers may adjust times based on student needs. In addition, given the nature of the summative performance task, teachers may need to determine whether the writing will take place in the classroom, at home, or both. To engage all learners, attention is given to each of the four language domains: reading, listening, writing, and speaking. Further, the materials in *Out of the Shadows* can be modified to accommodate learner needs that adhere to 504 plans and student individualized education programs.

Structure of the Inquiry

Focus on the compelling question "How did service in the Korean War shape views of discrimination?" requires students to consider three supporting questions. Each supporting question includes a set of featured sources that help students develop an informed response. Further, to assess understanding, each supporting question includes a formative performance task. The inquiry builds to a summative performance task and offers ways for teachers and students to extend their learning by taking informed action.

For each interview transcription, "I" represents the Interviewer. Capital letters that follow represent the first name of the veteran.

Staging the Compelling Question

We recommend staging the compelling question by having students listen to an audio clip of an interview of Oneida Miller-Stuart, an African American World War II Army nurse. The transcript of the interview should be used in conjunction with the audio. Teachers might ask students to discuss the extent to which Oneida Miller-Stuart was affected by discrimination.

*While telling her story, Oneida Miller-Stuart uses racially charged language that must be previewed by teachers. The word is stricken and replaced in the interview transcription but remains part of her oral history. KWLF and C3 Teachers do not condone use of the word and believe teachers must do their due diligence (e.g., contact school administration, parents, etc.) before leading this inquiry. Redaction and replacement are based on guidance from The National Archives Records Administration: https://www.archives.gov/research/catalog/lcdrg/appendix/black-person

Supporting Question 1

The first supporting question, "What historical examples exist that reflect integration and segregation among servicemen/women?" asks students to consider inequalities experienced by minority groups in the United States armed forces. The formative task calls for students to consider the history of segregation and integration in the U.S. military. Students will identify and describe examples of segregation and integration using the Robert Gould Shaw Memorial, the National Archives article of President Harry Truman's 1948 Executive Order 9981, and Dr. Paul-Thomas Ferguson's history of African American segregation and integration.









Supporting Question 2

The second supporting question, "In what ways did service in segregated and integrated units contribute to servicemen/women's views of discrimination?" invites students to consider the perspectives of Korean War veterans. The video clips focus on the personal experiences of John Gragg*, Diana Kathleen Cattani, and Rudolph Valentine Archer related to service in segregated and/or integrated military units. Using a triple-Venn diagram, the second performative task requires students to analyze and evaluate how service in integrated and/or segregated units contributed to their experiences. The Venn Diagram allows students to distinguish the unique and similar experiences of the veteran sources.

*While telling his story, John Gragg uses racially charged language that must be previewed by teachers. The word is stricken and replaced in the interview transcription but remains part of his oral history. KWLF and C3 Teachers do not condone use of the word and believe teachers must do their due diligence (e.g., contact school administration, parents, etc.) before leading this inquiry. Redaction and replacement are based on guidance from The National Archives Records Administration: https://www.archives.gov/research/catalog/lcdrg/appendix/black-person

Supporting Question 3

The third supporting question, "How did Korean War veterans from underrepresented groups describe their service experiences related to discrimination?" helps students gain further understanding of the experiences of Korean War veterans. Where the second supporting question guides students to consider how veteran experiences contributed to their views of discrimination, supporting question three asks students to listen to the experiences of Roy Orville Hawthorne, Willard Maktima, and Beverly Lawrence Dunjill with a focus on the personal discrimination they experienced. The third performative task requires students to develop a complex thesis statement that is descriptive of the experiences of the Korean War veterans in focus.

Summative Performance Task

At this stage in the inquiry, students have examined the history of segregation and integration in the U.S. military. In addition, they have considered the perspectives of discrimination held by Korean War veterans. Therefore, students should be able to develop an argument - an informed, evidence-based opinion, that addresses the compelling question. This task requires students demonstrate understanding by writing a classical argument essay that responds to the compelling question "Did service in the Korean War shape views of discrimination?"

The Classical Argument Essay should include the following:

- Introduction
- Context/Background of the topic
- Claim/Stance and the argument
- Positive and/or negative proofs of support
- Conclusion/Call to Action

Students can extend their understanding by exploring published U.S. military demographic data. The demographic data posted at Militaryonesource.mil provides demographic data for all branches of the U.S. military from 2017 through 2022.

Students can Take Informed Action by contributing to the Library of Congress Veterans History Project. Interviews of any veteran from any war, but particularly veterans from underrepresented groups from the Korean War and the Vietnam War.

In addition, we invite students to contribute a Korean War veteran profile to The 22, a Korean War veteran registry of the Korean War Legacy Foundation.









Staging the Question	
Featured Source	Transcript of Oneida Miller Stuart interview: Dealing with racist patients and prisoners of war.

- O: We treated all the soldiers.
- I: Oh, you did?
- O: Yes. We were called [Black person] many a time. And don't put your hands on me [Black person]. And I won't take that blood [Black person]. But, uh, you just kept on 'goin.
- I: Where there any white soldiers that treated you halfway decently?
- O: Oh yes, there were a lot of them, there were a lot of them.
- I: How many patients would you estimate were at Nichols General Hospital during that period?
- O: Oh, 500 or more? I'm just estimating cuz I really don't know.
- I: So, there'd be the 30 black nurses and approximately how many white nurses?
- O: Oh, over 100 or more.
- I: So, you were all mixed in together
- O: We were all mixed together
- I: So, a white nurse and black nurse would have certain responsibilities on the same ward?
- O: Yes, we'd do the same things. We, uh, at one time I almost got to be head nurse on one of the units for the paraplegics, but I couldn't handle it because, uh, when I went up for orientation, they gave me the dressings to do for that morning, so I, uh, started with my little cart down the ward and they had so many pressure sores, and so many problems that you had to deal with that I was kinda slow my first day. And I guess it must have been almost lunch time when I got to one soldier and then he sounded off, "Don't put your hands on me [Black person]!" And, it bothered me to point that where I just left everything and I went up to talk to the head nurse and she said, "Oh, don't pay any attention to him." But he continued and they sent him to the guardhouse, in Vietnam, and they brought him back and he still said [Black person], it didn't make any difference, he couldn't move. But he didn't want me to touch him. And I said, I don't think I'll fit in up here very well, I think I'd like to go back to my medical surgical unit and so they let me go back.
- I: Of the 500 patients, how many black soldiers were in the barracks, if any?
- O: Very little, very few, very few. I remember on the surgical unit where I was working, I might have had two or three blacks.
- I: Do you remember what units they were from, if at all?
- O: No
- I: I know there was the 92nd Division was one all black division.









- O: No. There were a lot of prisoners of war down there at Nichols Gen hospital, from Germany. At camp McCoy they were from Korea and Japan. We had no, we took care of them, but they never talked to us. The Koreans were real nice though, friendly. They always grinned at ya. And, uh, gave you little pictures that they painted, they were good at, in art. But down in Nichols, the majority of patients were Germans and Americans.
- I: Oh, some American prisoners too?
- O: Well, they weren't prisoners, the patients were at Nichols. The prisoners there from Germany, when they would get back on their feet, they would be put out to work at the complex there, painting and carpentry, that sort of thing.





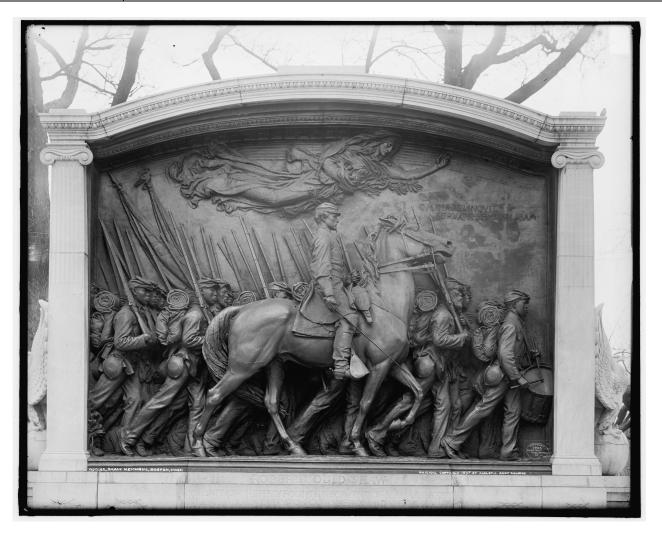




Supporting Question 1

Featured Source

Source A: Shaw Memorial, Boston, Mass



Reference

Saint-Gaudens, A., Detroit Publishing Co, C. C. & Detroit Publishing Co, P. (ca. 1906) *Shaw Memorial, Boston, Mass.* United States Boston Massachusetts, ca. 1906. [Photograph] Retrieved from the Library of Congress, <u>https://www.loc.gov/item/2016810347/</u>.

54th Massachusetts Regiment

Following the Emancipation Proclamation in January 1863, President Abraham Lincoln called for the raising of Black regiments. Massachusetts Governor John Andrew quickly answered Lincoln's call and began forming the 54th Massachusetts Volunteer Infantry Regiment, one of the first Black regiments to serve in the U.S. Civil War. Black men from across the city, state, country, and even other nations, traveled to Boston to join this historic regiment. Through their heroic, yet tragic, assault on Battery Wagner, South Carolina in July 1863, the 54th helped inspire the enlistment of more than 180,000 Black soldiers...a boost in morale and manpower that Lincoln recognized as essential to the victory of the United States and the destruction of slavery throughout the country.

Reference

National Park Service. 54th Massachusetts Regiment. U.S. Department of the Interior. https://www.nps.gov/articles/54thmassachusetts-regiment.htm









Supporting Question 1		
Featured Source	Source B: Executive Order 9981, Desegregating the Military	

Executive Order 9981, Desegregating the Military

Charles Young Buffalo Soldiers National Monument

On July 26, 1948, President Harry Truman signed Executive Order 9981, creating the President's Committee on Equality of Treatment and Opportunity in the Armed Services. The order mandated the desegregation of U.S. military. The first point in the executive order states "It is hereby declared to be the policy of the President that there shall be equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services without regard to race, color, religion or national origin. The policy shall be put into effect as rapidly as possible, having due regard to the time required to effectuate any necessary changes without impairing efficiency or morale."

Truman's order received pushback from politicians, generals, and friends, who opposed an integrated military. Truman wrote in response to his detractors, "I am asking for equality of opportunity for all human beings, and as long as I stay here, I am going to continue that fight."

W. Stuart Symington, the first Secretary of the Air Force, supported President Truman's initiative, which resulted in the Air Force being the first fully integrated branch of the military. By December 1949, the Air Force reported that the number of integrated units had doubled between June and August 1949. The Air Force's desegregation measures represented the "swiftest and most amazing upset of racial policy in the history of the U.S. military," according to Ebony magazine. At many bases in the Jim Crow South, the Air Force ignored local segregation, laws, operating integrated housing, schools, stores, and recreation facilities for the airmen and their families.

Secretary of the Navy James V. Forrestal declared "Effective immediately, all restrictions governing the types of assignments for which Negro naval personnel are eligible are hereby lifted. In the utilization of housing, messing and other facilities, no special or unusual provisions will be made for the accommodations of the Negroes."

Despite Forrestal's perspective, there was a vast difference between Navy policy and practice. Most Blacks in the Navy remained stewards and messmen. In 1949, Wesley A. Brown became the first African American to graduate from the Naval Academy in Annapolis, Maryland. Upon his graduation, he was the first Black office in the Navy.

The Army was reluctant to enact Executive Order 9981. The segregated Buffalo Soldiers had fought courageously since their establishment in 1866. Nevertheless, Army brass felt that integration of units would lead to a decline in national security. My March of 1950, the U.S. Army agreed to integration across the entire service, but the last segregated army units were not dissolved until 1954. The enlistment quota on African Americans that originally capped Black enlistment at 10 percent was abolished in 1950, when the Army also agreed that all jobs within would be opened based on qualifications and not race. These reforms took place at the onset of the Korean War, a conflict that effectively accelerated integration in the Army. The Twenty-fourth Infantry, the last of the segregated Buffalo Soldiers regiments, was inactivated on October 1, 1951, and its soldiers were reassigned to integrated units.

The United States Marine Corps defended its segregated practices at the time of Truman's 1948 executive order. During World War II, the Marine Corps had trained Black Marines at Montfort Point, a segregated facility in North Carolina. After the war, demobilization led to a dramatic reduction in the Marine Corps. In 1947, Black Marines were forced to choose retirement or to accept the role of steward. Even through change was slow in the Marine Corps, Black and White recruits began training together in 1949. In 1952, the Marine Corps gradually integrated units to offset losses in the Korean War.

Reference

Charles Young Buffalo Soldiers National Monument. (2023, August 21). *Executive Order 9981, desegregating the military*. National Park Service. <u>https://www.nps.gov/articles/000/executive-order-9981.htm</u>









Supporting Question	1
Featured Source	Source C: African American Service and Racial Integration in the U.S. Military

African American Service and Racial Integration in the U.S. Military

By Dr. Paul-Thomas Ferguson, Joint Munitions Command

Though full integration of the U.S. military was not established until the middle of the 20th century, African Americans have served in American conflicts since before the United States was a free nation. Over time, the presence of black soldiers, sailors, regiments, and squadrons would grow until the value and importance of African American servicemen and women could no longer be ignored by leaders bent on resisting change.

Formal African American service in the American military dates from the Revolutionary War. Many freemen and some slaves already served in Norther colonial militias to protect their homes during conflicts with indigenous tribes. The service numbers rose in 1770 in response to the death of Crispus Attucks, an African American believed to be the first casualty at the Boston massacre. While George Washington was initially reluctant to recruit black soldiers, military necessity later made him relent.

The most prominent African American soldiers in the American Revolution served in the 1st Rhode Island Regiment, which recruited enough black and native American soldiers to from more than half of its 225-man total. It was the only regiment in the Continental Army to have segregated units. The 1st Rhode Island Regiment had its most noteworthy action protecting the Colonial withdrawal from Aquidneck Island during the Battle of Rhode Island (August 1778). Southern colonies, fearing that arming slaves would lead to revolts, opposed the use of slaves in Patriot militia, though some would serve in isolated instances. The British, however, recruited heavily from the South, promising freedom to any slave who fought for the Loyalist cause. Consequently, while an estimated 9,000 black soldiers and sailors fought for the Continental Army, nearly 20,000 fought for the British.

After the Revolutionary War, African Americans were pushed out of military service. The Federal Militia Acts of 1792 specifically prohibited black service in the U.S. Army. As a result, few African Americans participated on the side of the United States during the War of 1812. Only Louisiana was allowed to have separate black units in that conflict. Due to a manpower shortage, the U.S. Navy accepted free black recruits in that conflict, making up 15% to 20% of the Navy manpower. Many slaves also served in the British Navy in anticipation of gaining their freedom. During the Civil War, the Union formally established and maintained regiments of black soldiers. This became possible in 1862 through the passage of the Confiscation Act, which freed the slaves of rebellious slaveholders, and the Militia Act, which authorized the president to use former slaves as soldiers. President Lincoln was initially reluctant to recruit black soldiers. This changed in January 1863, with the Emancipation Proclamation, declaring freedom for all slaves and Confederate states.

The first black regiments to serve in the Civil War will volunteer units made-up of free black men. In many 1863, the War Department established the Bureau of Colored Troops for the purpose of recruiting from the African American population. Existing volunteer units were converted into United States Colored Troops (USCT) regiments. By the end of the conflict, there were 175 USCT regiments, containing 178,000 enlisted soldiers, approximately 10% of the Union Army. Sixteen USCT soldiers earned the Medal of Honor for their Civil War service. More than 18,000 African American men and three women served in the U.S. Navy, making up 20% of sailors.

Black regiments were formed in every Union state while mostly made-up of African American soldiers, other minorities served, including Native Americans and Asians, while white union officers served as commanders. USCT regiments participated in all aspects of the war effort as infantry, Calvary, artillery, and engineers, but often served as rear action Garrison troops. USCT regiments served heroically at the Battle of Crater (Virginia), the Battle of Chaffin's Farm (Virginia), the Battle of Fort Wagner (South Carolina), and the Battle of Nashville (Tennessee), and were present when the Army of Northern Virginia surrendered at Appomattox. Seven African American sailors and eighteen soldiers received the Medal of Honor for their efforts in the Civil War.









After the war, Congress reorganized the U.S. Army into ten Calvary regiments and forty-five infantry regiments when the Army pared back to twenty-five regiments of infantry in 1869, the four black infantry regiments were consolidated into two. These regiments, the 24th and the 25th, which became known as "Buffalo Soldiers," were posted in the West and Southwest, mainly to Battle Native Americans. Buffalo Soldiers would serve in the United States military for the next 50 years, primarily in the Indian Wars of the 1890s, for which thirteen enlisted men and six officers received the Medal of Honor.

In April 1898, following a period of rising tension over Spanish treatment of native Cubans, the United States declared war on Spain. While the Navy had enough manpower, the army had only 28,000 men in uniform. Enlistees, volunteers, and National Guard units soon added 220,000 soldiers, including five thousand African American men, but only the black troops who fought in the Spanish-American War were the Buffalo Soldiers. The bloodiest and most well-known battle in Cuba was the Battle of San Juan Hill, during which, the most difficult fighting fell to the Buffalo Soldiers, five of whom received the Medal of Honor. These regiments would go on to fight with distinction in the Philippine-American War (1899-1903), Mexico and World War I (1916-1918), and World War II (1944-1945).

Many African Americans joined the U.S. military after the American entry into World War I, but most would not see combat. Of the 200,000 African Americans who served in the regular Army, most did so in support roles within segregated units, while 170,000 never left the United States. There were notable exceptions. The 369th infantry regiment ("Harlem Hellfighters") fought alongside the French Army for six months, for which 171 members of the regiment earned the Legion of Merit. One member of the 369th also received the Medal of Honor, one of only two African American recipients of the award from World War I.

During World War I, African American service in the Navy was restricted to support duties, though ships remained integrated. After the war, the Navy banned black recruitment until 1932. By 1940, the Navy had 4,000 African American sailors, just 2.3% of its total manpower. This number increased to more than 5,000 in early 1942, but black sailors were still relegated to service as stewards, waiters, cooks, and cleaning crew. Black women were not allowed in the Navy until 1945. Even then, only four African American women served in the U.S. Navy during World War II. These were among a maximum quota of 48 African American nurses allowed in all of the U.S. military during the war.

The Marine Corps allowed recruitment of African Americans beginning in June 1942. At first, they received segregated training and served in all black units, though battalions would integrate by the end of World War Two period nearly 8,000 black marines served in the Pacific theater, performing particularly well at the Battle of Saipan (September 1944). After the war, the Marine Corps scaled back, resulting in 2000 remaining African Americans in service.

During World War II, over 2.5 million African Americans registered for the draft and many volunteered, serving prominently in segregated units within the army and Army Air Corps. Notable among these were the Buffalo Soldiers, 93rd Infantry Division, 761st Tank Battalion, 450 Second Anti-Aircraft Battalion, and 332nd Fighter Group (Tuskegee Airmen). In addition, the 6888th Central Postal Directory Battalion became the first entirely African American female unit deployed overseas.

By the end of World War II, 992 black pilots had been trained for duty and more than one million African Americans had served in the U.S. Army and Women's Army Corps. None would receive the Medal of Honor until 1992, when President Bill Clinton honored seven men with the award, all but one of them posthumously.

In late 1945, in response to a study of race policies in the Army, the federal government's Gillem Board made eighteen recommendations for improving the treatment of black soldiers. Although both the Army and the Navy announced policies of integration and equal rights in early 1946, the War Department directed the services to adopt such policies in May, elements within every service resisted integration, leading to a sharp decline in African American enlistment. In response to racial unrest erupting across the country in 1946, President Harry S. Truman formed a committee to study the problem period. In 1947, the Army replaced segregated training programs with integrated courses. The next year, Lieutenant John E. Rudder became the first African American commissioned officer in the U.S. Marine Corps. When Congress received the final directive from the president's Committee on Civil Rights, it refused to act on recommendations to integrate the military. In response, Truman issued Executive Order 9981, directing equal treatment for black service members.









Despite Truman's executive order, military leaders largely refused to adopt new policies. It was not until April 1949, that the services made progress toward integration and equal rights within the military. The impetus came from Defense Secretary Lewis Johnson, who directed the services to adopt Truman's order as official military policy. In response, the Air Force issued a "bill of rights" for black servicemen, the Navy moved to integrate and expand recruitment of African American sailors, and the Marine Corps ended segregation in training.

While the transition from segregation in the military proceeded gradually, integrated units in the Army, Air Force, and Marines were present and fought valiantly during the Korean conflict, with two African American soldiers receiving the Medal of Honor. As a result of rising acceptance and active recruitment, the number of black Marines grew from 1,525 in 1949 to 17,000 in 1953. In 1954, the Army became the last service to fully integrate upon deactivation of the 94th Engineer Battalion.

Though discrimination certainly persisted within the services, the Vietnam War was the first conflict in which white and black soldiers were fully integrated. In addition, the selective use of conscription during the conflict led to a significant rise in African American draftees. In 1967, African Americans made up 11% of the population, but were more than 16% of those who served. This was in spite of the fact that only 29% of black conscripts were approved for service, compared to 63% of white conscripts. In all, 300,000 African Americans served in Vietnam.

Today, the proportion of African American servicemen and women in the Air Force (15%), Army (21%), and Navy (17%) eclipse that of the general population (13.4%), with only the Marine Corps (10%) falling below the average. Among these, more than 13% are commissioned officers who graduated from a service academy, and nearly 70% hold doctorates, speaking to the tremendous progress made over the course of the two-century journey toward racial integration in the U.S. military.

Reference

Ferguson, P. T. (2021, February 23). African American service and racial integration in the U.S. military. U.S. Army. https://www.army.mil/article/243604/african_american_service_and_racial_integration_in_the_u_s_military









Supporting Question 2		
Featured Source	Source A: John Gragg (Interview Transcript)	

- I: Was there a segregation policy?
- J: Yes, they were segregated. The Army, uh, uh, segregation was disbanded in 1948.
- I: '48 or '47?
- J: Nineteen forty-eight. Executive order came out in 1948, that the Army would not be segregated anymore. But the organization dragged they feet. They didn't fulfill it, it didn't actually start 'till the Korean War. You still had Black units and you had White units. Very few units was integrated until the Korean War, that's when they had full integration. When I went to Korea, the only White I had in my unit was a lieutenant, one White lieutenant. He was the company commander. And, what happened back during those days of the segregated Army, 90% of all-Black units was commanded by White officers. And most of those officers was officers getting ready to get kicked out of the service. They couldn't make it in White units, headquarters said we'd put them in charge of this Black company, and if they can't make it, [whistles], their gone. So, normally you got a White officer that was assigned to Black [inaudible] we were the best company there ever were. But we had a dirty, racist White officer. I mean, he was so dirty that when we got ordered to go to Korean, 140 black troops, we got our weapons and our ammunition...now this officer knew that once his feet hit the beach we were going to shoot him. He was going to be dead. So, he started fightin' and runnin' and finally he was able to get relieved and we went to Korea with a young, White, second lieutenant, had never seen a duck before. We knew our jobs; all he did was sign papers and let us run the company. And, he made captain within a year, from second lieutenant to captain based on what we were doing. But most of the Black units that was commanded, now you'd have some units like the Tuskegee Airmen, there were a few other units with Black officers, but for most of the units, even in the 24th Infantry Regiment, all the officers was White. It didn't bother me that much because I came from the South. I came from Arkansas. It was segregated but it wasn't bad like Alabama and Mississippi, nothing like that. No hangings or anything. But there were certain places a Black couldn't go. Uh, a certain way you had to conduct yourself. Like, for instance, on the farm, highly integrated. White farm here, Black farm here, White, Black, and everybody have around 100 to 200 acres, and we got along great. No problem whatsoever. And all of these people own their own farms. So, you got along real good. The only time you had a little problem was when you went into the city, and that would get in with the poor Whites when you'd hear somebody say, "Hey [Black person]!" You didn't hear that out on the country. People were very nice. We got on together. We'd fish together, swim together and all that. But for me, being from the South, it didn't bother me. I was used to it, so the only thing that bothered me was having my commander get out and call me negative names and you couldn't do anything about it. We would sleep in [Japanese] huts, in Yokohama, hardwood floors. You had a big inspection every Saturday morning, I mean spotless inspection, displays laid out, we would take a brush and GI the floor at night, lay out our display, and sleep on the floor that night so we'd be ready for inspection the next morning. A unit commander would come through and the first sergeant with his notebook, taking down notes and everything. Have you ever heard of, talkin' about a "white glove inspection?"
- I: Yeah, yeah.
- J: Okay. He come through with white gloves and he inspect, there was thirty something men in each [inaudible]. And he would inspect, and he couldn't find anything that was negative. If one gig, all the troops couldn't go to town that night. So, if one day he couldn't find anything, so he took a fork, took off the white glove and run the prong between the blade and did that, till the glove turned dark, Gig! And he restricted all of us because of what he had did with that white glove. He couldn't find nothing negative. He fabricated something. So that's the kind of thing you had to put up with a lot of White officers that was in charge of Black troops.
- I: Were you angry?









- J: Not so much at him, but hey, you want to go to town and go dance with the Japanese girls and have a Japanese beer, and you was angry in that respect. But we had gotten conditioned to him mistreating us. We was a very, very good organization. We got presidential commendations in Korea. But that was the type thing you put up with. Most of the young blacks at that time, especially ones from the South, handled it better than Blacks from the North. They hadn't witnessed that type of thing. But for me, and a lot of my comrades from the South, we could handle it, you know. You just had to tough it up and suck it up and go.
- I: Do you know how many African American soldiers served in the Korean War?
- J: I do not. It wasn't like Vietnam. It wasn't that many compared to Vietnam, Iraq. In Vietnam, about 40% of the troops was Black. But in Korea, the only large Black unit was the 24th Infantry Regiment.
- I: Twenty-fourth?
- Twenty-fourth Infantry was an all-Black unit with White officers. Now, that organization, the 24th all-Black Regiment J: of Fairfax received more Congressional Medals of Honor than any organization in Korea. It never made the paper. Didn't nobody know about it until about ten years, it was brought to light that they were the highest decorated organization in Korea. And they deactivated them and put them into White infantry units. All that information and the history of the Black unit was lost unless set aside. So, all of those Congressional Medals of Honor, there were fourteen Congressional Medals of Honor out of the 24th Infantry Regiment. All Black, before they mixed them in with the White units. Nobody knew about it. They did away with the records. And there was once Black sergeant who started the research about twenty years ago. And it came out and it made history. The papers came out, the Ebony magazine had articles on it about the records of the Black soldiers during the Korean War. The other Black unit, you know about the Tuskegee Airmen, troops that trained in Tuskegee, Alabama? Well, every year they'd have a huge write up and comentation on news about the fightin' troops. There was a Black fighter unit, 77th Pursuit Squadron. And they went to Germany, and they was, they didn't want them to fly. The White people said the Blacks couldn't fly planes. So, they finally got a chance to start flying, called the Tuskegee Airmen - about 10,000 of them, including mechanics and all the support troops. And they had a Black general. And they started flying escorts for bombers. And they was flyin' with a P51 Mustang. It was the best plan the Army ever had. They set a record during World War II as the best protector of the bombers during the war. Reason being, White pilots was tryin' try to make a record for themselves, tryin' to see who could shoot down more enemy planes. The Black troops, pilots, escort, they stayed with the bomber. They'd have a long-range bomber. They'd have five or six fighter planes, and they stayed with it. If the enemy came in, they would fight them off and stay with bomber, protect the bomber. Whereas the White they want to see who could get what's call Ace, who could shoot down the most enemy planes. So, they'd leave the bomber, chasing the plane, and the bomber gets shot down. So that's how the Tuskegee airmen got they uh, name, by protecting the bombers. When they started out, all the bomber pilots were White. Nobody wanted a Black guy flying protection for them until they found out, hey, all the White bombers wanted the Tuskegee airmen because they stayed and protected the bombers. And every year there's a, I've talked to, at all of the military bases they have one of the older, a couple of colonels that flew there, and they tell history and, uh, they have movies about the Tuskegee airmen, what they did.
- I: So, you said that the desegregation policy was implemented in 1948?
- J: Executive order was passed by the President in 1948. All units would be integrated. But major units didn't do it. The order was there but they didn't follow through.
- I: So, when you were in Korea in 1950, did you see still the problems?
- J: There wasn't no problem. We were all Black, we got, before I left we got one White troop in my company out of 140. Finally, a few started coming in for replacement. But most of the units were even, at the end of the Korean War, most of the units were still Black. They had mixed up to a certain extent.









Supporting Question 2		
Featured Source	Source B: Diana Kathleen Cattani (Interview Transcript)	

- I: And your duties there were just kind of secretarial, clerical?
- D: Clerical. Absolute clerical, nothing more than that.
- I: That was kind of a disappointment for you?
- D: I was terribly disappointed because I felt underused and kind of abused in a way. I felt as a woman that I was being mistreated, uh, that women were not treated fairly. And to this day, I believe that. I believe that happens in every place in the whole United States. I mean, I know it's a great deal better, but women still earn, what is it now, 69% of whatever it is that men ear doing the same job? So, there's still a very interesting women's rights.
- I: That's probably why you write the President.
- D: That's one of the reasons. One of the reasons. I am, that's not the only one.
- I: Did you try and fight the discharge at all?
- D: No. There was no way to fight it. That was the rule. You were gone. You didn't question. As a matter of fact, we were held in such low esteem that we were told we had to sign a document stating that we would never ask or be buried in the main, um, outside Washington.
- I: Arlington?
- D: Arlington. We would never be buried in Arlington no matter what the circumstance.
- I: Why is that? Because of the chauvinistic uh?
- D: Well, that was my interpretation, yes, that it was chauvinistic, uh. You know, we were trying to do our job.
- I: What was their explanation?
- D: And not all men got, had a gun and were fighting either.
- I: What was their explanation.
- D: They didn't have an explanation. There was no explanation to give.
- I: Wow.
- D: And I thought that was really rather awful.
- I: It was. Very interesting and awful. Have they changed that policy today do you know?
- D: I don't know if that policy's been changed. I do know they treat women differently, that they're allowed to remain on their training. And they let them wear maternity clothes for as long as it is necessary. They help them with childcare, um, and I think that's for the betterment. And, although I worry sometimes about them all being mixed up because I









think they're young and they're kind of foolish because I know I wasn't the smartest person in the world when I was young. And I'm sure every woman can say the same thing, that uh, when they're 18, 19, 20, 21, that timeframe, you're not very worldly. I wasn't worldly.

- I: So, your actual career was shortened because of instance that you don't believe should have caused that.
- D: Absolutely.
- I: But your husband was still in the Air Force?
- D: Yes, he was.
- I: And your background training was in the Air Force. So, you followed him around.
- D: I followed him every time I could, yes.
- I: And it's still that Air Force discipline mentality are with you.
- D: Well, to make it even worse, I started working for the Federal Government, Dept. of Defense, and spent 30 years. I retired from the Federal Government, um.
- I: And your grade was what? G?
- D: When I, 11. I was a GS11.
- I: That's pretty high, isn't it?
- D: Well, it is yes. And, because I didn't have a degree. That was one thing. But I did pass their college entrance examination which was, I was very proud of doing that, um. It wasn't a college entrance. It was a test for college graduates. I want to be more specific than that. It was uh, and I passed it very highly. And then I went to [INAUDIBLE] taking accounting lessons because I, accounting training because that's what I was doing, uh, for the government. I worked in Rochester, NY George Air Force Base and oh, there was um, Air Force Contract Management District in Concord in Detroit. Then it moved and became Dept. of Defense in the old Packard Plant if anybody knows what the old Packard Plant was. And from there, I moved to, because they closed that down, I moved to [INAUDIBLE] town and spent the rest of my career there.
- I: This is after all the Air Force traveling is done?
- D: Yes. Oh, I worked in those other places while, you know, some of it was as the wife of a military member. For instance, Okinawa, I was working Naha Air Base, and we lived on Naha. And at George Air Force Base.
- I: In Okinawa?
- D: George was in California.
- I: Okay.
- D: In a desert. And uh, Clovis, New Mexico um. I was there, but I didn't work at that time. I had too many little babies.









Supporting Question 2		
Featured Source	Source C: Rudolph Valentine Archer (Interview Transcript)	

- I: Tell me um, so, you were in Columbus for the most part until about 1948?
- V: Forty-eight, forty-nine.
- I: Forty-nine. Now, I believe Truman integrated the services
- V: Forty-eight.
- I: In '48.
- V: Um hm.
- I: How did that affect you?
- V: That um, in terms of uh, of segregation, that really brought that home to me. I, you know, my growing up part in the civilian community was in Chicago. And it was not like growing up in Georgia or Mississippi or someplace like that. So, I have a whole different kind of learning thing to get a grip on. It occurred to me when I left this all-black outfit, that was the only kind of military experience that I was aware of. In fact, um, one distinction we briefly mentioned earlier about the white officer corps, when I finished my training, and I went to Lockbourne that was the end of my white officer experience. Our officers were all black. And uh, in my estimation far more professional and gualified in every way than those white officers that I had met prior to that time. Um, and they were good mentors. Some of those guys I met back in those days who um, decided that they would take an interest and teach me some lessons which they did, a lot of them. I still know those guys, those who are still surviving. And we can recall some interesting experiences from those days. Uh, but as far as the integration was concerned, that was my first experience with segregation from a different sense because I was moving from an all-black community that had its own social and political and other kinds of dimensions into an all-white installation where uh, there may have been 2,000 white troops there and three black troops. The black troops who were already serving on those installations were in the um, in Food Service jobs and Motor Pool and were considered unskilled jobs at the time. When I hit, my first assignment was at Bolling Field Headquarters USAF. And when I reported in there, although I'm sure it was well publicized that you're gonna get some black troops coming in here, and probably that they're skilled and qualified people. When I went to, first reported to the flight line, I was told well, I was a sergeant at that time, and I was told that um, well, you can't supervise anybody here. We can't have you supervising any white troops. So, we will have to find something else for you to do until we get a white person who will come in and be over this shop or this position. So, I wound up now being sent off to uh, tech school.









Supporting Question	3
Featured Source	Source A: Roy Orville Hawthorne (Interview Transcript)

- 1: So, how were you treated in the service? Were you treated as an equal? Did you feel any kind of barrier there, any kind of uh, discrimination?
- R: I didn't feel any discrimination. Someone asked um, I think it was uh, when they were filming, uh, Hollywood versus our history, History vs. Hollywood, something of that sort. And they had several code talkers there. And one of the questions was uh, what you asked. Was there any discrimination? And uh, how did you feel when uh, people called you Chief? And so, I remember one of the fellows saying, he said well, at first uh, I didn't like it. I didn't like it. But then he said, when I thought about it a little bit, I thought boy, that's good. He said when I came in, I was just a brave. But now I'm a Chief. We were misunderstood. But uh, we misunderstood our counterparts also.

Um, the uh, the Anglo boys, the quiet boys, uh, had the idea that uh, you know, we were expert uh, bow men, and we could use a bow and arrow and hit the target, bulls eye every time. But the fact was that we had never used bows and arrows. We didn't know anything about them. And so uh, one day

In Oceanside, California near Camp Pendleton, uh, we were out on leave for the evening. And there was a carnival going on. We went to that carnival, uh, a group of us. They were Navajo boys, Navajo Marines and white Marines. And uh, so, uh, the guy there, the place where they had bow and arrows to shoot to get a prize. So, we were standing around looking, and nobody wanted to do that, uh.

And so, some of the white boys kept saying to us, uh, show 'em how to do it, Chief. And uh, then they kind of narrowed in on one particular fella, uh, who later became uh, the uh, the Chairman of the Navajo Tribal Council, uh, which is present today, uh. And uh, so they said to him Chief, pick it up and show 'em how to do it.

And he, course, he didn't know how to do it, uh. So, he picked it up, and that arrow went who knows where. And that's, you know, we were misunderstood in that way, uh. And then on our side, you know, uh, white is right. Not everybody felt that way. But uh you know, you could, you didn't like, cheat or steal or do any of those things, uh.

You lived a decent life. Well, uh, those ideas didn't last very long. I mean, they would dissipate real quickly. And when we found out that our desires and wants and so forth and our failures, uh, were all the same. We were alike in so many ways. So uh,

- I: That was a good, a good life learning experience.
- R: Yes, it was. Now, uh, there probably was some discrimination. But uh, it would usually come from someone who uh, was a little dysfunctional themselves and uh, just came from uh, from a background that would enhance that. Just cause you put on a uniform doesn't mean that you're a good Marine or a good soldier.

You carry over some of the things out of your background uh. But in the uh, in the ghettos or the big city or whatever, uh, with all the hoodlumism going on, and that would carry, you'd find some people like that. And with uh, the Navajos, same thing you just did there.









Supporting Question	3
Featured Source	Source B: Willard Maktima (Interview Transcript)

W: So, after that, you know, we were just about then Korea was getting hot. Korean War as getting hot. So, our squadron was split up. Not only that, but we were sending the Cold War with Russia in the Atlantic Ocean. So, they were anticipating the War to start in Korea.

So, they split our squadron up. So, half of them went to Korea, and our half went to the Atlantic Coast. So, we went down through the Panama Canal and went over to the Atlantic Ocean. And our port there, when we first got to the Atlantic Port, was in Norfolk, Virginia. That was our home port. It was a big old naval base there.

- I: Right. Huge.
- W: Yeah.
- I: Uh, how was the trip by sea? Were you okay? Or did you get seasick?
- W: Well, when I first got on the ship, I thought I was gonna get seasick. But I never did get seasick. I just, for some reason. But all the guys on the ship that came out of boot camp, they all got sick, you know. They were puking over the side. I never did get sick. I don't know why.
- I: I'm glad you were okay.
- W: Yeah.
- I: That can be miserable. I've been seasick. Um, when you got to Norfolk, then that was a completely different uh, part of the country and a different uh, bunch of people than in San Diego, right?
- W: Oh yes, uh huh.
- I: What did you think of that?
- W: Well, south of uh, Norfolk, Virgini, the people there were very prejudiced against coloreds or, you know, any coloreds other than white. That's what I experienced.
- I: So, you experienced some racial
- W: Oh yes, uh huh.
- I: Prejudice yourself?
- W: Cause I'd go down south through, I had a friend that was stationed at Camp LeJeune in the Marine Corps there on the base.
- I: Um hm.
- W: In North Carolina, and we'd stop at the bus station when I got there from Norfolk to Camp LeJeune, we started making bus stops and I'd notice that these bus stops had separate, uh, bathrooms from whites and others. You know.









- I: Um.
- W: Which had coloreds or coloreds, Indians or.
- I: Oh my gosh.
- W: And even had drinking fountains, you could not drink where the white people.
- I: And you had
- W: You couldn't go to the restraint with the white people. That was really prejudiced down there.
- I: Yeah. And you hadn't experienced that ever because...
- W: No. In the West, we didn't experience that cause we're a mixture there on the West Coast, you know.
- I: What was your reaction? How did you feel about that?
- W: I didn't like it. But you know, I didn't make the regulations for the state, for the states in the South. So, I remember one time when I went to Camp LeJeune with my friend, I got, just when I was getting on the bus, the bus driver said you don't have to sit back there with them coloreds. And you know, on the bus there's a white line where the coloreds sit on the back end of that white line, and the whites sit up front. I said well, I'm not white, so I'm gonna sit back there.









Supporting Question 3		
Featured Source	Source C: Beverly Lawrence Dunjill (Interview Transcript)	

- I: Tell me about your recent awards, the Congressional Gold Medal for the original Tuskegee Airmen.
- B: That was a fantastic experience. Only it was 60 years too late. Uh, I was there with 300 other original Tuskegee Airmen. And uh, the gold medal was presented to some of the original Tuskegee Airmen, those that had been shot down and had been a prisoner of war and various other reasons for being there, for example Charles McGee. He's the guy that, a Tuskegee Airman, original Tuskegee Airman, actually flew combat in four wars. He flew in World War II, Korean War, Viet Nam War and Desert Storm. When he came out of the service, he retired as a full bred Colonel. When he came out of the service, he was the most decorated pilot in the history of the Air Force. He had more combat missions than anyone else in the history of the Air Force, 450 combat missions. He was one of the people that accepted the gold medal, Congressional Gold Medal from President Bush. There are others that had equally distinguished careers in the military. And uh, I can only agree with having those guys up there rather than somebody like myself.
- I: What moment stuck out to you the most during that ceremony in Washington?
- B: When President Bush saluted the Tuskegee Airmen, that really affected me because the speech that he gave in my estimation was excellent. And he saluted the Tuskegee Airmen, not just me but the guys that were older than me. They deserved it far more than I did. And he saluted them for the things that they did. Guys that were shot down. Guys that were prisoners of war. The guys that were killed. They deserved it. And they got it. It was something that was fantastic for the United States. To see it 60 years later. All of them. Where we were degraded. I have seen this country change from adject discrimination and segregation to a point where you can now go anywhere you want, attend any school, any hotel, travel anywhere in this country [INAUDIBLE]. In my lifetime, I've seen that change. I'm proud of it. Sometimes I get a little too emotional. I've seen this country change for the better. I had maybe just a bit to do with it, just a little bit. But we started before Rosa Parks, before Dr. Martin Luther King. All of us were necessary. All of which built toward the desegregation of this country and building for you and me and our children, you can go anywhere you wish in this country. It's fantastic. I'm proud of it.







