Honoring the Stories Behind the Headstones: How to Uncover the Stories of Civil War and WWII Era Veterans Interred in National Cemeteries

Project Website Final Draft

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Contents

Introduction

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On Fame's eternal camping-ground
Their silent tents are spread,
And glory guards, with solemn round,
The bivouac of the dead.

Theodore O'Hara
"Bivouac of the Dead"

Arriving at our country's national cemeteries and state funded veterans cemeteries is a visually stunning experience. Depending on the holiday, the cemeteries may be adorned with flags, and the white headstones that represent the service of veterans to their country might be decorated with smaller flags and/or floral arrangements as a way to remember them. If you have ever attended a service for a veteran, you will remember seeing the honor guard, hearing the last volley, hearing *Taps* played for the last time, and finally seeing the presentation of the flag to the last remaining survivor of the veteran.

What is often not remembered are the life stories of veterans who are interred in these cemeteries. Their headstones may give us clues to those stories, but they are very brief and depending on when they served, their branch of service, and other factors, it can be difficult to know where to go to uncover more about them. Trying to uncover or recover these stories about individual veterans is also complicated by the fact that veteran cemeteries are not family cemeteries where extended family members are buried together, and you cannot easily determine the relationship between the folks who are interred there.

In 2016, the National Cemetery Administration established the Veterans Legacy Program (VLP) to commemorate our nation's Veterans and

Service Members through the discovery and sharing of their stories. The Veterans Legacy Program encourages students and teachers around the country at the University and K-12 levels to immerse themselves in the rich historical resources found within VA's National Cemeteries and VA Grant funded cemeteries. These cemeteries are spread throughout the country, in major cities and small towns. Each cemetery uniquely reflects the community where it resides, and the life stories of the veterans who are interred in these cemeteries also document the history of the nation.

Many Americans have never visited a national cemetery or a state Veterans cemetery. The VA and the National Cemetery Administration, which operates under it, manage 155 national cemeteries, which provide a way to remember the almost 4.9 million veterans that served from the Revolutionary War to the Global War on Terror who are interred in these national cemeteries. The National Park Service administers 14 national cemeteries and the Army maintains two national cemeteries. The VA also supports 122 VA grant funded cemeteries that are in 49 states and territories including tribal trust lands, Guam, and Saipan.

In 2023, the University of Central Missouri and its partners, including the Midwest Genealogy Center in Independence, Missouri, submitted a grant to the VA as part of the Veterans Legacy Grant program to uncover the stories of veterans who are interred in the Fort Scott National Cemetery in Fort Scott, Kansas and the Missouri State Veterans Cemetery in Higginsville, Missouri.

Telling the stories and honoring the service of veterans and connecting those stories to the history of the nation is one of the important goals of this grant project. Another goal is having students at the University of Central Missouri, and students in grades 7-12, tell these stories to the public through initiatives led by their teachers and featuring the life stories of veterans on the U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) Veterans Legacy Memorial

platform. As part of the grant, we proposed creating a handbook for 7-12 grade teachers to help them guide students through the research process about how to uncover and tell the stories of these veterans using place-based pedagogy in Fort Scott, Kansas and Higginsville, Missouri, using primary and secondary sources, and aligning those with the the Kansas and Missouri state standards for teaching social studies.

The Fort Scott National Cemetery and the Missouri Veterans Cemetery in Higginsville, Missouri, represent two distinct types of veteran cemeteries that honor those who have served in the United States military. While both cemeteries demonstrate America's commitment to honoring those who served, the ways in which each cemetery developed represent two unique periods in the evolution of how the United States developed its burial program for those who served in the military. Understanding the unique history of each veteran cemetery allows us to better understand how to tell the stories of the veterans who are interred there.

Additional Sources
National Cemetery Administration
Veterans Legacy Program
Veterans Legacy Program YouTube Video
Veterans Legacy Grant Program
Veterans Legacy Memorial
Veterans Legacy Memorial Brochure
Nationwide Gravesite Locator
List of National Cemeteries

Historical Context

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History of the Creation of Fort Scott National Cemetery, Fort Scott, Kansas

Fort Scott was founded in 1842 along with a series of forts that were established on America's western frontier that included Fort Leavenworth and other forts to the north, Fort Gibson in Oklahoma to the south, and Fort Smith to the southeast. These series of forts were supposed to provide a federal presence and "keep watch" over the Indigenous peoples who were along this western frontier and also protect the trade routes along this frontier. The United States military abandoned the fort in 1853, and the buildings were sold at auction on April 16, 1855. During the period from 1842 to 1853, military personnel established a post cemetery located about 500 yards "west southwest of the fort" and 17 individuals were buried there. This cemetery served as the town cemetery after the auction from 1855 to 1867.[1]

With the outbreak of the border wars between Missouri and Kansas in the lead up to the Civil War, the United States government reactivated Fort Scott. With the reactivation of the fort, a new burial site for the fort was

[1] United States Department of the Interior, "National Register of Historic Places," Kansas State Historical Society, July 15, 1999, https://www.kshs.org/resource/national_register/nominationsNRDB/Bourbon_FortScottNationalCemeteryNR.pdf.

needed. On July 17, 1862, the United States Congress authorized the creation of national cemeteries to honor those who served in the United States military. In November of 1862, the town officers and citizens of Fort Scott purchased approximately five acres of land located about a mile and half to the southeast of the fort for another cemetery. The five acres of land was located near the Presbyterian church, which also had a graveyard. The Presbyterian graveyard, along with the five acres of land, was designated as the Fort Scott National Cemetery, one of fourteen national cemeteries designated that year.

After the Civil War ended in April of 1865, the United States army closed Fort Scott in October 1865. From May 20 to July 20, 1867 those individuals who were buried at the old Fort Scott cemetery were reinterred in the new cemetery along with individuals who were reinterred from the Fort Lincoln, Kansas post cemetery. On October 16, 1868, the Fort Scott Town Company conveyed the 5 acre tract that was purchased in November of 1862 to the United States Government. The United States Army established the Post of Southeastern Kansas on November 24, 1869 to "protect the construction of the Missouri River and Gulf Railroad across disputed land to the Indian Territory and established their headquarters in Fort Scott."[2] After the construction of the railroad, the Army closed the Port of Southeastern Kansas on April 14, 1873.

In 1868 and 1873, approximately .6 of an acre was acquired to expand the cemetery, and on August 15, 1873, John G. Stuart and his wife sold 4.9 acres to the U.S. government, which expanded the size of the cemetery to

[2] United States Department of the Interior, "National Register of Historic Places," Kansas State Historical Society, July 15, 1999, 8. https://www.kshs.org/resource/national_register/nominationsNRDB/Bourbon_FortScottNationalCemeteryNR.pdf.

10.5 acres. In 1994, the federal government acquired an additional 11.2 acres.[3]

Civil War Indigenous Internments in Fort Scott National Cemetery

Over 20,000 Indigenous Americans served in the U.S. Civil War. Federal officials in Kansas raised three Indian Home Guard Units by the summer of 1862. According to *American Indians and the Civil War*: "Fort Scott provided logistical support to these regiments of General Blunt's 'Indian Brigade' in numerous battles." Many of the Indian Home Guard forces were treated at the Fort Scott hospital, and 17 Indigenous soldiers were interred in the cemetery between 1862 and 1864.[4]

Civil War Black Soldiers Interred in Fort Scott National Cemetery

One of the most notable group of veterans who were interred in the cemetery were African American soldiers who served in the Civil War. Michael A. Eggleston estimated that over 200,000 African Americans enlisted or were conscripted to fight in the Union army during the Civil War in 170 "United States Colored Troops (USCT)" regiments, which constituted ten percent of the fighting force."[5] John David Smith noted: "Overall 21 percent of the nation's adult male black population between ages eighteen and forty-five joined the USCT."[6] Over the course of the Civil War, the USCT fought in 449 separate engagements and served in every military theater in the war.

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[3] United States Department of the Interior, "National Register of Historic Places," Kansas State Historical Society, July 15, 1999, https://www.kshs.org/resource/national_register/nominationsNRDB/Bourbon_FortScottNationalCemeteryNR.pdf.

[4] For information about the number of Indigenous Americans who served in the Civil War see Robert K. Sutton and John A. Latschar, eds,. *American Indians and the Civil War National Park Service,* The National Park Service, (Washington, D.C.: Self-Publish, 2013). For the number of Indigenous people interred at Fort Scott see the National Register nomination form for Fort Scott National Cemetery. p. 14.

[5] Michael A. Eggleston, *President Lincoln's Recruiter: General Lorenzo Thomas and the United States Colored Troops in the Civil War* (Jefferson, NC: McFarland & Company, 2013).

[6] John David Smith, *Lincoln and the U.S. Colored Troops* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 2013).

According to the 1999 National Register of Historic Places nomination form for Fort Scott National Cemetery, between 1863 and 1865 at least 88 Black troops were laid to rest in the cemetery. Sixty out of the 88 are known by name and 28 Black troops are listed as unknown.[7]

President Lincoln went back and forth about whether or not to enlist Black soldiers, both free and enslaved. As early as December of 1861, Lincoln proposed a compensated emancipation plan that would provide federal compensation for enslavers, an apprenticeship for enslaved minors, and a thirty-year sunset for enslavement. Lincoln was very concerned that these plans would not drive the enslavers in the border states of Delaware, Kentucky, Maryland, and Missouri into the Confederacy.[8]

In Kansas in May 1862, General James H. Lane, a former U.S. senator, led an effort to recruit and enlist Black and Indigenous people into the Union army prior to War Department authorization. President Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation on January 1, 1863, which paved the way for acceptance of Black soldiers into the Federal army. The Emancipation Proclamation limited Black soldiers' role to being stationed within garrisons like Fort Scott, but it was only a matter of time before they would be deployed in combat. The recruitment of Black soldiers into the Union army contributed to the border crisis that developed between Kansas and Missouri prior to the start of the Civil War because the recruitment efforts led to enslaved Missourians leaving Missouri and going to Kansas where they could enlist. Historian Ian Michael Spurgeon wrote: "According to available records, nearly 40 percent of the men who joined the regiment [`First Kansas

[7] United States Department of the Interior, "National Register of Historic Places," Kansas State Historical Society, July 15, 1999, https://www.kshs.org/resource/national_register/nominationsNRDB/Bourbon_FortScottNationalCemeteryNR.pdf.

[8] John David Smith, *Lincoln and the U.S. Colored Troops* (Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press, 2013).

Colored’] from August to the end of 1862 listed Missouri as their place of residence.”[9]

It was at Fort Scott where the 1st and 2nd Kansas Colored Volunteer Infantry Regiments[10] were recruited and trained, and where the 1st Kansas Colored Volunteer Infantry Regiment mustered into service at Fort Scott for the first time on January 13, 1863. They went into combat for the first time at the Battle of Island Mound, Missouri on October 28-29, 1862. In March of 1864, the 1st Kansas Colored Volunteer Infantry Regiment was renamed the 79th United States Colored Infantry Regiment and the 2nd Kansas Colored Volunteer Infantry Regiment was renamed the 83rd United States Colored Infantry Regiment. Of the 88 African American soldiers who are interred in the Fort Scott National Cemetery, 47 are from the 79th United States Colored Troops (USCT); 13 from the 83rd USCT; and 28 are unknown. Most of these soldiers are buried in section 5 of the cemetery and were interred between 1863 and 1865. In 1988, a monument was erected in the Fort Scott National Cemetery in “Memory of the Soldiers of the 1st Regiment Kansas Colored Volunteers” who died in battle on May 18, 1863 near Sherwood, Missouri.[11]

[9] Ian Michael Spurgeon, *Soldiers in the Army of Freedom: The 1st Kansas Colored, the Civil War's First African American Combat Unit*, Vol. 47 (Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 2014), 69-70.
[10] The US Government used the term "colored" to refer to Black soldiers who served in the Civil War. The historical records used to uncover their stories also uses the term "colored."
[11] National Park Service, “First to Serve: 1st Kansas Colored Infantry Regiment,” National Park Service, January 6, 2025, https://www.nps.gov/articles/1stkansas.htm.

Historic American Landscapes Survey, Creator, and U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, Haas, David W., photographer. Fort Scott National Cemetery, 900 East National Avenue, Fort Scott, Bourbon County, KS, 2000. Documentation Compiled After. Photograph. https://www.loc.gov/item/ks0216/.

However, our research at Fort Scott National Cemetery revealed that there are several other USCT regiments that are represented among the Black Civil War era veterans who are interred including: the 60th USCT Infantry Regiment from Iowa, Company B of the 110th USCT Infantry Regiment, Company H of the 12th Regiment, USCT Heavy Artillery, and Company D, 100th USCT Infantry regiment.

What our research on the United States Colored Troops who are interred at Fort Scott National Cemetery revealed is that there are primarily two distinct categories of USCT troops interred in the cemetery. The first set includes Black men who initially enlisted in the First and Second Kansas Colored Divisions at Fort Scott and who either died from disease or were killed in action, or who returned to live in Fort Scott, Kansas after the war. An example of the first category of Black troops from Missouri whose biography can be located on the Veterans Legacy Memorial is George Brown.

A second category of Black Civil War veterans who are interred at Fort Scott National Cemetery include veterans who served in other units other than the First and Second Kansas Colored units and who settled in Fort Scott after the war. It is not exactly clear as to why they selected Kansas; however, Black Americans settled in Kansas after the war in places like Nicodeumus,and Fort Scott had an established black community prior to and after the Civil War period.In 1865 the Northwest Freedman's Aid Commission from Chicago, Illinois established a Freedman's Bureau school at Fort Scott and the educational opportunities that Black Americans could attain in Fort Scott might have been one reason they chose Fort Scott as their home after 1865. George Washington Carver attended school in Fort Scott from 1878 to 1879.[12] Robert Hinton/Daniel Garrett was just one example of a Black Civil War veteran who served in the USCT during the Civil War and settled in Fort Scott after the war. Oftentimes Black soldiers who served in the Civil War

[12] National Park Service, "Free to Learn: African American Schools in Fort Scott," National Park Service, August 24, 2024, https://www.nps.gov/articles/freetolearn.htm.

changed their names because they were usually enlisted by the name their enslavers had given to them.

Women Interred in National Cemeteries

Women are another notable group represented in the cemetery, both as wives of veterans and veterans themselves. Women have served in the military since the American Revolution, but their service as veterans was not formally recognized until 1901. Sometimes called "invisible veterans," they have not always received full veterans' benefits, including no-cost burial in a national or state cemetery with a headstone. It was not until the 1970s that women's contributions were fully recognized. Nevertheless, records demonstrate that since 1850 some 34,000 women have received headstones for burial in National Cemeteries and another 34,000 headstones for burial in state or private cemeteries, including Fort Scott National Cemetery and the Missouri State Veterans Cemetery at Higginsville.[13]

Missouri State Veterans Cemetery at Higginsville, Missouri

In contrast to the Fort Scott National Cemetery, the Missouri Veterans Cemetery at Higginsville is overseen by the Missouri Veterans Commission; a Missouri state agency, but receives federal funding from the Veterans Administration and the National Cemetery Administration. The veterans cemetery at Higginsville is located on 55 acres and has the capacity for 24,000 gravesites. In addition to the gravesites, two columbariums, which can accommodate cremated remains, are located within the cemetery. The Missouri Veterans Commission also oversees state veteran cemeteries throughout Missouri in the cities of Bloomfield, Ft. Leonard Wood, Jacksonville, and Springfield.

The cemetery in Higginsville had its first interment on January 10, 2001. Given the newness of the cemetery, all veterans interred there served

[13] U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, "National Center for Veterans Analysis and Statistics," U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, January 19, 2025, https://www.va.gov/vetdata/.

in the U.S. military primarily during the 20th and 21st centuries. A large percentage of the individuals who are interred at Higginsville are World War II era veterans, and they include men and women who served their country in uniform. Many of these World War II veterans were first generation Americans whose parents had immigrated into the United States sometime between the 1880s and early 1920s, but also included African Americans and Indigenous people.

Raising an army to serve in World War II and characteristics of those who served

There were essentially two ways that the United States could increase military personnel in the lead up to World War II—institute a peacetime draft and/or federalize members of the state national guard units. Ultimately, President Roosevelt embraced both options. On June 20, 1940, the Burke-Wadsworth Selective Service Bill was introduced into Congress on the same day that Franklin Roosevelt named Henry L. Stimson Secretary of War. Stimson supported the Selective Service Bill as did President Franklin Roosevelt, who endorsed it on July 10th.[14] On September 16, 1940, the United States Congress approved the first peacetime draft, which required men between the ages of 21 and 45 to register for the draft by October 16, 1940. The law also included unequivocal language that prohibited "discrimination against any person on account of race or color," which was not enforced. The Navy and the Marine Corps initially did not rely upon the draft for selectees so that they could avoid compliance with the nondiscrimination clause, consequently, most of the early selectees went into the Army.[15] This legislation also created a nationwide system of draft boards to oversee the registration process. The vote to establish the draft was

[14] John G. Clifford, "Grenville Clark and the Origins of Selective Service," *The Review of Politics* 35 (January 1973): 39.
[15] Lee Kennett, *G.I.: The American Soldier in World War II*, (Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1978), 45-58.

controversial because there was a strong isolationist sentiment in Congress at the time. Nevertheless, the first draft numbers were called on October 29, and the first draftees reported for duty on November 18th.

When war broke out in December 1941, the Army had some "36 divisions in combat readiness, some 1,650,000 men. This was practically the equivalent of American military strength in November 1918."[16] After December 7, 1941, the demand for more individuals in uniform and the draft continued to bring in even larger number of troops causing the number of camps to explode in size between 1941 to 1945. From 1942 until the conclusion of the war, the Army was divided into three areas: Army Ground Forces, Army Service Forces, and Army Air Forces. From 1941 to 1943, the Army Ground Forces focused on training whole divisions at one time. After 1944, the army focused on training replacements to enter the ninety divisions that comprised the Army Ground Forces. Training a division took almost a year, and selectees usually started with basic training where they learned the elements of drill, military courtesy, and physical conditioning. The second phase of the training focused on the selectee learning their specialty and how to work together as a team.[17]

Even before the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, Army Chief of Staff, George Marshall, was thinking about how to expand the number of individuals in the military, including how to recruit more women.[18] On May 14, 1942, President Roosevelt signed into law a bill that created the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps (WAAC) and approximately 150,000 women

[16] J. Garry Clifford and Samuel R. Spencer, Jr., *The First Peacetime Draft* (Lawrence, Kansas: University Press of Kansas, 1986), 39.

[17] Lee Kennett, G.I.: The American Soldier in World War II, (Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1997).

[18] Mattie E. Treadwell, *The Women's Army Corps* (Washington: D.C.: G.P.O., 1953), 20-23. For more on the role of women in the U.S. military see D'Ann Campbell, *Women at War with America: Private Lives in a Patriotic Era* (Boston: Harvard University Press, 1984); Susan Hartmann, "Women in the Military Service," in Clio was a Woman, eds. Mabel E. Deutrich and Virginia Purdy (Washington: Howard University Press, 1980); Melanie Anne Veach Kirkland, "Daughters of Athena: American Women in the Military During World War II" (Ph.D, Diss., Texas Christian University, 2009).

served over the course of the war and most of these women served in clerical and support roles, which allowed men to serve in other positions during the war. The women who joined the WAAC were not granted military status, which meant that they did not have the same rank, pay, or benefits as men.[19] The WAAC recruited African American women were into their ranks, but the WAAC leadership was instructed to follow the War Department's policy on segregation and to limit the number of selectees to ten percent because African Americans at this time made up about ten percent of the U.S. population.[20] The WAAC also recruited a small contingent of Nisei Japanese American women.[21] In 1943, the WAAC was renamed the Women's Army Corps, which conferred military status on the women who served within its ranks and allowed them to receive overseas pay, government life insurance, veteran's hospitalization and health-care benefits.[22]

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[19] For the numbers see The National World War II Museum: New Orleans, "Research Starters: US Military by the Numbers," The National World War II Museum: New Orleans, January 19, 2025, https://www.nationalww2museum.org/students-teachers/student-resources/research-starters/research-starters-us-military-numbers. For the lack of benefits see Victoria Sherow, "Women's Army Auxiliary Corps" in *Women and the Military: An Encyclopedia* (Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO, Inc., 1996), 329-330.

[20] Mattie E. Treadwell, *The Women's Army Corps* (Washington: D.C.: G.P.O., 1953), 20-23. For more on the role of women in the U.S. military see D'Ann Campbell, *Women at War with America: Private Lives in a Patriotic Era* (Boston: Harvard University Press, 1984); Susan Hartmann, "Women in the Military Service," in Clio was a Woman, eds. Mabel E. Deutrich and Virginia Purdy (Washington: Howard University Press, 1980); Melanie Anne Veach Kirkland, "Daughters of Athena: American Women in the Military During World War II" (Ph.D, Diss., Texas Christian University, 2009). For more on African American women in the WAAC see Martha S. Putney, *When the Nation Was in Need: Blacks in the Women's Army Corps During World War II* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan, 1992).

[21] Brenda Lee Moore, *Serving Our Country: Japanese American women in the Military During World War II* (New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press, 2003).

[22] Victoria Sherow, "Benefits," in *Women and the Military: An Encyclopedia* (Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO, Inc., 1996), 35-36. The first WAAC training center opened at Fort Des Moines and 440 officer-candidates trained at Fort Des Moines. Out of that 440, 40 African American women were selected. One scholar noted: "The women were put in one separate company, lodged in separate quarters, ate at separate dining tables, and used separate recreation rooms, although they shared classrooms with the white trainees." Other African American women received training at Fort Huachuca in Arizona, where African American men also trained. For the quote see Janet Louise Sims-Wood, "'We Served America too!': Personal Recollections of African Americans in the Women's Army Corps During World War II," (Ph. D diss., The Union Institute, 1994), 2, 9. For more on black women and men serving in World War II see

Women also assisted and served with the Army Air Force. Most widely known is the Women's Airforce Service Pilots (WASPS), which was a group of all-female pilots who ferried military planes within the United States and Canada. Only 1,047 women were WASPS; however, they were never granted military status until 1979 when only three living WASPs remained. Approximately 40,000 women, known as Air-Wacs, served in the Women in the Air Force (WAF), which was established in 1943. About fifty percent of the women served in clerical and support positions for the Air Force, but some became aerial photographers, radio operators, flight clerks, and aircraft mechanics.[23]

President Roosevelt signed into law the bill that created the Navy's Women Accepted for Voluntary Emergency Service (WAVES) in July of 1942 and, unlike the WAAC when it was first created, the 100,000 women who joined the WAVES were granted military status and were eligible for veterans' benefits. The same July 1942 law also created the United States Marine Corps Reserve (Female) and 23,000 women served within its ranks. On November 23, 1942, President Roosevelt signed the bill that created the SPARs, which was the Women's Reserve of the Coast Guard and 10,000 women joined.[24] SPARs was the Coast Guard motto that meant "Semper

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Maggi M. Morehouse, *Fighting in the Jim Crow Army: Black Men and Women Remember World War II*, (New York: Roman and Littlefield Publishers, 2000).

[23] For more on the WASPS see Marianne Verges, *On Silver Wings: The Story of the Women's Airforce Service Pilots*, (New York: Ballantine Books, 1991).

[24] For the numbers see The National World War II Museum: New Orleans, "Research Starters: US Military by the Numbers," The National World War II Museum: New Orleans, January 19, 2025, https://www.nationalww2museum.org/students-teachers/student-resources/research-starters/research-starters-us-military-numbers. Victoria Sherow, "SPAR," "Women Accepted for Voluntary Emergency Service (WAVES)," and "Women Marines" in *Women and the Military: An Encyclopedia* (Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO, Inc., 1996), 259-260, 322-323, 326-327. African American women were kept out of the SPAR and WAVES until October 1944, when the policy was reversed. See ibid, 259. For more on the role of women in the U.S. Navy see Susan Goodson, *Serving Proudly: A History of Women in the U.S. Navy* (Washington, D.C.: Naval Institute Press, 2002).

Paratus–Always Ready" but in this context, SPARs referred specifically to women who joined the Coast Guard.[25]

Women also served in the Army Nurse Corps (ANC) and the Navy Nurse Corps (NNC), which had already been established prior to the entrance of the U.S. into World War II. Approximately 60,000 women served in the ANC, and 14,000 women served in the NNC, respectively. Over 500 African American women served in the ANC, and most were assigned to duty stations to treat African American men and Prisoners of War. The NNC did not accept black nurses until January 1945.[26]

African American men who served in the United States military during World War II numbered around 1,056,841, and out of that number 885,845 served in the Army, 153,224 in the Navy; 16,005 in the Marine Corps, and 1,667 in the Coast Guard.[27] Like their African American women military counterparts, they served in segregated units, which included the camps, bases, mess halls and recreational facilities. The War Department was slow to draft African American men at the beginning of the war even though

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[25] National Park Service, "United States Coast Guard Women's Reserves," National Park Service, February 26, 2024, https://www.nps.gov/articles/000/united-states-coast-guard-women-s-reserve-spars.htm#:~:text=Congress%20created%20the%20United%20States,stations%20on%20the%20home%20front; Robin J. Thomson, "SPARS: The Coast Guard & the Women's Reserve in World War II," United States Coast Guard, January 6, 2025, https://www.history.uscg.mil/Browse-by-Topic/Notable-People/Women/SPARS/.

[26] For the numbers see The National World War II Museum: New Orleans, "Research Starters: US Military by the Numbers," The National World War II Museum: New Orleans, January 19, 2025, https://www.nationalww2museum.org/students-teachers/student-resources/research-starters/research-starters-us-military-numbers. Victoria Sherow, "African Americans" in *Women and the Military: An Encyclopedia* (Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO, Inc., 1996), 4-7. For more information about African American nurses in the Army Nurse Corps see Charissa J. Threat, *Nursing Civil Rights: Gender and Race in the Army Nursing Corps*, (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 2015), 45-49. Also see Carolyn M. Feller and Constance J. Moore, eds., *Highlights in the History of the Army Nurse Corps* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Army Center of Military History, 1996); and Susanne Teepe Gaskins, "G.I. Nurses at War: Gender and Professionalization in the Army Nurse Corps during World War II," (Ph.D. diss., University of California, Riverside, 1994) and Darlene Clark Hine, *Black Women in White: Racial Conflict and Cooperation in the Nursing Professions, 1890-1950* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1989).

[27] For the numbers see William A. Taylor, *Military Service and American Democracy: From World War II to the Iraq and Afghanistan Wars*, (Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas Press, 2016).

Franklin Roosevelt promised they would make up at least ten percent of the selectees.[28] One source noted that 51,438 Puerto Ricans served, and another source noted that 350,000 Mexican Americans were in uniform. Unlike African Americans, who served in segregated units, Latinos did not, which makes arriving at an accurate participation number challenging. Around 33,000 Japanese Americans served followed by 20,000 Indigenous peoples; 13,311 Chinese Americans; 11,506 Filipino Americans; and 1,320 Hawaiians.[29]

For the sixteen million men and women who served in World War II, their achievements should not go unrecognized. Over 400,000 American military personnel died in World War II and approximately 670,000 were wounded.[30] They have sometimes been referred to as the Greatest

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[28] George Q. Flynn, "Selective Service and American Blacks During World War II," *The Journal of Negro History* 69, no. 1 (1984): 20. For more on the "slowness" see William A. Taylor, *Military Service and American Democracy: From World War II to the Iraq and Afghanistan Wars*, (Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas Press, 2016), 18-20. For more on African Americans in the military see Thomas A. Guglielmo, *Divisions: A New History of Racism and Resistance in America's World War II Military* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2021); Ulysses Lee, *The Employment of Negro Troops* (Washington D.C.: G.P.O., 1966); Melton A. McLaurin, *The Marines of Montford Point: America's First Black Marines* (Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 2007); J. Todd Moye, *Freedom Flyers: The Tuskegee Airmen of World War II* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2010); Bernard C. Nalty, *Strength for the Fight: A History of Black Americans in the Military* (New York: The Free Press, 1986); Jon E. Taylor, *Freedom to Serve: Truman, Civil Rights, and Executive Order 9981* (New York: Routledge, 2013), 1-38. For more on the "slowness" see William A. Taylor, *Military Service and American Democracy*, 18-20.

[29] For the minority participation numbers see The National World War II Museum: New Orleans, "Research Starters: US Military by the Numbers," The National World War II Museum: New Orleans, February 14, 2022, https://www.nationalww2museum.org/students-teachers/student-resources/research-starters/research-starters-us-military-numbers. For the number of Mexican Americans who served see John W. Jeffries, *Wartime America: The World War II Home Front* (Chicago: Ivan R. Dee, 1996), 134. For additional information on Hispanic Americans in World War II see Department of Defense, *The Military Heritage of Hispanic Americans in Our Nation's Defense: An Overview* (Washington, D.C.: G.P.O., 1990). For more on the service of Japanese Americans see James C. McNaughton, "Japanese Americans and the U.S. Army: A Historical Reconsideration," *Army History* 59, (Summer-Fall 2003), 4-15. For more on indigenous people in the service see Alison R. Bernstein, *American Indians and World War II: Toward a New Era in Indian Affairs* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1991); Jere Bishop Franco, *Crossing the Pond: The Native American Effort in World War II* (Denton, TX: University of North Texas Press, 1999) and Kenneth William Townsend, *World War II and the American Indian* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 2000).

[30] Kenneth D. Rose, *Myth and the Greatest Generation* (New York: Routledge, 2008), 7.

Generation and while their achievements were significant in terms of defeating fascism abroad, they were tempered with challenges that remained unresolved at home. The armed forces remained segregated and African Americans fought for the Double Victory of defeating fascism abroad with the hopes that the fight would deal a blow to racism in the military and within the United States at war's end, and many became strong advocates for civil rights and an integrated military in post-World War II America. Japanese Americans and Native Americans also drew upon their wartime experiences to advocate for their rights in a post-World War II America.[31]

Women, who wanted to serve their country, were segregated by gender and race in the armed forces and some women who served never attained military status for their service and were later denied benefits. Men and women who were accused of homosexual or lesbian activity while in the military could be dishonorably discharged, which resulted in the loss of benefits, and, according to one source, upwards of 50,000 people were released from service during the war years depriving the military of much needed human resources.[32]

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[31] For the Greatest Generation see Tom Brokaw, *The Greatest Generation* (New York: Random House, 1998). For the advocacy for civil rights in a Post-World War II America see Thomas A. Guglielmo, *Divisions: A New History of Racism and Resistance in America's World War II Military* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2021), 379-381. About seventy-five percent of the African American men who served in the army did so in the service force branches, which included the Corps of Engineers, the Quartermaster Corps, and the Transportation Corps. At the end of the war African American men only made-up 1.97 percent of the armor; 2.45 percent of the artillery; and 3.05 percent of the infantry forces. The army only had a few black officers, and no black officers could be found in the ranks of the Navy, Marine Corps, or Coast Guard until 1944.For the percentages see Kenneth D. Rose, *Myth and the Greatest Generation* (New York: Routledge, 2008), 140-142.

[32] Kenneth D. Rose, *Myth and the Greatest Generation* (New York: Routledge, 2008), 149-153. Allan Berube estimated that at least 650,000 and perhaps as many as 1.6 million male soldiers were homosexual. See Allan Berube, *Coming Out Under Fire: The History of Gay Men and Women in World War II, 20th Anniversary Edition,* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 2010), 3.

World War II veterans interred in the Missouri Veterans Cemetery in Higginsville

Despite the practice of a segregated military by race and by gender during the Second World War, World War II veterans who served honorably were interred in national cemeteries and in state veterans cemeteries like Higginsville. In fact, examining the life stories of the World War II veterans who are laid to rest in Higginsville provides us with an opportunity to teach about the diversity and complexity of those who served the United States during World War II. The World War II veterans who are interred at Higginsville include men and women who were first generation Americans, married couples, individuals of color, and folks from both urban and rural areas of Missouri and from across the United States.

Sources:

- Fort Scott National Cemetery
- National Cemetery Administration History: Historic Resources
- Early Growth of the National Cemetery System by Edward Steere Quartermaster Review March/April 1953
- Evolution of the National Cemetery System, 1865-1880 by Edward Steere Quartermaster Review May/June 1953.
- America's World War II Burial Program published by History Program, Office of Engagement and Memorial Innovation, National Cemetery Administration, U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, 2020.
- NCA Youtube Video Honoring Buffalo Soldiers in National Cemeteries
- NCA Youtube Video Honoring Women who served in WW I Navy Yeoman Program
- NCA Youtube Video honoring Helen Fairchild World War I Nurse
- National Cemetery Administration History Program website
- National Cemetery Administration Find a Cemetery
- National Cemetery Administration Gravesite Locator
- National Cemetery Administration Veterans Legacy Grant Program
- George Ford Veteran and National Cemetery Superintendent Ford was one of the first African American Superintendents at a National Cemetery and he was assigned to Fort Scott from 1894-1901.

- Missouri Veterans Commission and Missouri Veteran Cemeteries, including Higginsville.
- Higginsville Veterans Cemetery
- America's women veterans: Military service history and VA benefit utilization statistics.
- US Colored Troops in Missouri
- First Kansas Colored Infantry Engagements Kansas Historical Society

Conducting Research–Getting Started

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In 2013, the National Council for the Social Studies published the College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework which is intended to guide the development of state social studies standards and teacher directed curriculum to "strengthen their social studies programs"[33]. Led by an inquiry arc, the framework also seeks to "enhance the rigor of the social studies disciplines"[34] which includes the discipline of history. The C3 Framework helps educators develop curriculum that has students engage in historical research by asking questions and using primary and secondary sources to answer those questions.[35] Before embarking on such a quest, teachers should make sure students know the difference between the two source types. This will help students better analyze the source and have a better idea of where to go to find them.

Simply put, primary sources are artifacts that are created at the time of the event under study. They are accounts of a topic that are created by people who were connected with the event. These pieces of evidence are often found in journals/diaries, letters, documents, newspapers,

[33] National Council for the Social Studies, "College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards," National Council for the Social Studies, 2013, https://www.socialstudies.org/standards/c3, para 1.
[34] Ibid.
[35] Ibid.

photographs, etc. Secondary sources are not created at the time of the event under study, and instead analyzes sources to come up with a new source, often resulting in a narrative. Largely, secondary sources are textbooks, encyclopedias, books, professional journal articles, etc. While we can never say that one type is always a primary source or a secondary source, this provides some beginning guidance for teachers and students to launch historical research.

Effective Language in Historical Research

When conducting genealogical and historical research, it is important to be aware of the language used when referring to people, communities and past events. Historical records may contain terms that are now considered insensitive or outdated in today's context. The use of terms can reinforce stereotypes, marginalize communities, and potentially cause harm or offense to individuals. However, in researching veterans, some of these words may have to be used in historical research in order to find primary and secondary sources about the person. Some examples include encountering the word "colored" as in the United States Colored Troops (USCT). The USCT was the "official name" used to denote black or African American troops that served in the United States Civil War. Another term researchers are likely to encounter in 19th century sources about a veteran is "slave" despite the present day preferred terminology being "people who were enslaved." Likewise, terms such as "slave holder" or "slave owner" would have to be used while researching instead of "enslaver." For more on terminology please see the National Park Service's[36] statement on inclusive language.

The goal of genealogical research and historical research is to understand our shared history while respecting the dignity of all individuals and communities. It is important to emphasize that while historical accuracy

[36] National Park Service, "Language of Slavery," Underground Railroad, National Park Service, May 16, 2024, https://www.nps.gov/subjects/undergroundrailroad/language-of-slavery.htm

is critical, it should not come at the expense of perpetuating harm or disrespect toward any group or individual.

Searching for Sources

With typical historical research projects, students begin by selecting a topic, generating questions about that topic, and modifying their questions as they uncover new information. In many ways, this research project to commemorate veterans follows the same model.

For the purposes of this grant, it is important to launch this inquiry by bringing students to the cemeteries where they can begin to inquire about the cemetery and the veterans interred there. Teachers may wish to have the superintendent of the site provide an overview to the class prior to letting students walk the grounds. Ask the superintendent to share about the geography of the site, the gravestone locators (on-site or online), and how to interpret the symbols on the headstones. Then, allow students to traverse the cemetery.

Students should record their observations of the grounds and the headstones. Students will use information from their veteran's headstone and gravestone locator (on-site or online) to establish a starting point for their research, and then use what is known and unknown to direct their research, gathering records and documents as evidence of their veteran's life.

Beginning Research on the Veteran

Begin the process by directing students to the veteran's headstone. Using the questions and tips below, guide student analysis of the headstones.

1. What information can be learned from the headstone alone?
    a. In addition to the veteran's name, military headstones typically include service information and a date of death. Rank and additional information like a date of birth or the name of a spouse buried with the veteran may also be included.

b. Headstones often contain "Emblems of Belief" on VA-supplied headstones which offer an indication of religious preferences.[37]
c. The shape of the headstone – for Civil War veterans – traditionally serves as an indication of service to the Union (rounded stone displaying the Union Shield) or Confederacy (angular top, often featuring a Southern Cross).

2. How can you verify the accuracy of this information provided?
    a. The fact that a headstone is typically considered a primary source does not make it immune to errors or misinformation. The veteran's name might have been spelled differently that it appears in other records for this person, and even the date of death might not exactly match other documents. Students should be encouraged to look for additional records like service records and obituaries that corroborate the information found on the headstone.
    b. This is a good point to introduce the fact that standardized spelling of names is a relatively new concept and to remind students that they will likely need to accept minor – in some cases major – variance in spelling or even in the names themselves. For example, a veteran named Edward William Stephens might appear in documents as Ed, Eddie, E.W., W.E., Bill, Will, or even Junior; other records might list the surname with an alternate spelling of Stevens. Spelling issues will likely be even more of a challenge for veteran names not commonly found in American English; by far, this is one of the biggest challenges in genealogical research.

[37] Veterans Administration, "Emblems of Belief," National Cemetery Administration, February 15, 2023, https://www.cem.va.gov/hmm/emblems.asp

3. For cemeteries, like Fort Scott, with onsite gravesite locators, ask What new information – not found on the veteran's headstone – can you obtain from the cemetery's gravesite locator?
    a. The Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) maintains "gravesite locators" containing service information and more -- date of birth/death, relationships, etc. – for veterans interred in VA cemeteries.
    b. Encourage students to use this additional source of information on the day of their site visit or introduce them to the online version on the Nationwide Gravesite Locator site.[38]
4. What do you still need to learn about your veteran to best document that veteran's life? What questions do you still have about your veteran? Where do you think you might be able to find answers to your questions?
    a. Students may say that they need additional dates and places of importance. A veteran's dates of birth and death roughly frame their life, but the *story* happens between these dates. Where did they live? Did they move often? If they married, when, and where and to whom? Students researching a veteran who died during the conflict will be limited to record searches of that veteran's early life and military career, but students assigned veterans who survived the war will have the opportunity to search for either records of additional military service or records of that veteran's life as a civilian.
    b. Students may also want to know other named family members. Who were the key people in this veteran's life? For burial in veterans' cemeteries, this "other" family member is most often

[38] Veterans Administration, "Nationwide Gravesite Locator (NGL)," National Cemetery Administration, September 20, 2024, https://www.cem.va.gov/nationwide-gravesite-locator/

the spouse, and knowing the name of the spouse and other relatives can lead to both civilian records (censuses, wills, etc.) and post-service records. For example, the extensive application required of those seeking a post-service, military pension may provide both personal and service information for the pensioner/veteran and information for the beneficiary – usually the spouse, heir(s), or veteran's mother – if the application was submitted after the veteran was deceased.

c. Students may also indicate that they need to know the military unit and rank. When researching unit histories, it's important to remind students that the presence of their veteran's military unit in a particular battle or skirmish does not guarantee that their veteran was present at the event; however, the unit's history can be used to build background and to better understand the overall conflict in which the veteran served. Rank and duty assignments can be used to answer questions like, "What did your veteran do in the war? Were they in a position of authority? Did their wartime job assignment carry over into a career in civilian life after the war?" Rank and serial number (if available) can also be used to keep research focused on the right servicemember – the right "Ed Stephens", using our earlier example.

d. Students may also want to know more about the day-to-day life of their veteran. What did the veteran do *before* they joined the service? What did they do *after* their service ended? Occupations, religious affiliations, interests and hobbies add content to the veteran's story while opening their own avenues for additional research.

5. What is your plan of action? What information will you seek first, where might you look for this information, and what steps will you

take to ensure the reliability of the information you find? If your students are using the Veterans Research Worksheet (see appendix) , encourage them to view the still-empty spaces on the form as "opportunities for new discoveries" and to use these opportunities to guide both their plan and their research as they bring life to their veteran's story.

General Genealogical Research, Military Research, and Research Related to Specific Veteran Populations

Research and resources for this project divide roughly into three principal categories: general genealogical research, military research, and research involving resources specific to women in the military, African American, and Native American servicemembers. In this section, you will find an overview of these three types of research, some commonly used record sets within each category, and challenges to share with students. For more background on these and other related topics, see the Appendix.

General Genealogical Research

Typically, genealogical research begins in the present with the researcher working back through the generations from parents to grandparents and so forth. With this project, however, the students will begin in the past with a veteran's name and a minimal amount of additional information about that veteran. Despite this difference, the research will still involve finding historical records (typically primary source documents), analyzing their reliability, and using these records collectively to recreate the story of the veteran's life.

Vital Records

The Latin word *vita* means "life", and birth, marriage and death records – the records of a person's life – are known as *vital records*. These records provide key dates and places in a person's life, often including the names of parents, spouses, and other relatives as well. Birth and death

records are state-level documents, most likely found in the records/collections at state agencies or in state archives. Adoptions are also state-level vital records, but restrictions that vary from state to state make these records much more difficult to access in an online search. Marriage and divorce records are the most accessible. These county-level records are often found in online genealogy databases and in county courthouse records like those of the Recorder of Deeds.

Time and place both play large roles in the availability of these records. Most states did not formalize the process for maintaining birth and death records until the early 20th century, and privacy laws restrict online access to the most recent state-level records. Historically, marriages between enslaved African Americans were often prohibited, leading many newly-freed African Americans to marry or register earlier marriages after 1865 when slavery became illegal in the U.S.

In addition to death certificates, newspaper death notices or obituaries may contain useful biographical information about the deceased veteran. Probate or will records may also include details about what happened to the property of the deceased after their death.

Gravesite websites like FindAGrave and Billion Graves may offer additional information about deceased veterans, but aside from the headstone itself, the information entered on these sites is typically a *secondary* source that students should closely scrutinize for its reliability.

Other Record Sets

Since the writing goal for this project is to retell the story of a veteran's life, the research goal should involve collecting documents that can be used to develop a timeline for that veteran – documents providing key dates, places, names of relatives and other information. In addition to the vital records above, the most commonly used record sets in this type of

genealogical research are census records, land/deed records, directories, voter lists, and county histories.

Census

The U.S. Constitution requires that a census be taken every 10 years, making the U.S. Federal Census (USFC) one of the most consistent records available to genealogy researchers. Since USFC questions are determined by Congress at the time of that census, census content varies considerably from one census to the next. Locating someone's name on a USFC, however, establishes their location at that time, and the USFCs from 1850 onward include questions that will enable a student to approximate their veteran's date/place of birth, family relationships, occupations, and more. USFCs are easily accessed in multiple online databases (HeritageQuest, FamilySearch, Ancestry, etc.), but federal privacy laws restrict public access to USFC records for 72 years, so online access currently ends with the 1950 USFC; the 1960 USFC will not be available to the public until April 1, 2032.

The USFC, however, is just one type of census students may want to access for this project. Online state and territorial censuses may also provide information about the veteran. Students researching a Native American veteran may want to research Indian Census Rolls – both those that were conducted from 1885-1940 by federal agents/superintendents in charge of Indian reservations (National Archive and Records Administration–NARA film M595, available online in multiple databases) and tribal rolls specific to one Native American nation.

Students wanting to learn more about the USFC – including an overview of U.S. and world events happening at the time of each census and the questions asked of those enumerated should be directed to the census website.[39] You might also consider showing students the 38-minute "Census

[39] United States Census Bureau, "U.S. Census Bureau History," United States Census Bureau, December 12, 2024, https://www.census.gov/history/

Records Research" class, available on demand from the Mid-Continent Public Library.[40]

Land Records

From land grants to purchases/sales and gifts to family members, land records can help us learn about the places veterans lived and the choices they made. Federal bounty land grants were awarded for military service prior to 1855, but for the timeframe of this project, students will likely be looking to county-level records for land transactions involving their veterans.

Directories

U.S. city directories date back to the early 1800s, providing students ways to add information to the timelines of their veterans "between the censuses." In addition to a person's name and address, early city directories often included a spouse's name, the person's occupation, where they worked, whether they rented/owned their home – all good information for student researchers! Some city directories even list people who have passed away, noting that they are deceased.

Voter Lists, County Histories, and Social Security

Voter lists are another way to establish a person's residence in a non-census year, adding still more detail to a veteran's story. While a veteran may not be listed by name in an old county history, this type of resource – often available at no charge on the Internet Archive – can greatly add to a student's understanding of the time and place in which their veteran lived.[41]

The Social Security Administration was a product of the mid-1930s and the Great Depression, so few – if any – Civil War veterans will have Social Security documents, but many World War II veterans will have Social Security records like a Social Security Application which can be used to

[40] Mid-Continent Public Library, "Getting Started," Midwest Genealogy Center, 2025, https://www.mymcpl.org/genealogy/get-started/online-learning

[41] Internet Archive, "Internet Archive," Internet Archive, January 9, 2025, https://archive.org/

confirm key dates, places, parent names, and more. Since applications like these would have been filled out by the veterans themselves, the reliability is pretty high, and – better still – these records are typically available online in databases like Heritage Quest, Ancestry, and Family Search.

Challenges in Genealogical Research

While inconsistencies in spelling and factual data from resource to resource are certainly a challenge to general genealogical research, the biggest challenge students will likely experience throughout this project lies in the accepted policies and terminology of the past. As stated earlier, some historical records use terminology that would be deemed harmful by today's standards, but likely have to be used for successful research of sources created at the time.

Students researching the lives of veterans who lived in the past will inevitably encounter outdated terms in the primary and secondary sources of that veteran's lifetime. One goal of historical research is to understand our shared history while respecting the dignity of all individuals and communities. It is important to emphasize that, while historical accuracy is critical, it should not come at the expense of perpetuating harm or disrespect toward any group or individual. While students may encounter what is deemed "insensitive" today during their historical research and will have to use this language to have successful searches, when they report out their findings, they should not use any offensive language.

Military Resources

While the types of military records available for researchers vary greatly by war and between branches of the armed forces, these records all roughly divide into preservice, service, and post-service records. Remind students to gather all available information such as branch of service, unit/regiment/company, and military ID/serial number, and to watch for terms like "volunteer", "nurse corps" (women), "USCT" (African American),

and "scout" (Native American) – to guide their search. Not only is this information all relevant to the military portion of the veteran's timeline, but each piece of information can also lead to additional avenues of both military and civilian research.

Military Registration

In the United States, registration for military service was first instituted during the Civil War, and it continues through to today.[42] At various points Americans were required to register for the draft in World Wars I and II and in World War II the United States enacted the first peacetime draft in September, 1940. This means students researching veterans for this project have a good chance at locating registration/draft and/or enlistment documentation for their veterans. Note that a veteran may have enlisted without registering for the draft, and men with draft registrations may not all have served in the military.

Military Service

Service records are records generated during the veteran's service, again varying from war to war and from branch to branch. Students researching Civil War *volunteer* soldiers – both Union and Confederate – should begin with a search for that veteran's Compiled Military Service Records (CMSRs or CSRs) which often include muster rolls, pay vouchers, enlistment and discharge information. Some CMSRs can be accessed directly through the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA);[43] Fold3 (if available) is another good source of information for these records. Enlistment records offer similar records for those who *enlisted* in the regular (not volunteer) army. Records of the (federal) Office of the Adjutant General

[42] Selective Service System, "Historical Timeline," Selective Service System, January 9, 2025, https://www.sss.gov/history-and-records/timeline/#:~:text=in%20active%20status.-,Registration,born%20in%201960%20or%20later.

[43] National Archives Catalog, "Carded Records Showing Military Service of Soldiers Who Fought in Volunteer Organizations During the American Civil War, 1890-1912," National Archives, January 9, 2025, https://catalog.archives.gov/id/300398

may provide the most information for army officers, while students researching Civil War sailors will want to look for "Rendezvous Reports" – the naval equivalent of the CMSRs above – to learn more about their sailor's military service. Direct your students to begin their search at the National Park Service's *Civil War Soldiers and Sailors System*[44] and to databases with extensive military collections like Fold3. While Civil War CMSRs are often available online, the World War II equivalents – Official Military Personnel Files (OMPFs) – are not. Within certain privacy restrictions, most World War II OMPFs can be requested online through NARA, but the processing time will likely be too long for this project. Additionally, record loss in a 1973 fire at the National Personnel Record Center in St. Louis may make World War II records even more difficult to find. The 16-18 million OMPFs destroyed in this fire included up to 80% of Army and 75% of Army Air Corp discharges from 1912 – 1960; these records were destroyed before being captured on film.

Casualty or medical records may be available for veterans injured during the war, and Prisoner of War (POW) or Missing in Action (MIA) records may add to the story of veterans who were captured or reported missing in action. Over 140,000 World War II POW records can be accessed on the NARA's *Access to Archival Database*[45] along with over 9 million World War II Army Enlistment records.

Finally, regimental/unit histories – both print and online – can be found on Fold3 and be used to learn more about the engagements in which the veteran may have participated. Local newspapers also ran updates on the accomplishments of area service people and their units, reminding us to

[44] National Park Service, "Soldiers and Sailors Database," The Civil War, May 14, 2015, https://www.nps.gov/civilwar/soldiers-and-sailors-database.htm

[45] The National Archives, "Access to Archival Databases (AAD)," The National Archives, january 9, 2025, https://aad.archives.gov

open online newspaper database searches to the dates of a veteran's life, not just their date of death.[46]

Post Service Military Records

From pension applications to events leading up to and including the veteran's death, students should not bypass data-laden, post-service records in their veteran research through pension data, obituary data, and other sources described below.

Pensions

Veterans did not all apply for a pension, and while many Confederate states provided state-level pensions for service in the CSA, only Union veterans were eligible for federal pensions. Pension applications could be submitted by veterans or by surviving family members, and the pension applications and pension records themselves can be rich sources of information about a veteran's personal life and military service. State military/pension records may be found online in (state) digital archives like *Missouri Digital Heritage*.[47] Federal pension records are maintained by NARA, but NARA relies on partners like FamilySearch and Fold3 to make these records available online. NARA also maintains a list, by state, of Confederate pension record holdings with contact information. For those who applied, post-service pension records for World War II veterans are maintained by the Department of Veterans Affairs (the VA) and housed at the regional VA office closest to where they lived when they applied.

Other

Federal censuses in 1890 and 1910 asked specific questions of veterans, as did the supplemental "statistical surveys" on the 1940 and 1950 USFC, so long as the veteran happened to be included in the population

[46] Newspapers, "Experience the Headlines Like They Did," Newspapers by ancestry.com, 2025, www.newspapers.com

[47] Missouri Secretary of State, "Soldiers' Records: War of 1812-World War I," Missouri Digital Heritage, 2024, https://s1.sos.mo.gov/records/archives/archivesdb/soldiers/

asked the bonus questions in these two censuses. Applications for membership in military societies like the Civil War's Grand Army of the Republic (GAR) (Fold3).

Students researching veterans who lived beyond their respective wars, may also find records of service-related medical assistance such as veterans' home records or VA hospital services – one of the many records maintained by the U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs. Students researching World War II veterans should also look for their veteran in the VA's Beneficiary Identification Records Locator Subsystem (BIRLS) Death Files which contain both personal and service information for deceased veterans and surviving family members receiving benefits – pension, education, medical, etc. – from the VA. Over 13.5 million BIRLS Files can be found on Fold3 and Ancestry (.com or Library Edition).

Obituaries and additional death and burial records, including the veteran's application for VA-provided military headstone, may provide still more information about a veteran's past.

Challenges of Military Resources

Students may need to be reminded that some records are simply not available online; many have not yet been filmed for online viewing, some are protected by privacy restrictions, and still others were lost to time or disaster such as the 1973 NPRC fire discussed above. Encourage students to think "outside the box" when research becomes challenging, turning from federal records to records of "local" county and state agencies like the Kansas State Historical Society's "Kansas Adjutant General Report, 1861-1865"[48] which includes service records, commissions, and more for many who served from the state of Kansas.

[48] Kansas Historical Society, "Kansas Adjutant General's Report, 1861-1865," Kansas State Historical Society, 2025, https://www.kshs.org/p/kansas-adjutant-general-s-report-1861-1865/11175

Specialized Resources

Additional record sets – specific to women in the military, African American and Native American populations – may make it possible for students to learn still more about their veteran's life both in and out of the military.

Women Research and Record Sets

Students researching female veterans will likely run into two challenges – a shortage of records and (if married) changing surnames. Historically, women have participated in fewer events – like court cases and land purchases – that generate primary source documents. The following FamilySearch Research Wiki[49] can be shared with students to broaden their understanding of researching women in official records.

The veterans researched for this project will also have lived during times when it was customary for a woman to take on her spouse's last name when they married, so students researching female veterans will need to be on the lookout for possible surname changes – from maiden/birth name to married name(s) – to discover more about their veteran's early years. Note that it is not uncommon for newspaper obituaries to list a married female by her husband's name, referring to the deceased as "Mrs. George Washington" instead of "Martha Washington."

While women have always played roles in U.S. military conflicts; it was not until the passage of the Women's Armed Services Integration Act in 1948 that a more formal recognition of their service was acknowledged by the US government. Excluding for now historical accounts of female spies and women who dressed as men to join the fighting ranks, women's contributions prior to the Civil War largely involved domestic arts – feeding the troops, tending to their clothing, etc. During the Civil War, increasing

[49] Family Search, "Tracing Women Using Land, Tax, Probate, Military, Society, and Newspaper Records–International Institute," Family Search, April 27, 2023, https://www.familysearch.org/en/wiki/Tracing_Women_Using_Land,_Tax,_Probate,_Military,_Society,_and_Newspaper_Records_-_International_Institute

numbers of women served as nurses, leading eventually to the 1901 establishment of the U.S. Army Nurses Corps.

By World War I, women began to serve in the U.S. military in certain (largely non-combat) positions, and this is where the historical record search begins to open up. According to the National Park Service,[50] an estimated 350,000 American women served in uniform in World War II, enlisting in the Marine Corps Women's Reserve and in the WAACs (Army), WAVES (Navy), SPARs (Coast Guard), and WASPs (Army Air Force) with nearly 70,000 additional women serving in the Army, Navy, and Cadet Nurse Corps. Students researching female veterans should watch for these organizations and acronyms in record sets like the 3,877 records of *the US, Women's Army Corp (WAC) from 1942-1978* and the more than 450,000 records in the *US, WWII Cadet Nursing Corps Card Files, 1942-1948* record set – both free to access on Fold3. The *US, Veterans Affairs BIRLS Death File, 1850-2010* (see MILITARY above) also includes the records of female veterans of World War II who enlisted in the U.S. Army. This record set is also available (free) on Fold3.com.

African American Research and Record Sets

The 1860 USFC data shows that at the time of its census – approximately one year before shots were fired at Fort Sumter to mark the official beginning of the Civil War – nearly 90% of African Americans living in the United States were enslaved. Since researching enslaved individuals follows a very different path than researching free people of color, one of the first steps for researching African American veterans prior to 1865, when the 13th Amendment abolished slavery in America, is to determine their veteran's "condition of servitude" (free or enslaved) in this 1860 USFC.

The United States Colored Troops (USCT) was only in operation from 1863-1865. Prior to 1863, African Americans served in volunteer regiments

[50] National Park Service, "Women in the Military During World War II," National Park Service, December 7, 2023, https://www.nps.gov/articles/000/women-in-the-military-during-world-war-ii.htm

in both the North and the South, and almost all of the Union regiments became part of the USCT after its formation in 1863. Other military records unique to African American veterans include "Substitute Volunteer Enlistment" forms and documents indicating compensation to an enslaver for (an enslaved) soldier's service.

Path 1 - Free Person of Color

Simply put, if a student researching an African American veteran finds their veteran listed *by name* on the 1860 USFC, it is highly likely that veteran was free – either by birth, military service, purchase, or other means – prior to the Civil War. Encourage students to follow up this discovery by looking for "free papers" identifying the veteran as "free-born" and/or manumission documents formally releasing them from slavery. Free African Americans might also have immigration documents indicating entry into the U.S. as a freedman/freedwoman; they might also be listed on even earlier censuses or have records indicating military service in a war prior to the Civil War.

Path 2 - Person who was Enslaved

Researching a person who was enslaved prior to 1865 is more complicated, often leading to research of the enslaver whose records of ownership – deeds, sales, wills, inventories, etc. – may provide the only written clues regarding the past of the enslaved.

Several record sets generated after 1865 and the abolition of slavery in America may provide still more information helpful to this project, including county-level marriage/cohabitation records, voter registrations, deeds, etc. plus federal records such as Freedman's Savings & Trust applications (1865-1874) and records of the Freedmen's Bureau (1865-1872). The Smithsonian's National Museum of African American History & Culture recently unveiled the Freedmen's Bureau Search Portal

where students can check for records of their African American veterans during Reconstruction.[51]

Challenges to Researching African American Veterans

Students researching African Americans veterans may encounter three significant hurdles: absence of records, surname identification, and movement about the country. The absence of records was often due to historically limited rights for African Americans – especially the rights of enslaved African Americans who were often only referred to by their first name in documents prior to 1865. After 1865, formerly enslaved individuals were addressed by first and last name, but the surnames they chose came from multiple sources: some were likely ancestral/family names passed down through the generations, but others chose to use the last name of someone they respected, or even the surname of a former enslaver. This leads to situations where family members have different surnames – a significant challenge for family researchers. Finally, during the century from 1865 through the mid-1900s, African Americans in mass numbers moved from the South to larger cities in the North, Midwest, and West in search of work, education, and safety, as well as to find family members from whom they were separated during years of enslavement.

Native American Research and Record Sets

In 2021, the U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs formally recognized 574 American Indian Tribes and Alaska Natives.[52] Students researching a Native American veteran should be reminded that, while historically referred to as a single entity – "Indians" – Indigenous People are not all alike, and to that end, no single research strategy can be applied to "all" Native Americans. While Native Americans fought on both sides of the Civil War, students

[51] Hollis Gentry, "The Freedmen's bureau Records," National Museum of African American History and Culture, Smithsonian, January 9, 2025, https://nmaahc.si.edu/explore/initiatives/freedmens-bureau-records

[52] U.S. General Services Administration, "Federally Recognized American Indian Tribes and Alaska Native Tribes," USAGov, September 24, 2024, https://www.usa.gov/indian-tribes-alaska-native

researching Native American veterans for this project may well find their veterans on the rosters of the Indian Home Guard which were volunteer (infantry) units formed initially from members of the "Five Civilized Tribes" – Cherokee, Chickasaw, Choctaw, Creek, and Seminole.

Path 1 - Living in Oklahoma in 1900

In the years leading up to 1900, the U.S. government began distributing/redistributing land to Native Americans who could prove that they or their ancestors were among those who had been "relocated" to Indian Territory (present-day Oklahoma) during years of the Trail of Tears. The primary source documents generated at this time and place were considerable, but they are largely unique to members of one of the "Five Civilized Tribes" (see above). If the 1900 USFC indicates the veteran or their family was living in Indian Territory/OK in 1900, the student should check databases like Fold3 for land allotment and "enrollment records" (Dawes Rolls, etc.).

Path 2 - No known ties to Oklahoma in 1900

Students researching a veteran with no known ties to Oklahoma in 1900 will likely need to depend on U.S. Indian Census Rolls (mentioned earlier in the "Census" section of this document) and the tribal rolls of specific Indigenous tribes. The following FamilySearch.org Research Wiki offers links to a variety of these records.[53]

Other USFC references

Free people of color were enumerated in federal censuses from the very first USFC in 1790, but the 1850 USFC was the first to enumerate Native Americans, listing them as IND/IN/I in the "race" column. Both the 1900 and 1910 USFCs included a modified form of the general population schedule entitled, "Special Inquiries Relating to Indians." This form was used to gather up to 10 additional pieces of personal information including "Indian

[53] Family Search, "Native American Online Genealogy Records," Family Search, January 3, 2025, https://www.familysearch.org/en/wiki/Native_American_Online_Genealogy_Records

Name” and tribal membership for the person being enumerated and their parents, but it was only used in locations with significant Native American populations. Students should also check the “occupation” column on USFCs, looking specifically for terms like “Scout” that indicate the enumerated was likely Native American. If a Native American veteran’s tribal affiliation is known or if family members (ancestors or descendants) have been accepted for tribal membership, the student should look into the resources on that tribe’s website to see what historical information is available.

How to Craft and Share Narratives

Sara Sundberg, *Professor Emeritus of History, University of Central Missouri*
Katie Kline, *Director, Greater Kansas City Writing Project*
Lauren Hays, *Associate Professor of Educational Technology, University of Central Missouri*

Crafting Veteran Narratives

A narrative is a story, or account, often detailed, about something or someone. Crafting Veteran narratives begins with developing questions about an individual veteran's life story, conducting primary research to address those questions, and then critically analyzing the factual information in order to make an argument and understand the historical significance of the narrative.

Dividing a veteran's life story into manageable chronological periods such as early life, military career, and post service experiences provides organization for the primary research and narrative. When and where a veteran was born and who the veteran's parents were, are the kinds of questions that help ground the overall story. When and where they served in the military and in what branch of the military they served, and for how long, are examples of questions that not only inform the reader about their military experiences, but also may suggest ways their service impacted or reshaped their lives. The same is true for research into a veteran's post military service experiences. For example, what kinds of work did they pursue after their service? Was it the same or different from the work they

did in the military? Unpacking the inscription, and other symbols on their headstone may also provide clues to their post service story.

Finally, interpretation of factual information continues by asking what is the most informative or influential evidence from the research? What are the significant moments in their lives? Can the researcher make a claim or an argument about the veteran's experience based on the evidence uncovered in their research? For example, does the veteran's experience reveal a broader historical context for the veteran's experience? Consider the experience of Cleo Nadine Reagan Provance, a female veteran interred in the Missouri Veterans Cemetery in Higginsville. Her life story reflects the new and varied ways women served during WWII, even as traditional ideas about women's place in the home predominated. Cleo was one of thousands of young women who broke barriers by participating in the massive mobilization for WWII. In her case at the beginning of the war, she worked for a Western Electric munitions plant. Later, she was one of 100,000 women who joined the U.S. Navy's WAVES (Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service), thereby resisting the opposition to women's auxiliaries in the military. She earned the designation Pharmacist's Mate 3rd. Class caring for burn victims and those afflicted with malaria at Aiea Naval Hospital in Oahu. Two years after the war, Cleo married, started a family, and ran a daycare out of her home.[54]

Cleo's narrative provides information to support the claim, or argument, that her experience mirrors broad themes in American women's military service and mid-twentieth century U.S. women's history. After the War, the choices she made also mirrored many women's decisions to return to more traditional roles in the home. Historians suggest that a "postwar

[54] Ellen Carol DuBois and Lynn Dumenil, *Through Women's Eyes: An American History with Documents* (Boston: Bedford, 2005).

culture of conformity" idealizing the family influenced women's decisions.[55] This analysis is sensitive to the fact that we do not have specific, factual information about her motivations to join the Navy, or take on a more traditional role in the home after the war. Instead, it highlights the historical context for information in her narrative and the ways she fits into the larger American story during World War II.

The military experience of Robert Crutcher aka Robert Allison (c. 1826 – 1900) provides another example of how to make a claim, or argument, using veterans' life stories. Robert Allison, an enslaved person, joined the 101st United States Colored Infantry in Owensboro, Kentucky in 1864. He was one of thousands of African Americans who joined the Union Army in 1864-1865, following passage of the Emancipation Proclamation in 1863. The Emancipation Proclamation did not extend emancipation to those who were enslaved in border states like Kentucky. Allison joined the Army as an enslaved person with the permission of his owner, not as a free man or an enslaved fugitive. His military papers document that his service was due to his owner Thomas Crutcher. Crutcher would later "file a claim against the Federal government for loss of Allison's services." Allison left the Army as free man on December 16, 1865, ten days after the ratification of the 13th Amendment that abolished slavery in the United States. Allison's Civil War service exposes the diversity and complexity of the African American military experience within the different states of the Union during the Civil War. Allison is buried in Fort Scott National Cemetery.

Readers of these narratives will bring their own motivations and biases to these narratives. To avoid researcher bias, interpretations of individual veteran's lives should be based on accurate and impartial factual information, rather than bias or speculation. All factual information should be

[55] Ellen Carol DuBois and Lynn Dumenil, *Through Women's Eyes: An American History with Documents* (Boston: Bedford, 2005), 508, 555.

appropriately cited. Permissions should be obtained for material that is not a part of public record.

Stories of the Fallen

As a part of this grant project, students at the University of Central Missouri conducted research on these veterans in order to create a narrative to commemorate them. Below are excerpts of some of those biographies. By following the steps in this handbook, students can complete biographies like these also. Teachers can also use these biographies to teach students how narratives are constructed and how primary sources are used to construct them. Each biography contains hyperlinks where people can read more of the biographies on the VA website.

Irene Tamara Barnes Sherrow

Irene Tamara Barnes Sherrow who volunteered to serve in the Marine Corps Women's Reserve was a first-generation Jewish American. Her husband, Harold Sherrow, was drafted into the United States Army and served at Anzio.

Hilda Lillian Bryan and John Edwin

Hilda Lillian Bryan enlisted in the Navy during World War II and was assigned to the WAVES (Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service) and started her career as an ensign. She took her basic training at the US Naval Training Center located in the Bronx, New York, and according to her oral history at the Library of Congress, she lived at Hunter College in the Bronx during basic training. After World War II she married John Edwin Bryan, a Marine who was stationed at Camp Pendleton during the Cold War who had earned a master's in Elementary Education from Central Missouri State College in Warrensburg, Missouri. He served in the Korean War and left service at the rank of sergeant.

Joseph H. "Tino" Olvera

Joseph J. "Tino" Olvera was a first-generation Mexican American who was born in Standish, Missouri, to Jose and Conception (Martinez), who were born in Mexico and moved to Standish in the early 1920s. Tino's father, Jose, worked as a railway section laborer for many years. Tino grew up in a household that included five brothers and he graduated from Carrollton High School in 1944.

After Tino graduated from high school, he enlisted in the United States Army on June 8, 1944. He served in the Italian theater during the war and was awarded the Purple Heart. He was discharged on December 22, 1945.

James Shipley

James Shipley had the lifelong dream of becoming a mechanic. James' fascination with engines gave him an opportunity to sign up with an all Black fighter group, now known as the legendary Tuskegee Airmen. In 1942, at 19 years old, he volunteered to join the all Black Army Air Corps at a time when many did not believe African Americans should be in the United States Armed Forces. After completing his basic training at Tuskegee Institute in Tuskegee, Alabama, he started aircraft mechanic school in Lincoln, Nebraska where he learned how to rebuild and assemble all parts of the airplane such as, rebuilding engines, taking off propellers, working on wings, and learning the whole structure of the plane. Next, he went on to Detroit, Michigan to gain more knowledge operating airplanes and how to get them ready for preflight and postflight. After completing his training, he was deployed to Italy as a crew chief and earned the rank of Staff Sergeant. After the war, James returned to Tipton and enjoyed a career as an auto mechanic.

Modalities for Sharing Stories

In addition to written narratives, technology can be used to share the stories of interred veterans with a wider audience. Technology can be used

to disseminate stories of interred veterans, create an authentic audience for students, and help support place-based pedagogy.

Technology for an Authentic Audience

When asking students to complete work, finding ways to make the assignment applicable outside the class can motivate students and demonstrate how the assignment is relevant.

- Tools such as Pressbooks allow teachers or students to create open books that can be shared widely so that narratives students write can be used by others.
- WYSIWYG (what you see is what you get) editors can allow students to post their work on a website that is accessible from a search engine. Examples include Google Sites, Wix, and many others.
- Students can also share their stories of interred veterans on a public facing blog. Here are some examples in Blogger and WordPress.
- Students can also create podcasts as a way to tell the stories of interred veterans. Podcasts give students the opportunity to practice oral skills and communicating in a different medium. Examples of podcast hosting sites include Podbean, Audacity, and Buzzsprout.

While some of the referenced tools above have subscriptions, many of them have free versions as well.

Technology to Support Place-Based Pedagogy

Technology can help teachers overcome barriers related to place-based pedagogy. As mentioned previously, the realities of place-based pedagogy are that it takes time and resources that are not always available.

To use technology to support place-based pedagogy, written narratives can be placed in digital format along with pictures and videos of individual headstones, historical artifacts, and the broader cemeteries. Accompanying images assist those who have not visited the cemeteries get a sense of the place. This can be important when the distance is too great to visit a federal

or state veteran's cemetery, or for individuals who have mobility issues. Technology supports accessibility. Teachers can also capture images and videos using cameras built into devices, a stand-alone camera, or a camera that captures 360 images (e.g. Insta360) and 360 degree photographs of the Fort Scott National Cemetery and the Missouri State Veterans Cemetery in Higginsville.[56]

Including technology in place-based learning can support further inquiry as students view images, ask questions, make predictions, and collect data. Technology expands the interdisciplinary nature of place-based pedagogy by asking students to use digital skills. While technology never replaces embodied experiences, technology can open new ways of learning and experiencing that students benefit from.

[56] VeteransVoicesfromtheHeartland, a series of videos of the cemeteries at Higginsville and Fort Scott, https://www.youtube.com/@VeteransVoicesfromtheHea-cs4zy

Appendix A

How to teach with primary sources

Tina M. Ellsworth, Assistant Professor of Education, Northwest Missouri State University

Now that students have their question and have begun conducting preliminary research, it is important for teachers to position students to analyze those artifacts. State standards expect students to know how to conduct research and analyze artifacts, so in this section, we will share specific strategies teachers can use to guide students to accurate analysis of primary and secondary sources.

Historical Thinking Chart

The Digital Inquiry Group (DIG) encourages students to engage in four historical thinking skills when interacting with primary (or secondary) source evidence: sourcing, contextualization, corroboration, and close reading.[57]

Sourcing is a skill students use when determining when and where an artifact was created, the perspective of the creator, and the intended audience. When engaging with sourcing, students would also consider the reliability and validity of the source.

Contextualization is evoked when students consider what was happening at the time when the source was created. Students should connect historical events and processes to specific circumstances of time and place as well as broader regional, national, or global processes."[58]

Students engage in corroboration by considering how various pieces of historical evidence talk to each other. Students should consider how the

[57] Digital Inquiry Group, "Historical Thinking Chart," DIG, June 23, 2020, https://inquirygroup.org/history-lessons/historical-thinking-chart

[58] The College Board, (2017). AP United States History: Course and Exam Description, 2017, 116, https://secure-media.collegeboard.org/digitalServices/pdf/ap/ap-us-history-course-and-exam-description.pdf

artifacts tell a similar story, but if the narratives vary or even contradict one another, students should seek to determine why that might be so.

Finally, by closely reading any type of artifact, students are paying close attention to detail whether or not the source is text-based or visual. When closely reading an artifact, students consider how the creator of the source crafts an argument through use of evidence, specific word choice, images, and symbols to persuade an audience.[59]

Teachers can use DIG's Historical Thinking Chart by having students answer the questions of every artifact they encounter (See Figure 1). The third column provides sentence stems for students to help them articulate their thinking. If students are not acclimated to using primary sources, this activity should be modeled by the teacher and completed as a whole group until students feel confident in the process. Subsequent artifacts should be analyzed in pairs or small groups to continue to build confidence and expand students to various ways of thinking about an artifact.

Figure 1
DIG Historical Thinking Chart

[59] DIG, 2020.

HISTORICAL THINKING CHART

Historical Reading Skills	Questions	Students should be able to . . .	Prompts
Sourcing	• Who wrote this? • What is the author's perspective? • When was it written? • Where was it written? • Why was it written? • Is it reliable? Why? Why not?	• Identify the author's position on the historical event • Identify and evaluate the author's purpose in producing the document • Hypothesize what the author will say before reading the document • Evaluate the source's trustworthiness by considering genre, audience, and purpose	• The author probably believes . . . • I think the audience is . . . • Based on the source information, I think the author might . . . • I do/don't trust this document because . . .
Contextualization	• When and where was the document created? • What was different then? What was the same? • How might the circumstances in which the document was created affect its content?	• Understand how context/ background information influences the content of the document • Recognize that documents are products of particular points in time	• Based on the background information, I understand this document differently because . . . • The author might have been influenced by _____ (historical context) . . . • This document might not give me the whole picture because . . .
Corroboration	• What do other documents say? • Do the documents agree? If not, why? • What are other possible documents? • What documents are most reliable?	• Establish what is probable by comparing documents to each other • Recognize disparities between accounts	• The author agrees/disagrees with . . . • These documents all agree/ disagree about . . . • Another document to consider might be . . .
Close Reading	• What claims does the author make? • What evidence does the author use? • What language (words, phrases, images, symbols) does the author use to persuade the document's audience? • How does the document's language indicate the author's perspective?	• Identify the author's claims about an event • Evaluate the evidence and reasoning the author uses to support claims • Evaluate author's word choice; understand that language is used deliberately	• I think the author chose these words in order to . . . • The author is trying to convince me . . . • The author claims . . . • The evidence used to support the author's claims is . . .

STANFORD HISTORY EDUCATION GROUP SHEG.STANFORD.EDU

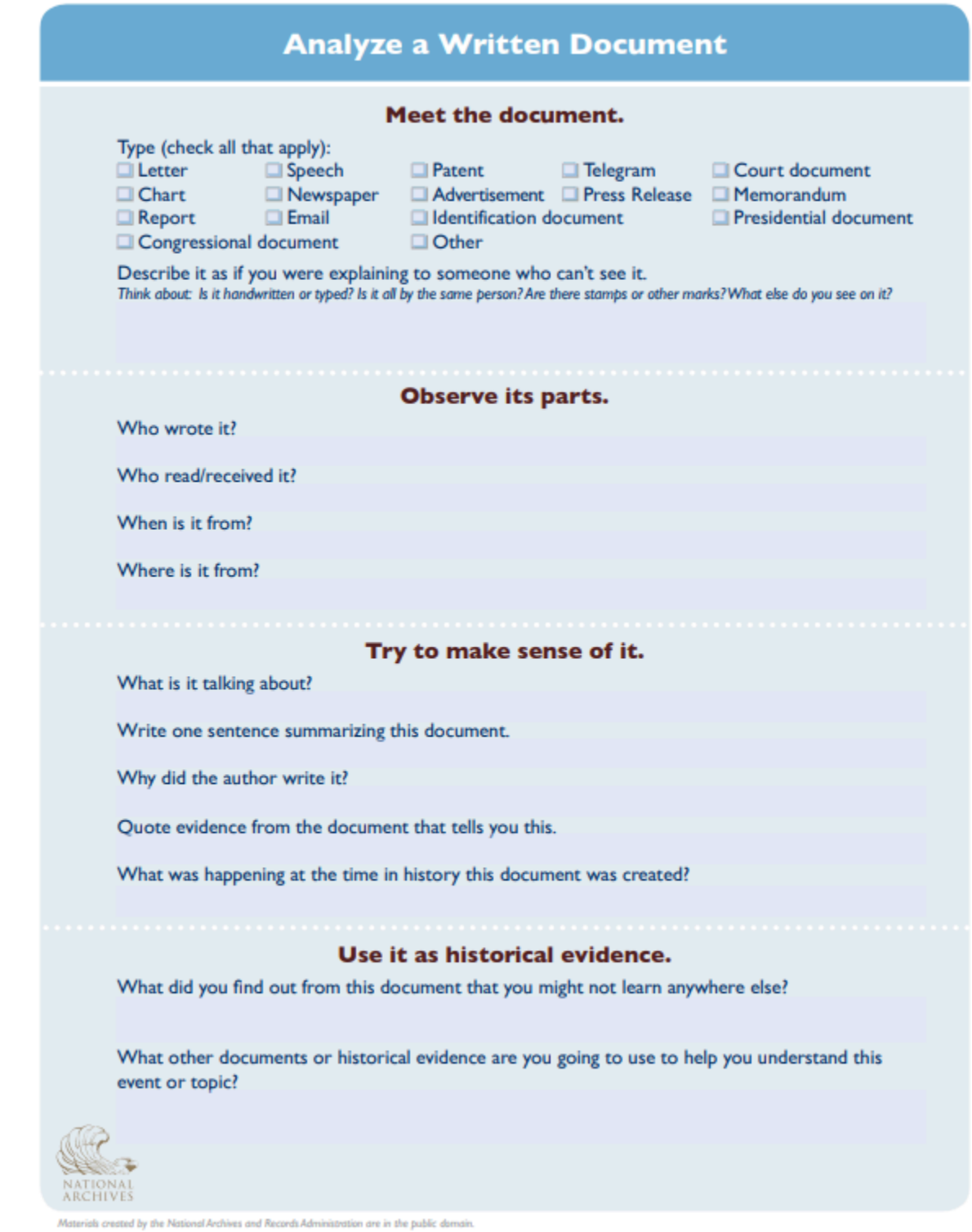
Evidence Analysis Sheets from the National Archives

The National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) (2023) has created worksheets to guide students through analyzing a myriad of primary source types, including: photographs, written documents, objects, posters, maps, cartoons, videos, sound recordings, and artwork.[60] Two sets of these analysis sheets exist for different learners. One set is for younger learners/ELs, while the other set is for secondary students. All worksheets are also available in Spanish. By having students fill out these worksheets, they are engaging in the same four historical thinking skills that SHEG (2020) highlights. Figure 2 shows what the worksheet for a secondary student looks like for analyzing a written document, such as a census record.

[60] National Archives and Records Administration, "Document Analysis," National Archives, 2023, https://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/worksheets.

Figure 2

NARA Written Document Analysis Worksheet



Analyze a Written Document

Meet the document.

Type (check all that apply):

- ☐ Letter
- ☐ Speech
- ☐ Patent
- ☐ Telegram
- ☐ Court document
- ☐ Chart
- ☐ Newspaper
- ☐ Advertisement
- ☐ Press Release
- ☐ Memorandum
- ☐ Report
- ☐ Email
- ☐ Identification document
- ☐ Presidential document
- ☐ Congressional document
- ☐ Other

Describe it as if you were explaining to someone who can't see it.

Think about: Is it handwritten or typed? Is it all by the same person? Are there stamps or other marks? What else do you see on it?

Observe its parts.

Who wrote it?

Who read/received it?

When is it from?

Where is it from?

Try to make sense of it.

What is it talking about?

Write one sentence summarizing this document.

Why did the author write it?

Quote evidence from the document that tells you this.

What was happening at the time in history this document was created?

Use it as historical evidence.

What did you find out from this document that you might not learn anywhere else?

What other documents or historical evidence are you going to use to help you understand this event or topic?

NATIONAL ARCHIVES

Materials created by the National Archives and Records Administration are in the public domain.

Primary Source Analysis Tools from the Library of Congress

The Library of Congress also offers teacher's guides for guiding students through the analysis process. The guides contain questions for analyzing a plethora of source types, including newspapers and maps, which students will likely be using as they learn more about their soldier. The guides have students engage in the iterative nature between observing, reflecting, and questioning what they find in the source. When using this guide, teachers should consider how the natural question and answer process will have students moving among each skill. These questions should not be read strictly left to right, but instead should serve as a guide for helping students to make sense of the complexity of the source. Teachers will see how these three skills overlap with the historical thinking skills mentioned earlier.[61] For this example, we will use the Teacher's Guide for Analyzing Newspapers (Figure 3).[62]

Figure 3

Teacher's Guide for Analyzing Newspapers from the Library of Congress

[61] DIG, 2020.

[62] Library of Congress, "Teacher's Guides and Analysis Tool," Library of Congress, January 9, 2025, https://www.loc.gov/programs/teachers/getting-started-with-primary-sources/guides/

TEACHER'S GUIDE
ANALYZING NEWSPAPERS

Guide students with the sample questions as they respond to the primary source. **Encourage them to go back and forth between the columns; there is no correct order.**

OBSERVE

Ask students to identify and note details.

Sample Questions:

Describe what you see • What do you notice first? • What text do you notice first? • What do you see other than news articles? • How is the text and other information arranged on the page? • What details indicate when this was published? • What details suggest where this was published?

REFLECT

Encourage students to generate and test hypotheses about the source.

Who do you think was the audience for this publication? • What can you tell about what was important at the time and place of publication? • What can you tell about the point of view of the people who produced this? • How would this be different if produced today? • How would this be the same?

QUESTION

Invite students to ask questions that lead to more observations and reflections.

What do you wonder about...

who? • what? • when? • where? • why? • how?

FURTHER INVESTIGATION

Help students to identify questions appropriate for further investigation, and to develop a research strategy for finding answers.

Sample Question: What more do you want to know, and how can you find out?

A few follow-up activity ideas:

Beginning
Read one article without its headline. Write a headline for the article. Compare this to the original headline.

Intermediate
Look at individual stories from a newspaper front page. Which is the most important? Why do you say that? How would you organize the stories on the page? What factors might explain any differences between your version and the original?

Advanced
Choose one news item. Find another item on the same topic published on a different day, in a different place, or both. Compare the coverage of the same topic in the two news items. What is different? What is the same? What are possible explanations for the differences?

For more tips on using primary sources, go to

http://www.loc.gov.teachers

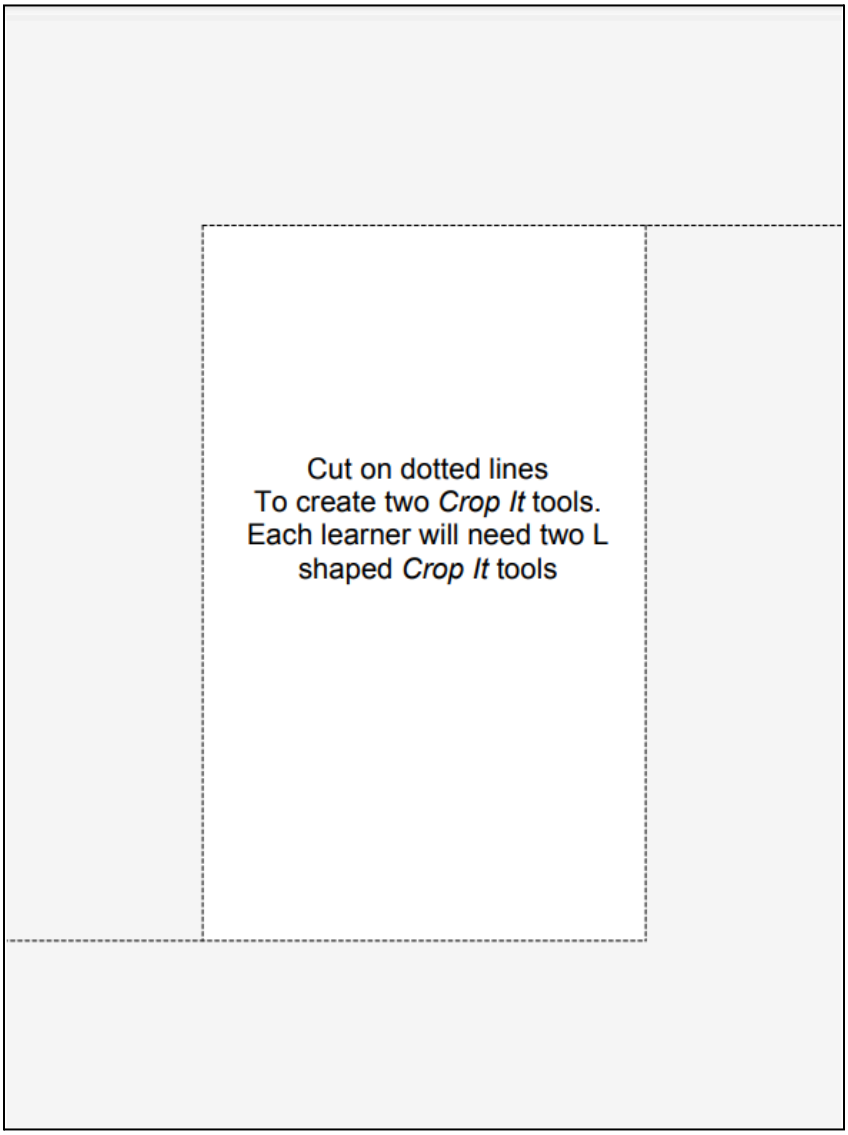
LIBRARY OF CONGRESS | LOC.gov/teachers

We recommend teachers pair these questions with a "cropping tool" activity that students can use to "crop" the artifact to the answer by framing the answer in the middle of the cropping tools (Figure 4).[63] Provide each student with the same primary source to analyze and a cropping tool. Using the questions from the teacher's guide, ask students to answer each question using evidence from the primary source by cropping to the answer. This strategy positions students to pay close attention to details and clearly identify evidence in the artifact to answer the question. It also exposes students to varying perspectives as students may choose different answers to the same question. By helping students hear the perspectives of their peers, they are learning how to more deeply analyze artifacts.

[63] Rhonda Bondie, "Crop it," Teaching History.org, 2018, https://teachinghistory.org/teaching-materials/teaching-guides/25697

Figure 4

Crop it Tool Template



If students are not acclimated to using primary sources, these strategies can enable them to conduct a more thorough analysis than they might be able to accomplish on their own. Students should practice structured analysis skills like this until they feel confident doing it on their own.

Appendix B

Place Based Education

Katie Kline, Kansas City Greater Writing Project

Involving students in research projects connected to area cemeteries is a form of place-based education, which has positive effects on student learning and engagement. Most simply, place-based education connects students to the local community and/or environment. While much of learning today is grounded in a specific curriculum, place-based education is grounded in a place – in local heritage, cultures, landscapes, opportunities and experiences – using these contexts as the foundation for the study of language arts, mathematics, social studies, science and other subjects across the curriculum.[64]

Place-based education can be integrated into all content areas and takes many different forms. A simple example might be to bring an unchanged lesson plan to a specific place outside of the classroom; while a more complex example might involve students developing a range of inquiry projects after examining a local stream and meeting with residents who use the water regularly. In other words, place-based education can be learning that takes place *in* a place or *about* a place or *from* a place.[65] In some ways, there is nothing new about place-based education. While modern public schools often isolate students from their communities, place-based education is a return to some of the ways in which societies have historically prepared young people for participation in civic life: connecting students to their social and natural communities. The foundational goals of agency, equity and community are advanced through place-based education.

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[64] David Sobel, *Place-based Education: Connecting Classrooms & Communities* (2nd ed.) (Massachusetts:Orion Society, 2004).

[65] Dvora Granit-Dgani, *Paths to Place-Based Education,* (Tel Aviv: The Mofet Institute, 2021).

The following six design principles, created by the Teton Science Schools (an entire school dedicated to place-based education for decades), are usually present in place-based education experiences that lead to meaningful student outcomes (Figure 5):

Figure 5

Teton Science Schools' Place-Based Education Design Principles

Community as Classroom Local and regional experts, experiences, and places are part of the expanded definition of classroom.	**Learner-Centered** Learning is personally relevant to students and enables student agency.	**Inquiry-Based** Learning is grounded in observing, asking relevant questions, making predictions, and collecting data to understand the world.
Local to Global Local learning serves as a model for understanding global challenges, opportunities, and connections.	**Design Thinking** A systemic approach for students to make a meaningful impact in communities through the curriculum.	**Interdisciplinary** The traditional subject area content, skills, and dispositions are taught through an integrated, interdisciplinary, and frequently project-based, approach

Place-based Education Realities

Research has shown that place-based education increases student achievement, builds stronger ties between students and their community, and heightens students' commitment to serving as active, contributing citizens.[66] Even with the research to support these benefits, though, and "even where there is awareness and a desire to develop and implement PBE, teachers, school administrators, and educational leaders lament a lack of funding, time, or training to permit them to fully employ PBE, as well as

[66] David Sobel, *Place-based Education: Connecting Classrooms & Communities* (2nd ed.) (Massachusetts:Orion Society, 2004).

being limited by standards-based learning and test-based accountability measures."[67] Because students often design their own learning and construct, rather than consume knowledge, place-based education can be difficult for teachers who have to answer to state standards, school curriculum pacing guides, and pressure to ensure learning outcomes tied to content area skills. If students are allowed to develop their own inquiry projects within a community, how can teachers ensure that the content they need to cover will be covered? When class time is already limited, how can travel to and from a place be time well spent? With little curriculum, colleague or administrative support, how can a teacher build the necessary community relationships, understand the problems faced by the community, and scaffold student learning to navigate the relevant issues in a worthwhile place-based experience? There are not easy or universal answers to these questions, but anticipating the challenges that are most likely to interfere with a teacher's entry into place-based learning, can help develop a more sustainable and worthwhile implementation. Permission to start small, even very small, is granted.

Additional Resources

Percoco, J.A. (2017). *Take the journey : Teaching American history through place-based learning*. Routledge.

Smith, G. A. (2002). Place-based education: Learning to be where we are. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *83*(8), 584-594.

Smith, Gregory A., and David Sobel. *Place- and Community-Based Education in Schools : Place and Community-Based Education in Schools*, Taylor & Francis Group, 2010.

Vander Ark, T., Liebtag, E., & McClennen, N. (2020). *The power of place : Authentic learning through place-based education*. ASCD.

[67] Miri Yemini, Laura Engel, and Adi Ben Simon, "Place-based Education–a Systematic Review of Literature," *Educational Review,* (2023): 1-21.

Whitlock, A.M. (2024). *Place-based social studies education.* Teachers College Press.

Appendix C

Missouri and Kansas Standards

Tina M. Ellsworth, Assistant Professor of Education, Northwest Missouri State University

According to the National Council for the Social Studies, the purpose of social studies education in the United States is to prepare students for active, informed and responsible citizenship in a democratic societies.[68] As history educators, we have students engage in analyzing primary sources and historical argumentation to position them to take informed action to make their communities and world a better place. State standards often seek these same ends. When having students engage in historical research, teachers can rest assured that by studying veterans and crafting narratives about their lives, they are strongly aligned to state expectations.

State Standards Alignment

In 2013, the National Council for the Social Studies published its College Career and Civic (C3) Life Framework to guide states as they create social studies standards and guide districts in designing high-quality social studies curricula. Led by an inquiry arc, the C3 framework's goal is to "a) enhance the rigor of the social studies disciplines; b) build critical thinking, problem solving, and participatory skills to become engaged citizens; and c) align academic programs to the Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies."[69] The framework is grounded in inquiry, disciplinary tools and concepts, crafting arguments, and taking informed action.

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[68] National Council for the Social Studies, "College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards," National Council for the Social Studies, 2013, https://www.socialstudies.org/standards/c3

[69] National Council for the Social Studies, "College, Career, and Civic Life (C3) Framework for Social Studies State Standards," National Council for the Social Studies, 2013, https://www.socialstudies.org/standards/c3, para 1.

When the Kansas social studies standards were revised in 2020, the educator-led team followed the guidance of the C3 framework and created conceptually-based state standards that required students to craft arguments using disciplinary practices. This means students are using primary and secondary sources to craft an argument by developing a claim and using reasoning to connect various pieces of evidence from the primary and secondary sources together. Taking a more conceptual based approach to standards and local curriculum gives individual districts and teachers freedom to decide the content to pair with the processes embedded within argumentation. Ultimately, students will utilize claim, evidence, and reasoning to build an argument.

Missouri's state social studies standards also align with the C3 Framework. "The Tools of Social Science Inquiry" section of the social studies standards has students investigating and drawing conclusions to develop claims about the past using multiple pieces of evidence and disciplinary concepts. For secondary students in Missouri, the first theme of "Tools of Social Science Inquiry" has students developing research plans to investigate topics in social studies and to present a research project.[70] Later in the same theme in section D, students are to develop questions, determine helpful resources and consider multiple points of view. These steps of inquiry are meant to "outline ways of thinking that apply to the study of social studies rather than content to be learned" demonstrating strong alignment to this project as students ask questions about a veteran, find sources to answer their question, grapple with competing pieces of evidence, and ultimately communicate their findings.[71]

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[70] Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, "MLS Social Studies Standards Grades 6-12," DESE, 2016, 2, https://dese.mo.gov/media/pdf/curr-mls-standards-ss-6-12-sboe-2016

[71] Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, "Assessment Item Specifications–Social Studies American History Grades 6-8," DESE, 2022, https://dese.mo.gov/media/pdf/asmt-ss-ah-g68-item-specs; Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, "Assessment Item Specifications–Social Studies American History Grades 9-12," DESE, 2022,https://dese.mo.gov/media/pdf/asmt-ss-ah-g912-item-specs

Argumentation Skills

Key components to historical argumentation include making claims, appropriately using and citing evidence, and applying reasoning skills. Missouri and Kansas standards both explicitly state expectations that students can do this very thing.

In each of the five social studies standards for Kansas, there are benchmarks that say "The student will use their understanding [of the standard] to make a claim or advance a thesis using evidence and argument."[72] In addition, the social studies state assessment for elementary, middle, and high school students in Kansas, is measured by a student's ability to make a claim, use evidence and apply reasoning.

Missouri state standards do not specifically mention the words claim, thesis, or argument, but in the state assessment item specification document, which teachers use for preparing students for the state assessment, the priority standards under the theme of "Tools of Social Studies inquiry" clearly states an expectation that says:

> In order to investigate and draw conclusions about the past, students need to think critically about information as well as evaluate multiple sources of evidence. The following steps of inquiry outline ways of thinking that apply to the study of social studies rather than content to be learned. As part of this process, instruction should apply disciplinary tools as well as use these processes to answer questions and solve problems.
>
> - Ask questions: Why? Why there? Why then? What is the impact of...? What is the real story of...? What is the significance of...?
> - Develop compelling questions and research the past.
> - Anticipate and utilize the most useful sources to address their questions.

[72] Kansas Department of Education, "Kansas History, Government and Social Studies Standards," 2020, 6, https://www.ksde.org/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=qA2vIc5MJDM%3d&tabid=472&portalid=0&mid=4744

- Develop and test claims and counter-claims to address their questions.
- Take informed action based on their learning.[73]

Argumentation goes beyond simply explaining that event happened but instead makes a claim or thesis about said event and backs up the claim with evidence. As students craft questions, they should consider whether or not the question lends towards an argument-based response. If the response would result in summarizing or explaining the past, then reword the question. As argumentation skills strengthen, students should consider counter claims and counter evidence, and provide rebuttals or explanations to refute them. For the *Veteran Voices from the Heartland* project, students should move away from "Who was this soldier?" because it would result in an explanatory response and move towards questions like "Why should this soldier be remembered?" where students would have to craft an argument about why the soldier should be remembered. Students could also ask "What was the most important contribution of this soldier," Or "How did this soldier mirror the context of the times?" (see narrative section). The important part to remember here is to have students answer a question that requires they go beyond explaining what happened and shift towards making a claim or argument about the person.

[73] DESE, 2022.

Appendix D

Online Research Sources

Kim Alberg, Midwest Genealogy Center

Original military records and many other primary source documents related to the Veteran Voices project are maintained by the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA). A significant number of these NARA records and other state and local records have never been filmed and/or digitized, making these records simply unavailable online.

That said, the world of online genealogy has exploded in recent years, and the list of websites and links on the table below (see Figure 6) should help your students find success with their veteran research. While many of these websites offer large general **(G)** record collections, others are better used for military **(M)** record searches or for specialized records related to gender/race/ethnicity **(S)**. These strengths are indicated on the table in the column to the far right. Unless otherwise noted, each of these sites offers free access to records.

Figure 6

Websites to Support Genealogical Research

WEBSITES Note: "Library Editions" of some subscription services are offered at no charge through many public libraries and historical/genealogical societies.	**USES** (see above)
The Ancestor Hunt – https://theancestorhunt.com/ ● Created by Kenneth R. Marks, The Ancestor Hunt is a collection of links to records in more than 20 (genealogy) record categories. ● From the link above, use the RESOURCES tab (top right) to focus your search to online records for "Military Records" (by state) and many other categories. ● TIP: Be prepared to teach students how to deal with pop-up ads.	G, M

Ancestry ($) – https://www.ancestry.com/ , **Ancestry Library Edition** ● With over 40 billion searchable (2024) historical records and photographs covering the gamut of genealogical research, Ancestry.com is the largest, for-profit genealogy company in the world. ● Many libraries and historical/genealogical societies offer free access to Ancestry LibraryEdition which includes the record collections and tutorials, but does not offer users the option of creating family trees or contacting existing tree owners. ● TIP: If your students will be using Ancestry.com/LE for their research, encourage them to view MGC's free, 40 minute, "Beginning Ancestry Library Edition" class to learn how to streamline their research and take advantage of all Ancestry has to offer. https://www.mymcpl.org/genealogy/get-started/online-learning	G, M, S
BillionGraves ($) – https://billiongraves.com/ ● Established in 2010, BillionGraves is an open-source, cemetery database with 50 million headstone images, all linked to GPS coordinates. ● Some records can be accessed at no charge, others require a subscription. ● TIP: Remind students that – aside from the GPS location of the tombstone itself – the information on sites like BillionGraves (and FindaGrave, below) is secondary information. Even the tombstone is considered a secondary source.	M
Chronicling America – https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/ ● Sponsored by the National Endowment for the Humanities and the Library of Congress, this name-searchable, newspaper database includes over 20 million digitized newspaper pages from across the U.S. from 1756-1963. ● TIP: Use the "Advanced Search" function for a more efficient and focused search.	G, M
Cyndi's List – https://www.cyndislist.com/us/ ● Free-to-use, categorized links to online resources related to genealogical research ● Relevant categories include "U.S. Military", "U.S. Military: Civil War", "Women in the War", "African American", "Native American", "Kansas", and "Missouri", & more	G, M, S
Digital State Archives – https://sites.google.com/site/statearchives/home ● One-stop "shopping" for the digitized records – documents, photos, oral histories, newspapers, etc. – from the state archives/libraries from all 50 states.	G, M, S

• State links will redirect you to sites like Missouri Digital Heritage – the online collections of the Missouri State Archives, the Missouri State Library, and more.	
FamilySearch – https://www.familysearch.org • Sponsored by The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, FamilySearch offers free online record access to any registered user, regardless of religious affiliation. • Access to some records is restricted to specific locations – local FamilySearch Centers and affiliate libraries or the FamilySearch Library in Salt Lake City, UT. • TIP: Use the RESEARCH WIKI to access valuable background information, research tips, and links to related record sets.	G, M, S
FindAGrave – https://www.findagrave.com/ • Begun in 1995, FindAGrave is a free-use, cemetery website with over 200 million, user-entered memorials. • TIP: Remind students of the need to confirm FindAGrave information with primary sources. (See BillionGraves re. secondary sources)	M
Fold3 ($) - https://www.fold3.com/ , **Fold3 Library Edition** (free through library) • Military records are the primary focus of Fold3, which is named for the third (veterans) fold in a traditionally folded military flag. • TIP: Use this computer-searchable database to access many filmed/digitized NARA military record sets as well as entire collections of African American and Native American documents.	M, S
HeritageQuest Online (library edition) • ProQuest's HeritageQuest Online is a library database of genealogical and historical collections spanning more than 60 countries and dating back into the 1700s. It is available only through libraries and historical/genealogical societies. • Record sets related to this project include military records (naval enlistments, pensions, provost marshall records, etc.), Freedman's Bank records, U.S. Federal Censuses, city directories, and wills/probate records.	G, M, S
Internet Archive – https://archive.org/ • The Internet Archive is a non-profit, digital public library which provides free, online access to millions of books/texts, including many published regimental records and (old) county histories. • TIP: Use the search function (magnifying glass) in the left sidebar of an opened resource to search that publication for a specific veteran's name.	G, M, S

Midwest Genealogy Center – https://www.mymcpl.org/genealogy ● Unlimited access to how-to classes/"Online Learning", topical guides, fillable forms ● MCPL card holders also have remote access to 75+ genealogy databases including Fold3 (military), Newspapers.com Library Edition, HeritageQuest Online, and more.	G, M, S
MyHeritage ($) https://www.myheritage.com/ , **MyHeritage Library Edition** ● MyHeritage is a genealogy platform with over 19 billion historical records (2023), from around the globe. A free, limited sign-up is available, but a subscription is required to read full versions of records/documents. MyHeritage LibraryEdition offers library customers access to the record collections at no charge, but access does not include the option of creating and/or maintaining a personal family tree. ● TIP: Begin search by selecting a category from the right sidebar.	G, M
National Archives and Records Administration – https://www.archives.gov/ ● NARA is the federal agency charged with preserving important U.S. records and documents. For NARA's history and collections, go to https://www.archives.gov/publications/general-info-leaflets/1-about-archives.html ● NARA partners with numerous companies – including Ancestry, FamilySearch, and Fold3 – to provide online (digitized) access to National Archive holdings.	M, S
NARA Access to Archival Database – https://aad.archives.gov/aad/index.jsp ● The AAD provides computer-searchable, online access to select NARA records. ● See complete subject index at https://aad.archives.gov/aad/subject-list.jsp	M
National Cemetery Administration – https://www.cem.va.gov/index.asp ● Maintained by the U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs (VA), this website offers two searchable, veterans' databases with information for veterans buried in national, state, and other military/VA cemeteries, and in private cemeteries (after 1996) with a military/VA-issued grave marker. Information varies for each listing, but most include rank, branch, and relatives buried in the same location. ● Veterans Legacy Memorial – https://www.vlm.cem.va.gov	M

National Park Service "The Civil War" – https://www.nps.gov/civilwar/index.htm ● The NPS maintains numerous Civil War historic sites and memorials, including this site which offers Civil War curriculum materials for Fort Scott and other NPS parks AND the "**Soldiers and Sailors Database**" containing information about men who served in both Union and Confederate units, their regiments, battles, and more. ● TIP: The brief regimental histories accessed through this website typically include the battles in which the regiment participated, but it is important to remind students that this alone does not guarantee that *their* veteran fought in each event.	M
Online Military Indexes and Records – USA – https://www.militaryindexes.com/ ● Organized by U.S. conflict/war, Joe Beine's website includes links to online military records such as rosters, enlistment/discharge documents, casualties, and more. ● Some links redirect to subscription sites (EX. Ancestry), others direct to free-use sites (EX FamilySearch, NARA's *Access to Archival Databases*).	M
USGen Web Project – https://www.usgenweb.org/ ● The USGenWeb Project is a volunteer-maintained collection of websites and links, organized by state. ● Information available varies greatly by state and even by county within each state page, but the USGenWeb is a good place to search for unique documents, maps, and other records not available on other websites.	G, M, S

Appendix E

Online Content Resources

By Kim Alberg

The Library of Congress (https://guides.loc.gov/) offers free, online research guides on over 80 topics, including all key topics related to this project, and the links below provide access to even more historical content and information regarding the research *process* for the topics indicated. Many of the sites below also provide their own links to online data collections and other resources.

Military

National Archives and Records Administration (NARA)

- https://www.archives.gov/research/military
- https://www.archives.gov/research/military/civil-war/resources
- https://www.archives.gov/research/military/ww2

FamilySearch

- https://www.familysearch.org/en/wiki/United_States_Military_Online_Genealogy_Records
- https://www.familysearch.org/en/wiki/United_States_Civil_War,_1861-1865
- https://www.familysearch.org/en/wiki/World_War_II_United_States_Military_Records,_1941_to_1945

Women in the Military

National Archives and Records Administration (NARA)
https://www.archives.gov/research/alic/reference/military/women

UNC-Greensboro's Betty H. Carter Women Veterans Historical Project
https://gateway.uncg.edu/islandora/object/wvhp:0

National Women's History Museum
https://www.womenshistory.org/exhibitions/online-exhibits

United Service Organizations (USO
https://www.uso.org/stories/3005-over-200-years-of-service-the-history-of-women-in-the-us-military

National World War II Museum
https://www.nationalww2museum.org/students-teachers/student-resources/research-starters/women-wwii

National Park Service
- https://www.nps.gov/articles/000/women-in-the-military-during-world-war-ii.htm
- https://www.nps.gov/articles/000/women-in-world-war-ii.htm

African American

National Archives and Records Administration (NARA)
- https://www.archives.gov/research/african-americans
- https://www.archives.gov/education/lessons/blacks-civil-war

U.S. Army
- https://www.army.mil/blackamericans/

National World War II Museum
- https://www.nationalww2museum.org/war/topics/african-americans-world-war-ii

FamilySearch
- https://www.familysearch.org/en/wiki/African_American_Genealogy
- https://www.familysearch.org/en/wiki/African_American_Online_Genealogy_Records
- https://www.familysearch.org/en/wiki/African_American_Military_Records
- https://www.familysearch.org/en/wiki/United_States_Colored_Troops_in_the_Civil_War

Native American / Indigenous Peoples

National Archives and Records Administration (NARA)
- https://www.archives.gov/research/native-americans

U.S. Army
- https://www.army.mil/nativeamericans/

United Service Organizations (USO)

- https://www.uso.org/stories/2914-a-history-of-military-service-native-americans-in-the-u-s-military-yesterday-and-today

National World War II Museum

- https://www.nationalww2museum.org/war/topics/native-americans-world-war-ii

Bureau of Indian Affairs

- https://www.bia.gov/guide/tracing-american-indian-and-alaska-native-aian-ancestry

FamilySearch

- https://www.familysearch.org/en/wiki/United_States_Indigenous_Peoples
- https://www.familysearch.org/en/wiki/Indigenous_Peoples_of_the_United_States_Military_Records

Appendix F

Veterans Research Worksheet

By Kim Alberg

The 4-page worksheet that follows can be used to guide students in their quest for details that will allow their veteran's story to unfold. It is best to encourage students to think of this worksheet as part scavenger hunt – the hunt for data and documents – and part graphic organizer, automatically grouping acquired information into specific aspects of the veteran's life prior to the commencement of the writing process. Because time and place play such large roles in both the types of records generated and the current availability of these records, students should be forewarned that each item on the worksheet will likely not be available for each veteran.

Each row on the first three pages of this worksheet includes space in a column to the far right for citing the source(s) used to gather the specific piece of information recorded on that row. As students record a new detail of their veteran's life, they should add a number in this source column, and then turn to page 4 of the worksheet to fully cite the source(s) used to acquire this information. Because it is sometimes difficult to retrace the path *back* to an original document, students should be advised of project expectations regarding source citations before beginning their research, allowing them to complete this component of the project from the very beginning. Page 3 of the worksheet addresses research related to specialized populations. Each section on this page includes additional information that is pertinent to the veteran's story along with some brief tips to guide further research.

Early in the process, students should also be alerted to the *probability* that they will discover conflicting information – alternate spellings of names, differing ages/years of birth, even variance in recorded race – at some point

in their research. While this inconsistency may be frustrating for some students, it nicely sets up “teachable moments” for assessing source reliability and for self-checking one’s work to ensure that the research trail hasn’t shifted to a different veteran with a similar name and background.

Veteran Research Worksheet

Veteran's Name & Rank (at time of discharge): Alias (if any):	**Source No.** ↓
BURIAL INFORMATION	
CEMETERY: _____FT SCOTT NATIONAL CEM. _____ MISSOURI VETERANS CEM - HIGGINSVILLE	**n/a**
LOT #: SITE #: INTERMENT DATE:	
ONLINE GRAVESITE ACCESS: _____FINDAGRAVE _____BILLION GRAVES OTHER: MEMORIAL #:	
FAMILY MEMBERS BURIED IN SAME LOCATION:	
SERVICE INFORMATION	
REGISTRATION/ENLISTMENT DATE(S) / LOCATION(S):	
BRANCH/UNIT(S)/REGIMENT(S)/DIVISION(S):	
MUSTERED IN DATE(S) / LOCATION:	
MILITARY ENGAGEMENTS:	
MUSTERED OUT DATE(S) / LOCATION / REASON (if provided):	
PENSION #: APPLICATION #: PERSON APPLYING / RELATIONSHIP: DATE / LOCATION:	
PERSONAL HISTORY	
GENDER _____M _____F RACE / ETHNICITY:	
BIRTH DATE / LOCATION:	
DEATH DATE / LOCATION:	
PARENTS (include BIRTH / DEATH info if known):	
SIBLINGS (include BIRTH / DEATH info if known):	
SPOUSE #1 (include BIRTH / DEATH info if known): MARRIAGE DATE / LOCATION:	
CHILDREN FROM 1ST MARRIAGE: (include BIRTH / DEATH info if known):	
OTHER MARRIAGES/CHILDREN:	

KNOWN RESIDENCE(S):	
OTHERS; Occupation, religious affiliation, organizations, etc.	

CENSUS DATA: USFC, special “schedules”, state censuses, Indian census rolls, tribal rolls, etc.

- Expect discrepancies in spelling, dates, birth locations, and race.
- Use 1860 USFC to assess whether an African American soldier/sailor was free prior to the CW.
- A 1921 fire destroyed most of the 1890 USFC + part (AL through KS) of the 1890 Veterans Schedules; this 1890 Veterans Schedule is available for most MO counties.
- Use 1900 USFC to select a path for Native American research (“Five Civilized Tribes” or other).
- Both 1900 & 1910 USFC include sections entitled, “Special Inquiries Related to Indians”.
- Military personnel stationed away from home were enumerated in the 1900, 1910, & 1920 USFCs.
- The 1930 USFC includes veteran/military information for all enumerated; veteran info for some was also collected in the 1940 & 1950 USFC in the supplemental questions.

CENSUS TYPE	DATE	LOCATION	INFO ACQUIRED	n/a

DISCOVERIES! What else have you discovered about your veteran?

SPECIALIZED RECORD SETS	
MILITARY CONFLICT: ___CIVIL WAR (___UNION or ___CONFEDERACY) ___WORLD WAR II BRANCH: ___ ARMY ___NAVY ___ARMY AIR FORCES ___MARINES OTHER: TIP: Watch for terms like VOLUNTEER/USCT (African American)/SCOUT (Native American).	
WOMEN WHO SERVED SERVICE: ___ (ARMY, NAVY, CADET) NURSES CORPS ___ MARINE CORPS WOMEN'S RESERVE ___WAACs (Army) ___WAVES (Navy) ___WASPs (Army Air Force) ___SPARS (Coast Guard) TIPS: Watch for surname changes if your female veteran ever married and set a goal to learn what job(s) your veteran performed for the military.	
AFRICAN AMERICAN CONDITION OF SERVITUDE: ___FREE PRIOR TO 1865 ___ENSLAVED PRIOR TO 1865 TIP: Look for your African American veteran on the 1860 USFC. If listed, they were free prior to the Civil War, leading your search towards documents of freedom ("free papers", manumissions, etc.). If not found in the 1860 USFC, they were likely enslaved at that time; search for documents of enslavement such as an enslaver's inventories, deeds, wills/probate, etc.	
NATIVE AMERICAN TRIBAL AFFILIATION: _____ ____UNKNOWN TIP: Use the 1900 USFC to determine if the veteran or a known ancestor/descendant was living IN INDIAN TERRITORY (OK) in 1900. If they were, check land allotment and "Enrollment Records" (Dawes Rolls, etc.). If they/their family members were LIVING ELSEWHERE, start your research with the U.S. Indian Census Rolls (1885-1940), specific tribal rolls, etc.	

Source No. ↓	SOURCE USED EX. RECORD SET, TITLE OF PRINT RESOURCE	OTHER INFO EX. DATABASE, WEBSITE, AUTHOR
EX	*U.S., Veterans' Gravesites, ca. 1775-2019*	Ancestry Library Edition
1		
2		
3		
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