

Chapter 4

How Can Teachers Use Local History to Make National Trends More Tangible, Compelling, and Meaningful? (Dimension 2: History)

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Figure 1. African American Children on the Way to School Passing Mothers Protesting the Busing to Achieve Integration



Note. This image of African American children making their way towards school as they pass white women protesting busing in New York City in 1965 encapsulates the ways that the sweeping national narrative of school desegregation played out in uneven and complex ways at the local level. Demarsico, D. (1965). [African American children on way to PS204, 82nd Street and 15th Avenue, pass mothers protesting the busing of children to achieve integration] [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2004670162/

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C3 Disciplinary Focus History	C3 Inquiry Focus Applying Disciplinary Concepts and Tools	Content Topic Post-WWII Social Change; Urbanization; Desegregation; Segregation
<p>C3 Focus Indicators</p> <p>D1.5.6–8. Determine the kinds of sources that will be helpful in answering compelling and supporting questions, taking into consideration multiple points of views represented in the sources.</p> <p>D2.His.1.6–8. Analyze connections among events and developments in broader historical contexts.</p> <p>D2.Geo.6.6–8. Explain how the physical and human characteristics of places and regions are connected to human identities and cultures.</p> <p>D2.Civ.7.6–8. Apply civic virtues and democratic principles in school and community settings.</p> <p>D2.Civ.10.6–8. Explain the relevance of personal interests and perspectives, civic virtues, and democratic principles when people address issues and problems in government and civil society.</p> <p>D3.2.6–8. Evaluate the credibility of a source by determining its relevance and intended use.</p> <p>D3.4.6–8. Develop claims and counterclaims while pointing out the strengths and limitations of both.</p> <p>D4.6.6–8. Draw on multiple disciplinary lenses to analyze how a specific problem can manifest itself at local, regional, and global levels over time, identifying its characteristics and causes, and the challenges and opportunities faced by those trying to address the problem.</p>		
<p>Pedagogical Approach Historical Analogies</p>		
<p>Suggested Grade Levels 6–12</p>	<p>Resources Library of Congress digital collections, See Appendix</p>	<p>Time Required 1 class period (approximately 60 minutes)</p>

Pity the poor placard standing silently at a site of significance. On Philadelphia’s busy South Street, a sign reads:

Octavius V. Catto (1839–1871) An early graduate of the Institute for Colored Youth, Catto, who lived here, was an educator, Union Army major, and political organizer. In 1871 he was assassinated by rioters while urging Blacks to vote. His death was widely mourned (Historical Markers Database, 2021).

Three sentences summarizing a life, a death, a legacy, and an era. “Here!” markers like this exclaim, “Here is where history happened!” And yet, traffic streams by with few noticeable reactions.

Why doesn't that site marker inspire the kind of connections between past and present that its designers had doubtlessly intended? The answer, at least in part, is about knowledge. If people have never heard of Catto or the Institute for Colored Youth and lack a schema for the history of Philadelphia's Seventh Ward, a small placard is unlikely to catch their eye. Markers' ability to provide knowledge and a sense of place partially depends on their readers to already hold precisely that sort of sense and knowledge. Philadelphia acknowledged the importance of instruction when it requested curricula for teaching about Catto to accompany the erection of a statue of Catto outside city hall in 2017 (e.g., Jay, 2021, 2022). Catto may not have been a nationally recognized figure, but his history is not hidden. Anyone curious enough to type his name into the Library of Congress's search pages will find [his visage](#) as well as his words [praising Black academic traditions](#) and [advocating for equal rights](#). But even with memorialization and documentation readily accessible, the city understood that signs and sources do not speak on their own. There is a critical role for teachers in helping students transform history from "something that happened *then*" to "the story of what happened *here*."

Instruction in local history deepens students' learning across an array of social studies outcomes. Access to local history makes students more likely to have emotional connections to the past and engage in historical thinking and evaluations of evidence more frequently (Blankenship et al., 2016; Marino & Crocco, 2017). National or international trends can be impersonal, but local communities are not abstract. They are tangible elements of students' lives. For instance, Elissa Levy, a teacher at the High School for Climate Justice, has spoken about how learning the phrase "climate refugee" helped many of her students explain the story of their own families (Berkshire & Schneider, 2022). Local history can also be a pathway for civic engagement. The C3 Framework names Taking Informed Action as its fourth dimension. Taking Informed Action may be of equal importance to Applying Disciplinary Concepts and Tools (Dimension 2) or Evaluating Sources and Using Evidence (Dimension 3), but action still receives far less time in typical classrooms. Curricula often prioritize national narratives and outsized phenomena like world wars, industrial revolutions, and regime change. Civic learning, however, usually begins locally (Blevins et al., 2021; Guilfoile et al., 2016). Students are often more motivated and able to see change when they work within their own communities. To borrow from second-wave feminism, the local is political precisely because the local is personal.

Despite its potential, researchers have found that both students (Baron, 2012) and teachers (Baron et al., 2020; Schrum et al., 2016) benefit from pedagogical support when interpreting historical sites. All the benefits of learning local history need active instruction to be realized. But the reality is that local history is rarely treated as more than a perk to be included as a warmup activity or a final project for the days after the final exam. Keeping local history at the margins, like walking past an unread historical marker, is a missed opportunity.

Teaching Local History

This chapter uses two case studies to show how teachers can use historical analogies to integrate local history into their courses. Historical analogies can be used to help students understand change and continuity by comparing past to present (Jay & Reisman, 2019). Here, however, they will be used to illuminate the connections between local and national histories. Each case study provides a brief introduction to a historical concept, outlines an analogy a teacher might use to initiate a text-based inquiry cycle connecting the local to the national, and suggests potential pathways for adapting these principles to different contexts. The case studies share three core pedagogical principles: *reversing the gaze*, *including interdisciplinary evidence*, and *leveraging local relevance*. While these instructional principles are detailed below, it is difficult to name a precise formula for teaching local history as the content, and pedagogy must necessarily be adapted to fit different contexts. This chapter's case studies are neither definitive nor comprehensive. Instead, they aim to inspire teachers' creativity and encourage them to modify the lesson structures and concepts to fit their own instructional context.

1. *Reversing the gaze*. The first step to teaching local history is to decide what story needs to be told for these specific students in this specific place. As historians know, the same event may look very different depending on one's perspective. Teaching local history is not simply about adding more content. It is an opportunity to tell different stories and make the content more responsive to students. Students in rural areas might feel isolated by national narratives that focus more on New York City, Washington, DC, or Los Angeles than their towns. Students of Color may see that stories about white politicians do not connect to their own lived experiences or histories. If teachers look at their students and surroundings and see that the national stories do not reflect the experiences and histories of the students, they can choose to tell another story. When teachers decide to focus their gaze on their students, instead of the traditional centers of power, they can create a space for new narratives.
2. *Including interdisciplinary evidence*. Once teachers have decided what story is going to be meaningful for their students, the next step is to decide how to make that story come to life for students. Telling a new story may require different forms of evidence, and teachers might need to be creative as they search for sources that work. Although history classes often prioritize written texts, photographs and maps can be used to document the past. Teachers can also think flexibly about what kinds of written sources they incorporate. Newspapers, testimonies, and journals are all explicit means of recording the past, but students can learn just as much from sources that may not have been intended to offer literal reporting, like political cartoons, folk songs, or advertisements. The Library of Congress's trove of documents is a great starting point for teachers to gather the material for telling local stories in new ways.

3. *Leveraging local relevance.* The final step in teaching local history is to ensure that students are building locally relevant knowledge. Local history is a golden opportunity for applying knowledge because the content hits close to home. Giving students the last word on how they think about the relationship between what they are studying and where they live honors their knowledge of their own community and can strengthen their knowledge of both national and local history. Teachers can achieve this goal by providing space for open discourse within their lessons. If students get a chance to authentically debate what happened and what it means, they may be more likely to internalize the information and bring their whole selves to bear on what they are learning. At the end of a lesson, local history can also build toward informed action. Asking students how their community should remember, reconcile, or repay the past is a great way to ensure that students are actively building meaningful local knowledge and that history is not relegated to the past.

Case Study 1: School Desegregation and Historical Analogies

The Supreme Court's 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* decision may be the most famous case in United States history. It is included in more state standards documents than any other decision and appears in nearly every U.S. history textbook (Hess, 2005). Not only was the decision momentous, its focus on schooling, clear delineation between segregation and integration, and relatively straightforward jurisprudence make it particularly accessible for classroom instruction. If there is certainty that the *Brown* decision should be taught, there is increasing uncertainty as to what precisely it has meant for the United States. Neuberne (1995) outlined six ways to think about *Brown*: achievement, aspiration, catalyst, failure, challenge, and promise; while Hess (2005) offered five modes: icon, liberation referent, unfulfilled promise, well-intentioned error, and irrelevant. The existence of multiple, often contradictory, ways of understanding *Brown* is indicative of the ways in which it is subject to ongoing historical debate.

Part of the uncertainty about *Brown*'s meaning stems from the ways that the decision affected different people in different ways. For some students, particularly those in the South, the decision led to the desegregation of schools. For other students, particularly those in the North, the decision did not significantly alter the racial makeup of their schools. This lack of progress towards integration was codified by the 1974 *Milliken v. Bradley* decision, which formally allowed school districts to remain segregated so long as that segregation was *de facto* and not written into law. For many Black educators, the *Brown* decision led to the loss of their schools, students, and careers (Fenwick, 2022). For many white families and lawmakers, the *Brown* decision was a fulcrum for a backlash leading to the creation

of “segregation academies,” battles against busing, and a broader politics of “white rage” (Anderson, 2016). The meaning of *Brown*, therefore, depended largely on *who* and *where* you were.

Reversing the Gaze

Most textbooks treat *Brown* as an iconic achievement, the moment where the United States, as embodied by the institutional power of the Court, overcame segregation (Hess, 2005). This interpretation plays into teachers’ tendency to teach about racism in the United States as a narrative of national progress that avoids discussion of its ongoing systemic manifestations (Santiago, 2019; Wills, 2019). Not only does this linear narrative obscure the fact that *Brown*’s legacy remains profoundly unsettled, but it also leaves students unprepared to interpret their own experiences in a resegregating school system (Orfield et al., 2019). Teachers looking to reverse the gaze upon a sanitized triumphalist narrative of *Brown v. Board* might seek to understand what was lost when the schools where Black educators served Black students were shut down (e.g., Givens, 2021; Siddle Walker, 1996). They might investigate how the decision changed the role of courts, federal power, and the law (e.g., Bell, 1995; TerBeek, 2021) or delve into the examples of backlash that undermine the suggestion that the United States overcame segregation through the *Brown* decision (e.g., Delmont, 2016; Kruse, 2005). This chapter will proceed by examining the experience of those who lived through *Brown v. Board*’s effects as students, families, and community members.

Interdisciplinary Evidence

The Library of Congress’ exhibition [Brown v. Board at Fifty: “With an Even Hand”](#) provides a robust launching point for classroom discussion of the Court’s decision. The collection offers a broad selection of materials including photographs, political cartoons, and the texts of legal decisions, position papers, and periodicals, helpfully organized into three chronological periods: “A Century of Racial Segregation 1849–1905,” “*Brown v. Board of Topeka, Kansas*,” and “The Aftermath.” The exhibition offers a rich starting place for anyone looking to teach about the decision, its context, and its immediate consequences. Teachers could use photographs of an [African American schoolhouse in 1938](#), images of the [infamous “doll test,”](#) and a [1960 political cartoon](#) decrying desegregation’s slow progress to outline the decision’s impetus, process, and postponement. Yet, despite its strengths, the collection remains a decidedly national narrative. For students outside of Topeka, it may be difficult to bring their city, school, and community into conversation with the history provided.

Teachers will need to do some archival work to find local evidence that will allow students to personalize national historical narratives, but this work need not be exhaustive or exhausting. Because the aim of the lesson is to draw a comparison between the local and the national, teachers should feel free to use materials with a national orientation for much of the lesson. The challenge then becomes finding a small number of digestible and representative

pieces of evidence from a local context. A brief search of the Library of Congress website using different place names and keywords including “desegregation,” “busing,” and “Brown v. Board” quickly returns a host of useful sources including photography of [anti-busing protests in New York City](#), files from a [desegregation lawsuit involving Girard College in Philadelphia](#), and links to video-recorded oral histories of [schooling and life in Hattiesburg, Mississippi](#), collected by the Civil Rights History Project. These sample resources demonstrate the wealth of accessible evidence about life during the *Brown* era.

Local Relevance

Once teachers have gathered appropriate evidence, they should ask students, “To what extent were local reactions to school desegregation similar to national ones?” A simple Venn diagram charting some of the overlap between local and national responses might be useful for processing the evidence, but the real learning will occur when students are drawn into discourse. As students test out their arguments and hold the evidence up to the light, they are likely to recognize that local context is neither entirely divorced from the national one nor entirely parallel. Desegregation played out differently in each community because each community is different. Drawing from the work on Document-Based Lessons (Reisman, 2012), teachers are advised to pare sources down to give students sufficient time and support to collaboratively discuss the central historical question. In the examples of anti-busing protests in New York City and the desegregation lawsuit in Philadelphia, students might be surprised to find that ostensibly progressive Northern cities were active participants in the backlash against *Brown v. Board*. Students in Mississippi might be surprised to read that some Black students were reluctant to join integrated schools. Examining their community’s experience in comparison to those of the nation allows students to build schemas for micro and macro history simultaneously.

The C3 framework places Dimension 4, Communicating Conclusions and Taking Informed Action, at the end of the inquiry arc. Once students have learned how their community reacted to the *Brown v. Board* decision, they ought to share what they have learned. In recent years, public consciousness has increasingly come to view schools as sites for public history, as evidenced by the spate of school renamings. Teachers can take advantage of this perspective and encourage students to participate in the public history of their school. Bulletin boards have long been fora for displaying student learning, most schools or districts have websites that could easily be modified to include a student-curated history section, and many local newspapers would gladly accept local history from students. Regardless of media, there are stories to tell. Did your district drag its feet or embrace desegregation? Was your school founded as a segregation academy? Who is the local Ruby Bridges? How segregated are schools today? These questions do not dictate any one way of thinking about a school or a community, but students’ experiences in schools occur in conversation with those histories. They should be empowered to excavate, examine, and illustrate that past.

Case Study 2: Highways and Media Perspectives

In the decades following World War II, the United States remade its cities. The postwar period featured rapid economic expansion, increased educational attainment, and suburbanization. The passage of the GI Bill, the Federal Highway Act, and federal subsidies for housing intensified the surge of Americans moving from urban centers to the suburbs. The neat lawns and white picket fences of prefabricated homes in New York's Levittown embody the physical and cultural changes in the American landscape during this period (Kelly, 1993). The "American dream" that the new suburbs represented, however, was systemically denied to many Americans. White flight, the movement of white people to the suburbs, was accelerated by restrictive racist housing policies in the suburbs, real estate practices such as blockbusting, and fears of desegregation in the wake of the *Brown v. Board* decision coincided with the ongoing Great Migration, redlining policies, and disinvestment in urban infrastructure (Jackson, 1985; Rothstein, 2017). The intensifying segregation of housing ensured that the suburban "American dream" generation was constructed, at least in part, at the expense of People of Color living in American cities.

The legacy of the midcentury restructuring of housing still shapes the way Americans live. Redlining and other forms of housing discrimination have been linked to the country's persistent racial wealth gap (Coates, 2014; Lui et al., 2006) as well as adverse effects upon people's health (Nardone et al., 2020; Williams & Mohammed, 2009), access to education (Lukes & Cleveland, 2021), and exposure to environmental hazards (Fears, 2022). In cities today, Black neighborhoods that were redlined are more likely to flood (Frank, 2020) and more likely to experience extreme heat (Plumber & Popovich, 2020; Wilson, 2020). Yet, most social studies classes do little to prepare students to understand the historical roots and ongoing effects of housing discrimination, suburbanization, and the remaking of the American city (Pearcy, 2020). Absent explicit instruction to the contrary, students often think of urban "ghettos" as akin to a naturally occurring phenomena, rather than the product of human political action (Coleman et al., 2019). Students need teachers to help them understand how their cities and communities were created.

Reversing the Gaze

Rather than focusing on white people leaving the cities, this lesson focuses on the People of Color who stayed. Among myriad case studies that might address these themes, this chapter looks at the influence of the 1956 Federal Highway Act. Building highways to increase the connection between cities, suburbs, and rural areas remade the American landscape. Time and time again, policymakers routed these new highway plans through and around Black, Latinx, Native American, and Asian and Pacific Islander neighborhoods, either destroying them outright or sequestering them from the rest of the city (Avila, 2014; Bullard et al., 2004). In some cases, this targeting of minoritized neighborhoods occurred intentionally at the behest of white residents (Archer, 2020). The resulting displacement and divestment

played critical roles in establishing the shape of cities and experiences of people living within them. While the postwar recreation of cities is a national trend, each city was affected differently. Some cities, like Memphis, New Orleans, New York, and Washington, DC, saw “freeway revolts” as local activists defeated plans for highway construction (Archer, 2020); others saw blocks bulldozed. Because highway construction was experienced, enacted, and resisted locally, students deserve a chance to learn about it locally.

Interdisciplinary Evidence

This case study draws on geography, civics, and sociology as well as history. There are few boundaries on the kinds of sources that teachers might use to teach about the remaking of American cities in the postwar period. Although the Library of Congress does not have a dedicated collection to urbanization in this period, opportunities abound. The Library’s archive of African American newspapers within its [Chronicling America collection](#) is an extraordinary resource. By using the filters underneath the “All Digitized Newspapers” tab, teachers can select their state and sort by ethnicity to locate texts that compare how white and Black newspapers documented the same infrastructure projects. Searching for the names of specific affected neighborhoods like Rondo in St. Paul, Overtown in Miami, or Brooklyn in Charlotte can further enable teachers to target their archival work and give students opportunities to trace the reactions to urbanization. Seeing headlines like “Citizens organize to face problem of St. Paul Freeway” sitting next to proclamations that “Young Nigerian marvels at US people, progress, in techniques & politics” in a [1956 edition of the Minneapolis Spokesman](#) opens a door to how the international battle for civil rights was playing out locally. Students in St. Paul may have the sense that they grew up far away from the civil rights movement, but archival work allows them to see that their home was also a part of this history. Careful observation will be critical to avoid homogenizing communities, but the depth of the archive allows students to scroll through the collection chronologically and search for changing opinions within communities. Similarly, the existence of multiple periodicals from individual cities gives students a chance to see that no group is uniform.

Local Relevance

Teachers can ask students how the national story manifested locally. If the national trend was the encouragement of white suburbs at the expense of Black neighborhoods in the city, to what extent do students’ cities and communities reflect that trend? Here again, the teacher can guide students towards nuance. The sequestration of Black and Latinx communities in Los Angeles is neither identical to the bulldozing of Black neighborhoods in Shreveport nor is it unconnected. Students can be asked to analyze, debate, and excavate the lines along which the analogies between their community and the country succeed or fail. The goal is not necessarily for students to arrive at one particular interpretation but to engage in the inquiry process and recognize the interconnected nature of this history. Although this case study focuses on cities, this question is just as important for students living in suburban and rural

communities. These places too are part of the national story, and students should explore the extent to which their community was advantaged, ignored, or harmed in relationship to others because that positionality is the starting point for informing civic action.

In 2021, the Biden administration acknowledged the ways that highway construction built racism into the American landscape and has positioned its infrastructure plan as a partial remedy to those harms (Epstein & Wingrove, 2021). That announcement explicitly layers a civic discourse upon the history. Students can be invited into the discussion to consider local options for mitigation, reparation, or memorialization. They should ask, “Who did urbanization and suburbanization serve here?” “What was gained and lost in our community?” and “What can we do today in recognition or restoration?” This history is not ancient, and there are opportunities for students to do real oral history work and learn from people, even people in their own communities, who saw these changes take place. Collecting stories is among the most authentic actions available to historians. Facing another direction, civic planning and infrastructure maintenance are perennial issues in local government. At every level, there are public officials thinking about some of these questions. Teachers can use that bureaucratic infrastructure in their classroom. Public engagement via letters, phone calls, or social media, inviting speakers and planners into the classroom, and trips to sites of resistance, remembrance, or reconstruction can all serve to make students’ inquiry more authentic and impactful. Humanizing the social studies means recognizing that, just as the stories comprising our past were populated with real people, the ones that shape our future will involve personal actions.

Conclusion

Although we tell national narratives, we live our lives locally. This chapter encourages teachers to leverage local history as an authentic site of meaning available in everyday schooling. To lessen the barrier to entry, the case studies here were imagined as part of the regular flow of a high school U.S. history curriculum, rather than as extended units comprising weeks of instruction. They are drafts for teachers to fit into their own instructional contexts.

As teachers make these concepts concrete in their own classrooms, they will need to reimagine their curricula. Local history is unlikely to be encoded in the official curriculum, particularly at the high school level, but there are few topics that do not intersect with students’ lives. After all, if the content was truly divorced from students, why would we teach it? The case studies in this chapter are intended to provide a practicable route towards including local history in the daily grammar of teaching, but the possibilities do not end there. There is a world of museums, historical sites, and field trips waiting for students. Entire courses could be imagined to be place-based (Resor, 2010; Smith, 2002). The opportunities are boundless.

As teachers explore, they will see that the possibilities for local resources extend beyond the horizon. This chapter draws from the archives of the Library of Congress. The Library’s

collections are vast, their archives are constantly being expanded, and the website is continuously being updated to become more comprehensive and accessible. It is a wonderful starting point for anyone looking to incorporate historical sources into their U.S. history teaching. At the same time, it is far from the only available archive. Teachers are encouraged to seek pedagogical inspiration widely as they move from national stories to local archives, broad curricula to specific examples, and the big ideas of history to each individual students' needs. Teachers in different areas would be wise to select different examples. For instance, in schools serving more Mexican American students, the *Mendez v. Westminster* decision may be more significant than *Brown v. Board*, as research has shown that disambiguating Mexican American and Black experiences benefits students' identity development and historical thinking (Santiago, 2019). Similarly, teachers in Camden or Los Angeles would be remiss if they did not center the effect of highway construction on Latinx communities in those cities, just as teachers in Boston ought to name the paving over of Chinatown.

If the concepts of these lessons are flexible, their foundational conviction is that great social studies instruction occurs in inquiry. We do right by our students when we empower their questions, challenge their thinking, and provoke them into action that matters in the real world. Hopefully, this chapter contributes to the transformational work social studies teachers already do.

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Appendix

Resources From the Library of Congress	
Resource	Reference
Octavius V. Catto portrait	Broadbent & Phillips. (ca. 1871). <i>Octavius V. Catto</i> [Engraving]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2008677286/
Octavius V. Catto praising Black academic traditions	Catto, O. V. (1864). <i>Our alma mater: An address delivered at Concert Hall on the occasion of the twelfth annual commencement of the Institute for Colored Youth</i> . Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/91898148/
Octavius V. Catto advocating for equal rights	State Equal Rights Convention of the Colored People of Pennsylvania. (1865). <i>Proceedings of the State Equal Rights Convention of the Colored People of Pennsylvania</i> . Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/92838830/
Library of Congress exhibition: <i>Brown v. Board at Fifty: "With an Even Hand"</i>	<i>Brown v. Board at Fifty: "With an Even Hand"</i> (2004). Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/exhibits/brown/brown-checklist.html
African American schoolhouse in 1938	Wolcott, M. P. (1938). <i>Negro schoolhouses near Summerville, South Carolina</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2017799753/
Image of Dr. Kenneth B. Clark conducting the "doll test"	Parks, G. (1947). <i>Dr. Kenneth B. Clark conducting the "Doll test" with a young male child</i> [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/95505330/
A 1960 political cartoon decrying desegregation's slow progress	Maudin, B. (1960). <i>Inch by Inch</i> [Drawing]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016686088/
Anti-busing protests in New York City	Demarsico, D. (1965). [African American children on way to PS204, 82nd Street and 15th Avenue, pass mothers protesting the busing of children to achieve integration] [Photograph]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2004670162/
Files from a desegregation lawsuit involving Girard College in Philadelphia	Pennsylvania et al. v. Board of Directors of City Trusts of the city of Philadelphia, 353 U.S. 230 (1956). Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/usrep353230/
Glenda Funchess, oral history interview, Hattiesburg, MS	Crosby, E. (2015). <i>Glenda Funchess oral history interview conducted by Emilye Crosby in Hattiesburg, Mississippi</i> [Interview]. Library of Congress. www.loc.gov/item/2016655407/
Chronicling America homepage	<i>Chronicling America</i> , Library of Congress. https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov

Minneapolis Spokesman, May 25, 1956

Minneapolis Spokesman. (1956, May 25). *Chronicling America*, Library of Congress. <https://chroniclingamerica.loc.gov/lccn/sn83025247/1956-05-25/ed-1/seq-1/>