

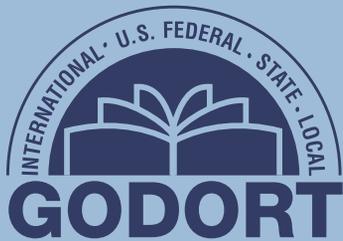
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DtTP

Documents to the People

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"Ray Bane dog team trip" from Records of the National Park Service, 1785–2006 <https://catalog.archives.gov/id/42217184>.



Theory, Practice, Experience

Shari Laster

Libraries exist because people make decisions and take actions based on a framework of practice that is informed by theory and experience. Research in the library world can build on any or all of these elements: understanding former and existing practices, identifying potential new models for our work, engaging with conceptual models from other disciplines and arenas, or articulating a vision for the future that matches the values we hold today.

Our government information community has a great deal of potential to connect our concerns and experience with key emerging threads in other disciplinary clusters within the areas of library, archival, and museum studies, as well as the myriad academic and professional disciplines and practices that rely on government information as primary sources. And as we build, support, and encourage emerging models for distributed collection and preservation strategies for government information, we can learn about work underway in archives, nonprofits, and academic communities to bridge the gaps between government information dissemination and its collection for long-term use.

A new practice that I hope will become a tradition within GODORT is the facilitation of conversation that engages with research. Based on a concept proposed by Catherine McGovern, Government Information Librarian at the University of Ottawa, GODORT now hosts a forum for informal discussion about research related to government information.

Starting with the 2017 ALA Midwinter Meeting, and continuing at the 2017 ALA Annual Conference, these Research Round Robin meetings have been engaging and inspiring. These sessions are open to any conference attendees with an interest in research and government information. We begin by going around to describe our current projects and any ideas we have percolating about future areas of research. Following this initial overview, conversation opens up around shared interests that have emerged, and on advice and insight from one researcher to another.

Some attendees are researching and writing about libraries and library practice, while others are immersed in projects that delve into the documentary history of government activity and function. While we have many experienced researchers in our midst, including social scientists, historians, and policy analysts, we also have many who are new to scholarly research and publishing. These meetings provide an opportunity to connect with others who share interests in topics and methodologies, and to get advice on scope, process, and intended outcomes for any kind of project.

In the coming months I hope we can build out space for our community to grow outside of conferences. Check out <http://godort.libguides.com/research> for resources, and get in touch with me if you are ready to take on an active role in building and supporting this emerging community. I plan to continue this program throughout 2018 in the hopes that it will bring people together in a supportive environment, from which we can enrich our shared understanding of our work.

The Legacy of Korematsu

A Story of Confinement and Vindication, As Told through Archival Documents

Michael Maitland

In February 1942, President Franklin Roosevelt issued Executive Order No. 9066 authorizing the exclusion of certain citizens from the west coast of the United States. That order began a cascade of other measures that culminated in the displacement and internment of approximately 120,000 Japanese Americans and people of Japanese ancestry.¹ Fred Korematsu, a native-born citizen of the United States and resident of California challenged the legality of the order in a series of cases and appeals that eventually ascended to the US Supreme Court. In the culmination of those disputes, *Korematsu v. United States* (hereinafter “*Korematsu I*”), the Supreme Court upheld his conviction.²

This decision is widely condemned and comprises a mere handful of decisions considered by scholars to be so flawed that they are “anti-canon.”³ Justice Stephen Breyer has remarked that the case is often included among the three worst decisions ever issued by the Court and that it is “so thoroughly discredited that it is hard to conceive of any future Court referring to it favorably or relying on it.”⁴

This writing encompasses an exploration of research and source documents to give insight into the case and its plaintiff, Fred Korematsu, as well as the roles other branches of our tripartite government played in the outcome. The source documents tell a story of confinement and vindication that developed over a period of nearly forty years, and still has relevance to the present day. This story concludes by considering the resolution and reconciliation that may have existed for Korematsu, and contemplates an incident where substantial consideration is given to the providence of a single memorandum and ensuing footnote which was carefully preserved as part of the historical record. As the conclusion will demonstrate, archivists and information managers played a legitimate and significant role in preserving and protecting the documents that advanced this story, its outcome, and, to a degree, the civil liberties of us all.

Fred Korematsu

Fred Korematsu was a first-generation American, or “Nisei,” born in 1919 to Japanese immigrants. His family ran a flower nursery and Fred and his brothers worked in the family business from a young age. In June of 1941, as tensions rose between the United States and Japan, Korematsu attempted to serve in the US Army but was not permitted to enlist.⁵ When Executive Order 9066 was issued on February 19, 1942, Korematsu sought to avoid exclusion and internment by going into hiding, even having surgery on his eyelids to make himself appear more Caucasian.⁶ His attempts were unsuccessful, and he was arrested in May 1942.

Executive Actions

Executive Order No. 9066, promulgated by the president, authorized the secretary of war “to prescribe military areas in such places . . . , from which any or all persons may be excluded, . . . subject to whatever restrictions the Secretary of War or the appropriate Military Commander may impose in his discretion.”⁷ On March 2, 1942, the “military areas” contemplated by the Executive Order were established by General DeWitt by Public Proclamation No. 1. The proclamation described the military areas and forewarned those affected, including those of Japanese ancestry, that they would “by subsequent proclamation be excluded from Military Area No. 1.” Military Area No. 1 was defined with specificity in the proclamation, but essentially encompassed the entire west coast of the United States, running along the coastlines of California, Oregon, and Washington and stretching inland from the Pacific Ocean approximately one hundred miles.

The proclamation also advised that people of Japanese ancestry would not be excluded from, nor face “prohibition or regulation or restriction” within, Military Area No. 2, which encompassed areas further inland. Korematsu himself

considered moving to Arizona, but would not leave when he could not convince his girlfriend to go with him.⁸

Executive Order No. 9102 soon followed, establishing the War Relocation Authority and tasking it with effectuating “a program for the removal [of persons designated in Executive Order 9066] and for their relocation, maintenance and supervision.” The window for voluntary evacuation closed abruptly a few days later, and those who had not relocated were prohibited from leaving and were soon ordered to report to relocation centers.

Fred Korematsu lived in Alameda County, California, and was required to report to a “civil control station” by Civilian Exclusion Order No. 34.⁹ After he was discovered, Korematsu was held temporarily at Tanforan Assembly Center, a racetrack where people were housed in former horse stables, before being moved to the Central Utah War Relocation Center in Topaz, Utah.¹⁰

Congressional Action

Even before the president issued Executive Order 9066, Congress had been discussing proposals to exclude or imprison people of Japanese ancestry within the United States. On February 13, 1942, Senator Stewart introduced Senate Bill S. 2293, which sought the incarceration of all Japanese people within the country, stating, “the time has arrived when we should deal sternly with the Japanese in this country.”¹¹ On February 18, 1942, Senator Rankin referred to the ongoing war in the Pacific as a “race war” and said that he supported confining “every Japanese in America” to a concentration camp before exiling them altogether.¹² The president bypassed Congress, and Executive Order 9066 followed the next day.

However, the military and the President turned to Congress a few weeks later to legislate criminal penalties for attempts to circumvent Executive Order 9066. In the wake of the Pearl Harbor attacks, Congress eagerly complied. On March 19, 1942, both chambers passed companion bills with little meaningful debate.¹³ Public Law 77-503 was signed into law on March 21, 1942 and made it a crime to violate the restrictions imposed by the president or a designated military commander.¹⁴

Judicial Action

After his arrest for the recently engendered crime of not evacuating or reporting for internment, Fred Korematsu was convicted and sentenced to five years of probation. He brought a legal challenge with the help of the ACLU and appealed his conviction to the Ninth Circuit.

In its ruling on Korematsu’s appeal of his conviction, the Ninth Circuit relied upon the Supreme Court’s recent precedent in *Hirabayashi v. United States*, which had upheld curfews

applied to those of Japanese ancestry.¹⁵ The Ninth Circuit issued their opinion in *Toyosaburo Korematsu v. United States* stating that “under the Constitution the government of the United States, in prosecuting a war, has power to do all that is necessary to the successful prosecution of a war although the exercise of those powers temporarily infringe some of the inherent rights and liberties of individual citizens.”¹⁶

This holding in the Ninth Circuit set the stage for an appeal to the Supreme Court. In 1944, and as previously discussed, the Supreme Court upheld Korematsu’s conviction in a decision referred to as “legalization of racism.”¹⁷ Writing for the majority, Justice Black stated, “The military authorities, charged with the primary responsibility of defending our shores, concluded that curfew provided inadequate protection and ordered exclusion.”¹⁸

At least in part, the Court relied on General DeWitt’s *Final Report: Japanese Evacuation from the West Coast* (hereinafter “*Final Report*”), which outlined DeWitt’s arguments in favor and in defense of internment.¹⁹ DeWitt’s *Final Report* encompassed the thrust of his argument that the internment of people of Japanese ancestry was required by military necessity. DeWitt’s *Final Report* contained accounts of surreptitious signaling and contraband,²⁰ and it maintained that the Japanese population was “ideally situated with reference to points of strategic importance, to carry into execution a tremendous program of sabotage on a mass scale.”²¹

The government lawyers who entered DeWitt’s report before the Court were not convinced as to its conclusions or support. In their brief, they sought to distance themselves from the report, stating that they relied on it only for “statistics and other details.”²² An internal memorandum, which gave rise to that footnote, stated that the Justice Department had “substantially incontrovertible evidence that most important statements of fact advanced by General DeWitt . . . were incorrect, and furthermore that General DeWitt had cause to know, and in all probability did know, that they were incorrect at the time he embodied them in his final report.”²³ This revealing memorandum, maintained in the record, established that the government lawyers charged with defending the government had evidence that the underlying imputations that justified internment were false. Except for the obscure footnote, this information would not be revealed to the Court.

On the same day that the Court issued its ruling upholding the conviction of Korematsu for violating the exclusion order, the Court released its opinion in *Ex parte Endo*, holding that continued detention of loyal citizens by the War Relocation Authority was not permissible.²⁴ But, by the time the Court issued its opinion, the direction of the war had already turned in favor of the Allied forces. The day before the Court issued

its opinions, Executive Order 9066 and the related orders and proclamations were rescinded in Public Proclamation No. 21, effectively initiating the unwinding of internment.²⁵

Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians

In 1980, Congress established the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (CWRIC) to conduct an official study of Executive Order 9066. In 1983, the CWRIC issued their report *Personal Justice Denied* after twenty days of public hearings. The Commission reviewed and considered countless documents in the archival record, including the aforementioned memoranda and footnotes entered before the Supreme Court. In their report, the Commission concluded that the internment of Japanese Americans was not justified by military requirements or fear of sabotage, but instead was the result of “race prejudice, war hysteria and a failure of political leadership.”²⁶ The Commission recommended monetary reparations and a public apology to those interned.

Civil Liberties Act of 1988

The “Civil Liberties Act of 1988” acknowledged “the fundamental injustice of the evacuation, relocation, and internment,” apologized and sought to “make restitution.”²⁷ Signing the bill into law, president Ronald Reagan recognized that the internment was “based solely on race” and referred to it as a “grave wrong” and a “mistake.”²⁸

Vindication for Fred Korematsu

The investigation of the CWRIC revived Korematsu’s case in 1983. Korematsu entreated the US District Court of Northern California to correct the error it made nearly forty years prior. Korematsu’s attorneys alleged that officials in the War Department had destroyed, misrepresented, and suppressed evidence. Further, Korematsu offered evidence that attorneys representing the government failed to notify the Supreme Court of the falsity of the information contained within the *Final Report*.

The court granted Korematsu’s petition to overturn his conviction in *Korematsu v. United States* (hereinafter “*Korematsu II*”) stating that “the court is not powerless to correct its own records where a fraud has been worked upon it or where manifest injustice has been done.”²⁹

The Court took notice of the findings of the CWRIC, including their conclusion that “there was substantial credible evidence from a number of federal civilian and military agencies contradicting the report of General DeWitt that military necessity justified exclusion and internment.”³⁰ The court also found “that the government knowingly withheld information from the courts,”³¹ and noted that “the record is replete with

protestations of various Justice Department officials that the government had the obligation to advise the courts of the contrary facts and opinions.”³²

On January 15, 1998, the birthday of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., President Clinton awarded Fred Korematsu the Presidential Medal of Freedom, the highest civilian honor.

Justice Preserved

The role that archivists and information professionals played in Korematsu’s eventual reprieve cannot be overstated. Almost forty years had passed from the time that internment was ordered to the time that the CWRIC was established to scrutinize its formulation. Yet, even decades later, the CWRIC found that information relevant to their inquiry, such as the aforementioned internal memorandum, had been skillfully preserved. The archival system had functioned according to its intent, thwarting efforts to circumvent preservation, including intentional destruction of documents.³³ Justice and vindication for Korematsu was preserved as effectively as the documents upon which he relied in his appeal.

The Continued Legacy of *Korematsu v. United States*

Even though Korematsu was granted his writ of error and achieved some level of amnesty, the government did not appeal the ruling and the matter did not rise through the appellate ranks to be considered again by the Supreme Court. Though Korematsu’s conviction had been overturned in the lower court, the Supreme Court ruling still stands.

In his stinging dissent in *Korematsu I*, Justice Jackson warned that the holding of the court in *Korematsu* had effectively validated the principle of racial discrimination in criminal procedure, forewarning that “the principle then lies about like a loaded weapon, ready for the hand of any authority that can bring forward a plausible claim of an urgent need.”³⁴ Indeed, the claim of military necessity was invoked after the terror attacks of September 11, 2001. Korematsu, himself, filed amicus briefs in support of detainees held at Guantanamo Bay, drawing parallels between his own internment and their prolonged detention.³⁵ More recently, journalists have seen concordance in the treatment of refugees and Muslims in the United States.³⁶

Though the principles that buttressed internment may remain, Judge Marilyn Hall Patel offered these words in her ruling: “As historical precedent [*Korematsu I*] stands as a constant caution that in times of war or declared military necessity our institutions must be vigilant in protecting constitutional guarantees.”³⁶ Doubtless, archivists, government documents librarians, and other information professionals embody

such vigilance, protecting and defending our civil liberties and constitutional guarantees by preserving the documents which underpin them all.

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Notes

1. Peter Irons, *Justice at War* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1983), 76.
2. *Korematsu v. United States*, 323 U.S. 214 (1944).
3. Akhil Reed Amar, "Symposium: Supreme Mistakes: Plessy v. Ferguson and the Anti-canon," *Pepperdine Law Review* 39 (2011): 39; Jamal Greene, "The Anticanon," *Harvard Law Review* 125 (2011): 379; Matt Ford, "The Return of Korematsu," *Atlantic*, November 19, 2015.
4. Stephen Breyer, *The Court and the World: American Law and the New Global Realities* (New York: Knopf, 2015), 31; Stephen Breyer, *Making Our Democracy Work: A Judge's View* (New York: Knopf, 2010), 193.
5. Scholarship differs as to why he was prohibited from enlisting. Howes, perhaps relying on Chin, reports that he was turned away because of his Japanese ancestry. Irons reports that he was turned away for medical reasons. See Kelly King Howes, *World War II: Biographies* (Detroit: UXL, 1993), 130; Stephen A. Chin, *When Justice Failed: The Fred Korematsu Story* (New York: Dialogue Systems, 1993); and Irons, *Justice at War*, 94.
6. Howes, *World War II*, 131; Donna K Nagata, *Legacy of Injustice: Exploring the Cross-Generational Impact of the Japanese American Internment* (New York: Plenum, 1993), 24.
7. Executive Order No. 9066: Authorizing the Secretary of War to Prescribe Military Areas, 7 Fed. Reg. 1407.
8. Howes, *World War II*, 131.
9. Civilian Exclusion Order No. 34: Persons of Japanese Ancestry excluded from Restricted Area—Alameda County, California, 7 Fed. Reg. 3967, 1942.
10. Irons, *Justice at War*, 98.
11. US Congress, *Japanese in the United States*, 88 Cong. Rec. 1682 (1942).
12. US Congress, Amendment offered by Mr. Carter, 88 Cong. Rec. 1419-20 (1942).
13. US Congress, Senate Bill 2352: Control of Aliens and Others in Military Zones, 88 Cong. Rec. 2722 (1942); US Congress, House Resolution 6758: Penalty for Violation of Restrictions or Orders with Respect to Persons Entering or Leaving Military Areas or Zones, 88 Cong. Rec. 2729 (1942).
14. Military Areas or Zones, Restrictions, Public Law 77-503; 56 Stat. 173.
15. *Hirabayashi v. United States*, 320 U.S. 81 (1943).
16. *Toyosaburo Korematsu v. United States*, 140 F.2d 289 (9th Cir. 1943).
17. *Korematsu I*, 242; Justice Murphy's dissent.
18. *Ibid.*, 218
19. John L. DeWitt, *Final Report: Japanese Evacuation from the West Coast, 1942* (Washington DC: US GPO, 1943).
20. *Ibid.*, 8.
21. *Ibid.*, 10.
22. Brief for the United States, *Korematsu v. United States*, 323 U.S. 214 (1944).
23. John Burling, "Memo from John Burling to Solicitor General Fahy" (substantially reprinted and incorporated in chap. 2, footnote 175, of CWRIC report and cited as DOI 146-42-7, CWRIC 5759-64); The footnote underwent several revisions (see Irons, *Justice at War*, 282–92), but they would not be revealed to the Court.
24. *Ex parte Endo*, 323 U.S. 283 (1944).
25. "Public Proclamation No. 21: Persons of Japanese Ancestry Exemption from Exclusion Orders," 10 Fed. Reg. 53, 1944.
26. Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians, *Personal Justice Denied* (Washington, DC: US GPO, 1983), 18.
27. Civil Liberties Act of 1988, Public Law 100-383, 102 Stat 903.
28. Ronald Reagan, Remarks on Signing the Bill Providing Restitution for the Wartime Internment of Japanese American Civilians (August 10, 1988).
29. *Korematsu v. United States*, 584 F. Supp. 1406, (N.D. Cal. 1984).
30. *Korematsu II*, 1416.
31. *Ibid.*, 1417
32. *Ibid.*, 1418.
33. Irons, *Justice at War*, 211.
34. *Korematsu I*, 246.
35. Brief of amicus curiae Fred Korematsu in support of petitioners, *Rasul v. Bush*, 542 U.S. 466 (2004); Brief of amicus curiae Fred Korematsu, et. al., *Rumsfeld v. Padilla*, 542 U.S. 426 (2004).
36. Matt Ford, "The Return of Korematsu" *Atlantic*, November 19, 2015.
37. *Korematsu II*, 1420.

Campus Crime Reporting Under the Clery Act

Rachel Holder

The Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act mandates that institutions of higher education report crimes statistics to the public and the Department of Education (DOE) in order to receive federal financial aid. This requirement led to a proliferation of data that was initially difficult to access or incorrectly reported. Recent efforts by the DOE and institutions of higher education to make this information available to the public led to access through government and university websites.

Background

Multiple high-profile incidents of violent crimes on college campuses brought America's attention to the issue of crime rates at institutions of higher education.¹ The 1986 murder of Jeanne Clery in her on-campus dormitory was one of these violent events that brought the issue to the attention of the general public.² Investigations led to the discovery that Lehigh University, where Clery attended, had thirty-eight violent crimes on campus in the preceding three years.³ Clery's parents began advocating for laws that forced universities to disclose their crime rates; their work along with the parents of other victims, lawmakers, and the popular support of the public, led to the introduction of multiple bills to address the reporting of violent crimes at institutions of higher education.⁴

The Congress found that "out of 8,000 postsecondary institutions participating in Federal student aid programs, only 352 colleges and universities voluntarily provide crime statistics to the Uniform Crime Report of the Federal Bureau of Investigation."⁵ Crimes committed on college campuses were included in local and state crime data, which made separating crime rates of college campuses from those of the larger community impossible.⁶ This was one of the many issues that Congress addressed in the version of the bill that passed.

Congress passed the Student Right-To-Know and Campus Security Act, Pub. L. 101-542, on November 8, 1990.⁷ Title

II of this law, the Campus Security Act, amended the Higher Education Act of 1965 (HEA) Title IV by requiring all institutions that participate in financial assistance programs under this title to report crime statistics.⁸ This law has been amended on numerous occasions to add provisions on reporting, campus crime policies, or to alter the requirements for university emergency response and notification of crimes.⁹ One of the most significant changes came from the Higher Education Amendments of 1998, which renamed the law after Jeanne Clery.¹⁰ This law increased the reporting requirements by adding more crimes that must be reported, increased the geographic area to include residence halls and other university owned facilities, and increased the availability of reports.¹¹ The Higher Education Opportunity Act of 2008 added emergency response criteria and requirements for reporting hate crimes.¹²

In 2013, the reauthorization of the Violence Against Women Act included additional provisions for reporting crimes against women including domestic violence, stalking, and hate crimes related to gender identity.¹³ This law also requires institutions to add a statement of policies designed to prevent violence against women and information about available victim services.¹⁴

Requirements and How Institutions Comply

Regulations related to the application of the Clery Act are located in Title 34 of the Code of Federal Regulations 668.¹⁵ However, many institutions needed more guidance to understand the terminology of the law and remove ambiguity in the DOE's expectations of universities. The General Accounting Office issued the report in 1997, *Campus Crime: Difficulties Meeting Federal Reporting Requirements*, that found the DOE was slow to enforce the Student Right-To-Know and Campus Security Act; many institutions (twenty-three of the twenty-five examined) did not properly report campus crime statistics.¹⁶ Universities omitted crimes reported to campus officials instead

of law enforcement, and reported crimes in the wrong categories.¹⁷ The DOE included guidance on reporting Clery crimes in the federal student handbook and in notices sent to universities; however, these were not comprehensive.¹⁸ For example, the guidance available did not include information on reporting hate crimes, so many universities omitted hate crime information from their reports.¹⁹ Other issues were caused by institutions relying on incomplete information like arrest reports for their data, and 60 percent of reports incorrectly categorized sex-related offenses.²⁰ The DOE created the *Handbook for Campus Safety and Security* to clear up the confusion and educate universities on the Clery Act and its requirements. The first handbook was published in 2005 and has been updated to include changes to the law with the most recent version, published in 2016. The latest *Handbook* lists each requirement with a citation to the relevant portion of the *Code of Federal Regulations*; it then explains the department's interpretation of the law in a "readable manner."²¹ The *Handbook* provides a guide to determining whether an institution is accountable to Clery requirements, determining Clery geography, definitions for crime statistics reporting, how to collect statistics, explanation of the daily crime log, emergency notification requirements, and the required content of annual reports.²²

The Clery Act applies to all institutions that administer federal assistance programs such as Pell Grants, Federal Perkins Loans, and the Federal Work-Study Program.²³ Only distance education and foreign institutions are exempt; however, campuses of US institutions located abroad are not exempt.²⁴ The act requires that universities publish annual reports on campus security and fire safety by October 1 of each year and include crime statistics for the last three years, campus programs and policies on crime and securing the campus, and campus programs to prevent crimes.²⁵ The fire report must include reporting of the fire log, fire safety system for every on-campus building, and data on every reported fire and fire drill in the previous year.²⁶ The Clery Act requires that institutions mail this publication to current students and employees, and make it available to prospective students.²⁷ Institutions meet this requirement through mail, campus mail, or email.²⁸ Every institution must keep crime statistics from the previous eight years that occurred on-campus, in on-campus housing, in non-campus buildings, and on public property.²⁹ Figure 1 is an example from the *Handbook* that demonstrates the DOE's interpretation of the limits of Clery reporting geography.³⁰

In addition to crime reporting, the Clery Act makes institutions of higher education responsible for maintaining a publicly available daily crime log and notifying students in a timely manner of safety threats.³¹ Technology has made these

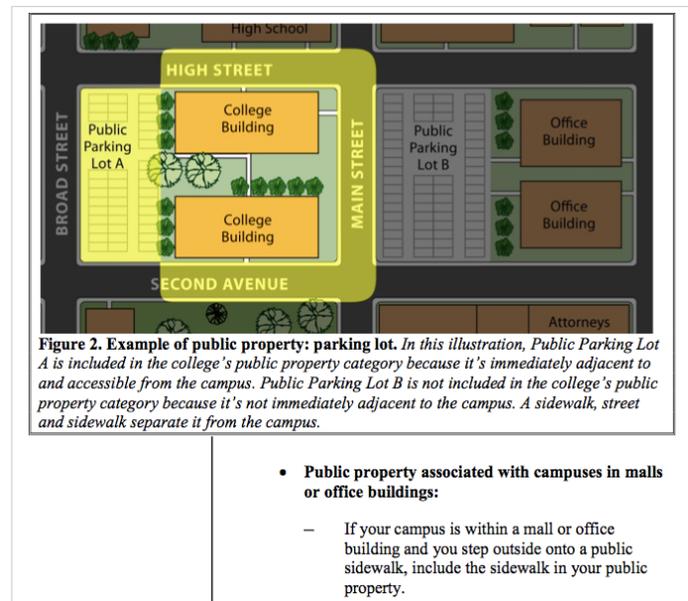


Figure 1. DOE's interpretation of the limits of Clery reporting geography, www2.ed.gov/admins/lead/safety/handbook.pdf.

requirements easier to fulfill as many institutions provide information on their websites and use Emergency Management Systems to notify students of crime via phone, SMS, and email.³²

Clery Act Noncompliance

While the DOE is working to educate institutions on the requirements of Clery Act compliance through its handbook, the DOE has found institutions in violation of the law. The DOE's Federal Student Aid office conducts a review of institutions that come to their attention, either internally or through a complaint filed with them.³³ In 2006, a representative of the DOE testified to Congress that between 1994 and 2006 they had conducted 4,623 program reviews and identified 252 violations of the Clery Act.³⁴ The DOE has the ability to fine institutions for violations; however, they only fined three between 1994 and 2006. The main reason for this leniency was the lack of information available to institutions prior to the creation of the *Handbook*, so the DOE decided to work with noncompliant colleges to correct problems rather than punish them.³⁵

Once an institution comes to their attention, the DOE issues a request for information from the school with details of the complaint against them.³⁶ The school provides their response to the complaint and provides the DOE with documentation of how they comply with the Clery Act.³⁷ The DOE reviews the institution and provides a final decision; the documentation of each of those steps is available to the public through the Federal Student Aid website (<https://studentaid.ed.gov/sa/about/data-center/school/clery-act-reports>). On this website, the public can access full-text documents of complaints against an institution,

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The Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act is a federal statute requiring colleges and universities participating in federal financial aid programs to maintain and disclose campus crime statistics and security information. The U.S. Department of Education conducts reviews to evaluate an institution's compliance with the Clery Act requirements. A review may be initiated when a complaint is received, a media event raises certain concerns, the school's independent audit identifies serious non compliance, or through a review selection process that may also coincide with state reviews performed by the FBI's Criminal Justice Information Service (CJIS) Audit Unit. Once a review is completed, the Department issues a Final Program Review Determination. In addition, the Department conducts general assessment compliance reviews and audits which may also result in fine actions taken by the Department against an institution for violations of the Clery Act.

Below, you can access the Clery reviews and accompanying documentation which may include the complaint, school response, or fine action that resulted from the program review in addition to documents related to fine actions initiated from other compliance reviews. Additional background information regarding Clery Act reviews is [available here](#).

Search Clery Act Reports by year: [dropdown] Search Clery Act Reports by school: [dropdown]

Figure 2. Database of Clery Act Reports, <https://studentaid.ed.gov/sa/about/data-center/school/clery-act-reports>.

DOE requests for information, schools' responses to complaints, and the DOE's determination of whether the institution complied with the law. If the institution violated the law, a description of what the violations were, and the total fine for noncompliance is stated in the fine letter or settlement with the university. These documents are accessible by year, going back to 1997, or by school, as seen in figure 2.

Since the 2006 hearing, the DOE found more institutions in violation of the Clery Act and levied fines against them. The DOE may fine an institution up to \$27,500 per violation, but some institutions are fined less.³⁸ In 2016, the DOE issued its highest fine to date of \$2,397,500 for multiple violations, including failure to issue emergency notifications and improperly classifying crimes or omitting crimes from the campus crime report.³⁹

Data Access: Campus Safety and Security

Federal attempts to share data with the public culminated in the creation of the Campus Safety and Security database Data Analysis Cutting Tool (<https://ope.ed.gov/campussafety/#/>), which was launched in May 2016 by the DOE's Office of Post-secondary Education.⁴⁰ The website provides access to complete datasets for crimes reported by university officials going back to 2005. The early data, 2005–12, is available to download in Excel, SAS, or SPSS files. Reports from the last three years are available for download or for users to manipulate through the Data Analysis Cutting Tools. The four tools allow users to

Criminal Offense	2013	2014	2015
a. Murder/Non-negligent manslaughter	0	0	0
b. Negligent manslaughter	0	0	0
c. Sex offenses - Forcible	15		
d. Rape		13	29
e. Fondling		6	14
f. Sex offenses - Non-forcible	0		
g. Incest		0	0
h. Statutory rape		0	2
i. Robbery	0	6	1
j. Aggravated assault	9	9	8
k. Burglary	57	16	41
l. Motor vehicle theft	11	9	7
m. Arson	2	0	2

Figure 3. Three-year comparison of crime rates, <https://ope.ed.gov/campussafety/#/institution/search>

Criminal Offense	A	B	C	D
a. Murder/Non-negligent manslaughter	0	0	0	0
b. Negligent manslaughter	0	0	0	0
c. Sex offenses - Forcible	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
d. Rape	0.51	0.36	0.8	0.33
e. Fondling	0.26	0.12	0.33	0.02
f. Sex offenses - Non-forcible	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
g. Incest	0	0	0	0
h. Statutory rape	0	0	0.04	0
i. Robbery	0.27	0.06	0.08	0.15
j. Aggravated assault	0.15	0.32	0.27	0.2
k. Burglary	0.44	1.86	0.97	0.44
l. Motor vehicle theft	0.22	0.51	0.27	0.13
m. Arson	0	0.08	0.04	0.07

Figure 4. Comparison of crime rates at four similarly sized schools, <https://ope.ed.gov/campussafety/#/compare/details>.

select a portion of the dataset for download, find data for one school, compare multiple schools, or generate national trend data. Every page of the data tool is accompanied by a bar at the top that links users to a dictionary of terminology used in Clery reporting, a user's guide, and contact information for users seeking additional help.

A user starts each search by identifying the schools sought after, and the website provides multiple points of entry. The user can start by searching for a specific university by name or the tool helps them identify the school of interest by providing criteria such as locations by state or country, size of the institution by number of students enrolled, whether it is public or private, and the subjects taught. From there, the user selects a university and views their results. The process is user-friendly and provides helpful options like saving favorite institutions.

When accessing data for only one school, the database provides information about that school such as the contact information for the university's designated safety officer, fire officer, and Title IX coordinator. This provides easy access to the appropriate people if the user has a question specific to that institution. As seen in figure 3, there is a three-year comparison of crime rates from the most recent reported years, currently 2013–15, sorted by location—on-campus, on-campus housing facilities, noncampus, and public property. There are tabs at the

	Race	Religion	Sexual Orientation	Gender	Gender Identity	Disability	Ethnicity/National Origin	Ethnicity	National Origin	All Categories	Total
Public	220	110	110	35	20	7	N/A	32	21	N/A	555
Private not-for-profit	158	94	82	25	14	3	N/A	13	8	N/A	397
Private for-profit	24	2	5	41	2	1	N/A	1	1	N/A	77
Total	402	206	197	101	36	11	N/A	46	30	N/A	1,029

Figure 5. Custom report showing hate crimes, <https://ope.ed.gov/campussafety/Trend/public/#/answer/2/201/table/?row=-1&column=-1>.

top to view each type of crime. This tool would be particularly useful for parents and students, since they can view the number of crimes on campus and whether the numbers are trending up or down.

The Compare Data for Multiple Schools tool provides parents and students an easy to use means of evaluating institutions of higher education. The search function for identifying universities of interest is the same as above; however, the user can select up to four universities for comparison. Figure 4 shows the campus crime rates for four similarly sized schools side by side for comparison. This data is broken down by type of crime, but offers the user the ability to switch the data to the total number of crimes or the crime rate. The crime is the number of crimes per thousand students at the university based on enrollment.⁴¹ This function enables users to easily determine if the larger university has a higher rate of crime, or just a higher total number of crimes due to a larger student population.

Users can click on any underlined term on the Campus Safety and Security data tool to access its definition without navigating to the dictionary. This feature provides transparency in how crimes are reported so that users can determine what crimes are included in each field as they look at the data.

The Generate Trend Data tool enables users to generate a chart or table based on criteria they select. The tool starts by offering a selection of the type of crimes of interest, which refers the user to questions related to that choice. For example, selecting hate crimes generates the question, “How many hate crimes were reported?” The user selects a question to move on to the next page, where the question is answered. Here the website offers many filters and variables to adapt the data to the user’s needs. Users can filter the dataset by a facet, such as university size, and then create a chart or table by selecting variables of interest to them. In figure 5, hate crimes is the subject and the chart was generated by selecting the row variable control of the institution—public or private, then the column variable type of bias. This tool could be useful to parents, however, it

Figure 6. Custom Data Tool, ope.ed.gov/campussafety/#/customdata/datasetselected.

holds significant value to researchers by providing a means of sorting the vast amount of data produced through Clery Act reporting. Unfortunately, this is the least user-friendly of the four data cutting tools. The first two tools lead the user through a step-by-step guided search of the data, but the trend data tool requires user exploration or use of the guide.

The final option is the Download Custom Data tool that enables users to reduce the amount of data that they download to only the most relevant information. As seen in figure 6, the options include selecting one or many institutions by enrollment, name, sector (public or private), programs offered, and location. After selecting the institutions, the user determines the years and types of criminal activity of interest. Some data available here dates back to 2001. Once a user selects the relevant topics and years, a customized dataset is generated for download. This tool would be most useful to researchers, since other tools on the website provide easier access to information sought by students and parents.

The Campus Safety and Security website provides access to data for all Title IV institutions in one convenient location. The tools available here enable anyone interested in crimes on campus to find information that suits their needs and presents it in an easy to understand manner. While some of the tools are more user-friendly than others, the tools geared towards the widest audience, multiple institution comparison and one institution’s data, are also the most intuitive resources to use. The two resources geared towards the needs of researchers are less intuitive but are explained in the user guide or can be worked through with some trial and error.⁴²

Conclusion

The goal of the Clery's and lawmakers when they advocated for campus crime reporting was for families to use this data to make decisions on where their children attend school.⁴³ Since its passage in 1990, lawmakers have continued adapting it to the needs of the American people. The DOE continues to improve its publications that guide institutions of higher education through meeting legal requirements of the act, and institutions utilize current technology to meet these reporting requirements. Individual universities provide their crime statistics in reports available to potential students; however, there were issues of access for ease of comparison. The DOE's launch of the Campus Safety and Security Data Cutting Tool improved access to the data collected by providing it all in one location. The downloadable datasets are useful for researchers, but the data cutting tools provide access to everyone by enabling them to easily sort through information to find universities of interest. These tools enable the Clery Act data to serve its intended purpose of informing the parents, students, and employees of the crime rates on campuses across the country.

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A History of the National Park Service

Through the Lens of Legislation

Jessica Boerner

Many are aware of the media blackout that happened earlier this year as President Donald Trump took office.¹ While several governmental agencies were affected, the order given to the Department of Interior, which the National Park Service is under, sparked an unprecedented social media backlash. Social media accounts named Alt National Park Service started popping up on Twitter and Facebook. While there is some question as to whether these social media accounts were actually run by employees of the National Park Service, there is no question that the National Park Service suddenly became major conversation.² Whether people saw this as an unwanted act of rebellion, or as the start of a resistance movement to stand behind, the National Park Service was being talked about by many people.

While most people have a passing knowledge of the National Park Service not everyone knows the history of the Service or the legislation that has shaped the Service over the years. Having turned one hundred years old in 2016, the National Park Service has a long history shaped by legislation. From simple acquisitions to reformations various presidents have had their hand in shaping the National Park Service into what it is today. This is a look into the history of the National Park Service as told by legislation.

Background

While the actual formation of the National Park Service can be traced back to 1916, there is a period of government activity that leads up to the official formation of the National Park Service. The Yosemite Grant Act begins this ramp up to the official formation.³ With this Act, on June 30, 1864, President Abraham Lincoln granted the Yosemite Valley and Mariposa Grove to the State of California. On the 150th anniversary of the establishment of this Act, the Senate recognized this as the

first time in United States history in which land was set aside solely for the “enjoyment and protection for future generations” and that it marks the birth of the national park idea.⁴

Following the Yosemite Grant Act, a few years later President Ulysses S. Grant signed “An Act to set apart a certain Tract of Land lying near the Head-waters of the Yellowstone River as a public Park,” also known as the Yellowstone Act.⁵ Passed in 1872, the Yellowstone Act set aside land in the Territories of Montana and Wyoming, near the headwaters of the Yellowstone River to establish a public park. In 1894, when President Grover Cleveland was in office, the Yellowstone National Park Protection Act was passed in order to protect birds and animals in the park and lay the ground rules for crimes committed within the boundaries of the park.⁶

In 1906, the Antiquities Act was signed by President Theodore Roosevelt.⁷ This gave the president of the United States authorization to create national monuments. To be eligible, these monuments had to be of historic or scientific interest and reside on lands controlled by the United States. President Roosevelt was a known nature lover and spent time with conservationist John Muir. During his time as president, Roosevelt used his new power to set aside eighteen new monuments and landmarks.⁸ On the 110th anniversary of the Antiquities Act, Congressman Danny K. Davis spoke to the House of Representatives about the importance of the act. Davis stated that “this legislation serves as a historic cornerstone in conservation, allowing our presidents to protect public lands with national or notable importance” and it “remains a critical tool in preserving our American history and in educating our American foreign visitors about the American experience.”⁹ Many presidents have used the Antiquities Act to establish National Monuments, places they felt held historic value for the American people.



Photo 1. Theodore Roosevelt and John Muir on Glacier Point, Yosemite Valley, California—approx. 1906. Retrieved from the historic photos collection of the National Park Service Catalog Number: HPC-001830, Other NPS Image Numbers: USZ62-8672. https://www.nps.gov/hfc/cfm/npsphoto4h.cfm?Catalog_No=hpc%2D001830.

There were other acts establishing parks or extending protection to areas in the years leading up to the formation of the National Park Service. The Yosemite Grant Act, Yellowstone Act, and Antiquities Act seem to be the more formative acts leading up to the formation though, as evidence by anniversary celebrations and statements. These Acts also established some of the most well-known National Parks that are still visited by many Americans to this day.

The Formation of the National Park Service and Its Enduring Legacy

By 1916, there were fourteen national parks, twenty-one national monuments, and the Hot Springs and Casa Grande Ruin reservations, all of which were overseen by the Department of the Interior.¹⁰ But at this time, there was no single leadership to manage and operate these parks and monuments. In August 1916, President Woodrow Wilson signed the Organic Act into law.¹¹ This Act established the National Park Service within the Department of the Interior for the purpose of overseeing national parks and monuments. The act also established that a director appointed by the Secretary of the Interior would oversee the National Park Service.

It is one hundred years later, and the National Park Service has come to encompass more than four hundred locations. Senator Ben Cardin of Maryland said of the National Park Service at its one hundredth anniversary, “Our national parks are our legacy to the next generation; conserving them is our shared

responsibility.”¹² Also speaking of the anniversary, President Barack Obama stated,

Our parks play a critical role in environmental stewardship, ensuring that precious wildlife can thrive and that ecosystems can provide the many benefits on which we depend. They have sustained the stories and cultures that define the American experience, and they embody the people and movements that distinguish our Nation’s journey.¹³

These words delivered by a congressman and a president to celebrate the anniversary of the National Park Service go far in showing how important the Service still is today.

Mission and Purpose of the National Park Service

The text of the public law of the Act to Establish a National Park Service states the purpose of the Service is to

promote and regulate the use of the Federal areas known as national parks, monuments, and reservations hereinafter specified by such means and measure as conform to the fundamental purpose of the said parks, monuments, and reservations, which purpose is to conserve the scenery and the natural and historic objects and the wild life therein and to provide for the enjoyment of the same in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations.¹⁴

This purpose of the National Park Service is its mission today (albeit slightly reworded), with the addition of extending “the benefits of natural and cultural resource conservation and outdoor recreation thought this country and the world.”¹⁵ The National Park Service achieves their mission with the help of partners, volunteers, and the support of the American people.

Legislation that Shaped the National Park Service

The National Park Service receives new acquisitions on a fairly regular bases. These acquisitions can come in the form of donations or be granted via some sort of legislation. There is various legislation in the history of our government that have greatly impacted the National Park Service by granting new acquisitions directly or indirectly, reinforcing the mission of the National Park Service, or completely reforming it.



Photo 2. Appalachian National Scenic Trail, Bigelow Preserve, Maine. By Paul Mitchell, Appalachian Trail Conservancy. <https://www.nps.gov/appa/learn/photosmultimedia/photogallery.htm>.

Franklin D. Roosevelt signed two executive orders in 1933 that significantly affected the National Park Service. Executive Orders 6166 and 6228, which both went into effect on August 10 of that year, gave the National Park Service numerous new areas to control. All monuments, parks, and battlefields that were previously overseen by the War Department, were now under the authority of the National Park Service. In addition, national monuments held by the Forest Service and the National Capital Parks were also given to the National Park Service. Prior to these Executive Orders, a majority of the National Park Service holdings were in the western part of the United States. In addition to several other holdings, the orders added thirteen new areas east of the Mississippi, making the National Park System truly national.¹⁶

The Historic Sites Act of 1935 provided the secretary of the interior, and by extension the National Park Service, greater powers in regards to acquiring new areas for the National Park System. The Historic Sites Act states, “It is a national policy to preserve for public use historic sites, building and objects of national significance for the inspiration and benefit of the people of the United States.”¹⁷ To carry out this policy, the act gave the secretary of the interior power to survey historical properties and designate them as “national historic sites.” If deemed valuable enough, the secretary could also acquire, restore, and preserve these properties.¹⁸ However, the secretary could not use federal funds to acquire these sites unless approved by Congress. These sites needed to be acquired through donation or approval and funding from Congress. The power to designate “national historic sites” went a long way in securing funds from Congress for many new additions to the National Park System.

President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the National Wilderness Preservation System Act (Wilderness Act) in 1964 to “assure that an increasing population, accompanied by expanding settlement and growing mechanization, does not occupy and modify all areas within the United States and its possessions, leaving no lands designated for preservation and protection in

their natural condition.”¹⁹ This Act established the National Wilderness Preservation System with authorization to designate “wilderness areas.” These designated areas were to be protected and left untouched for the enjoyment of people. For the National Park Service, this meant that all roadless areas in the National Park System had to be reviewed by the Secretary of the Interior and reported to the President on whether they were suitable for “wilderness area” designation. Those areas that received that designation would then have restrictions for motorized vehicles, roads, and structures.²⁰

To help meet the current and future demands and needs of outdoor recreation areas, congress enacted the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965. The bill established a fund for “planning, acquisition, and development of needed land and water areas and facilities.”²¹ The funds came from such sources as revenues from visitor fees and motorboat fuel taxes. While this fund was made available to many different federal agencies, the National Park Service benefited greatly from this fund.²²

The National Historic Preservation Act signed by President Johnson in 1966 gave the secretary of the interior authorization to designate historic sites. The purpose of this Act was to ensure “the historical and cultural foundations of the Nation . . . be preserved as a living part of our community life and development in order to give a sense of orientation to the American people.”²³ With this legislation, the National Park System gained many new historic areas.

In 1968, the National Trails System Act established a national system of trails to “provide for the ever increasing outdoor recreation needs of an expanding population and in order to promote public access to, travel within, and enjoyment and appreciation of the open-air, outdoor areas of the Nation.”²⁴ This established recreational trails to be accessible in urban areas, as well as scenic trails in remote areas. The Appalachian Trail and the Pacific Crest Trail were the first two designated scenic national trails. The Appalachian Trail was designated to be administered by the Secretary of the Interior, which brought



Photo 3. Johns Hopkins Inlet—Glacier Bay National Park & Reserve. Credit: NPS-C. Behnke. <https://www.nps.gov/common/uploads/photogallery/akr/park/glba/3B566802-1DD8-B71B-0BB2787A9A09B420/3B566802-1DD8-B71B-0BB2787A9A09B420.jpg>.

the trail into the National Park System. Various other national trails were later brought into the National Park System as a result of this Act.²⁵

The National Wild and Scenic Rivers System Act was established in 1968 to protect and preserve certain rivers. These rivers were selected based on their possessing “outstandingly remarkable scenic, recreational, geologic, fish and wildlife, historic, cultural, or other similar value” and that the rivers “shall be preserved in free-flowing condition, and that they and their immediate environments shall be protected for the benefit and enjoyment of present and future generations.”²⁶ Rivers were designated under the authority of either the secretary of agriculture or the secretary of the interior. The Saint Croix National Scenic Riverway immediately became part of the National Park System with the passing of this ACT. Seventeen other rivers were named in the Act to be studied for potential inclusion, many of those named were eventually added to the National Park System.²⁷

In 1970, Congress sought to bring unity to the National Park Service by passing the General Authorities Act.²⁸ This Act reiterated and made official the notion that though there are National Parks scattered throughout the United States, all National Parks are united and managed under the Service and have a singular mission.

President Jimmy Carter signed the National Parks and Recreation Act into law in November 1978. In his Statement of Signing, President Carter said,

This new law reaffirms our Nation’s commitment to the preservation of our heritage, a commitment which strives to improve the quality of the present by our dedication to preserving the past and conserving our historical and natural resources for our children and grandchildren. It honors those who helped to shape and develop this Nation; it acknowledges our need to receive strength and sustenance from natural beauty; and it addresses the pressing need to improve recreational opportunities in our urban areas.²⁹

With the passing of this legislation, fifteen new areas were added into the National Park Service system.³⁰

The National Park Service gained one of its largest acquisitions in 1980 with the passing of the Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act. The purpose of this Act was to “preserve for the benefit, use, education, and inspiration of present and future generations certain lands and waters in the State of Alaska that contain nationally significant natural, scenic, historic, archeological, geological, scientific, wilderness, cultural, recreational, and wildlife values.”³¹ This Act gave the National Park System more than 47 million acres. Prior to this Act, Alaska only had one national park, two monuments, and two historical parks.³²

Signed by President Bill Clinton in 1998, the National Park Omnibus Management provided measures to help with the operation of the National Park Service.³³ One such measure required the National Park Service to develop a training

program for their employees in order to better help them protect parks. The act also changed the way concessions contracts were handled, making contracts awarded through competitive bidding. In his Statement of Signing, President Clinton said, “This legislation is the first major overhaul of the way that the national Park Service awards concessions contracts in more than 3 decades. . . . These changes will result in better service to visitors and a better return to the taxpayers.”³⁴ This act also helped to ensure that concession franchise fees were given directly to the National Park Service to be used for park improvements.

During his time in office, President Barack Obama was very active when it came to the National Park Service. President Obama helped establish numerous new national monuments including the Harriet Tubman Underground Railroad monument, the Fort Monroe National Monument, the Pullman National Monument, and the Stonewall Monument (the first national monument to honor the LGBT civil rights movement).³⁵ President Obama also encouraged Americans, especially children, to get outside and enjoy our National Parks. In 2015, President Obama encouraged children to “put down the smartphone for a second, put away the video games, breathe some fresh air, and see this incredible bounty that’s been given to us” by establishing the “Every Kid in a Park” program, which gave free admission to National Parks for every fourth grader and their family for an entire year.³⁶

Dissemination of Information

The National Park Service website (<https://www.nps.gov/index.htm>) has a wealth of information available on the history of the National Park Service. It is easy to locate overviews and timelines of the Service’s history on their website. They even have a section dedicated to general legislation and laws related to the National Park Service. Using information from the website, it is then easy to look up more information about the various legislations using sites such as www.govinfo.gov and the ProQuest Congressional database. All information about these legislations are available to the public including bills, hearings, reports, and Presidential Signing Statements. The National Park Service also has a FOIA Library where documents can be viewed and/or requested.

Conclusion

President Obama stated in 2015 that

conservation is truly an American idea. The naturalists and industrialists and politicians who dreamt up our system of public lands and waters did so in the hope that, by keeping these places, these special places

in trust—places of incomparable beauty, places where our history was written—then future generations would value those places the same way as we did.³⁷

One can see from the various legislations that surround the National Park Service how much it has been shaped by our government, a government made up of people who do see the value in establishing and preserving these places. From the beginning it was clear our government saw the need for providing protection and access to outdoor areas for the enjoyment of the American people. Since the formation of the National Park Service our government has gone a long way in providing acquisitions, structure, and direction to the National Park Service.

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 28. National Park System General Authorities Act, P.L. 91-383, 84 Stat 825.
 29. Statement on Signing S. 791 Into Law Nov. 10, 1978.
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 31. An Act To provide for the designation and conservation of certain public lands in the State of Alaska, including the designation of units of the National Park, National Wildlife Refuge, National Forest, National Wild and Scenic Rivers, and National Wilderness Preservation Systems, and for other purposes, 94 Stat 2371, H.R. 39, 96th Cong. (1980).
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Learning from Historical Documents

A Federal Genealogical Resources Workshop for Middle Schoolers

Shalyn Rodriguez

Much of what makes up family history is first account information from family members. However, the federal government produces a plethora of genealogical documents that can be accessed on a number of government sources to help with researching family history. The tricky part can be finding government sources that are accessible at a middle school level. For this assignment, a workshop will be provided to teach middle school students how to find and utilize government resources while researching their family history for a school project.

The workshop will use former Illinois Governor Richard James Oglesby as a search example as the students research federal genealogical resources including census records, historical images, and military records. Handouts and activity sheets will be included for the students to complete as part of their training.

Lesson Plan: Learning From Historical Documents

Objective/ Outcome

- To assist middle school students in using federal genealogical resources to research their family history for their school project.

Skill

- Ability to successfully find and use federal genealogical resources.
 - Ability to Identify Primary and Secondary Sources and Analyze Them.
 - Ability to utilize features of each federal resource to return results.

Target Audience

The target audience for this workshop is middle school students completing a family history project at their school. The students have started a unit on immigration, and their teacher has included a family history section so students can learn how families come from various areas of the world. These students have diverse backgrounds, and the amount of information each has on family varies greatly.

Material needed

The material needed for this workshop include a computer lab with approximately twenty-five computers. A projector and SMART board will be set up to show a variety of websites, photographs, and handout information. The handout will explain what genealogy is and how the government publishes documents to help people research their family history (see appendix A). A worksheet will also be provided for students to work together in pairs and learn how to utilize different government resources (see appendix B).

List of resources being used:

- Biographical Directory of the United States Congress (bioguide.congress.gov)
- The Library of Congress American Memory (memory.loc.gov)
- The United States Census Bureau (census.gov)
- ProQuest Congressional (congressional.proquest.com)

Program

Introduction

The introduction to this workshop will be scripted as follows: “Who can tell me what genealogy is? Where would you search for your family history?” (*Class discussion.*)

**Government
Genealogy Resources**

Shalyn Rodriguez
School Liaison Outreach Librarian
Shorewood-Troy Public Library

COUNTY.	AGGREGATE.	FREE.	SLAVES.	FEDERAL OR REPRESENTATIVE.
Peoria } - -	1,310	1,310	-	1,310
Putnam } - -	2,959	2,959	-	2,959
Schuyler } - -	2,111	2,080	31	2,098
McDonough } - -				
Joe Daviess } - -				
Illinois Total	157,445	156,698	747	157,147
				157,445

Slide 1. Ruger, J. J Stoner, and Beck & Pauli, "Camp Foster, Camp of the 8th Regiment & 6th Battery: O.N.G. Col. D. W. Thomas Comm. Gaylord's Grove near Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio," Library of Congress, Madison, Wis.: J. J. Stoner, 1880. Accessed May 26, 2017.

Skill 1: Ability to Identify Primary and Secondary Sources and Analyze Them

Step

1. Lecture—Introduction to Primary and Secondary Sources and How to Analyze Them

Task

1. *Lecture—Introduction to Primary and Secondary Sources and How to Analyze Them.* Instructor will provide an overview of genealogical research. Specific areas covered:
 - What is genealogy?
 - What are primary and secondary sources?
 - How to analyze primary sources

"As you can see on the screen (slide 1), there are a number of resources available through the government that provide genealogy documents, images, maps, statistics, and much more! Today we are going to learn about these resources and how to use them when searching for family history.

"The United States has been keeping records for many years. According to the United States Census Bureau, Congress assigned marshals of the U.S. judicial districts to begin

compiling census records in 1790. Ever since then, the public has been able to access these records and research history!

"I want to show you a quick video from the US National Archives which shows little known items that they hold in their vaults.¹ This will give you an idea of just how much information is kept and preserved throughout the years that people can learn about!

"You will also be completing a worksheet during this lesson so you can learn how to navigate through government resources. You will complete the worksheet in pairs, so please choose a partner and we will get started with the lesson."

"This handout is a guide for you to learn about and use a variety of government resources when conducting your research for your assignment. Please become familiar with the resources listed on the handout.

"When searching for resources, you will need to make sure you are looking for primary and secondary sources. Can anyone tell me what primary sources are? Secondary sources? (*Class discussion.*)

"Now that we've had a chance to discuss the various types of sources, I want to show you how to analyze them to confirm they are proper sources you can use for your assignment. You'll want to follow these steps when analyzing primary and

- Meet the document
- Observe its parts
- Try to make sense of it
- Use it as historical evidence

Slide 2. “Analyzing Documents,” DocsTeach, accessed May 30, 2017, <https://www.docsteach.org/tools/analyzing-documents>.

secondary sources (slide 2). (*Open class discussion on steps of analyzing primary sources.*)

“Great job everyone. Now that we know what primary sources are and how to analyze them, let’s get started on the various types of government genealogical resources.”

Skill 2: Ability to Utilize Features of Each Federal Resource to Return Results

Steps

1. Lecture—Introduction to Federal Resources
2. Demonstration—How to use each resource
3. Class activity—Practice using each resource
4. Wrap up—Using resources for homework assignment

Tasks

1. *Lecture—Introduction to Federal Resources.* Instructor will provide an introduction to federal resources used for genealogy.

“As I explained earlier, the handout provides a number of federal resources you can use to research genealogy. Let’s learn about each resource and what it covers.”

Lecture 1: “The Biographical Directory of the United States Congress is a biographical directory of the United States Congress. It covers years 1774 to present and allows the user to search by name, position within Congress, state, party, and year. Why would you want to use this resource for your family history assignment?” (*Class discussion.*)

Lecture 2: “Next, let’s look at The Library of Congress American Memory. This resource provides historical written and spoken words, recordings, images, prints, maps, and much more. It is a great resource to find various types of resources

and is fun to browse through! You can use this resource to find various documents, images, and more of your ancestors and the areas they lived in, what was happening during that time and how it might have made an impact on your family.”

Lecture 3: “Familysearch.org provides a large collection of genealogical and historical records for those looking to explore their family history. This resource is helpful to determine where people’s families come from and who they are based off these accessible records.”

Lecture 4: “ProQuest Congressional provides legislative histories, bills, and reports, members of Congress, committee

hearings, and much more to search through. You can use this resource to find topics brought to Congress that your ancestors might have been involved with.”

2. *Demonstration—how to use each resource.* Instructor will demonstrate each resource while again explaining how this resource will be helpful in researching genealogy. All demonstrations will be projected on SMART board so students can follow along on their individual computers.

“To demonstrate how to use each resource, we will use former Illinois Governor Richard J. Oglesby. We will start with a simple Google search so you can learn how to compare these searches to those using government resources. Let’s begin by typing ‘Richard J. Oglesby’ into Google search. As you can see at the top, there are approximately 1,740,000 results. You will not have time to analyze every source listed on the results page to determine if the source is useful for your assignment. What ways can you determine which results will be useful from a search like this?” (*Class discussion.*)

“A few of you mentioned the National Governors Association result for Richard J. Oglesby because I had mentioned earlier that he was a former Illinois Governor.² This is a good website to look at to get some basic information.

“We will be using the information from this page to help our searches in some of the government resources.

“Let’s remember his birth and death dates, where he was born, his party, the national office he served, and his military service.” (*Write to the side on white board.*)

Demonstration 1 (paired with Lecture 1): “Let’s start a search using the first listed resource on your handout: bioguide.congress.gov.³



1774 - Present

- ★ Biography
- ★ Research Collections
- ★ Bibliography
- ★ New Search
- ★ House History Page
- ★ Senate History Page
- ★ Copyright Information

OGLESBY, Richard James, (1824 - 1899)

Senate Years of Service: 1873-1879
Party: Republican



OGLESBY, Richard James, (cousin of Woodson Ratcliffe Oglesby), a Senator from Illinois; born in Floydshurg, Oldham County, Ky., July 25, 1824; orphaned and raised by an uncle in Decatur, Ill.; received a limited schooling; worked as a farmer, rope-maker, and carpenter; studied law; admitted to the bar in 1845 and commenced practice in Sullivan, Ill.; during the Mexican War served as first lieutenant of Company C, Fourth Illinois Regiment; spent two years mining in California; returned to Decatur, Ill., and resumed the practice of law; unsuccessful candidate for election in 1858 to the Thirty-sixth Congress; elected to the State senate in 1860 and served during one session, when he resigned to enter the Union Army during the Civil War; served as colonel, brigadier general, and major general of the Eighth Regiment, Illinois Volunteer Infantry; Governor of Illinois 1865-1869; again elected Governor in 1872 and served from January 13, 1873, until his resignation on January 23, 1873, having been elected Senator; elected as a Republican to the United States Senate and served from March 4, 1873, to March 3, 1879; declined to be a candidate for reelection; chairman, Committee on Public Lands (Forty-fourth and Forty-fifth Congresses); Governor of Illinois 1885-1889; retired to his farm, "Oglehurst," Elkhart, Ill., where he died on April 24, 1899; interment in Elkhart Cemetery.

Courtesy U.S. Senate Historical Office

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Biographical Directory of the United States Congress listing for Richard James Oglesby.

"From what we learned through the National Governors Association page, we will input his first and last name in the required fields. Who can tell me what we should input for the 'Position' field? And how about the 'Party' field?"

"With those fields entered, let's search and see what results are returned to us.

"As you can see, we were able to locate Richard Oglesby by the number of fields we filled in. Why do you think we were able to find his information without having to fill in every field? (*Class discussion.*)

"Take a look at the Research Collections and Bibliography sections of the page to learn how the resource provides information for users."

Demonstration 2 (paired with Lecture 2): "For memory. loc.gov, we will research a photograph of Richard J. Oglesby. Photographs and images are excellent primary sources to use in your assignment. To begin, select the 'Browse' feature at the top of the page. Next, we will select 'Photos, prints' under the 'Browse Collections Containing.' In the search field, type in 'Richard J. Oglesby.' This will return the result you see on the screen:

To find an image of Richard Oglesby, click on the link in the text "two hundred individuals represented in Hay's album." There, you will scroll down until you find Oglesby, Richard J. (Richard James), 1824-1899.⁴ You should see this image:"

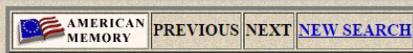
Demonstration 3 (paired with lecture 3): "familysearch.org will show us census records, birth, marriage, and death certificates, military records, and much more. You can use this website to search for deceased family members or people of interest.

We will use familysearch.org to search for Richard J. Oglesby in the 1830 United States Census records.

"To begin, select 'Search' at the top of the page. A drop-down menu will appear and will allow you to select "Records." We will need to type in 'Richard' into the 'First Names' box, and 'Oglesby' into the 'Last Names' box. We learned from the previous demonstrations that Oglesby was born in Kentucky in 1824. We will use that information to help search in familysearch.org. Type 'Kentucky' into the 'Birthplace' box and '1824' into the 'Birth Year (Range)' boxes. Scroll down and click the search button. Since I specified that we would be researching the 1830 United States Census records, we need to filter our results. Select 'Collections' and click on 'United States Census, 1830.' There, you will see a result for Richd Oglesby. When you click on it, the result provides information about the record, as well as a photograph of the census record. When you scroll down, you will see a chart that includes an affiliate name. The website has pulled the census record from the US National Archives and Records Administration.⁵

"Why do you think familysearch.org includes an affiliate name on each record page? (*Class discussion.*)

Demonstration 4 (paired with lecture 4): "For ProQuest Congressional, we will be completing an advanced search to find resources linked to Richard J. Oglesby. Select the 'advanced' feature on the homepage. As we learned earlier, Oglesby was a senator for 3 years. We will switch the field search from 'all fields except full text' to 'Member of Congress (Cong Rec Bound and Cong Rec Daily).' You will enter 'Richard Oglesby' into the correct name fields and for the date range, enter '1824



Words and Deeds in American History

Civil War photograph album, ca. 1861-65. (James Wadsworth Family Papers)



Cartes de visite, miniature portraits used as calling cards, were extremely popular during the American Civil War. These photographic calling cards, approximately 2½ x 4 inches in size, had been invented in France in the early 1850s, and their popularity quickly spread throughout Europe and eventually to the United States, where the corollary development of the photograph album spurred a collecting craze in the 1860s that became known as Cartomania.¹ In addition to assembling albums of family photographs, the public sought to collect images of celebrities and views of favorite places and sites. John Hay (1838-1905), a personal secretary to President Abraham Lincoln (1809-1865) who later had a successful diplomatic and political career of his own, is thought to have assembled the cards in this album. Many of the [two hundred individuals represented in Hay's album](#), including numerous army and navy officers, politicians, and cultural figures, were undoubtedly visitors to the Lincoln White House. Others, such as Confederate president Jefferson Davis (1808-1889) and generals Robert E. Lee (1807-1870) and James Longstreet (1821-1904), were unlikely to have called at the Executive Mansion.

Most of the portraits in Hay's album are signed, greatly increasing their value. It was common practice during the war to acquire such portraits through gift or purchase, mail them to the individuals represented, and hope for their return—signed. Thus on the back of many of the cartes are notes requesting that the sitter affix his signature at the bottom of the carte, high enough to be seen when in an album. It was also customary for many photographers, including both Mathew B. Brady (1823-1896) and Alexander Gardner (1821-1882) whose work is well documented in this album, to keep stocks of autographed cartes for sale to souvenir album collectors. Hay was acquainted with both Brady and Gardner and went to the latter's studio with Lincoln for the president's sitting and separately to have his own photograph taken. He could quite possibly have purchased cartes from Gardner and others to supplement those he acquired directly from the sitters.

Hay thoughtfully arranged his collection of cartes in a decorative, leather-bound album patented by Altemus & Company of Philadelphia on 21 July 1863. Like many such albums, this one has gold-stamped decoration on the cover and spine, engraved circular ivory bosses at each corner of the cover, and two brass fore-edge clasps. The text block consists of a title page, a blank index page, twenty-five album pages, and a back flyleaf. Each album page holds eight cartes—four on the front and four on the back—inserted in recessed pockets. Since the cartes were placed back-to-back in the album, sometimes the ink instructions to one sitter bled from the back of one carte onto the verso of another. The text block edges are gilt, as are the edges of the openings for each photograph. The openings have been numbered 1 through 200, possibly by the same hand who wrote on the first page "Do not touch the pictures with the fingers." Of particular interest to book conservators is the album's "hinged-back" spine, ingeniously engineered to permit flexible movement of the heavy, stiff-paged text block. The pages of the album are attached to the spine by leather hinges that are slotted and have metal pins inserted. Each pin alternately picks up hinges for the page in front of it and in back of it, forming a continuous attachment of leaves. As the pages are turned, they rotate on the pin.

This digital reproduction of the album allows viewers the opportunity to page through the cartes as if they were perusing the volume in Hay's home. These "album page views" enable readers to consider Hay's selection and arrangement of the photographs. For example, Hay began the album with Lincoln followed by his vice presidents and members of his Cabinet. Elsewhere in the album there are groupings of politicians and military officers, with images of cultural and literary figures toward the end of the book. By selecting the "View these cartes" option from any of the album pages, readers may see the images as they would appear outside the album. Both the front and verso of each carte is fully displayed, revealing studio logos, addresses, and other imprint information on the approximately [twenty photographers](#)

Civil War photograph album, ca. 1861-65 (James Wadsworth Family Papers) from Words and Deeds in American History, <https://memory.loc.gov/ammem/mcchtml/corhome.html>.

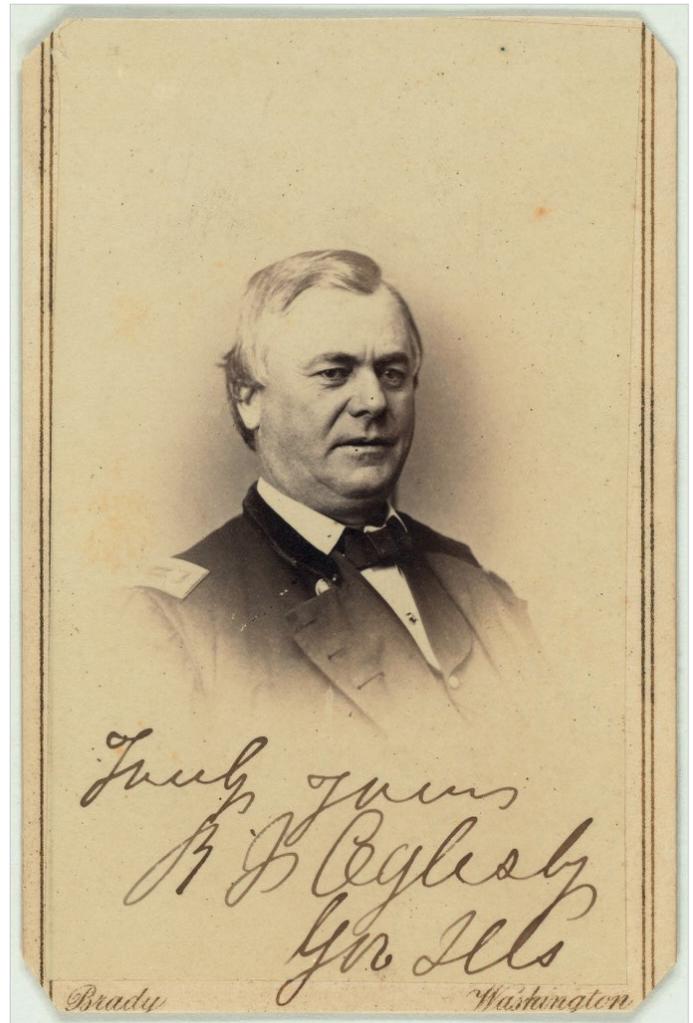
to 1899.' This will return Congressional Records of which you can download the PDF and browse through proceedings:⁶

1. Class activity—practice using each resource. Class will work together in pairs to complete federal resource worksheet.
2. Wrap up—how to use resources for homework assignment. Instructor will tell class how they can use resources to research their personal family history or a person of their choice.

Dissemination of Information

The resources I used in each demonstration are disseminated to the public mostly through online websites and databases. Many depositories were created to make the information more easily accessible, such as scanning in images, documents, etc., for users to view.

- Biographical Directory of the United States Congress (bioguide.congress.gov) is very straight-forward and easy to use to research biographical information. This government website is accessible to anyone who has the web address. Once fields are filled in, results are displayed and provide information on whatever is selected. This resource is very specific in terms of the information that can be retrieved. It is a great resource in terms of navigation for my target audience.



Carte de Visite featuring Richard James Oglesby.

1877.

CONGRESSIONAL RECORD—SENATE.

167

IN SENATE.

MONDAY, October 29, 1877.

Prayer by the Chaplain, Rev. BYRON SUNDERLAND, D. D.
The Journal of the proceedings of Thursday last was read and approved.

PETITIONS AND MEMORIALS.

The VICE-PRESIDENT presented a memorial of the Legislature of Wisconsin, in favor of increased mail facilities in the western portion of Oconto County, Wisconsin; which was referred to the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads.

He also presented a memorial of the Legislature of Wisconsin, in favor of mail service from Eau Claire to Rice Lake, in Barron County, Wisconsin; which was referred to the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads.

He also presented a memorial of the Legislature of Wisconsin, in favor of increased mail-service in the northern portion of Sauk County, Wisconsin; which was referred to the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads.

He also presented a memorial of the Legislature of Wisconsin, in favor of the extension of a mail-route from the town of Berlin, in Marathon County, Wisconsin, to the town of Hamburg, in the same county; which was referred to the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads.

He also presented a memorial of the Legislature of Wisconsin, in favor of the extension of the mail-route from the town of Stettin, in Marathon County, Wisconsin, to the town of Rib Falls, in the same county; which was referred to the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads.

He also presented a memorial of the Legislature of Wisconsin, in favor of the establishment of a mail-route from Friendship, in the county of Adams, to Liberty Bluffs, in the county of Marquette in that State; which was referred to the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads.

He also presented a memorial of the Legislature of Wisconsin, in favor of the extension of a mail-route from the town of Barron to the village of Sandy Creek, in Dunn County, Wisconsin; which was referred to the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads.

He also presented a memorial of the Legislature of Wisconsin, in favor of a right of way and a grant of land for railroad purposes, to aid in building a railroad through northern Wisconsin; which was referred to the Committee on Railroads.

He also presented a memorial of the Legislature of Wisconsin, in favor of an appropriation by Congress to aid in a survey of the Saint Croix River, Wisconsin; which was referred to the Committee on Commerce.

He also presented a memorial of the Legislature of Wisconsin, in favor of an appropriation by Congress to aid in the completion of the Sturgeon Bay and Lake Michigan Ship-Canal and Harbor, and to extend the time for the completion of the same; which was referred to the Committee on Commerce.

He also presented a memorial of the Legislature of Wisconsin, in favor of an appropriation by Congress for the erection of a light-house

Mr. WITHERS presented the petition of Mary W. Jones, widow of the late Thomas Ap Catesby Jones, commodore United States Navy, praying for an increase of pension; which was referred to the Committee on Pensions.

Mr. HOWE. I present the petition of A. M. Pinto and several other citizens of Wisconsin, who were employed under contractors upon the Fox and Wisconsin Rivers improvement, and who ask to be paid for their services out of a fund, condemned by the Government, which belonged to the contractors. I move its reference to the Committee on Claims.

The motion was agreed to.

Mr. HAMLIN. I present the petition of James Newcomb, of Cornell, Penobscot County, Maine, who prays for a pension on the alleged ground that he is now deaf, and that that deafness was occasioned by service in the recent war. The petition is largely concurred in by the municipal officers of the town and various other citizens. I move its reference to the Committee on Pensions.

The motion was agreed to.

Mr. WALLACE presented a petition of citizens of Lancaster, Pennsylvania, praying for a repeal of the resumption act; which was referred to the Committee on Finance.

Mr. BAILEY presented the petition of Joseph Grigsby, late captain Company C, First Tennessee Light Artillery, praying that his name be restored to the pension-rolls; which was referred to the Committee on Pensions.

Mr. MERRIMON presented additional papers in relation to the claim of Nannie Hall, of Yazoo County, Mississippi, for compensation for property taken by the United States troops during the late war; which were referred to the Committee on Claims.

Mr. MORRILL presented the petition of J. C. Milliman and 40 others, of Logan, Harrison County, Iowa, praying for an extension of the Capitol grounds from First to Second street, east, and from B street, north, to B street, south; which was referred to the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds.

He also presented the petition of William H. Hunt and 46 others, of Glide, Wayne County, New York, praying for an extension of the Capitol grounds from First to Second street, east, and from B street, north, to B street, south; which was referred to the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds.

Mr. MITCHELL presented the petition of D. W. Cheeseman, of Lake View, Lake County, Oregon, late Assistant Treasurer of the United States at San Francisco, California, praying for an appropriation to pay him the sum of \$1,999.41, the amount overpaid by him to the Government as stamp agent and decreed to be due him by the circuit court of the United States for the district of California; which was referred to the Committee on Claims.

Mr. HOAR presented the petition of John M. Goodhue, of Worcester, Massachusetts, praying to be restored to his former rank and pay in the United States Army; which was referred to the Committee on Military Affairs.

He also presented the petition of Laura A. Turner, of Plymouth, Massachusetts, praying for a pension; which was referred to the Committee on Pensions.

Mr. GORDON. I present the petition of a large body of business

Congressional Record from ProQuest Congressional.

- The Library of Congress American Memory (memory.loc.gov) includes a variety of information accessible to users. The website can be accessed by anyone with the web address. Much of it is available to view online, however, some information must be viewed in person and provides where to find it or who to contact. Limiting searches through the Library of Congress American Memory is difficult to do. The results page only provides an option to view results as a list view or a gallery view. There are no options for an advanced search nor any limiters on the results page to narrow results and find exactly what the user is looking for. This resource is a little more in depth when it comes to navigation, which is great practice for my target audience.
- The United States Census Bureau (census.gov) was more difficult to navigate through when researching information. In terms of the public accessing census records, that seemed to be more difficult to find than searching for data and statistics through the bureau. The United States Census Bureau provides a website that users can access with the web address and allows users to download pdfs to view materials. For my target audience, it would more difficult for them to navigate the website since they are just learning how to use various resources for research.
- ProQuest Congressional (congressional.proquest.com) is the most difficult of the four to access publicly. Users must have access to the database to research

information. However, the search features are better in that the advanced search option provides multiple ways to search for information and various resources within the database to search through. ProQuest Congressional is the most complex to use out of the four for my target audience. Middle school students are learning more how to use different resources to conduct research and this would be the most advanced they could start using. Accessing information is fairly easy once the user has accessed the database. There are pdfs available to view documents.

Evaluation and Conclusion

To conclude the lesson, the following script is provided:

“To wrap up our lesson, let’s go over what we learned today. You had the opportunity to learn about what government genealogy resources are, what primary and secondary sources are and how to analyze them, and a few of the many types of resources available.

“For each resource, we learned how to search for a person by using basic and advanced search features. We were able to research not only records, but images, charts, and documents that all related to Richard J. Oglesby. You were able to practice using each resource through the worksheets given to you. These skills will help you research information about your family or a person of your choice.

“Each government resource is included in your handout. Please hold on to those as you complete your school assignments so you can refer to them if needed. I am also available for appointments if you need additional help while conducting research. Do not hesitate to reach out to me by phone, email, or in person and I will help as much as I can.

“Thank you for joining me in this lesson today! I cannot wait to hear about your assignments when they are done!”

Summary

The topic for my final project was inspiring for me since I plan to continue working with children in a public library setting. Research is a huge aspect of librarianship, and I believe history is as well. The ability to show students how to utilize government genealogical resources helps strengthen their research skills to aid them in school and in life while helping my own research skills. Each resource I used provided a certain aspect of the example (Richard J. Oglesby) to show students how they can find a plethora of information, documents, images, charts, etc. that relate to what they are researching. I noticed as I started my research for this entire project that most teacher genealogical resources that are available when searching through Google

are not centered around government documents. This realization made me decide to discuss the difference of results a user will get when searching through Google versus specific areas of government documents. I believe this can be addressed more in schools as well as in libraries. I believe librarians need to show teachers and students (and anyone else for that matter!) how this information is publicly accessible and should be utilized more than it is in classrooms.

I do think the government resources I used are more easily understood by older students. Much of what I researched and discovered would be difficult to teach to younger elementary students. I would like to see an increased effort within each government resource to have sections available for children to browse through. I know there are specific government websites that are geared towards children, like kids.gov, but they should not be limited to just one or two sites to experience the various resources available about genealogy and history.

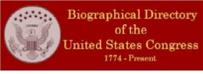
Shalyn Rodriguez (srodriguez@shorewoodtroylibrary.org) University of Washington, LIS526 Government Publications, Head of Children’s Service, Shorewood-Troy Public Library, Shorewood, Illinois.

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Appendix A. Federal Resource Handout

Shorewood-Troy Public Library's Federal Genealogy Resource Guide



Biographical Directory of the United States Congress 1774 - Present

The Biographical Directory of the United States Congress 1774-Present
Allows users to search by name, position within Congress, state, party, and year.
Easy to use resource to find members of Congress.
bioguide.congress.gov



United States Census Bureau

Provides users with census records of populations and housing in the United States.
Users can view maps, infographics, charts, publications, and much more.
census.gov



American Memory
Historical Collections for the National Digital Library

The Library of Congress American Memory
Allows users to search through historical written and spoken words, recordings, images, prints, maps, and much more.
memory.loc.gov



ProQuest Congressional

Provides users with legislative histories, bills and reports, members of Congress, committee hearings, and much more.
congressional.proquest.com



NATIONAL ARCHIVES

National Archives
Allows users to explore historical documents, photos, records, military records, student programs, and much more.
archives.gov

For additional help and resources, please contact Shalyn Rodriguez at:
Shorewood-Troy Public Library
650 Deerwood Dr.
Shorewood, IL 60404
815-725-1715
www.shorewoodtroylibrary.org

Appendix B. Federal Genealogical Resource Worksheet

Appendix B: Federal Genealogical Resource Worksheet

Name: _____ Date: _____

1. Go to the National Governors Association website and select a governor to use as your search example. List their name, date of birth and death, where they were born, and what state they were governor of:

2. List two interesting facts about the governor of your choice:

3. Visit the Library of Congress American Memory website. Search for the governor of your choice and describe ONE result you found. How did you search for them? Why did you choose that result?

4. Visit the United States Census Bureau's website. Search for population statistics from the year and state your governor was born. Share this information here:

5. Login to ProQuest Congressional. Use the advanced search option to search for your governor. Explain your search process and what was easy and difficult about using this database. Describe ONE result and why you chose it.

“The Truth is Out There”

UFO’s and Government Disclosure—A Brief Look into Exploring Recently Declassified Government Documents

Ryan Dzakovic

The extraordinary growth of information and information technologies in modern times have irrevocably changed the way participants of a democracy access, navigate, share, and normalize information retrieval practices. The unprecedented access afforded by these technologies, the fluency with which people use to navigate it and a government seemingly moving toward more transparency have further democratized information access for all citizens. The commitment of government to ensure the sustainable relationship between citizen and information has been helped by the synergy of government publications and the internet. Barnes et al. state,

The promise of eGovernment then and continuing now offers governments the opportunity to open their doors to citizens, helping expose the secrecy of government, opening doors to the inner workings while aiding understanding and explanation, informing and making available large quantities and types of information for use, interest, and comprehension, delivering services where and when and at times citizens and constituents need them, and creating internal and external operating efficiencies that improve the operations and interchanges within and between governments.¹

The secrecy of government is perhaps what has intrigued most citizens particularly in the decades of the Cold War and in a time of uncertainty since September 11. This paper explores one facet of government secrecy; disclosure and access of government publications recently declassified. It is intended to provide insight into the history of the documents, the nature of those documents, strategies on how to navigate them and the politics of disclosure.

One of the most important bureaucratic and cultural artifacts to emerge in the last century was Project Blue Book, a

United States Air Force initiative to evaluate and ascertain information about Unidentified Flying Objects between 1947 and 1969. The disclosure during the Cold War and our government’s recent disclosure from the Central Intelligence Agency this year reify the intrigue by both our intelligence institutions and the public. The government’s investigative involvement in phenomenon that could reveal not only one of the most significant discoveries for humankind but our nation’s participation in it is inspiration enough to examine government publication policy. But moreover, understanding the strategies of publication research of declassified material particularly of such a sensitive nature. As more and more historical information is being analyzed by information professionals (e.g., digital humanists), it is incumbent upon them to familiarize themselves with government sources in particular and the strategies used to navigate and access this information.

It is important to note that this paper does not intend to promote, prove or otherwise provide subjective analysis of the existence of extraterrestrials in our solar system or anywhere else. It is not intended to advance conspiracy theories or indict government agencies with disinformation practices. It does, however, provide insight into navigating recent government declassified information.

The 2009 Executive Order signed by President Barack Obama was our government’s recent initiative to expand declassification of information both current and historical. The Order stated,

Our democratic principles require that the American people be informed of the activities of their government. Also, our Nation’s progress depends on the free flow of information both within the Government and to the American people. Nevertheless, throughout our history, the national defense has required that certain information be maintained in confidence in order to

protect our citizens, our democratic institutions, our homeland security, and our interactions with foreign nations.²

This initiative is a continuation of historical executive orders that cover national classified information. These orders began with President Truman's Executive Order 10290 to up to the 2009 order from President Obama.³

The Department of Justice has spearheaded the effort as well as overseen those under The Automatic Declassification Program. The department describes automatic declassification as “the declassification of information based upon the occurrence of a specific date or event as determined by the original classification authority; or the expiration of a maximum time frame for the duration of classification established under the Order (25 years).”⁴ Along with concerted efforts to promote transparency within the government through its practice of declassification, preservation of national security remains at the center of the controlled and calculated release of federal documents. The process, “increases the potential release of formerly classified national security information to the general public and researchers, enhancing their knowledge of the United States’ democratic institutions and history, while at the same time ensuring that information which can still cause damage to national security continues to be protected.”⁵ This process attempts to explain the legal context of the declassification of government publications while also providing insight into why architects of these policies (to include the president) work to ensure that citizens have access to previously secured information. The result of these policies—particularly The Automatic Declassification Program—further enables both checks and balances as well as a potential for stakeholders of a participative democracy to hold more accountable those charged with their governance. This is achieved through citizens’ access to government publications allowing them to enhance their visibility on the workings of their government.

Roswell Crash Declassified Conclusions

In July 1947, a crash of an unidentified flying object was reported near the town of Roswell, New Mexico. Reports of a “flying disc” initially made by the Roswell Army Air Field (RAAF) public information officer sparked nationwide attention as proof of extraterrestrial aircraft having been identified. However, the following day, “the press reported that the Commanding General of the U.S. Eighth Air Force announced that RAAF personnel had recovered a crashed radar-tracking (weather) balloon, not a ‘flying disc.’”⁶

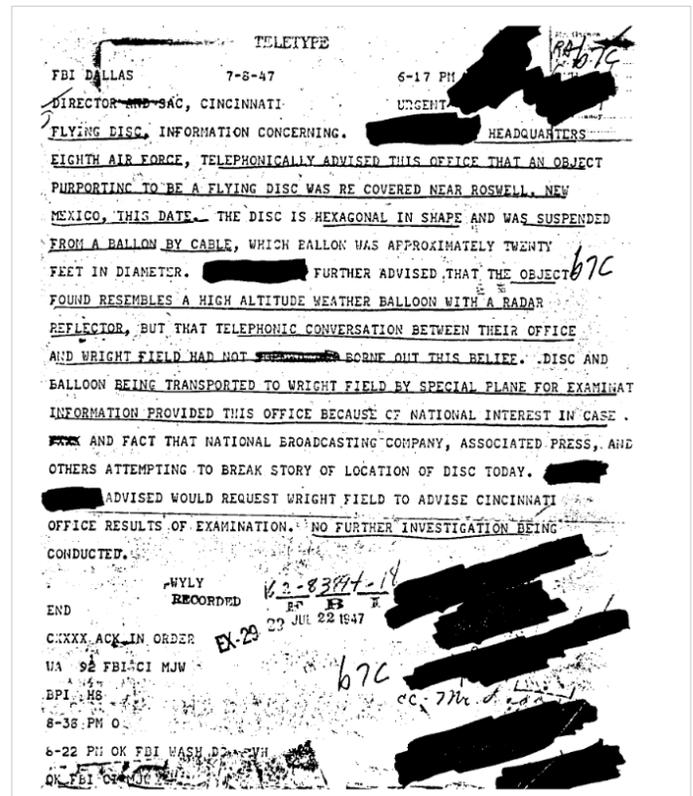


Figure 1. Teletype report of UFO in Roswell, New Mexico.

The event and its subsequent speculation that continues today has left an indelible impression on the culture of America. Most notably, this influence has been popularized by *The X-Files* and other cinematic examples of citizens searching “the truth” while navigating the various stations of the government. Investigative television shows and journalists frequently use terms such, “recently declassified” or “government disclosure” against scenes of staged filing cabinets in dark cellars. The frequency of these tropes in popular media emerging alongside individuals navigating government resources reflects a genuine interest in not only the UFO phenomenon but also an interest in government document access by the public.

This interest was felt and shared by government representatives as early as 1994 when general inquiries were made at the federal level into reports of information previously deemed classified by the US Department of Defense. A published digital record within the National Archives explains that

at the request of Congressman Steven H. Schiff (R-NM), the General Accounting Office (GAO) initiated an audit in February of 1994, to locate records relating to the “Roswell Incident” and to determine if such records were properly handled. The GAO audit was completed and the results published by the Headquarters, U.S. Air Force in 1995. The publication is

TOTAL UFO SIGHTINGS, 1947 - 1969		
YEAR	TOTAL SIGHTINGS	UNIDENTIFIED
1947	122	12
1948	156	7
1949	186	22
1950	210	27
1951	169	22
1952	1,501	303
1953	509	42
1954	487	46
1955	545	24
1956	670	14
1957	1,006	14
1958	627	10
1959	390	12
1960	557	14
1961	591	13
1962	474	15
1963	399	14
1964	562	19
1965	887	16
1966	1,112	32
1967	937	19
1968	375	3
1969	146	1
TOTAL	12,618	701

Figure 2. Total UFO Sightings, 1947-1969 from Project Bluebook

entitled, "The Roswell Report: Fact vs. Fiction in the New Mexico Desert."⁷

A response to this request was submitted the following year by Director of National Security Analysis Richard Davis. Contained within the report are descriptions of multiple information requests from governmental agencies that include, but were not limited to, the National Security Council, Department of Energy, and the White House Office of Science and Technology Policy. Further requests were made by initiating Freedom of Information Act requests with the Federal Bureau of Investigation. These examples of internal information retrieval highlight the government publication search efforts of our own state entities in attaining previously classified information. An artifact of this correspondence is represented in figure 1 where an "Eighth Air Force headquarters official had telephonically informed the FBI's Dallas office of the recovery near Roswell of a hexagonal-shaped disc suspended from a large balloon by cable."⁸ In locating this primary source, it was anticipated significant restrictions that would prohibit locating any and all documents related to this topic. For example, is this a topic that the government takes seriously enough to publish? Or will national security restrictions prevent any document related to the Roswell crash from being available?

The initial search began with archived documents within the US Government Accountability Office (GAO). The source document was easily navigable by executing a simple search within the Government Accountability Office website. By searching for "Roswell crash," the aforementioned document was easily locate containing concluding reports about the

military's crashed weather balloon on outskirts of the small desert community in 1947. The metadata provided by the GAO enhanced the transparency of this report. For example, the document number "GAO-NSIAD-95-187" allows for easy retrieval both in physical and digital forms. Since the document was not "born digital," it is correct to assume that a physical copy exists in Gaithersberg, Maryland as illustrated on the final page of the primary source document. Additionally, the published and released dates are exactly the same: July 28, 1995. Examining this communicated that GAO wasted no time in ensuring the publication of this material to the requester.

Project Blue Book

For over two decades beginning in the late 1940's the US Air Force investigated UFO phenomenon under the title Project Blue Book. Thousands of reported unidentified flying objects were investigated, approximately 12,618 in total. Of that many, 701 were determined unidentified according to recently released government publications from that project. Declassified reports from Project Blue Book revealed that the, "decision to discontinue UFO investigations was based on an evaluation of a report prepared by the University of Colorado entitled, 'Scientific Study of Unidentified Flying Objects:' a review of the University of Colorado's report by the National Academy of Sciences."⁹

Primary source material for this document was easily obtained by navigating two separate but equally beneficial government digital catalogs. The first was MetaLib, a federated search engine provided by the Catalog of US Government Publications that searches multiple US government databases and providing direct links to selected resources available online.¹⁰

The second was the actual Catalog of US Government Publication's search page. The former provided substantial results linking information users to a myriad of sources including but not limited to the US National Archives' Special Media Division blogs discussing the formerly clandestine project.¹¹ The latter provided a singular results after inputting "project bluebook." It linked to a secondary site to a document authored by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in 1997 and accessible through the Government Publications Office. Figure 2 illustrates a listing from that formerly classified document of total UFO reports from 1947 to 1969.

Additional information was available through a cursory search executed through science.gov, a government catalog of more than 60 databases and 2,200 scientific websites providing access to more than 200 million pages of federal science information.¹² By searching for "project blue book," the page yielded numerous results with options to refine sources by type, author,

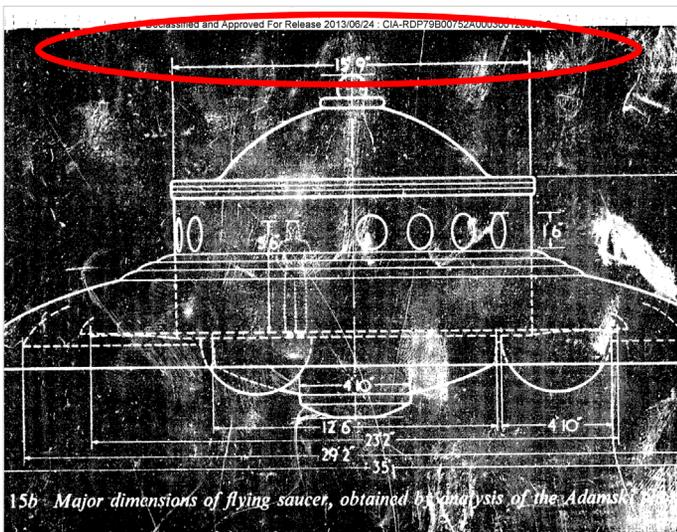


Figure 3. Declassified CIA document detailing the dimensions of a flying saucer.

dates and topics allowing for maximum potential for information retrieval on the topic. Included in these results were links to several other government sources, each providing their respective insight on the declassified publications from intelligence and military sources. Examples include the National Technical Information Service, which has available in its physical archive (unavailable digitally) monthly status reports from the clandestine project during in early inception in 1952. Additionally, the science.gov results provide links to the Defense Technical Information Center. This site provides an abstract for an *internal* publication from the Central Intelligence Agency's library titled "CIA's Role in the Study of UFO's, 1947–90." Contained within the report is possible reasoning for the information cover-up regarding UFO phenomenon and its subsequent classification for decades. As described in the agency document, "Because of the tense Cold War situation and increased Soviet capabilities, the CIA Study Group saw serious national security concerns in the flying saucer situation. The group believed that the Soviets could use UFO reports to touch off mass hysteria and panic in the United States."¹³

This revelation by the CIA's account supports clandestine information collection and subsequent classification. Historical consideration provides insight in the reasoning of this classification due to national security. Information seekers would be unable during that time to participate in information gathering of this phenomenon. The justification of national interest or security prohibits any information deemed sensitive or classified from being shared with the public. This obvious point leads to the conclusion that examples of this exists contemporarily as our nation faces threats from both within and outside the United States.

Central Intelligence Agency Release—2017

The recent declassification of documents, more than 800,000, earlier this year mark a significant event in the efforts of citizens to engage with their government's information systems and agencies. The strategies employed include legal initiatives as well as Freedom of Information Act led by nonprofit groups such as MuckRock—a citizen campaign dedicated to freedom of information. Figure 3 illustrates one of the 800,000 documents retrieved from the trove of information. The means with which were used to acquire these documents are perhaps the most important as it did not require a breach of national security or any other unauthorized leaking of material. Journalist Mike Best visited the CIA archives and personally printed out the records individually at cost to the agency. In a statement given to the BBC members of this group explained, "By printing out and scanning the documents at CIA expense, I was able to begin making them freely available to the public and to give the agency a financial incentive to simply put the database online."¹⁴ This strategy has arguably led to the CIA and other agencies of the government to disclose previously identified information deemed sensitive at a significant rate. The result of citizen initiatives operating within the rule of law in their efforts to influence government disclosure has irrevocably changed grassroots information retrieval.

Conclusion

This research was an opportunity to investigate a facet of government publications work that at one time or another was highly sensitive, clandestine and explicitly not for public review. What is interesting about this work is that since its declassification citizens are able to gain insight into the world of clandestine operations and information. It also provides an opportunity to investigate further phenomenon that is not yet explained through the unique exercise of government datamining.

The government sources used throughout this assignment and the platforms that hosted them were surprisingly transparent and intuitive. There were no significant obstacles to information retrieval. Popularized search terms were familiar across multiple platform. These terms included but were not limited to, "Roswell," "UFO," and "Project Blue Book."

There was information and resource overlap between agencies and other partners. For example, science.gov yielded results that the Government Publications Office had as well. This exchange of information demonstrated that the formerly classified information is now widely available for open access

and that the government platforms used to search and retrieve information is functional and reliable.

In addition, to the navigability of these platforms it is noteworthy that this type of research into formerly classified information satisfies a research need now more than ever. This is due as a response to the growing amount of information that exceeded their twenty-five-year limitation as noted earlier by the Department of Justice. The opportunity for researchers to explore documents released shortly after the end of the Cold War is advantageous. Research into formerly classified information may be attractive to government observers (“watchdogs”) who wish to hold to further accountability agencies and entities charged with control and safety of the citizenry.

Whatever one’s intent with regard to government information retrieval, it is my hope that information retrieved is information that enhances both government transparency and serves democracy. While I concede that there is information that serves the national interest through its classification, I also view government disclosure of all nonsensitive information both a moral and public duty. This originates from the conception of information as a human right. This exercise in navigating government publications further informs my effort to better grow as a citizen-scholar and participant of a democracy.

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Reviews

When Women Didn't Count: The Chronic Mismeasurement and Marginalization of American Women in Federal Statistics. Robert Lopresti. Santa Barbara, CA: Praeger, 2017.

How many women were the head of their households in 1930? How many were single mothers in 1890? Librarians have a desire to answer every question that comes their way, but some questions have no accurate answers. This is especially true of government statistics on women, as Lopresti demonstrates this beautifully in *When Women Didn't Count*. His treatise on the subject is enlightening, delving into the inconsistencies in how women were considered (or ignored) across different government surveys. Most infuriating are the times when results were labeled as unreliable or flat-out wrong because the answers did not meet expectations. As a result, we can never truly know how many women bucked expectations, finding work in the unlikeliest of professions—for a woman, that is. This book is an important work that sheds light on the sexism that permeates our statistics, even as recently as the last decade. Lopresti is good at keeping a neutral, informational tone while also explaining the bias that makes some of these statistics questionable. The book is organized by various topics, such as demographics, women at home, and concepts of employment, with each chapter addressing a subtopic like women factory workers or contraception. This makes the book easy to navigate without disrupting the natural flow from one chapter to the next.—*Sonnet Ireland (sonnet@stpl.us), Reference Librarian, St. Tammany Parish Library, Mandeville, Louisiana*

The Battle Behind Bars: Navy and Marine POWs in the Vietnam War. Stuart I. Rochester. Washington, DC: Naval History & Heritage Command, Department of the Navy, 2010.

The Battle Behind Bars, by Stuart I. Rochester, offers an overview of the prisoner-of-war situation during the Vietnam War, 1961–75. Available in both print and e-book formats, this book immediately pulls the reader into the world of the POW. In a mere sixty-eight pages, the chronicle of captivity, the resistance efforts, types of punishment, and various coping techniques are addressed thoroughly. Stories are shared to educate and engage.

POW treatment differed depending on where a soldier was captured. Soldiers captured in the south seemed to fare worse than those who were “housed” in the north in Hanoi. Readers may remember hearing about the prison POWs named “Hanoi Hilton.” A sense of humor helped many of them cope, naming other compounds “Heartbreak Hotel,” “New Guy Village,” “Little Vegas,” and “Camp Unity.”

Throughout the course of the war, the Naval and Marine commands learned how to better train their troops in the event of capture. No amount of preparation can prepare someone for the level of torture and punishment meted out to the troops; however, ingenious methods of communicating with other POWs were used, including coughing, sneezing, tapping, etc. Unfortunately the resistance inevitably led to further punishment. Rochester describes the torture in enough detail to only partly realize the extent of terror experienced by the soldiers.

The road back home and life after capture are briefly discussed. There remains a question of the large amount of US personnel who went missing in action. As of the writing of this report, there were still 1,723 Americans still unaccounted for from US involvement in Vietnam.

This short report is packed full of engaging stories of human perseverance, struggle, and honor. Suggested readings are included to lead the reader to further information. Anyone from high school and up interested in learning more about the Vietnam War and specifically the very real POWs from the war would find this an interesting read!—*Rochelle Hunt Krueger (kruegerr@unk.edu), University of Nebraska at Kearney*

The Data Librarian's Handbook. Robin Rice and John Southall. London: Facet, 2016.

The Data Librarian's Handbook begins with an exploration of the need for data librarianship over time, and the evolution that the role has experienced. Highlights of that history include exploring the differences between initial approaches to data curation and preservation by nations, funding agencies, and proprietors of the data. Training and other forms of engagement with data are also highlighted. As the text continues, the very nature of how data is viewed, studied, and aggregated is reviewed and challenged to provide context for the variations in data requests or even data needs. The authors highlight the fact that many consultations reveal a need for data, which was unanticipated and considered inconsistent with their discipline. Questions of ownership, disposition of data, management of data,

the need to describe data so it may be shared and best understood, and types of data are also explored. Then the work of the data librarian is explored in earnest. From promotion of data literacy (basic statistical literacy to data visualization to data identification to data creation) to data promotion and access to research data management, the role of the data librarian is established and then analyzed. Other topics explored in this text include the ins and outs of data repositories; an exploration and discussion of sensitive data and how to ensure they are best monitored and curated; the impact that a discipline's history may have on their reception of innovation in the area of data curation; and finally, it explores open access and its impact on data policy.

This book is easy to understand and well written. The authors give context for all of the items they decided to include in

the book and it would be very easy to see how a practitioner may utilize this book to gain familiarity with these topics. At the end of each chapter, the reader is provided key points and reflective questions. As a point of personal preference, I wish either the key points or the reflective questions had been placed at the beginning of the chapter. Sandwiching the chapter between the takeaway and the reflective question would give the reader a guidepost for how to proceed through the chapter and allow the reader to also consider their own questions in addition to the ones provided.

The authors also recommend a list of resources throughout each chapter; I believe a list either at the end of the chapter or at the end of the book would also be helpful for those who have the physical book. This provides the reader the chance to review these links without

having to flip back through the chapter to locate them.

The authors attempt to incorporate sources from the United States, Australia, and Canada, but most sources are from the United Kingdom, where the authors are located. This practice may have been due to their location or to a significant portion of resources filtering through the United Kingdom.

The literature in this field is growing, and I believe this growth is timely as continuously more academic libraries are engaging in data librarianship and, as the authors were right to point out, it is more evident in the role of librarians. This text is a superb addition to the literature and raises questions we should consider whether or not we serve as data librarians.—*Kenya Flash (kenya.flash@yale.edu), Librarian for Political Science, Global Affairs, and Government Information, Yale University*