Spring Semester 2020:

Distance Learning Assignments: US

Each week, there will be a reading assignment from your textbook. For each assignment, you will need to read the assigned pages AND:

1. Write a 5+ sentence summary in your own words of the material covered in the reading.

2. Include 2 vocabulary definitions from the reading. The definitions should be in your own words.

3. You will need to email me at dalmasc@luhsd.net your summary and vocabulary. (both should be in the same email.) BE SURE TO INCLUDE IN YOUR EMAIL YOUR FULL NAME (First and last) AND Period AND THE TITLE OF THE READING ASSIGNMENT. (for example, US Reading Assigment Week One)

You can email throughout each week day (Monday through Friday) 8:15 a.m. - 3:00p.m. if you have any questions.
Email: dalmasc@luhsd.net

3. Sit-ins and Freedom Rides

The campaign to integrate public facilities in the South continued through the 1960s, when a growing student movement influenced the direction of the civil rights struggle. Student protesters challenged segregation in various ways, including sitting in "whites-only" public spaces and refusing to move, thereby causing businesses to lose customers, a tactic known as a sit-in. They also boycotted businesses that maintained segregation, and rode interstate buses that many southern whites tried to keep segregated.

Sitting Firm to Challenge Segregated Facilities On February 1, 1960, four African American students from North Carolina's Agricultural and Technical College sat down at a Woolworth's drugstore lunch counter in Greensboro. The waitress refused to serve them, claiming only white customers could eat at Woolworth's.

The four students stayed at the lunch counter until the store closed. As one of the four, Franklin McCain, explained, the group did not like being denied "dignity and respect." The next day, they returned with about 20 other people to sit at the counter all day, without service.

During the 1960s, these sit-ins drew nationwide attention to the civil rights movement. As news of the Greensboro sit-in spread, protesters organized sit-ins in towns and cities across the South.

The Greensboro protests continued for months. In April, the city's blacks organized a boycott of Woolworth's and another local store with a segregated lunch counter. Eventually the local businesses relented, and on July 25, 1960, the first African American ate at the Woolworth's lunch counter in Greensboro.

Black students mounted a large sit-in campaign in Nashville, Tennessee. Like Greensboro, Nashville's African American community boycotted segregated downtown businesses, to which local business owners and public officials also yielded. On May 10, 1960, Nashville became the first major city in the South to begin integrating its public facilities.

Protestors held sit-ins to integrate lunch counters across the South. The demonstrators remained nonviolent, even when local residents taunted them. Sit-ins were led by college students, who became influential members of the civil rights movement.

Students Organize to Make a Difference Sit-ins and boycotts began to transform the segregated South as well as the civil rights movement. College students led sit-ins, and many became activists in the movement.

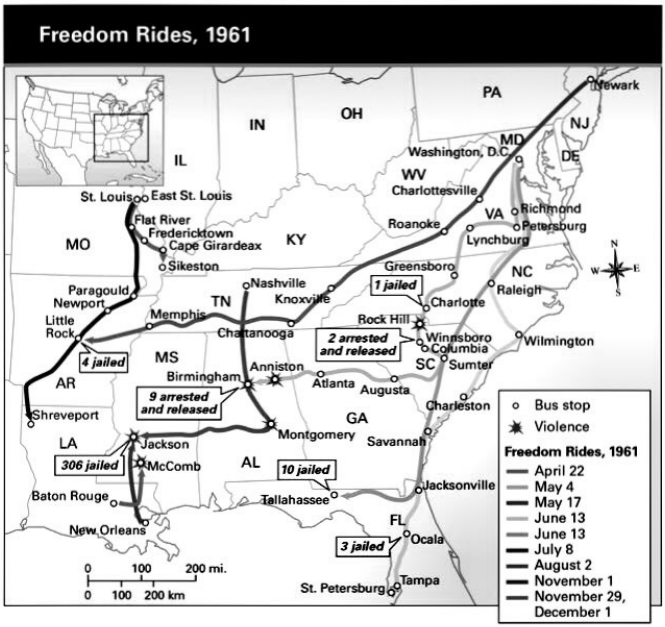
In April 1960, Ella Baker, a leader with the SCLC, organized a meeting of student civil rights activists in Raleigh, North Carolina. Although Baker was 55 years old and no longer a student, she believed it was important for students to organize and operate their own organization.

Under Baker's guidance, the students formed the **Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee** (SNCC), pronounced "snick." SNCC's Statement of Purpose, written in May 1960, affirmed the organization's commitment to justice, peace, and nonviolence:

> We affirm the philosophical or religious ideal of nonviolence as the foundation of our purpose . . . Through nonviolence, courage displaces fear; love transforms hate. Acceptance dissipates prejudice; hope ends despair. Peace dominates war; faith reconciles doubt. Mutual regard cancels enmity. Justice for all overthrows injustice.

SNCC trained students in **civil disobedience**, counseling them to deliberately break laws they considered unjust. SNCC leaders emphasized not to use violence even if the students were physically attacked. One SNCC training document explained, "You may choose to face physical assault without protecting yourself, hands at the sides, unclenched; or you may choose to protect yourself, making plain you do not intend to hit back."

Throughout the South, SNCC members planned and participated in **direct action**, or political acts, including protests of all types, designed to have immediate impact. SNCC members were critical to various nonviolent direct action campaigns over the next several years.



Freedom Riders Face Violence One direct action targeted the interstate bus system in the South. In 1960, the Supreme Court declared that segregation in interstate transport was illegal, so in the spring of 1961, civil rights group Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) organized **Freedom Rides** to test whether southern states were complying with the Court's ruling.

On May 4, 1961, seven blacks and six whites boarded two buses traveling south from Washington, D.C. When the first bus reached Anniston, Alabama, on May 14, a white mob attacked the Freedom Riders. The mob followed the bus as it left town, then hurled a firebomb through a window and beat passengers as they fled the bus. Passengers on the second bus were also beaten when they arrived in Alabama.

CORE abandoned the Freedom Rides as a result, but SNCC chose to continue them. Attorney General Robert Kennedy sent federal marshals to ensure the riders' safe passage to Jackson, Mississippi, but when the Freedom Riders arrived in Jackson, city officials arrested them. They suffered physical abuse while in jail, strengthening most riders' commitment to ending segregation.

In late 1962, the Interstate Commerce Commission issued clear rules mandating that interstate buses and bus terminals be integrated. CORE's leader, James Farmer, proclaimed victory for the Freedom Rides.

4. A Campaign in Birmingham

In the early 1960s, Birmingham, Alabama, was a steel-mill town with a long history of bigotry—Martin Luther King Jr. called it the most segregated city in the country. In 1963, the SCLC focused its efforts on Birmingham.

Taking Aim at the Nation's Most Segregated City Black Birmingham residents experienced segregation in nearly every aspect of public life. Virtually no public facility in Birmingham allowed blacks and whites to mix.

Birmingham also had a history of racist violence—between 1956 and 1963, there were 18 unsolved bombings in black neighborhoods. This violence not only targeted African Americans. In 1960, the *New York Times* reported attempts to explode dynamite at two Jewish synagogues.

The SCLC became mired in this violent climate in the spring of 1963. King and the SCLC united with local Birmingham activists, led by Reverend Fred L. Shuttlesworth, to strategize a series of nonviolent actions against segregation.

King Advocates Nonviolence in "Letter from a Birmingham Jail" Lunch counter sit-ins and street demonstrations launched the protests on April 3, 1963, and 30 marchers were soon arrested at Birmingham City Hall for not having a permit. As the Birmingham campaign's leader, King decided the nonviolent protests and arrests must continue. With little money to post bail, King realized that he would likely be arrested and jailed for some time.

On April 12, King and 50 others were arrested for demonstrating. While King was in jail, members of Birmingham's white clergy took out an ad in the local newspaper to criticize King's tactics: "We recognize the natural impatience of people who feel that their hopes are slow in being realized," the ad said. "But we are convinced that these demonstrations are unwise and untimely." The clergy urged African Americans to abide by the law and negotiate with whites to achieve integration.

Hundreds of people were arrested and jailed during mass demonstrations in Birmingham in 1963. This photograph of protesters at the Birmingham jail was taken through the bars of a paddy wagon. One of those arrested was Martin Luther King Jr., who wrote his famous "Letter from a Birmingham Jail" at this time. In the letter, King wrote, "Injustice anywhere is a threat to justice everywhere . . . Whatever affects one directly, affects all indirectly."

King disagreed, writing a response to the ad from jail. In this "Letter from a Birmingham Jail," King explained why African Americans were employing civil disobedience and other methods of direct action to protest segregation, writing, "The answer lies in the fact that there are two types of laws: just and unjust. One has not only a legal but a moral responsibility to obey just laws. Conversely, one has a moral responsibility to disobey unjust laws." Concerning the charge that segregation protesters were being "impatient," King wrote,

> We know through painful experience that freedom is never voluntarily given by the oppressor; it must be demanded by the oppressed. Frankly, I have yet to engage in a direct-action campaign that was "well-timed" in the view of those who have not suffered unduly from the disease of segregation. For years now I have heard the word "Wait!" It rings in the ear of every Negro with piercing familiarity. This "Wait!" has almost always meant "Never." We must come to see . . . that "justice too long delayed is justice denied."
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> —Martin Luther King Jr., "Letter from a Birmingham Jail," April 16, 1963

The Nation Watches in Horror By late April, Birmingham's black leaders realized their protests were dwindling. Few members of the black community were willing to execute direct action protests and risk going to jail. To recruit numbers, the SCLC turned to children. Although this decision was controversial, King argued that children who participated in demonstrations would develop "a sense of their own stake in freedom and justice."

On May 2, 1963, more than 1,000 African American youths marched from Birmingham's 16th Street Baptist Church into the city center. Public safety commissioner Bull Connor arrested most of them.

On May 3, more students gathered at the church to march, and Connor ordered the police to barricade them in. When some students attempted to leave, police assaulted them with dogs and high-pressure fire hoses.

On May 3, 1963, Birmingham police turned high-pressure fire hoses on children during a civil rights march. The force of such blasts can tear the bark from a tree and knock a grown man to the ground. The incident horrified many Americans and helped gain support for the civil rights movement.

News photographers captured scenes of peaceful protesters being knocked over by blasts of water or attacked by snarling dogs. These images in newspapers and on television shocked many Americans, many of whom never imagined that southerners would resort to such brutal methods to maintain segregation.

These protests and the attention they drew changed the course of the segregation struggle. Birmingham city officials relented after urging from local business leaders, and on May 10, civil rights leaders announced a historic accord. Their agreement with the city called for numerous changes, including desegregating public facilities within 90 days. King claimed the deal was "the most magnificent victory for justice we've seen in the Deep South."

This agreement was followed by a racist backlash. The Ku Klux Klan organized a rally, after which bombs exploded at a motel where black leaders were staying. In response, President Kennedy sent federal troops to a nearby military base, promising to deploy them if necessary to maintain peace.

Birmingham remained calm for several months, until another violent attack occurred. During Sunday services on September 15, a bomb exploded at the 16th Street Baptist Church, killing four African American girls. Reverend King spoke at the girls' funeral, calling them "the martyred heroines of a holy crusade for freedom and human dignity."

CORE organized a march in Washington, D.C., in honor of the four African American girls killed in the 16th Street Baptist Church bombing. The march drew increased attention to Birmingham's hostile atmosphere. The four girls—Denise McNair, Addie Mae Collins, Cynthia Wesley, and Carole Robertson—were named "martyred heroines" at their funeral.

5. Achieving Landmark Civil Rights Legislation

Despite the Birmingham campaign's success, racial tensions did not abate overnight, nor did the protests effect immediate equality for African Americans. The campaign did have an impact, however, by increasing nationwide support for the civil rights movement. More Americans began to identify with the movement's emphasis on rights, freedom, equality, and opportunity.

Following the spring protests in Birmingham, civil rights activists shifted their focus to Washington, D.C. There, they demonstrated for "jobs and freedom" and urged the passage of civil rights legislation.

On August 28, 1963, approximately 250,000 people marched in Washington, D.C. They protested for civil rights, employment, decent housing, and voting rights. At the time, the March on Washington was the largest political gathering in U.S. history.

Thousands March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom
The 1963 March on Washington was planned 20 years previous. A. Philip Randolph, head of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, had proposed the march in 1941 to protest unequal treatment of African Americans in war industries. He then called off the rally in deference to President Roosevelt's plea for unity in the war effort.

The summer of 1963 was an opportune time for the overdue march, which was organized by Randolph and Bayard Rustin along with the leaders of the country's major civil rights organizations. On August 28, more than 250,000 people marched in Washington, becoming the largest political gathering ever held in the United States. The 250,000 protesters included about 60,000 whites, as well as union members, clergy, students, entertainers, and celebrities like Rosa Parks and Jackie Robinson.

Marchers listened to African American performers, including opera great Marian Anderson, who sang "He's Got the Whole World in His Hands." They held hands and sang along to folksinger Joan Baez's "We Shall Overcome."

King Inspires the Nation with His Dream The most notable event from the March on Washington was Martin Luther King Jr.'s "I have a dream" speech, delivered from the Lincoln Memorial. In resounding tones, King spoke of his dream for a better America:

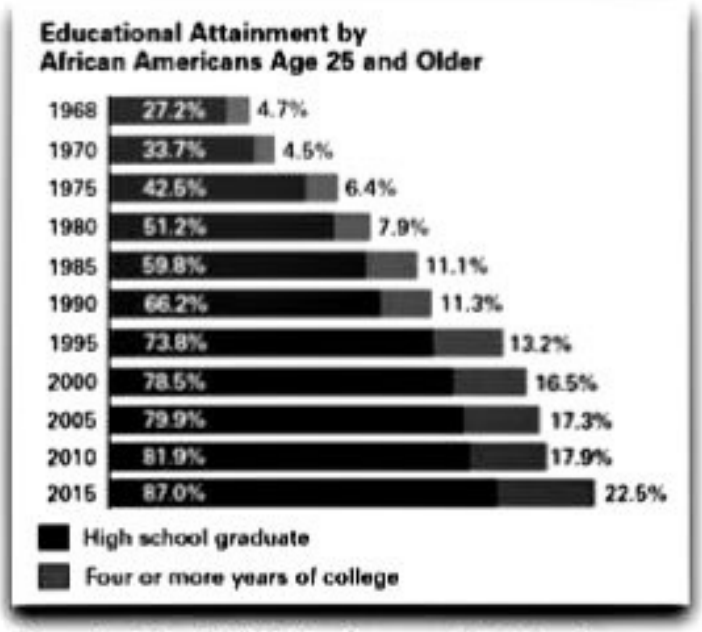
> I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: "We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all men are created equal . . ." When we allow freedom to ring, when we let it ring from every village and every hamlet, from every state and every city, we will be able to speed up that day when *all* God's children, black men and white men, Jews and Gentiles, Protestants and Catholics, will be able to join hands and sing in the words of the old Negro spiritual, "Free at last! Free at last! Thank God Almighty, we are free at last!"
>
> —Martin Luther King Jr., "I have a dream" speech, August 28, 1963

Martin Luther King Jr. declared in his "I have a dream" speech: "When the architects of our republic wrote the magnificent words of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence, they were signing a promissory note . . . that all men . . . would be guaranteed the unalienable rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

When the march occurred, Congress was debating a civil rights bill that was cautiously supported by President Kennedy. After Kennedy's assassination in November, President Lyndon B. Johnson advocated for the bill. Opposing senators conducted a filibuster, in which they spoke at great length to prevent legislative action, to stall the bill in the Senate. Their efforts ultimately failed, and the bill was signed into law on July 2, 1964 as the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This landmark law banned discrimination on the basis of race, sex, religion, or national origin—the most important civil rights law passed since Reconstruction.

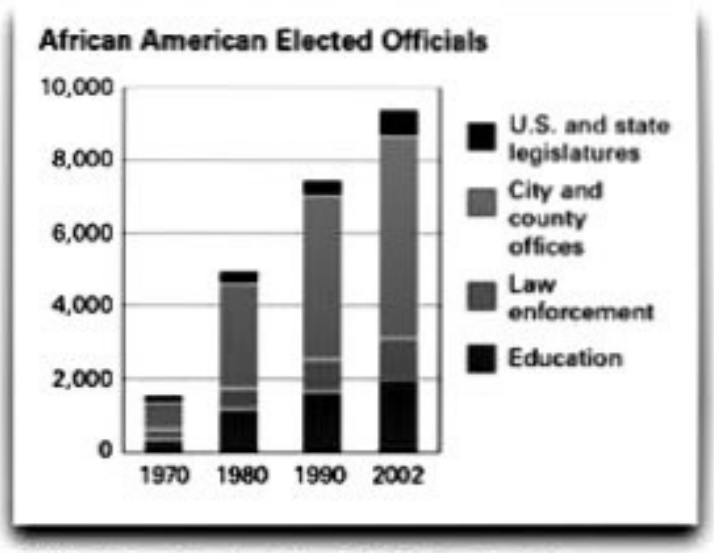
How Did the Civil Rights Act of 1964 Affect African Americans?

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 transformed race relations in the United States. It outlawed racial discrimination in voter registration, public accomodations, public facilities, public schools and colleges, labor unions, and employment. The effects of this landmark legislation were both widespread and long term.

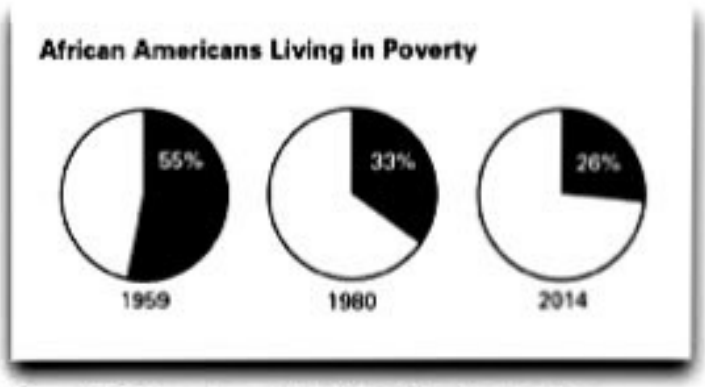


Education The Civil Rights Act gave the federal government the power to enforce school desegregation. Graduation rates for African Americans have risen ever since.

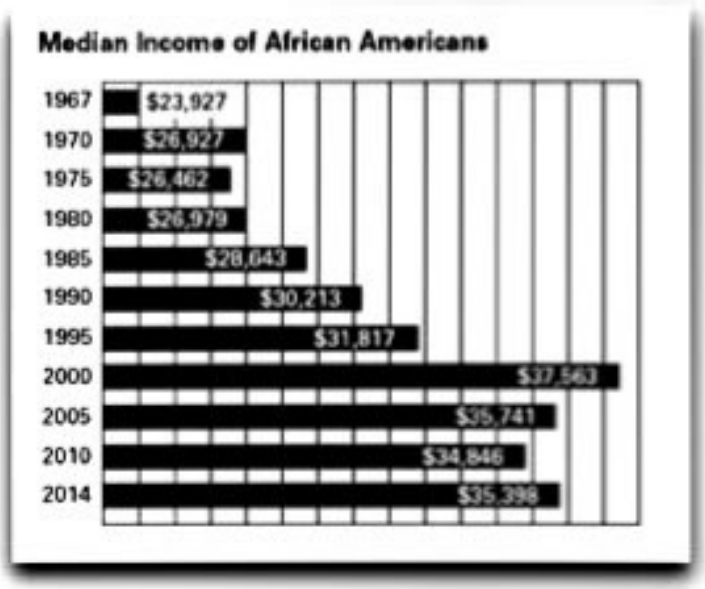
Employment The Civil Rights Act opened up white-collar jobs traditionally held by whites to African Americans and other minority groups.



Political Participation The Civil Rights Act's ban on racial discrimination in voter registration was strengthened by the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Since then, blacks have increased their political participation as both voters and officeholders.



Poverty By banning racial discrimination in labor unions and employment, the Civil Rights Act helped pull many black families out of poverty.



Income With more education and better job opportunities, African American incomes rose. Median income is the middle income in a series of incomes ranked from least to greatest.

Sources: Bureau of Labor Statistics. U.S. Census Bureau. William H. Frey, *The New Great Migration: Black Americans' Return to the South, 1965–2000*, Washington, D.C.: Brookings Inst., 2004. Matthew Sobek, "New Statistics on the U.S. Labor Force," Historical Methods (2001): 71–87, in *Historical Statistics of the United States, Millennial Edition On Line*, ed. Susan B. Carter et al., 2006: Cambridge University Press.

6. Regaining Voting Rights

In January 1964, the Twenty-fourth Amendment to the Constitution was ratified, declaring that no U.S. citizen could be denied the right to vote "by reason of failure to pay any poll tax or other tax." Because some southern states used poll taxes to prevent blacks from voting, the Twenty-fourth Amendment was a key victory in the struggle for expanded African American voting rights. However, additional efforts were necessary to ensure that black citizens were actually able to vote.

Voter Registration Rates in Selected Southern States, 1965

State	Percentage of Voting-Age Blacks Registered to Vote	Percentage of Voting-Age Whites Registered to Vote
Alabama	19.3%	69.2%
Georgia	27.4%	62.6%
Louisiana	31.6%	80.5%
Mississippi	6.7%	69.9%
North Carolina	46.8%	96.8%
South Carolina	37.3%	75.7%
Virginia	38.3%	61.1%

Source: Grofman, Handley, and Niemi, *Minority Representation and the Quest for Voting Equality*, New York: Cambridge Press, 1992, as reported at *U.S. Dept of Justice, Civil Rights Division, Voting Section,* "The Effect of the Voting Rights Act," www.usdoj.gov.

In the early 1960s, large numbers of African Americans were denied voting rights in the South. One employed method was limiting black voter registration. As shown in the table above, only 19.3 percent of voting-age blacks were registered to vote in Alabama, compared to 69.2 percent of voting-age whites, in 1965.

Registering African American Voters in a Freedom Summer In the spring of 1964, CORE and SNCC organized Freedom Summer, a campaign to register black voters in Mississippi. Mississippi was one of the most segregated states in the country at the time, and voting rights for blacks were severely restricted. Although African Americans comprised nearly 50 percent of the state's population, only a few blacks were registered to vote. This was largely due to restrictions imposed by state and local officials.

Most of the approximately 900 Freedom Summer volunteers were white college students from the North. They were trained in voter registration and were warned that they should expect violent opposition to their efforts to register black voters.

On June 21, three student activists disappeared in Neshoba County, Mississippi, after visiting a black church that had been burned. One of the activists, James Chaney, was black, while the other two, Andrew Goodman and Michael Schwerner, were white. Six weeks later, the FBI discovered their bodies—they had been murdered.

Other violent acts marred Freedom Summer, including numerous beatings, shootings, and bombings, and at least three other activists suffered brutal deaths. Most of these crimes went unpunished.

Marching for the Right to Vote Undeterred by the violence of Freedom Summer, activists continued their campaign to register black voters. Early the following year, the SCLC began to register black voters in Selma, Alabama. Only 320 of more than 15,000 eligible black voters were registered to vote in Dallas County, where Selma is located. Every day for weeks, civil rights protesters marched at the Dallas County Courthouse. By February, over 3,000 protesters had been arrested and charged with crimes such as "unlawful assembly." Following this, the SCLC organized a march from Selma to the Montgomery state capital, where the marchers planned to present the governor with a list of grievances.

The protesters began their walk on March 7, 1965. Decades later, civil rights activist John Lewis recalled,

> As we crossed the Pettus Bridge, we saw a line of lawmen. "We should kneel and pray," I said . . . but we didn't have time. "Troopers," barked an officer, "advance!" They came at us like a human wave, a blur of blue uniforms, billy clubs, bullwhips and tear gas; one had a piece of rubber hose wrapped in barbed wire.

Televised images of the day's violence further outraged many Americans. As a result, the civil rights movement continued to gain support around the country.

In August, Congress passed the **Voting Rights Act of 1965**, which outlawed literacy tests and other methods used to deny African Americans the right to vote, and required the federal government to supervise voter registration in areas where less than half of voting-age citizens were registered. Federal intervention would ensure that eligible voters were not deterred from having their voices heard.

After the Voting Rights Act was passed in 1965, African Americans lined up to vote for the first time throughout the South. The law outlawed literacy tests and other methods used to prevent black voter registration. The number of registered black voters grew dramatically in the late 1960s.

Efforts to secure voting rights were ultimately successful. Less than 7 percent of Mississippi's eligible black voters were registered to vote in 1964, but by 1968, that number had risen to 59 percent. In Alabama, voter registration numbers increased from about 20 percent to 57 percent during the same four-year period. Overall, the number of African American voters in the South swelled from 1 million to 3.1 million between 1964 and 1968. Thus, in the years following the Montgomery Bus Boycott, the civil rights movement made significant strides.