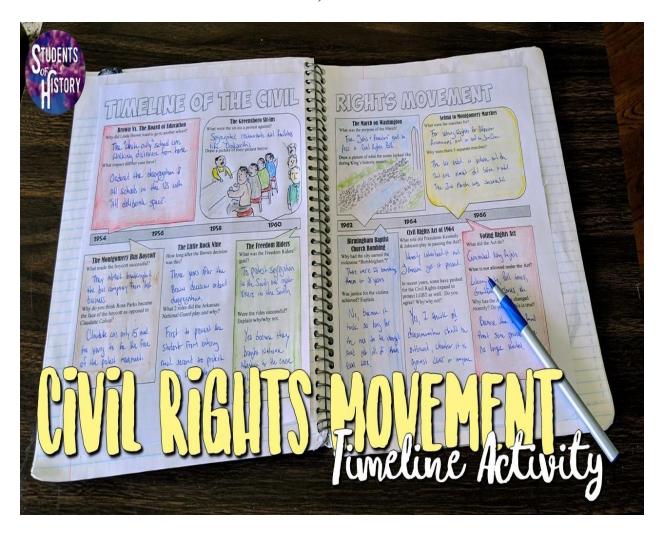
### ONLINE INSTRUCTION WEEK 5 US HISTORY CIVIL RIGHTS , PART ONE



Week of Monday June 1, 2020 thru Sunday June 7, 2020

<u>Directions</u>: Read and analyze all readings and visual documents AND answer the ten (10) questions on the answer sheet. The questions on the answer sheet are also after the reading and visual documents to help you find your answers faster. AGAIN, only record your answers on the ANSWER SHEET. THANK YOU.

Name/Class:

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Visual Document #1 ( map )

# Segregation in 1950



1. What is ONE conclusion about the United States you can make from analyzing this map?

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#### CIVIL RIGHTS MOVEMENT #1 BROWN VS. BOARD OF EDUCATION (1954).

In the early 1950s, Linda Brown was a young African American student in the Topeka, Kansas school district. Every day she and her sister, Terry Lynn, had to walk through the Rock Island Railroad Switchyard to get to the bus stop for the ride to the all-black Monroe School. Linda Brown tried to gain admission to the Sumner School, which was closer to her house, but her application was denied by the Board of Education of Topeka because of her race. The Sumner School was for white children only.

Under the laws of the time, many public facilities were segregated by race. The precedent-setting *Plessy* v. *Ferguson* case, which was decided by the U.S Supreme Court in 1896, allowed for such segregation. In that case, a black man, Homer Plessy, challenged a Louisiana law that required railroad companies to provide equal, but separate, accommodations for the white and African American races. He claimed that the Louisiana law violated the Fourteenth Amendment, which demands that states provide "equal protection of the laws." However, the U.S Supreme Court held that as long as segregated facilities were equal, segregation did not violate the Fourteenth Amendment. In doing so, the Court classified segregation as a matter of social equality, out of the control of the justice system concerned with maintaining legal equality.

At the time of the Brown case, a Kansas law permitted, but did not require, cities of more than 15,000 people to maintain separate school facilities for black and white students. On that basis, the Board of Education of Topeka elected to establish segregated elementary schools. Other public schools in the community were operated on a non-segregated basis.

The Browns felt that the decision of the school board violated the Constitution. They sued the Board of Education of Topeka, alleging that the segregated school system deprived Linda Brown of the equal protection of the laws required under the Fourteenth Amendment.

Thurgood Marshall, an attorney for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), argued the Brown's case. Marshall would later become a Supreme Court justice.

The three-judge federal district court found that segregation in public education had a detrimental (harmful) effect upon black children, but the court denied that there was any violation of Brown's rights because of the "separate but equal" doctrine established in the Supreme Court's 1896 *Plessy* decision. The court found that the schools were substantially equal with respect to buildings, transportation, curricula, and educational qualifications of teachers. The Browns appealed their case to the U.S Supreme Court, claiming that the segregated schools were not equal and could never be made equal. The U.S Supreme Court combined the case with several similar cases from South Carolina, Virginia, and Delaware. The ruling in the *Brown* v. *Board of Education* case came in 1954.

In a unanimous decision, the United States Supreme Court declared that the "separate but equal" doctrine was unconstitutional and could not be applied to public education. A year later, the Supreme Court ruled that local school boards should move to desegregate "with all deliberate speed."

The public's reaction to the Supreme Court ruling was mixed. African-Americans rejoiced. Many white Americans, even if they did not agree, accepted the decision and hope that desegregation would take place peacefully. President Eisenhower, who privately disagree with the Brown ruling, said only that "the Supreme Court has spoken and I am sworn to uphold the constitutional processes in this country, and I am trying. I will obey. Not everyone, however, was willing to obey.

The ruling in Brown versus Board of Education caused many Southern whites, especially in the deep South, to react with fear and angry resistance. In Georgia, Gov. Herman Talmadge made it clear that his state would "not tolerate the mixing of the races in the public schools or any other tax- supported institutions." The Ku Klux Klan also became more active, threatening those who advocated acceptance of the Brown decision. The congressional representatives of states in the deep South join together in March 1956 to protest the Supreme Court's order to desegregate public schools.

More than 90 members of Congress expressed their opposition to the court's ruling in what was known as the "Southern Manifesto". The Congressman asserted that the United States Supreme Court had overstepped its bounds and had "no legal basis for such action." The decision, they claimed, violated states rights and was an example of "judicial <u>usurpation</u> (taking power illegally)." Many believed that desegregation would lead to violence and chaos in several southern states. As a result, they refused to comply with the court's ruling: "we pledge ourselves to use all lawful means to bring about a reversal of this decision, which is contrary to the Constitution, and to prevent the use of force in its implementation."

- 2. What was the primary dispute or conflict that was the foundation of the Brown vs. Board of Education case?
- 3. How did the Brown decision by the U.S Supreme Court impact the landmark 1896 Plessy v. Ferguson U.S Supreme Court case?

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#### CIVIL RIGHTS MOVEMENT #2 THE MONTGOMERY BUS BOYCOTT (1955-1956)

In 1955, the nation's attention shifted from the courts to the streets of Montgomery, Alabama. The Montgomery bus boycott left the entire nation wondering how this epic protest would become resolved. This event was the symbolic beginning of the modern Civil Rights Movement. Rosa Parks, an Alabama seamstress, refused to give up her seat on a Montgomery bus to a white man. A volunteer secretary for the Montgomery branch of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) was returning from work at a department store on Dec. 1, 1955. The bus filled up, whites in the front and blacks in the back. The bus driver ordered four blacks in the front of the black section of the bus to get up and make room for whites. Three did, but Mrs. Parks did not. She was arrested under a city law that mandated segregated buses and was fined \$10 plus \$4 court costs.

At the time that she refused to give up her seat, only 31 African Americans in Montgomery were registered to vote. Her act of defiance, however, shook the foundations of segregation. She later explained her frustration with the bus segregation rules in Montgomery, Alabama:

"...Just having paid for a seat and riding for only a couple of blocks and then having to stand was too much. These other persons had got on the bus after I did. It meant that I didn't have a right to do anything but get on the bus, give them my fare, and then be pushed wherever they wanted me.... There had to be a stopping place, and this seemed to have been the place for me to stop being pushed around and to find out what human rights I had, if any..."

The local NAACP had been searching for years for a woman to defy the Montgomery segregation law. But the two women who had violated the law earlier in the year had been vulnerable to character attacks in court and in the white press. Rosa Parks didn't drink, smoke, or curse. She had a steady job and went to church each week. She was soft-spoken and had a peaceful demeanor. Her impeccable moral character made her the ideal person to contest the case in court.

With support from the local NAACP, a Montgomery bus boycott was organized to show support for Parks. The plan called for African-Americans to refuse to use the entire bus system until the bus company agreed to change it segregation policy. Over the next year, 50,000 African Americans living in Montgomery shared rides (car pulled), took taxis, or walked to work. Mrs. Parks and many others who supported and jointed the boycott were fired. There were bombings, beatings, and lawsuits. Despite losing money, the bus company refused to change its policies.

When the boycott started, community leaders arranged for 18 black taxis in the city to carry passengers for the same 10 cent fare as a bus. When the city passed an ordinance (city ruling/law) requiring a minimum 45 cent fare, 150 people volunteered their cars.

The boycott gained national attention with the charismatic leadership of a 26-year-old minister, the Rev. Martin Luther King, Jr. In November 1956, the United States Supreme Court confirmed a lower court ruling that bus segregation in Montgomery and throughout the United States was unconstitutional and threw out the Montgomery bus ordinance. After 381 days, the Montgomery bus boycott was over.

The Montgomery bus boycott encouraged a new generation of leaders in the African-American community, most notably Martin Luther King Jr. In addition, they gave minority groups hope that steps towards equality could be made through peaceful protest.

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The boycott has often been an effective form of protest throughout United States history. When Britain passed a Stamp Act in 1765, the colonists responded by organizing a boycott of certain British goods. The boycott proved to be effective when the British merchants, who had lost profits on their goods, pressured Parliament into repealing the act.

The actual term "boycott" did not come into use until the 1880s in Ireland. A land agent there, Charles Boycott, had refused to comply with the new land reform law designed to lower rents. As a result, his tenants and employees turned against him. He soon found himself isolated and poor.

In modern times, boycotts are often initiated to protest the actions of corporations. Years ago, a successful boycott was waged on the tuna industry. The nets used to catch tuna had killed many dolphins and raise environmental concerns. Now, almost all commercial tuna fishing is "dolphin-friendly." Other boycotts have centered around religious, political, and civil human rights issues.

Questions: 4. Why do you think boycotts are effective?

5. Is there an issue today that you would support a boycott implemented in an attempt to reverse the action taken by an offending company, person, or industry?

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## CIVIL RIGHTS MOVEMENT #3 THE FIGHT TO ENFORCE BROWN vs BOARD OF EDUCATION DECISION...THE FAMOUS LITTLE ROCK NINE CRISIS

The first major confrontation between states' rights and the Supreme Court's school integration decision occurred in Little Rock, Arkansas, in the summer of 1957. Eighteen African American students were chosen to integrate Little Rock's Central High School to comply with the Supreme Court's Brown v. Board of Education (1954) decision. By Labor Day, only nine were still willing to serve as foot soldiers in freedom's march.

Arkansas seemed an unlikely place for a confrontation over civil rights. Its largest newspapers were generally supportive of desegregation, and several Arkansas cities had already integrated their public schools. The public library and bus system were desegregated, earning Little Rock a reputation as a progressive town. Arkansas Governor Orval Faubus owed his re-election in 1956 to black voters.

Ironically, Faubus, responding to polls that showed 85 percent of the state's residents opposed school integration, tried to block desegregation by directing the Arkansas National Guard to keep the nine teenagers from enrolling in the all-white Central High. He said that "blood would run in the streets" if the Central High School was integrated.

For three weeks, the National Guard, under orders from the governor, prevented the nine students from entering the school; a blatant violation of the 1954 Brown decision three years earlier. President Eisenhower privately pressed Faubus to comply with the court order. The governor refused to make any concessions regarding allowing the "Little Rock Nine" admission into the high school. Outside the school, the scene was frantic and not for the faint of heart. Mobs of angry protesters gathered to prevent the entry of the black students. One of those students, 15-year-old Elizabeth Eckford, remembered that day:

"The Arkansas national guardsmen glared at me with a mean look and I was very frightened and didn't know what to do. I turned around and the crowd came toward me. They moved closer and closer. Somebody started yelling...'Lynch her, lynch her!" I tried to see a friendly face somewhere in the mob---someone who maybe would help. I looked into the face of an old woman and it seemed like a kind face, but when I looked again, she spat on me."

President Eisenhower could no longer avoid the issue of segregation. Faubus's actions were a direct challenge to the Constitution and to Eisenhower's authority as a President. When Faubus refused to comply, the president responded by federalizing the Arkansas National Guard and sending in 1,000 paratroopers from the Army's 101st Airborne Division to escort the students into the school.

In a speech to the nation on September 24, 1957, Eisenhower justified his actions when he stated, "
Our personal opinions about the decision have no bearing on the matter of enforcement; the
responsibility and authority of the Supreme Court to interpret the Constitution are very clear...Mob
rule cannot be allowed to override the decisions of our courts...In the present case the troops are
there, pursuant to law, solely for the purpose of preventing interference with the orders of the court.

An angry white mob hurled racial epithets. Inside the school, there were still separate restrooms and drinking fountains for black and white students. During the school year, the African American students were detested and physically harassed. They were shoved against lockers, tripped down stairways, and taunted by their classmates. Not all the African American students were able to turn the other cheek. One was expelled for dumping a bowl of soup on a classmate's head. The remaining students were greeted the next day with a sign that said, "One down, eight more to go."

Only one of the Little Rock nine graduated from Central High. In the fall of 1958, Governor Faubus shut the public high schools down to prevent further integration. The schools did not re-open for a year.

- 6. Evaluate the reasons why Governor Faubus refused to integrate Little Rock Central High School.
- 7. Why did President Eisenhower nationalize the Arkansas National Guard?
- 8. Analyze the conditions that the nine African Americans students experienced once inside the school?
- 9. Analyze President Eisenhower's statement "Our personal opinions about the decision have no bearing on the matter of enforcement". Do you believe Eisenhower supported the Brown vs. Board of Ed. decision ending segregation in public schools when you hear him uttered the above quote?

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Visual Document #2 --Political Cartoon



A Supreme Court Bomb!

10. What is the main idea of the above political cartoon?

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WEEK 5 U.S HISTORY STUDENT ANSWER SHEET Civil Rights, <b>Directions</b> : Please record your answers in complete sentences in the spaces that Please write neatly. Email me ONLY the answer sheet. Thank you again.	
1. What is ONE conclusion about the United States you can make from analyzing	ng this map?
2. What was the primary dispute or conflict that was the foundation of the Bro Education case?	wn vs. Board of
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