1954–1968

The Civil Rights Movement

**The Big Ideas**

**SECTION 1: The Movement Begins**

People react to periods of breathtaking social and cultural change in different ways. After World War II, supporters of civil rights began challenging segregation in the United States.

**SECTION 2: Challenging Segregation**

Social and economic crises lead to new roles for government. African American citizens and white supporters created organizations that directed protests, targeted specific inequalities, and attracted the attention of the mass media and the government.

**SECTION 3: New Issues**

People react to periods of breathtaking social and cultural change in different ways. In the mid-1960s, civil rights leaders began to understand that merely winning political rights for African Americans would not address the economic problems of African Americans.


1954
- Brown v. Board of Education ruling issued by Supreme Court

1955
- Rosa Parks refuses to give up bus seat; Montgomery bus boycott begins in Alabama

1957
- Eisenhower sends troops to a Little Rock, Arkansas, high school to ensure integration

1960
- Sit-in protests begin

1958
- Pasternak's Dr. Zhivago awarded Nobel Prize for Literature

1961
- France successfully tests nuclear weapons

1959
- Mary Leakey discovers 1.7 million-year-old hominid skull fragment in Tanzania

1961
- Kennedy 1961–1963

1963
- Kennedy assassination

1964
- Civil Rights Act passed in Congress

1965
- Voting Rights Act passed in Congress

1968
- Martin Luther King Jr. assassinated

1973
- Vietnam War ends

1955
- West Germany admitted to NATO

1960
- France successfully tests nuclear weapons

1957
- Pasternak's Dr. Zhivago awarded Nobel Prize for Literature
Americans march from Selma, Alabama, to Montgomery in support of the civil rights movement.

1963
- Over 200,000 civil rights supporters march on Washington, D.C.

1965
- Malcolm X assassinated
- Race riots erupt in Los Angeles neighborhood of Watts

1968
- Civil Rights Act of 1968 passed
- Martin Luther King, Jr., assassinated

1963
- Organization of African Unity formed
- Kenya becomes an independent nation

1965
- China’s Cultural Revolution begins

1967
- Arab-Israeli War brings many Palestinians under Israeli rule

Chapter Overview
Visit the American Vision: Modern Times Web site at tav.mt.glencoe.com and click on Chapter Overviews—Chapter 16 to preview chapter information.
Determining Importance

When you start reading a textbook, the amount of information in it can seem overwhelming. As a reader, you should learn to recognize what is important in each paragraph, section, and chapter. This allows you to focus your study on key elements of the text.

The chapter and section introductions alert you to the big ideas in the chapter. The headings in the sections can provide clues that point you in the right direction for locating important information. They help you form predictions about the content and identify more specific concepts related to the big ideas. Finally, as you read individual paragraphs, identify the topic sentences and separate these from the interesting, but less important, details. Also, the last sentence in a paragraph can be a summary or list an end result.

Read the following paragraph about the continuing bus boycott in Montgomery, Alabama.

Stirred by King’s powerful words, African Americans in Montgomery continued their boycott of the bus system for over a year. Instead of riding the bus, they organized car pools or walked to work. They refused to be intimidated, yet they remained peaceful and avoided violence. Meanwhile Rosa Parks’s legal challenge to bus segregation worked its way through the courts. Finally, in December 1956, the Supreme Court affirmed the decision of a special three-judge panel declaring Alabama’s laws requiring segregation on buses to be unconstitutional. (page 745)

The chapter introduction on page 736 and the headings in Section 1 help you focus on the main idea in the paragraph, the Montgomery bus boycott and one of its leaders, Martin Luther King, Jr. The highlighted sentences in the paragraph tell you the most important facts about the boycott.

Before you read Section 1 of this chapter, note the clues you gather from the chapter and section introductions, the headings, and the highlighted terms. Then, as you read, identify the topic sentences of each paragraph. After you have read the section, write a summary of the section based on the clues and the topic sentences.
Historical Interpretation  You will better understand historical events if you learn to show the connections, causal and otherwise, between particular historical events and larger social, economic, and political trends and developments.

Throughout history, major events have had a lasting effect on the social, economic, and political trends of a nation. Older members of your family probably remember the assassinations of John F. Kennedy and Martin Luther King, Jr. You probably remember the terrorist attacks on the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon in Washington, D.C., on September 11, 2001.

When historians study events in history, they consider not only the events themselves, but also the social, economic, and political outcomes of these events. Historians are interested in the connections between such events and the impact they have on society.

Read the following excerpts and assess the impact of the civil rights movement.

African Americans enjoyed increased political power. Before World War I, most African Americans lived in the South, where they were largely excluded from voting. During the Great Migration, many moved to Northern cities, where they were allowed to vote. Increasingly, Northern politicians sought their votes and listened to their concerns. (page 742)

The Brown decision marked a dramatic reversal of the ideas expressed in the *Plessy v. Ferguson* case. *Brown v. Board of Education* applied only to public schools, but the ruling threatened the entire system of segregation. (page 743)

In the wake of Dr. King’s death, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1968. The act contained a fair housing provision outlawing discrimination in housing sales and rentals and gave the Justice Department authority to bring suits against such discrimination. (page 763)

You learn in the first excerpt that African Americans were gaining political power and a political voice. The second excerpt describes how one court case began to shake up the social system of segregation in the South. In the final excerpt you learn about some economic gains African Americans made.

Create a chart with the headings “Society,” “Economy,” and “Politics.” As you read this chapter, write down information on the impact of the civil rights movement in each of the areas below the appropriate heading. This information will help you better understand the impact of the civil rights movement on the nation.
CHAPTER 16 The Civil Rights Movement

Connection
In the previous chapter, you learned how the domestic agendas of Presidents Kennedy and Johnson affected the United States. In this section, you will learn about the early years of the civil rights movement.

Main Idea
- African Americans won court victories, increased their voting power, and began using sit-ins to desegregate public places. (p. 741)
- The Brown v. Board of Education ruling ignited protest and encouraged African Americans to challenge other forms of segregation. (p. 742)

Preview of Events

1954
Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas, decision

1955
Rosa Parks refuses to give up bus seat in Montgomery, Alabama

1956
Group of 101 Southern members of Congress sign Southern Manifesto

1957
Southern Christian Leadership Conference formed

The Big Idea
People react to periods of breathtaking social and cultural change in different ways. Over the years, the NAACP had won several court victories against segregation. African Americans also began to gain political power. Realizing their growing political strength, more African Americans began to challenge segregation through court cases and protests. African American churches were instrumental in encouraging the civil rights movement, with ministers taking on leadership roles. While President Eisenhower favored gradual desegregation, he did not support the protests or court challenges, and he sent federal troops to Arkansas to uphold court rulings. The ensuing violence convinced Eisenhower and many members of Congress to pass the Civil Rights Act of 1957.

Guide to Reading

Reading Objectives
- Explain the origin of the Southern Christian Leadership Conference.
- Discuss the changing role of the federal government in civil rights enforcement.

Reading Strategy
Organizing As you read about the birth of the civil rights movement, complete a graphic organizer similar to the one below by filling in the causes of the civil rights movement.

Content Vocabulary
separate-but-equal, de facto segregation, sit-in

Academic Vocabulary
inherent, specific, register

People and Terms to Identify
NAACP, Thurgood Marshall, Linda Brown, Martin Luther King, Jr., Southern Christian Leadership Conference

The following are the main History–Social Science Standards covered in this section.

11.10.2 Examine and analyze the key events, policies, and court cases in the evolution of civil rights, including Dred Scott v. Sanford, Plessy v. Ferguson, Brown v. Board of Education, Regents of the University of California v. Bakke, and the California Proposition 209.

11.10.3 Describe the collaboration on legal strategy between African American and white civil rights lawyers to end racial segregation in higher education.

11.10.4 Examine the roles of civil rights advocates (e.g., A. Philip Randolph, Martin Luther King, Jr., Malcolm X, Thurgood Marshall, James Farmer, Rosa Parks), including the significance of Martin Luther King, Jr.’s “Letter from Birmingham Jail” and “I Have a Dream” speech.

11.10.5 Discuss the diffusion of the civil rights movement of African Americans from the churches of the rural South and the urban North, including the resistance to racial desegregation in Little Rock and Birmingham, and how the advances influenced the agendas, strategies, and effectiveness of the quests of American Indians, Asian Americans, and Hispanic Americans for civil rights and equal opportunities.

11.10.6 Analyze the passage and effects of civil rights and voting rights legislation (e.g., 1964 Civil Rights Act, Voting Rights Act of 1965) and the Twenty-Fourth Amendment, with an emphasis on equality of access to education and to the political process.
The Origins of the Movement

Main Idea African Americans won court victories, increased their voting power, and began using sit-ins to desegregate public places.

Reading Connection Are you registered to vote or do you plan to register when you are 18? Read on to learn how African Americans increased their voting power and worked to desegregate public places.

In 1896, the Supreme Court declared segregation constitutional in the *Plessy v. Ferguson* case when it established the “separate-but-equal” doctrine. Laws segregating African Americans were permitted as long as equal facilities were provided for them. It was not until 1955 that the first major challenge to this ruling occurred.

★ An American Story ★

On December 1, 1955, Rosa Parks left her job as a seamstress in Montgomery, Alabama, and boarded a bus to go home. In 1955 buses in Montgomery reserved seats in the front for whites and seats in the rear for African Americans. Seats in the middle were open to African Americans, but only if there were few whites on the bus.

Rosa Parks took a seat just behind the white section. Soon all of the seats on the bus were filled. When the bus driver noticed a white man standing at the front of the bus, he told Parks and three other African Americans in her row to get up and let the white man sit down. Nobody moved. The driver cautioned, “You better make it light on yourselves and let me have those seats.” The other three African Americans rose, but Rosa Parks did not. The driver then called the Montgomery police, who took Parks into custody.

News of the arrest soon reached E.D. Nixon, a former president of the local chapter of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). Nixon wanted to challenge bus segregation in court, and he told Parks, “With your permission we can break down segregation on the bus with your case.” Parks told Nixon, “If you think it will mean something to Montgomery and do some good, I’ll be happy to go along with it.”

—adapted from *Parting the Waters: America in the King Years*

When Rosa Parks agreed to challenge segregation in court, she did not know that her decision would launch the modern civil rights movement. Within days of her arrest, African Americans in Montgomery had organized a boycott of the bus system. Mass protests began across the nation. After decades of segregation and inequality, many African Americans had decided the time had come to demand equal rights. The struggle, however, would not be easy.

In some states, particularly in the South, “Jim Crow” laws segregated buses and trains, schools, restaurants, swimming pools, parks, and other public facilities. Segregation was not confined to states that had passed “Jim Crow” laws. In other states, each community could decide whether to pass segregation laws. Areas without laws requiring segregation often had de facto segregation—segregation by custom and tradition. Challenging both laws and tradition would not be easy.

Court Challenges Begin The civil rights movement had been building for a long time. Since 1909, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) had supported court cases intended to overturn segregation. Over the years, the NAACP achieved some victories. In 1935, for example, the Supreme Court ruled in *Norris v. Alabama* that Alabama’s exclusion of African Americans from juries violated their right to equal protection under the law. In 1946 the Court ruled in *Morgan v. Virginia* that segregation on interstate buses was unconstitutional. In 1950 it ruled in *Sweatt v. Painter* that state law schools had to admit qualified African American
applicants, even if parallel black law schools existed. (See pages 1006–1007 for more information on these cases.)

New Political Power In addition to a string of court victories, African Americans enjoyed increased political power. Before World War I, most African Americans lived in the South, where they were largely excluded from voting. During the Great Migration, many moved to Northern cities, where they were allowed to vote. Increasingly, Northern politicians sought their votes and listened to their concerns.

During the 1930s, many African Americans benefited from FDR’s New Deal programs. Thus they began supporting the Democratic Party, giving it new strength in the North. This wing of the party was now able to counter Southern Democrats, who often supported segregation.

The Push for Desegregation During World War II, African American leaders began to use their new political power to demand more rights. Their efforts helped end discrimination in factories that held government contracts and increased opportunities for African Americans in the military.

In Chicago in 1942, James Farmer and George Houser founded the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE). CORE began using sit-ins, a form of protest first used by union workers in the 1930s. In 1943 CORE attempted to desegregate restaurants that refused to serve African Americans. Using the sit-in strategy, members of CORE went to segregated restaurants. If they were denied service, they sat down and refused to leave. The sit-ins were intended to shame restaurant managers into integrating their restaurants. Using these protests, CORE successfully integrated many restaurants, theaters, and other public facilities in Chicago, Detroit, Denver, and Syracuse.

Reading Check Examine. How had the ruling in *Plessy v. Ferguson* contributed to segregation?

Separate but Unequal Linda Brown’s court case ended decades of official segregation in the South.

When World War II ended, many African American soldiers returned home optimistic that their country would appreciate their loyalty and sacrifice. In the 1950s, when change did not come as quickly as hoped, their determination to change prejudices led to protests—and to the emergence of the civil rights movement.

**Brown v. Board of Education** After World War II, the NAACP continued to challenge segregation with the help of Charles Houston, a law professor and mentor to many African American lawyers. From 1939 to 1961, the NAACP’s chief counsel and director of its Legal Defense and Education Fund was the brilliant African American attorney Thurgood Marshall. After World War II, Marshall turned his attention to public schools, seeking out cases that might result in overturning *Plessy v. Ferguson*. Marshall worked with local lawyers, both African American and white. He also relied on the advice of many experts, including law professors, lawyers, sociologists, and psychologists.

In 1954 the Supreme Court decided to combine several different cases and issue a general ruling on segregation in schools. One of the cases involved a young African American girl named Linda Brown, who was denied admission to her neighborhood school in Topeka, Kansas, because of her race. She was told to attend an all-black school across town. With the help of the NAACP, her parents then sued the Topeka school board.

On May 17, 1954, the Supreme Court ruled unanimously in the case of *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*, that segregation in public schools was unconstitutional and
violated the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. Chief Justice Earl Warren summed up the Court’s decision when he wrote: “In the field of public education, the doctrine of separate but equal has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal.”

The Southern Manifesto The Brown decision marked a dramatic reversal of the ideas expressed in the Plessy v. Ferguson case. Brown v. Board of Education applied only to public schools, but the ruling threatened the entire system of segregation. Although it convinced many African Americans that the time had come to challenge other forms of segregation, it also angered many white Southerners, who became even more determined to defend segregation.

Although some school districts in border states integrated their schools in compliance with the Court’s ruling, anger and opposition were far more common reactions. In Washington, D.C., Senator Harry F. Byrd of Virginia called on Southerners to adopt “massive resistance” against the ruling. Across the South, hundreds of thousands of white Americans joined citizens’ councils to pressure their local governments and school boards into defying the Supreme Court. Many states adopted pupil assignment laws that created requirements other than race that schools could use to prevent African Americans from attending white schools.

The Supreme Court inadvertently encouraged white resistance when it followed up its decision in Brown v. Board a year later. The Court ordered school districts to proceed “with all deliberate speed” to end school segregation. The wording was vague enough that many districts were able to keep their schools segregated for many more years.

Massive resistance also appeared in the halls of Congress. In 1956 a group of 101 Southern members of Congress signed the Southern Manifesto, which denounced the Supreme Court’s ruling as “a clear abuse of judicial power” and pledged to use “all lawful means” to reverse the decision. Although the Southern Manifesto had no legal standing, it encouraged white Southerners to defy the Supreme Court.
The Montgomery Bus Boycott  In the midst of the uproar over the Brown v. Board of Education case, Rosa Parks made her decision to challenge segregation of public transportation. Outraged by Parks’s arrest, Jo Ann Robinson, head of a local organization called the Women’s Political Council, called on African Americans to boycott Montgomery’s buses on the day Rosa Parks appeared in court.

The boycott was a dramatic success. That afternoon, several African American leaders formed the Montgomery Improvement Association to run the boycott and to negotiate with city leaders for an end to segregation. They elected a 26-year-old pastor named Martin Luther King, Jr., to lead them.

On the evening of December 5, 1955, a meeting was held at Dexter Avenue Baptist Church, where Dr. King was pastor. In the deep, resonant tones and powerful phrases that characterized his speaking style, King encouraged the people to continue their protest. “There comes a time, my friends,” he said, “when people get tired of being thrown into the abyss of humiliation, where they experience the bleakness of nagging despair.” He explained, however, that the protest had to be peaceful:

> Now let us say that we are not advocating violence. . . . The only weapon we have in our hands this evening is the weapon of protest. If we were incarcerated behind the iron curtains of a communistic nation—we couldn’t do this. If we were trapped in the dungeon of a totalitarian regime—we couldn’t do this. But the great glory of American democracy is the right to protest for right!

—quoted in Parting the Waters: America in the King Years

King had earned a Ph.D. in theology from Boston University. He believed that the only moral way to end segregation and racism was through nonviolent passive resistance. He told his followers, “We must use the weapon of love. We must realize that so many people are taught to hate us that they are not totally

**Picturing History**

**Car Pool Pick-Up Station** During the months of the Montgomery bus boycott, African Americans walked or volunteered their own cars as free taxis for other protesters. Why did African Americans choose to boycott the city bus system?
responsible for their hate.” African Americans, he urged, must say to racists and segregationists: “We will soon wear you down by our capacity to suffer, and in winning our freedom we will so appeal to your heart and conscience that we will win you in the process.”

King drew upon the philosophy and techniques of Indian leader Mohandas Gandhi, who had used nonviolent resistance effectively against British rule in India. Like Gandhi, King encouraged his followers to disobey unjust laws. Believing in people’s ability to transform themselves, King was certain that public opinion would eventually force the government to end segregation.

Stirred by King’s powerful words, African Americans in Montgomery continued their boycott of the bus system for over a year. Instead of riding the bus, they organized car pools or walked to work. They refused to be intimidated, yet they remained peaceful and avoided violence. Meanwhile Rosa Parks’s legal challenge to bus segregation worked its way through the courts. Finally, in December 1956, the Supreme Court affirmed the decision of a special three-judge panel declaring Alabama’s laws requiring segregation on buses to be unconstitutional.

**Reading Check** **Describing** What was the ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education*?

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**African American Churches**

**Main Idea** African American churches in the South provided leadership and meeting places for the civil rights movement.

**Reading Connection** Can you name any organizations that help with social issues? Read on to discover the political impact of African American churches and their ministers in the civil rights movement.

Martin Luther King, Jr., was not the only prominent minister involved in the bus boycott. Many of the other leaders were African American ministers. The boycott could not have succeeded without the support of the African American churches and ministers in the city. As the civil rights movement gained momentum, African American churches continued to play a critical role. They served as forums for many of the protests and planning meetings, and they also mobilized many of the volunteers for specific civil rights campaigns.

After the Montgomery bus boycott demonstrated that nonviolent protest could be successful, African American ministers led by King established the *Southern Christian Leadership Conference* (SCLC) in 1957. The SCLC set out to eliminate segregation from American society and to encourage African
Americans to register to vote. Dr. King served as the SCLC’s first president. Under his leadership, the organization challenged segregation at the voting booths and in public transportation, housing, and public accommodations.

**Reading Check** Summarizing What role did African American churches play in the civil rights movement?

**Eisenhower and Civil Rights**

**Main Idea** President Eisenhower sent the U.S. Army to enforce the authority of the federal government.

**Reading Connection** Do you believe the president has the responsibility to uphold the rulings of the Supreme Court? Read on to learn what President Eisenhower did when events in Little Rock, Arkansas, challenged the federal government.

President Eisenhower sympathized with the goals of the civil rights movement, and he personally disagreed with segregation. Following the precedent set by President Truman, he ordered navy shipyards and veterans’ hospitals to be desegregated.

At the same time, however, Eisenhower disagreed with those who wanted to roll back segregation through protests and court rulings. He believed that people had to allow segregation and racism to end gradually as values changed. With the nation in the midst of the Cold War, he worried that challenging white Southerners on segregation might divide the nation and lead to violence at a time when the country had to pull together. Publicly, he refused to endorse the Brown v. Board of Education decision. Privately, he remarked, “I don’t believe you can change the hearts of men with laws or decisions.”

Despite his belief that the Brown v. Board of Education decision was wrong, Eisenhower felt he had to uphold the authority of the federal government, including its court system. As a result, he became the first president since Reconstruction to send federal troops into the South to protect the constitutional rights of African Americans.

**Crisis in Little Rock** In September 1957, the school board in Little Rock, Arkansas, won a court order to admit nine African American students to Central High, a school with 2,000 white students. Little Rock was a racially moderate Southern city, as was most of the state of Arkansas. A number of Arkansas communities, as well as the state university, had already begun to desegregate their schools.

The governor of Arkansas, Orval Faubus, was believed to be a moderate on racial issues, unlike many other Southern politicians. Faubus was determined to win reelection, however, and so he began to campaign as a defender of white supremacy. He ordered troops from the Arkansas National Guard to prevent the nine African American students from entering the school. The next day, as National Guard troops surrounded the school, an angry white mob...
joined the troops to protest the integration plan and to intimidate the African American students trying to register.

Television coverage of this episode placed Little Rock at the center of national attention. Faubus had used the armed forces of a state to oppose the authority of the federal government—the first such challenge to the Constitution since the Civil War. Eisenhower knew that he could not allow Faubus to defy the federal government. After a conference between Eisenhower and Faubus proved fruitless, the district court ordered the governor to remove the troops. Instead of ending the crisis, however, Faubus simply left the school to the mob. After the African American students entered the school, angry whites beat at least two African American reporters and broke many of the school’s windows. The mob came so close to capturing the terrified African American students that the police had to take them to safety.

The mob violence finally pushed President Eisenhower’s patience to the breaking point. Federal authority had to be upheld. He immediately ordered the U.S. Army to send troops to Little Rock. By nightfall 1,000 soldiers of the elite 101st Airborne Division had arrived. By 5:00 A.M. the troops had encircled the school, bayonets ready. A few hours later, the nine African American students arrived in an army station wagon, and they walked into the high school. The law had been upheld, but the troops were forced to remain in Little Rock for the rest of the school year.

**New Civil Rights Legislation** The same year that the Little Rock crisis began, Congress passed the first civil rights law since Reconstruction. The Civil Rights Act of 1957 was intended to protect the right of African Americans to vote. Eisenhower believed firmly in the right to vote, and he viewed it as his responsibility to protect voting rights. He also knew that if he sent a civil rights bill to Congress, conservative Southern Democrats would try to block the legislation. In 1956 he did send the bill to Congress, hoping not only to split the Democratic Party but also to convince more African Americans to vote Republican.

As Eisenhower had expected, several Southern senators did try to stop the Civil Rights Act of 1957. Despite these difficulties, the Senate majority leader, Democrat Lyndon Johnson, put together a compromise that enabled the act to pass. Although its final form was much weaker than originally intended, the act still brought the power of the federal government into the civil rights debate. The act created a civil rights division within the Department of Justice and gave it the authority to seek court injunctions against anyone interfering with the right to vote. It also created the United States Commission on Civil Rights to investigate allegations of denial of voting rights. After the bill passed, the SCLC announced a campaign to register 2 million new African American voters.

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**Reading Check**

**Explaining** Why did President Eisenhower intervene in the civil rights controversy?
CHAPTER 16 The Civil Rights Movement

Connection
In the previous section, you learned about the beginnings of the civil rights movement. In this section, you will discover how African American students and white supporters joined the movement to protest civil inequalities.

Main Idea
- Students staged sit-ins at restaurants to end segregation. (p. 749)
- Students formed the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) to organize efforts for desegregation and voter registration throughout the South. (p. 750)
- Teams of African Americans and whites rode buses into the South to protest the continued, illegal segregation. (p. 750)
- Reluctant to offend Southern members of Congress and preoccupied with foreign affairs, President Kennedy responded slowly to the growing violence in the South. (p. 751)
- President Kennedy used the violent events in the South as a platform to announce his civil rights bill. (p. 753)
- President Johnson called for a new voting rights law after hostile crowds severely beat civil rights demonstrators. (p. 755)

Content Vocabulary
Freedom Riders, filibuster, cloture, poll tax

Academic Vocabulary
legality, attain, comprehensive

People and Terms to Identify
Jesse Jackson, Ella Baker, Civil Rights Act of 1964

Reading Objectives
• Evaluate the Civil Rights Act of 1964.
• Summarize the efforts to establish voting rights for African Americans.

Reading Strategy
Organizing As you read about challenges to segregation in the South, complete a cause-and-effect chart like the one below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sit-In Movement</td>
<td>Freedom Riders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>African American support of Kennedy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>African American voter registration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Big Idea
Social and economic crises lead to new roles for government. Students staged sit-ins and joined organizations as a way to peacefully protest segregation. These groups often faced violence from angry mobs. Many Americans were shocked by the violence they saw on television as peaceful protestors were attacked. President Kennedy at first was slow to respond to the violence, but he later took legal action and sent federal troops to enforce desegregation rulings. After violence in Birmingham, Alabama, continued to escalate, Kennedy began to push for a civil rights bill. After Kennedy’s assassination, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1964. African Americans, however, continued to face violence and struggled to vote.
The Sit-In Movement

Students staged sit-ins at restaurants to end segregation.

Reading Connection Would you risk your personal safety to participate in a sit-in? Read on to learn of the response of young people to the sit-in movement of the early 1960s.

A new mass movement for civil rights began in North Carolina with just four students. Disgusted with segregation and discrimination against African Americans, the four students decided to take action in a new way. Called a sit-in, this type of protest soon spread to more than 100 cities.

An American Story

The sit-in movement began in Greensboro, North Carolina. There, in the fall of 1959, four young African Americans—Joseph McNeil, Ezell Blair, Jr., David Richmond, and Franklin McCain—enrolled at North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College in Greensboro. The four freshmen became close friends and spent evenings talking about the civil rights movement. In January 1960, McNeil told his friends that he thought the time had come to take action, and he suggested a sit-in at the whites-only lunch counter in the nearby Woolworth’s department store.

“All of us were afraid,” Richmond later recalled, “but we went and did it.” On February 1, 1960, the four friends entered the Woolworth’s. They purchased school supplies and then sat at the lunch counter and ordered coffee. When they were refused service, Blair said, “I beg your pardon, but you just served us at [the checkout] counter. Why can’t we be served at the counter here?” The students stayed at the counter until it closed, then announced that they would sit at the counter every day until they were given the same service as white customers.

As they left the store, the four were excited. McNeil recalled, “I just felt I had powers within me, a superhuman strength that would come forward.” McCain was also energized, saying, “I probably felt better that day than I’ve ever felt in my life.”

—adapted from Civilities and Civil Rights

News of the daring sit-in at the Woolworth’s store spread quickly across Greensboro, North Carolina. The following day, 29 African American students arrived at Woolworth’s determined to sit at the counter until they were served. By the end of the week, over 300 students were taking part.

The sit-in movement brought large numbers of idealistic and energized college students into the civil rights struggle. Many African American students had become discouraged by the slow pace of desegregation. Students like Jesse Jackson, a student leader at North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College, wanted to see things change. The sit-in offered them a way to take matters into their own hands in a peaceful but powerful way.

At first, the leaders of the NAACP and the SCLC were nervous about the sit-in movement. They feared that students did not have the discipline to remain nonviolent if they were provoked enough. For the most part, the students proved them wrong. Those conducting sit-ins were heckled by bystanders, punched, kicked, beaten with clubs, and burned with cigarettes, hot coffee, and acid—but most did not fight back. They remained peaceful, and their heroic behavior, contrasted with the violence and anger they faced, grabbed the nation’s attention.

Reading Check Examining What were the effects of the sit-in movement?

Picturing History

Sit-Ins Fight Segregation African American students challenged Southern segregation laws by demanding equal service at lunch counters. How did the NAACP initially feel about the sit-in movement?
SNCC

Main Idea Students formed the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) to organize efforts for desegregation and voter registration throughout the South.

Reading Connection What organizations for young people exist in your school or community? Read on to learn about a unique group of young Americans.

As the sit-ins spread, student leaders in different states realized that they needed to coordinate their efforts. The person who brought them together was Ella Baker, the 55-year-old executive director of the SCLC. In April 1960, Baker invited student leaders to attend a convention at Shaw University in Raleigh, North Carolina. At the convention, Baker urged students to create their own organization instead of joining the NAACP or the SCLC. Students, she said, had “the right to direct their own affairs and even make their own mistakes.”

The students agreed with Baker and established the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC). Among SNCC’s early leaders were Marion Barry, who later served as mayor of Washington, D.C., and John Lewis, who later became a member of Congress. African American college students from all across the South made up the majority of SNCC’s members, although many whites also joined.

Between 1960 and 1965, SNCC played a key role in desegregating public facilities in dozens of Southern communities. SNCC also began sending volunteers into rural areas of the Deep South to register African Americans to vote. The idea for what came to be called the Voter Education Project began with Robert Moses, an SNCC volunteer from New York. Moses pointed out that the civil rights movement tended to focus on urban areas. He urged SNCC to fill in the gap by helping rural African Americans. Moses himself went to rural Mississippi, where African Americans who tried to register to vote frequently met with violence.

Despite the danger, many SNCC volunteers headed to Mississippi and other parts of the Deep South. Several had their lives threatened, and others were beaten. In 1964 local officials in Mississippi brutally murdered three SNCC workers.

One SNCC organizer, a former sharecropper named Fannie Lou Hamer, had been evicted from her farm after registering to vote. She was then arrested in Mississippi for urging other African Americans to register, and she was severely beaten by the police while in jail. She then helped organize the Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party, and she challenged the legality of the segregated Democratic Party at the 1964 Democratic National Convention.

Reading Check Explaining What role did Ella Baker play in forming SNCC?

The Freedom Riders

Main Idea Teams of African Americans and whites rode buses into the South to protest the continued, illegal segregation.

Reading Connection Would you become active for something you believe is right? Read on to learn how attempts to integrate bus travel in the South were received.

Despite rulings that outlawed segregation in interstate bus service, bus travel remained segregated in much of the South. In 1961 CORE leader James Farmer asked teams of African Americans and whites to travel into the South to draw attention to the South’s refusal to integrate bus terminals. The teams became known as the Freedom Riders.

In early May 1961, the first Freedom Riders boarded several southbound interstate buses. When the buses carrying them arrived in Anniston, Birmingham, and Montgomery, Alabama, angry white mobs attacked them. The mobs slit the bus tires and
threw rocks at the windows. In Anniston, someone threw a firebomb into one bus, although fortunately no one was killed.

In Birmingham the riders emerged from a bus to face a gang of young men armed with baseball bats, chains, and lead pipes. They beat the riders viciously. One witness later reported, “You couldn’t see their faces through the blood.” The head of the police in Birmingham, Theophilus Eugene (“Bull”) Connor, explained that there had been no police at the bus station because it was Mother’s Day, and he had given many of his officers the day off. FBI evidence later showed that Connor had contacted the local Ku Klux Klan and told them he wanted the Freedom Riders beaten until “it looked like a bulldog got a hold of them.”

The violence in Alabama made national news, shocking many Americans. The attack on the Freedom Riders came less than four months after President John F. Kennedy took office. The new president felt compelled to do something to get the violence under control.

**Reading Check** Summarizing What was the goal of the Freedom Riders?

**John F. Kennedy and Civil Rights**

**Main Idea** Reluctant to offend Southern members of Congress and preoccupied with foreign affairs, President Kennedy responded slowly to the growing violence in the South.

**Reading Connection** Have you ever witnessed a nonviolent protest, either in person or on television? Read on to discover what happened to nonviolent protesters in Alabama.

While campaigning for the presidency in 1960, John F. Kennedy promised to actively support the civil rights movement if elected. His brother, Robert F. Kennedy, had used his influence to get Dr. King released from jail after a demonstration in Georgia.

African Americans responded by voting overwhelmingly for Kennedy. Their votes helped him narrowly win several key states, including Illinois, which Kennedy won by less than 9,000 votes. Once in office, however, Kennedy at first seemed as cautious as Eisenhower on civil rights, which disappointed many African Americans. Kennedy knew that he needed the support of many Southern senators to get other programs he wanted through Congress, and that any attempt to push through new civil rights legislation would anger them.

Kennedy did, however, name approximately 40 African Americans to high-level positions in the federal government. He also appointed Thurgood Marshall to a judgeship on the Second Circuit Appeals Court in New York—one level below the Supreme Court and the highest judicial position an African American had attained to that point. Kennedy also created the Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity (CEEO) to stop the federal bureaucracy from discriminating against African Americans when hiring and promoting people.

**The Justice Department Takes Action** Although President Kennedy was unwilling to challenge Southern Democrats in Congress, he allowed the Justice Department, run by his brother Robert, to actively support the civil rights movement. Robert Kennedy tried to help African Americans register to vote by having the civil rights division of the Justice Department file lawsuits throughout the South.

When violence erupted against the Freedom Riders, the Kennedys came to their aid as well, although not at first. At the time the Freedom Riders took action, President Kennedy was preparing for a meeting with Nikita Khrushchev, the leader of the Soviet Union. Kennedy did not want violence in the South to disrupt the meeting by giving the impression that his country was weak and divided.
After the Freedom Riders were attacked in Montgomery, the Kennedys publicly urged them to stop the rides and give everybody a “cooling off” period. James Farmer replied that African Americans “have been cooling off now for 350 years. If we cool off anymore, we’ll be in a deep freeze.” Instead he announced that the Freedom Riders planned to head into Mississippi on their next trip.

To stop the violence, President Kennedy made a deal with Senator James Eastland of Mississippi, a strong supporter of segregation. If Eastland would use his influence in Mississippi to prevent violence, Kennedy would not object if the Mississippi police arrested the Freedom Riders. Eastland kept the deal. No violence occurred when the buses arrived in Jackson, Mississippi, but the riders were arrested.

The cost of bailing the Freedom Riders out of jail used up most of CORE’s funds, which meant that the rides would have to end unless more money could be found. When Thurgood Marshall learned of the situation, he offered James Farmer the use of the NAACP’s Legal Defense Fund’s huge bail bond account to keep the rides going.

When President Kennedy returned from his meeting with Khrushchev and found that the Freedom Riders were still active, he changed his position and ordered the Interstate Commerce Commission to tighten its regulations against segregated bus terminals. In the meantime, Robert Kennedy ordered the Justice Department to take legal action against Southern cities that were maintaining segregated bus terminals. The continuing pressure of CORE and the actions of the ICC and the Justice Department finally produced results. By late 1962, segregation in interstate travel had come to an end.

James Meredith As the Freedom Riders were trying to desegregate bus terminals, efforts continued to integrate Southern schools. On the very day John F. Kennedy was inaugurated, an African American air force veteran named James Meredith applied for a transfer to the University of Mississippi. Up to that point, the university had avoided complying with the Supreme Court ruling ending segregated education.

In September 1962, Meredith tried to register at the university’s admissions office, only to find Ross Barnett, the governor of Mississippi, blocking his path. Although Meredith had a court order directing the university to register him, Governor Barnett stated emphatically, “Never! We will never surrender to the evil and illegal forces of tyranny.”

Frustrated, President Kennedy dispatched 500 federal marshals to escort Meredith to the campus. Shortly after Meredith and the marshals arrived, an angry white mob attacked the campus, and a full-scale riot erupted. The mob hurled rocks, bottles, bricks, and acid at the marshals. Some people fired shotguns at them. The marshals responded with tear gas, but they were under orders not to fire.

The fighting continued all night. By morning, 160 marshals had been wounded. Reluctantly Kennedy ordered the army to send several thousand troops to the campus. For the rest of the year, Meredith attended classes at the University of Mississippi under federal guard. He graduated the following August.

Violence in Birmingham The events in Mississippi frustrated Martin Luther King, Jr., and other civil rights leaders. Although they were pleased that Kennedy had intervened to protect Meredith’s rights, they were disappointed that the president had not seized the moment to push for a new civil rights law. When the Cuban missile crisis began the following month, civil rights issues dropped out of the news, and for the next several months, foreign policy became the main priority at the White House.

Reflecting on the problem, Dr. King came to a difficult decision. It seemed to him that only when violence and disorder got out of hand would the federal government intervene. “We’ve got to have a crisis to bargain with,” one of his advisers observed. King agreed. In the spring of 1963, he decided to launch demonstrations in Birmingham, Alabama, knowing they would probably provoke a violent response. He believed it was the only way to get President Kennedy to actively support civil rights.

The situation in Birmingham was volatile. Public Safety Commissioner Bull Connor, who had arranged for the attack on the Freedom Riders, was now running for mayor. Eight days after the protests began, King was arrested and held for a time in solitary confinement. While in prison, King began writing on scraps of paper that had been smuggled into his cell. The “Letter From a Birmingham Jail” that he produced is one of the most eloquent defenses of nonviolent protest ever written.

In his letter, King explained that although the protesters were breaking the law, they were following a higher moral law based on divine justice. To the charge that the protests created racial tensions, King argued that the protests “merely bring to the surface the hidden tension that is already alive.” Injustice, he insisted, had to be exposed “to the light of human conscience and the air of national opinion before it can be cured.”
After King was released, the protests began to grow again. Bull Connor responded with force, ordering the police to use clubs, police dogs, and high-pressure fire hoses on the demonstrators, including women and children. Millions of people across the nation watched the graphic violence on television. Outraged by the brutality and worried that the government was losing control, Kennedy ordered his aides to prepare a new civil rights bill.

Reading Check Evaluating How did President Kennedy help the civil rights movement?

The Civil Rights Act of 1964

Main Idea President Kennedy used the violent events in the South as a platform to announce his civil rights bill.

Reading Connection What provisions to protect the civil rights of African Americans were added to the Constitution after the Civil War? Read on to learn about new legal steps taken during the 1960s.

Determined to introduce a civil rights bill, Kennedy now waited for a dramatic opportunity to address the nation on the issue. Shortly after the violence in Birmingham had shocked the nation, Alabama’s governor, George Wallace, gave the president his chance. Wallace was committed to segregation. At his inauguration, he had stated, “I draw a line in the dust . . . and I say, Segregation now! Segregation tomorrow! Segregation forever!” On June 11, 1963, Wallace personally stood in front of the University of Alabama’s admissions office to block the enrollment of two African Americans. He stayed until federal marshals ordered him to stand aside.

President Kennedy seized the moment to announce his civil rights bill. That evening, he went on television to speak to the American people about a “moral issue . . . as old as the scriptures and as clear as the American Constitution”:

"The heart of the question is whether . . . we are going to treat our fellow Americans as we want to be treated. If an American, because his skin is dark, cannot eat lunch in a restaurant open to the public, if he cannot send his children to the best public school available, if he cannot vote for the public officials who will represent him . . . then who among us would be content to have the color of his skin changed and stand in his place?"

One hundred years of delay have passed since President Lincoln freed the slaves, yet their heirs, their grandsons, are not fully free. . . . And this nation, for all its hopes and all its boasts, will not be fully free until all its citizens are free. . . . Now the time has come for this nation to fulfill its promise.

—from Kennedy’s White House Address, June 11, 1963

The March on Washington Dr. King realized that Kennedy would have a very difficult time pushing his civil rights bill through Congress. Therefore, he searched for a way to lobby Congress and to build more public support for the civil rights movement. When A. Philip Randolph suggested a march on Washington, King agreed.

On August 28, 1963, more than 200,000 demonstrators of all races flocked to the nation’s capital. The audience heard speeches and sang hymns and songs as they gathered peacefully near the Lincoln Memorial. Dr. King then delivered a powerful speech outlining his dream of freedom and equality for all Americans:

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Forcing Change Birmingham police used high-pressure hoses to force civil rights protesters to stop their marches. Why did King’s followers offer no resistance?
opponents used tactics such as dragging out their committee investigations and using procedural rules to delay votes.

The Civil Rights Bill Becomes Law Although the civil rights bill was likely to pass the House of Representatives, where a majority of Republicans and Northern Democrats supported the measure, it faced a much more difficult time in the Senate. There, a small group of determined senators would try to block the bill indefinitely. Because of procedural rules, it would be possible for senators to delay a vote.

In the U.S. Senate, senators are allowed to speak for as long as they like when a bill is being debated. The Senate cannot vote on a bill until all senators have finished speaking. A filibuster occurs when a small group of senators take turns speaking and refuse to stop the debate and allow a bill to come to a vote. Today a filibuster can be stopped if at least 60 senators vote for cloture, a motion which cuts off debate and forces a vote. In the 1960s, however, 67 senators had to vote for cloture to stop a filibuster.

A Dream Deferred The 1963 March on Washington was the emotional high point of the civil rights movement. Its nonviolent atmosphere and Dr. King’s eloquent speech made it one of the most momentous American events of the twentieth century. What significant legislation resulted from the March on Washington?

"I have a dream" —Martin Luther King, Jr.

King’s speech and the peacefulness and dignity of the March on Washington had built strong momentum for the civil rights bill. Despite the growing support, however, opponents in Congress continued to do what they could to slow the bill down. These
This meant that a minority of senators opposed to civil rights could easily prevent the majority from enacting new civil rights laws.

Worried the bill would never pass, many African Americans became even more disheartened. Then President Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas, Texas, on November 22, 1963, and his vice president, Lyndon Johnson, became president. Johnson was from Texas and had been the leader of the Senate Democrats before becoming vice president. Although he had helped push the Civil Rights Acts of 1957 and 1960 through the Senate, he had done so by weakening their provisions and by compromising with other Southern senators. Many were skeptical that Johnson would support the civil rights bill.

To the surprise of the civil rights movement, Johnson committed himself wholeheartedly to getting Kennedy’s program, including the civil rights bill, through Congress. Unlike Kennedy, Johnson was very familiar with how Congress operated, having served there for many years. He knew how to build public support, how to put pressure on members of Congress, and how to use the rules and procedures to get what he wanted.

In February 1964, President Johnson’s leadership began to produce results. The civil rights bill passed the House of Representatives by a majority of 290 to 130. The debate then moved to the Senate. In June, after 87 days of filibuster, the Senate finally voted to end debate by a margin of 71 to 29—four votes over the two-thirds needed for cloture. On July 2, 1964, President Johnson signed the Civil Rights Act of 1964 into law.

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 was the most comprehensive civil rights law Congress had ever enacted. It gave the federal government broad power to prevent racial discrimination in a number of areas. The law made segregation illegal in most places of public accommodation, and it gave citizens of all races and nationalities equal access to such facilities as restaurants, parks, libraries, and theaters. The law gave the attorney general more power to bring lawsuits to force school desegregation, and it required private employers to end discrimination in the workplace. It also established the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) as a permanent agency in the federal government. This commission monitors the ban on job discrimination by race, religion, gender, and national origin.

**Reading Check**

**Examining** How did Dr. King lobby Congress to expand the right to participate in the democratic process?
made up a majority of Selma’s population, they comprised only 3 percent of registered voters. To prevent African Americans from registering to vote, Sheriff Jim Clark had deputized and armed dozens of white citizens. His posse terrorized African Americans and frequently attacked demonstrators with clubs and electric cattle prods.

Just weeks after receiving the Nobel Peace Prize in Oslo, Norway, for his work in the civil rights movement, Dr. King stated, “We are not asking, we are demanding the ballot.” King’s demonstrations in Selma led to approximately 2,000 African Americans, including schoolchildren, being arrested by Sheriff Clark. Clark’s men attacked and beat many of the demonstrators.

To keep pressure on the president and Congress, Dr. King joined with SNCC activists and organized a “march for freedom” from Selma to the state capitol in Montgomery. On Sunday, March 7, 1965, the march began with the SCLC’s Hosea Williams and SNCC’s John Lewis leading 500 protesters.

As the protesters approached the Edmund Pettus Bridge, which led out of Selma, Sheriff Clark ordered them to disperse. While the marchers knelt in prayer, more than 200 state troopers and deputized citizens rushed the demonstrators. Many were beaten in full view of television cameras. This brutal attack, known later as “Bloody Sunday,” left 70 African Americans hospitalized and many more injured.

The nation was stunned as it viewed the shocking footage. Watching the events from the White House, President Johnson became furious and decided to take action. Eight days later, he appeared before a nationally televised joint session of the legislature to propose a new voting rights law.
Connection
In the previous section, you learned how African Americans worked to gain civil rights and voting rights. In this section, you will discover why civil rights leaders turned their attention to economic problems facing African Americans.

Main Idea
• The civil rights struggle turned violent in the nation’s cities in 1965. (p. 758)
• Martin Luther King, Jr., began to focus more on economic inequalities in 1965. (p. 759)
• Impatient with the slower gains of the nonviolent movement, young African Americans called for black power. (p. 760)

Content Vocabulary
racism, black power

Academic Vocabulary
channel, status, psychological

People and Terms to Identify
Chicago Movement, Richard Daley, Stokely Carmichael, Malcolm X, Black Panthers

Reading Objectives
• Discuss the direction and progress of the civil rights movement after 1968.

Reading Strategy
Organizing As you read about the changing focus of the civil rights movement, complete a chart similar to the one below. Fill in five major violent events and their results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Watts riots break out in Los Angeles; Malcolm X assassinated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chicago Movement fails</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerner Commission studies problems of inner cities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., assassinated</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The Big Idea
People react to periods of breathtaking social and cultural change in different ways. Violence over the civil rights struggle continued to escalate. More activists, concerned that increasing political rights would not address all the problems African Americans faced, began to focus on improving economic conditions. Increasing numbers of young African Americans became frustrated with nonviolent protests and the slow progress. These people began to call for black power and stronger actions to gain equality. Following the assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr., Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1968.
Problems Facing Urban African Americans

Main Idea The civil rights struggle turned violent in the nation’s cities in 1965.

Reading Connection When did the Great Migration of African Americans to northern cities occur? Read on to learn more about the racism that they continued to face in the 1960s.

Despite the passage of several civil rights laws in the 1950s and 1960s, racism—prejudice or discrimination toward someone because of his or her race—was still common in American society. In 1965, tensions over this discrimination erupted in violence.

An American Story

Thursday, July 12, 1965, was hot and humid in Chicago. That evening Dessie Mae Williams, a 23-year-old African American woman, stood on the corner near the firehouse at 4000 West Wilcox Street. A firetruck sped out of the firehouse, and the driver lost control. The truck smashed into a stop sign near Williams, and the sign struck and killed her.

African Americans had already picketed this firehouse because it was not integrated. Hearing of Williams’s death, 200 neighborhood young people streamed into the street, surrounding the firehouse. For two nights, rioting and disorder reigned. Angry youths threw bricks and bottles at the firehouse and nearby windows. Shouting gangs pelted police with rocks and accosted whites and beat them. Approximately 75 people were injured.

African American detectives, clergy, and National Guard members eventually restored order. Mayor Richard Daley then summoned both white and black leaders to discuss the area’s problems. An 18-year-old man who had been in the riot admitted that he had lost his head. “We’re sorry about the bricks and bottles,” he said, “but when you get pushed, you shove back. Man, you don’t like to stand on a corner and be told to get off it when you got nowhere else to go.”

—adapted from Anyplace But Here

Changing the law could not change people’s attitudes immediately, nor could it help those African Americans trapped in poverty in the nation’s big cities. In 1965, nearly 70 percent of African Americans lived in large cities. Many had moved from the South to the big cities of the North and West during the Great Migration of the 1920s and 1940s. There, they often found the same prejudice and discrimination that had plagued them in the South. Many whites refused to live with African Americans in the same neighborhood. When African Americans moved into a neighborhood, whites often moved out. Real estate agents and landlords in white neighborhoods refused to rent or sell to African Americans, who often found it difficult to arrange for mortgages at local banks.

Even if African Americans had been allowed to move into white neighborhoods, poverty trapped many of them in inner cities while whites moved to the suburbs. Many African Americans found themselves channeled into low-paying jobs. They served as custodians and maids, porters and dock workers, with little chance of advancement. Those who did better typically found employment as blue-collar workers in factories, but very few advanced beyond that. In 1965 only 15 percent of African Americans held professional, managerial, or clerical jobs, compared to 44 percent of whites. Almost half of all African American families lived in poverty, and the median income of an African American family was only 55 percent of that of the average white family. African American unemployment was typically twice that of whites.

Poor neighborhoods in the nation’s major cities were overcrowded and dirty, leading to higher rates of illness and infant mortality. At the same time, the crime rate increased in the 1960s, particularly in low-income neighborhoods. Incidents of juvenile delinquency rose, as did the rate of young people dropping out of school. Complicating matters even more was a rise in the number of single-parent
households. All poor neighborhoods suffered from these problems, but because more African Americans lived in poverty, their communities were disproportionately affected.

Many African Americans living in urban poverty knew the civil rights movement had made enormous gains, but when they looked at their own circumstances, nothing seemed to be changing. The movement had raised their hopes, but their everyday problems were economic and social, and therefore harder to address. As a result, their anger and frustration began to rise—until it finally erupted.

**The Watts Riot** Just five days after President Johnson signed the Voting Rights Act, a race riot broke out in Watts, an African American neighborhood in Los Angeles. Allegations of police brutality had served as the catalyst of this uprising, which lasted for six days and required over 14,000 members of the National Guard and 1,500 law officers to restore order. Rioters burned and looted entire neighborhoods and destroyed about $45 million in property. They killed 34 people, and about 900 suffered injuries.

More rioting was yet to come. Race riots broke out in dozens of American cities between 1965 and 1968. It seemed that they could explode at any place and at any time. The worst riot took place in Detroit in 1967. Burning, looting, and skirmishes with police and National Guard members resulted in 43 deaths and over 1,000 wounded. Eventually the U.S. Army sent in tanks and soldiers armed with machine guns to get control of the situation. Nearly 4,000 fires destroyed 1,300 buildings, and the damage in property loss was estimated at $250 million. The governor of Michigan, who viewed the smoldering city from a helicopter, remarked that Detroit looked like “a city that had been bombed.”

**The Kerner Commission** In 1967 President Johnson appointed the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, headed by Governor Otto Kerner of Illinois, to study the causes of the urban riots and to make recommendations to prevent them from happening again in the future. The Kerner Commission, as it became known, conducted a detailed study of the problem. The commission blamed white society and white racism for the majority of the problems in the inner city. “Our nation is moving toward two societies, one black, one white—separate and unequal,” it concluded.

The commission recommended the creation of 2 million new jobs in inner cities, the construction of 6 million new units of public housing, and a renewed federal commitment to fight de facto segregation. President Johnson’s war on poverty, which addressed some of the same concerns for inner-city jobs and housing, was already underway. Saddled with massive spending for the Vietnam War, however, President Johnson never endorsed the recommendations of the commission.

**The Shift to Economic Rights**

**Main Idea** Martin Luther King, Jr., began to focus more on economic inequalities in 1965.

**Reading Connection** What do you think causes mobs to form and to act violently? Read on to learn about the Chicago mobs that Dr. King faced.

By the mid-1960s, a number of African American leaders were becoming increasingly critical of Martin Luther King’s nonviolent strategy. They felt it had
failed to improve the economic position of African Americans. What good was the right to dine at restaurants or stay at hotels if most African Americans could not afford these services anyway? Dr. King became sensitive to this criticism, and in 1965 he began to focus on economic issues.

In 1965 Albert Raby, president of a council of community organizations that worked to improve conditions for Chicago’s poor, invited Dr. King to visit the city. Dr. King and his staff had never conducted a civil rights campaign in the North. By focusing on the problems that African Americans faced in Chicago, Dr. King believed he could call greater attention to poverty and other racial problems that lay beneath the urban race riots.

To call attention to the deplorable housing conditions that many African American families faced, Dr. King and his wife Coretta moved into a slum apartment in an African American neighborhood in Chicago. Dr. King and the SCLC hoped to work with local leaders to improve the economic status of African Americans in Chicago’s poor neighborhoods.

The Chicago Movement, however, made little headway. When Dr. King led a march through the all-white suburb of Marquette Park to demonstrate the need for open housing, he was met by angry white mobs similar to those in Birmingham and Selma. Mayor Richard Daley ordered the Chicago police to protect the marchers, but he wanted to avoid any repeat of the violence. He met with Dr. King and proposed a new program to clean up the slums. Associations of realtors and bankers also agreed to promote open housing. In theory, mortgages and rental property would be available to everyone, regardless of race. In practice, very little changed.

**Reading Check** Describing How did Dr. King and SCLC leaders hope to address economic concerns?

**Black Power**

**Main Idea** Impatient with the slower gains of the nonviolent movement, young African Americans called for black power.

**Reading Connection** How did Dr. King work to avoid violence? Read on to find out how some African Americans broke with Dr. King’s approach.

Dr. King’s failure in Chicago seemed to show that nonviolent protests could do little to change economic problems. After 1965 many African Americans, especially young people living in cities, began to turn away from King. The ongoing race riots in Los Angeles, Detroit, and other cities in the United States added to their frustration. Some leaders called for more aggressive forms of protest. Their new strategies ranged from armed self-defense to the suggestion that the government set aside a number of states where African Americans could live free from the presence of whites.

As African Americans became more assertive, they placed less emphasis on cooperation with sympathetic whites. Some African American organizations, including CORE and SNCC, voted to expel all whites from leadership positions within their organizations, believing that African Americans alone should determine the course and direction of their struggle.

Many young African Americans called for **black power**, a term that had many different meanings. A few interpreted black power to mean that physical self-defense and even violence were acceptable in defense of one’s freedom—a clear rejection of Dr. King’s philosophy. To most, including Stokely Carmichael, the leader of SNCC in 1966, the term meant that African
Americans should control the social, political, and economic direction of their struggle:

“This is the significance of black power as a slogan. For once, black people are going to use the words they want to use—not just the words whites want to hear.... The need for psychological equality is the reason why SNCC today believes that blacks must organize in the black community. Only black people can... create in the community an aroused and continuing black consciousness. . . . Black people must do things for themselves; they must get... money they will control and spend themselves; they must conduct tutorial programs themselves so that black children can identify with black people.”

—from the New York Review of Books, September 1966

Black power also stressed pride in the African American cultural group. It emphasized racial distinctiveness rather than cultural assimilation—the process by which minority groups adapt to the dominant culture in a society. African Americans showed pride in their racial heritage by adopting new Afro hairstyles and African-style clothing. Many also took on African names. In universities, students demanded that African and African American Studies courses be adopted as part of the standard school curriculum. Dr. King and some other leaders criticized black power as a philosophy of hopelessness and despair. The idea was very popular, however, in the poor urban neighborhoods where many African Americans resided.

**Malcolm X and the Nation of Islam** By the early 1960s, a man named Malcolm X had become a symbol of the black power movement that was sweeping the nation. Born Malcolm Little in Omaha, Nebraska, he experienced a difficult childhood and adolescence. He drifted into a life of crime, and in 1946, he was sentenced to six years in prison for burglary.

Prison transformed Malcolm. He began to educate himself, and he played an active role in the prison debate society. Eventually he joined the Nation of Islam, commonly known as the Black Muslims, who were led by Elijah Muhammad. Despite their name, the Black Muslims do not hold the same beliefs as mainstream Muslims. The Nation of Islam preached black nationalism. Like Marcus Garvey in the 1920s, Black Muslims believed that African Americans should separate themselves from whites and form their own self-governing communities.

Shortly after joining the Nation of Islam, Malcolm Little changed his name to Malcolm X. The “X” stood as a symbol for the family name of his African ancestors who had been enslaved. Malcolm argued that his true family name had been stolen from him by slavery, and he did not intend to use the name white society had given him.

The Black Muslims viewed themselves as their own nation and attempted to make themselves as economically self-sufficient as possible. They ran their own businesses, organized their own schools, established their own weekly newspaper (*Muhammad Speaks*), and encouraged their members to respect each other and to strengthen their families. Although the Black Muslims did not advocate violence, they did advocate self-defense. Malcolm X was a powerful and charismatic speaker, and his criticisms of white society and the mainstream civil rights movement gained national attention for the Nation of Islam.

By 1964 Malcolm X had broken with the Black Muslims. Discouraged by scandals involving the Nation of Islam’s leader, he went to the Muslim holy city of Makkah (also called Mecca) in Saudi Arabia. After seeing Muslims from many different races worshipping together, he concluded that an integrated society was possible. In a revealing letter describing his pilgrimage to Makkah, he stated that many whites that he met during the pilgrimage displayed a...
spirit of brotherhood that gave him a new, positive insight into race relations.

After Malcolm X broke with the Nation of Islam, he continued to criticize the organization and its leader, Elijah Muhammad. Because of this, three organization members shot and killed him in February 1965 while he was giving a speech in New York. Although Malcolm X left the Nation of Islam before his death, his speeches and ideas from those years with the Black Muslims are those for which he is most remembered. In Malcolm’s view, African Americans may have been victims in the past, but they did not have to allow racism to victimize them in the present. His ideas have influenced African Americans to take pride in their own culture and to believe in their ability to make their way in the world.

**The Black Panthers**  Malcolm X’s ideas influenced a new generation of militant African American leaders who also preached black power, black nationalism, and economic self-sufficiency. In 1966 in Oakland, California, Huey Newton, Bobby Seale, and Eldridge Cleaver organized the Black Panther Party for Self-Defense, or the Black Panthers, as they were known. They considered themselves the heirs of Malcolm X, and they recruited most of their members from poor urban communities across the nation.

The Black Panthers believed that a revolution was necessary in the United States, and they urged African Americans to arm themselves and confront white society in order to force whites to grant them equal rights. Black Panther leaders adopted a “Ten-Point Program,” which called for black empowerment, an end to racial oppression, and control of major institutions and services in the African American community, such as schools, law enforcement, housing, and medical facilities. Eldridge Cleaver, who served as the minister of culture, articulated many of the organization’s objectives in his 1967 best-selling book, *Soul on Ice.*

**Describing**  What caused a division between Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., and the black power movement?

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**The Assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr.**

**Main Idea**  After Dr. King was assassinated in Memphis, Tennessee, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1968.

**Reading Connection**  Do you know someone who remembers the assassination of Dr. King? Read on to discover the events surrounding King’s early death.

By the late 1960s, the civil rights movement had fragmented into dozens of competing organizations with philosophies for reaching equality. At the same time, the emergence of black power and the call by some African Americans for violent action angered many white civil rights supporters. This made further legislation to help blacks economically less likely.

In this atmosphere, Dr. King went to Memphis, Tennessee, to support a strike of African American sanitation workers in March 1968. At the time, the SCLC had been planning a national “Poor People’s Campaign” to promote economic advancement for all impoverished Americans. The purpose of this campaign, the most ambitious one that Dr. King would ever lead, was to lobby the federal government to commit billions of dollars to end poverty and unemployment in the United States. People of all
races and nationalities were to converge on the nation’s capital, as they had in 1963 during the March on Washington, where they would camp out until both Congress and President Johnson agreed to pass the requested legislation to fund the proposal.

On the evening of April 4, 1968, as he stood on his hotel balcony in Memphis, Dr. King was assassinated by a sniper. Ironically, he had told a gathering at a local African American church just the previous night, “I’ve been to the mountaintop... I’ve looked over and I’ve seen the Promised Land. I may not get there with you, but I want you to know tonight that we as a people will get to the Promised Land.”

Dr. King’s assassination touched off both national mourning and riots in more than 100 cities, including Washington, D.C. The Reverend Ralph Abernathy, who had served as a trusted assistant to Dr. King for many years, led the Poor People’s Campaign in King’s absence. The demonstration, however, did not achieve any of the major objectives that either King or the SCLC had hoped it would.

In the wake of Dr. King’s death, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1968. The act contained a fair housing provision outlawing discrimination in housing sales and rentals and gave the Justice Department authority to bring suits against such discrimination.

Dr. King’s death marked the end of an era in American history. Although the civil rights movement continued, it lacked the unity of purpose and vision that Dr. King had given it. Under his leadership, and with the help of tens of thousands of dedicated African Americans, many of whom were students, the civil rights movement transformed American society. Although many problems remain to be resolved, the achievements of the civil rights movement in the 1950s and 1960s dramatically improved life for African Americans, creating new opportunities where none had existed before.

**Reading Check**

**Summarizing** What were the goals of the Poor People’s Campaign?

### Critical Thinking

6. **Identifying Cause and Effect** What were the effects of the assassination of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.?

7. **Categorizing** Using a graphic organizer like the one below, list the main views of the three leaders listed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader</th>
<th>Views</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malcolm X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eldridge Cleaver</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Analyzing Visuals

8. **Analyzing Political Cartoons** The cartoon on page 759 suggests that the violence of the mid-1960s was as bad as the violence of the Vietnam War going on at the same time. What images does the cartoonist use to compare violence at home with the violence of the war?

### Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** Take on the role of a reporter in the late 1960s. Imagine you have interviewed a follower of Dr. King and a Black Panther member. Write out a transcript of each interview.
Since the Civil War, African Americans had fought for civil rights. They supported court cases that challenged segregation and formed organizations to better accomplish their goals. Little did they know that one woman’s challenge of segregation in Montgomery, Alabama, would begin an organized civil rights movement.

**SOURCE 1:**

On December 1, 1955, Rosa Parks had just completed a long day of work as a seamstress in a department store in downtown Montgomery. In her autobiography, Rosa Parks: My Story, she described what happened when she got on a city bus to go home.

I knew they [the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People] needed a plaintiff who was beyond reproach. . . . But that is not why I refused to give up my bus seat to a white man. . . . I did not intend to get arrested. If I had been paying attention, I wouldn’t even have gotten on that bus. . . .

When I got off from work that evening. . . . I didn’t look to see who was driving. . . . It was the same driver who had put me off the bus back in 1943, twelve years earlier. . . . And he was still mean-looking. . . . Most of the time if I saw him on a bus, I wouldn’t get on it.

I saw a vacant seat in the middle of the bus and took it. . . . The next stop was the Empire Theater, and some whites got on. They filled up the white seats, and one man was left standing. The driver . . . looked back at us. He said, “Let me have those front seats.” . . . Didn’t anybody move. We just sat there, the four of us. . . .

The man in the window seat next to me stood up . . . and then I looked across the aisle and saw that the two women were also standing. . . .

I thought back to the time when I used to sit up all night and didn’t sleep, and my grandfather would have his gun right by the fireplace, or if he had his one-horse wagon going anywhere, he always had his gun in the back of the wagon. People always say that I didn’t give up my seat because I was tired, but his isn’t true. I was not tired physically. . . . No, the only tired I was, was tired of giving in. . . . I chose to remain.

**SOURCE 2:**

In response to Parks’s arrest, the Women’s Political Council (WPC) called for a boycott of Montgomery city buses. Jo Ann Gibson Robinson, a professor of English at Alabama State College, chaired this organization of black women.

In Montgomery in 1955, no one was brazen\(^1\) enough to announce publicly that black people might boycott city buses for the specific purpose of integrating those buses. Just to say that minorities wanted “better seating arrangements” was bad enough. That was the term the two sides, white and black, always used later in discussing the boycott. The word “integration” never came up. Certainly all blacks knew not to use that word while riding the bus. To admit that black Americans were

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\(^1\)brazen: bold
seeking to integrate would have been too much; there probably would have been much bloodshed and arrests of those who dared to disclose such an idea! That is why, during the boycott negotiations to come, the Men of Montgomery and other organizations always said that blacks would sit from the back toward front, and whites would sit from the front of the bus toward the back, until all seats were taken.

The WPC, however, knew all the time that black Americans were working for integration, pure and simple. No front toward back, or vice versa! We knew we were human beings; that neither whites nor blacks were responsible for their color; that someday those buses, of necessity, had to be integrated; and that after integration neither would be worse off. . . . We were, then, bent on integration. There were those afraid to admit it. But, we knew that deep down in the secret minds of all—teachers, students, and community—black Americans wanted integration. That way we would achieve equality. The only way.

SOURCE 3:

On December 5, 1955, male African American leaders formed the Montgomery Improvement Association. They elected Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., to head the group. King addressed a mass meeting later that day.

We are here this evening to say to those who have mistreated us so long that we are tired—tired of being segregated and humiliated, tired of being kicked around by the brutal feet of oppression. We have no alternative but protest. For many years, we have shown amazing patience. We have sometimes given our white brothers the feeling that we liked the way we were being treated. But we come here tonight to be saved from that patience that makes us patient with anything less than freedom and justice. . . .

One of the greatest glories of democracy is the right to protest for right. . . . These organizations [the Ku Klux Klan and the White Citizens Councils] are protesting for the perpetuation of injustice in the community, we are protesting for the birth of justice in the community. Their methods lead to violence and lawlessness. But in our protest there will be no cross burnings. No white person will be taken from his home by a hooded Negro mob and brutally murdered. . . . We will be guided by the highest principles of law and order. . . .

Source 1: Why did Parks refuse to give up her seat to a white man?

Source 2: According to Robinson, why did people in Montgomery not use the word integration?

Source 3: How does King compare the efforts planned for his organization to those of organizations that opposed African Americans?

Comparing and Contrasting Sources

What is the common strand that connects the ideas of Parks, King, and Robinson?

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2*perpetuation: permanence
Reviewing Content Vocabulary
On a sheet of paper, use each of these terms in a sentence.

1. separate-but-equal
2. de facto segregation
3. sit-in
4. Freedom Riders
5. filibuster
6. cloture
7. poll tax
8. racism
9. black power

Reviewing Academic Vocabulary
On a sheet of paper, use each of these terms in a sentence that reflects the term’s meaning in the chapter.

10. inherent
11. specific
12. register
13. legality
14. attain
15. comprehensive
16. channel
17. status
18. psychological

Reviewing the Main Ideas
Section 1
19. What event led to the bus boycott in Montgomery, Alabama?

20. Why was the decision in Brown v. Board of Education a significant step toward ending segregation?

Section 2
21. Why was SNCC formed, and what was its role in the civil rights movement?

Section 3
22. What were two changes in the focus of the civil rights movement in the mid-1960s?

Critical Thinking

23. Determining Importance After the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was passed, what steps did Dr. King take to protect African American voting rights? What were the results of his actions?


25. Evaluating Why did the civil rights movement make fewer gains after 1968?

Chapter Summary

Major Events in the Civil Rights Movement

1954
- Brown v. Board of Education attacks school segregation.
- Separate-but-equal doctrine in education is ruled unconstitutional.
- Rosa Parks inspires Montgomery bus boycott.

1957
- SCLC is formed to fight segregation and encourage African Americans to vote.
- Eisenhower sends army troops to Little Rock, Arkansas.

1961
- Freedom Rides begin.
- Sit-ins begin and spread to over 100 cities.
- SNCC is formed and leads fight against segregated public facilities.

1963
- Birmingham demonstrations and the March on Washington help build support for the civil rights movement.

1964
- Voting Rights Act ensures African Americans of the right to vote.
- Civil Rights Act of 1964 abolishes poll tax.
- Twenty-fourth Amendment abolishes poll tax.
- Civil Rights Act of 1964 outlaws discrimination based on race, gender, religion, or national origin, and gives equal access to public facilities.

1965
- Watts riot sparks several years of urban racial violence.
- Splinter groups within the civil rights movement advocate more aggressive means of gaining racial equality.

1968
- Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. assassinated.
- Civil Rights Act of 1968 outlaws discrimination in the sale and rental of housing.
CHAPTER 16 The Civil Rights Movement

Self-Check Quiz
Visit the American Vision: Modern Times Web site at tav.mt.glencoe.com and click on Self-Check Quizzes—Chapter 16 to access your knowledge of the chapter content.

26. Organizing Use a graphic organizer similar to the one below to compare examples of civil rights legislation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Civil Rights Legislation</th>
<th>Provisions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civil Rights Act 1957</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-Fourth Amendment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voting Rights Act</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Rights Act of 1964</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Rights Act of 1968</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Writing About History

27. Showing Connections Research the social, economic, and political effects of the Watts Riot in 1965 and the Detroit Riot in 1967. Then write a two-page paper outlining the impact these events had on the nation.

28. Big Idea Research interviews with Martin Luther King, Jr., and Malcolm X. Take notes on their different points of view, and then prepare a chart illustrating similarities, differences, and any bias which shaped their beliefs.

29. Interpreting Primary Sources In Birmingham, Alabama in the spring of 1963, Martin Luther King, Jr., was jailed and held in solitary confinement. While in prison, he wrote “Letter from a Birmingham Jail,” a defense of his nonviolent protests.

You may well ask: . . . Why sit-ins, marches and so forth? Isn’t negotiation a better path?” . . . Indeed, this is the very purpose of direct action. Nonviolent direct action seeks to create such a crisis . . . that a community . . . is forced to confront the issue . . . .

. . . You express a great deal of anxiety over our willingness to break laws . . . . One may . . . ask: “How can you advocate breaking some laws and obeying others?” 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 . . . .

a. Why did the author feel direct action was necessary?
b. Can you identify just and unjust laws throughout history? Would you disobey an unjust law?

Geography and History

30. The map on this page shows routes of Freedom Riders. Study the map and answer the questions below.

a. Interpreting Maps Which states did the Freedom Riders travel through? What was their final destination?

b. Applying Geography Skills Why do you think the Freedom Riders faced protests during this trip?

Standards Practice
Directions: Choose the phrase that best completes the following statement.

31. One difference between the strategies of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., and some later civil rights groups was that King was committed to
A. ending discrimination in housing and unemployment.
B. using only nonviolent forms of protest.
C. demanding equal rights for African Americans.
D. gaining improvements in living conditions for African Americans.

Standard 11.10.4: Examine the roles of civil rights advocates (e.g., A. Philip Randolph, Martin Luther King, Jr., Malcolm X, Thurgood Marshall, James Farmer, Rosa Parks), including the significance of Martin Luther King, Jr.’s “Letter from Birmingham Jail” and “I Have a Dream” speech.