Black History Month 2015
“A Century of Black Life, History, and Culture”
Background Information, Lesson Plans, and Internet Resources for the Secondary Classroom

Department of Social Sciences
Miami-Dade County Public Schools
Introduction and an Instructional Note to Teachers about Black History Month

The purpose of Black History Month is to call attention to the many cultural, social, spiritual, and economic contributions of African Americans to the United States. However, in Miami-Dade County Public Schools, African American history is not just a subject studied and discussed in February. It is a topic of substance that is woven into all subjects throughout the school year. Black History Month provides schools with an additional opportunity to emphasize and celebrate African American history in all of Miami-Dade County’s public schools.

The 2015 Black History Month theme is “A Century of Black Life, History, and Culture.” (See the overview of the theme in the Background section of this instructional resource guide.) The resources and lessons included in this resource guide are designed to support instruction on the people and events that have shaped the African American experience over the past 100 years.

To assist teachers, staff in the Department of Social Sciences has developed this instructional resource guide that includes suggested classroom activities and Internet resources for Black History Month. These resources are intended to serve as tools to support both the month’s commemoration and the instructional requirements of Florida Statute 1003.421 requiring the study of the African American experience in the United States.

The resources in this guide include:

- **BACKGROUND INFORMATION**
  
  Background information that is helpful for both the teacher and student is provided.

- **LESSONS, ACTIVITIES, AND STRATEGIES FOR SECONDARY STUDENTS**
  
  Detailed lesson plans with all support materials needed to support instruction during Black History Month are provided in this section of the guide. These lessons are also applicable throughout the curriculum and school year.

- **INTERNET RESOURCES**
  
  Related lesson plans, teacher background information, and interactive activities may be found on the web sites listed in this section of the guide.
Special Programs and Activities for Black History Month

To further support teachers and administrators in their efforts to provide educationally meaningful experiences for all students, the Department of Social Sciences is sponsoring or co-sponsoring the following special programs and activities during Black History Month.

38th Annual Theodore Gibson Oratorical Competition - Miami-Dade County Public Schools, in cooperation with Miami Dade College, is co-sponsoring the 38th Annual Theodore Gibson Oratorical Competition. In this competition, elementary and secondary students compete for the coveted Theodore Gibson medallion. The competition exposes students to a breadth of writings about the African American experience and provides them with the opportunity to refine their research, writing, and public speaking skills through a challenging competition. The final competition will be held in May 2015.

The 25th Annual African American Read-In Chain - The 25th Annual African American Read-in Chain is scheduled each Monday during the month of February (February 2, 9, 16, and 23). On these days, schools are urged to make literacy a significant part of Black History Month as they select books authored by African Americans and host school Read-Ins. A completed African American Read-In school report card from each participating school is submitted to the Department of Social Sciences. The African American Read-In Chain has been endorsed by the International Reading Association. Reporting forms are currently available on the Department of Social Sciences website at http://socialsciences.dadeschools.net/forms/read-in-chain-form.asp

The Black History Month Elementary and Secondary Essay Contest - To support the National Black History Month theme, “A Century of Black Life, History, and Culture” and the District’s reading and writing initiatives, the Department of Social Sciences, in cooperation with the United Teachers of Dade and 99 JAMZ radio, is sponsoring a Black History Month Essay Contest. This contest is open to elementary, middle, and senior high school students who will compete in separate categories.

The Griot, the African American History Newsletter - A special edition of the newsletter will be available online for all schools in February 2015.

For further information on these special programs and activities, please contact Dr. Sherrilyn Scott, Supervisor, Department of Social Sciences, at sherrilyncott@dadeschools.net
Background Information

- 2015 Black History Month Theme – “A Century of Black Life, History, and Culture”

- Presidential Proclamation -- National African American History Month, 2014

- Biography of Dr. Carter G. Woodson – The Father of Black History Month

- An Overview of African American History – World Book (Advanced)

- African-American History Timeline (1619-2008)

- Civil Rights Timeline - Milestones in the Modern Civil Rights Movement

- Notable African Americans

- Inspirational Quotes from Black American Leaders

- Black History Month - Teaching About Ethnic and Cultural History
2015 Black History Month Theme – “A Century of Black Life, History, and Culture”

ASALAH and Dr. Carter G. Woodson

The Association of African American Life and History (ASALAH) was founded in 1915 by Dr. Carter G. Woodson. The mission of ASALH is to promote, research, preserve, interpret and disseminate information about Black life, history and culture to the global community.

Known as the “Father of Black History,” Dr. Woodson (1875-1950) was the son of former slaves, and understood how important gaining a proper education is when striving to secure and make the most out of one’s right of freedom. Although he did not begin his formal education until he was nearly 20 years old, his dedication to study enabled him to earn a high school diploma in West Virginia and bachelor and master’s degrees from the University of Chicago in just a few years. In 1912, Woodson became the second African American to earn a PhD at Harvard University.

In 1926, Dr. Woodson initiated the celebration of Negro History Week, which corresponded with the birthdays of Frederick Douglass and Abraham Lincoln. In 1976, this celebration was expanded to include the entire month of February. Each year, ASALAH develops the annual Black History Month theme. The theme for 2015 is – “A Century of Black Life, History, and Culture.” A description of this year’s theme follows.

2015 Theme - “A Century of Black Life, History, and Culture”

Over the past century, African American life, history, and culture have become major forces in the United States and the world. In 1915, few could have imagined that African Americans in music, art, and literature would become appreciated by the global community. Fewer still could have predicted the prominence achieved by African Americans, as well as other people of African descent, in shaping world politics, war, and diplomacy. Indeed, it was nearly universally believed that Africans and people of African descent had played no role in the unfolding of history and were a threat to American civilization itself. A century later, few can deny the centrality of African Americans in the making of American history.

This transformation is the result of effort, not chance. Confident that their struggles mattered in human history, black scholars, artists, athletes, and leaders self-consciously used their talents to change how the world viewed African Americans. The New Negro of the post-World War I era made modernity their own and gave the world a cornucopia of cultural gifts, including jazz, poetry based on the black vernacular, and an appreciation of African art. African American athletes dominated individual and team sports transforming baseball, track-and-field, football, boxing, and basketball. In a wave
of social movements, African American activism transformed race relations, challenged American foreign policy, and became the American conscience on human rights.

While the spotlight often shines on individuals, this movement is the product of organization, of institutions and institution-builders who gave direction to effort. The National Urban League promoted the Harlem Renaissance. The preservation of the black past became the mission of Arturo Schomburg and Jesse Moorland, leading to the rise of the Schomburg Research Center in Black Culture and Howard University’s Moorland-Spingarn Research Center. The vision of Margaret Burroughs and others led to the African American museum movement, leading to the creation of black museums throughout the nation, culminating with the Smithsonian’s National Museum of African American History and Culture. Student activism of the 1960s resulted in the Black Studies Movement and the creation of black professional associations, including the National Council of Black Studies, and a host of doctoral programs at major American universities.

At the dawn of these strivings and at all points along the road, the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, now the Association for the Study of African American Life and History (ASALH) has played a vital role. When he founded the Association in 1915, Carter G. Woodson labored under the belief that historical truth would crush falsehoods and usher in a new era of equality, opportunity, and racial democracy, and it has been its charge for a century. In honor of this milestone, ASALH has selected “A Century of Black Life, History, and Culture” as the 2015 National Black History theme.

Source: http://asalh100.org/
Americans have long celebrated our Nation as a beacon of liberty and opportunity -- home to patriots who threw off an empire, refuge to multitudes who fled oppression and despair. Yet we must also remember that while many came to our shores to pursue their own measure of freedom, hundreds of thousands arrived in chains. Through centuries of struggle, and through the toil of generations, African Americans have claimed rights long denied. During National African American History Month, we honor the men and women at the heart of this journey -- from engineers of the Underground Railroad to educators who answered a free people's call for a free mind, from patriots who proved that valor knows no color to demonstrators who gathered on the battlefields of justice and marched our Nation toward a brighter day.

As we pay tribute to the heroes, sung and unsung, of African-American history, we recall the inner strength that sustained millions in bondage. We remember the courage that led activists to defy lynch mobs and register their neighbors to vote. And we carry forward the unyielding hope that guided a movement as it bent the arc of the moral universe toward justice. Even while we seek to dull the scars of slavery and legalized discrimination, we hold fast to the values gained through centuries of trial and suffering.

Every American can draw strength from the story of hard-won progress, which not only defines the African-American experience, but also lies at the heart of our Nation as a whole. This story affirms that freedom is a gift from God, but it must be secured by His people here on earth. It inspires a new generation of leaders, and it teaches us all that when we come together in common purpose, we can right the wrongs of history and make our world anew.

NOW, THEREFORE, I, BARACK OBAMA, President of the United States of America, by virtue of the authority vested in me by the Constitution and the laws of the United States, do hereby proclaim February 2014 as National African American History Month. I call upon public officials, educators, librarians, and all the people of the United States to observe this month with appropriate programs, ceremonies, and activities.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand this thirty-first day of January, in the year of our Lord two thousand fourteen, and of the Independence of the United States of America the two hundred and thirty-eighth.

BARACK OBAMA
Biography of Dr. Carter G. Woodson – The Father of Black History Month

Introduction

Carter G. Woodson was born in 1875 in New Canton, Virginia. One of the first African Americans to receive a doctorate from Harvard, Woodson dedicated his career to the field of African-American history and lobbied extensively to establish Black History Month as a nationwide institution. He also wrote many historical works, including the 1933 book The Mis-Education of the Negro. He died in Washington, D.C., in 1950.

Early Life

Carter Godwin Woodson was born on December 19, 1875, in New Canton, Virginia, to Anna Eliza and James Woodson. The first son of nine children, the young Woodson worked as a sharecropper and a miner to help his family. He began high school in his late teens and proved to be an excellent student, completing a four-year course of study in less than two years.

After attending Berea College in Kentucky, Woodson worked for the U.S. government as an education superintendent in the Philippines and undertook more travels before returning to the U.S. Woodson then earned his bachelor’s and master’s from the University of Chicago and went on to receive a doctorate from Harvard University in 1912—becoming the second African American to earn a Ph.D. from the prestigious institution, after W.E.B. Du Bois. After finishing his education, Woodson dedicated himself to the field of African-American history, working to make sure that the subject was taught in schools and studied by scholars. For his efforts, Woodson is often called the "Father of Black History."

Writing 'Mis-Education of the Negro'

In 1915, Carter G. Woodson helped found the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History (which later became the Association for the Study of Afro-American Life and History), which had the goal of placing African-American historical contributions front and center. The next year he established the Journal of Negro History, a scholarly publication.

Woodson also formed the African-American-owned Associated Publishers Press in 1921 and would go on to write more than a dozen books over the years, including A Century of Negro Migration (1918), The History of the Negro Church (1921), The Negro in Our History (1922) and Mis-Education of the Negro (1933). Mis-Education - with its focus on the Western indoctrination system and African-American self-empowerment - is a particularly noted work and has become regularly course adopted by college institutions.
In addition to his writing pursuits, Woodson also worked in a number of educational positions, serving as a principal for Washington, D.C.'s Armstrong Manual Training School before working as a college dean at Howard University and the West Virginia Collegiate Institute.

Creating Black History Month

Woodson lobbied schools and organizations to participate in a special program to encourage the study of African-American history, which began in February 1926 with Negro History Week. The program was later expanded and renamed Black History Month. (Woodson had chosen February for the initial weeklong celebration to honor the birth months of abolitionist Frederick Douglass and President Abraham Lincoln.)

To help teachers with African-American studies, Woodson later created the Negro History Bulletin in 1937 and also penned literature for elementary and secondary school students.

Woodson died on April 3, 1950, a respected and honored figure who received accolades for his vision. His legacy continues on, with Black History Month being a national cultural force recognized by a variety of media formats, organizations and educational institutions.

Source: http://www.biography.com/people/carter-g-woodson-9536515#writing-mis-education-of-the-negro
An Overview of African American History

The article below on African American history is an excellent overview of the African American experience from earliest times to the present. The article is intended primarily as a reference for teachers.

The article is from the on-line edition of the World Book Encyclopedia Advanced (2014) available for students and teachers through the Miami-Dade County Public Schools' Department of Library Media Services. To access the full article:

1. Visit Library Media Services at http://library.dadeschools.net/ (Password needed. Check with the Media Specialist.)
2. Click the On-line Data Bases and select World Book Online Reference Center
3. Select World Book Advanced
4. Search for “African American”
5. Click on the article entitled “African American.”

Introduction

African Americans are Americans mostly or partly of African descent. About 40 million African Americans live in the United States. They account for 13 percent of the nation's total population and, in number, trail only Hispanic Americans among minority groups. About half of all black Americans live in the Southern States. Most of the rest live in large cities in other regions.

Most African Americans have used a number of terms to refer to themselves. The terms Negro (which means black in Spanish and Portuguese) and colored were commonly used until the mid-1960's. These terms referred to the dark brown skin color of many black Americans. Since then, most black Americans have chosen to express deep pride in their color or origin by calling themselves blacks, Afro-Americans, or African Americans.

The majority of African Americans trace their origin to an area in western Africa that was controlled by three great and wealthy black empires from about the A.D. 300's to the late 1500's. These empires—Ghana, Mali, and Songhai—thrived on trade and developed efficient governments. During the early 1500's, European nations began a slave trade in which blacks from western Africa were brought to European colonies in the Americas. For about the next 300 years, millions of enslaved black Africans were shipped across the Atlantic Ocean to North and South America. About 500,000 of the Africans were brought to what is now the United States.

The history of African Americans is largely the story of their struggle for freedom and equality. From the 1600's until the American Civil War (1861-1865), most black Americans worked as slaves throughout the South. They did much to help Southern
agriculture expand. At the same time, free blacks helped develop industry in the North. Even after 1865, when slavery was finally abolished in the United States, black Americans briefly gained their civil rights during a period called Reconstruction. But after Reconstruction, they again lost those rights and suffered from widespread segregation (separation by race) and poverty. The determined efforts of African Americans to achieve equality and justice led to the start of a strong civil rights movement in the United States in the 1950’s.

The lives of African Americans have improved since the 1950’s. More black Americans are making important contributions in all areas of American life. The election in 2008 of Barack Obama as the first African American president reflects the significant strides toward equality that have been made in the United States. However, many African Americans still suffer from segregation and poverty, discrimination in jobs and housing, and other problems.

This article describes the African background of black Americans and traces their history since their arrival in North America.

The African Background

The ancestors of most American blacks came from an area of Africa known as the Western Sudan. This area was about as large as the United States, not including Hawaii and Alaska. It extended from the Atlantic Ocean in the west to Lake Chad in the east and from the Sahara in the north to the Gulf of Guinea in the south.

From about the A.D. 300’s to 1591, three highly developed black empires, in turn, controlled all or most of the Western Sudan. They were Ghana, Mali, and Songhai. Their economies were based on farming, on mining gold, and on trade with Arabs of northern Africa.

Ghana ruled much of the Western Sudan from the 300’s to the mid-1000’s. The Ghanaian became the first people in western Africa to smelt iron ore. They made arrows, swords, and other weapons of iron, which helped them conquer nearby nations.

In 1235, the Malinke people of Mali began to develop the second great black African empire of the Western Sudan. By 1240, they controlled all Ghana. The Mali Empire’s most famous ruler was Mansa Musa, who reigned from 1312 to about 1337. Mansa Musa encouraged the practice of Islam, the religion of the Muslims. Under his rule, Mali reached its height of wealth, political power, and cultural achievement.
Beginning in the 1400’s, the Songhai Empire gained control of most of northwestern Africa south of the Sahara, including much of Mali. Under Askia Muhammad, who ruled Songhai from 1493 to 1528, the empire had a well-organized central government and excellent universities in such cities as Timbuktu and Djénné. Like Mansa Musa, Askia encouraged his people to practice the Islamic faith. Invaders from Morocco conquered Songhai in 1591.

Some ancestors of African Americans lived in smaller nations in the Western Sudan. These nations included Oyo, Benin, Dahomey, and Ashanti. Their economies also depended on farming, trade, and gold mining. For more details on the major black African empires, see Ghana Empire; Mali Empire; Songhai Empire.

**Beginning of the slave trade.** Africans had practiced slavery since ancient times. In most cases, the slaves had been captured in warfare and sold to Arab traders of northern Africa. Portugal and Spain became increasingly involved in the African slave trade during the early 1500’s, after they had established colonies in the Americas. Portugal acquired African slaves to work on sugar plantations that its colonists developed in Brazil. Spain used slaves on its sugar plantations in the Caribbean. During the early 1600’s, the Netherlands, France, and England also began to use African slaves in their American colonies.

The Europeans obtained slaves from Africans who continued to sell their war captives or trade them for rum, cloth, and other items, especially guns. The Africans wanted the guns for use in their constant warfare with neighboring peoples.

The slave trade took several triangular routes. Over one route, ships from Europe transported manufactured goods to the west coast of Africa. There, traders exchanged the goods for slaves. Next, the slaves were carried across the Atlantic Ocean to the Caribbean and sold for huge profits. This part of the route was called the Middle Passage because it was the middle leg of the journey from Africa to the New World. The traders used much of their earnings to buy sugar, coffee, and tobacco in the Caribbean. The ships then took these products to Europe.

On another triangular route, ships from the New England Colonies carried rum and other products to Africa, where they were exchanged for slaves. The ships then transported the slaves to the Caribbean to be sold. The slave traders used some of their profits to buy sugar and molasses, which they took back to New England and sold to rum producers.
The slave trade was conducted for profit. The captains of slave ships therefore tried to deliver as many healthy slaves for as little cost as possible. Some captains used a system called loose packing to deliver slaves. Under that system, captains transported fewer slaves than their ships could carry in the hope of reducing sickness and death among them. Other captains preferred tight packing. They believed that many blacks would die on the voyages anyway and so carried as many slaves as their ships could hold.

Most slave ship voyages across the Atlantic took several months. The slaves were chained below deck all day and all night except for brief periods of exercise. Their crowded conditions led to the chief horrors of the Middle Passage—filth, stench, disease, and death.

The Atlantic slave trade operated from the mid-1400's to the mid-1800's. Between 10 million and 12 million Africans were enslaved during this period. Of this total, what is now the United States received about 5 percent.

**The years of slavery**

Some scholars believe that the first blacks in America came with the expeditions led by Christopher Columbus, starting in 1492. Black slaves traveled to North and South America with French, Portuguese, and Spanish explorers throughout the 1500's.

The best-known black to take part in the early explorations of North America was a slave named Estevanico. In 1539, he crossed what are now Arizona and New Mexico on an expedition sent by Antonio de Mendoza, ruler of Spain’s colony in America.

**Colonial times.** The first blacks in the American Colonies were brought in, like many lower-class whites, as indentured servants. Most indentured servants had a contract to work without wages for a master for four to seven years, after which they became free. Blacks brought in as slaves, however, had no right to eventual freedom. The first black indentured servants arrived in Jamestown in the colony of Virginia in 1619. They had been captured in Africa and were sold at auction in Jamestown. After completing their service, some black indentured servants bought property. But racial prejudice among white colonists forced most free blacks to remain in the lowest level of colonial society.

The first black African slaves in the American Colonies also arrived during the early 1600's. The slave population increased rapidly during the 1700's as newly established colonies in the South created a great demand for plantation workers.
By 1750, about 200,000 slaves lived in the colonies. The majority lived in the South, where the warm climate and fertile soil encouraged the development of plantations that grew rice, tobacco, sugar cane, and later cotton. Most plantation slaves worked in the fields. Others were craftworkers, messengers, and servants.

Only 12 percent of slaveowners operated plantations that had 20 or more slaves. But more than half of all the country’s slaves worked on these plantations. Most of the other slaveowners had small farms and only a few slaves each. Under arrangements with their masters, some slaves could hire themselves out to work for other whites on farms or in city jobs. Such arrangements brought income to both the slaves and the masters.

The cooler climate and rocky soil of the Northern and Middle colonies made it hard for most farmers there to earn large profits. Many slaves in those colonies worked as skilled and unskilled laborers in factories, homes, and shipyards and on fishing and trading ships.

During the mid-1600's, the colonies began to pass laws called slave codes. In general, these codes prohibited slaves from owning weapons, receiving an education, meeting one another or moving about without the permission of their masters, and testifying against white people in court. Slaves received harsher punishments for some crimes than white people. A master usually received less punishment for killing a slave than for killing a free person for the same reason. Slaves on small farms probably had more freedom than plantation slaves, and slaves in urban areas had fewer restrictions in many cases than slaves in rural areas.

By 1770, there may have been 40,000 or more free blacks in the American Colonies. They included runaway slaves, descendants of early indentured servants, and black immigrants from the Caribbean. Many free blacks opposed British rule. One of the best-known African American patriots was Crispus Attucks, who died in the Boston Massacre of 1770 while mocking the presence of British soldiers.

During the American Revolution (1775-1783), most blacks probably favored the British. They believed that a British victory would offer them their earliest or best chance for freedom. But about 5,000 blacks fought on the side of the colonists. Most of them were free blacks or slaves from the Northern and Middle colonies. Black heroes of the war included Peter Salem and Salem Poor of Massachusetts, who distinguished themselves in the Battle of Bunker Hill in 1775.

**The growth of slavery.** By the early 1800's, more than 700,000 slaves lived in the South. They accounted for about a third of the region's people. Slaves outnumbered
whites in South Carolina and made up over half the population in both Maryland and Virginia.

Slavery began to develop even deeper roots in the South after Eli Whitney of Massachusetts invented his cotton gin in 1793. This machine removed the seeds from cotton as fast as 50 people working by hand. It probably contributed more to the growth of slavery than any other development. Whitney's gin enabled farmers to meet the rapidly rising demand for cotton. As a result, the Southern cotton industry expanded, and cotton became the chief crop in the region. The planters needed more and more workers to pick and bale the cotton, which led to large increases in the slave population. The thriving sugar cane plantations of Louisiana also used many slaves during the first half of the 1800's. By 1860, about 4 million slaves lived in the South.

Numerous slaves protested against their condition. They used such day-to-day forms of rebellion as destroying property, running away, pretending illness, and disobeying orders. Major slave protests included armed revolts and mutinies. The most famous of about 200 such revolts was led by Nat Turner, a slave and preacher. The revolt broke out in 1831 in Southampton County in Virginia. The rebels killed about 60 white people before being captured. The best-known slave mutiny occurred in 1839 aboard La Amistad, off the coast of Cuba. A group of Africans, led by Joseph Cinque, brought the vessel to Long Island in New York. The slaves were given their freedom soon afterward.

Slaves received beatings or other physical punishment for refusing to work, attempting to run away, or participating in plots or rebellions against their owners. Some slaves were executed for rebelling.

**Free blacks.** The American Revolution helped lead to new attitudes about slavery, especially among whites in the North. The war inspired a spirit of liberty and an appreciation for the service of the black soldiers. Partly for this reason, some Northern legislatures adopted laws during the late 1700's that provided for the immediate or gradual end of slavery. Another reason for such laws was simply that slaves had no essential role in the main economic activities of the North.

The census of 1790 revealed that the nation had about 59,000 free blacks, including about 27,000 in the North. By the early 1800's, most Northern states had taken steps to end slavery. Besides former slaves freed by law, free blacks included those who had been freed by their masters, who had bought their freedom, or who had been born of free parents.
After the American Revolution, numerous free blacks found jobs in tobacco plants, textile mills, and other factories. Some worked in shipyards, on ships, and later in railroad construction. Many free blacks became skilled in carpentry and other trades. Some became merchants and editors. The best-known editors were Samuel Cornish and John Russwurm, who helped start the first black newspaper, Freedom's Journal, in 1827.

Most whites treated free blacks as inferiors. Many hotels, restaurants, theaters, and other public places barred them. Few states gave free blacks the right to vote. The children of most free blacks had to attend separate schools. Some colleges and universities, such as Bowdoin in Maine, and Oberlin in Ohio, admitted black students. But the limited number of admissions led to the opening of black colleges, including Lincoln University in Pennsylvania in 1854 and Wilberforce University in Ohio in 1856.

In both the North and the South, churches either banned blacks or required them to sit apart from white people. As a result, some blacks set up their own churches. In 1816, Richard Allen, a black Philadelphia minister, helped set up the African Methodist Episcopal Church, the first black denomination in the country.

The rising number of free blacks alarmed many whites and led to further restrictions on their activities. In parts of New England, free blacks could not visit any town without a pass. They also needed permission to entertain slaves in their homes. In the South, free blacks could be enslaved if caught without proof that they were free. Fears that free blacks would lead slave revolts encouraged almost all states to pass laws severely limiting the right of free blacks to own weapons.

Increasing concern over the large number of free blacks led to the founding of the American Colonization Society in 1816. The society was sponsored by well-known supporters of slavery, including U.S. Representatives John C. Calhoun of South Carolina and Henry Clay of Kentucky. Their plan was to lessen "the race problem" by transporting free blacks on a voluntary basis to Africa. In 1822, the society established the black American colony of Liberia on the continent's west coast. In 1847, Liberia became the first self-governing black republic in Africa. However, most free blacks felt that the United States was their home. As a result, only about 12,000 of them had volunteered to settle in Liberia by 1850.

Despite their inferior position, a number of free blacks won widespread recognition during the late 1700's and early 1800's. For example, Phillis Wheatley gained fame for her poetry. Newport Gardner distinguished himself in music. Benjamin Banneker, a mathematician, published outstanding almanacs. Notable black ministers included
Absalom Jones in the North and George Liele and Andrew Bryan in the South. Paul Cuffe and James Forten gained great wealth in business. Tom Molineaux became known for his boxing skills.

By 1860, the nation had about 490,000 free blacks. But most of them faced such severe discrimination that they were little better off than the slaves.

**The antislavery movement.** Many white Americans, particularly Northerners, felt that slavery was evil and violated the ideals of democracy. However, plantation owners and other supporters of slavery regarded it as natural to the Southern way of life. They also argued that Southern culture introduced the slaves to Christianity and helped them become "civilized." Most white Southerners held such beliefs by 1860, though less than 5 percent of them owned slaves and only about half the slaveowners had more than five slaves. In addition, Southern farmers insisted that they could not make money growing cotton without cheap slave labor.

The Southern States hoped to expand slavery as new states were admitted to the Union. However, the Northern States feared they would lose power in Congress permanently if more states that permitted slavery were admitted. The North and the South thereby became increasingly divided over the spread of slavery.

The slavery issue created heated debate in Congress after the Territory of Missouri applied for statehood in 1818. At the time, there were 11 slave states, in which slavery was allowed, and 11 free states, in which it was prohibited. Most Missourians supported slavery, but many Northern members of Congress did not want Missouri to become a slave state. In 1820, Congress reached a settlement known as the Missouri Compromise. This measure admitted Missouri as a slave state, but it also called for Maine to enter the Union as a free state. Congress thus preserved the balance between free and slave states at 12 each.

New, aggressive opponents of slavery began to spring up in the North during the 1830's. Their leaders included William Lloyd Garrison, Lucretia Mott, Lewis Tappan, and Theodore Dwight Weld. During the 1830's and 1840's, these white abolitionists were joined by many free blacks, including such former slaves as Frederick Douglass, Henry Highland Garnet, Harriet Tubman, and Sojourner Truth.

Most of the abolitionist leaders attacked slavery in writings and public speeches. Garrison began to publish an antislavery newspaper, The Liberator, in 1831. Douglass, the most influential black leader of the time, started an abolitionist newspaper called the North Star in 1847. Tubman and many other abolitionists helped Southern slaves
escape to the free states and Canada. Tubman returned to the South 19 times and personally led about 300 slaves to freedom. She and others used a network of routes and housing to assist the fleeing blacks. This network became known as the underground railroad.

**The deepening division over slavery.** After 1848, Congress had to deal with the question of whether to permit slavery in the territories that the United States gained from Mexico as a result of the Mexican War (1846-1848). The territories covered what are now California, Nevada, Utah, and parts of four other states. Following angry debates among the members of Congress, Senators Henry Clay of Kentucky and Daniel Webster of Massachusetts helped work out a series of measures that became known as the Compromise of 1850. The Compromise allowed slavery to continue but prohibited the slave trade in Washington, D.C. A key measure in the Compromise admitted California to the Union as a free state. Another agreement gave the residents in the other newly acquired areas the right to decide for themselves whether to allow slavery. The Compromise included a federal fugitive slave law that was designed to help slaveowners get back runaway slaves.

The Compromise of 1850 briefly ended the heated arguments in Congress over the slavery issue. However, the abolitionist movement and the hostility between the North and the South continued. The publication of Harriet Beecher Stowe's antislavery novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (1851-1852) greatly increased the tensions between Northerners and Southerners. In addition, attempts by Northerners to stop enforcement of the fugitive slave law further angered Southerners.

The quarrel over slavery flared again in Congress in 1854, when it passed the Kansas-Nebraska Act. This law created two federal territories, Kansas and Nebraska, and provided that the people of each territory could decide whether to permit slavery. Most Nebraskans opposed slavery. However, bitter, bloody conflicts broke out between supporters and opponents of slavery in Kansas. In 1856, for example, the militant abolitionist John Brown led a raid against supporters of slavery in a small settlement on Pottawatomie Creek in Kansas. Brown's group killed five men and focused the nation's attention on the conflict in the territory, which became known as "Bleeding Kansas." In the end, Kansas joined the Union as a free state in 1861.

Supporters of slavery won a major victory in 1857, when the Supreme Court of the United States issued its ruling in the case of *Dred Scott v. Sandford*. In the *Dred Scott Decision*, the court denied the claim of Scott, a slave, that his residence in a free state and later a free territory for a time made him free. The court also declared that no
black—free or slave—could be a U.S. citizen. In addition, it stated that Congress had no power to ban the spread of slavery.

Tension in the South increased again in 1859, when John Brown led another abolitionist group in seizing the United States arsenal at Harpers Ferry in Virginia (now West Virginia). Federal troops quickly captured Brown, and he was executed later that year. But his raid helped convince many Southerners that the slavery issue would lead to fighting between the North and the South.

**The end of slavery.** Slavery became a major issue in the U.S. presidential election of 1860. Many Democrats in the North opposed the spread of slavery, but Democrats in the South favored it. Each group nominated its own candidate for president, thereby splitting their party. Most Republicans opposed the expansion of slavery. They chose Abraham Lincoln of Illinois as their presidential candidate. In November 1860, he was elected president.

**The American Civil War.** Southerners feared that Lincoln would limit or end slavery. On Dec. 20, 1860, South Carolina seceded (withdrew) from the Union. Early in 1861, six other Southern states seceded. The seceded states took the name Confederate States of America. On April 12, 1861, Confederate troops attacked Fort Sumter, a United States military base in South Carolina, and the American Civil War began. Four more slave states joined the Confederacy soon afterward. Four other slave states—Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware—remained loyal to the Union.

At the start of the Civil War, Lincoln's chief concern was to preserve the Union, not to end slavery. He therefore refused requests of African Americans to join the Union Army. He felt that their participation in the war could lead more slave states to secede. Lincoln also knew that many Northerners were hostile toward blacks and so might oppose the use of black troops.

A number of developments gradually persuaded Lincoln to make the war a fight against slavery. For example, some Union military commanders, without the president's consent, had freed the slaves in areas they had conquered. Furthermore, abolitionists and black leaders urged that the war be fought to end slavery, and they demanded the use of black troops. Most importantly, the war was going badly for the Union. By fighting against slavery, Lincoln hoped to strengthen the war effort in the North and weaken it in the South.

In March 1862, Lincoln gave Congress a plan for the gradual freedom of slaves. The plan included payment for the slaveowners. In April, Lincoln approved legislation that
ended slavery in the District of Columbia and provided funds for any freed slaves who wished to move to Haiti or Liberia. In June, Lincoln signed a bill that ended slavery in all federal territories.

By July 1862, Lincoln was ready to accept African Americans in the Union Army. In September, he issued a preliminary order to emancipate (free) the slaves. It declared that all slaves in areas or states in rebellion against the United States on Jan. 1, 1863, would be forever free. The order excluded areas still loyal to the Union, meaning that they might retain slaves. The order had no immediate effect in the Southern-controlled areas, but it meant that each Union victory brought the end of slavery closer. The final order was issued on Jan. 1, 1863, as the Emancipation Proclamation. African Americans referred to that day as the Day of Jubilee. Bells rang from the spires of most Northern black churches to celebrate the day.

Over 200,000 African Americans fought on the side of the Union. They were discriminated against in pay, assignments, and rank. Nevertheless, many of them contributed greatly to the war effort. Robert Smalls of South Carolina, a harbor pilot, was one of the first black heroes of the war. In 1862, he sailed a Confederate ship, the Planter, out of Charleston Harbor and turned it over to the Union. Smalls then joined the Union Navy. In 1863, black regiments played an important role in the attack on Port Hudson, Louisiana. The fall of Port Hudson helped the Union gain control of the Mississippi River. Altogether, 23 blacks won the Medal of Honor, the nation's highest military award, for heroism during the Civil War.

About 40,000 black troops—nearly all of them Union troops—died during the war. In April 1865, the main Southern army surrendered. In December 1865, the adoption of the 13th Amendment to the Constitution of the United States officially ended slavery throughout the nation.

The first years of freedom. The period of rebuilding that followed the Civil War became known as Reconstruction. A major concern during Reconstruction was the condition of the approximately 4 million freedmen (freed slaves). Most of them had no homes, were desperately poor, and could not read and write.

To help the freed slaves and homeless whites, Congress established the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands. The agency, better known as the Freedmen's Bureau, operated from 1865 until 1872. It issued food and supplies to blacks; set up more than 100 hospitals; resettled more than 30,000 people; and founded over 4,300 schools. Some of the schools developed into outstanding black institutions,
such as Clark Atlanta University in Georgia, Fisk University in Nashville, Hampton University in Virginia, and Howard University in Washington, D.C.

In spite of its achievements, the Freedmen’s Bureau did not solve the serious economic problems of African Americans. Most of them continued to live in poverty. They also suffered from racist threats and violence and from laws restricting their civil rights. All these problems cast a deep shadow over their new freedom.

The legal restrictions on black civil rights arose in 1865 and 1866, when many Southern state governments passed laws that became known as the black codes. These laws were like the earlier slave codes. Some black codes prohibited blacks from owning land. Others established a nightly curfew for blacks. Some permitted states to jail blacks for being jobless.

The black codes shocked a powerful group of Northern congressmen called Radical Republicans. These senators and representatives won congressional approval of the Civil Rights Act of 1866. The act gave African Americans the rights and privileges of full citizenship. The 14th Amendment to the Constitution, adopted in 1868, further guaranteed the citizenship of blacks. However, most Southern whites resented the new status of blacks. The whites simply could not accept the idea of former slaves voting and holding office. As a result, attempts by Southern blacks to vote, run for public office, or claim other civil rights were met by increasing violence from whites in the South. In 1865 and 1866, about 5,000 Southern blacks were murdered. Forty-six blacks were killed when their schools and churches were burned in Memphis in May 1866. In July, 34 blacks were killed during a race riot in New Orleans.

Some law enforcement officers encouraged or participated in assaults on blacks. But lawless groups carried out most attacks. One of the largest, the Ku Klux Klan, was organized in 1865 or 1866 in Pulaski, Tennessee. Bands of hooded Klansmen rode at night and beat and murdered many blacks and their white sympathizers. The Klan did much to deny blacks their civil and human rights throughout Reconstruction.

The federal government tried to maintain the rights of African Americans. In 1870 and 1871, Congress passed laws authorizing the use of federal troops to enforce the voting rights of blacks. These laws were known as the Enforcement Acts or the Ku Klux Klan Acts. In addition, President Ulysses S. Grant signed a proclamation demanding respect for the civil rights of all Americans.

**Temporary gains.** The policies of the Radical Republicans enabled African Americans to participate widely in the nation's political system for the first time. Congress provided
for black men to become voters in the South and called for constitutional conventions to be held in the defeated states. Many blacks attended the conventions held in 1867 and 1868. They helped rewrite Southern state constitutions and other basic laws to replace the black codes drawn up by whites in 1865 and 1866. In the legislatures elected under the new constitutions, however, blacks had a majority of seats only in the lower house in South Carolina. Most of the chief legislative and executive positions were held by Northern white Republicans who had moved to the South and by their white Southern allies. Angry white Southerners called the Northerners carpetbaggers to suggest that they could carry everything they owned when they came South in a carpetbag, or suitcase.

African Americans elected to important posts during Reconstruction included U.S. Senators Hiram R. Revels and Blanche K. Bruce of Mississippi and U.S. Representatives Joseph H. Rainey of South Carolina and Jefferson Long of Georgia. Others were Oscar J. Dunn, lieutenant governor of Louisiana; Richard Gleaves and Alonzo J. Ransier, lieutenant governors of South Carolina; P. B. S. Pinchback, acting governor of Louisiana; Francis L. Cardozo, secretary of state and state treasurer of South Carolina; and Jonathan Jasper Wright, an associate justice of the South Carolina Supreme Court. Most of them had college educations.

By the early 1870's, Northern whites had lost interest in the Reconstruction policies of the Radical Republicans. They grew tired of hearing about the continual conflict between Southern blacks and whites. Most Northern whites wanted to put Reconstruction behind them and turn to other things. Federal troops sent to the South to protect blacks were gradually withdrawn. Southern whites who had stayed away from elections to protest black participation started voting again. White Democrats then began to regain control of the state governments from the blacks and their white Republican associates. In 1877, the last federal troops were withdrawn. By the end of that year, the Democrats held power in all the Southern state governments.

**The growth of discrimination.** During the late 1800's, blacks in the South increasingly suffered from segregation, the loss of voting rights, and other forms of discrimination. Their condition reflected beliefs held by most Southern whites that whites were born superior to blacks with respect to intelligence, talents, and moral standards. In 1881, the Tennessee legislature passed a law that required railroad passengers to be separated by race. In 1890, Mississippi adopted several measures that in effect ended voting by African Americans. These measures included the passing of reading and writing tests and the payment of a poll tax before a person could vote.
Several decisions of the U.S. Supreme Court enabled the Southern States to establish "legal" segregation practices. In 1883, for example, the court declared the Civil Rights Act of 1875 to be unconstitutional. That act had guaranteed blacks the right to be admitted to any public place.

The Civil Rights Act of 1866 and the 14th Amendment to the Constitution, ratified in 1868, had forbidden the states to deny equal rights to any person. But in 1896, the Supreme Court ruled in the case of Plessy v. Ferguson that a Louisiana law requiring the separation of black and white railroad passengers was constitutional. The court argued that segregation in itself did not represent inequality and that separate public facilities could be provided for the races as long as the facilities were equal. This ruling, known as the "separate but equal doctrine," became the basis of Southern race relations. In practice, however, nearly all the separate schools, places of recreation, and other public facilities provided for blacks were far inferior to those provided for whites.

In spite of the increasing difficulties for African Americans, a number of them won distinction during the late 1800's. For example, Samuel Lowery started a school for blacks in Huntsville, Alabama, in 1875 and won prizes at international fairs for silk made at the school. In 1883, Jan E. Matzeliger invented a revolutionary shoe-lasting machine that shaped the upper part of a shoe and fastened it to the sole. In 1887, Joe Clark and a group of other blacks founded Eatonville, Florida. It was the first African American settlement in the United States to be incorporated. Mary Church Terrell helped found the National Association of Colored Women in 1896 and advised government leaders on racial problems. Charles Waddell Chesnutt wrote The Conjure Woman, published in 1899. He became one of the first major African American novelists and short-story writers.

During the early 1900's, discrimination against Southern blacks became even more widespread. By 1907, every Southern state required racial segregation on trains and in churches, schools, hotels, restaurants, theaters, and other public places. The Southern States also adopted an election practice known as the white primary. The states banned blacks from voting in the Democratic Party's primary elections by calling them "private affairs." But the winners of the primary elections were certain of victory in the general elections because Republican and independent candidates got little support from whites and rarely ran for office. By 1910, every Southern state had taken away or begun to take away the right of African Americans to vote.

The Ku Klux Klan used threats, beatings, and killings in its efforts to keep blacks from voting. More than 3,000 blacks had been lynched during the late 1800's, and the Klan
and similar groups lynched hundreds more throughout the South during the early 1900's.

African Americans had little opportunity to better themselves economically. Some laws prohibited them from teaching and from entering certain other businesses and professions. Large numbers of blacks had to take low-paying jobs as farm hands or servants for white employers. Many other blacks became sharecroppers or tenant farmers. They rented a small plot of land and paid the rent with money earned from the crops. They had to struggle to survive, and many ran up huge debts to their white landlords or the town merchants.

The rise of new black leaders. By the early 1900's, the educator Booker T. Washington had become the most influential African American leader. Washington, a former slave, had been principal of Tuskegee Institute (now Tuskegee University) in Alabama since 1881. He urged blacks to stop demanding political power and social equality and to concentrate on economic advancement. Washington especially encouraged blacks to practice thrift and respect hard work. He asked whites to help blacks gain an education and make a decent living. Washington believed his program would lead to progress for blacks and would keep peace between the races.

Many African Americans agreed with Washington's ideas. But many others strongly rejected them. The chief opposition came from W. E. B. Du Bois, a sociologist and historian at Atlanta University. Du Bois's reputation rested on such works as The Suppression of the African Slave-Trade to the United States of America, 1638-1870 (1896) and The Souls of Black Folk (1903).

Du Bois argued that Washington's approach would not achieve economic security for African Americans. Instead, Du Bois felt Washington's acceptance of segregation and the rest of his program would strengthen the beliefs that blacks were inferior and could be treated unequally. As evidence for their position, Du Bois and his supporters pointed to the continuing lynching of blacks and to the passage of additional segregation laws in the South. In 1905, Du Bois and other critics of Washington met in Niagara Falls, Canada, and organized a campaign to protest racial discrimination. Their campaign became known as the Niagara Movement.

Bitter hostility toward blacks erupted into several race riots during the early 1900's. Major riots broke out in Brownsville, Texas, and Atlanta, Georgia, in 1906 and in Springfield, Illinois, in 1908. The riots alarmed many white Northerners as well as many blacks. In 1909, a number of white Northerners joined some of the blacks in the Niagara Movement to form the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People
The NAACP vowed to fight for racial equality. The organization relied mainly on legal action, education, protests, and voter participation to pursue its goals.

**The black migration to the North.** The efforts of new black leaders and of the NAACP did little to end the discrimination, police brutality, and lynchings suffered by Southern blacks during the early 1900's. In addition, Southern farmers had great crop losses because of floods and insect pests. All these problems persuaded many Southern blacks to move to the North. This movement is sometimes called the “Great Migration.” During World War I (1914-1918), hundreds of thousands of Southern blacks migrated to the North to seek jobs in defense plants and other factories. The National Urban League, founded in New York City in 1910, helped the newcomers adjust to city life. About 400,000 African Americans served in the armed forces during World War I. They were put in all-black military units.

Between 1910 and 1930, about 1 million Southern blacks moved to the North. Most of them quickly discovered that the North did not offer solutions to their problems. They lacked the skills and education needed for the jobs they sought. Many of them had to become laborers or servants and thus do the same kinds of work they had done in the South. Others could find no work at all. Numerous blacks were forced to live crowded together in cheap, unsanitary, run-down housing. Large all-black slums developed in big cities throughout the North. The segregated housing promoted segregated schooling. Poverty, crime, and despair plagued the black communities, which became known as ghettos.

After World War I, race relations grew increasingly tense in the Northern cities. The hostility partly reflected the growing competition for jobs and housing between blacks and whites. In addition, many African American veterans, after fighting for democracy, returned home with expectations of justice and equality. The mounting tension helped the Ku Klux Klan recruit thousands of members in the North. In the summer of 1918, 10 people were killed and 60 were injured in racial violence in Chester and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. A series of riots erupted in the summer of 1919. By the end of the year, 25 race riots had broken out across the country. At least 100 people died and many more were injured in the riots.

**The Garvey movement** offered new hope for many African Americans deeply disturbed by the race riots of 1918 and 1919 and the economic and social injustice they encountered. The movement had begun when Marcus Garvey founded the Universal Negro Improvement Association in Jamaica in 1914. In 1917, Garvey brought the movement to Harlem, a black community in New York City. By the mid-1920's, he had established more than 700 branches of the association in 38 states.
Garvey tried to develop racial pride among blacks. But he doubted that their life in the United States would ever be much improved. As a result, Garvey urged the establishment of a new homeland in Africa for dissatisfied black Americans. His plans collapsed, however, when he was sent to prison in 1925 after having been convicted of using the mails to commit fraud.

**The Harlem Renaissance and other achievements.** The Harlem Renaissance was an outpouring of African American literature chiefly in Harlem in the early 1900's, particularly in the 1920's. It demonstrated that some blacks had acquired talents within American society which whites as well as blacks could appreciate. The writers drew their themes from the experiences of blacks in the Northern cities and the rural South. The best-known writers included James Weldon Johnson, Langston Hughes, Nella Larsen, Claude McKay, Countee Cullen, Jessie Redmon Fauset, and Jean Toomer. African American musicians also gained fame among whites as well as blacks during the early 1900's. A black bandleader named W. C. Handy, who had composed "St. Louis Blues" in 1914, became known as the father of the blues. Jazz grew out of black folk blues and ballads. The African American bandleaders Louis Armstrong and Duke Ellington became the country's leading jazz musicians.

Another noted African American of the early 1900's was the great agricultural researcher George Washington Carver. Carver created hundreds of products from peanuts, sweet potatoes, and other plants and revolutionized Southern agriculture. Other famous African Americans of the time included labor leader A. Philip Randolph; journalist Ida Wells-Barnett; singer, actor, and political activist Paul Robeson; actress Hattie McDaniel, the first African American to win an Academy Award; dancer Bill Robinson; U.S. Representative Oscar DePriest of Illinois; Olympic track and field gold medalist Jesse Owens; and heavyweight boxing champions Jack Johnson and Joe Louis.

**The Great Depression** was a worldwide business slump in the 1930's. The Depression brought hard times for most Americans, but especially for blacks, who became the chief victims of job discrimination. They adopted the slogan "Last Hired and First Fired" to express their situation.

To help ease the poverty in the ghettos, African Americans organized cooperative groups. These groups included the Colored Merchants Association in New York City and "Jobs for Negroes" organizations in St. Louis, Chicago, Cleveland, and New York City. The groups bought food and other goods in large volume to get the lowest prices. They boycotted stores that had mostly black customers but few, if any, black workers.
Most African Americans felt that President Herbert Hoover, a Republican, had done little to try to end the Depression. In the elections of 1932, some black voters deserted their traditional loyalty to the Republican Party. They no longer saw it as the party of Abraham Lincoln the emancipator but of Hoover and the Depression. In 1936, for the first time, most African Americans supported the Democratic Party candidate for president, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and helped him win reelection.

Roosevelt called his program the New Deal. It included measures of reform, relief, and recovery and benefited many blacks. A group of blacks advised Roosevelt on the problems of African Americans. This group, called the Black Cabinet, included William H. Hastie and Mary McLeod Bethune. Hastie served as assistant solicitor in the Department of the Interior, as a U.S. district court judge in the Virgin Islands, and as a civilian aide to the secretary of war. Bethune, founder of what is now Bethune-Cookman University in Daytona Beach, Florida, directed the black affairs division of a federal agency called the National Youth Administration. As a result of the New Deal, African Americans developed a strong loyalty to the Democratic Party.

African Americans deeply admired President Roosevelt's wife, Eleanor, for her stand in an incident in 1939 involving the great concert singer Marian Anderson. The Daughters of the American Revolution (DAR), an organization of women directly descended from people who fought in the American Revolution, owned Constitution Hall in Washington, D.C. The DAR denied Anderson permission to perform at Constitution Hall because she was black. Eleanor Roosevelt then resigned from the DAR and helped arrange for Anderson to sing, instead, at the Lincoln Memorial on Easter Sunday. Over 75,000 blacks and whites attended the concert.

During the early 1940's, the NAACP stepped up its legal campaign against racial discrimination. The campaign achieved a number of important victories, including several favorable rulings by the U.S. Supreme Court. In 1941, for example, the court ruled that separate facilities for white and black railroad passengers must be significantly equal. In 1944, the court declared that the white primary, which excluded blacks from voting in the only meaningful elections in the South, was unconstitutional.

Besides taking legal action, African Americans used new tactics to attack segregation in public places. In 1943, for example, the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) launched a sit-in at a Chicago restaurant. In this protest, blacks sat in places reserved for white people.
World War II (1939-1945) opened up new economic opportunities for African Americans. Like World War I, it led to expanding defense-related industries and encouraged many rural Southern blacks to seek jobs in Northern industrial cities. During the 1940’s, about a million Southern blacks moved to the North. Discrimination again prevented many of them from getting work. In 1941, blacks led by A. Philip Randolph of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters threatened to march in Washington, D.C., to protest job discrimination. President Roosevelt then issued an executive order forbidding racial discrimination in defense industries.

Nearly 1 million African Americans served in the U.S. armed services during World War II, mostly in segregated units. In 1940, Benjamin O. Davis became the first black brigadier general in the U.S. Army. His son, Benjamin O. Davis, Jr., later became the first black lieutenant general in the Air Force. Desegregation of the armed forces began on a trial basis during the war. It became a permanent policy in 1948.

The Civil Rights Movement

The beginning. After World War II, three major factors encouraged the beginning of a new movement for civil rights. First, many African Americans had served with honor in the war. Black leaders pointed to the records of these veterans to show the injustice of racial discrimination against patriots. Second, African Americans in the urban North had made economic gains, increased their education, and registered to vote. Third, the NAACP had attracted many new members and received increased financial support from whites and blacks. It also included a new group of bright young lawyers.

Rulings by the U.S. Supreme Court during the 1940’s and 1950’s brought major victories for African Americans. In several decisions between 1948 and 1951, the court ruled that separate higher education facilities for blacks must be equal to those for whites. Largely because of federal court rulings, laws permitting racial discrimination in housing and recreation also began to be struck down. Many of these rulings came in cases brought by the NAACP. An increasing number of blacks began to move into all-white areas of Northern cities. Many whites then moved out of the cities to suburbs.

The NAACP and the NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund won a historic victory in 1954. That year, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in the case of Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka that segregation in the public schools was in itself unequal and thus unconstitutional. The suit had been filed because the school board had not allowed a black student named Linda Brown to attend an all-white school near her home. The court’s decision rejected the separate but equal ruling of 1896 and inspired African Americans to strike out against other discrimination, particularly in public places.
In 1955, Emmett Till, a black teenager, was beaten and killed while visiting Money, Mississippi. Two white men were charged with the murder but were acquitted by an all-white jury. The men later admitted to the crime. Till's murder sparked widespread outrage and led to increased support for the civil rights movement.

Rosa Parks, a seamstress and civil rights activist in Montgomery, Alabama, became a symbol of African Americans' bold new action to attain their civil rights. In 1955, she was arrested for disobeying a city law that required blacks to give up their bus seats when white people wished to sit in their seats or in the same row. Montgomery's blacks protested her arrest by refusing to ride the buses. Their protest lasted 382 days, ending when the U.S. Supreme Court declared segregated seating on the city's buses unconstitutional. The boycott became the first organized mass protest by blacks in Southern history. It also focused national attention on its leader, Martin Luther King, Jr., a Montgomery Baptist minister.

Many Southern communities acted slowly in desegregating their public schools. Governor Orval E. Faubus of Arkansas symbolized Southern resistance. In 1957, he defied a federal court order to integrate Little Rock Central High School. Faubus sent the Arkansas National Guard to prevent black students from entering the school, but President Dwight D. Eisenhower used federal troops to enforce the court order.

**The growing movement.** In 1957, King and other black Southern clergymen formed the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) to coordinate the work of civil rights groups. King urged African Americans to use peaceful means to achieve their goals. In 1960, a group of black and white college students organized the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) to help in the civil rights movement. They joined with young people from the SCLC, CORE, and the NAACP in staging sit-ins, boycotts, marches, and freedom rides (bus rides to test the enforcement of desegregation in interstate transportation). During the early 1960's, the combined efforts of the civil rights groups ended discrimination in many public places, including restaurants, hotels, theaters, and cemeteries.

Numerous cities and towns remained unaffected by the civil rights movement. African American leaders therefore felt the United States needed a clear, strong federal policy that would erase the remaining discrimination in public places. To attract national attention to that need, King and such other leaders as A. Philip Randolph, Bayard Rustin, Roy Wilkins of the NAACP, James L. Farmer of CORE, and Whitney M. Young, Jr., of the Urban League organized a march in Washington, D.C., in August 1963. About
250,000 people, including many whites, took part in what was called the March on Washington.

A high point of the March on Washington was a stirring speech by King. He told the crowd that he had a dream that one day all Americans would enjoy equality and justice. Afterward, President John F. Kennedy proposed strong laws to protect the civil rights of all U.S. citizens. But many people, particularly Southerners, opposed such legislation.

Kennedy was assassinated in November 1963, and Vice President Lyndon B. Johnson became president. Johnson persuaded Congress to pass Kennedy's proposed laws in the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This act prohibited racial discrimination in public places and called for equal opportunity in employment and education. King won the 1964 Nobel Peace Prize for leading nonviolent demonstrations for civil rights.

African American celebrities not directly involved with civil rights groups also contributed to the growing civil rights movement. Author James Baldwin criticized white Americans for their prejudice against blacks. Other noted African Americans who promoted civil rights causes included boxer Muhammad Ali, singer Harry Belafonte, dancer Katherine Dunham, comedian Dick Gregory, gospel singer Mahalia Jackson, and artist Charles White.

**Political gains.** In the South, many elected officials and police officers refused to enforce court rulings and federal laws that gave blacks equality. In some cases, this opposition extended to the right to vote.

In 1965, a major dispute over voting rights broke out in Selma, Alabama. King had gone there in January to assist African Americans seeking the right to vote. He was joined by many blacks and whites from throughout the country. In the next two months, at least three people were killed and hundreds were beaten as opposition to King's efforts increased. Authorities continued to deny blacks their voting rights. In late March, King began leading about 3,200 people, guarded by federal troops, from Selma to Montgomery. By the time the marchers reached the Montgomery State Capitol Building, the crowd had grown to 25,000. There, King demanded that African Americans be given the right to vote without unjust restrictions.

Largely as a result of the activities in Selma, Congress passed the Voting Rights Act of 1965. The act banned the use of a literacy test as a requirement to vote. The law also ordered the U.S. attorney general to begin court action that ended the use of a poll tax as a voting requirement. In places where voter registration had been unjustly denied, the Voting Rights Act provided for federal officials to supervise voter registration. The
law also forbade major changes in voting laws without approval of the U.S. attorney general. The act gave the vote to hundreds of thousands of Southern blacks who had never voted. It thus led to a large increase in the number of black elected officials.

African Americans began to take an increasingly important role in the national government during the mid-1900's. In 1950, U.S. diplomat Ralph J. Bunche became the first black person to win the Nobel Peace Prize. In 1966, Robert C. Weaver became the first black Cabinet member as secretary of housing and urban development. In 1967, Thurgood Marshall became the first black justice on the Supreme Court. In 1969, Shirley Chisholm of New York became the first black woman to serve in the U.S. House of Representatives.

**Economic and social progress.** In 1965, President Johnson declared that it was not enough simply to end *de jure* segregation—that is, separation of the races by law. It was also necessary to eliminate *de facto* segregation—that is, racial separation in fact and based largely on custom. Johnson called for programs of "affirmative action" that would offer blacks equal opportunity with whites in areas where discrimination had a long history and still existed. Many businesses and schools then began to adopt affirmative action programs. These programs, some of which were ordered by the federal government, gave hundreds of thousands of blacks new economic and educational opportunities.

The new economic opportunities enabled many African Americans to increase their incomes significantly during the mid-1900's. This development, in turn, greatly expanded the black middle class.

Racial barriers fell in several professional sports and in the arts during the mid-1900's. In 1947, Jackie Robinson of the Brooklyn Dodgers became the first black player in modern major league baseball. He had an outstanding career and became a national hero. Other black sports heroes of the mid-1900's included Willie Mays, Hank Aaron, and Frank Robinson in baseball; Jim Brown and Gale Sayers in football; and Oscar Robertson, Bill Russell, and Wilt Chamberlain in basketball. In 1966, Russell became the first black head coach in major league professional sports. He was named coach of the Boston Celtics of the National Basketball Association.

In the arts, Gwendolyn Brooks became the first African American to win a Pulitzer Prize. She received the award in 1950 for a collection of poems titled *Annie Allen*. In 1955, Marian Anderson became the first black person to sing a leading role with the Metropolitan Opera in New York City. In 1958, Alvin Ailey formed one of the finest dance companies in the United States. In 1963, Sidney Poitier became the first African American...
American to win the Academy Award for a leading role when he won the best actor award for Lilies of the Field.

**Unrest in the cities.** Since the start of the civil rights movement, various court decisions, laws, and protests had removed great legal injustices long suffered by African Americans. But many blacks continued to be discriminated against in jobs, law enforcement, and housing. They saw little change in the long-held racist attitudes of numerous white Americans.

During the 1960’s, unrest among blacks living in urban ghettos exploded into a series of riots that shook the nation. The first riot occurred in Harlem in the summer of 1964. In August 1965, 34 people died and almost 900 were injured in an outburst in the black ghetto of Watts in Los Angeles. During the next two summers, major riots erupted in numerous cities across the nation.

The race riots puzzled many people because they came at a time when African Americans had made huge gains in the campaign for full freedom. In 1967, President Johnson established a commission headed by Governor Otto Kerner of Illinois to study the causes of the outbreaks. In its March 1968 report, the Kerner Commission put much of the blame on racial prejudice of whites. It said that the average black American was still poorly housed, poorly clothed, underpaid, and undereducated. African Americans, the report said, still often suffered from segregation, police abuse, and other forms of discrimination. The commission recommended vast programs to improve ghetto conditions and called for greater changes in the racial attitudes of white Americans.

Less than a month after the Kerner Commission report was issued, race riots broke out in at least 100 black communities across the nation. The rioting followed the assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr., on April 4 in Memphis, Tenn. James Earl Ray, a white drifter, was convicted of the crime and sentenced to 99 years in prison. King’s murder helped President Johnson persuade Congress to approve the Civil Rights Act of 1968. This law, also known in part as the Fair Housing Act of 1968, prohibited racial discrimination in the sale and rental of most of the housing in the nation.

**Black militancy.** During the height of the civil rights movement, some blacks claimed that it was almost impossible to change white racial attitudes. They saw the movement as meaningless and urged blacks to live apart from whites and, in some cases, to use violence to preserve their rights. Groups promoting these ideas included the Black Muslims, the Black Panthers, and members of the Black Power Movement.
The Black Muslims had been led since 1934 by Elijah Muhammad, who called whites "devils." He also criticized racial integration and urged formation of an all-black nation within the United States. But the most eloquent spokesman for the Black Muslims during the 1950's and 1960's was Malcolm X. Malcolm wanted to unite black people throughout the world. He was assassinated in 1965 after forming a new organization to pursue his goal. Three black men, at least two of whom were Black Muslims, were convicted of the murder.

The Black Panther Party was founded in 1966. Its two main founders, Huey P. Newton and Bobby Seale, had been inspired by Malcolm X. At first, the party favored violent revolution as the only way to end police actions that many blacks considered brutal and to provide opportunities for blacks in jobs and other areas. The Panthers had many clashes with police and others. Later, the party became less militant and worked to achieve full employment for blacks and other peaceful goals.

The Black Power Movement developed in 1966 after James H. Meredith, the first African American to attend the University of Mississippi, was shot during a march. The shooting and other racial violence made Stokely Carmichael, H. Rap Brown, and other members of the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) doubt the sincerity of white support for black rights. Such doubts prompted SNCC to expel its white members.

Carmichael and other African Americans called for a campaign to achieve "Black Power." They urged blacks to gain political and economic control of their own communities and to reject the values of whites. The leaders stressed that "black is beautiful" and called on blacks to form their own standards. They suggested that black Americans no longer refer to themselves as Negroes or colored people but as blacks, African Americans, or Afro-Americans.

**Developments since 1970.** African Americans have achieved great progress in education and politics since the 1970's. Many blacks have also won great recognition in such fields as sports and the arts.

**Education.** From 1970 to the first decade of the 2000's, college enrollments among African Americans rose from about half a million to about 2 million students. This gain resulted in part from affirmative action programs by predominantly white colleges and universities. By the first decade of the 2000's, about 20 percent of all blacks had received a bachelor's degree.
A black studies movement emerged on college campuses throughout the nation during the 1970's and drew increasing attention to the heritage of African Americans. In addition, black musical and theater groups and African American museums were established in almost every U.S. city with a fairly large black population.

In the 1980's and 1990's, courses of study based on an approach called Afrocentrism gained popularity. These courses aimed to teach the culture and history of Africans and African Americans. Educators soon developed a broader curriculum called multicultural education, designed to help students from all backgrounds appreciate diverse cultures and peoples. Most of the programs emphasize the past and present accomplishments of African Americans and other groups. Educators think it is important to recognize the injustices that have sometimes been suffered by African Americans and other minority groups. Many educators also believe that such teaching builds the self-esteem of African American children and improves their success in school.

Another trend in education is the growing acceptance of African American English (AAE), a variation of English spoken by many black Americans. AAE is also called black English or Ebonics (ee BAHN ihks). Educators have developed courses to teach the grammatical rules, pronunciation, and vocabulary of AAE. A knowledge of AAE can help teachers improve their instruction of African American students. Some schools also employ it as an aid in the teaching of standard English.

**Affirmative action.** Supreme Court decisions from the 1970's to the early 2000's sharply limited affirmative action programs. In 1978, the court ruled that racial quotas could not be used in admitting students to colleges and universities. In 1995, it ruled that federal programs requiring preferences based on race are unconstitutional unless preferences are designed to make up for specific instances of past discrimination. This meant that affirmative action could no longer be used to counteract racial discrimination by society as a whole. In 1989, the court had made a similar decision regarding state and local affirmative action programs.

The 1995 ruling was supported by Supreme Court Justice Clarence Thomas, an African American who replaced Thurgood Marshall on the court when Marshall retired in 1991. Thomas had long been an outspoken opponent of affirmative action. He based his opposition on the principle that the government may not treat individuals differently based on race. Many other blacks, however, continued to believe that broad affirmative action programs were needed to help minorities overcome past discrimination and eventually compete on an equal basis with whites. In 2003, the Supreme Court ruled that, within certain limits, colleges and universities could use race as a factor in selecting students for admission.
Politics. Many African American leaders stressed the use of political means to solve the problems of blacks. They urged more African Americans to vote and to run for public office. The Voting Rights Act of 1965 led to the removal of restrictions on voting in most places. As a result, African Americans helped elect a greater number of blacks to public offices. In 1973, for example, Tom Bradley was elected the first black mayor of Los Angeles.

African Americans gained considerable influence in the administration of Jimmy Carter, who was president of the United States from 1977 to 1981. Under him, Andrew Young became the first black U.S. ambassador to the United Nations (UN). Carter named Patricia Roberts Harris secretary of housing and urban development. She was the first black woman to hold a Cabinet post.

In 1984 and 1988, Jesse L. Jackson, a black civil rights leader and Baptist minister, waged a strong campaign to register new black voters and win the Democratic presidential nomination. Jackson failed to win the nomination, but he became a hero to many African Americans.

In the 1990's, many African Americans focused on self-help programs to deal with crime, drug abuse, poverty, and substandard education. For example, in 1995, hundreds of thousands of black men marched in Washington, D.C., to declare their determination to improve conditions in black communities. Crowd estimates ranged from 400,000 to more than a million. The event, called the Million Man March, was organized chiefly by Louis Farrakhan, leader of the Nation of Islam, a Black Muslim group.

Current challenges. Despite the considerable progress that African Americans have made since the civil rights movement began, many blacks continue to face economic struggles and other challenges. The black middle class has expanded, but other African Americans live at the extremes of both wealth and poverty. Black entertainers and athletes have become enormously wealthy in the decades since the 1960’s. But a significant number of blacks remain poor, isolated, and vulnerable to disease, drugs, crime, discrimination, and racism.

Housing and lending discrimination. Although housing discrimination occurs far less frequently than in the past, African Americans often live in the poorest communities with the least resources. Lenders often charge blacks higher interest on mortgage loans than whites. Higher monthly payments sometimes mean severe economic strain for struggling black families. During the economic recession of the first decade of the 2000’s, a large number of African Americans faced the risk of losing their homes to
foreclosure. Many blacks became the victims of dishonest lending agencies that were more interested in selling houses than in the ability of their clients to pay for them.

**Health issues.** A large number of blacks have suffered from diseases associated with poverty, lack of education, and limited access to health care. Black Americans are nearly 10 times more likely than whites to contract HIV/AIDS. By the 2000’s, about half of newly diagnosed HIV/AIDS patients in the United States were African Americans.

Black Americans are also more likely to have diabetes than non-Hispanic whites are. In the first decade of the 2000’s, more than 10 percent of all African Americans aged 20 years or older had the disease. In addition, black American children and adults are three times more likely than whites to be hospitalized for asthma and to die from asthma. Substandard housing, resulting in increased exposure to certain indoor allergens (substances that cause allergies), contributes to some blacks' increased risk of asthma.

**Social struggles.** Reductions in government spending have led to cutbacks in education and social programs, often hitting poor black communities the hardest. In addition, changes in the U.S. economy, including the decline of manufacturing, have contributed to high unemployment rates among African Americans. A high dropout rate in schools leaves many young people unprepared for new types of well-paying jobs requiring technical skills. Unemployment and poverty are often linked with criminal behavior, and in these situations, African American males are especially at risk. Black-on-black violence—much of it gang-related—continues to plague poorer African American communities.

In 1980, about 145,000 African American men were in prison. Twenty-five years later, there were about four times that many. Many social scientists believed that a major cause of this increase in the imprisonment rate was a U.S. government policy called the War on Drugs. The War on Drugs, begun in the 1970’s, sought to reduce the illegal drug trade by imposing mandatory (required) prison sentences for drug possession. Some social scientists also saw racial bias in new laws imposing stiffer sentences for crack cocaine than for powder cocaine. Crack cocaine is a form of cocaine that is smoked, and it is more likely to be used by blacks. Powder cocaine is usually snorted through the nose or injected, and it is more likely to be used by whites. In 2010, Congress passed a law that brought federal crack cocaine sentences in line with those for powder cocaine.

**Race relations.** In 1992, riots broke out in Los Angeles and other U.S. cities. The riots erupted after a jury decided not to convict four white police officers of assaulting an African American motorist named Rodney G. King. No African Americans had served on
the jury. The jury's decision shocked many people because a videotape showing the officers beating King had been broadcast by TV stations throughout the country. Many blacks felt the trial proved that the U.S. court system treated blacks unfairly. Fifty-three people died and over 4,000 were injured in the Los Angeles riots. Later that year, all four officers were indicted under federal laws for violating King's civil rights. Two of the officers were convicted in 1993.

Barack Obama’s election to the presidency in 2008 was a historic milestone. His election stood as an example of the progress that came from the civil rights movement. Many Americans became hopeful that racism had diminished in the United States. Despite this progress, racial tensions still lingered. Black Americans continue to encounter racism in many areas of society. The problems confronting the African American community, especially its poorest members, seemed likely to persist for years to come.

Source:
http://www.worldbookonline.com/advanced/article?id=ar006745&st=black+history
1619
Newspaper advertisement from the 1780s
The first African slaves arrive in Virginia.

1746
Lucy Terry, an enslaved person in 1746, becomes the earliest known black American poet when she writes about the last American Indian attack on her village of Deerfield, Massachusetts. Her poem, “Bar's Fight,” is not published until 1855.

1773
An illustration of Phillis Wheatley from her book
Phillis Wheatley's book Poems on Various Subjects, Religious and Moral is published, making her the first African American to do so.
1787  Slavery is made illegal in the Northwest Territory. The U.S Constitution states that Congress may not ban the slave trade until 1808.

1793  Eli Whitney's invention of the cotton gin greatly increases the demand for slave labor.

1793  Poster advertising $100 reward for runaway slaves from 1860

1800  Gabriel Prosser, an enslaved African-American blacksmith, organizes a slave revolt intending to march on Richmond, Virginia. The plan is uncovered, and Prosser and a number of the rebels are hanged.

1808  Congress stops the importation of slaves from Africa.

1820  The Missouri Compromise bans slavery north of the southern boundary of Missouri.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1822</td>
<td>Denmark Vesey plans a slave revolt in Charleston, South Carolina. The plot is discovered, and Vesey and 34 others are hanged.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1831</td>
<td>Nat Turner, an enslaved African-American preacher, leads the most significant slave uprising in American history. He and his band of followers launch a short, bloody, rebellion in Southampton County, Virginia. The rebellion is stopped, and Turner is eventually hanged. William Lloyd Garrison begins publishing The Liberator, a weekly paper that calls for the end of slavery. He becomes one of the most famous figures in the abolitionist movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1839</td>
<td>On July 2, 1839, 53 African slaves on board the slave ship the Amistad revolted against their captors, killing all but the ship's navigator, who sailed them to Long Island, N.Y., instead of their intended destination, Africa. Joseph Cinqué was the group's leader. After several trials in which local and federal courts argued that the slaves were taken as kidnap victims rather than merchandise, the slaves were acquitted. The former slaves aboard the Spanish vessel Amistad secured passage home to Africa in 1842.</td>
</tr>
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1846
Frederick Douglass
Frederick Douglass launches his abolitionist newspaper.

1849
Harriet Tubman
Harriet Tubman escapes from slavery and becomes one of the most effective and celebrated leaders of the Underground Railroad.
1850  The continuing debate whether territory gained in the Mexican War should be open to slavery is decided in the Compromise of 1850: California is admitted as a free state, Utah and New Mexico territories are left to be decided by popular sovereignty, and the slave trade in Washington, DC, is prohibited. It also establishes a much stricter fugitive slave law than the original, passed in 1793.

1852  Harriet Beecher Stowe

Harriet Beecher Stowe's novel, *Uncle Tom's Cabin* is published. It becomes one of the most influential books to encourage the end to slavery.

1854  Congress passes the Kansas-Nebraska Act, establishing the territories of Kansas and Nebraska. The legislation repeals the Missouri Compromise of 1820 and renews tensions between anti- and proslavery factions.
1857

The Dred Scott case holds that Congress does not have the right to ban slavery in states and that slaves are not citizens.

1859

John Brown and 21 followers capture the federal arsenal at Harpers Ferry, Va. (now W. Va.), in an attempt to launch a slave revolt.

1861

The Confederacy is founded when the deep South secedes from the U.S., and the Civil War begins.
1863

President Lincoln issues the Emancipation Proclamation, declaring "that all persons held as slaves" within the Confederate states "are, and henceforward shall be free."

1865

Congress establishes the Freedmen's Bureau to protect the rights of newly emancipated blacks (March).

The Civil War ends (April 9).

Lincoln is assassinated (April 14).

The Ku Klux Klan is formed in Tennessee by ex-Confederates (May).

Slavery in the United States is effectively ended when 250,000 slaves in Texas finally receive the news that the Civil War had ended two months earlier (June 19).

Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution is ratified, prohibiting slavery (Dec.6).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>1865-1866</td>
<td>Black codes (laws) are passed by Southern states, drastically restricting the rights of newly freed slaves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1867</td>
<td>A series of Reconstruction acts are passed, guaranteeing the civil rights of freed slaves.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1868</td>
<td>Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution is ratified, defining citizenship. Individuals born or naturalized in the United States are American citizens, including those born as slaves. This nullifies the Dred Scott Case (1857), which had ruled that blacks were not citizens.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1869</td>
<td>Howard University’s law school becomes the country’s first black law school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution is ratified, giving blacks the right to vote. Hiram Revels of Mississippi is elected the country’s first African-American senator. During Reconstruction, sixteen blacks served in Congress and about 600 served in states legislatures.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1877    Reconstruction ends in the South. Federal attempts to provide some basic civil rights for African Americans quickly erode.

1879    The Black Exodus takes place, in which tens of thousands of African Americans migrated from southern states to Kansas.

1881    Spelman College, the first college for black women in the U.S., is founded by Sophia B. Packard and Harriet E. Giles.

      Booker T. Washington founds the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute in Alabama. The school becomes one of the leading schools of higher learning for African Americans, and stresses the practical application of knowledge. In 1896, George Washington Carver begins teaching there as director of the department of agricultural research, gaining an international reputation for his agricultural advances.

1882    The American Colonization Society, founded by Presbyterian minister Robert Finley, establishes the colony of Monrovia (which would eventually become the country of Liberia) in western Africa. The society contends that the immigration of blacks to Africa is an answer to the problem of slavery as well as to what it feels is the incompatibility of the races. Over the course of the next forty years, about 12,000 slaves are voluntarily relocated.

1896    Plessy v. Ferguson: This landmark Supreme Court decision holds that racial segregation is constitutional, paving the way for the repressive Jim Crow laws in the South.
1905  W.E.B. DuBois founds the Niagara movement, a forerunner to the NAACP. The movement is formed in part as a protest to Booker T. Washington's policy of accommodation to white society; the Niagara movement embraces a more radical approach, calling for immediate equality in all areas of American life.

1909  W.E.B. Du Bois

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People is founded in New York by prominent black and white intellectuals and led by W.E.B. Du Bois. For the next half century, it would serve as the country's most influential African-American civil rights organization, dedicated to political equality and social justice.

1914  Marcus Garvey establishes the Universal Negro Improvement Association, an influential black nationalist organization "to promote the spirit of race pride" and create a sense of worldwide unity among blacks.

1920s  The Harlem Renaissance flourishes in the 1920s and 1930s. This literary, artistic, and intellectual movement fosters a new black cultural identity.
1947

Jackie Robinson

Jackie Robinson becomes Major League Baseball's first African American player when he is signed to the Brooklyn Dodgers by Branch Rickey.

1948

WWI Black Soldiers

Although African Americans had participated in every major U.S. war, it was not until after World War II that President Harry S. Truman issues an executive order integrating the U.S. armed forces.
1952  Malcolm X becomes a minister of the Nation of Islam. Over the next several years his influence increases until he is one of the two most powerful members of the Black Muslims (the other was its leader, Elijah Muhammad). A black nationalist and separatist movement, the Nation of Islam contends that only blacks can resolve the problems of blacks.

1954  Pictured from left to right: George E.C. Hayes, Thurgood Marshall, and James Nabrit

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kans. declares that racial segregation in schools is unconstitutional (May 17).

1955  Rosa Parks

A young black boy, Emmett Till, is brutally murdered for allegedly whistling at a white woman in Mississippi. Two white men charged with the crime are acquitted by an all-white jury. They later boast about committing the murder. The public outrage generated by the case helps spur the civil rights movement (Aug.).
Rosa Parks refuses to give up her seat at the front of the "colored section" of a bus to a white passenger (Dec. 1). In response to her arrest Montgomery's black community launch a successful year-long bus boycott. Montgomery's buses are desegregated on Dec. 21, 1956.

1957

The Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), a civil rights group, is established by Martin Luther King, Charles K. Steele, and Fred L. Shuttlesworth (Jan.-Feb.)

Nine black students are blocked from entering the school on the orders of Governor Orval Faubus. (Sept. 24). Federal troops and the National Guard are called to intervene on behalf of the students, who become known as the "Little Rock Nine." Despite a year of violent threats, several of the "Little Rock Nine" manage to graduate from Central High.

1960

Four black students in Greensboro, North Carolina, begin a sit-in at a segregated Woolworth's lunch counter (Feb. 1). Six months later the "Greensboro Four" are served lunch at the same Woolworth's counter. The event triggers many similar nonviolent protests throughout the South.

The Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) is founded, providing young blacks with a place in the civil rights movement (April).

1961

Over the spring and summer, student volunteers begin taking bus trips through the South to test out new laws that prohibit segregation in interstate travel facilities, which includes bus and railway stations. Several of the
groups of "freedom riders," as they are called, are attacked by angry mobs along the way. The program, sponsored by The Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) and the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), involves more than 1,000 volunteers, black and white.

1962

James Meredith

James Meredith becomes the first black student to enroll at the University of Mississippi (Oct. 1). President Kennedy sends 5,000 federal troops after rioting breaks out.

1963

Martin Luther King, Jr.

Martin Luther King is arrested and jailed during anti-segregation protests in Birmingham, Ala. He writes "Letter from Birmingham Jail," which advocated nonviolent civil disobedience.
The March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom is attended by about 250,000 people, the largest demonstration ever seen in the nation's capital. Martin Luther King delivers his famous "I Have a Dream" speech. The march builds momentum for civil rights legislation (Aug. 28).

Despite Governor George Wallace physically blocking their way, Vivian Malone and James Hood register for classes at the University of Alabama.

Four young black girls attending Sunday school are killed when a bomb explodes at the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church, a popular location for civil rights meetings. Riots erupt in Birmingham, leading to the deaths of two more black youths (Sept. 15).

1964

![FBI photographs of Andrew Goodman, James Earl Chaney, and Michael Schwerner](image)

President Johnson signs the Civil Rights Act, the most sweeping civil rights legislation since Reconstruction. It prohibits discrimination of all kinds based on race, color, religion, or national origin (July 2).

The bodies of three civil-rights workers are found. Murdered by the KKK, James E. Chaney, Andrew Goodman, and Michael Schwerner had been working to register black voters in Mississippi (Aug.).

Martin Luther King receives the Nobel Peace Prize. (Oct.)
Sidney Poitier wins the Best Actor Oscar for his role in Lilies of the Field. He is the first African American to win the award.

1965

Malcolm X

Malcolm X, black nationalist and founder of the Organization of Afro-American Unity, is assassinated (Feb. 21).

State troopers violently attack peaceful demonstrators led by Rev. Martin Luther King, Jr., as they try to cross the Pettus Bridge in Selma, Ala. Fifty marchers are hospitalized on "Bloody Sunday," after police use tear gas, whips, and clubs against them. The march is considered the catalyst for pushing through the voting rights act five months later (March 7).

Congress passes the Voting Rights Act of 1965, making it easier for Southern blacks to register to vote. Literacy tests, poll taxes, and other such requirements that were used to restrict black voting are made illegal (Aug. 10).

In six days of rioting in Watts, a black section of Los Angeles, 35 people are killed and 883 injured (Aug. 11-16).
1966

Members of The Black Panthers Party: Bobby Seale and Huey Newton

The Black Panthers are founded by Huey Newton and Bobby Seale (Oct.).

1967

Supreme Court Justice Thurgood Marshall

Stokely Carmichael, a leader of the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), coins the phrase "black power" in a speech in Seattle (April 19).

Major race riots take place in Newark (July 12-16) and Detroit (July 23-30).

President Johnson appoints Thurgood Marshall to the Supreme Court. He becomes the first black Supreme Court Justice.

The Supreme Court rules in Loving v. Virginia that prohibiting interracial marriage is unconstitutional. Sixteen states still have anti-miscegenation laws and are forced to revise them.
**1968**

Eyewitnesses to the assassination of Martin Luther King, Jr.

Martin Luther King, Jr., is assassinated in Memphis, Tenn. (April 4).

President Johnson signs the Civil Rights Act of 1968, prohibiting discrimination in the sale, rental, and financing of housing (April 11).

Shirley Chisholm becomes the first black female U.S. Representative. A Democrat from New York, she was elected in November and served from 1969 to 1983.

**1972**

The infamous Tuskegee Syphilis experiment ends. Begun in 1932, the U.S. Public Health Service's 40-year experiment on 399 black men in the late stages of syphilis has been described as an experiment that "used human beings as laboratory animals in a long and inefficient study of how long it takes syphilis to kill someone."

**1978**

The Supreme Court case, Regents of the University of California v. Bakke upheld the constitutionality of affirmative action, but imposed limitations on it to ensure that providing greater opportunities for minorities did not come at the expense of the rights of the majority (June 28).

**1983**

Guion Bluford Jr. was the first African-American in space. He took off from Kennedy Space Center in Florida on the space shuttle Challenger on August 30.
1992 The first race riots in decades erupt in south-central Los Angeles after a jury acquits four white police officers for the videotaped beating of African-American Rodney King (April 29).

2001 Colin Powell becomes the first African American U.S. Secretary of State.

2002 Halle Berry becomes the first African American woman to win the Best Actress Oscar. She takes home the statue for her role in Monster's Ball. Denzel Washington, the star of Training Day, earns the Best Actor award, making it the first year that African-Americans win both the best actor and actress Oscars.

2003 In Grutter v. Bollinger, the most important affirmative action decision since the 1978 Bakke case, the Supreme Court (5–4) upholds the University of Michigan Law School's policy, ruling that race can be one of many factors considered by colleges when selecting their students because it furthers "a compelling interest in obtaining the educational benefits that flow from a diverse student body." (June 23)

2005 Condoleezza Rice becomes the first black female U.S. Secretary of State.
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>In <em>Parents v. Seattle</em> and <em>Meredith v. Jefferson</em>, affirmative action suffers a setback when a bitterly divided court rules, 5 to 4, that programs in Seattle and Louisville, Ky., which tried to maintain diversity in schools by considering race when assigning students to schools, are unconstitutional.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2008 | Sen. Barack Obama, Democrat from Chicago, becomes the first African American to be nominated as a major party nominee for president.  
On November 4, Barack Obama, becomes the first African American to be elected president of the United States, defeating Republican candidate, Sen. John McCain. |
| 2009 | Barack Obama Democrat from Chicago, becomes the first African-American president and the country's 44th president.  
On February 2, the U.S. Senate confirms, with a vote of 75 to 21, Eric H. Holder, Jr., as Attorney General of the United States. Holder is the first African American to serve as Attorney General. |

Civil Rights Timeline - Milestones in the Modern Civil Rights Movement
by Borgna Brunner and Elissa Haney

1948  July 26
President Truman signs Executive Order 9981, which states, "It is hereby declared to be the policy of the President that there shall be equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services without regard to race, color, religion, or national origin."

1954  May 17
The Supreme Court rules on the landmark case Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kans., unanimously agreeing that segregation in public schools is unconstitutional. The ruling paves the way for large-scale desegregation. The decision overturns the 1896 Plessy v. Ferguson ruling that sanctioned "separate but equal" segregation of the races, ruling that "separate educational facilities are inherently unequal." It is a victory for NAACP attorney Thurgood Marshall, who will later return to the Supreme Court as the nation's first black justice.

1955  Aug.
Fourteen-year-old Chicagoan Emmett Till is visiting family in Mississippi when he is kidnapped, brutally beaten, shot, and dumped in the Tallahatchie River for allegedly whistling at a white woman. Two white men, J. W. Milam and Roy Bryant, are arrested for the murder and acquitted by an all-white jury. They later boast about committing the murder in a Look magazine interview. The case becomes a cause célèbre of the civil rights movement.

Dec. 1
(Montgomery, Ala.) NAACP member Rosa Parks refuses to give up her seat at the front of the "colored section" of a bus to a white passenger, defying a southern custom of the time. In response to her arrest the Montgomery black community launches a bus boycott, which will last for more than a year, until the buses are desegregated Dec. 21, 1956. As newly elected president of the Montgomery Improvement Association (MIA), Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr., is instrumental in leading the boycott.
1957  
**Jan.–Feb.**

Martin Luther King, Charles K. Steele, and Fred L. Shuttlesworth establish the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, of which King is made the first president. The SCLC becomes a major force in organizing the civil rights movement and bases its principles on nonviolence and civil disobedience. According to King, it is essential that the civil rights movement not sink to the level of the racists and hatemongers who oppose them: "We must forever conduct our struggle on the high plane of dignity and discipline," he urges.

**Sept.**

(Little Rock, Ark.) Formerly all-white Central High School learns that integration is easier said than done. Nine black students are blocked from entering the school on the orders of Governor Orval Faubus. President Eisenhower sends federal troops and the National Guard to intervene on behalf of the students, who become known as the "Little Rock Nine."

1960  
**Feb. 1**

(Greensboro, N.C.) Four black students from North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College begin a sit-in at a segregated Woolworth's lunch counter. Although they are refused service, they are allowed to stay at the counter. The event triggers many similar nonviolent protests throughout the South. Six months later the original four protesters are served lunch at the same Woolworth's counter. Student sit-ins would be effective throughout the Deep South in integrating parks, swimming pools, theaters, libraries, and other public facilities.

**April**

(Raleigh, N.C.) The Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) is founded at Shaw University, providing young blacks with a place in the civil rights movement. The SNCC later grows into a more radical organization, especially under the leadership of Stokely Carmichael (1966–1967).

1961  
**May 4**

Over the spring and summer, student volunteers begin taking bus trips through the South to test out new laws that prohibit segregation in interstate travel facilities, which includes bus and railway stations. Several of the groups of "freedom riders," as they are called, are attacked by angry mobs along the way. The program, sponsored by The Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) and the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), involves more than 1,000 volunteers, black and white.
### 1962

**Oct. 1**

James Meredith becomes the first black student to enroll at the University of Mississippi. Violence and riots surrounding the incident cause President Kennedy to send 5,000 federal troops.

### 1963

**April 16**

Martin Luther King is arrested and jailed during anti-segregation protests in Birmingham, Ala.; he writes his seminal "Letter from Birmingham Jail," arguing that individuals have the moral duty to disobey unjust laws.

**May**

During civil rights protests in Birmingham, Ala., Commissioner of Public Safety Eugene "Bull" Connor uses fire hoses and police dogs on black demonstrators. These images of brutality, which are televised and published widely, are instrumental in gaining sympathy for the civil rights movement around the world.

**June 12**

(Jackson, Miss.) Mississippi’s NAACP field secretary, 37-year-old Medgar Evers, is murdered outside his home. Byron De La Beckwith is tried twice in 1964, both trials resulting in hung juries. Thirty years later he is convicted for murdering Evers.

**Aug. 28**

(Washington, D.C.) About 200,000 people join the March on Washington. Congregating at the Lincoln Memorial, participants listen as Martin Luther King delivers his famous "I Have a Dream" speech.

**Sept. 15**

(Birmingham, Ala.) Four young girls (Denise McNair, Cynthia Wesley, Carole Robertson, and Addie Mae Collins) attending Sunday school are killed when a bomb explodes at the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church, a popular location for civil rights meetings. Riots erupt in Birmingham, leading to the deaths of two more black youths.
1964

Jan. 23
The 24th Amendment abolishes the poll tax, which originally had been instituted in 11 southern states after Reconstruction to make it difficult for poor blacks to vote.

Summer
The Council of Federated Organizations (COFO), a network of civil rights groups that includes CORE and SNCC, launches a massive effort to register black voters during what becomes known as the Freedom Summer. It also sends delegates to the Democratic National Convention to protest—and attempt to unseat—the official all-white Mississippi contingent.

July 2
President Johnson signs the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The most sweeping civil rights legislation since Reconstruction, the Civil Rights Act prohibits discrimination of all kinds based on race, color, religion, or national origin. The law also provides the federal government with the powers to enforce desegregation.

Aug. 4
(Neshoba Country, Miss.) The bodies of three civil-rights workers—two white, one black—are found in an earthen dam, six weeks into a federal investigation backed by President Johnson. James E. Chaney, 21; Andrew Goodman, 21; and Michael Schwerner, 24, had been working to register black voters in Mississippi, and, on June 21, had gone to investigate the burning of a black church. They were arrested by the police on speeding charges, incarcerated for several hours, and then released after dark into the hands of the Ku Klux Klan, who murdered them.

1965

Feb. 21
(Harlem, N.Y.) Malcolm X, black nationalist and founder of the Organization of Afro-American Unity, is shot to death. It is believed the assailants are members of the Black Muslim faith, which Malcolm had recently abandoned in favor of orthodox Islam.

March 7
(Selma, Ala.) Blacks begin a march to Montgomery in support of voting rights but are stopped at the Pettus Bridge by a police blockade. Fifty marchers are hospitalized after police use tear gas, whips, and clubs against them. The
incident is dubbed "Bloody Sunday" by the media. The march is considered the catalyst for pushing through the voting rights act five months later.

Aug. 10

Congress passes the Voting Rights Act of 1965, making it easier for Southern blacks to register to vote. Literacy tests, poll taxes, and other such requirements that were used to restrict black voting are made illegal.

Aug. 11–17, 1965

(Watts, Calif.) Race riots erupt in a black section of Los Angeles.

Sept. 24, 1965

Asserting that civil rights laws alone are not enough to remedy discrimination, President Johnson issues Executive Order 11246, which enforces affirmative action for the first time. It requires government contractors to "take affirmative action" toward prospective minority employees in all aspects of hiring and employment.

1966

Oct.

(Oakland, Calif.) The militant Black Panthers are founded by Huey Newton and Bobby Seale.

1967

April 19

Stokely Carmichael, a leader of the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), coins the phrase "black power" in a speech in Seattle. He defines it as an assertion of black pride and "the coming together of black people to fight for their liberation by any means necessary." The term's radicalism alarms many who believe the civil rights movement's effectiveness and moral authority crucially depend on nonviolent civil disobedience.

June 12

In *Loving v. Virginia*, the Supreme Court rules that prohibiting interracial marriage is unconstitutional. Sixteen states that still banned interracial marriage at the time are forced to revise their laws.

July

Major race riots take place in Newark (July 12–16) and Detroit (July 23–30).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>April 4</td>
<td>(Memphis, Tenn.) Martin Luther King, at age 39, is shot as he stands on the balcony outside his hotel room. Escaped convict and committed racist James Earl Ray is convicted of the crime.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>April 11</td>
<td>President Johnson signs the Civil Rights Act of 1968, prohibiting discrimination in the sale, rental, and financing of housing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>April 20</td>
<td>The Supreme Court, in <em>Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education</em>, upholds busing as a legitimate means for achieving integration of public schools. Although largely unwelcome (and sometimes violently opposed) in local school districts, court-ordered busing plans in cities such as Charlotte, Boston, and Denver continue until the late 1990s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>March 22</td>
<td>Overriding President Reagan's veto, Congress passes the Civil Rights Restoration Act, which expands the reach of non-discrimination laws within private institutions receiving federal funds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Nov. 22</td>
<td>After two years of debates, vetoes, and threatened vetoes, President Bush reverses himself and signs the Civil Rights Act of 1991, strengthening existing civil rights laws and providing for damages in cases of intentional employment discrimination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>April 29</td>
<td>(Los Angeles, Calif.) The first race riots in decades erupt in south-central Los Angeles after a jury acquits four white police officers for the videotaped beating of African American Rodney King.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>June 23</td>
<td>In the most important affirmative action decision since the 1978 <em>Bakke</em> case, the Supreme Court (5–4) upholds the University of Michigan Law School's policy, ruling that race can be one of many factors considered by colleges when</td>
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</table>
selecting their students because it furthers "a compelling interest in obtaining the educational benefits that flow from a diverse student body."

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>June 21</td>
<td>The ringleader of the Mississippi civil rights murders (see Aug. 4, 1964), Edgar Ray Killen, is convicted of manslaughter on the 41st anniversary of the crimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>October 24</td>
<td>Rosa Parks dies at age 92.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>January 30</td>
<td>Coretta Scott King dies of a stroke at age 78.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>February</td>
<td>Emmett Till's 1955 murder case, reopened by the Department of Justice in 2004, is officially closed. The two confessed murderers, J. W. Milam and Roy Bryant, were dead of cancer by 1994, and prosecutors lacked sufficient evidence to pursue further convictions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>May 10</td>
<td>James Bonard Fowler, a former state trooper, is indicted for the murder of Jimmie Lee Jackson 40 years after Jackson’s death. The 1965 killing lead to a series of historic civil rights protests in Selma, Ala.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>January</td>
<td>Senator Edward Kennedy (D-MA) introduces the Civil Rights Act of 2008. Some of the proposed provisions include ensuring that federal funds are not used to subsidize discrimination, holding employers accountable for age discrimination, and improving accountability for other violations of civil rights and workers’ rights.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>January</td>
<td>In the Supreme Court case <em>Ricci v. DeStefano</em>, a lawsuit brought against the city of New Haven, 18 plaintiffs—17 white people and one Hispanic—argued that results of the 2003 lieutenant and captain exams were thrown out when it was determined that few minority firefighters qualified for advancement. The city claimed they threw out the results because they feared liability under a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
disparate-impact statute for issuing tests that discriminated against minority firefighters. The plaintiffs claimed that they were victims of reverse discrimination under the Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The Supreme Court ruled (5–4) in favor of the firefighters, saying New Haven's "action in discarding the tests was a violation of Title VII."

2013 June

In *Shelby County v. Holder*, the Supreme Court struck down Section 4 of the Voting Rights Act, which established a formula for Congress to use when determining if a state or voting jurisdiction requires prior approval before changing its voting laws. Currently under Section 5 of the act nine—mostly Southern—states with a history of discrimination must get clearance from Congress before changing voting rules to make sure racial minorities are not negatively affected. While the 5–4 decision did not invalidate Section 5, it made it toothless. Chief Justice John Roberts said the formula Congress now uses, which was written in 1965, has become outdated. "While any racial discrimination in voting is too much, Congress must ensure that the legislation it passes to remedy that problem speaks to current conditions," he said in the majority opinion. In a strongly worded dissent, Judge Ruth Bader Ginsburg said, "Hubris is a fit word for today’s demolition of the V.R.A." (Voting Rights Act).

Source: http://www.infoplease.com/spot/civilrightstimeline1.html
Notable African Americans

Scientists

- **Benjamin Banneker** (1731–1806). Mathematician and astronomer. He constructed the first striking clock to be made in America.


- **Percy Julian** (1899–1975). Chemist, known for being a pioneer in the synthesis of medicinal drugs such as cortisone and the birth control pill.

Inventors

- **Thomas Jennings** (1791–1856). The first known African American to hold a patent.

- **Louis Latimer** (1828-1948). Engineer and member of Thomas Edison’s team.

- **Granville T. Woods** (1856–1910). Known for contributions to the street car and the telephone.

Writers/Poets/Intellectuals

- **Maya Angelou** (1928–2014). American author and poet who has been called “America’s most visible female autobiographer.”


- **Frederick Douglass** (1818–1895). Civil rights activist and writer.

• **Paul Laurence Dunbar** (1872–1906). Poet.

• **Ralph Ellison** (1914 –1994). Novelist, critic, and scholar.

• **Langton Hughes** (1902–1967). Poet and social activist, known for his work during the Harlem Renaissance.

• **Zora Neale Hurston** (1891–1960). Folklorist, anthropologist, and author during the Harlem Renaissance.

• **Toni Morrison** (1931– ). Nobel Prize and Pulitzer Prize-winning novelist.

• **Alice Walker** (1944– ). Author and poet who wrote The Color Purple and won the Pulitzer Prize for Fiction.


**Politicians/Activists**


• **Julian Bond** (1940– ). Founder of Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee, first president of Southern Poverty Law Center, and former chairman of NAACP.


• **Shirley Chisholm** (1924–2005). First African American woman elected to Congress.


• **Marcus Garvey** (1887–1940). Black nationalist; encouraged African Americans to migrate back to Africa.

• **Jesse Jackson Sr.** (1941– ). Civil rights activist and Baptist minister.
• James Weldon Johnson (1871–1938). Author, known for his leadership within NAACP.


• Alan Keyes (1950–). Political activist, served as President Reagan’s assistant secretary of state for international organization affairs.

• Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968). Prominent leader of the civil rights movement.


• Rosa Parks (1913–2005). Civil rights activist, known for refusing to give up her seat on a bus in 1955 and sparking the Montgomery Bus Boycott.

• Colin Powell (1937– ). Statesman and retired four-star general of the U.S. Army. He also served as secretary of state under President George W. Bush.

• Hiram Rhodes Revels (1827–1901). First African American to serve in the U.S. Senate.

• Condoleezza Rice (1954– ). Foreign policy expert who served as national security adviser and then secretary of state under President George W. Bush.

• Carl Burton Stokes (1927–1996). Elected mayor of Cleveland in 1967, he was the first African American mayor of a major U.S. city.

• Sojourner Truth (1797–1883). Abolitionist and women's rights activist.

• Harriet Tubman (1820–1913). Abolitionist, humanitarian, and Union spy during the Civil War.

**Notable Members of the Judicial and Legal Fields**


- **Judith Ann Wilson Rogers** (1939–). First African American female on the U.S. Court of Appeals for the DC Circuit.

- **Clarence Thomas** (1948–). Associate justice of the U.S. Supreme Court.

**Athletes**

- **Muhammad Ali** (1942–). Heavyweight champion boxer, philanthropist, and social activist.

- **Arthur Ashe** (1943-1993). Tennis champion

- **Michael Jordan** (1963–). Professional basketball player.


**Entertainers**


- **Ella Fitzgerald** (1917–1996). Known as the “First Lady of Song.”
• **Billie Holiday** (1915–1959). Jazz singer and songwriter.

• **BB King** (1925– ). Blues guitarist and singer-songwriter.

• **Sidney Poitier** (1927– ). Actor, film director, author, and diplomat.


Inspirational Quotes from Black American Leaders

Black History Month remains an important moment for America to celebrate the achievements and contributions black Americans have played in U.S. history. Arising out of "Negro History Week," which first began in the 1920s, February has since been designated as Black History Month by every U.S. president since 1976.

In honor of this year’s Black History Month, we've gathered 30 inspirational quotes from some of the most influential black personalities of all time.

- "Bringing the gifts that my ancestors gave, I am the dream and the hope of the slave. I rise. I rise. I rise." - Maya Angelou
- "We should emphasize not Negro history, but the Negro in history. What we need is not a history of selected races or nations, but the history of the world void of national bias, race hate, and religious prejudice." - Carter Woodson
- "Do not call for black power or green power. Call for brain power." - Barbara Jordan
- "Hate is too great a burden to bear. It injures the hater more than it injures the hated." - Coretta Scott King
- "Darkness cannot drive out darkness; only light can do that. Hate cannot drive out hate; only love can do that." - Martin Luther King, Jr.
- "I am where I am because of the bridges that I crossed. Sojourner Truth was a bridge. Harriet Tubman was a bridge. Ida B. Wells was a bridge. Madame C. J. Walker was a bridge. Fannie Lou Hamer was a bridge." - Oprah Winfrey
- "Whatever we believe about ourselves and our ability comes true for us." - Susan L. Taylor, journalist
- "Just don’t give up what you’re trying to do. Where there is love and inspiration, I don’t think you can go wrong." - Ella Fitzgerald
- "In recognizing the humanity of our fellow beings, we pay ourselves the highest tribute." - Thurgood Marshall, first African American on the U.S. Supreme Court
• "Never underestimate the power of dreams and the influence of the human spirit. We are all the same in this notion: The potential for greatness lives within each of us." - Wilma Rudolph

• "Have a vision. Be demanding." - Colin Powell, the first African American appointed as the U.S. Secretary of State

• "Change will not come if we wait for some other person or some other time. We are the ones we've been waiting for. We are the change that we seek." - President Barack Obama

• "For Africa to me ... is more than a glamorous fact. It is a historical truth. No man can know where he is going unless he knows exactly where he has been and exactly how he arrived at his present place." - Maya Angelou

• "The battles that count aren't the ones for gold medals. The struggles within yourself--the invisible, inevitable battles inside all of us--that's where it's at." - Jesse Owens

• "When I dare to be powerful – to use my strength in the service of my vision, then it becomes less and less important whether I am afraid." - Audre Lorde

• "Freedom is never given; it is won." - A. Philip Randolph

• “Defining myself, as opposed to being defined by others, is one of the most difficult challenges I face.” - Carol Moseley-Braun

• "Diversity is not about how we differ. Diversity is about embracing one another's uniqueness." – Ola Joseph

• "Where there is no vision, there is no hope." – George Washington Carver

• "You really can change the world if you care enough." – Marian Wright Edelman

• "Love makes your soul crawl out from its hiding place." – Zora Neale Hurston

• "Surround yourself with people who take their work seriously, but not themselves, those who work hard and play hard." – Colin Powell
• “I refuse to accept the view that mankind is so tragically bound to the starless midnight of racism and war that the bright daybreak of peace and brotherhood can never become a reality.... I believe that unarmed truth and unconditional love will have the final word.” Martin Luther King, Jr.

• “Success is to be measured not so much by the position that one has reached in life as by the obstacles which he has overcome while trying to succeed.” - Booker T. Washington

• "Never be limited by other people's limited imaginations." - Dr. Mae Jemison, first African-American female astronaut

• "The cost of liberty is less than the price of repression." - W.E.B. Du Bois

• "I have learned over the years that when one's mind is made up, this diminishes fear." - Rosa Parks

• "I have observed this in my experience of slavery, that whenever my condition was improved, instead of increasing my contentment; it only increased my desire to be free, and set me thinking of plans to gain my freedom.” - Frederick Douglass

• "For I am my mother's daughter, and the drums of Africa still beat in my heart." - Mary McLeod Bethune

Black History Month - Teaching About Ethnic and Cultural History

How do you ensure students will get the most out of the instructional time devoted each year to commemorating the history and contributions of the various ethnic and cultural groups we study? How do you avoid trivializing or marginalizing the group you are exploring with students?

Below are some suggestions for Black History Month. These “DOs” are also applicable to any ethnic or cultural group you are studying throughout the school year.

1. **Incorporate African American history into the curriculum year-round**, not just in February. Use the month of February to “dig deeper” into history and make connections with the past.

2. **Continue Learning**. Explore how to provide an in-depth and thorough understanding of African American history. Textbooks often do not contain detailed information about the struggles of communities, so use the textbook as just one of many resources. While exploring multiple resources, help your students understand the importance of exploring reliable sources and sources that provide multiple perspectives on history.

3. **Reinforce to students that African American history is American history**. Work to make African American history relevant to all students.

4. **Relate lessons to other parts of your curriculum**, so that focusing on a leader, such as Dr. King, expands upon rather than diverts from your curriculum. By the time February comes around, the context of the struggle for civil rights and social justice should be familiar to students if you have already addressed such issues across the curriculum.

5. **Connect issues in the past to current issues** to make history relevant to students’ lives. For example, ask students to gather information with a focus on what social issues exist today and how a particular leader has worked to change society.

Adapted from material by Pat Russo of the Curriculum & Instruction Department at SUNY Oswego. (Sept. 2007)

Source: Teaching Tolerance, a project of the Southern Poverty Law Center, [http://www.tolerance.org/search/apachesolr_search/black%20history](http://www.tolerance.org/search/apachesolr_search/black%20history)
Lesson Plans and Classroom Activities for the Secondary Classroom

- **Analyzing Primary Source Documents** – Middle and Senior High School

- **African American History Timeline** – Middle and Senior High School

- **Analyzing Famous Quotations** – Middle and Senior High School

- **The Great Migration and the Harlem Renaissance** – Middle and Senior High School

- **Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.** – Biographies for Both Middle and Senior High School

- **The Civil Rights Movement** – Middle and Senior High School

- **Additional Activities to Celebrate Black History Month**
GRADE LEVEL: Social Studies – Secondary – Middle and Senior High School

TITLE: Analyzing Primary Source Documents

OBJECTIVES: Objectives from the Florida Standards are noted with FS.

1. The students will differentiate between a primary and secondary source.

2. The students will analyze and draw conclusions about an event in U.S. history using primary source material.

3. The students will analyze charts, graphs, maps, photographs and timelines; analyze political cartoons; determine cause and effect.

4. The students will identify, within both primary and secondary sources, the author, audience, format, and purpose of significant historical documents.

5. The students will analyze how images, symbols, objects, cartoons, graphs, charts, maps, and artwork may be used to interpret the significance of time periods and events from the past.

6. The students will determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source; provide an accurate summary that makes clear the relationships among the key details and ideas. (FS)

SUGGESTED TIME: 2 class periods

DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITIES:

1. Introduce and define primary sources and secondary sources. Note the important role primary sources play in historical research and in interpreting the past.

   a) Primary Sources – Primary sources are original records and objects which were created at the time historical events happened. Examples of primary sources include letters, diaries, journals, newspapers, speeches, interviews, memoirs, oral histories, photographs, or video recordings. Primary sources also include artifacts such as works of art. Primary sources provide an inside
view of a particular event and help us interpret the past and provide the resources necessary for historical research.

b) Secondary Resources - A secondary source interprets and analyzes primary sources. These sources are one or more steps removed from the event. Secondary sources may have pictures, quotes or graphics of primary sources in them. Examples of secondary sources include a history textbook, a research book on a particular event or period in history, or a newspaper article written by a reporter who did not witness the event firsthand.

2. Pass out copies of the handout entitled, “Analyzing a Primary Source” (provided). Review the handout with students and explain that the purpose of the handout is to give students questions to consider when examining a primary source document.

To provide practice in examining a primary source document as a class, have students examine and discuss two primary sources, a photo and a letter from the Civil Rights Movement (both provided).

TEACHER’S NOTE: The primary sources for the practice exercise are intentionally not labeled so that students will have to study them for context. For your information, the photograph was taken in 1963 during the civil rights protests in Birmingham, Alabama. The letter is from Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. to thank supporters and contributors to the cause of racial equality and justice.

3. Next explain that students will be examining a series of primary sources from one important event in African American history. Looking at several sources from one event will give them greater opportunity to gain a perspective on the event.

Organize students into pairs. Distribute copies of the “Primary Source Activity Exhibits #1-7” (included) to each pair of students.

4. Ask students to work together to analyze and interpret the seven primary sources using “Analyzing a Primary Source” as their guide.

TEACHER’S NOTE: The primary sources for this activity are intentionally not labeled so that students will have to study them for context. For your information and to help students with the debriefing after the lesson is complete, the exhibits are as follows:

Exhibit 1 - Protestors at the March for Jobs and Freedom, Washington, D.C., August 28, 1963
Exhibit 2 – Program from the March on Washington, August 28, 1963.
Exhibit 3 – Between 200-300,000 people participated in March on Washington, August 28, 1963.
Exhibit 4 - Dr. King delivers his “I Have a Dream” Speech, Washington, D.C., August 28, 1963 (Photo credit: Corbis)
Exhibit 5 - Protestors walk past the Capitol Building in Washington, D.C., August 28, 1963. (Photo credit: Corbis)
Exhibit 6 – Dr. King waves to the crowd in front of the Lincoln Memorial before delivering his famous “I Have a Dream” speech on August 28, 1963. (Photo credit: EPA)
Exhibit 7 – View of the crowd facing the Lincoln Memorial, August 28, 1963.

5. After students have had 10-15 minutes to examine the exhibits using “Analyzing a Primary Source” as their guide, ask them to also answer the following questions in writing (one answer sheet per pair):

a) What event do you think the primary source exhibits are from? What evidence from the exhibits did you use to support this conclusion?
b) What details did you notice when examining the primary source?
c) What powerful words or images did you see in the primary source? Give two examples as evidence.
d) Is the primary source document objective or are there biases in the primary source? Explain.
e) What did you notice in the primary source that you do not understand or cannot explain?
f) What more do you need to know about the primary source? Other than the Internet, where would you be able to find this information?

6. Debrief by discussing the questions answered by students as they worked in pairs.

ASSESSMENT STRATEGY: Participation in class discussion and in the primary source interpretation activity.

MATERIALS/AIDS NEEDED: “Analyzing a Primary Source” (provided); Primary Source Practice Activity – Photograph and Letter (provided); “Primary Source Activity Exhibits #1-7” (provided); and, “Questions” (provided)

Analyzing a Primary Source

Primary sources are original records and objects which were created at the time historical events happened. Examples of primary sources include letters, diaries, journals, newspapers, speeches, interviews, memoirs, oral histories, photographs, or video recordings. Primary sources also include artifacts such as works of art. Primary sources help us interpret the past and provide the resources necessary for historical research. When you working with primary sources think about the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observe</th>
<th>Reflect</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Study the primary source and identify the details you see.</td>
<td>Think about what you can learn about an historical event or time period by examining this primary source.</td>
<td>What additional questions do you need to have answered about the primary source?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Questions:
- What kind of primary source is this?
- Who created this primary source? When?
- What period of history is the primary source from?
- What details did you notice when examining the primary source?
- What powerful words or images did you see in the primary source?
- Is the primary source objective or are there biases in the primary source?

Questions:
- What event or time period in history does the primary source help explain?
- Why do you think this primary source is important?
- What feelings and thoughts does the primary source cause you to have?

Questions:
- What did you notice in the primary source that you do not understand or cannot explain?
- What more do you need to know about the primary source?
- Where can you find the information you need?

Source: http://www.loc.gov/rr/mss/guide/ms058070.jpg
Southern Christian Leadership Conference

August 12, 1963

Dear Friends,

I want to personally thank you for the support which you have given to our nonviolent direct action movement to eliminate the immoral and shameful practice of racial discrimination and segregation from American life.

I am particularly pleased that as part of your contribution to our work you have acquired a copy of my latest book STRENGTH TO LOVE. In the preface of this book I said:

"In these turbulent days of uncertainty, the evils of war and of economic and racial injustice threaten the very survival of the human race."

These words are even more relevant to this current phase of the civil rights revolution than it was when the preface was printed.

It has always been a source of inner strength to me and those of my associates in the Southern Christian Leadership Conference to be able to meet and overcome many of the indignities and humiliations of segregation in America with unswerving faith in the American dream of freedom for all men. I believe it can be said that the Strength To Love in the midst of adversities is one of the most significant features of the nonviolent direct action movement in our country today.

Thanking you again for your contribution and your assistance, I am

Sincerely yours,

Martin Luther King, Jr.

Source: http://www.finebooksmagazine.com/issue/200904/graphics/nybookfair-1a.jpg
MARCH ON WASHINGTON
FOR JOBS AND FREEDOM
AUGUST 28, 1963

LINCOLN MEMORIAL PROGRAM

1. The National Anthem
   Led by Marian Anderson.

2. Invocation

3. Opening Remarks
   A. Philip Randolph, Director March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom.

4. Remarks
   Dr. Eugene Carson Blake, Stated Clerk, United Presbyterian Church of the U.S.A.; Vice Chairman, Commission on Race Relations of the National Council of Churches of Christ in America.

5. Tribute to Negro Women Fighters for Freedom
   Daisy Bates
   Diane Nash Bevel
   Mrs. Medgar Evers
   Mrs. Herbert Lee
   Rosa Parks
   Gloria Richardson
   Mrs. Medgar Evers

6. Remarks
   John Lewis, National Chairman, Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee.

7. Remarks
   Walter Reuther, President, United Automobile, Aerospace and Agricultural Implement Wokers of America, AFL-CIO; Chairman, Industrial Union Department, AFL-CIO.

8. Remarks
   James Farmer, National Director, Congress of Racial Equality.

9. Selection
   Eva Jessye Choir

10. Prayer
    Rabbi Uri Miller, President Synagogue Council of America.

11. Remarks
    Whitney M. Young, Jr., Executive Director, National Urban League.

12. Remarks
    Mathew Ahmann, Executive Director, National Catholic Conference for Interracial Justice.

13. Remarks
    Roy Wilkins, Executive Secretary, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People.

14. Selection
    Miss Mahalia Jackson

15. Remarks
    Rabbi Joachim Prinz, President American Jewish Congress.

16. Remarks
    The Rev. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., President, Southern Christian Leadership Conference.

17. The Pledge
    A Philip Randolph

18. Benediction
    Dr. Benjamin E. Mays, President, Morehouse College.

“WE SHALL OVERCOME”
Primary Source Activity Exhibit #7
GRADE LEVEL: Social Studies – Secondary - Middle and Senior High School

TITLE: African American History Timeline

OBJECTIVES: Objectives from the Florida Standards are noted with FS.

1. The students will use a timeline to identify and describe important events in the African American experience.

2. The students will utilize timelines to identify the time sequence of historical data.

3. The students will utilize a variety of primary and secondary sources to identify author, historical significance, audience, and authenticity to understand a historical period.

4. The students will analyze how images, symbols, objects, cartoons, graphs, charts, maps, and artwork may be used to interpret the significance of time periods and events from the past.

5. The students will assess key figures and organizations in shaping the Civil Rights Movement and Black Power Movement.

6. The students will conduct short as well as more sustained research projects to answer a question. (FS)

7. The students will determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source; provide an accurate summary that makes clear the relationships among the key details and ideas. (FS)

SUGGESTED TIME: 1-2 class periods

DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITIES:

1. Pass out copies of the “African-American History Timeline (1619-2008)” (provided in the Background section of this instructional resource guide). To help students become confident with the use of the timeline, ask students to answer the following questions for practice while using the timeline as a reference:

   a) Who was Nat Turner and what did he organize? When did this occur?

   b) What Supreme Court case declared that the racial segregation is unconstitutional? Did this happen before or after Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. wrote his famous “Letter from a Birmingham Jail?”
c) Place the following events in chronological order:

___The Civil Rights Act is signed.
___Dr. King delivers his “I Have a Dream” speech.
___The National Association for Colored People (NAACP) is established.
___The Voting Rights Act is signed.
___The 13th Amendment is ratified.

2. Explain to students that they will be utilizing the timeline to identify five major events from African American history, with at least 3 events coming from 1900 and beyond. They will have to describe the event and explain why it is significant.

Pass out the worksheet titled, “African American Timeline” (provided) and have students complete the assignment using the timelines as a reference.

OPTIONAL: Have students work in pairs to complete the worksheet.

3. Have students share and discuss their findings with the class. See if there is consensus on the most important event selected.

ASSESSMENT STRATEGY: Completion of the timeline activity.

MATERIALS/AIDS NEEDED: “African-American History Timeline (1619-2008)” (provided in the Background section of this instructional resource guide); “African American Timeline” worksheet (provided)

**African American Timeline**

**Directions:** Review the “African American Timeline, 1619-2008.” Select and describe 5 events from the timeline you feel are important in understanding African American history. At least three of the events you select must be from 1900 to 1908.

**Event #1:** 

Date of the Event: 

In your own words describe the event: 

Why do you feel this event is significant: 

**Event #2:** 

Date of the Event: 

In your own words describe the event: 

Why do you feel this event is significant:
Why do you feel this event is significant:

_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

**Event #3:**

Date of the Event: _______________________________________________________

In your own words describe the event:  ____________________________________

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_____________________________________________________________________

Why do you feel this event is significant:

_____________________________________________________________________
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**Event #4:**

Date of the Event: _______________________________________________________

In your own words describe the event:  ____________________________________

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_____________________________________________________________________
Why do you feel this event is significant: ________________________________

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Event #5: __________________________________________________________

Date of the Event: ___________________________________________________

In your own words describe the event: __________________________________

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Why do you feel this event is significant: ________________________________

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GRADE LEVEL: Social Studies – Secondary - Middle and Senior High School

TITLE: Analyzing Famous Quotations

OBJECTIVES: Objectives from the Florida Standards are noted with FS.

1. The students will analyze public statements made by notable African Americans.

2. The students will identify, within both primary and secondary sources, the author, audience, format, and purpose of significant historical documents.

3. The students will determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source; provide an accurate summary that makes clear the relationships among the key details and ideas. (FS)

SUGGESTED TIME: 1-2 class periods

DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITIES:

1. Explain that in today’s lesson, students will read and analyze famous quotations by notable African Americans. To introduce students to the activity, discuss the following quotation from Booker T. Washington:

   "Success is to be measured not so much by the position that one has reached in life as by the obstacles which he has overcome while trying to succeed."

   Ask students if they know about Booker T. Washington’s life and his contributions to the African American experience. Explain that knowing something about the person’s life and contributions helps to provide a context from which to analyze a quotation.

   Ask students to explain what they feel the quote means in their own words; i.e., paraphrase.

   TEACHER’S NOTE: Booker Taliaferro Washington (1856-1915) was one of the leading African American figures of his era. Born a slave and initially denied an education, he was ultimately responsible for founding The Tuskegee Institute, one of the preeminent black educational institutions in the U.S., and was known for his philosophy of hard work, vocational training, and self-reliance as the path to full political and civil participation for African Americans.
2. Divide the class into pairs and distribute copies of “Inspirational Quotes from Black American Leaders” to each group. (The quotations are found in the Background section of this instructional resource guide). Also distribute copies of the “Quotation Analysis Worksheet” (provided) to each group.

Provide each pair of students with the ability to search online for references regarding the quote (i.e., background information on the author of the quote).

Ask each pair of students to select three (3) quotations to analyze. Answer the questions for each of the three (3) quotes selected.

3. Discuss the quotes selected and analyzed by each pair of students.

4. As closure, ask the class to select the three quotations they believe best represent the purpose of Black History Month.

**ASSESSMENT STRATEGY:** Completion of the quotation analysis activity.

**MATERIALS/AIDS NEEDED:** “Inspirational Quotes from Black American Leaders” (included in the Background section of this instructional resource guide); and, “Quotation Analysis Worksheet” (provided)

Quotation Analysis Worksheet

Directions: Select three quotes from the list of “Inspirational Quotes from Black American Leaders” and answer each question below for all three quotations.

#1 Quotation and Author: __________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________

a. Briefly describe the contributions made by the author to society:

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________

b. Paraphrase the quotation:_____________________________________________________

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______________________________________________________________________________

c. What caused you to select this quote from the list? ______________________________

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______________________________________________________________________________
#2 Quotation and Author: ____________________________________________

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a. Briefly describe the contributions made by the author to society:

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b. Paraphrase the quotation:_______________________________________

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c. What caused you to select this quote from the list? ________________________

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#3 Quotation and Author: ________________________________

___________________________________________

a. Briefly describe the contributions made by the author to society:

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b. Paraphrase the quotation:____________________________

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c. What caused you to select this quote from the list?____________________

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GRADE LEVEL: Social Studies – Secondary – Middle and Senior High School

TITLE: The Great Migration and the Harlem Renaissance

OBJECTIVES: Objectives from the Florida Standards are noted with FS.

1. The students will research, evaluate, and synthesize information about the Great Migration and the Harlem Renaissance from varied resources.

2. The students will discuss the impact of the Harlem Renaissance on African Americans and American society during the 1920s.

3. The students will describe the influence of individuals on social and political developments of this era in American History.

4. The students will complete an individual research assignment on the Harlem Renaissance.

5. The students will utilize a variety of primary and secondary sources to identify author, historical significance, audience, and authenticity to understand a historical period.

6. The students will conduct short as well as more sustained research projects to answer a question. (FS)

SUGGESTED TIME: 2-3 class periods, plus out-of-class time to complete the individual research assignment.

DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITIES:

1. Introduce students to the concept of migration (the movement of a group of people from one country, region, or place to another). Ask: Why do people migrate? (few economic opportunities, the search for a better life). What makes people choose a particular area? (job opportunities, a better life in a new region, a desire to live among others of a similar culture or ethnic group).
Explain that the migration of African Americans from the South to the North in the late 1800s would have a major impact on the nation and the African American experience and would contribute to a period known as the Harlem Renaissance.

For context, have students read the attached passage entitled, “The Great Migration” (provided) or read appropriate passages in their textbook.

As a review of the reading, ask students to list the major social, political and economic events that faced African Americans prior to the Great Migration. Focus on failing crops and the decline in the need for agricultural workers in the South. Also include other factors such as the mistreatment by whites, unfair criminal systems, lynching, and poverty.

Discuss: Why did African Americans move to northern cities in large numbers in the early 1920s? (Major factors included: to escape the discrimination and mistreatment being experienced in the South, the hope for jobs in growing industries in the North as a result of World War I, and the hope of greater freedom and equality.)

To conclude the discussion on The Great Migration and begin the discussion of the Harlem Renaissance, locate Chicago, Detroit, Cleveland, Boston, Pittsburgh, and New York City on a map of the United States. Note that African Americans moved in great numbers to these cities,

Share with students that Harlem is a neighborhood in New York City and became known as the “Negro Capital of America” during the 1920s. Explain that the next part of the lesson will address the Harlem Renaissance, a significant movement in African American literature and other arts during the 1920’s and early 1930’s. Harlem became the center of African American cultural life during the period.

Introduce/review the concept of a “renaissance.” (Renaissance is a rebirth/awakening, a time when the arts flourish.)

Share James Weldon Johnson’s 1933 description of the Harlem Renaissance:

“Harlem was made known as the scene of laughter, singing, dancing……Writers flocked there; many came from afar, and depicted it in many ways and in many languages. They still come; the Harlem of story and song still fascinates them.”
James Weldon Johnson (1871-1938) – an American author, educator, lawyer, diplomat, songwriter, and civil rights activist.

Discuss Johnson’s description of the Harlem Renaissance with students.

Have students complete the reading entitled, “The Harlem Renaissance” (provided).

Following the reading, debrief and explain that Harlem was a place where the many talented African American writers, poets, artists, musicians, and actors came to express their experiences through their craft. There was a desire on the part of these artists to share their life stories from their African roots to their lives in the South and in the North. At a time when racism and social and political injustices were part of American society, these artists, through their work, expressed strong cultural pride and a desire for political and social equality.

TEACHER’S NOTE:

The major African American writers during the Harlem Renaissance included Arna Bontemps, Countee Cullen, Langston Hughes, Zora Neale Hurston, James Weldon Johnson, Claude McKay, and Jean Toomer. Notable artists were the painters Palmer Hayden and Laura Wheeler Waring and the sculptors Meta Warrick Fuller and Sargent Johnson. Many of the musicians were important jazz figures, such as Louis Armstrong, Eubie Blake, and Duke Ellington. Prominent actors included Charles Gilpin, Paul Robeson, and Bill Robinson.

2. Distribute copies of “Good Morning” by Langston Hughes (provided). As the poem is read for the first time, ask students to circle any words which are unfamiliar. Can they guess the meaning from the context?

Have students answer the following questions about the poem individually or with a partner. Discuss responses with the entire class.

- What would you say is the mood of the poem? How does it make you feel?
- What dreams did new arrivals in Harlem bring with them? What obstacles did they face "at the gate"?
- How might a poem such as this affect the way society views African Americans or other minorities?
TEACHER’S NOTE: The following is one analysis of the poem for your reference: The speaker is a symbolic representation of African American voice. The poem is quite like another Langston Hughes' classic, "I too, sing America" The speaker here is reminding all that before Puerto Ricans, Haitians, Jamaicans, etc. immigrated into the US, he/she was already there and has seen all these other immigrants flocking in. The “dream deferred” refers to the American Dream which has not been realized by indigenous blacks even as other minorities continue pursuing that very dream in America. Ideally, the speaker is fundamentally addressing the "Founding Fathers" or those who espouse their ideals of the Dream.

3. Explain that each student in the class will choose one Harlem Renaissance research assignment to complete. There are three choices:

- **Project #1:** Create A Harlem Renaissance Poster – Design a magazine cover, an advertisement for a stage production, an advertisement for a concert or show of a music/dance group or performer, an announcement for an upcoming public lecture seminar, or forum. Create and present your poster to the class.

- **Project #2:** Compare and Contrast Essay – Write an essay on the life and work of two people who played important roles in the Harlem Renaissance period. In the essay, compare and contrast their work and accomplishments. Identify their strengths and weaknesses. Were these individuals activists, artists, intellectuals, or what (i.e., how did they get their message across and/or exert their influence)? What lasting influence do they have today? Be prepared to answer questions about your research.

- **Project #3:** Complete a Harlem Renaissance Biography – Select one important person from the Harlem Renaissance era. Use available resources to learn all that you can about the person. Develop a multimedia presentation (PowerPoint, HyperStudio, or Webpage) or poster that summarizes his/her life and accomplishments. Include pictures, text, drawings, and where appropriate, music. Create and present your biography to the class.

Individuals to research may include:

- Singers - Billie Holiday, Bessie Smith, Ethel Waters, Lena Horne
• Poets - Langston Hughes, Countee Cullen, Claude McKay, Jean (Eugene Toomer)
• Writers [i.e., Zora Neale Hurston, Jessie Fauset, Alain Locke]
• Artists - William H. Johnson, Jacob Lawrence, Aaron Douglas, Lois Mailou Jones
• Activists/Leaders - Marcus Garvey, W. E. B. Du Bois, James Weldon Johnson

4. If time permits, have students present their individual projects to the class.

ASSESSMENT STRATEGY: Completion of the readings and participation in discussions; completion of the individual projects

MATERIALS/AIDS NEEDED: “The Great Migration North” (provided); “Good Morning” by Langston Hughes (provided); “The Harlem Renaissance” (provided)

The Great Migration North

Discrimination and the Ku Klux Klan in the South

During the early 1900’s, discrimination against African Americans in the South became increasingly widespread. By 1907, every Southern state required racial segregation on trains and in churches, schools, hotels, restaurants, theaters, and other public places. By 1910, every Southern state had taken away or begun to take away the right of African Americans to vote.

The Ku Klux Klan used threats, beatings, and killings in its efforts to keep African Americans from voting. More than 3,000 African Americans had been lynched during the late 1800’s, and the Klan and similar groups lynched hundreds more throughout the South during the early 1900’s.

African Americans had little opportunity to better themselves economically. Some laws prohibited them from teaching and from entering certain other businesses and professions. Large numbers of African Americans had to take low-paying jobs as farm hands or servants for white employers. Many other African Americans became sharecroppers or tenant farmers. They rented a small plot of land and paid the rent with money earned from the crops. They had to struggle to survive, and many ran up huge debts to their white landlords or the town merchants.

New African American Leaders

By the early 1900’s, the educator Booker T. Washington had become the most influential African American leader. Washington, a former slave, had been principal of Tuskegee Institute (now Tuskegee University) in Alabama since 1881. He urged African Americans to stop demanding political power and social equality and to concentrate on economic advancement. Washington especially encouraged African Americans to practice thrift and respect hard work. Washington believed his program would lead to progress for African Americans and would keep peace between the races.

Many African Americans agreed with Washington's ideas, but many others strongly rejected them. The chief opposition came from W. E. B. Du Bois, a sociologist and historian at Atlanta University. Du Bois's reputation rested on such works as The Suppression of the African Slave-Trade to the United States of America, 1638-1870 (1896) and The Souls of Black Folk (1903).

Du Bois argued that Washington's approach would not achieve economic security for African Americans. Instead, Du Bois felt Washington's acceptance of segregation and the rest of his program would strengthen the beliefs that African Americans were inferior and could be treated unequally. As evidence for their position, Du Bois and his
supporters pointed to the continuing lynching of African Americans and to the passage of additional segregation laws in the South. In 1905, Du Bois and other critics of Washington met in Niagara Falls, Canada, and organized a campaign to protest racial discrimination. Their campaign became known as the Niagara Movement.

Bitter hostility toward African Americans erupted into several race riots during the early 1900’s. The riots alarmed many white Northerners as well as many African Americans. In 1909, a number of white Northerners joined some of the African Americans in the Niagara Movement to form the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). The NAACP vowed to fight for racial equality. The organization relied mainly on legal action, education, protests, and voter participation to pursue its goals.

The Black Migration to the North

The efforts of new black leaders and of the NAACP did little to end the discrimination, police brutality, and lynchings suffered by Southern African Americans during the early 1900’s. In addition, Southern farmers had great crop losses because of floods and insect pests. All these problems persuaded many Southern African Americans to move to the North. This movement is sometimes called the “Great Migration.”

During World War I (1914-1918), hundreds of thousands of Southern African Americans migrated to the North to seek jobs in defense plants and other factories. The National Urban League, founded in New York City in 1910, helped the newcomers adjust to city life. About 400,000 African Americans served in the armed forces during World War I. They were put in all-black military units.

Between 1910 and 1930, about 1 million Southern African Americans moved to the North. Most of them quickly discovered that the North did not offer solutions to their problems. They often lacked the skills and education needed for the jobs they sought. Many of them had to again become laborers or servants. Others could find no work at all. Numerous African Americans were forced to live crowded together in cheap, unsanitary, run-down housing. Large all-black slums developed in big cities throughout the North. The segregated housing promoted segregated schooling. Poverty, crime, and despair plagued the African American communities, which became known as ghettos.

After World War I, race relations grew increasingly tense in the Northern cities. The hostility partly reflected the growing competition for jobs and housing between African Americans and whites. In addition, many African American veterans, after fighting for democracy, returned home with expectations of justice and equality. The mounting tension helped the Ku Klux Klan recruit thousands of members in the North.

The Harlem Renaissance

The Harlem Renaissance was a significant movement in African American literature and other arts during the 1920’s and early 1930’s. This artistic “renaissance,” which means rebirth, was set in Harlem, an area in New York City that was the center of African American cultural life during the period.

During the Harlem Renaissance, writers and artists tried to explore African Americans life in the United States in a fresh way. Many of the writers rejected earlier representations of African Americans as being narrow and simplified. One of the leading thinkers of the Harlem Renaissance was Alain Locke, a professor and philosopher, who edited an important anthology called *The New Negro: An Interpretation* (1925). The volume conveyed the new sense of sophistication, dignity, and racial pride that characterized the movement. Several white writers also supported the Harlem Renaissance, notably Carl Van Vechten.

The major African American writers during the Harlem Renaissance included Arna Bontemps, Countee Cullen, Langston Hughes, Zora Neale Hurston, James Weldon Johnson, Claude McKay, and Jean Toomer. These writers created works that drew on African American folk culture and addressed such themes as politics, gender, and heritage.

African American painters, sculptors, actors, and musicians also contributed to the Harlem Renaissance. The painters and sculptors gave a new sense of realism in their portrayals of African Americans life. Notable artists were the painters Palmer Hayden and Laura Wheeler Waring and the sculptors Meta Warrick Fuller and Sargent Johnson. Many of the musicians were important jazz figures, such as Louis Armstrong, Eubie Blake, and Duke Ellington. Prominent actors included Charles Gilpin, Paul Robeson, and Bill Robinson.

Several historical factors helped the Harlem Renaissance develop. They included African American migration from the South to the North, civil rights activism, and the growth of African Americans publishing. Critics note that during the 1920’s similar movements of African American creativity were occurring elsewhere in American cities, as well as among African Americans populations in other countries.

Good morning, daddy!
I was born here, he said,
watched Harlem grow
until the colored folks spread from river to river

across the middle of Manhattan
out of Penn Station
dark tenth of a nation,
planes from Puerto Rico,
and holds of boats, Chico,

up from Cuba Haiti Jamaica,
in buses marked New York
from Georgia Florida Louisiana
to Harlem Brooklyn the Bronx
but most of all to Harlem
dusky sash across Manhattan
I've seen them come dark
wondering
wide-eyed
dreaming
out of Penn Station
but the trains are late.
The gates are open
Yet there're bars
at each gate.

What happens
to a dream deferred?
Daddy, ain't you heard?
GRADE LEVEL: Social Studies – Secondary - Middle and Senior High School

TITLE: Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.

OBJECTIVES: Objectives from the Florida Standards are noted with FS.

1. The students will describe the life and lasting contributions of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.

2. The students will describe the influence of individuals (Dr. King) on social and political developments of this era in American History.

3. The students will analyze support for and resistance to civil rights for women, African Americans, Native Americans, and other minorities.

4. The students will differentiate fact from opinion, utilize appropriate historical research and fiction/nonfiction support materials.

5. The students will utilize a variety of primary and secondary sources to identify author, historical significance, audience, and authenticity to understand a historical period.

6. The students will determine the central ideas or information of a primary or secondary source; provide an accurate summary that makes clear the relationships among the key details and ideas. (FS)

7. The students will determine the central ideas or conclusions of a text; summarize complex concepts, processes, or information presented in a text by paraphrasing them in simpler but still accurate terms. (FS)

SUGGESTED TIME: 1 class period
DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITIES:

TEACHER’S NOTES:

a) This lesson is also included in the 2015 instructional resource guide for Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. Day. The resource guide can be accessed at the web site of the Department of Social Sciences.

b) Separate middle and senior high school reading assignments and questions are provided for this lesson. Teachers may use the reading most appropriate for their students.

1. As an introduction, show students an image of Dr. King (provided) and, if technology is available, play one or more of the on-line speech recordings of Dr. King to the class.

TEACHER’S NOTE: Recordings of Dr. King’s speeches may be found on-line at:

- The Martin Luther King Jr. Research and Education Institute at Stanford University, https://kinginstitute.stanford.edu/
- Dr. Martin Luther Ling.com, http://www.drmartinlutherkingjr.com/

2. Briefly discuss why students believe Dr. King was important in the history of our country and review the concept of civil rights.

TEACHER’S NOTES:

Civil rights are the rights of individuals to receive equal treatment and to be free from unfair treatment or discrimination by governments, social organizations, and individuals. Examples of civil rights are freedom of speech, press, and assembly; the right to vote; freedom from involuntary servitude; and the right to equality in public places. Discrimination occurs when the civil rights of an individual are denied or interfered with because of their membership in a particular group or class. Various jurisdictions have enacted statutes to prevent discrimination based on a person’s race, sex, religion, age, previous condition of servitude, physical limitation, national origin, and in some instances sexual orientation.
Historically, the Civil Rights Movement referred to efforts, most notably in the 1950s and 1960s, toward achieving true equality for African-Americans in all facets of society. However, today the term "civil rights" is also used to describe the advancement of equality for all people regardless of race, sex, age, disability, national origin, religion, sexual orientation or certain other characteristics.

Sources: http://civilrights.findlaw.com/civil-rights-overview/what-are-civil-rights.html; and, http://www.law.cornell.edu/wex/civil_rights

3. Have students read the “Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.” assignment (provided) and answer the questions about the reading (provided).

4. Discuss the answers to the reading questions, with special emphasis given to Dr. King’s efforts to ensure civil rights for all citizens.

ASSESSMENT STRATEGY: Completion of the reading and questions.

MATERIALS/AIDS NEEDED: Image of Dr. King (provided); “Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.” (provided); Questions (provided)

Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (Middle School Reading)

Introduction

Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. (1929-1968) was a Baptist minister and social activist who played an important role in the American civil rights movement from the mid-1950s until his assassination in 1968.

King was inspired by supporters of nonviolent protest such as Mohandas Gandhi of India. Through marches, boycotts, sit-ins, and other peaceful protests, King sought social change, equality, and justice for African Americans and the economically disadvantaged. He was the inspiration and leader for important events such as the Montgomery Bus Boycott and the March on Washington. His work helped bring about such historic laws as the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

King was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1964 and is remembered each year on Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. Day, a national holiday since 1986.

Martin Luther King, Jr. – Early Years and Family

Martin Luther King Jr. was born in Atlanta, Georgia on January 15, 1929. He was the second child of Martin Luther King, Sr. (1899-1984), a pastor, and Alberta Williams King (1904-1974), a former schoolteacher. Along with his older sister, Christine (born 1927), and younger brother, Alfred Daniel Williams King (1930-1969), he grew up in Atlanta’s Sweet Auburn neighborhood.

A gifted student, King attended segregated public schools. (Segregation is the practice or policy of keeping people of different races, religions, etc., separate from each other. People who favor segregation are called segregationists.) At the young age of 15, he was admitted to Morehouse College where he studied medicine and law. He had not intended to follow in his father’s footsteps by joining the ministry. However, he changed his mind under the guidance of Dr. Benjamin Mays, the president of Morehouse. Mays was an influential religious leader and activist for racial equality and civil rights. After graduating from Morehouse in 1948, King entered Crozer Theological Seminary in Pennsylvania where he earned a Bachelor of Divinity degree in 1951. He was also elected president of his mostly white senior class.

King then enrolled in a graduate program at Boston University where he earned a doctorate in theology in 1955. While in Boston, he met Coretta Scott (1927-2006), a young singer from Alabama who was studying at the New England Conservatory of Music. The couple married in 1953 and settled in Montgomery, Alabama, where King became pastor of the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church. They had four children: Yolanda
Denise King (1955-2007), Martin Luther King III (born 1957), Dexter Scott King (born 1961) and Bernice Albertine King (born 1963).

Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and the Montgomery Bus Boycott

The King family had been living in Montgomery, Alabama for less than a year when the highly segregated city became the center of the growing struggle for civil rights in the United States. On December 1, 1955, Rosa Parks (1913-2005), secretary of the local National Association for the Advancement of Colored People chapter, refused to give up her seat to a white passenger on a Montgomery bus and was arrested. Activists coordinated a bus boycott that would continue for over a year. The boycott caused a severe economic strain on the public transportation system and on business owners in downtown Montgomery. Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. was the leader and official spokesmen for the boycott.

By the time the Supreme Court ruled, in November 1956, that segregated seating on public buses was illegal, King was already known throughout the nation as a major leader of nonviolent protest for civil rights. He had also become the target of violence and threats on his life.

Strengthened by the boycott’s success, he and other civil rights activists founded the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) in 1957. SCLC’s goal was to achieve full equality for African Americans through nonviolence. King would remain as the leader of this influential organization until his death.

Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC)

In his role as SCLC president, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. traveled across the country and around the world giving lectures on nonviolent protest and civil rights, as well as meeting with other activists and political leaders. During a month-long trip to India in 1959, King had the opportunity to meet Mohandas Gandhi, the man he described in his autobiography as “the guiding light of our technique of nonviolent social change.” King also wrote several books and articles during this time.

In 1960, King and his family moved to Atlanta, Georgia where he joined his father as co-pastor of the Ebenezer Baptist Church. This new position did not stop Dr. King and his SCLC partners from becoming key players in many of the most significant civil rights battles of the 1960s. Their belief in nonviolent protest was put to the test in Birmingham, Alabama in 1963. Civil rights activists used a boycott, sit-ins and marches to protest segregation, unfair hiring practices, and other injustices in Birmingham. King was arrested on April 12 for his involvement in the protest. While in jail, Dr. King wrote the famous civil rights statement known as the “Letter from Birmingham Jail.” The letter was addressed to a group of white ministers who had criticized King’s methods of
protest. King’s letter defended civil disobedience. (Civil disobedience is refusing to obey laws as a way of forcing the government to do or change something.)

Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. Marches for Freedom

Later in 1963, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. worked with civil rights and religious groups to organize the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom. The event was attended by 200,000 to 300,000 participants and is considered one of the most important events in the history of the American civil rights movement. It contributed to the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

The march concluded with Dr. King’s most famous address, the “I Have a Dream” speech. Standing on the steps of the Lincoln Memorial, King shared his vision of a future in which “this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: ‘We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal...’”

The speech and march reinforced Dr. King’s reputation at home and abroad as a champion for equality and justice. Later that year, he was named Man of the Year by TIME magazine, and, in 1964, became the youngest person ever awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

In the spring of 1965, Dr. King’s reputation drew international attention to the violence that broke out between white segregationists and peaceful demonstrators in Selma, Alabama. The SCLC and Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) had organized a voter registration campaign in Selma. Captured on television, the brutal scene outraged many Americans and inspired supporters from across the country to gather in Selma and take part in a march to Montgomery led by King. President Lyndon Johnson (1908-1973) sent in federal troops to keep the march peaceful. That August, Congress passed the Voting Rights Act, which guaranteed the right to vote - first awarded by the 15th Amendment - to all African Americans.

Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.’s Final Years and Assassination

The events in Selma deepened a growing difference between Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and young radicals who rejected his nonviolent methods and commitment to working within the established political framework. As more militant black leaders such as Stokely Carmichael (1941-1998) rose to prominence, King expanded his activism to address issues such as the Vietnam War and poverty among Americans of all races. In 1967, Dr. King and the SCLC started a bold program known as the Poor People's Campaign, which was to include a massive march on the capital.
On the evening of April 4, 1968, King was fatally shot while standing on the balcony of a motel in Memphis, Tennessee where he had traveled to support a garbage workers’ strike. Immediately following his death, riots swept major cities across the country. President Johnson declared a national day of mourning. James Earl Ray (1928-1998), an escaped convict and known racist, pleaded guilty to the murder and was sentenced to 99 years in prison.

After years of campaigning by activists, members of Congress, and Coretta Scott King, President Ronald Reagan (1911-2004) signed a bill in 1983 creating a U.S. federal holiday in honor of King. Observed on the third Monday of January, it was first celebrated in 1986.

Conclusion

Dr. King stood for the non-violent pursuit of equal rights and civil liberties for all Americans, especially African Americans. The King Center in Atlanta summarizes his legacy as follows:

“During the less than 13 years of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.’s leadership of the modern American Civil Rights Movement, from December, 1955 until April 4, 1968, African Americans achieved more genuine progress toward racial equality in America than the previous 350 years had produced. Dr. King is widely regarded as America’s pre-eminent advocate of nonviolence and one of the greatest nonviolent leaders in world history.”

Sources: Reading adapted from History.com, http://www.history.com/topics/black-history/martin-luther-king-jr; http://www.thekingcenter.org/about-dr-king
Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (Senior High School Reading)

Martin Luther King Jr. (1929-1968) was a Baptist minister and social activist who played a key role in the American civil rights movement from the mid-1950s until his assassination in 1968. Inspired by advocates of nonviolence such as Mohandas Gandhi, King sought equality for African Americans, the economically disadvantaged and victims of injustice through peaceful protest. He was the driving force behind watershed events such as the Montgomery Bus Boycott and the March on Washington, which helped bring about such landmark legislation as the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965. King was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1964 and is remembered each year on Martin Luther King Jr. Day, a U.S. federal holiday since 1986.

Martin Luther King, Jr. – Early Years and Family

The second child of Martin Luther King Sr. (1899-1984), a pastor, and Alberta Williams King (1904-1974), a former schoolteacher, Martin Luther King Jr. was born in Atlanta, Georgia, on January 15, 1929. Along with his older sister, the future Christine King Farris (born 1927), and younger brother, Alfred Daniel Williams King (1930-1969), he grew up in the city’s Sweet Auburn neighborhood, then home to some of the most prominent and prosperous African Americans in the country.

A gifted student, King attended segregated public schools. (Segregation is the practice or policy of keeping people of different races, religions, etc., separate from each other. People who favor segregation are called segregationists.) At the age of 15, he was admitted to Morehouse College, the alma mater of both his father and maternal grandfather, where he studied medicine and law. Although he had not intended to follow in his father’s footsteps by joining the ministry, he changed his mind under the mentorship of Morehouse’s president, Dr. Benjamin Mays, an influential theologian and outspoken advocate for racial equality. After graduating in 1948, King entered Crozer Theological Seminary in Pennsylvania, where he earned a Bachelor of Divinity degree, won a prestigious fellowship and was elected president of his predominantly white senior class.

King then enrolled in a graduate program at Boston University, completing his coursework in 1953 and earning a doctorate in systematic theology two years later. While in Boston, he met Coretta Scott (1927-2006), a young singer from Alabama who was studying at the New England Conservatory of Music. The couple wed in 1953 and settled in Montgomery, Alabama, where King became pastor of the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church. They had four children: Yolanda Denise King (1955-2007), Martin Luther King III (born 1957), Dexter Scott King (born 1961) and Bernice Albertine King (born 1963).
Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and the Montgomery Bus Boycott

The King family had been living in Montgomery for less than a year when the highly segregated city became the epicenter of the burgeoning struggle for civil rights in America, galvanized by the landmark Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka decision of 1954. On December 1, 1955, Rosa Parks (1913-2005), secretary of the local National Association for the Advancement of Colored People chapter, refused to give up her seat to a white passenger on a Montgomery bus and was arrested. Activists coordinated a bus boycott that would continue for over a year, placing a severe economic strain on the public transit system and downtown business owners. They chose Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. as the protest’s leader and official spokesman.

By the time the Supreme Court ruled segregated seating on public buses unconstitutional in November 1956, King, heavily influenced by Mohandas Gandhi (1869-1948) and the activist Bayard Rustin (1912-1987), had entered the national spotlight as an inspirational proponent of organized, nonviolent resistance. (He had also become a target for white supremacists, who firebombed his family home that January.) Emboldened by the boycott’s success, in 1957 he and other civil rights activists - most of them fellow ministers - founded the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), a group committed to achieving full equality for African Americans through nonviolence. (Its motto was “Not one hair of one head of one person should be harmed.”) He would remain at the helm of this influential organization until his death.

Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC)

In his role as SCLC president, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. traveled across the country and around the world, giving lectures on nonviolent protest and civil rights as well as meeting with religious figures, activists and political leaders. (During a month-long trip to India in 1959, King had the opportunity to meet Gandhi, the man he described in his autobiography as “the guiding light of our technique of nonviolent social change.”) King also authored several books and articles during this time.

In 1960, King and his family moved to Atlanta, his native city, where he joined his father as co-pastor of the Ebenezer Baptist Church. This new position did not stop Dr. King and his SCLC colleagues from becoming key players in many of the most significant civil rights battles of the 1960s. Their philosophy of nonviolence was put to a particularly severe test during the Birmingham campaign of 1963, in which activists used a boycott, sit-ins and marches to protest segregation, unfair hiring practices and other injustices in one of the nation’s most racially divided cities. Arrested for his involvement on April 12, Dr. King penned the civil rights manifesto known as the “Letter from Birmingham Jail,” an eloquent defense of civil disobedience addressed to a group of white clergymen who
had criticized his tactics. (Civil disobedience is refusing to obey laws as a way of forcing the government to do or change something.)

Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. Marches for Freedom

Later in 1963, Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. worked with a number of civil rights and religious groups to organize the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom, a peaceful political rally designed to shed light on the injustices African Americans continued to face across the country. Held on August 28 and attended by some 200,000 to 300,000 participants, the event is widely regarded as a watershed moment in the history of the American civil rights movement and a factor in the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

The march culminated in Dr. King’s most famous address, known as the “I Have a Dream” speech, a spirited call for peace and equality that many consider a masterpiece of rhetoric. Standing on the steps of the Lincoln Memorial - a monument to the president who a century earlier had brought down the institution of slavery in the United States - he shared his vision of a future in which “this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: ‘We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal.’" The speech and march cemented Dr. King’s reputation at home and abroad. Later that year he was named Man of the Year by TIME magazine and in 1964 became the youngest person ever awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

In the spring of 1965, Dr. King’s elevated profile drew international attention to the violence that erupted between white segregationists and peaceful demonstrators in Selma, Alabama, where the SCLC and Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) had organized a voter registration campaign. Captured on television, the brutal scene outraged many Americans and inspired supporters from across the country to gather in Selma and take part in a march to Montgomery led by King and supported by President Lyndon Johnson (1908-1973), who sent in federal troops to keep the peace. That August, Congress passed the Voting Rights Act, which guaranteed the right to vote - first awarded by the 15th Amendment - to all African Americans.

Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.'s Final Years and Assassination

The events in Selma deepened a growing rift between Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and young radicals who repudiated his nonviolent methods and commitment to working within the established political framework. As more militant black leaders such as Stokely Carmichael (1941-1998) rose to prominence, King broadened the scope of his activism to address issues such as the Vietnam War and poverty among Americans of all races. In 1967, Dr. King and the SCLC embarked on an ambitious program known as the Poor People’s Campaign, which was to include a massive march on the capital.
On the evening of April 4, 1968, King was fatally shot while standing on the balcony of a motel in Memphis, where he had traveled to support a sanitation workers’ strike. In the wake of his death, a wave of riots swept major cities across the country, while President Johnson declared a national day of mourning. James Earl Ray (1928-1998), an escaped convict and known racist, pleaded guilty to the murder and was sentenced to 99 years in prison. (He later recanted his confession and gained some unlikely advocates, including members of the King family, before his death in 1998.)

After years of campaigning by activists, members of Congress and Coretta Scott King, among others, in 1983 President Ronald Reagan (1911-2004) signed a bill creating a U.S. federal holiday in honor of King. Observed on the third Monday of January, it was first celebrated in 1986.

Conclusion

Dr. King stood for the non-violent pursuit of equal rights and civil liberties for all Americans, especially African Americans. The King Center in Atlanta summarizes his legacy as follows:

“During the less than 13 years of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.’s leadership of the modern American Civil Rights Movement, from December, 1955 until April 4, 1968, African Americans achieved more genuine progress toward racial equality in America than the previous 350 years had produced. Dr. King is widely regarded as America’s pre-eminent advocate of nonviolence and one of the greatest nonviolent leaders in world history.”

Questions - Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr (Middle School)

1. Who inspired King’s belief in nonviolent protests such as marches and boycotts?

2. Define segregation:

3. Define civil disobedience:

4. Place the following events about King’s early life and education in chronological order (1-4):

   ____ King earns a Bachelor of Divinity degree.

   ____ King attends Morehouse College.

   ____ King marries Coretta Scott.

   ____ King earns a Doctorate of Theology degree from Boston University.

5. In your own words, describe the events and results of the following important civil rights events:

   a. Montgomery Bus Boycott, 1955:

   b. Protests in Birmingham, Alabama, 1963:
Questions - Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr (Middle School continued)

c. March on Washington, 1963:

d. The Voter Registration Campaign in Selma, Alabama, 1965:

6. Why did Dr. King write his “Letter from Birmingham Jail”?

7. When and where did Dr. King deliver his famous “I Have a Dream” speech?

8. Describe the differences young, militant black leaders had with Dr. King’s nonviolent methods of protest:
Questions - Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr (Middle School continued)

9. Place the following events in Dr. King’s life chronological order:

   _____Dr. King delivers his “I Have a Dream” speech in Washington, D.C.
   _____Dr. King and other civil rights activists organize the SCLC.
   _____King earns his doctorate from Boston University.
   _____Dr. King is awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.
   _____Dr. King helps organize the Montgomery Bus Boycott.
   _____The Civil Rights Act is passed.
   _____The Voting Rights Act is passed.

10. Dr. King was a major leader in the American civil rights movement. Describe three examples from the reading that demonstrate Dr. King’s commitment to civil rights.
Questions - Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr (Senior High School)

1. Who inspired Dr. King’s belief in nonviolent protests such as marches and boycotts?

2. Who did Dr. King seek equality for?

3. Define segregation:

4. Define civil disobedience and give an example of civil disobedience from the reading:

5. Place the following events about King’s early life and education in chronological order (1-4):

   _____ King earns a Bachelor of Divinity degree.
   _____ King attends Morehouse College.
   _____ King marries Coretta Scott.
   _____ King earns a Doctorate of Theology degree from Boston University.

6. In your own words, describe the events and results of the following important civil rights events:

   a. Montgomery Bus Boycott, 1955:
Questions – Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr (continued)

b. Protests in Birmingham, Alabama, 1963:

c. March on Washington, 1963:

d. The Voter Registration Campaign in Selma, Alabama, 1965:

7. Why did Dr. King write his “Letter from Birmingham Jail”?

8. When and where did Dr. King deliver his famous “I Have a Dream” speech?

9. Describe what you believe Dr. King meant when he shared his vision of a future in which “this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: ‘We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal...’ ”

10. Describe the differences young, militant black leaders had with Dr. King’s nonviolent methods of protest:
Questions - Biography of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr (continued)

11. Place the following events in Dr. King’s life chronological order:

_____ Dr. King delivers his “I Have a Dream” speech in Washington, D.C.
_____ Dr. King and other civil rights activists organize the SCLC.
_____ King earns his doctorate from Boston University.
_____ Dr. King is awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.
_____ Dr. King helps organize the Montgomery Bus Boycott.
_____ The Civil Rights Act is passed.
_____ The Voting Rights Act is passed.

12. Dr. King was a major leader in the American civil rights movement. Describe three examples from the reading that demonstrate Dr. King’s commitment to civil rights.

13. The King Center describes King’s legacy as follows:

“During the less than 13 years of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.’s leadership of the modern American Civil Rights Movement, from December, 1955 until April 4, 1968, African Americans achieved more genuine progress toward racial equality in America than the previous 350 years had produced. Dr. King is widely regarded as America’s pre-eminent advocate of nonviolence and one of the greatest nonviolent leaders in world history.”

Summarize your personal feelings about Dr. King’s contributions and legacy:
GRADE LEVEL: Social Studies – Secondary - Middle and Senior High School

TITLE: Civil Rights Movement

OBJECTIVES: Objectives from the Florida Standards are noted with FS.

1. The students will describe the events that led to the expansion of civil rights for African Americans.

2. The students will identify the individuals and organizations that contributed to the Civil Rights Movement.

3. The students will analyze the successes/challenges of the American Civil Rights Movement.

4. The students will use a timeline to identify and describe important events in the American civil rights movement.

5. The students will utilize timelines to identify the time sequence of historical data.

6. The students will conduct short as well as more sustained research projects to answer a question. (FS)

SUGGESTED TIME: 1 class period

DESCRIPTION OF ACTIVITIES:

1. Place the following two quotes on the board:

   “In the name of the greatest people that ever trod the earth, I draw the line in the dust and toss the gauntlet before the feet of tyranny... and I say... segregation now... segregation tomorrow... segregation forever.” George Wallace, as Governor of Alabama (1963)

   “I have a dream that one day... the state of Alabama... will be transformed into a situation where little black boys and black girls will be able to join hands
with little white boys and white girls and walk together as sisters and brothers.” Rev. Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. (1963)

Introduce the terms “segregationist” and “integrationist” Discuss the quotes in light of these definitions. Note how the quotes represent two, polar opposite views and relate this to the difficulties civil rights leaders faced when trying to change many years of inequality for African Americans.

Explain that in this lesson, students will study the American Civil Rights Movement including some of the leaders of the movement, the goals of the movement, and key events and outcomes of the movement. They will also be asked to offer their opinion on the success of the movement.

TEACHER’S NOTES:

Civil rights are the rights of individuals to receive equal treatment and to be free from unfair treatment or discrimination by governments, social organizations, and individuals. Examples of civil rights are freedom of speech, press, and assembly; the right to vote; freedom from involuntary servitude; and the right to equality in public places. Discrimination occurs when the civil rights of an individual are denied or interfered with because of their membership in a particular group or class. Various jurisdictions have enacted statutes to prevent discrimination based on a person's race, sex, religion, age, previous condition of servitude, physical limitation, national origin, and in some instances sexual orientation.

Historically, the Civil Rights Movement referred to efforts, most notably in the 1950s and 1960s, toward achieving true equality for African-Americans in all facets of society. However, today the term "civil rights" is also used to describe the advancement of equality for all people regardless of race, sex, age, disability, national origin, religion, sexual orientation or certain other characteristics.

A movement includes activities undertaken by a group of people to achieve change.

2. Pass out copies of the reading entitled “The Civil Rights Movement” and the “Civil Rights Questions” (both are provided). Ask students to read the assignment and answer the questions.

Discuss the reading questions with the students.
3. Distribute the “Civil Rights Timeline - Milestones in the Modern Civil Rights Movement” (provided in the Background section of this instructional resource guide) and the worksheet titled, “Civil Rights Timeline” (provided).

To help students become confident with the use of the timeline, ask students to answer the following questions for practice while using the timeline as a reference:

a. When did the 24th Amendment become law? What did this law prohibit?
b. Who was Emmett Till and what happened to him that brought attention to the Civil Rights Movement?
c. When did the U.S. Supreme Court rule that segregation in public schools is unconstitutional? In what famous case did the Supreme Court make this decision?
d. What did Dr. Martin Luther King argue in his famous “Letter from a Birmingham Jail?” When was the letter written?

4. Explain to students that they will be working in pairs to identify what they believe are the three most important events during the Civil Rights Movement.

Have students work in pairs to complete the worksheet titled, “Civil Rights Timeline” using the “Civil Rights Timeline - Milestones in the Modern Civil Rights Movement.” as a reference. (If technology is available, also permit student access to the Internet for research purposes.)

5. Have students share and discuss their findings with the class. See if there is consensus on the most important events. As closure, discuss the following:

a) How important is it to study the successes and failures of the Civil Rights Movement?
b) Name three things that were changed as a result of the Civil Rights Movement.
c) What recent events in our nation can be compared to the Civil Rights Movement? Explain.

ASSESSMENT STRATEGY: Completion of the reading and timeline activity.

MATERIALS/AIDS NEEDED: “Civil Rights Timeline - Milestones in the Modern Civil Rights Movement” (included in the Background section of this instructional resource guide); “Civil Rights Movement Questions” (included); “Civil Rights Timeline” worksheet (included)
**SOURCES:**


The Civil Rights Movement

Introduction – What are Civil Rights?

Civil rights are basic rights that every citizen or resident has under the laws of the government. In the United States, civil rights are protected by the U.S. Constitution. Civil rights for every person means that regardless of gender, skin color, religion, nationality, age, disability, or religion, a person should not be discriminated against. Examples of civil rights include freedom of speech, press, assembly, privacy, and the right to a fair trial. Citizens also have the right to vote.

African Americans Seek True Equality - The Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s

The Civil Rights Movement dates back to the late 1800s, but peaked during the 1950’s and 1960’s. The Civil Rights Movement in the United States was a large, organized movement designed to help African Americans secure equality and the basic civil rights protected by the U.S. Constitution. Leaders of the movement worked to overturn laws that discriminated against African Americans because of their race. Civil rights leaders organized nonviolent protest demonstrations including marches, sit-ins, and boycotts.

The Civil Rights Movement focused on the South where the African American population was concentrated. Racial inequality in education, economic opportunity, and the political and legal processes was wide-spread throughout the South. Beginning in the late 1800’s, state and local governments passed Jim Crow laws. These laws restricted the civil rights of African Americans and made segregation legal. Jim Crow laws also restricted the voting rights of African Americans.

Civil rights activists and leaders pursued their goals through legal means, negotiations, petitions, and nonviolent protest demonstrations, including boycotts, sit-ins and marches. Sadly, through the years, civil rights activists and leaders encountered increasingly violent resistance. Angry mobs often jeered or attacked protesters. White supremacist groups such as the Ku Klux Klan used intimidation and violence to respond to peaceful protests. Law enforcement officials sometimes broke up the protests using clubs, fire hoses, police dogs, and tear gas. A number of civil rights activists were killed and thousands of protestors were injured.

Following is a brief summary of several key events in the American Civil Rights Movement.

Key Events in the Civil Rights Movement

The 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court decision Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas ushered in a new era in the struggle for civil rights. This landmark court decision
outlawed racial segregation in public schools. In the South, white supremacist groups, such as the Ku Klux Klan, turned to violence to protest the end to segregated schools. A primary target of supremacist groups was the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), which had played an important role in the court case.

One of the first attempts to comply with the *Brown* decision came in Little Rock, Arkansas in 1957. When the local school board admitted nine black students to the city’s previously all-white Central High School, white protests turned violent. As a result President Dwight D. Eisenhower dispatched federal troops to protect the black students. A later high-profile case involved Alabama governor George Wallace. In 1963 he attempted to block black students from enrolling at the University of Alabama.

Two events in 1955 helped further spark the civil rights movement. In August, Emmett Till, an African American teenager from Chicago, was beaten and killed while visiting Mississippi. Two white men were charged with the murder, but they were acquitted by an all-white jury. The men later admitted to the crime.

In December 1955, Rosa Parks, an African American bus passenger, was arrested for disobeying a Montgomery, Alabama, bus law. The law required blacks to give up their seats when white people wished to sit in their seats or in the same row. Many of Montgomery’s African American citizens protested the arrest by boycotting the city’s bus system. They refused to ride the buses. The protest lasted over a year. It ended when the city abolished the bus law. The boycott became the first organized mass protest by African Americans in Southern history. It also focused national attention on its leader, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., a Baptist minister from Birmingham, Alabama.

In 1957, civil rights leaders, led by Dr. King, founded the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC). The organization promoted equal rights through nonviolent civil protest and community development programs. Other important civil rights groups included the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC), the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). These groups staged such non-violent protests as boycotts, marches, and sit-ins.

In 1963, the Civil Rights Movement turned to Birmingham, Alabama. For decades, local African American citizens and leaders had faced a hardline segregationist in the person of Eugene "Bull" Connor, the city's commissioner of public safety. He was chiefly responsible for Birmingham's reputation as the "most thoroughly segregated city in the United States." Dr. King arrived in the spring of 1963 and with Fred Shuttlesworth led nonviolent demonstrations. Connor's use of police dogs and fire hoses against protesters, helped awaken President John Kennedy's administration to the need for civil rights legislation.
In 1963, King and other civil rights leaders organized a March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom at the nation's capital in Washington, D.C. Approximately 250,000 supporters gathered. The high point of the rally was Dr. King's stirring "I Have a Dream" speech. It is considered one of the greatest speeches in history. For many people, it has come to symbolize the civil rights movement.

In 1965, civil rights activists began a march from Selma, Alabama, to Alabama’s state capital in Montgomery. The march sought to draw attention to the restriction of the voting rights of African Americans. The marchers were in constant fear of violence, even at the hands of state and local authorities. Media coverage of the violence caused support for the marchers. Later that month, about 30,000 people, guarded by federal troops, successfully completed the march.

Positive Results of the Civil Rights Movement

As a result of the civil rights movement, Congress passed several laws designed to eliminate discrimination based on race. Major laws included the Civil Rights Acts of 1957, 1964, and 1968; and the Voting Rights Act of 1965. The Civil Rights Act of 1968, also known in part as the Fair Housing Act of 1968, prohibited racial discrimination in the sale and rental of most of the housing in the nation.

The 24th Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, banning poll taxes in federal elections, was another victory for the civil rights movement. A poll tax is a tax imposed equally on all the citizens of a community. The amount of the tax is the same for a poor person as for a rich one. Laws in several Southern States had required that a citizen pay the poll tax to vote. The states had used this requirement to prevent poor African Americans from voting.

Civil Rights Today

Historically, the Civil Rights Movement referred to the efforts to achieve true equality for African Americans during the 1950s and 1960s. Today the term "civil rights" is also used to describe the efforts to achieve equality for all people regardless of race, sex, age, disability, national origin, religion, sexual orientation or certain other characteristics.

Civil Rights Movement – Questions

1. Define “civil rights” and give several examples of these rights:

2. Define the Civil Rights Movement and describe the goals of the movement’s leaders:

3. Why did civil rights leaders focus on the South?

4. What were Jim Crow laws?

5. Provide a brief description of each of the following events during the Civil Rights Movement:

   a. Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas, 1954:
Civil Rights Movement – Questions (continued)

b. The Montgomery, Alabama bus boycott, 1955:

c. The protests in Birmingham, Alabama, 1963:

d. The March on Washington, 1963:

e. The March on Selma, Alabama, 1965:

6. Describe 3 positive results of the Civil Rights Movement:
Civil Rights Timeline

Directions: Review the Civil Rights Timeline. Select 3 events from the timeline and provide the date, description, and reason you selected the event.

Event #1: ____________________________________________________________

Date: __________________________________________________________________

Description: __________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

Why this Event is Important: ________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________________
Event #2: ________________________________________________________________

Date: ____________________________________________________________________

Description: __________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________________

Why this Event is Important: __________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________________
Event #3: _________________________________________________________________

Date: _________________________________________________________________

Description: ___________________________________________________________
                                                                
                                                                
                                                                
                                                                
                                                                

Why this Event is Important: ______________________________________________
                                                                
                                                                
                                                                
                                                                
                                                                
                                                                
                                                                
                                                                
                                                                
                                                                

Civil Rights Timeline (continued)

Short-Response: Of the three events you have chosen to describe, which event do you feel was the most important in the civil rights movement? Explain your choice.

______________________________________________________________________
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______________________________________________________________________
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______________________________________________________________________
Additional Activities to Celebrate Black History Month

Arts

On the Block
Romare Bearden was a prominent collage artist based in Harlem. Share images of his work with kids by visiting the Romare Bearnden Foundation website, then click on Education Resources to explore ways to incorporate Bearden’s work in your classroom. Begin by inviting small groups to make a collage of their neighborhood in the style of Bearden’s *The Block*.

Story Quilts
The women of Gee’s Bend, Alabama, created quilts that told stories. Read about them in Patricia McKissack’s book, *Stitchin’ and Pullin’*, and view photos at Auburn University. Then have students create quilted squares that, when put together, tell a classroom narrative.

Jazz Clouds
Pay homage to great African American jazz musicians, such as Louis Armstrong, Dizzy Gillespie, and Duke Ellington, by reading *This Jazz Man* by Karen Ehrhardt. Then listen to their music and have students free-write phrases to describe how the music makes them feel. Type the words into wordle.net to make a colorful “word cloud” that represents jazz music.

Twelve-Bar Blues
Teach your class about the historical and cultural significance of the blues, which is steeped in slavery and work songs. Help your students brainstorm things that might give them “the blues.” Teach your students about the 12-bar structure of the blues with the lesson plan from the Blues Classroom from PBS.

Posters
Create a poster illustrating the 2015 Black History Month theme, “A Century of Black Life, History, and Culture.”

Literacy

Character Interviews
Have students work in pairs to research African-American children’s book authors, such as Christopher Paul Curtis, Julius Lester, Patricia McKissack, Walter Dean Myers, Faith Ringgold, and Mildred D. Taylor. Then ask each pair to simulate a Q&A between the
author and one of his or her characters — with the character asking how and why the book was written.

**School Newspaper**

Write an article for your school's newspaper about people who are leaders for social justice today. If there are no clear leaders, why don't you think there are? What qualities make up a leader? How is the social justice movement impacted by what is happening today?

**Famous Speeches**

Read speeches from the Civil Rights era, including Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.’s "I Have a Dream" speech. Write a journal reflecting on King’s vision and whether or not it seems to have been fulfilled. If so, how was this achieved? If not, what is still keeping this dream from being a reality?

**History**

**Schools of Many Colors**
Learn about school desegregation by reading *The School Is Not White!*, by Doreen Rappaport. Then share President John F. Kennedy's quote, “When Americans are sent to Vietnam or West Berlin, we do not ask for whites only. It ought to be possible, therefore, for American students of any color to attend any public institution....” Discuss how this statement reflects what happened in the book.

**Wax Museum**
Have students study an African-American historical figure, then dress up as their subject, adding an identifying name tag. Invite visitors to your “wax museum” to press imaginary buttons and bring the statues to life!

**Trip for Freedom**
Take an interactive trip on the Underground Railroad. Read Fannie Moore’s personal story and answer the questions about what it might have been like to be in her shoes. Students can also write letters using the secret code of the escaped slaves.

**Stand Up for Rosa**
Rosa Parks was tired of injustice the day she refused to give up her seat on the bus. Introduce her to students by reading *Rosa*, by Nikki Giovanni. Have students each write a poem celebrating the bravery in her action.
Slavery in New York
The South was not the only place that had a slave population. Slavery existed in the northern states, too. Visit the New York Historical Society’s “Slavery in New York” exhibit online, which explores the vital role the slave trade played in making New York one of the wealthiest cities in the world. Have students discuss what New York might be like today without this history.

Images of the Civil Rights Movement
Using online resources, examine and gather photographs from newspapers and news magazines to create a journal illustrating the struggle and importance of the American Civil Rights Movement.

Government
Hope Boxes
Nikki Grimes authored *Barack Obama: Son of Promise, Child of Hope* prior to President Obama’s November 2008 election. Discuss the concept of hope, which is a central theme of Grimes’s book, with your class. Then have each child create a small hope box out of cardstock. Fill the boxes with hopeful messages and affirmations.

Sports
Gold-medal Math
Wow your class with stats about Jesse Owens, the first American in Olympic track and field history to win four gold medals in a single Olympics. Have kids use math to determine how many meters per second he ran during his gold-medal races.

A Baseball Great
Read Myron Uhlberg’s book *Dad, Jackie, and Me*, the story of a white man and his deaf father who vigorously supported Jackie Robinson in 1947 when he became the first African-American baseball player in the major leagues. After reading the book and the author’s note, discuss the ways in which Robinson and Uhlberg’s father overcame prejudice to prove their abilities to others. If you have a document camera, consider projecting the images from the end pages, which contain original newspaper clippings about Robinson.

Source: Adapted from Scholastic, http://www.scholastic.com/teachers/article/13-ways-celebrate-black-history-month
Internet Resources
Internet Resources to Support Black History Month

About.com - African American History
http://afroamhistory.about.com/library/calendar/blcal.htm - This site contains articles, biographies, and a daily Black History calendar.

Association of African American Life and History (ASALAH)
http://asalh100.org/ - The home site for Association of African American Life and History (ASALAH) provides background information on Dr. Carter G. Woodson, the Founder of Black History Month, and the organization’s mission to promote Black history.

Biography.com
http://www.biography.com/search/black%20history – This site contains numerous biographies of notable African Americans

Black History Now
http://blackhistorynow.com/ - This site contains a comprehensive collection of biographies of African Americans in a wide variety of fields.

Britannica
http://kids.britannica.com/blackhistory - This site from Encyclopedia Britannica includes timelines, biographies, source documents and learning activities on Black history.

Center for Civic Education
http://www.civiced.org/resources/curriculum/black-history-month - This site includes six comprehensive lesson plans for Black History Month on the strategy of non-violent protest.

Constitutional Rights Foundation
http://www.crf-usa.org/black-history-month/black-history-month - This site offers a variety of readings on the African American experience in America.

EdSite – National Endowment for the Humanities
http://edsitement.neh.gov/feature/edsitements-guide-black-history-month-teaching-resources - This site includes background information on the African American experience arranged by historical period.
Fact Monster – African American Timelines
http://www.factmonster.com/black-history-month/timelines.html - This site includes a number of resources to support instruction on Black history, including timelines, famous speeches, and information on notable African Americans.

Library of Congress – Teachers Guides and Analysis Tools (Primary Sources)
http://www.loc.gov/teachers/usingprimarysources/guides.html - This site contains a number of tools to help students analyze primary sources, including photographs, political cartoons, maps, etc.

Smithsonian National Museum of American History – Engaging Students with Primary Sources
http://historyexplorer.si.edu/PrimarySources.pdf - This site contains a comprehensive handbook to help students analyze primary sources, including documents, photographs, oral histories, objects, etc.
Anti-Discrimination Policy

Federal and State Laws

The School Board of Miami-Dade County, Florida adheres to a policy of nondiscrimination in employment and educational programs/activities and strives affirmatively to provide equal opportunity for all as required by:

Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 - prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, or national origin.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended - prohibits discrimination in employment on the basis of race, color, religion, gender, or national origin.

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 - prohibits discrimination on the basis of gender.

Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 (ADEA) as amended - prohibits discrimination on the basis of age with respect to individuals who are at least 40.

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 as amended - prohibits gender discrimination in payment of wages to women and men performing substantially equal work in the same establishment.

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 - prohibits discrimination against the disabled.

Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (ADA) - prohibits discrimination against individuals with disabilities in employment, public service, public accommodations and telecommunications.

The Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993 (FMLA) - requires covered employers to provide up to 12 weeks of unpaid, job-protected leave to "eligible" employees for certain family and medical reasons.

The Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978 - prohibits discrimination in employment on the basis of pregnancy, childbirth, or related medical conditions.

Florida Educational Equity Act (FEA) - prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, gender, national origin, marital status, or handicap against a student or employee.

Florida Civil Rights Act of 1992 - secures for all individuals within the state freedom from discrimination because of race, color, religion, sex, national origin, age, handicap, or marital status.

Title II of the Genetic Information Nondiscrimination Act of 2008 (GINA) - Prohibits discrimination against employees or applicants because of genetic information.

Veterans are provided re-employment rights in accordance with P.L. 93-508 (Federal Law) and Section 295.07 (Florida Statutes), which stipulate categorical preferences for employment.

In Addition: School Board Policies 1362, 3362, 4362, and 5517 - Prohibit harassment and/or discrimination against students, employees, or applicants on the basis of sex, race, color, ethnic or national origin, religion, marital status, disability, genetic information, age, political beliefs, sexual orientation, gender, gender identification, social and family background, linguistic preference, pregnancy, and any other legally prohibited basis. Retaliation for engaging in a protected activity is also prohibited. Rev. (05-12)