

ERAS 9 & 10, POSTWAR UNITED STATES, 1945-1970 & CONTEMPORARY UNITED STATES (1968 TO THE PRESENT)

Introduction

At 8:46 a.m. on Tuesday, September 11, 2001 a Boeing 767 passenger plane slammed into the 96th floor of the 110 story North Tower of New York City's World Trade Center. Fifteen minutes later a second airliner plowed into the 80th floor of the South Tower. Thirty-four minutes after that a third plane plunged into the Pentagon in Washington, D.C. and burst into flames, and a few moments after that a fourth hijacked airliner, probably destined to crash into the White House, went down in a field in Pennsylvania as the passengers were struggling to retake the plane. In all, over 3,000 people died (more than the number of Americans who died at Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941), including over 350 New York firemen who perished while trying to help people escape from the twin towers. That evening, President George Bush addressed the nation, saying in part:

This is a day when all Americans from every walk of life unite in our resolve for justice and peace. America has stood down enemies before, and we will do so this time. None of us will ever forget this day, yet we go forward to defend freedom and all that is good and just in our world... Good night and God bless America.¹

As they had in the past, the American people did, as their president said, unite to face an enemy from outside. Within a few months, however, that temporary consensus had broken down as Americans once again assaulted one another across an ever-widening dividing line between liberals and conservatives. As we write this part of the Teachers' Manual, that chasm is still growing, affecting domestic issues, foreign affairs, social concerns, religion, and even the teaching and learning of American history.²

Since 1945, Americans have disagreed strongly over two groups of issues:

1. What should the role of the federal government be in regulating, guiding, reforming aspects of American economic and social life? If that role is to be expanded, should the size of the federal government grow, and how should this expanding role be paid for?
2. To what extent should (can) the United States provide economic, social, ideological, and military leadership for the post-World War II world? What strategies should (can) be used against real and/or perceived enemies? Should (can) the United States be the world's policeman? The world's breadbasket? The world's political, economic, social, and religious sanctuary?

If you think about it, you will come to recognize and understand that just about every major issue, theme, event, document, or leader can be grouped into these two major divisions. Also, in this way students and teachers alike will see the connections between the past and the present and, equally important, how a study of America's past can lead to an understanding of America's present.

Student Content Goals

1. Explain how the American economy changed after World War II.
2. Describe the Soviet and American relationship during the Cold War.
3. Describe the struggle for racial and gender equality.

¹ For the full text of President Bush's September 11, 2001 speech see <http://archives.cnn.com/2001/US/09/11/bush.speech.text/>

² For the controversy over history textbooks see Gary B. Nash, Charlotte Crabtree, and Ross E. Dunn, *History on Trial: Culture Wars and the Teaching of the Past* (New York: Knopf, 1997); Joseph Moreau, *Schoolbook Nation: Conflicts Over American History Textbooks from the Civil War to the Present* (Ann Arbor, 2003); Frances FitzGerald, *America Revised: History Schoolbooks in the Twentieth Century* (Boston, 1979); Joyce Appleby, Lynn Hunt, and Margaret Jacob, *Telling the Truth About History* (New York, 1994); E. Merrill Root, *Brainwashing in the High Schools: An Examination of Eleven American History Textbooks* (New York, 1958).

4. Show how American culture changed over time as a consequence of technology, industrialization, music, politics, etc.
5. Describe the changing relationship between the United States and foreign countries.
6. Describe the political and economic changes in Europe and elsewhere following the fall of the Soviet Union.
7. Describe important global environmental issues.
8. Explain the effects of the computer on American life.
9. Describe the role of the United Nations in international affairs.
10. Explain the United States' involvement in Korea and Vietnam.
11. Explain the importance of the Supreme Court decision *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, KS* (1954).
12. Explain the important events and individuals of the Civil Rights Movement (Martin Luther King, Jr.; Caesar Chavez; Montgomery Bus Boycott; American Indian Movement; Birmingham Civil Rights March; Freedom Rides; Civil Rights Acts of 1964 and 1965).
13. Describe Tennessee's involvement in the Civil Rights Movement.
14. Explain how Watergate affected the Nixon Administration and American politics.
15. Describe the Iran crisis of the late 1970s and its significance.
16. Describe the contributions of Tennesseans to the arts.
17. Describe the importance of the media in shaping public opinion.
18. Describe the Cuban missile crisis and its significance.
19. Describe Lyndon Johnson's War on Poverty and Great Society.
20. Describe the presidential administrations of Harry Truman, Dwight Eisenhower, John Kennedy, Lyndon Johnson, Richard Nixon, Gerald Ford, Jimmy Carter, Ronald Reagan, George H.W. Bush, Bill Clinton, and George W. Bush.

Student Skills Goals

1. Interpret timelines that depict American political history since 1945, American foreign policy since 1945, American social and economic history since 1945, the Civil Rights Movement since 1954.
2. Interpret a primary reading sample.
3. Interpret a political cartoon that appeared after 1945.
4. Use a world map to describe the history of the Cold War from 1945 to 1989.
5. Use statistics to tell a historical story. NOTE: In order to understand the history of the United States since 1945, it is **critically important that students learn how to work with statistics**. Otherwise, they almost certainly will miss crucial trends. For example, why is it important that students learn that the **median age** of Americans rose from 19.4 years in 1860 to 29.6 years in 1960? Or that the United States' public debt rose from \$43 billion in 1940 to around **\$12 trillion** by 2010? Therefore, not only is it important that students learn to work with statistics, but it is important that they can **use** statistics to explain major political, social, economic, etc. trends.

Teacher Development Goals

1. **Historical Content.** As we near the end of the United States' chronological history (so far), it is very important that the teacher teach students the connections between the past and the present. To do this, the teacher must be able to master sufficient factual content **and** arrange that content into themes that will connect to the present.
2. **Primary Sources.** Not only must the teacher be able to use traditional and non-traditional primary sources, but (as noted above) the teacher must be able to teach students how to **collect, arrange, and interpret statistics**.
3. **Historical Thinking.** Teacher is able to encourage students to think historically about present-day issues and problems. When she/he is successful in doing this, then history suddenly will **come alive** for students as **useful and important**—**not** just because the teacher says so.

4. **Integration of Technology.** By now students should have learned to use technology to locate and collect historical evidence (Google, Wikipedia, etc.) **and** to assess the reliability of that evidence. In Eras 9 and 10, the teacher will be able to demonstrate to students how to make that evidence (statistics, maps, artwork, cartoons, primary documents, photographs, etc.) tell a story about the past.

Timeline

1944	Servicemen’s Readjustment Act (GI Bill)
1945	President Franklin D. Roosevelt dies; Harry S. Truman becomes president
1945	World War II ends
1946	George Kennan’s “long telegram”
1946	Winston Churchill’s “Iron Curtain” speech
1946	Inflation soars to more than 18 percent
1946	ENIAC, the first electronic computer begins operation
1947	Truman Doctrine
1947	Jackie Robinson breaks major league baseball’s color-line
1947	Taft-Hartley Act
1947	National Security Act
1947	HUAC holds hearings on Hollywood
1948	State of Israel founded
1848	Berlin airlift
1948	Congress approves Marshall Plan to aid Europe
1948	President Harry Truman orders an end to segregation in the armed forces
1948	President Truman elected president in his own right
1949	National Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) established
1949	East and West Germany founded as separate nations
1949	Communist victory in China; People’s Republic of China established
1949	Soviet Union detonates an atomic bomb
1950	Korean War begins
1950	McCarran Internal Security Act
1950	Truman accepts NSC-68
1950	China enters the Korean War
1951	Julius and Ethel Rosenberg convicted of espionage
1952	First hydrogen bomb exploded
1952	Dwight D. Eisenhower president
1953	Korea War truce signed
1953	Earl Warren appointed chief justice of U.S. Supreme Court
1954	<i>Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka</i>
1955	Salk polio vaccine developed
1955	AFL-CIO merger
1955	Montgomery bus boycott begins
1956	Interstate Highway Act
1956	Clinton High School (Anderson Co. Schools, Tennessee), first public southern high school desegregated
1957	Eisenhower Doctrine announced
1957	Little Rock school-desegregation crisis
1957	Soviet Union launches Sputnik
1957	Peak of baby boom (4.3 million births)
1958	U.S. and Soviet Union halt atomic tests
1958	National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) founded
1959	Fidel Castro comes to power in Cuba

1959 Eisenhower and Khrushchev meet at Camp David
 1960 U-2 incident
 1960 Suburban population almost equals that of central city
 1960 Sit-ins to protest segregation begins
 1960 John F. Kennedy elected president
 1961 Peace Corps and Alliance for Progress created
 1961 Bay of Pigs invasion
 1961 Freedom Rides
 1961 Berlin Wall erected
 1962 Cuban missile crisis
 1963 Civil rights demonstrations in Birmingham
 1963 Test-Ban Treaty between U.S. and the Soviet Union
 1963 President Kennedy assassinated; Lyndon B. Johnson becomes president
 1963 Betty Friedan, *The Feminist Mystique*
 1964 California becomes most populous state
 1964 Civil Rights Act
 1965 Gulf of Tonkin incident and resolution
 1964 Economic Opportunity Act initiates War on Poverty
 1964 The Beatles arrive in the United States
 1964 President Johnson elected president in his own right
 1965 Bombing of North Vietnam and Americanization of war begins
 1965 Assassination of Malcolm X
 1965 Civil rights march from Selma to Montgomery
 1965 Teach-ins to question U.S. involvement in war in Vietnam begins
 1965 Voting Rights Act
 1965 Cesar Chavez's United Farm Workers strike in California
 1966 Stokely Carmichael calls for Black Power; Black Panthers formed
 1966 National Organization for Women (NOW) founded
 1967 Race riots in Newark, Detroit, and other cities
 1968 Tet offensive
 1968 Martin Luther King, Jr. assassinated
 1968 Robert F. Kennedy assassinated
 1968 Violence mars Democratic convention in Chicago
 1968 Richard M. Nixon elected president
 1969 Apollo 11 lands first American on the moon
 1969 President Nixon begins withdrawal of U.S. troops from Vietnam
 1969 Woodstock festival
 1970 United States invades Cambodia
 1970 Students killed at Kent State and Jackson State Universities
 1970 Earth Day first celebrated
 1971 United States invades Laos
 1971 New York *Times* publishes Pentagon Papers
 1972 President Nixon visits China and the Soviet Union
 1972 Salt I agreement approved
 1972 Break-in at Democratic National Committee headquarters in Watergate complex
 1972 President Nixon reelected
 1973 Vietnam cease-fire agreement signed
 1973 U.S. Senate establishes special committee to investigate Watergate
 1973 Vice President Spiro Agnew resigns; Gerald Ford appointed vice-president
 1973 *Roe v. Wade*

1974 U.S House Judiciary Committee votes to impeach President Nixon; President Nixon resigns; Gerald Ford becomes president

1975 South Vietnamese government falls

1976 Jimmy Carter elected president

1977 Panama Canal treaties ratified

1977 Introduction of Apple II computer

1979 Accident at Three Mile Island nuclear plant

1979 President Carter restores full diplomatic relations with the People's Republic of China

1980 Soviet invasion of Afghanistan

1980 Iran hostage crisis

1980 Ronald Reagan elected president

1981 AIDS first diagnosed

1982 Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) dies

1983 President Reagan proposes Strategic Defense Initiative (Star Wars)

1984 President Reagan reelected

1987 U.S. Stock Market crash

1988 George H. Bush elected president

1989 Massive Alaskan oil spill by *Exxon Valdez*

1989 United States invades Panama; Manuel Noriega overthrown

1989 Berlin Wall is opened

1990 Americans with Disabilities Act passed

1990 Iraq invades Kuwait

1990 Germany reunified; Soviet troops start withdrawal from Eastern Europe

1990-1993 U.S. recession

1991 Persian Gulf War (Operation Desert Storm)

1991 Collapse of Soviet Union

1992 Bill Clinton elected president

1993 Congress approves NAFTA treaty

1993-2000 Economy expands, stock market surges

1993-1994 President health-care reform plan fails

1993 World Trade Center bombing kills six

1993 Raid on Branch Davidians compound in Waco, Texas

1994 United States joins the World Trade Organization (WTO)

1994 Republicans gain control of Congress with "Contract with America"

1996 President Clinton reelected

1998 U.S. of House of Representatives impeaches President Clinton

1999 U.S. Senate dismisses impeachment articles

2000 George W. Bush elected president when U.S. Supreme Court ends Florida election dispute

2001 Congress passes \$1.35 trillion tax cut bill

2001 Stock market falls; Enron Corporation collapses; wave of corporate bankruptcies and scandals

2001 Terrorist attacks on World Trade Center, Pentagon (September 11)

2001 U.S. and allied forces defeat Taliban regime in Afghanistan

2001 Patriot Act passed

2002 Bipartisan Campaign Reform Act (McCain-Feingold) law passed

2002 Department of Homeland Security created

2003 U.S. and coalition forces invade Iraq

2004 President Gorge W. Bush reelected

2005 Hurricane Katrina devastates New Orleans

2008 Barack Obama elected president (first African American)

Major Issues, Themes, Documents, People, Events

1. Issues/Themes

Cold War

Communism; American Containment; McCarthyism and the Red Scare; Korea; Vietnam; Cuban Missile Crisis; and Space Race.

Civil Rights Movement

Racial Segregation; *Brown v. Board of Education, Topeka, Kansas*; *Miranda v. Arizona*; *Gideon v. Wainwright*; Desegregation' Civil Rights Act of 1964

Technology

Television; Music; Nuclear; Satellites/Communications; Computers; Health Care

Era of Assassination

John Kennedy; Martin Luther King; Robert Kennedy

Major Decisions of the Warren Court

Court Case Ruling	Significance	
<i>Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka (1954)</i>	Racially segregated public schools violate the constitutional principle of equal treatment for all.	Outlawed segregation in public education
<i>Watkins v. U. S. (1957)</i>	Congress's investigatory power is limited to matters directly pertinent to pending Legislation.	Prohibited HUAC and other congressional committees from going on witch hunts.
<i>Yates v. U.S. (1957)</i>	The Smith Act prohibits only the advocacy of concrete revolutionary action and not the preaching of revolutionary doctrine	Ended the legal persecution of the Communist Party.
<i>Baker v. Carr (1962)</i>	The federal courts possess jurisdiction over state apportionment systems to ensure that the votes of all citizens carry equal weight.	Reduced the power of rural voters.
<i>Engel v. Vitale (1962)</i>	Requiring children to recite a prayer in public schools violates the separation of church and state.	Ended praying and Bible reading the next year, in public schools.

<i>Gideon v. Wainwright</i> (1963)	States are required to provide attorneys at public expense for indigent defendants in felony cases.	Expanded the rights of criminal suspects.
<i>New York Times Co. v. Sullivan</i> (1964)	Public figures must prove “actual malice” to win libel suits against the press.	Expanded the First Amendment freedoms of the press.
<i>Miranda v. Arizona</i> (1966)	The police must advise a suspect of his or her constitutional right to remain silent and to have a counsel present during interrogation.	Broadened the rights of criminal suspects.
<i>Loving v. Virginia</i> (1967)	State anti-miscegenation laws, which prohibit marriage between persons of different races, are unconstitutional.	Ended bans on interracial marriage.
<i>Katzenbach v. Morgan</i> (1968)	Upheld federal legislation outlawing state requirements that a prospective voter must demonstrate literacy in English.	Allowed Congress great latitude to expand the civil rights of minorities.
<i>Green v. County School Board of New Kent County</i> (1968)	So-called freedom-of-choice plans violate the <i>Brown</i> ruling that segregation in education is unconstitutional.	Placed burden of proof on schools to propose workable plans to end segregation.

Major Great Society Programs

Law	Provisions	Purpose
Tax Reduction Act (1964)	Cuts by some \$10 billion the taxes paid primarily by corporations and wealthy individuals	To use deficit spending to stimulate economic growth.
Civil Rights Act (1964)	Bans discrimination in public accommodations, prohibits discrimination in any federally assisted program, outlaws discrimination in most employment, and enlarges federal powers to speed school desegregation	To end racial discrimination on the basis of race, religion or sex.
Economic Opportunity Act (1964)	Authorizes \$1 billion for a War on Poverty and establishes the Office of Economic Opportunity to coordinate Head Start, Upward Bound, VISTA, the Job Corps, and similar programs.	To end poverty in the United States.
Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965)	Provides more than \$1 billion to public and parochial schools for textbooks, library materials, and special education programs.	To aid “educationally deprived children.”

Voting Rights Act (1965)	Suspends literacy tests and empowers “federal Examiners” to register qualified voters in the South.	To end the disfranchisement of African-Americans.
Medical Care Act (1965)	Creates a federally funded program of hospital and medical insurance for the elderly (Medicare) and authorizes federal funds to the states to provide free health care for welfare recipients (Medicaid).	To provide health insurance for senior citizens and medical care for the poor.
Housing and Urban Development Act (1965)	Appropriates nearly \$8 billion for low- and middle-income housing and for rent supplements for low-income families, and creates the cabinet-level Department of Housing and Urban Development.	To improve housing for the poor and urban beautification.
Appalachian Regional Development Act (1965)	Targets \$1 billion for highway construction, health centers, and resource development in Appalachia.	To stimulate economic growth in this depressed area.
Immigration Act (1965)	Ends the discriminatory system of national-origins quotas established in 1924.	To increase immigration to the U.S., especially from Asia and Latin America.
Higher Education Act (1965)	Appropriates \$650 million for scholarships and low-interest loans to needy college students and for funds for grants to college libraries.	To promote higher education for less-wealthy students.
National Endowments for the Arts and the Humanities Act (1965)	Creates new federally funded endowments.	To promote artistic and cultural activities and development.
Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act (1966)	Provides extensive subsidies for housing, recreational facilities, welfare, and mass transit to selected “model cities” and covers up to 80 percent of the costs of slum clearance and rehabilitation.	To improve the quality of life in urban America.
Motor Vehicle Safety Act (1966)	Sets federal safety standards for the auto industry and a uniform grading system for tire manufacturers.	To reduce auto accidents.
Truth in Packaging Act (1966)	Broadens federal controls over the labeling and packaging of foods, drugs, cosmetics, and household supplies.	To protect consumers from misleading product claims.

The Vietnam War: A Chronology

- 1945** Ho Chi Minh announces Declaration of Independence from France.
- 1950** French controlled Vietnam receives U.S. financial aid and military advisors.
- 1954** Dienbienphu falls to Ho's Vietminh.
Geneva Accords end Indochina War and temporarily divide Vietnam at the seventeenth parallel.
Ngo Dinh Diem becomes South Vietnam's premier.
- 1955** Diem establishes the Republic of Vietnam.
U.S. advisers take over training of South Vietnamese army (ARVN)
- 1960** National Liberation Front (Vietcong) formed.
- 1961** President John Kennedy markedly increases military aid to South Vietnam.
- 1962** Strategic-hamlet program put into operation.
- 1963** Buddhist protests commence.
ARVN coup overthrows and assassinates Diem.
16,000 U. S. military personnel in Vietnam.
- 1964** General William Westmoreland takes charge of U. S. Military Assistance Command in South Vietnam.
Gulf of Tonkin incident and subsequent U.S. congressional resolution.
United States bombs North Vietnam.
23,000 Military personnel in Vietnam.
- 1965** First American combat troops arrive in South Vietnam, at Danang.
184,000 U. S. military personnel in Vietnam.
- 1966** B-52s attack North Vietnam for the first time.
Senate Foreign Relations Committee opens hearings on U.S. in Vietnam.
385,000 U. S. military personnel in Vietnam.
- 1967** Major antiwar demonstrations in New York and San Francisco protest march on the Pentagon.
485, 600 U. S. military personnel in Vietnam.
- 1968** North Vietnamese forces surround Khesanh Tet offensive.
My Lai massacre.
President Lyndon Johnson announces partial bombing halt and decision not to run for reelection.
Peace talks begin in Paris.
General Creighton Abrams replaces Westmoreland as commander of American troops in Vietnam.
536,000 U. S. military personnel in Vietnam.
- 1969** United States begins bombing North Vietnam bases in Cambodia.
Provisional Revolutionary Government (PRG) formed by Vietcong.

- First U.S. troop withdrawal announced after American military personnel in Vietnam reach peak strength of 543,400 in April.
Ho Chi Minh dies.
Nationwide antiwar protest in October.
475,200 military personnel in Vietnam.
- 1970** United States and South Vietnamese forces join Cambodian incursion.
Student protests force some four hundred colleges and universities to close following Kent State killings.
Cooper-Church amendment limits U.S. role in Cambodia.
Senate repeals Gulf Tonkin Resolution.
334,600 U.S. military personnel in Vietnam.
- 1971** United States provides air support for South Vietnamese invasion of Laos.
Antiwar rally of 400,000 in Washington.
Daniel Ellsberg releases Pentagon Papers to the *New York Times*.
- 1972** North Vietnam launches first ground offensive since 1968.
U.S. bombing and mining of North Vietnamese ports.
Last U.S. ground troops leave South Vietnam.
Preliminary peace agreement reached; National Security Advisor Henry Kissinger announces "peace is at hand."
South Vietnam rejects peace treaty.
United States bombs Hanoi and Haiphong.
24,200 U.S. military personnel in Vietnam.
- 1973** Peace agreement signed in Paris for North and South Vietnam, the Vietcong, and the United States.
End of the draft.
Congress passes the War Powers Act.
First American POWs released in Hanoi.
U.S. bombing in Southeast Asia ends.
Fewer than 250 U.S. military personnel in Vietnam.
- 1974** South Vietnam announces new outbreak of war.
- 1975** North Vietnamese offensive captures Danang.
Senate rejects President Gerald Ford's request for emergency aid for South Vietnam.
South Vietnam surrenders following North Vietnam's capture of Saigon.
Khmer Rouge takes control of Cambodia.
Pro-Hanoi People's Democratic Republic established in Laos.

Milestones in Nuclear – Arms Control

Year	Event	Provisions
1963	Limited Test Ban Treaty	Prohibits atmospheric, underwater, and Nuclear testing.
1967	Outer Space Treaty	Prohibits weapons of mass destruction and arms testing in space.
1968	Non-Proliferation Treaty	Promotes peaceful international uses of nuclear energy; Aims to stop the global proliferation of nuclear Weaponry.
1972	Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty (SALT 1)	Limits for five years U.S, and Soviet deployment of defensive weapons systems.
	Anti-Ballistic Missile (ABM) Treaty	Restricts U.S. and Soviet testing and deployment of defensive systems. (Allowed to expire, 2002.)
1974	Threshold Test Ban Treaty	Establishes limits on size of underground tests.
1979	Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty (SALT II)	Limits strategic launch vehicles and delivery craft and restricts the development of new missiles (The treaty was never ratified, but the United States and the Soviet Union observed its terms).
1982	Strategic Arms Reduction Talks (START)	Sought a 50 percent reduction in U. S. and Soviet strategic nuclear weapons.
1988	Intermediate – Range Nuclear Forces (INF)	Commits the United State and Soviet Union to withdraw their intermediate-range nuclear missiles from Eastern and Western Europe and to destroy them.
1991	START Treaty	Provides for a 25 percent cut in U.S. and Soviet strategic nuclear weapons.
2002	Treaty on Strategic Offensive Reduction	Requires deep cuts in number of U. S. and Soviet nuclear warheads by 2012.

2. Documents

Servicemen's Readjustment Act [G.I. Bill] (1944): An omnibus bill enacted by Congress that provided college or vocational education for the returning World War II veterans (commonly referred to as G.I.s) as well as one year of unemployment compensation. It also provided many different types of loans for returning veterans to buy homes and start businesses. Since the original act, the term has come to include other veteran benefit programs created to assist veterans of subsequent wars as well as peacetime service.

Truman Doctrine (1947): President Harry S. Truman's 1947 speech to Congress, in which he requested economic assistance for Greece and Turkey in order to stop the spread of Communism into Eastern Europe, thereby initially establishing the official U.S. foreign policy at the onset of the Cold War, came to be known as the Truman Doctrine.

NSC-68 (1950): A National Security Council document that recommended that the United States quadruple its defense spending, resulting in the militarization of US foreign policy and commitment of nearly 13 percent of the GNP to national defense.

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas (1954): *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* was a landmark decision of the United States Supreme Court, which struck down the 1896 *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision, by declaring that state laws that established separate public schools for black and white students denied black children equal educational opportunities. The decision repudiated the Court's earlier ruling in *Plessy* of "separate but equal."

Letter from a Birmingham Jail, 1963: The Letter from Birmingham Jail or Letter from Birmingham City Jail, is an open letter written on April 16, 1963, by Martin Luther King, Jr., an American civil rights leader. King wrote the letter from the city jail in Birmingham, Alabama, where he was confined after being arrested for his part in a non-violent protest conducted against segregation. In this letter, King defended the practice of civil disobedience to protest unjust laws.

Martin Luther King's "I Have a Dream" Speech (August 28, 1963): A sixteen- minute public speech delivered by Martin Luther King, Jr. on August 28, 1963 on the steps of the Lincoln Memorial during the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom, in which he called for racial equality and an end to discrimination. King's speech was a defining moment of the American Civil Rights Movement. Delivered to over 200,000 civil rights supporters, the speech is often considered to be one of the greatest and most notable speeches in human history

Civil Rights Act of 1964: The Civil Rights Act of 1964 constituted a landmark piece of legislation in the United States that outlawed unequal application of voter registration requirements and racial segregation in schools, at the workplace and by facilities that served the general public ("public accommodations.") Once the Act was implemented, its effects were far-reaching and had tremendous long-term impacts on the whole country. It prohibited discrimination in public facilities, in government, and in employment, invalidating the Jim Crow laws in the southern U.S. It became illegal to compel segregation of the races in schools, housing, or hiring. Powers given to enforce the act were initially weak, but were supplemented during later years. Congress asserted its authority to legislate under several different parts of the United States Constitution,

Voting Rights Act of 1965 : The Voting Rights Act, signed into law by President Lyndon B. Johnson, outlawed discriminatory voting practices that had been responsible for the widespread disenfranchisement of African Americans in the United States. Echoing the language of the 15th

Amendment, the Act prohibited states from imposing any “voting qualification or prerequisite to voting, or standard, practice, or procedure ... to deny or abridge the right of any citizen of the United States to vote on account of race or color.” Specifically, Congress intended the Act to outlaw the practice of requiring otherwise qualified voters to pass literacy tests in order to register to vote, a principal means by which Southern states had prevented African-Americans from exercising the franchise. The Act established extensive federal oversight of elections administration, providing that states with a history of discriminatory voting practices (so-called “covered jurisdictions”) could not implement any change affecting voting without first obtaining the approval of the Department of Justice, a process known as preclearance.

Gulf of Tonkin Resolution (August 7, 1964): The Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, passed by Congress, authorized President Lyndon B. Johnson to use military force in Southeast Asia without an official declaration of war. This resolution ultimately allowed Johnson to escalate United States military involvement in Vietnam.

Cartoon



"I'M EIGHT. I WAS BORN ON THE DAY OF
THE SUPREME COURT DECISION"



I GOT ONE OF 'EM JUST AS SHE ALMOST MADE IT BACK
TO THE CHURCH"



"OUR POSITION HASN'T CHANGED AT ALL"



THE TUNNEL AT THE END OF THE TUNNEL



Music Lyrics

“We Shall Overcome “

The melody dates back to before the Civil War, from a song called "No More Auction Block For Me." Originally, the lyrics were "I'll overcome someday," which dates back to a turn-of-the-20th-century song by the Reverend Charles Tindley of Philadelphia.

Lyrics derived from Charles Tindley's gospel song "I'll Overcome Some Day" (1900), and opening and closing melody from the 19th-century spiritual "No More Auction Block for Me" (a song that dates to before the Civil War). According to Professor Donnell King of Pellissippi State Technical Community College (in Knoxville, Tenn.), "We Shall Overcome" was adapted from these gospel songs by "Guy Carawan, Candy Carawan, and a couple of other people associated with the Highlander Research and Education Center, currently located near Knoxville, Tennessee. I have in my possession copies of the lyrics that include a brief history of the song, and a notation that royalties from the song go to support the Highlander Center."

We shall overcome
We shall overcome
We shall overcome some day

CHORUS: Oh, deep in my heart
I do believe
We shall overcome some day

We'll walk hand in hand
We'll walk hand in hand
We'll walk hand in hand some day
CHORUS

We shall all be free
We shall all be free
We shall all be free some day
CHORUS

We are not afraid
We are not afraid
We are not afraid some day
CHORUS

We are not alone
We are not alone
We are not alone some day
CHORUS

The whole wide world around
The whole wide world around
The whole wide world around some day
CHORUS

We shall overcome
We shall overcome
We shall overcome some day

CHORUS

"I Shall Not Be Moved"

A traditional American folk song whose lyrics probably stretch back to the slave era, although there is no indication of when the song was written or who wrote it. It is a spiritual song that was adapted by the activists of the 1930s, with lyrics changed to "We Shall Not Be Moved," similarly to how "[We Shall Overcome](#)" took on the collective voice in protest rather than its original singular voice.

(Homer Morris)

Well lordy I shall not be, I shall not be moved
I shall not be, I shall not be moved
Just like a tree that's growin' in the meadow (down by the water)
I shall not be moved

I'm on my way to glory land and I shall not be moved
On my way to glory land I will not be moved
I'm like a tree that's planted by the water
I shall not be moved

I shall not be, I shall not be moved
I shall not be, I shall not be moved
Just like a tree that's planted by the water
I shall not be moved

I shall not be, I shall not be moved
I shall not be, I shall not be moved
Just like a tree that's planted by the water
I shall not be moved

Well I'm on my way to glory land and I shall not be moved
On my way to glory land I shall not be moved
I'm like a tree that's planted by the water
I shall not be moved

Oh well
I shall not be, I shall not be moved
I shall not be, I shall not be moved
Just like a tree that's planted by the water
I shall not be moved

On this rock of ages, I shall not be moved
On this rock of ages, I shall not be moved
Just like a tree that's planted by the water
I shall not be moved

Glory, glory, glory hallelujah, I shall not be moved
Glory hallelujah, I shall not be moved
Just like a tree that's planted by the water
I shall not be moved

This Little Light of Mine

"This Little Light of Mine" made it into the American folk music tradition when it was found and documented by John Lomax in 1939. Even though it's become a great [anthem of the Civil Rights movement](#), it's not believed to have hailed from slave spirituals. It was, however, adapted for the Civil Rights movement by Zilphia Horton (who also taught Pete Seeger "[We Shall Overcome](#)") and other activists.

This little light of mine
I'm gonna let it shine
This little light of mine
I'm gonna let it shine
This little light of mine
I'm gonna let it shine
Let it shine, let it shine, let it shine

Down in my heart
I'm gonna let it shine
Down in my heart
I'm gonna let it shine
Down in my heart
I'm gonna let it shine
Let it shine, let it shine, let it shine

Down in South America
I'm gonna let it shine
Down in South America
I'm gonna let it shine
Down in South America
I'm gonna let it shine
Let it shine, let it shine, let it shine

Ain't gonna make it shine
Just gonna let it shine
Ain't gonna make it shine
Just gonna let it shine
Ain't gonna make it shine
Just gonna let it shine
Let it shine, let it shine, let it shine

This little light of mine
I'm gonna let it shine
This little light of mine
I'm gonna let it shine
This little light of mine
I'm gonna let it shine
Let it shine, let it shine, let it shine

Aint Gonna Let Nobody Turn Me 'Round

(based on an African American spiritual)

Aint gonna let nobody
turn me 'roun
turn me 'roun
Aint gonna let nobody
turn me roun
I'm gonna keep on walkin'
keep on talkin
walkin into freedom land

Aint gonna let (add the name a prominent segregationist)
turn me 'roun
turn me 'roun
Aint gonna let (repeat name)
turn me 'roun
I'm gonna keep on walkin'
keep on talkin
walkin into freedom land

Aint gonna let no jailhouse
turn me 'roun
turn me 'roun
Aint gonna let no jailhouse
turn me 'roun
I'm gonna keep on walkin'
keep on talkin
walkin into freedom land

Aint gonna let no policemen
turn me 'roun
turn me 'roun
Aint gonna let no policemen
turn me round
I'm gonna keep on walkin'
keep on talkin
walkin' into freedom land

Aint gonna let no playa haters
turn me 'round
turn me 'round
Aint gonna let no playa haters
turn me 'round
I'm gonna keep on walkin
keep on talkin
walkin into freedom land

This song is based on an African American spiritual. The word "marchin" may be substituted for "walkin". I added the last verse in 2007 to update the song a bit. A "playa hater" (player hater) is a

person who is jealous of another person's possessions, accomplishments, looks etc. A playa hater could also be antagonistic toward the person for no reason at all.

If You Miss Me At The Back Of The Bus

(adapted from the song composed by C. Neblett)

If you miss me at the back of the bus
If you can't find me back there
Come on up to the front of the bus
I'll be sittin right there
I'll be sittin right there
Come on up to the front of the bus
I'll be sittin right there

If you can't find me in the school room
If you can't find me in there
Come on out to the picket line
I'll be standin right there
I'll be standin right there
Come on out to the picket line
I'll be standin right there

If you can't find me in the picket line
If you can't find me out there
Come on down to the jail house
I'll be singin in there
I'll be singin in there
Come on down to the jail house
I'll be singin in there

If you can't find me in jail house
If you don't see me in there
Come on over to the church yard
I'll be prayin out there
I'll be prayin out there
Come on over to the church yard
I'll be prayin out there.

[Here are some additional verses from a 1963 book on Civil Rights songs edited by Guy and Candie Carawan, published by Oak Publications; New York ; p. 50; {Library of Congress Number 63-23278}. I lost the cover page of the copy I reproduced and don't have a title page].

If you miss me from the front of the bus,
and you can't find me nowhere,
Come on up to the driver's seat,
I'll be driving up there. etc.

If you miss me from Jackson State,
and you can't find me no where
Come on over to Ole Miss,

I'll be studyin' over there. etc.

If you miss me from knockin' on doors
and you can't find me nowhere
Come on down to the registrar's room,
I'll be the registrar there. ect.

If you miss me from the cotton field,
and you can't find me nowhere.
Come on down to the court house,
I'll be voting right there. etc

If you miss me from the picket line,
and you can't find me nowhere.
Come on down to the jail house,
I'll be rooming down there. etc.

If you miss me from the Mississippi
River
and you can't find me nowhere
Come on down to the city pool
I'll be swimming in there. etc.

I'm On My Way

(based on an African American spiritual "I'm On My Way to Canaan Land", and "I'm Bound For The Promised Land")

I'm on my way to the freedom land
I'm on my way to the freedom land
I'm on my way to the freedom land
I'm on my way, praise God
I'm on my way.

I asked my brother to come with me
I asked my brother to come with me
I asked my brother to come with me
I'm on my way, praise God
I'm on my way.

I asked my sister to come with me
I asked my sister to come with me
I asked my sister to come with me
I'm on my way, praise God
I'm on my way.

If they say no, I'll go alone
If they say no, I'll go alone
If they say no, I'll go alone
I'm on my way, praise God
I'm on my way.

I'm on my way, and I won't turn back
I'm on my way, and I won't turn back
I'm on my way, and I won't turn back
I'm on my way, praise God

"I'm On My Way"

The Civil Rights movement in 1960s was the singingest movement in American history. Old African American spirituals like, "I Will Overcome," "I'm On My Way to Canaan Land" and dozens of others were adapted by marchers and demonstrators throughout the South and across the nation. By design, the repetitive nature and "call back" structure of a spiritual make it ideal for improvised group singing.

Source: Sing for Freedom, edited and compiled by Guy and Candie Carawan. Sing Out! Publications. Recordings on file by: Carter Family, Mahalia Jackson, Various artists".

Marching 'Round Selma

Marching 'round Selma like Jericho,
Jericho, Jericho
Marching 'round Selma like Jericho
For segregation wall must fall
Look at people answering
To the Freedom Fighters call
Black, Brown and White American say
Segregation must fall
Good evening freedom's fighters
Tell me where you're bound
Tell me where you're marching
"From Selma to Montgomery town

See this note from <http://www.negrospirituals.com/song.htm>

"Sometimes the words of traditional Negro spirituals were slightly changed and adapted to special events. For example, the words of "Joshua Fought the Battle of Jericho (and the walls came tumbling down)" were changed into "Marching 'round Selma".

I Woke Up This Mornin'

(based on an African American spiritual)

(Well I) woke up this mornin' with my mind
stayed
on freedom.
Woke up this mornin' with my mind,
stayed on freedom.
Woke up this mornin' with my mind
stayed
on freedom.
Hallelu, hallelu, hallelujah.

(Oh well) I walked and talked

talked and walked
with my mind
stayed
on freedom.
Walked and talked
talked and walked
with my mind
stayed on freedom.
I walked and talked
talked and walked
with my mind
stayed
on freedom.
Hallelu, hallelu, hallelujah.

(You know) I sing and shout
shout and sing
with my mind
stayed on freedom.
sing and shout
shout and sing
with my mind
stayed
on freedom.
Hallelu, hallelu, hallelujah.

Nobody gonna stop me
cause my mind's
stayed
on freedom
Nobody gonna stop me
cause my mind's
stayed on freedom.
Aint nobody gonna stop me
cause my mind's
stayed
on freedom.
Hallelu, hallelu, hallelujah.

Woke up this mornin' with my mind
stayed
on freedom.
Woke up this mornin' with my mind,
stayed
on freedom.
Woke up this mornin' with my mind
stayed
on freedom.
Hallelu, hallelu, hallelujah.

The words in parenthesis are optional. Instead of those words, you can sing "Yes, I woke up this mornin'

etc". Or you can just start with the "Woke up this mornin".

Civil rights songs are "open ended". Other verses can be added to these songs, or used in place of the more well known verses. For example, I've just recently added the fourth and fifth verses to this song because they just came to me. What verses can you think of for this song.

No More Auction Block For Me (also known as "Many Thousands Gone")

(an African American freedom song that was composed immediately after the end of the Civil War)

No more auction block for me
No more, no more
No more auction block for me
Many thousands gone

No more driver's lash for me
No more, no more
No more driver's lash for me
Many thousands gone

No more pint of salt for me
No more, no more
No more pint of salt for me
Many thousands gone

No more auction block for me
No more, no more
No more auction block for me
Many thousands gone

Oh, Freedom

Oh-o freedom.

Oh-o freedom

Oh freedom over me,

(Over me.)

And before I be a slave

I'll be buried in my grave.

And go home to my Lord and be free.

(and be free.)

No segregation

No segregation

No more segregation

Over me

(Over me)

And before I be a slave

I'll be buried in my grave.

And go home to my Lord and be free.

(and be free.)

No more weepin

No more weepin
No more weepin
Over me
(Over me)
And before I be a slave
I'll be buried in my grave.
And go home to my Lord and be free.
(and be free.)

No more tommin *
No more tommin
No more tommin
Out of me
(Out of me)
And before I be a slave
I'll be buried in my grave.
And go home to my Lord and be free.
(and be free.)

Oh-o freedom.
Oh-o freedom
Oh freedom over me,
(Over me.)
And before I be a slave
I'll be buried in my grave.
And go home to my Lord and be free.
(and be free.)

Editor:

*Tommin': (verb): " actions by a Black man or Black men which demonstrate any or extreme submissiveness toward a White person or White people (based on Harriet Beecher Stowe's fictitious character "Uncle Tom" in the book in *Uncle Tom's Cabin*). The female version of an "Uncle Tom" is an "Aunt Jemima".

3. People

Martin Luther King, Jr. (January 15, 1929 – April 4, 1968): African American minister and civil rights leader from Atlanta, Georgia. King was thrust into the spotlight of the emerging civil rights movement in the 1950s when Montgomery, Alabama's African American population organized bus boycotts to help bring an end to segregation on public buses. King became the leader of this boycott and encouraged the use of nonviolent protest as a way bringing change without violence. Throughout the 1950's and 1960's King was the face of the civil rights movement. While in Memphis in April 1968, King was struck down by an assassin's bullet.

Rosa Louise McCauley Parks (February 4, 1913 – October 24, 2005): An African American civil rights activist whom the U.S. Congress later called the "Mother of the Modern-Day Civil Rights Movement," Rosa Parks became the focal point of the civil rights movement and an international icon of resistance to racial segregation when, on December 1, 1955 in Montgomery, Alabama, Parks, refused to obey bus driver James Blake's order that she give up her seat to make room for a white passenger. Although her silent non-violent protest was not the first of its kind, Parks' action sparked the Montgomery Bus Boycott. Parks organized and collaborated with civil

rights leaders, including boycott leader Martin Luther King, Jr., helping to launch him to national prominence in the civil rights movement. At the time of the bus boycott Parks was the secretary for the Montgomery chapter of the NAACP and had recently been to the Highlander Folk School in Tennessee to learn non-violent methods of protest.

Thurgood Marshall (July 2, 1908 – January 24, 1993): An American jurist and the first African American to serve on the Supreme Court of the United States, Thurgood Marshall was regarded as a talented lawyer remembered for his high success rate in arguing before the Supreme Court and for the victory in *Brown v. Board of Education*. He was nominated to the nation's highest bench by President Lyndon Johnson in 1967.

Malcolm X (May 19, 1925 – February 21, 1965): Malcolm X was born Malcolm Little. At age 13 he was put in the foster care system due to his father's death and his mother's mental illness. He spent time in prison where he became a member of the Nation of Islam. Malcolm, an outspoken advocate for the rights of African Americans, spoke extensively about the harsh treatment of black Americans at the hands of whites. Malcolm's detractors accused him of preaching racism, black supremacy, anti-semitism, and violence. Malcolm later left the Nation of Islam and in less than a year he was assassinated while given a speech in New York.

Stokely Carmichael (June 29, 1941 – November 15, 1998): Also known as **Kwame Ture**, Stokely Carmichael was a Trinidadian-American black activist active in the 1960s American Civil Rights Movement. He rose to prominence first as a leader of the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC, pronounced "Snick") and later as the "Honorary Prime Minister" of the Black Panther Party. Initially an integrationist, Carmichael later became affiliated with black nationalist and Pan-Africanist movements. He popularized the term "Black Power."

Diane Judith Nash (born May 15, 1938): A leader and Chairman of the 1960s Nashville Student Movement, Diane Nash was a founder of the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) and a major participant in the Southern Christian Leadership Conference's Birmingham campaign and Selma Voting Rights Movement. In these capacities and others, Nash was a key force in the 1960s Civil Rights Movement. In 1960 at age 22, she became the leader of the Nashville sit-ins, which lasted from February to May, and which led to the desegregation of the city's lunch counters. After being arrested, Nash, with John Lewis, led the protesters in a policy of refusing to pay bail, on principle. Sentenced to pay a \$50 fine for sitting at a whites-only lunch counter, Nash was chosen to represent her fellow activists when she told the judge, "We feel that if we pay these fines we would be contributing to and supporting the injustice and immoral practices that have been performed in the arrest and conviction of the defendants." When Nash provocatively asked the mayor on the steps of City Hall, "Do you feel it is wrong to discriminate against a person solely on the basis of their race or color?", the mayor admitted that he did. Within a few days, six lunch counters in Nashville were serving blacks.

Dwight D. Eisenhower (October 14, 1890 – March 28, 1969): Eisenhower, a five-star general and war hero, served as the 34th President of the United States from 1953 to 1961. A Republican, Eisenhower entered the 1952 presidential race to counter the isolationism of Sen. Robert A. Taft and won by a landslide, ending two decades of Democratic control of the White House. As President, Eisenhower threatened to use nuclear weapons, forcing China to agree to a cease-fire of the Korean War. He maintained pressure on the Soviet Union, gave priority to inexpensive nuclear weapons, and reduced the armed forces to save money. On the domestic front, he helped remove Joe McCarthy from power but otherwise left most political chores to his Vice President, Richard Nixon. Eisenhower refused to roll-back the New Deal, but instead enlarged the Social

Security program and launched the Interstate Highway System. He was the first term-limited president in accordance with the 22nd Amendment. His two terms were peaceful, and generally prosperous except for a sharp economic recession in 1958-59.

John Fitzgerald Kennedy (JFK) (May 29, 1917 – November 22, 1963): John F. Kennedy, served the nation as the 35th President of the United States from 1961 until his assassination in 1963. After Kennedy's military service during World War II in the South Pacific, his aspirations turned political. With the encouragement and grooming of his father, Joseph P. Kennedy, Sr., Kennedy represented Massachusetts's 11th congressional district in the U.S. House of Representatives from 1947 to 1953 as a Democrat, and served in the U.S. Senate from 1953 until 1960. Kennedy defeated then Vice President and Republican candidate Richard Nixon in the 1960 U.S. presidential election thereby becoming the second-youngest President (after Theodore Roosevelt), the first President born in the 20th century, and the youngest elected to the office, at the age of 43. Kennedy is the first and only Catholic and the first Irish American president. Events during his administration include the Bay of Pigs Invasion, the Cuban Missile Crisis, the building of the Berlin Wall, the Space Race, the African American Civil Rights Movement and early stages of the Vietnam War. Kennedy was assassinated on November 22, 1963, in Dallas, Texas. Lee Harvey Oswald was charged with the crime but was shot and killed two days later by Jack Ruby before he could be put on trial. The Warren Commission concluded that Oswald acted alone.

Lyndon B. Johnson (August 27, 1908 – January 22, 1973):

LBJ was a US Senator from Texas and the Vice President under JFK. Johnson became the 36th President of the United States after the assassination of JFK and won the Presidency outright in 1964. Johnson was a major leader of the Democratic Party. When he was President he was responsible for designing the "Great Society" legislation that included civil rights laws, Medicare, Medicaid, aid to education, and the War on Poverty.

Richard Nixon (January 9, 1913 – April 22, 1994):

The 37th President of the United States. Nixon focused most of his attention on world events. He sought ways to improve U.S. relations with other countries such as China and the Soviet Union. Nixon was the first U.S. President to visit China. Nixon also signed an agreement with Russia to limit the number of nuclear weapons each country made. Also during the Nixon administration this country faced a major oil crisis brought on by the war between Israel, Egypt, and Syria. Richard Nixon resigned his presidency in 1974 after the Watergate scandal.

George Corley Wallace, Jr. (August 25, 1919 – September 13, 1998): Four-term Governor of Alabama and four-time unsuccessful presidential candidate, George Wallace is best known for his Southern populist pro-segregation attitudes during the American desegregation period, convictions he renounced later in life. A 1972 assassination attempt while running for the presidency left him paralyzed and in a wheelchair for the remainder of his life. In his first inauguration as governor, Wallace boldly proclaimed, "I say segregation now, segregation tomorrow, segregation forever." In 1963, Wallace attempted to stop two African American students from enrolling at the University of Alabama by standing in the door of Foster Auditorium at the University.

Cesar Chavez (March 31, 1927 – April 23, 1993): An Mexican American farm worker, labor leader, and civil rights activist who, with Dolores Huerta, co-founded the National Farm Workers Association, which later became the United Farm

Betty Friedan- (February 4, 1921 - February 4, 2006): Betty Freidan was an American feminist activist and author. A leading figure in the “Second Wave” of the U.S. Women’s Movement, her 1963 book *The Feminine Mystique* is sometimes credited with sparking the "second wave" of feminism. Friedan was the primary founder of the National Organization for Women in 1966, with the goal of bringing women into the mainstream of American society.

4. Events

The Cold War, (1945-1991): The Cold War was the continuing state of political conflict, military tension, proxy wars, and economic competition existing after World War II (1939–1945), primarily between the Soviet Union and its satellite states, and the powers of the Western world, particularly the United States. Although the primary participants’ military forces never officially clashed directly, they expressed the conflict through military coalitions, strategic conventional force deployments, extensive aid to states deemed vulnerable, proxy wars, espionage, propaganda, a nuclear arms race, economic and technological competitions, such as the Space Race. The Cold War continued until the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991.

The Cuban Missile Crisis (October 1962): The Cuban Missile Crisis was a confrontation between the Soviet Union, Cuba and the United States in October 1962, during the Cold War. In September 1962, the Cuban and Soviet governments began to surreptitiously build bases in Cuba for a number of medium- and intermediate-range ballistic nuclear missiles with the ability to strike most of the continental United States. On October 14, a United States U-2 photoreconnaissance plane captured photographic proof of Soviet missile bases under construction in Cuba. President John F. Kennedy announced that he would not permit offensive weapons to be delivered to Cuba and demanded that the Soviets dismantle the missile bases already under construction or completed in Cuba and remove all offensive weapons. The Soviets publicly balked at the U.S. demands, but in secret back-channel communications initiated a proposal to resolve the crisis. The confrontation ended on October 28, 1962 when Kennedy and United Nations Secretary-General U Thant reached an agreement with Soviet Premier Nikita Khrushchev to dismantle the offensive weapons and return them to the Soviet Union, subject to United Nations verification, in exchange for an agreement by the United States to never invade Cuba. The Cuban Missile Crisis, which is generally regarded as the moment in which the Cold War came closest to turning into a nuclear conflict, spurred the creation of the Hotline Agreement and the Moscow-Washington hot line, a direct communications link between Moscow and Washington, D.C.

Brown vs. Topeka Board of Education (May 17, 1954): A landmark decision of the United States Supreme Court that declared state laws establishing separate public schools for black and white students and denying black children equal educational opportunities unconstitutional. The decision overturned earlier rulings going back to *Plessy v. Ferguson* in 1896. Handed down on May 17, 1954, the Court’s unanimous decision stated that “separate educational facilities are inherently unequal.” As a result, de jure racial segregation was ruled a violation of the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution. This victory paved the way for integration and the civil rights movement

The Space Race: The Space Race was a heated competition between the United States and the Soviet Union to develop the first real-world exploration of outer space. It involved pioneering efforts to launch artificial satellites, send humans into space as well as land them safely on the moon. The term refers to a specific period in human history, and does not include subsequent efforts by these or other nations to explore space. The Space Race occurred during the Cold War between the late 1950s and 1980s, with its origins in the missile-based arms race between the two nations. It effectively began with the Soviet launch of Sputnik 1 in October 1957, and ended in a

period of detente with the co-operative Apollo-Soyuz Test Project flight in July 1975. In between, it became a focus of the cultural, technological, and ideological rivalry between the two nations. It provided the side benefits of societal morale boosting, and civilian and military applications of the developed space technology.

Montgomery Bus Boycott (1955-1956): The Montgomery Bus Boycott was a political and social protest campaign started in 1955 in Montgomery, Alabama, intended to oppose the city's policy of racial segregation on its public transit system. Many historically significant figures of the civil rights movement were involved in the boycott, including Martin Luther King, Jr., Ralph Abernathy, and others, as listed below. The boycott resulted in a crippling financial deficit for the Montgomery public transit system, because the city's black population who were the drivers of the boycott were also the bulk of the system's ridership. The ensuing struggle lasted from December 1, 1955, when Rosa Parks, an African American woman, was arrested for refusing to surrender her seat to a white person, to December 20, 1956 when a federal ruling took effect, and led to a United States Supreme Court decision that declared the Alabama and Montgomery laws requiring segregated buses to be unconstitutional.

Nashville Sit-Ins (February 13-May 10, 1960): The Nashville lunch counter sit-ins, which began on February 13 and continued until May 10, 1960, were part of a nonviolent direct action campaign to end racial segregation at lunch counters in downtown Nashville, Tennessee. The sit-in campaign, coordinated by the Nashville Student Movement and Nashville Christian Leadership Council, was notable for its early success and emphasis on disciplined nonviolence. Over the course of the campaign, sit-ins were staged at numerous stores in Nashville's central business district. Sit-in participants, who consisted mainly of black college students, were often verbally or physically attacked by white onlookers. Despite their refusal to retaliate, over 150 students were eventually arrested for refusing to vacate store lunch counters when ordered to do so by police. After subsequent negotiations between the store owners and protest leaders, an agreement was reached during the first week of May. On May 10, six downtown stores began serving black customers at their lunch counters for the first time. Although the initial campaign successfully desegregated downtown lunch counters, sit-ins, pickets, and protests against other segregated facilities continued in Nashville until passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 which ended overt, legally-sanctioned segregation nationwide. Many of the organizers of the Nashville sit-ins went on to become important leaders in the U.S. Civil Rights Movement.

Integration of Clinton High School (1956): Following the U.S. Supreme Court's 1954 ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education*, federal district judge Robert Taylor in Knoxville, Tennessee, ordered Clinton High School (Anderson County Schools) to desegregate with "all deliberate speed" in the fall of 1956. The integration of Clinton High School was forced to be first among Tennessee public schools. Anti-integration campaigners from inside and outside Clinton protested the decision to integrate the high school. They were inspired by New Jersey white supremacist John Kasper and Asa "Forrest" Carter (who subsequently wrote speeches for Alabama Governor George Wallace during his segregationist years), both of whom spoke publicly in Clinton on September 1, 1956 against the decision to integrate Clinton High. After violence was narrowly averted on the lawn of the Anderson County Courthouse on September 1, Tennessee's Governor called out National Guard troops to keep order in Clinton. The twelve African American students who attended Clinton High School that fall became known as the "Clinton 12." On the morning of each school day they walked together down Broad Street from Foley Hill to Clinton High. On December 4, 1956, Reverend Paul Turner, a white minister from the First Baptist Church, was severely beaten after escorting the twelve students to school. The twelve students were Jo Ann Allen (now Boyce), Bobby Cain, Theresser Caswell, Minnie Ann Dickey (now Jones), Gail Ann

Epps (now Upton), Ronald Hayden, William Latham, Alvah J. McSwain (now Lambert), Maurice Soles, Robert Thacker, Regina Turner (now Smith), and Alfred Williams.

LESSON PLAN

Teaching With Documents: Constitutional Issues—Watergate and the Constitution

Background:

When Richard Nixon resigned in 1974 in the wake of the Watergate scandal, it was only the second time in our history that impeachment of a President had been considered. Nearly every action taken with regard to the case had some constitutional significance. The document shown here deals with a specific question: Should the Watergate Special Prosecutor seek an indictment of the former President?

It is two pages of a three-page memorandum written for the Watergate Special Prosecutor in August 1974, after Richard Nixon resigned the Presidency and before President Ford pardoned him. (The third page adds one more item to the pro-indictment list and adds another category, "delay decision.")

The Office of the Special Prosecutor was created by Executive Order in May 1973 and twice faced the question of whether to seek an indictment of Richard Nixon. The first time was in March 1974, when the grand jury handed down indictments of seven White House aides for perjury and obstruction of justice.

President Nixon was named an "unindicted coconspirator" at that time because Watergate Special Prosecutor Leon Jaworski advised the grand jury that in his opinion a sitting President could not be indicted. In his view, the House Judiciary Committee was the appropriate body under the Constitution for examining evidence relating to the President.

The House Judiciary Committee pursued its constitutional mandate and drew up five articles of impeachment, three of which they approved in the summer of 1974. When the President was forced by the Supreme Court in August 1974 to surrender tape recordings that revealed his knowledge of the cover-up, even his staunchest supporters in the House admitted that they would have to vote in favor of impeachment. On August 9, 1974, President Richard Nixon resigned the Presidency and became citizen Richard Nixon.

Thus, for the second time the Watergate Special Prosecutor's Office faced the question of whether or not to seek an indictment. Article I, section 3, clause 7 of the Constitution provides that a person removed from office by impeachment and conviction "shall nevertheless be liable to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to the Law." But there are no guidelines in the Constitution about a President who has resigned. The memorandum shown here is typical of others in this file. It outlines reasons for and against pursuing an indictment against Richard Nixon. It is taken from Records Relating to Richard M. Nixon, Records of the Watergate Special Prosecution Force, Record Group 460.

THE DOCUMENT

Transcription:

WATERGATE SPECIAL PROSECUTION FORCE
MEMORANDUM

DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE

DATE: August 9, 1974

TO : Leon Jaworski
Special Prosecutor

FROM : Carl B Feldbaum
Peter M. Kreindler

SUBJECT: Factors to be Considered in Deciding Whether to Prosecute Richard M. Nixon for Obstruction of Justice

In our view there is clear evidence that Richard M. Nixon participated in a conspiracy to obstruct justice by concealing the identity of those responsible for the Watergate break-in and other criminal offenses. There is a presumption (which in the past we have operated upon) that Richard M. Nixon, like every citizen, is subject to the rule of law. Accordingly, one begins with the premise that if there is sufficient evidence, Mr. Nixon should be indicted and prosecuted. The question then becomes whether the presumption for proceeding is outweighed by the factors mandating against indictment and prosecution.

The factors which mandate against indictment and prosecution are:

1. His resignation has been sufficient punishment.
2. He has been subject to an impeachment inquiry with resulting articles of impeachment which the House Judiciary Committee unanimously endorsed as to Article I (the Watergate cover-up).
3. Prosecution might aggravate political divisions in the country.
4. As a political matter, the times call for conciliation rather than recrimination.
5. There would be considerable difficulty in achieving a fair trial because of massive pre-trial publicity.

The factors which mandate in favor of indictment and prosecution are:

1. The principle of equal justice under law requires that every person, no matter what his past position or office, answer to the criminal justice system for his past offenses. This is a particularly weighty factor if Mr. Nixon's aides and associates, who acted upon his orders and what they conceived to be his interests, are to be prosecuted for the same offenses.
2. The country will be further divided by Mr. Nixon unless there is a final disposition of charges of criminality outstanding against him so as to forestall the belief that he was driven from his office by erosion of his political base. This final disposition may be necessary to preserve the integrity of the criminal justice system and the legislative process, which together marshalled the substantial evidence of Mr. Nixon's guilt.
3. Article I, Section 3, clause 7 of the Constitution provides that a person removed from office by impeachment and conviction "shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment, and Punishment, according to Law." The Framers contemplated that a person removed from office because of abuse of his public trust still would have to answer to the criminal justice system for criminal offenses.

4. It cannot be sufficient retribution for criminal offenses merely to surrender the public office and trust which has been demonstrably abused. A person should not be permitted to trade in the abused office in return for immunity.
6. The modern nature of the Presidency necessitates massive public exposure of the President's actions through the media. A bar to prosecution on the grounds of such publicity effectively would immunize all future Presidents for their actions, however criminal. Moreover, the courts may be the appropriate forum to resolve questions of pre-trial publicity in the context of an adversary proceeding.

WATERGATE SPECIAL PROSECUTION FORCE DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE

Memorandum

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Special Prosecutor

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Peter M. Kreindler

SUBJECT: Factors to be Considered in Deciding Whether to Prosecute Richard M. Nixon for Obstruction of Justice

In our view there is clear evidence that Richard M. Nixon participated in a conspiracy to obstruct justice by concealing the identity of those responsible for the Watergate break-in and other criminal offenses. There is a presumption (which in the past we have operated upon) that Richard M. Nixon, like every citizen, is subject to the rule of law. Accordingly, one begins with the premise that if there is sufficient evidence, Mr. Nixon should be indicted and prosecuted. The question then becomes whether the presumption for proceeding is outweighed by the factors mandating against indictment and prosecution.

The factors which mandate against indictment and prosecution are:

1. His resignation has been sufficient punishment.
2. He has been subject to an impeachment inquiry with resulting articles of impeachment which the House Judiciary Committee unanimously endorsed as to Article I (the Watergate cover-up).
3. Prosecution might aggravate political divisions in the country.
4. As a political matter, the times call for conciliation rather than recrimination.
5. There would be considerable difficulty in achieving a fair trial because of massive pre-trial publicity.

The factors which mandate in favor of indictment and prosecution are:

1. The principle of equal justice under law requires that every person, no matter what his past position or office, answer to the criminal justice system for his past offenses. This is a particularly weighty factor if Mr. Nixon's aides and associates, who acted upon his orders and what they conceived to be his interests, are to be prosecuted for the same offenses.
2. The country will be further divided by Mr. Nixon unless there is a final disposition of charges of criminality outstanding against him so as to forestall the belief that he was driven from his office by erosion of his political base. This final disposition may be necessary to preserve the integrity of the criminal justice system and the legislative process, which together marshalled the substantial evidence of Mr. Nixon's guilt.
3. Article I, Section 3, clause 7 of the Constitution provides that a person removed from office by impeachment and conviction "shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment, and Punishment, according to Law." The Framers contemplated that a person removed from office because of abuse of his public trust still would have to answer to the criminal justice system for criminal offenses.
4. It cannot be sufficient retribution for criminal offenses merely to surrender the public office and trust which has been demonstrably abused. A person should not be permitted to trade in the abused office in return for immunity.
5. The modern nature of the Presidency necessitates massive public exposure of the President's actions through the media. A bar to prosecution on the grounds of such publicity effectively would immunize all future Presidents for their actions, however criminal. Moreover, the courts may be the appropriate forum to resolve questions of pre-trial publicity in the context of an adversary proceeding.

Cross-curricular Connections: Share this exercise with your history and government colleagues.
Activities

The activities below assume that students are familiar with the Watergate scandal. Textbooks may vary in the extent of their coverage, so you may want to supplement the textbook with a chronology of events (see below)

1. Before distributing the document, ask students whether or not they would have been in favor of prosecuting the former President in August 1974 and why. List their reasons on the board. Duplicate and distribute copies of the document and ask them to choose the argument on each side that seems most persuasive to them. Ask for volunteers to stage a class debate on the question: Should the Watergate Special Prosecutor seek an indictment of Richard Nixon?

2. The framers of the Constitution purposely created a system of government in which the three branches would be in a state of tension when in disagreement. This tension has often been criticized for paralyzing the processes of government. However, it is generally agreed that these very tensions, together with the vigorous efforts of a free press, worked to reveal the full extent of the Watergate scandal. In order to illustrate this, ask students to match the unit of each branch of government with the event for which it was responsible.

The Legislative Branch

1. Senate Select Committee on Presidential Campaign Activities
2. House Judiciary Committee

The Executive Branch

3. President
4. Office of the Watergate Special Prosecutor

The Judicial Branch

5. U.S. Supreme Court
6. U.S. District Court of the District of Columbia
 - a. imposed heavy sentences on the Watergate burglars, hoping they would talk
 - b. claimed executive privilege
 - c. investigations here revealed existence of White House taping system
 - d. requested a trial subpoena for 64 White House tapes for evidence in the Watergate cover-up trial
 - e. adopted three articles of impeachment
 - f. ruled that executive privilege does not extend to criminal proceedings and that the President must turn over the tapes

-- KEY --

1.c, 2.e, 3.b, 4.d, 5.f, 6.a

3. Ask students to look up each of the following sections of the Constitution and explain how it relates to the story of Watergate. Also ask them to indicate which of these constitutional references are referred to in the document shown here.

- a. Article I, section 2, clause 5
- b. Article I, section 3, clause 6
- c. Article I, section 3, clause 7
- d. Article II, section 1, clause 8
- e. Article II, section 2, clause 4
- f. Amendment I

Watergate: A Chronology

May 28, 1972 Electronic surveillance ("bugging") equipment is installed at Democratic National Committee headquarters in the Watergate building.

June 17, 1972 Five men are arrested while attempting to repair the surveillance equipment at Democratic National Committee headquarters.

August 30, 1972 President Nixon announces that John Dean has completed an investigation into the Watergate buggings and that no one from the White House is involved.

September 15, 1972 Bernard Barker, Virgilio Gonzalez, E. Howard Hunt, G. Gordon Liddy, Eugenio Martinez, James W. McCord, Jr., and Frank Sturgis are indicted for their roles in the June break-in.

January 8, 1973 Watergate break-in trial opens. Hunt pleads guilty (January 11); Barker, Sturgis, Martinez, and Gonzalez plead guilty (January 15); Liddy and McCord are convicted on all counts of break-in indictment (January 30).

February 7, 1973 U.S. Senate creates Select Committee on Presidential Campaign Activities.

April 17, 1973 President Nixon announces that members of the White House staff will appear before the Senate Committee and promises major new developments in investigation and real progress toward finding truth.

April 23, 1973 White House issues statement denying President had prior knowledge of Watergate affair.

April 30, 1973 White House staff members H. R. Haldeman, John D. Ehrlichman, and John Dean resign.

May 17, 1973 Senate Committee begins public hearings.

May 25, 1973 Archibald Cox sworn in as Special Prosecutor.

July 7, 1973 President Nixon informs Senate Committee that he will not appear to testify nor grant access to Presidential files.

July 16, 1973 Alexander Butterfield informs Senate Committee of the presence of a White House taping system.

July 23, 1973 Senate Committee and Special Prosecutor Cox subpoena White House tapes and documents to investigate cover-up.

July 25, 1973 President Nixon refuses to comply with Cox subpoena.

August 9, 1973 Senate Committee files suit against President Nixon for failure to comply with subpoena.

October 19, 1973 President Nixon offers Stennis a compromise on the tapes; that is, Senator John Stennis (D-Miss.) would review tapes and present the Special Prosecutor with summaries.

October 20, 1973 Archibald Cox refuses to accept the Stennis compromise. President Nixon orders Attorney General Elliot Richardson to fire Cox, but Richardson refuses and resigns in protest. Acting Attorney General Robert Bork fires Cox. These events come to be known as the "Saturday Night Massacre."

October 23, 1973 President Nixon agrees to hand over tapes to comply with subpoena

November 1, 1973 Leon Jaworski named Special Prosecutor.

November 21, 1973 Senate Committee announces discovery of 18½ minute gap on tape of Nixon-Haldeman conversation of June 20, 1972.

February 6, 1974 House of Representatives authorizes House Judiciary Committee to investigate whether grounds exist for impeachment of President Nixon.

April 16, 1974 Special Prosecutor issues subpoena for 64 White House tapes.

April 30, 1974 President Nixon submits tape transcripts to House Judiciary Committee.

July 24, 1974 Supreme Court unanimously upholds Special Prosecutor's subpoena for tapes for Watergate trial.

July 27, 1974 House Judiciary Committee adopts article I of impeachment resolution charging President with obstruction of investigation of Watergate break-in.

July 29, 1974 House Judiciary Committee adopts article II of impeachment resolution charging President with misuse of powers and violation of his oath of office.

July 30, 1974 House Judiciary Committee adopts article III of impeachment resolution, charging the President with failure to comply with House subpoenas.

August 9, 1974 President Richard Nixon resigns.

September 8, 1974 President Gerald Ford pardons former President Nixon.

TITLE: The Civil Rights Movement

LENGTH OF LESSON: Two class periods

GRADE LEVEL: 6-8

OBJECTIVES: Students will understand the following:

1. Beyond the famous leaders of the Civil Rights Movement, ordinary men and women struggled for their beliefs.
2. All the participants—famous and not so famous—deserve to have their stories told.
3. Older people have a responsibility to pass on these stories to younger people.

MATERIALS: For this lesson, you will need: Multiple reference sources that treat the Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s

PROCEDURE:

1. Explain to students that forty and fifty years after the Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s, some participants are very well remembered and some less so. Some participants have been written about frequently; others, even others who lost their lives in the struggle, have received scant recognition. Tell students that for a class project they are going to do research and create a single volume to be titled *A Children's Encyclopedia of the Civil Rights Movement*. The book, which will be for first-graders, will include alphabetical articles about some of the leaders and the ordinary people who made a difference in the movement.

2. Ask students to describe the characteristics of an encyclopedia that they use in the classroom, in the library, or at home.

3. Ask students how they will have to modify the characteristics of an encyclopedia so that first-graders can understand and enjoy one. For example, bring out the point that the writers of the *Children's Encyclopedia* won't be able to use a term such as *poll tax* without explaining it.

4. Ask students to suggest names of people they think belong in their encyclopedia. Start a list, which eventually may include some or all of the following names. The asterisks indicate people about whom much material exists; it will be harder but not impossible to find some information about the players without asterisks. (You may want to set maximum word counts for entries on the more well-known and well-documented subjects.)

- Ralph Abernathy
- Oliver Brown
- James Chaney*
- Eldridge Cleaver*
- Medgar Evers*
- Andrew Goodman*
- Fannie Lou Hamer
- Martin Luther King Jr.*
- Viola Greg Liuzzo
- Malcolm X*
- Thurgood Marshall*
- James Meredith
- Huey P. Newton
- A. Philip Randolph*

- Rosa Parks*
- Michael Schwerner*
- Bobby Seale
- Fred Shuttlesworth
- Emmett Till

5. Assign subjects to students. If you want students to work together in small groups, you can consider giving several subjects to each group.

6. Discuss with your students where they can find biographical information about their subjects: textbooks, nonfiction books of various kinds, already published encyclopedias, videos, Web sites. Indicate that wherever possible students should check more than one source for each person they are researching.

7. Go over the fundamentals of taking notes from other sources. Stress that the sentences and paragraphs in the students' encyclopedia will have to be original—not quotations from other sources.

8. Another factor to consider before writing begins is format for the encyclopedia articles. In doing research, students will have found more biographical details about some subjects than others; they will have to decide whether to use blanks or question marks to indicate missing information. When birth and death dates and places are reported, consider the option of setting them off instead of running that information into the prose of the article. You may use the following format, for example:

Martin Luther King

Born [place] [date]

Died [place] [date]

[Main text of encyclopedia entry begins here.]

Looking at encyclopedias you have available, discuss with students the option of starting an entry with a phrase rather than a complete sentence—for example:

American cleric committed to nonviolent tactics during the Civil Rights Movement.

9. Set up a revising-editing-proofreading system so that both students and you have a chance to improve articles for the encyclopedia. Then consider having all the articles typed or word processed in the same type style and size, with the same line length, and paginated so that when bound, the end product will look professional. Ask your students for suggestions for the cover of the encyclopedia. If possible, make a copy of the finished encyclopedia for each student in your class. Work with first-grade teachers to create an opportunity for your students and the younger ones to meet and share the encyclopedia.

ADAPTATIONS FOR OLDER STUDENTS: Suggest that students prepare their encyclopedia as a functioning, electronic data base in which users can search for a term. Students can set up their data base using a commercially available program.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS:

1. Why does racism still exist? What are some of the steps that would be necessary to eliminate racism, not only in the United States, but also in other parts of the world?
2. Why was segregation still practiced in southern states in the middle of the 20th century, despite the passage of constitutional amendments prohibiting segregation following the Civil War? To what extent were things different in northern states, and why?
3. What was the impact of the 1954 Supreme Court decision *Brown v. Board of Education* on life in the United States? Discuss the implications of this decision for the martyrs of the civil rights movement.

Consider whether this decision continues to have an effect on civil rights in America.

4. The families of civil rights martyrs like Medgar Evers and Vernon Dahmer played an important role in their efforts. Analyze their participation, and consider the extent to which you would have offered similar support had your family members been involved in this way.

5. The Edmund Pettus Bridge in Selma, Alabama, is said to have separated “the world of what was from the world of what could be.” Looking back, it is easy to see why—the bridge was a symbol of the hugely unequal and highly segregated worlds of blacks and whites on different sides of the river in Selma during the 1960s. Looking ahead to the 21st century, consider what separates “the world of what was from the world of what could be” in the United States today. What are the obstacles we face, and what changes could help provide a “bridge” to a better, more equal society?

6. The Reverend Jesse Jackson said, “Freedom is more valuable than life. . . . Dignity was more important than a comfort zone.” Explain what he meant by this statement. To what extent do you agree or disagree with it?

7. Many of our country's civil rights heroes have commented that hate is destructive. Compare the role that hatred has played in the civil rights movement in the United States and in human rights violations around the world, such as in Kosovo, Chechnya, and Sierra Leone. (You can find information at the Web site of the Human Rights Watch: <http://www.hrw.org>.) Analyze the role of hatred in these arenas, and discuss possible ways for resolving some of the issues you discover.

8. Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. said that “the arc of the moral universe is long, but it bends toward justice.” Given the lengthy period of time it took to convict some of the murderers in the civil rights movement, evaluate whether justice was actually served. What are the effects of a long delay in prosecution on the victims' families, the perpetrators, and society?

9. Many people see protecting civil rights as a political problem, but many of the causes of racism and prejudice are personal and societal as well as political. Compare the strengths and weaknesses of personal, societal, and political solutions to civil rights problems. Which are most effective and why?

EVALUATION: You can evaluate each encyclopedia entry using the three-point rubric:

- **Three points:** comprehensive content (based on available sources); coherent and unified paragraphs; error-free grammar, usage, and mechanics

- **Two points:** adequate content; paragraphs occasionally lacking coherence and unity; some errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics

- **One point:** insufficient content; weak paragraphs; many errors in grammar, usage, and mechanics

You can ask your students to contribute to the assessment rubric by determining how many facts should be required for “comprehensive content.”

EXTENSION: Symbol of Civility. Remind your students of the power of a symbol by considering some of the more familiar and forceful symbols throughout history and in today's world. Discuss such symbols as the peace symbol, the cross, the star of David, the Nazi swastika, the Black Panther fist, the burning cross, and the red AIDS ribbon. Talk about the ways in which messages are conveyed by symbols. (You may also consider some familiar commercial logos, which communicate without words—for example, McDonald's arches and the Nike swoosh.) Ask your students to create their own symbol to represent the idea of carrying the campaign for civil rights into the twenty-first century. Have them write descriptive paragraphs explaining the elements of their symbols.

Would He Still Have a Dream?: Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. is perhaps the most well known figure of the Civil Rights Movement in America, and his “I Have a Dream” speech, as it is commonly known, is one of America's most heralded speeches. Ask your students to read or listen to that speech. You might want to have students take turns reading each section aloud so that they can dramatize the energy of King's words. When the reading is complete, ask your students to analyze and discuss the essential elements of his message.

What key images and phrases did he choose?

What was the overall emotional tone of his words?

After the discussion, ask your students to imagine that Dr. King has returned to today's world. Invite them to write the speech he might deliver today.

SUGGESTED READINGS:

Bayard Rustin: Behind the Scenes of the Civil Rights Movement

James Haskins. Hyperion, 1997.

In this moving biography, Haskins tells the story of civil rights leader Bayard Rustin and personalizes more than 50 years of U.S. history. It is an excellent resource for high school research featuring a bibliography, an index, and an insert containing black and white photographs.

The Civil Rights Movement

Peter B. Levy. Greenwood Press, 1998.

This one-stop reference is ideal for student research of the civil rights movement. It contains an index, glossary of terms, speeches by George Wallace and Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., and biographies of civil rights leaders. It includes the stories of martyrs killed for their active involvement in the cause such as Emmett Till, Medgar Evers, and James Chaney.

WEB LINKS:

The National Civil Rights Museum

The National Civil Rights Museum offers a virtual tour which examines the complete history of civil rights in the United States.

<http://www.midsouth.rr.com/civilrights/>

Southern Poverty Law Center

The Southern Poverty Law Center is a non-profit organization, whose programs include Teaching Tolerance and the Intelligence Project. The Center sponsors the Civil Rights Memorial, which celebrates the memory of 40 individuals who died during the Civil Rights Movement

<http://www.splcenter.org/>

We Shall Overcome: Historic Places of the Civil Rights Movement

This site provides extensive information and photographs for 41 significant places in the civil rights movement

<http://www.cr.nps.gov/nr/travel/civilrights/index.htm>

Timeline of the American Civil Rights Movement

Created to honor Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., these pages provide descriptions and pictures of the key elements of the American Civil Rights Movement.

<http://www.wmich.edu/politics/mlk/>

Encyclopedia Britannica: Eras in Black History, 1954 - Present

This site offers detailed factual and pictorial information about black history during this time period

<http://blackhistory.eb.com/timeline.html>

Birmingham Civil Rights Institute

This site offers a journey from the era of segregation to the birth of the Civil Rights Movement and the worldwide struggle for civil and human rights.

<http://bcri.bham.al.us/>

VOCABULARY:

civil rights

The nonpolitical rights of a citizen; the rights of personal liberty guaranteed to U.S. citizens by the 13th and 14th Amendments to the Constitution and by acts of Congress.

Context:

The civil rights movement was an effort to establish citizenship rights for blacks—rights that whites took for granted, such as voting and freely using public facilities.

discrimination

The act, practice, or an instance of discriminating categorically rather than individually; prejudiced or prejudicial outlook, action, or treatment.

Context:

The 15th Amendment prohibited racial discrimination in voting.

hate crime

Any of various crimes (as assault or defacement of property) when motivated by hostility to the victim as a member of a group (as one based on color, creed, gender, or sexual orientation).

Context:

Federal hate crime laws were used to bring some of the murderers in the civil rights movement to justice, since state criminal courts had failed to do so.

martyr

A person who sacrifices something of great value and especially life itself for the sake of principle.

Context:

Perhaps the most famous martyr of the civil rights movement was Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., whose life was taken so early.

poll tax

A tax of a fixed amount per person levied on adults.

Context:

The poll tax was a voting fee charged to reduce the number of blacks that were eligible to vote.

segregation

The separation or isolation of a race, class, or ethnic group by enforced or voluntary residence in a restricted area, by barriers to social intercourse, by separate educational facilities, or by other discriminatory means.

Context:

The state-sanctioned segregation in the South was intended to keep the races apart, particularly in Alabama, where Birmingham was the most segregated city in the South.

Materials

1. Reading for Teachers

FOREIGN POLICY

John Gaddis, *What We Know: Rethinking Cold War History*, and also his *The United States and the End of the Cold War*

Gregg Herken, *The Winnowing Weapon: The Atomic Bomb in the Cold War*

H.W. Brands, *The Devil We Knew: Americans and the Cold War*. See also his *The Wages of Globalism: Lyndon Johnson and the Limits of American Power*

James Patterson, *Grand Expectations: Postwar America, 1945-1974*

Alonzo Hamby, *The Imperial Years*

Stanley Sandler, *The Korean War*

Stanley Karnow, *Vietnam: A History*

Thomas Friedman, *The Lexus and the Olive Tree*. See also his *From Beirut to Jerusalem* and *The World Is Flat* (all highly recommended)

Robert Bourne and Richard Immerman, *Waging Peace*

BIOGRAPHY

David McCullough, *Truman*

Arthur Schlesinger, Jr., *A Thousand Days* (on JFK)

Robert Dallek, *one Star Rising: Lyndon Johnson and His Time*

Paul Conkin, *Big Daddy from the Pedernalas*

Robert Caro, *The Years of Lyndon Johnson* (3 vols.)

Stephen Ambrose, *Nixon*

Tom Wicker, *One of Us* (Nixon)

Stanley Kutler, *The Wars of Watergate*

John Greene, *The Presidency of Gerald Ford*

Peter Bourne, *Jimmy Carter*

Jules Tygiel, *Ronald Reagan and the Triumph of American Conservatism* (very good)

Herbert Parmet, *George Bush: The Life of the Lone Star Yankee* (George H.W. Bush)

David Marannis, *First In His Class: A Biography of Bill Clinton*

James Wallace, *Hard Drive* (on Bill Gates)

POLITICS AND ECONOMICS

Rondo Cameron, *A Concise Economic History of the World*

Alonzo Hamby, *The Imperial Years*

Daniel Yergin, *The Prize: The Epic Quest for Oil*

James Patterson, *Grand Expectations: Postwar America, 1945-1974*

William O'Neill, *Riding High*

Owen Gutfreund, *20th Century Sprawl* (interstate highways)

Paul Krugman, *The Great Unraveling: Losing Our Way in the New Century*. Nobel laureate in economics

Jeffrey Toobin, *Too Close to Call* (election of 2000)

Stanley Kutler, *The Wars of Watergate*

James Mann, *Rise of the Vulcans: The History of the Bush War Cabinet* (Iraq/Afghanistan)

SOCIAL HISTORY

William O'Neill, *Coming Apart: An Informal History of the 1960s*

Roger Kimball, *The Long March* (cultural revolution)

Karal Ann Marling, *As Seen on TV*

Michael Harrington, *The Other America* (poverty)

William Bruce Wheeler, *Knoxville, Tennessee: Mountain City in the New South*

Rosalind Rosenberg, *Divided Lives: American Women in the 20th Century*

Randy Shilts, *And the Band Played On* (on AIDS)

Abraham Verghese, *My Own Country* (AIDS in E. Tennessee)

Stephen Carter, *The Culture of Disbelief*

Tony Horwitz, *Confederates in the Attic: Dispatches from the Unfinished Civil War*

Elaine Tyler May, *Homeward Bound: American Families in the Cold War*

Mary Francis Berry, *Why ERA Failed*

CIVIL RIGHTS (AFRICAN AMERICAN)

Harvard Sitkoff, *The Struggle for Black Equality*

Taylor Branch, *Parting the Waters*, and his *Pillar of Fire*

Merrill Proudfoot, *Diary of a Sit-In* (on Knoxville)

Malcolm X, *Autobiography*

Andrew Hacker, *Two Nations, Black and White*

2. Reading for Students

Melba Pattillo Beals, *Warriors Don't Cry: The Dramatic True Story of the Battle to Integrate Little Rock's Central High* (Simon Pulse, 2007)

One of the nine black teenagers who integrated Little Rock's Central High School in 1957 here recounts that traumatic year with drama and detail. Beals, who is now a communications consultant, relies on her own diary from that era and notes made by her English teacher mother—as well as dubiously recreated dialogue—to tell not only of the ugly harassment she was subjected to but also of the impressive dignity of a 15-year-old forced to grow up fast. Arkansas governor Orval Faubus set the tone of the time by resisting integration until a federal judge ordered it. Although Beals was assigned a federal soldier for protection, the young integrationist was still attacked and prevented from engaging in school activities. She recalls stalwart black friends like Minniejean, who was suspended, and a white classmate who surreptitiously kept her informed of the segregationists' tactics. Beals looks back on her Little Rock experiences as “ultimately a positive force” that shaped her life.

Curtis, Christopher Paul Curtis, *The Watsons Go to Birmingham, 1963* (Yearling, 1997)

The year is 1963, and self-important Byron Watson is the bane of his younger brother Kenny's existence. Constantly in trouble for one thing or another, from straightening his hair into a “conk” to lighting fires to freezing his lips to the mirror of the new family car, Byron finally pushes his family too far. Before this “official juvenile delinquent” can cut school or steal change one more time, Momma and Dad finally make good on their threat to send him to the deep south to spend the summer with his tiny, strict grandmother. Soon the whole family is packed up, ready to make the drive from Flint, Michigan, straight into one of the most chilling moments in America's history: the burning of the Sixteenth Avenue Baptist Church with four little girls inside.

Ruby Bridges, *Through My Eyes* (Scholastic, 1999)

The true story of Ruby Bridges, who, surrounded by federal marshals, became the first black student ever at the all-white William Frantz Public School in New Orleans, Louisiana, on November 14, 1960.

Christine King Farris, *My Brother Martin* (Simon & Schuster, 2003)

Farris's stirring memoir of her younger brother “Martin Luther King, Jr.” focuses on a pivotal moment in their childhood in Atlanta. All ages.

David Greenburg, *A Tugging String* (Penguin, 2008)

Duvy Greenberg is an ordinary twelve-year-old trying to fit in. He knows that his father, Jack, is a civil rights lawyer, but Duvy lives worlds away from Dorothy Milton, a black woman struggling to become a registered voter in Selma, Alabama. When Dorothy reaches out to Martin Luther King Jr. for help, she sets in motion a series of events that—with Jack Greenberg's help—will open Duvy's eyes to the reality of racial inequality and forever change the course of history. Blending facts, speeches, memories, and conjecture, this novel portrays the emotions and events surrounding the Selma-Montgomery Voting Rights March. Based on real events in the author's life, his father was the lawyer for Dr. King.

Rachel Koestler-Grack, *Going to School During the Civil Rights Movement* (Blue Earth Books, 2001)

Daily life of children in school under segregation and during the Civil Rights Movement.

Ellen Levine, *Freedom's Children* (William Morrow & Company, 1993)

First-person accounts of 30 young Freedom Movement activists from the 50's and 60's.

Recommended for: Grades 6-12

Patricia McKissick, *Abby Takes a Stand* (Viking, 2005)

Set in Nashville, Tennessee, the main character tells her grandchildren about participation in a lunch-counter sit-in at the Monkey Bar Grill in 1960.

Faith Ringgold, *If a Bus Could Talk: The Story of Rosa Parks*, (Alladdin Paperback, 2002)

The bus tells the Rosa Parks story to a young girl. Recommended for: ages 5 to 9.

Questions You Might Ask Students

What was life like after WWII in America? (i.e., education, family size, transportation, urbanization, and the role of women)

What is communism?

An economic system in which the government is in charge of everything, including resources and production

What happened to anti-communists in America, and why?

Many lost their jobs or were prevented from working because some people felt they were spying for the Soviet Union.

What two countries were involved in the Cold War?

The United States and the Soviet Union

What were goals of Truman's Fair Deal program, and why didn't he achieve them?

He wanted to create jobs, build houses, help African Americans get equal treatment. Congress would not vote for most of them.

How did Pres. Eisenhower help change the nation's transportation system?

He worked with Congress to pass the Federal-Aid Highway Act.

Why did President Kennedy create the Peace Corp?

He wanted young Americans to do volunteer work in other countries

What was the goal of the United Nations?

To keep peace in the world.

Why did Cordell Hull win the Nobel Peace Prize?

For his part in creating the United Nations.

What ruling did the Supreme Court make about schools in 1954?

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas-all public schools must be desegregated.

In what way was MLK, Jr. important to Civil Rights Movement?
He was a great leader who promoted a strategy of nonviolent protest.

Why did Johnson replace JFK as president in 1963?
JFK was assassinated making V-P Johnson the president.

What was the Civil Rights Act of 1964?
It banned segregation in schools, workplaces, and public places such as restaurants and theaters.

What are some differences among the victorious Allied Powers after WWII?
(i.e. capitalist, communist, military structure, individual differences).

Locate and label countries, on a map, dominated or threatened by Communism.

What is the domestic impact of the Cold War on American Society?
(i.e., McCarthyism, fear, conformity, counterculture, generation gap, highway system, Consumerism)

Explain the altered American approach to foreign policy? (i.e., Bay of Pigs, Brinkmanship, Cuban Missile Crisis, peaceful coexistence).

What are the effects of the Supreme Court's decisions on Civil Rights?
(i.e., Plessy v. Ferguson. Brown v. Board, Miranda v. Arizona, Gideon v. Wainwright)

Explain the effects of each of the following in the struggle for Civil Rights:
Little Rock, Central High, Montgomery Bus Boycott, Freedom Rider's route, Birmingham bombings, Nashville lunch counters, Ole Miss, MLK, Jr.'s March on Washington speech, Civil Rights Act 1964, Civil Rights 1968, Great Society

Evaluate the socio-economic impact of the post WWII Baby Boomer generation.
(i.e., media, entertainment, sports, suburbia, education, and counterculture).

How did life change for many Americans after World War II?

What was the Cold War and why did the United States become involved in the Cold War?

Why was Brown V. Board of Education so important to the Civil Rights movement?

Name the important leader(s) of the Civil Rights Movement and explain their importance.

What was the Cuban Missile Crisis?

Why was the Vietnam War considered controversial?

What was Tennessee's role during the Civil Rights Movement?

What was the Space Race?

Questions You Might Be Asked by Students

What is a Cold War?

When countries fight each other in a war of words and ideas

What was the “iron curtain”?

A symbol of the differences between communist and noncommunist countries

What was the Berlin Wall?

It was a concrete wall that divided Soviet-controlled East Berlin from the rest of the city.

What was the Berlin Airlift?

The U.S. and Britain flew food and supplies into West Berlin.

What is an arms race?

A race between nations to build more powerful weapons

What is a nuclear war?

A war in which powerful nuclear weapons are used

Why were we so worried about the Cuban Missile Crisis?

Cuba is only 90 miles from the US, and Pres. Kennedy feared a surprise attack.

Who won the Korean War?

Neither side won; the country remained divided into North Korea and South Korea.

What was the Space Race?

It was competition between the U.S. and the Soviet Union to send people into outer space

What are examples of civil rights?

Right to vote, right to equal treatment

What is the difference in segregation and desegregation?

Segregation means the separation of races, and desegregation means ending the separation of people by racial or ethnic group.

How did Martin Luther King promote his idea of nonviolent protest?

He led marches (Birmingham Civil Rights March), lunch counter sit-ins(Nashville), boycotts (Montgomery Bus Boycott), and gave speeches (“I have a dream...”)

What does AIM mean?

American Indian Movement-It pursued equal rights for Native Americans.

Why was the fight for Civil Rights such a difficult time for African Americans?

If the United States and the Soviet Union were allies during World War II, what caused them to turn against each other?

Why were African American students sent to schools that were so terrible and underfunded?

How close were we to nuclear war with the Soviet Union during the Cuban Missile Crisis?

Why were Martin Luther King and John F. Kennedy disliked and why was he killed?

Who were the Clinton 12?

What have we gotten from the Space Race Era?

Technology (Web Sites)

The National Archives: For Educators and Students: www.archives.gov/education

The National Archives page for Educators and Students have a variety of engaging resources—primary sources and activities and training for educators and students. The Teaching with Documents Lesson Plans section contains reproducible copies of primary documents from the holdings of the National Archives, teaching activities correlated to the National standards for both American History and Civics and Government, and cross-curricular connections. Teaching with primary documents encourages a varied learning environment for teachers and students alike. Lectures, demonstrations, analysis of documents, independent research, and group work become a gateway for research with historical records in ways that sharpen students' skills and enthusiasm for history, social studies, and the humanities.

Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History: www.gilderlehrman.org

The Gilder Lehrman Institute's website serves as a gateway to American history online with rich resources for educators, designed specifically for K-12 teachers and students. The website includes rich primary source materials, student and teacher resources, podcasts on numerous historical topics featuring noted historians, online exhibitions, history slideshows, and much more.

Tennessee History For Kids: www.tnhistoryforkids.org

Tennessee History for Kids is a place to go for both students and teachers to go to find information on Tennessee history. The website includes lesson plans developed by certified teachers for specific grade levels K-12, photographs, city and county histories, videos, virtual tours of numerous local historical sites, and much more in a user friendly format.

Our Documents: www.ourdocuments.gov

The Our Documents website is a cooperative effort among National History Day, the National Archives and Records Administration, and USA Freedom Corps. Our Documents tells the fascinating story of American history through a collection of 100 history-changing documents. Together, these milestone documents chronicle the centuries of social and political upheaval as the country struggled to define itself as a new nation and then to assume its place as a global power. Our Documents span American history from the 1776 Lee Resolution to the 1965 Voting Rights Act (neglecting one current document due to the fact of historical objectivity when analyzing current or recent events). Students and teachers can click on each document to view the document in a high resolution image and read a transcript of the document. Accompanying each document is a brief historical essay which provides both the document's historical content and its historical context.

National Museum of American History: <http://americanhistory.si.edu/>

Various primary and secondary resources, as well as lesson plans and activities from the Smithsonian Institute Museum of American History that includes each of the Eras in the curriculum.

Digital History: <http://www.digitalhistory.uh.edu/>

Various topics with primary source materials, teacher and student resources, interactive timelines, maps, visual history, virtual exhibits, multimedia, and much more.

Epilogue

Most teachers, ourselves included, find it almost impossible to complete the chronology covered in Eras 9 and 10 (1945 to the present) as make ups for earlier bad weather, spring fever, TCAPs, etc. slow us down to nearly a crawl. And yet, the State of Tennessee has mandated American history in the expectation that it will help create knowledgeable and concerned citizens. In order to achieve such an ambitious goal, we teachers must be able to demonstrate to our students the **connections** between the **past** and the **present** for, as author and Nobel laureate William Faulkner once observed, “The past is not dead. It isn’t even past.”

A lofty goal indeed but, amidst all the other things we must do in that short time allotted to American history, is the goal achievable? Perhaps not, but is there **anything** we can do to come closer to reaching it?

From the beginning of the school year in late August, one teacher we know brings a newspaper to class every day. Although he *never actually reads* the newspaper in class, within a short period of time students come to realize that he **does** read it—at lunch, in a free period, as he monitors a study hall. Ever so gradually, he will ask students about one of the stories in the paper: 1) are they aware of that event? 2) have they thought at all about it? 3) do they think the event is important to them? He will do this once a week.

By the holiday break in December, students have begun to ask **him** about an event they have heard about: 1) is he aware of it? 2) does he think it’s important? 3) has he thought about it? The teacher has been doing this for **almost a decade**, and this experiment has **NEVER FAILED**.

By spring break the teacher has asked the students **to begin to think historically about that present event**. As one teacher who tried a variation of this experiment almost **one hundred years ago** recalled:

The boys worked like rabbits, and dug holes all over the field of archaic society; no difficulty stopped them...They were quick to respond; plastic to mould; and incapable of fatigue.³

Some teachers may not opt for this method of connecting the past to the present. In that case, at the conclusion of Era 8, the teacher may take the two groups of issues and leap forward into the present. Students invariably will have opinions about the questions asked in the two groups at the beginning of Eras 9 and 10, but soon enough they will come to realize that they need more information that they now possess in order to answer those questions intelligently. At that point, the teacher may want to **role-play** in order to encourage students to clarify their answers and to look for more information to bolster their respective positions. Toward the end of the exercise, the teacher may assist students in realizing that, while history may help us to understand how we reached the present, the study of history **cannot predict** what answers to the questions at the beginning of Eras 9 and 10 will be. To study history in order to predict the future would be like driving an automobile forward while looking only in the rear view mirror. Or one may view history **not** as the key to understanding the present in order to predict the future but rather as a **ring of keys**: one of those keys may be the correct one, but we won’t know that until later.

For example, in the debate over American involvement in the Vietnam War, both proponents and opponents used history to support their respective positions. Advocates of American involvement pointed to the “lesson” of Munich: failure to stand up to Hitler and Nazi Germany encouraged even more aggression until a major war was necessary to defeat them. Opponents of American involvement, on the other hand, also used history, but in a different way: they claimed that Ho Chi Minh and the North Vietnamese were fighting for their independence from Western powers and if we intervened we would be akin to the British in the American Revolution. Which historical key was the correct one? Many Americans died while Americans and their government searched for the answer to that question.

³ Henry Adams, *The Education of Henry Adams: An Autobiography* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918), pp. 303, 305.

This Teachers' Manual has been written and compiled by other teachers, both new instructors and grizzled veterans of the classroom. They have done this as they themselves search for and experiment with new ideas that will enliven their own classrooms and encourage their own students to be active learners.

At the outset of their labors, these teachers came to realize that a variety of new teaching methods would be critically important, but that additional content was indispensable to improved classroom outcomes. Therefore, this Manual has included important content, teacher development goals, helpful websites, and suggested readings.

If we were to dedicate this Manual, we would dedicate it to concerned teachers who wish to improve both their historical knowledge and teaching methods, but especially to new teachers and those studying to become teachers. For them, this Manual might not only save time but also increase their confidence. They will help to build new generations of American citizens.