

# Challenging Segregation

## Guide to Reading

### Connection

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

### Main Idea

- Students staged sit-ins at restaurants to end segregation. (p. 749)
- Students formed the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) to organize efforts for desegregation and voter registration throughout the South. (p. 750)
- Teams of African Americans and whites rode buses into the South to protest the continued, illegal segregation. (p. 750)

- Reluctant to offend Southern members of Congress and preoccupied with foreign affairs, President Kennedy responded slowly to the growing violence in the South. (p. 751)
- President Kennedy used the violent events in the South as a platform to announce his civil rights bill. (p. 753)
- President Johnson called for a new voting rights law after hostile crowds severely beat civil rights demonstrators. (p. 755)

### Content Vocabulary

Freedom Riders, filibuster, cloture, poll tax

### Academic Vocabulary

legality, attain, comprehensive

### People and Terms to Identify

Jesse Jackson, Ella Baker, Civil Rights Act of 1964

### Reading Objectives

- **Evaluate** the Civil Rights Act of 1964.
- **Summarize** the efforts to establish voting rights for African Americans.

### Reading Strategy

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

Cause	Effect
Sit-In Movement	
Freedom Riders	
	African American support of Kennedy
	African American voter registration

### Preview of Events



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

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

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

**11.10.6** Analyze the passage and effects of civil rights and voting rights legislation (e.g., 1964 Civil Rights Act, Voting Rights Act of 1965) and the

## The Big Idea

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

Twenty-Fourth Amendment, with an emphasis on equality of access to education and to the political process.

**11.11.2** Discuss the significant domestic policy speeches of Truman, Eisenhower, Kennedy, Johnson,

Nixon, Carter, Reagan, Bush, and Clinton (e.g., with regard to education, civil rights, economic policy, environmental policy).

## The Sit-In Movement

**Main Idea** Students staged sit-ins at restaurants to end segregation.

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

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

### ★ An American Story ★

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

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

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

—adapted from *Civilities and Civil Rights*

News of the daring sit-in at the Woolworth’s store spread quickly across Greensboro, North Carolina.

The following day, 29 African American students arrived at Woolworth’s determined to sit at the counter until they were served. By the end of the week, over 300 students were taking part.

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

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

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

### Picturing History

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



## SNCC

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

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

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

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

▼ *SNCC and CORE members protest peacefully before the opening of the Democratic Convention.*



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

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

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

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

## The Freedom Riders

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

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

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

In early May 1961, the first Freedom Riders boarded several southbound interstate buses. When the buses carrying them arrived in Anniston, Birmingham, and Montgomery, Alabama, angry white mobs attacked them. The mobs slit the bus tires and

threw rocks at the windows. In Anniston, someone threw a firebomb into one bus, although fortunately no one was killed.

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

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

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

## John F. Kennedy and Civil Rights

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

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

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

African Americans responded by voting overwhelmingly for Kennedy. Their votes helped him narrowly win several key states, including Illinois, which Kennedy won by less than 9,000 votes. Once in office, however, Kennedy at first seemed as cautious as Eisenhower on civil rights, which disappointed many African Americans. Kennedy knew



### **Picturing History**

**Riding Into Danger** On May 14, 1961, Freedom Riders were driven from their bus outside of Anniston, Alabama, when angry townspeople set the bus on fire. [Which civil rights protest organization coordinated the Freedom Riders?](#)

that he needed the support of many Southern senators to get other programs he wanted through Congress, and that any attempt to push through new civil rights legislation would anger them.

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

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

When violence erupted against the Freedom Riders, the Kennedys came to their aid as well, although not at first. At the time the Freedom Riders took action, President Kennedy was preparing for a meeting with Nikita Khrushchev, the leader of the Soviet Union. Kennedy did not want violence in the South to disrupt the meeting by giving the impression that his country was weak and divided.

After the Freedom Riders were attacked in Montgomery, the Kennedys publicly urged them to stop the rides and give everybody a “cooling off” period. James Farmer replied that African Americans “have been cooling off now for 350 years. If we cool off anymore, we’ll be in a deep freeze.” Instead he announced that the Freedom Riders planned to head into Mississippi on their next trip.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

In his letter, King explained that although the protesters were breaking the law, they were following a higher moral law based on divine justice. To the charge that the protests created racial tensions, King argued that the protests “merely bring to the surface the hidden tension that is already alive.” Injustice, he insisted, had to be exposed “to the light of human conscience and the air of national opinion before it can be cured.”

After King was released, the protests began to grow again. Bull Connor responded with force, ordering the police to use clubs, police dogs, and high-pressure fire hoses on the demonstrators, including women and children. Millions of people across the nation watched the graphic violence on television. Outraged by the brutality and worried that the government was losing control, Kennedy ordered his aides to prepare a new civil rights bill.

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

## The Civil Rights Act of 1964

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

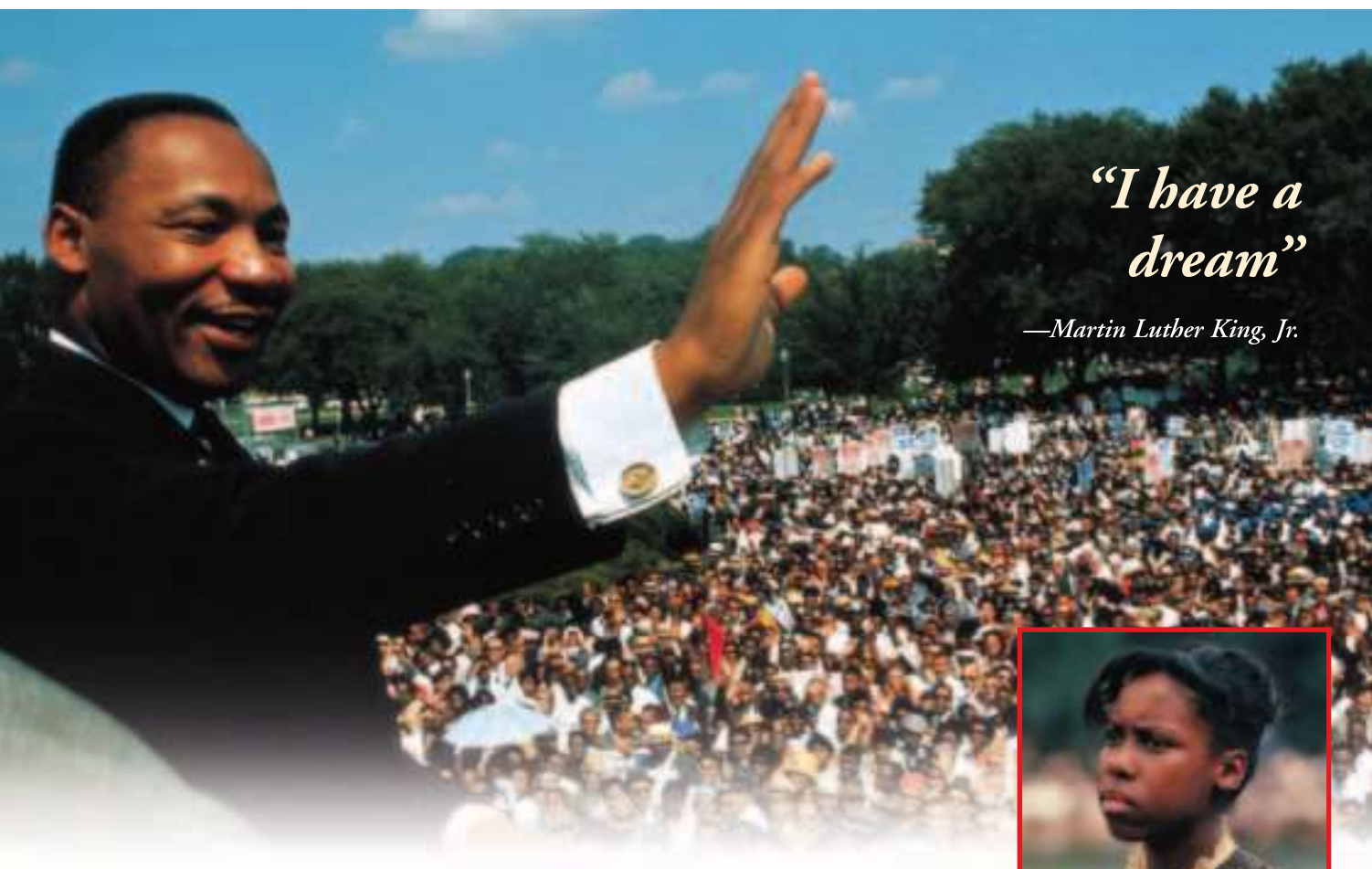
**The March on Washington** Dr. King realized that Kennedy would have a very difficult time pushing his civil rights bill through Congress. Therefore, he searched for a way to lobby Congress and to build more public support for the civil rights movement. When A. Philip Randolph suggested a march on Washington,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

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

### Picturing History

**Forcing Change** Birmingham police used high-pressure hoses to force civil rights protesters to stop their marches. [Why did King's followers offer no resistance?](#)





*“I have a dream”*

—Martin Luther King, Jr.



**Picturing History**

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

“I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed . . . that all men are created equal. . . . I have a dream that one day . . . the sons of former slaves and the sons of former slave owners will be able to sit together at the table of brotherhood. . . . I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character. I have a dream . . . when all of God’s children, black men and white men, Jews and Gentiles, Protestants and Catholics, will be able to join hands and sing . . . ‘Free at last, Free at last, Thank God Almighty, we are free at last.’”

—quoted in *Freedom Bound: A History of America’s Civil Rights Movement*

King’s speech and the peacefulness and dignity of the March on Washington had built strong momentum for the civil rights bill. Despite the growing support, however, opponents in Congress continued to do what they could to slow the bill down. These

opponents used tactics such as dragging out their committee investigations and using procedural rules to delay votes.

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

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

This meant that a minority of senators opposed to civil rights could easily prevent the majority from enacting new civil rights laws.

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

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

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

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

**Reading Check** **Examining** How did Dr. King lobby Congress to expand the right to participate in the democratic process?

## The Struggle for Voting Rights

**Main Idea** President Johnson called for a new voting rights law after hostile crowds severely beat civil rights demonstrators.

**Reading Connection** How had Southern states historically kept African Americans from voting? Read on to learn about the Voting Rights Act of 1965.

Even after the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was passed, voting rights were far from secure. The act had focused on segregation and job discrimination but did little to address voting issues. The Twenty-fourth Amendment, ratified in 1964, helped by eliminating **poll taxes**, or fees paid in order to vote, in federal (but not state) elections. African Americans still faced hurdles, however, when they tried to vote. Despite violent attacks, the SCLC and SNCC stepped up their voter registration efforts in the South.

Across the South, bombs exploded in African American businesses and churches. Between June and October 1964, 24 African American churches in Mississippi alone were destroyed. Convinced that a new law was needed, Dr. King decided to stage another dramatic protest.

**The Selma March** In January 1965, the SCLC and Dr. King selected Selma, Alabama, as the focal point for their campaign. Although African Americans

**Voting Rights** In the early 1960s, African Americans focused on increasing their political power.





made up a majority of Selma’s population, they comprised only 3 percent of registered voters. To prevent African Americans from registering to vote, Sheriff Jim Clark had deputized and armed dozens of white citizens. His posse terrorized African Americans and frequently attacked demonstrators with clubs and electric cattle prods.

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

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

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

The nation was stunned as it viewed the shocking footage. Watching the events from the White House, President Johnson became furious and decided to take action. Eight days later, he appeared before a nationally televised joint session of the legislature to propose a new voting rights law.


**The Voting Rights Act of 1965** On August 3, 1965, the House of Representatives passed the voting rights bill by a wide margin. The following day, the Senate also passed the bill. The Voting Rights Act of 1965 authorized the attorney general to send federal examiners to register qualified voters, bypassing local officials who often refused to register African Americans. The law also suspended discriminatory devices such as literacy tests in counties where less than half of all adults had been allowed to vote.

The results were dramatic. By the end of the year, almost 250,000 African Americans had registered as new voters. The number of African American elected officials in the South also increased, from about 100 in 1965 to more than 5,000 in 1990.

The passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965 marked a turning point in the civil rights movement. The movement had now achieved its two major legislative goals. Segregation had been outlawed, and new federal laws were in place to protect voting rights.

After 1965 the movement began to shift its focus. It began to pay more attention to achieving full social and economic equality for African Americans. As part of that effort, the movement turned its attention to the problems of African Americans trapped in poverty and living in ghettos.

 **Reading Check** **Summarizing** How did the Twenty-fourth Amendment affect African American voting rights?

**HISTORY**  
*Online*  **Study Central**

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For help with the concepts in this section of *American Vision: Modern Times* go to [tav.mt.glencoe.com](http://tav.mt.glencoe.com) and click on **Study Central**.

## SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT

### Checking for Understanding

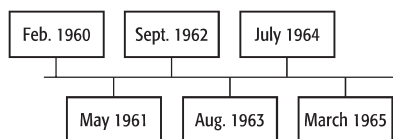
1. **Vocabulary** Define: legality, Freedom Riders, attain, filibuster, cloture, comprehensive, poll tax.
2. **People and Terms** Identify: Jesse Jackson, Ella Baker, Civil Rights Act of 1964.
3. **Describe** the provisions of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 aimed at ending segregation and racial discrimination.

### Reviewing Big Ideas

4. **Examining** How did television help the civil rights movement?

### Critical Thinking

5. **Evaluating** How did protesting and lobbying lead to the passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965? **CA HI.2**
6. **Sequencing** Use a time line like the one below to show relative chronology of events in the civil rights movement.



### Analyzing Visuals

7. **Examining Photographs** Study the photographs in this section. What elements of the photographs show the sacrifices African Americans made in the civil rights movement?

### Writing About History

8. **Descriptive Writing** Take on the role of a journalist for the student newspaper of a college in 1960. Write an article for the newspaper describing the sit-in movement taking place across the country.

**CA 11WA2.1c**