

Major Political & Legal Events in Black History

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1688

Germantown Quaker Petition Against Slavery

The Germantown Protest was the first large scale, organized slave protest in America. 4 Pennsylvania German-Dutch Quakers based the protest on the bible and the golden rule.

1712

New York Conspiracy

After a series of mysterious fires in New York, suspicion turned to the Black population. A 16-year-old white indentured servant girl was offered freedom and 100 pounds to reveal the conspiracy. She named a tavern owner, two slaves and a prostitute as being part of a conspiracy. The servant soon named more blacks that were hanged. The witch-hunt only ended when she began to accuse wealthy and prominent individuals as being conspirators. The final toll was 18 blacks hanged, 13 burned alive and 70 deported.

1722

The Somerset Decision (Somerset v Stewart, King's Bench, 22 June 1772)

Since the English Magna Carta (1215), persons being detained have a right to know the charges and can force their being released by demanding to be informed of the charges; if not, release is instant (writ of habeas corpus). Slaves were being detained without charge. A habeas corpus case was filed in the case of James Sommerset v. Charles Stewart. With King's Bench, Lord Chief Justice Mansfield [1705-1793] presiding, all slaves held in Great Britain were freed (1772).

1739

Stono Rebellion/Cato's conspiracy

A group of slaves marched down the road killing all the whites they found and being joined by more slaves. They soon entered a firearms shop, killed the owner and armed themselves. One white man escaped and sounded the alarm. When it was over, 64 blacks and whites lay dead. After his event slaves were no longer allowed to grown food, assemble in groups, earn money or learn to read.

1776

The Declaration of Independence

Thomas Jefferson drafted the Declaration and in his original draft he had language condemning King George for complicity in the slave trade. An obviously hypocritical statement, this language was edited from the final version along with 1/4th of the original text. Jefferson and a large number of congressmen were slave owners at the time. . Notably the words, " all men are created equal", did not apply to slaves, or women.

1777

Vermont Outlaws Slavery

In 1777 the area known as Vermont declared its independence from New York and wrote a constitution banning slavery. The section of chapter 1 was modeled after the declaration of independence in that it stated, "no male person, born in this country, or brought from over sea, ought to be holden by law, to serve any person, as a servant, slave or apprentice, after he arrives to the age of twenty-one Years, nor female, in like manner, after she arrives to the age of eighteen years." by 1790, 6 of the original 13 colonies had banned slavery

1780

Pennsylvania's Gradual Emancipation Law

Once Pennsylvania lost its lower counties to the new state of Delaware (1776), 3/4ths of the slaves were lost. Slaves born after the law had to wait 28 years before the law set them free. The law immediately lifted restrictions on free blacks. They were given the freedoms of whites except the right to vote.

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The Underground Railroad begins

The number of homes and individuals used to provide assistance to move slaves to free parts began to proliferate to the extent that by 1780, it began to be called the Underground Railroad. Contrary to present day notions, there was no vast coordinated system, rather, dozens of networks, unbeknownst to one another.

1784

The Land Ordinance of 1784

Written by Thomas Jefferson, the Land ordinance was the first attempt by the United States to deal with the Louisiana Purchase. After the Louisiana Purchase, The Treaty of Paris that officially ended the revolutionary war ceded English lands east of the Mississippi and south of the Great Lakes to the United States. Several states sought to claim these new lands along with settlers and native tribes. The Ordinance of 1784 asserted Federal authority over the lands and called for the creation of 10 new states. Jefferson wrote a provision into the ordinance, which prohibited slavery in the lands, but Congress threw it out.

1785

The Land Ordinance of 1785

The Land Ordinance of 1785 established land policy in the Ohio lands by subdividing the lands into townships of 6 miles on each side. The ordinance added upon the ordinance of 1784 by providing a mechanism for settling and selling the land. Together with the ordinance of 1784 and the Northwest Ordinance, the new lands of the United States were slowly brought under the control of the United States.

1787

The Northwest Ordinance

The Northwest Ordinance established how the United States would expand into new western territory and admit new states. The ordinance also set up a prohibition of slavery in the territory, established the Ohio River as the boundary between free and slave territory and mandated that a new state would be created in the region once population reached 60,000. The Enabling Act of 1802 provided further details for the creation of states. The Natural Rights provisions of the ordinance foreshadowed the Bill of Rights, the first ten amendments to the U.S. Constitution.

The United States Constitution

Although The Constitution never uses the word, "Slavery", it contained several clauses in protection of slavery.

Article 1, Section 2, Paragraph 3, 3/5ths Clause

"Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons."

Article 1, Section 9, Importation of Slaves

"The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person."

Article 4, Section 2, Fugitive Slave Clause

"No Person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, but shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom Service or Labour may be due."

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1789

Publication of, *The Interesting Narrative and the Life of Oluadah Equiano or Augustus Vassa, the Africa*

Oluadah, a slave captured in Africa and enslaved in the new world, traveled between the new world and England several times over. He was eventually able to purchase his own freedom and becomes instrumental in the abolition of slavery in England.

U.S. Presidential Slave Holders

George Washington, owner of approximately 250 slaves becomes the first of 12 Presidential Slaveholders. Approximately 1/4th of U.S. Presidents (12) owned slaves: George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, James Monroe, Andrew Jackson, Martin Van Buren, William Henry Harrison, John Tyler, James Polk, Zachary Taylor, Andrew Johnson and Ulysses S. Grant.

The fact that 12 of the first 16 U.S. Presidents were slaveholders, along with a majority of slave state representatives, made slavery and its economic and political interest the most significant factor in American politics up to the end of The Civil War.

1790

Compromise of 1790

The Compromise of 1790 was the first of several political compromises agreed to between Northern and Southern states for the sake of preserving The Union. Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, Alexander Hamilton and George Washington, brokered a deal that resulted in the Residence act and the funding act. The compromise allowed the federal government to accept the costs of the revolutionary war, in exchange for the capitol being located on the Potomac river (donated by Maryland, a slave state).

1793

Fugitive Slave Act of 1793

This act was officially called "An Act respecting fugitives from justice, and persons escaping from the service of their masters." The Fugitive Slave Clause of the U.S. Constitution (Article 4, Section 2, Note: Superseded by the Thirteenth Amendment) guaranteed the right of a slaveholder to recover an escaped slave. The Fugitive Slave Act of 1793 created the legal mechanism by which that could be accomplished. Escaped slaves could be seized in any state, brought before a magistrate and returned to their masters. The law made it a crime to assist a fugitive or a slave in escaping. The Act made every escaped slave a fugitive for life who could be recaptured at any time anywhere within the territory of the United States, along with any children subsequently born of enslaved mothers.

1794

The Slave Trade Act of 1794

The Slave Trade Act of 1794 limited American involvement in the trade of human cargo. This was the first of several acts of Congress that eventually stopped the importation of slaves and also prohibited making, loading, outfitting, equipping, or dispatching of any ship to be used in the trade of slaves.

Eli Whitney invents The Cotton Gin

The American inventor Eli Whitney created the modern version of the cotton gin in 1793 to mechanize the cleaning of cotton. Cotton production expanded from 750,000 bales in 1830 to 2.85 million bales in 1850. The number of slaves rose from 700,000, before Eli Whitney's patent, to around 3.2 million in 1850 and by 1860 the United States' was providing eighty percent of Great Britain's cotton and also providing two-thirds of the world supply.

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1798 and 1799

Kentucky and Virginia resolutions

Vice President Thomas Jefferson and James Madison wrote the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions secretly, respectively and were political statements in which the Kentucky and Virginia legislatures took the position that the federal Alien and Sedition Acts were unconstitutional. They argued that the Constitution was a "compact" among the states. Therefore, the federal government had no right to exercise powers not specifically delegated to it by The Constitution, therefore, the states had the right and the duty to declare unconstitutional any acts of Congress that were not authorized by the Constitution. In doing so, they argued for states rights. Their influence reverberated right up to the Nullification Crisis and The Civil War.

1800

Gabriel Prosser Insurrection

Gabriel Prosser was a literate enslaved blacksmith. Whites as well as blacks regarded the literate young man as "a fellow of great courage and intellect above his rank in life" who planned to lead a large slave rebellion in the Richmond area in the summer of 1800. Information regarding the revolt was leaked prior to its execution, thus Gabriel's plans were foiled and twenty-five members of the revolt were hanged. In reaction, the Virginia and other legislatures passed restrictions on free blacks, as well as the education, movement and hiring out of the enslaved.

1803

The Louisiana Purchase

The United States of America acquired 828,000 square miles of land obtained in The Louisiana Purchase in 1803. The U.S. paid \$11,250,000 plus cancelled French debt of \$3,750,000. The Louisiana Purchase encompassed all or part of 15 current U.S. states and two Canadian provinces. The purchase, which doubled the size of the United States, comprises around 23% of current U.S. lands. Over the course of the following years, struggles over how the land was to be incorporated into the nation was the root of fierce debates in congress over the question of slavery. How these questions were settled would determine Presidents, Wars, the rights of laborers and the fate of over 3.2 million enslaved African descendants.

1807

The Act Prohibiting Importation of Slaves of 1807

This Act stated that no new slaves were permitted to be imported into the United States. This act effectively ended the legal transatlantic slave trade. The United States Constitution, Article 1 Section 9 protected the slave trade for twenty years. Only starting January 1, 1808 could laws become effective to end the slave trade. In part, to ensure passage of such a law, the Pennsylvania Abolition Society was formed.

1812

The War of 1812

This war was fought chiefly on the Atlantic Ocean and on the land, coasts and waterways of North America, there were several immediate stated causes for the U.S. declaration of war: first, a series of trade restrictions introduced by Britain to impede American trade with France, a country with which Britain was at war; second, the forced recruitment of U.S. seamen into the Royal Navy; third, the British military support for American Indians who were offering armed resistance to the expansion of the American frontier to the Northwest.

Tunis Campbell (1812–1891)

Tunis Campbell was an African American politician of the 19th century, and a major figure in Reconstruction Georgia. In 1867, with a goal to help freedmen vote, Campbell was appointed to the Board of Registration in Georgia. He was elected to congress as a senator in Georgia in 1868. He was able to return to office in 1871, but lost in 1872 and eventually imprisoned in a Georgia labor camp before fleeing the state.

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1816

American Colonization Society founded

The Society for the Colonization of Free People of Color of America was the primary vehicle to support the return of free African Americans to Africa. It helped to found the colony of Liberia in 1821 and its founders were Henry Clay, John Randolph, and Richard Bland Lee and Paul Coffee, a wealthy mixed-race New England ship-owner and activist, was an early advocate of settling freed blacks in Africa. He gained support from black leaders and members of the US Congress for an emigration plan.

1819

The Tallmadge Amendment

The Tallmadge Amendment was submitted during the debate regarding the admission of Missouri as a state. Tallmadge, an opponent of slavery, sought to impose conditions on Missouri that would extinguish slavery within a generation. Although the Tallmadge Amendment passed in the House, the Senate, which held a balance of slave and free states, passed a version of the Missouri statehood bill without the amendment.

1820

An Act To Protect The Commerce of The United States and Punish the Crime of Piracy

Is an 1819 United States federal statute against piracy, amended in 1820 to declare the slave trade and robbing a ship to be piracy as well. The last execution for piracy in the United States was of slave trader Nathaniel Gordon in 1862 under the amended act.

An Act to Continue In Force

"An act to protect the commerce of the United States and punish the crime of piracy," and also to make further provisions for punishing the crime of piracy: sometimes known as the 1820 Piracy Law. It also added three additional types of piracy: in section 3, robbery of a ship, its crew, or contents is declared piracy, punishable by death; in section 4, to seize or "deco" onto a ship "any negro or mulatto, not held to service or labour by the laws of either of the states or territories of the United States with intent to make such negro or mulatto a slave" is also declared piracy punishable by death; and in section 5, attempting to confine, deliver, or sell a negro or mulatto (similarly qualified as "not held to service", etc.) is also declared piracy punishable by death. The 17th United States Congress, enacted January 30, 1823, made the act "perpetual".

The Missouri Compromise

The Missouri Compromise was an agreement passed in 1820 between the pro-slavery and anti-slavery factions in the United States Congress, involving primarily the regulation of slavery in the western territories. It prohibited slavery in the former Louisiana Territory north of the parallel 36degrees, 36minutes north except within the boundaries of the proposed state of Missouri. Prior to the agreement, the House of Representatives had refused to accept this compromise and a conference committee was appointed. The two houses were at odds not only on the issue of slavery, but also on the parliamentary question of the inclusion of Maine and Missouri within the same bill. The committee recommended the enactment of two laws, one for the admission of Maine as a free state and Missouri as a slave state.

1822

Liberia Founded

The African Nation/State of Liberia was purchased and founded by Henry Clay and the American Colonization Society for the voluntary repatriation of former U.S. Slaves. The issue of repatriation was divisive and found both favor and rejection by Blacks and Whites leaders alike. The positive notion was one of living free, and without prejudice and under Black autonomy. On the malevolent side many racists did not believe that Blacks had a role to play in America and never could be equal or true citizens.

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Denmark Vesey insurrection

Denmark Vesey planned a major slave revolt in 1822. A skilled carpenter, Vesey had won a lottery and purchased his freedom but was not able to buy his wife and children. The plan was to kill slaveholders in Charleston, liberate the slaves, and sail to the black republic of Haiti for refuge. Word of the plan was leaked, and city officials had a militia arrest the plot's leaders and many suspected followers before the rising could begin. Vesey and five slaves were judged guilty by the secret proceedings and condemned to death.

1828

Tariff Act of 1828

The tariff act of 1828 (also known as the tariff of abominations) was protectionist in nature and a response to the United States economic downturn of the 1820's. Northern industry was harmed by the low cost of imports. The tariff added to the costs of such imports to help even the playing field. Due to the divide between the agricultural south and industrial north, the tariff had a stronger economic impact on the south. The south, being heavily dependent on agriculture and cotton exports was able to purchase cheaper British goods to acquire all that it had failed to produce for itself. Also, the higher costs of importation passed onto the British and other nations reduced their profits that made it more difficult for them to purchase cotton from the south. The tariff act of 1828 and other tariff acts illustrated differences between the northern and southern states, which pushed the nation towards the nullification crisis of 1832.

1831

Nat Turner Rebellion

The Nat Turner rebellion was the most widespread and notorious of America's slave insurrections. The effect of the rebellion was a further reduction in the limited freedoms granted to free blacks and added restrictions and conditions imposed on travel by enslaved blacks. Many blacks were whipped, killed and beaten in the which hunt and persecutions that followed the insurrection. Laws were created to suppress Black gatherings and meetings. The insurrection also further dispelled the southern myth of a patriarchal southern slave relationship, and added fuel to abolitionist calls for the ending of slavery.

1832

The Tariff Act of 1832

Written by John Quincy Adams, the Tariff Act of 1832 was an attempt to reduce tariff's to appease the south. The south still objected and tariffs would be further reduced by the compromise tariff of 1833. Half of southern states were satisfied with the reduced tariffs and voted in support of the act.

1832

Nullification Crisis

South Carolinas Ordinance of Nullification essentially asserted states rights by voicing the opinion that the Tariffs of 1828, '32 and '33 were not the rule of law in South Carolina. South Carolina made military preparations to defend itself from Federal intervention and the U.S. government passed a force ballot prepares for military intervention and also reduced tariffs further by the compromise tariff of 1833. This response succeeded in South Carolina reversing its nullification and falling in line with other states.

1833

A Compromise Tariff of 1833

further reduced tariff's from the tariff of 1832 and agreed to cut tariffs over the next decade to reach 1816 levels that were 20% of the value of imports.

The American Anti-Slavery Society

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Founded by William Lloyd Garrison and Arthur Tappan and supported by escaped slaves Frederick Douglass and William Wells Brown it was the nations leading abolitionist organization and counted among it's members such abolitionist luminaries as Theodore Dwight Weld, Lewis Tappan, James G. Birney, Lydia Maria Child, Maria Weston Chapman, Abby Kelley Foster, Stephen Symonds Foster, Henry Highland Garnet, Samuel Cornish, James Forten, Charles Lenox Remond, Lucy Stone, Robert Purvis, and Wendell Phillips.

1834

Lane Seminary Debates

Lane Seminary was founded in 1829 as westernmost Presbyterian Seminary. Lyman Beecher, the father of Harriet Beecher was the founding President of the Seminary and stood in his post during the debates of 1834. The debates were over the proposed solutions to slavery (immediate abolition vs. colonization) and extended over 9 days of 2 and 1/2 hours each night: "Ought the people of the slaveholding states to abolish slavery immediately?", and "Are the doctrines, tendencies, and measures of the American Colonization Society (founders of Liberia and supporters of colonization), and the influence of its principal supporters, such as render it worthy of the patronage of the Christian public?". The conclusion of the debate was that slavery was wrong and that colonization was not the answer, rather abolition and citizenship. The school gained notoriety for the radical opinions of the students and 40 of the students asked to be dismissed by the school, whereupon they were extended an invitation to attend Oberlin college. Most notable among the students was the lead organizer of the debates, Theodore Dwight Weld, a famous abolitionist, future husband of Angelina Grimke and author of "American Slavery As It Is: Testimony of a Thousand Witnesses"

Great Britain outlaws slavery

The Slavery Abolition Act 1833 by Parliament abolished slavery throughout most of the British Empire, including Jamaica, but excluding territories held under the East India Company and Ceylon. The Somerset decision of 1772 only abolished slavery within Great Britain.

1836

House Gag Rule

Between 1836 and 1844, the U.S. House of Representatives adopted a series of resolutions and rules that banned petitions calling for the abolition of slavery. Known as gag rules, these measures effectively tabled antislavery petitions without submitting them to usual House procedures. Public outcry over the gag rules ultimately aided the antislavery cause, and the fierce House debate concerning their future anticipated later conflicts over slavery.

1839

The Amistad

The slave ship La Amistad was commandeered by African Captives and sailed to Long Island, whereupon it became a symbol of American abolitionist sentiment. The case revolved around the fate of the slaves and eventually went to the U.S. Supreme Court, represented by former President John Quincy Adams. In 1841, the US Supreme Court ruled that the Africans had been illegally transported and held as slaves, and ordered them freed. The Amistad survivors returned to Africa in 1842.

Theodore Dwight Weld Writes, American Slavery As It Is: Testimony of 1000 Witnesses

The book chronicles newspaper and personal accounts of the horrors of slavery. it for once and for all settled the myth of a gentle, paternalistic/symbiotic relationship between slaves and slave owners. Not for the faint-hearted, this book contains perhaps the most blood filled collection of sadistic, inhumane death filled and cruel personal accounts of man's cruelty to man ever assembled.

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1842

Prigg v. Pennsylvania

Slave catcher Prigg was hired to abduct a runaway slave by the name of Margaret Morgan who moved to Pennsylvania from Maryland. Prigg also sold two of her children that were born free. Prigg was convicted under Pennsylvania law. Prigg then appealed to the U.S. Supreme court stating that state law could not supersede federal law. (the fugitive slave act). The court agreed and overturned Prigg's conviction.

1846

The Wilmot Proviso

The Wilmot Proviso, introduced in congress, would have banned slavery in any territory to be acquired from Mexico in the Mexican War. Congressman David Wilmot first introduced the Proviso in the United States House of Representatives on August 8, 1846 as a rider on a \$2,000,000 appropriations bill. It passed the House but failed in the Senate. It was reintroduced in February 1847 and again passed the House and failed in the Senate. In 1848, an attempt to make it part of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo also failed.

The Mexican–American War

The Mexican American War, from 1846 to 1848 was in response to the annexation of Texas in 1845, following lands gained during the Texas revolution. American forces invaded New Mexico, and California while the Navy conducted a blockade. Another American army captured Mexico City, and forced Mexico to agree to the cession of its northern territories to the U.S. The majority of U.S. soldiers died due to disease and not the conflict itself. The goal of the war was American expansion. The war was highly controversial and anti-slavery elements strongly opposed it. In the end the former Mexican territories were gained for \$18 million and debt forgiveness. The new territories raised the question of whether slavery was to be permitted. This debate was yet another issue in the run up to civil war.

1850

Compromise of 1850: 5 bills

- 1 California admitted as a free state
- 2 Utah and New Mexico Territory created: issue of slavery to be decided by sovereignty
- 3 Texas concedes land to New Mexico, and the creation of unorganized territory to the northeast
- 4 Slave Trade abolished in Washington D.C (but not slavery itself)
- 5 The Fugitive Slave Act was strengthened

1852

Harriet Beecher Stowe Writes, Uncle Tom's Cabin

Politically, Uncle Tom's Cabin was immensely important. The novel was first released in weekly editions in The National Era newspaper. For the vast majority of American's, the novel was their first experience with the effect of slavery on individual lives. The story, told mainly from the perspective of 3 slaves, stretches from the deepest south to the Canadian border and beyond. At the time it was the nation's and the world's best selling novel

1854

Kansas-Nebraska Act

The Kansas Nebraska Act, brokered by Stephen A. Douglas repealed the Missouri Compromise and opened up the new territories of Kansas and Nebraska to new settlers who would be allowed to settle the issue of slavery by popular sovereignty (vote). The act was originally created to aid in the creation of the transcontinental railroad. The deal was a serious miscalculation by Douglas who did not properly gauge how the law would be interpreted by anti-slavery forces. In response to this Democratic concession to the slave power of the south, The Republican party was formed, and within 2 years, it would very nearly win the Presidency.

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The Republican Party is Formed

The Republican Party (GOP) emerged in 1854 as an anti-slavery party and to combat the Kansas Nebraska Act that threatened to extend slavery into the territories, and to promote a national railroad to facilitate the nations manifest destiny and to fuel the industrial revolution. With the election of Abraham Lincoln in 1860, southern democrats saw the writing on the wall. Lincoln's election led to the Succession Crisis and the eventual beginning of The War Between States (The Civil War).

The Ostend Manifesto

Cuba's annexation had long been a goal of U.S. expansionists, particularly as the U.S. set its sights southward following the admission of California to the Union. The Ostend Manifesto justified the use of force to seize Cuba. When it was published, it was immediately denounced in both the Northern states and Europe ending any possibility of Cuba's annexation.

1855

Lecompton Constitution (Kansas)

The Lecompton Constitution was the second of four proposed constitutions for the state of Kansas. The document was boycotted by anti-slavery forces and written by pro-slavery forces. It was roundly seen as a fraudulent document that was not democratically decided. Then President, James Buchanan, a supporter of slave-owner rights, decided that he would attempt to honor the constitution by saying that the anti-slavery contingent exercised their democratic right by refusing to participate. Kansas voters rejected the Lecompton Constitution by a vote of the constitution altogether in the referendum, overwhelmingly rejected the Lecompton proposal by a ratio of almost 100 to 1.

Bleeding Kansas

Bleeding Kansas, Bloody Kansas or the Border War, was a series of violent events, involving anti-slavery Free-Stators and pro-slavery elements that took place in the Kansas Territory between 1854 and 1858. At the heart of the conflict was the question of whether Kansas would enter the Union as a free state or slave state. The divide led to a war between Northerners and Southerners who streamed over the border to vote, fight and debate the issue of slavery. Hundreds were mobilized and armed. 56 were killed including several pro-slavery/slave holding residents murdered by at night, in cold blood, with broad swords by John Brown, his sons and followers.

1856

Charles Sumner is Attacked

During the "Bleeding Kansas" crisis, Sumner denounced the Kansas-Nebraska Act. In his "Crime against Kansas" speech he verbally attacked Senators Stephen A. Douglas and Andrew Butler in a 2-hour speech that made direct accusations of master/slave miscegenation. Abolitionists routinely accused slaveholders of maintaining slavery so that they could engage in forcible sexual relations with their slaves." Sumner also attacked Butler's manner of speech and physical mannerisms, which were impaired by a stroke. Representative Preston Brooks, Butler's nephew, beat Sumner savagely with a cane until his cane broke and Sumner was unresponsive. Representative Keitt who brandished a pistol kept those who attempted to come to Sumner's aid at bay. Keitt was censured for his actions and Brooks was fined \$300, and Sumner was not to return to the chamber for more than two years and was seen as a martyr. The violence over slavery between north and south was a sign of things to come.

The Dred Scott Decision

The case of Scott (who sued for his freedom) and his master, Sandford (Scott v. Sandford) decided three important questions. Could a slave/former slave sue in the court of law. The Court held that Scott, as a slave

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was not a "citizen of a state" and therefore was unable to bring suit in federal court. On the second point, the court also found that although Scott resided in a free state for 4 years, he was still a slave, based upon the constitutional right to life, liberty and property. This verdict essentially made every state a slave state, seeing as slave-owners now had the constitutional right to bring their "property" into any other state. The final decision by the court was that the United States government, despite the Missouri Compromise and the Kansas/Nebraska Act, did not have the right to decide if any new territories would be slave or free. The Missouri Compromise was ruled in effect, unconstitutional. The Dred Scott decision is seen as one of the worst and most costly decision in the history of jurisprudence.

1857

Tariff of 1857

The Tariff of 1857 was a major tax reduction in the United States, creating a mid-century low point for tariffs to around 17% on average. The bill was offered in response to a federal budget surplus in the mid 1850s.

Supporters of the bill came mostly from Southern and agricultural states, which tended to be export dependent and tended to support the "free trade" position. They were also joined by a handful of New England wool manufacturers. When the Panic of 1857 struck later that year, protectionists, led by economist Henry C. Carey, blamed the downturn on the new Tariff schedule. Though economists today reject this explanation.

Panic of 1857 and sectional realignments

The Panic of 1857 was a financial panic in the United States caused by the declining international economy and over-expansion of the domestic economy. The financial crisis was the world's first worldwide economic crisis. In Britain, the Palmerston government circumvented the requirements of the Peel Banking Act of 1844 that required gold and silver reserves to back up the amount of money in circulation. This circumvention set off the Panic in Britain. Beginning in September 1857, the financial downturn did not last long; however, a proper recovery was not seen until the American Civil War. The north and south blamed the panic of 1857 on the effect of one another's influence on policy. The economic difficulties leading up to the panic had the effect of strengthening the Republican Party and heightened sectional tensions. Before the panic, strong economic growth was being achieved under relatively low tariffs. Republicans urged western farmers and northern manufacturers to blame the depression on the domination of the low-tariff economic policies of southern-controlled Democratic administrations. However the depression revived suspicion of Northeastern banking interests in both the South and the West.

1858

Oberlin-Wellington Rescue

The Oberlin-Wellington Rescue of 1858 in Lorain County, Ohio was a key event in the history of the abolitionist movement in the United States shortly before the American Civil War. John Price, an escaped slave, was arrested in Oberlin, Ohio under the Fugitive Slave Law, and taken to Wellington by the US Marshal. Rescuers took him by force from the marshals and back to Oberlin, then to freedom in Canada. Thirty-seven of the rescuers were at first indicted, but as a result of state and federal negotiations, only two were tried in federal court. The case received national attention, and defendants argued eloquently against the law. When rescue allies went to the 1859 Ohio Republican convention, they added a repeal of the Fugitive Slave Law of 1850 to the party platform. The rescue and continued activism of its participants kept the issue of slavery as part of the national discussion.

Lincoln Douglas Debates

The Lincoln Douglas Debates of 1858 were a series of seven debates between Abraham Lincoln, and the incumbent Stephen Douglas at the time, U.S. senators were elected by state legislatures; thus Lincoln and Douglas were trying for their respective parties to win control of the Illinois legislature. The debates previewed the issues that Lincoln would face in the aftermath of his victory in the 1860 presidential election.

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The main issue discussed in all seven debates was slavery. Lincoln and Douglas decided to hold one debate in each of the nine congressional districts in Illinois. After losing the election for Senator in Illinois, Lincoln edited the texts of all the debates and had them published in a book. Coverage of the original debates led to Lincoln's nomination for President of the United States by the 1860 Republican National Convention in Chicago. The format for each debate was: one candidate spoke for 60 minutes, then the other for 90 minutes, and then the first for a final 30.

1859

Last Slave Ship Enters America

THE WANDERER and THE CLOTILDE. THE CLOTILDE arrived in Mobile Bay carrying a cargo of 110–160 enslaved Africans. West African tribes were fighting, and the King of Dahomey was willing to trade Africans for US\$50 each. Foster arrived in Whydah on May 15, 1859, bought Africans from several different tribes, and headed back to Mobile. When the Clotilde arrived, Federal authorities had been alerted to the illegal scheme. The African slaves were distributed to those having a financial interest in the Clotilde venture. THE WANDERER is the last documented ship to bring a cargo of slaves from Africa to the United States (on November 28, 1858). Stories of subsequent mass landings of slaves have been told, but are in dispute. When the Wanderer reached Jekyll Island, Georgia from Africa, approximately 409 of the enslaved Africans had survived. The federal government prosecuted the owner and crew, but failed to win a conviction.

John Brown's War

John Brown's raid on Harpers Ferry, also known as John Brown's raid or The raid on Harpers Ferry was an attempt by white abolitionist John Brown to start an armed slave revolt by seizing a United States Arsenal at Harpers Ferry in Virginia in 1859. Brown's raid was defeated by a detachment of U.S. Marines led by Col. Robert E. Lee. John Brown had originally asked Harriet Tubman and Frederick Douglass, both of whom he had met in his formative years as an abolitionist in Springfield. Just prior to the raid, Douglass housed Brown in his home for over a month. After the raid, Douglass slipped off to England to avoid being tried as a co-conspirator.

1860

The Secession Crisis

almost immediately following the election of Abraham Lincoln, southern states began to secede from the Union. Eleven of the fifteen southern states where slavery was legal declared their secession from the United States and joined together as the Confederate States of America. The remaining 4 southern border states (Delaware, Kentucky, Maryland, and Missouri), never succeeded from the Union. This is the primary reason why the Emancipation Proclamation did not apply to these states.

1861

Ft. Sumter is fired upon starting The Civil War

Named after General Thomas Sumter, Revolutionary War hero, Fort Sumter was built following the War of 1812, as one of a series of fortifications on the southern U.S. coast. The fort was a five-sided brick structure with walls five feet thick, standing 50 feet over the low tide mark. It was designed to house 650 men and 135 guns. The official start of the Civil war is recorded as January 9, 1861 when shots were fired to prevent the Union steamer, Star of the West from supplying the fort.

The Corwin Constitutional Amendment

The Corwin Amendment is a proposed amendment to the United States Constitution passed on March 2, 1861. If ratified by the states, it would forbid subsequent attempts to amend the Constitution to empower the Congress to "abolish or interfere" with the "domestic institutions" of the states, including "persons held to labor or service" (a reference to slavery). Ohio Republican Representative Thomas Corwin offered the

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amendment in an attempt to forestall the secession of Southern states. Southern states by this point were committed to forming their own union, so they ignored the amendment. This proposed amendment is still pending before the state legislatures for ratification, because it was submitted without a deadline.

1862

Emancipation Proclamation

President Abraham Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation on January 1, 1863. It proclaimed the freedom of 3.1 million of the nation's 4 million slaves. The Proclamation did not compensate the owners; it did not make the ex-slaves, called Freedmen, citizens. The Proclamation did not cover the nearly 500,000 slaves in the slave-holding border states of Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland or Delaware. Tennessee was not named and was exempted. Virginia was named, but exemptions were specified for the 48 counties that were in the process of forming the new state of West Virginia. Also specifically exempted were New Orleans and 13 named parishes of Louisiana. These exemptions left 300,000 slaves un-emancipated. On the positive side, the Proclamation provided the legal framework for the emancipation of nearly all four million slaves as the Union armies advanced, and committed the Union to ending slavery.

1863

Enrollment Act / Draft Riots of 1863

The Enrollment Act of March 3, 1863, was legislation passed to provide fresh manpower for the Union Army. Conscription required the enrollment of every male citizen and those immigrants who had filed for citizenship between ages twenty and forty-five. Federal agents established a quota of new troops due from each congressional district. In some cities, particularly New York City, enforcement of the act sparked civil unrest as the war dragged on, leading to the New York Draft Riots on July 13-16.

Juneteenth

Juneteenth, also known as Freedom Day or Emancipation Day, is a holiday in the United States honoring African-American heritage by commemorating the announcement of the abolition of slavery in the U.S. State of Texas in 1865. It is recognized as a state holiday or observance in 39 states.

1864

13th Amendment

The Thirteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution officially abolished and continues to prohibit slavery and involuntary servitude, except as punishment for a crime. In response to this act, the modern prison industrial complex was officially begun.

Section 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

1865

The Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen & Abandoned Lands

The Freedmen's Bureau, part of the Department of War, and headed by General Oliver O. Howard, was a U.S. federal government agency to serve the needs of over 4 million freed slaves between 1865-1869 during the Reconstruction era. Initially intended to last for one year it provided legal food and housing, oversight, education, health care, and employment contracts with private landowners, it's mission was extended beyond the one year original mandate to focus on helping the freedmen by serving as a military court that handled post-slavery issues.

Field Order 15

Special Field Orders, No. 15 provided for the confiscation of 400,000 acres along the Atlantic coast of South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida to be divided into 40-acre parcels to settle 18,000 freed slave families. The

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orders were issued following Sherman's March to the Sea. The orders were revoked by President Andrew Johnson resulting in the loss of thousands of acres of land, homes, crops and dreams of recently freed slaves.

Civil Rights Act of 1871 (The Ku Klux Klan Act)

The Civil Rights Act of 1871, (enacted April 20) is a federal law in force to protect southern blacks from the Ku Klux Klan. President U.S. Grant asked for this legislation as a result of reports of widespread racial violence in the Deep South. The act gave the President the power to both intervene on violence and to suspend the right of habeas corpus. The result of the act was the virtual complete dismantlement of the KKK. The Act stated, "If any two or more persons within any State or Territory of the United States shall conspire together to overthrow, or to put down, or to destroy by force the government of the United States, or to levy war against the United States, or to oppose by force the authority of the government of the United States, or by force, intimidation, or threat to prevent, hinder, or delay the execution of any law, or go in disguise upon the public highway or upon the premises of another for the purpose, either directly or indirectly, of depriving any person or any class of persons of the equal protection of the laws, or of equal privileges or immunities under the laws, or for the purpose of preventing or hindering the constituted authorities of any State from giving or securing to all persons within such State the equal protection of the laws, each and every person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a high crime, and, upon conviction shall be punished by a fine not less than five hundred nor more than five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment, with or without hard labor, as the court may determine, for a period of not less than six months nor more than six years."

Reconstruction 1865-1877

the term "Reconstruction Era" has two senses: the first covers the entire nation in the period 1865-1877 following the Civil War; the second one, describes the reconstruction of state and society in the former Confederacy from 1863 to 1877, with the. In battles between the president and Congress, the president prevailed until the election of 1866. At this time, a Republican coalition came to power and set out to use the Army and the Freedman's Bureau to transform former slaves into full citizens. Conservative white Democrats, alleging widespread corruption, counterattacked and regained power in each state by 1877, often with violence. The back-room negotiation for the Presidency of the United States that placed Rutherford B. Hayes in power in exchange for the pull out of federal troops from the south, is regarded by historians as the end of reconstruction.

Andrew Johnson, Amnesty Proclamation, 29 May 1865

The amnesty proclamation by Andrew Johnson was meant to speed the return of full U.S. Citizenship for those who had joined the south and taken up arms against the Union. The Proclamation read: To the end, therefore, that the authority of the government may be restored, and that peace, order, and freedom may be established, I, ANDREW JOHNSON, do proclaim that I grant to all persons who have participated in the rebellion all rights of property, except as to slaves, but upon the condition, that every such person shall take and subscribe the following oath: I, _____ do solemnly swear, to God, that I will henceforth faithfully support, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States, and the union of the States and that I will abide by the proclamations which have been made with reference to the emancipation of slaves.

1866

The Southern Homestead Act

The Southern Homestead Act of 1866 is a federal law to break the cycle of debt during the Reconstruction period. Prior to this act, blacks and whites alike were having trouble buying land. This act attempted to solve this by selling land at low prices. the Southern Homestead Act opened up 46 million acres of public land in 160-acre plots in Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Louisiana, and Mississippi. The primary beneficiaries for the

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first six months were freedmen who were in desperate need of land to till. The law was repealed ten years later.

The Black Codes

The Black Codes were laws put in place in the United States after the Civil War with the effect of limiting the basic human rights and civil liberties and to control the labor, migration and other activities of newly freed slaves and return them to their former state of subjugation and oppression. Black codes not only restricted the movement, freedoms and rights of blacks, but also ensured a steady supply of cheap labor for planters, municipal projects and for convict leasing by state prisons.

Civil rights Act of 1866

Be it enacted that all persons born in the United States are hereby declared citizens, without regard to any previous condition of slavery or involuntary servitude, shall have the same right, in every State and Territory in the United States, to make and enforce contracts, to sue, be parties, and give evidence, to inherit, purchase, lease, sell, hold, and convey real and personal property, and to full and equal benefit of all laws and proceedings for the security of person and property, as is enjoyed by white citizens. And be it further enacted, That any person who shall subject any inhabitant of any State or Territory to the deprivation of any right shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor.

1867

Reconstruction Acts, 4 acts

Fulfillments of the Acts were necessary for the former Confederate States to be readmitted to the Union. Congress feared that the Court might strike the Reconstruction Acts down as unconstitutional. To prevent this, Congress repealed the Habeas Corpus Act of 1867, revoking to the Supreme Court jurisdiction over the case.

- 1 Creation of 5 military districts in former confederacy (except Tennessee)
- 2 Congressional Approval needed for new State Constitutions
- 3 Confederate States would give voting rights to all men
- 4 All former Confederate States must ratify the 14th Amendment

1868

The Impeachment of Andrew Johnson

After President Johnson notified Congress on February 21, 1868, that he had removed Edwin Stanton as Secretary of War and replaced him with Adjutant-General Lorenzo Thomas, it took the House of Representatives only three days to impeach him for "high crimes and misdemeanors." Meanwhile, Stanton refused to abandon his office and had Thomas arrested for attempting to exercise the duties of the Secretary of War. Johnson's trial in the Senate was presided over by Chief Justice Salmon B. Chase. There were eleven articles of impeachment. The 35-19 count was just one vote short of the necessary two-thirds majority and Johnson was acquitted.

New Orleans Massacre

On July 30, 1866 at the Republican Convention 48 were killed, 166 were wounded including 10 policemen by an element loyal to the southern confederacy. Preparations for the massacre were made under the shield of the municipal authorities for some time before it took place. Fire-companies prepared and armed themselves; the police were withdrawn from their posts, supplied with revolvers, and kept waiting at their station-houses until the signal for the butchery was given, and then rushed to the bloody work with a raging mob of rebel soldiers. The elected officials of the city did nothing to stop the massacre.

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Fourteenth amendment:

This amendment was worded mostly the same as the civil rights act of 1866 and in response to the black codes. The redundancy of making the law a constitutional amendment was to prevent it from being legally challenged in court

All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

1870

Fifteenth amendment

Section 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Black Elected Officials During Reconstruction

On a per capita and absolute basis, more blacks were elected to public office during the period from 1865 to 1880 than at any other time in American history including a number of state legislatures that were effectively under the control of African American caucuses. These legislatures brought in programs that are considered part of government's role now, but at the time were radical, such as universal public education

Enforcement Act of 1870

The Civil Rights Act of 1870 (The Enforcement Act) stated that, "all citizens of the United States who are or shall be otherwise qualified by law to vote at any election shall be entitled and allowed to vote at all such elections, without distinction of race, color, or previous condition of servitude"

The Enforcement act was legally challenged on the basis that the government did not have the authority to enforce it. In a unanimous opinion written by Justice Samuel Freeman Miller, the US Supreme Court concluded that the federal government "must have the power to protect the elections on which its existence depends from violence and corruption." Justice Miller stated that the Necessary and Proper Clause of Article I, Section 8, in conjunction with Article I, Section 4, which provides that "Congress may at any time make or alter" regulations regarding the "times, places, and manner of holding elections," granted Congress the necessary authority to pass the Enforcement Act.

1873

Slaughterhouse Cases

The Slaughterhouse Cases, resolved by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1873, ruled that a citizen's "privileges and immunities," as protected by the Constitution's Fourteenth Amendment against the states, were limited to those spelled out in the Constitution and did not include many rights given by the individual states. Thus, a state may grant business monopolies to some of its citizens but not to others without running afoul of the Constitution. Slaughterhouse was the Court's first interpretation of the Fourteenth Amendment, arguably the most important addition to the Constitution after the Bill of Rights. The case began in 1869, when the Louisiana legislature passed a law creating and granting a monopoly to the Crescent City Livestock Landing & Slaughterhouse Company to slaughter animals in the New Orleans vicinity to be located downriver and across the river from New Orleans. Previously the New Orleans slaughterhouses had been located upriver of the city, and at times of low river flow, the cast off body parts of animals and their bowels would flow into the fresh water intake pipes for the city, leading to several cholera outbreaks. Louisiana claimed the measure promoted health and safety by centralizing and improving slaughterhouse production. Critics speculated the measure was designed to facilitate political patronage and to deny the original slaughterhouse operators their

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constitutional rights. After the state courts ruled that the law was constitutional, the butchers appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court, which decided the case in 1873.

The Supreme Court's decision, written by Justice Samuel Taylor Miller, ruled that the law did not violate the Fourteenth Amendment thus reducing the "privileges and immunity" clause to a dead-letter by stating that the clause only protected the rights of national citizenship and placed no new obligations on the states. This ruling left African American residents of the South powerless against discriminatory actions by state. The strong dissenting opinion by Justice Stephen J. Field, arguing that the Fourteenth Amendment protects the fundamental rights and liberties of all citizens against state interference.

1875

Amnesty Act of 1875

The Amnesty Act of 1872 pardoned more than 150,000 former Confederate troops, restoring their right to vote and right to hold political offices. Following the passage of the law, only around 750 former Confederates were denied the right to hold office. Those 750 former soldiers were prohibited on the grounds laid out in the Fourteenth Amendment, that citizens having engaged in insurrection or rebellion shall not be allowed to hold any state or federal office.

Civil Rights Act of 1875

It is essential that government recognize the equality of all men before the law mete out equal justice to all, of whatever nativity, race, color, or persuasion, religious or political. So be it enacted that all persons shall be entitled to the full and equal enjoyment of the accommodations, facilities, inns, public conveyances, theaters, and other places of public amusement regardless of any previous condition of servitude or race. And no citizen shall be disqualified for service as a juror on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude

The Mississippi Plan

On November 1, 1890 the state of Mississippi adopted a new constitution that held a clause known as the Mississippi Plan, which stated that black citizens were denied the right to vote because when they had been allowed to vote the state was overrun by corruption and fraud. The plan effectively disenfranchised almost all black voters by requiring six years of state citizenship, a \$2.00 poll tax, a literacy and understanding test of the constitution, and no conviction of petty crime. Many believed that the legal disenfranchisement of blacks would cause a decrease in violence related to voting. The constitution was never voted on by the people of Mississippi, but was deemed valid by the Supreme Court in 1892 on the pretense that it was the will of the sovereign people of the state.

1876

The South Carolina Civil Disturbances of 1876

The civil disturbances of 1876 were a series of race riots and civil unrest sparked by the gubernatorial election of 1876. They all occurred in counties where blacks were in the majority.

Jim Crowe begins

The Jim Crow laws were state and local laws enacted between 1876 and 1965. They mandated segregation in all public facilities, with a supposedly "separate but equal" status for black Americans. Some examples of Jim Crow laws are the segregation of public schools, public places, and public transportation, and the segregation of restrooms, restaurants, and drinking fountains for whites and blacks. The U.S. military was also segregated. These Jim Crow Laws were separate from the 1800-1866 Black Codes, which also restricted the civil rights and civil liberties of African Americans during slavery in slave-holding states. State-sponsored school segregation was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States in 1954 in Brown v. Board of Education, although it still existed. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 overruled the remaining Jim Crow laws.

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United States v. Cruikshank

United States v. Cruikshank is the district court decision that was appealed to the Supreme Court. This case concerns an enforcement of rights under the fourteenth amendment including the first amendment right to assemble and second amendment right to arms. The Supreme Court decision held that these rights are not granted by the constitution and do not depend upon it for their existence. "When any of these rights and privileges are secured in the constitution of the United States only by a declaration that the state or the United States shall not violate or abridge them, it is at once understood that they are not created or conferred by the constitution, but that the constitution only guaranties that they shall not be impaired by the state, or the United States, as the case may be."

United States v. Reese

In January 1873, two election inspectors, Hiram Reese and Matthew Foushee, refused to allow William Garner, an African-American, to vote in a municipal election in Lexington, Kentucky. Reese and Foushee claimed Garner had failed to pay a tax of \$1.50, but Garner had attempted to pay the tax and was refused by a tax collector. The Enforcement Act of 1870, which defined penalties associated with violations of voting rights under the Fifteenth Amendment, stipulated that if an official refused to permit a citizen to perform an action required for voting, the citizen could present an affidavit that would qualify him. Reese and Foushee refused to accept Garner's affidavit. Reese and Foushee were charged with violating the Enforcement Act. On appeal, in an 8-1 decision authored by Chief Justice Morrison Waite, the Circuit Court of the United States concluded that the relevant sections of the Enforcement Act lacked the necessary, limiting language to qualify as enforcement of the Fifteenth Amendment. The Chief Justice first stated that the Fifteenth Amendment "does not confer the right of suffrage upon any one," but "prevents the States, or the United States, however, from giving preference to one citizen of the United States over another on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." In examining the language of the Enforcement Act, the Court noted that, while the first two sections of the act explicitly referred to race in criminalizing interference with the right to vote, the relevant third and fourth sections refer only to the "aforesaid" offense. According to the Court, this language does not sufficiently tailor the law to qualify as "appropriate legislation" under the Enforcement Clause of the Fifteenth Amendment.

1877

Civil Rights act of 1865 ruled unconstitutional in 1883

In 1883, The United States Supreme Court ruled that the Civil Rights act of 1875, forbidding discrimination in hotels, trains, and other public spaces, was unconstitutional and not authorized by the 13th or 14th Amendments of the Constitution. The ruling read in part: "The XIVth Amendment is prohibitory upon the States only, and the legislation authorized to be adopted by Congress for enforcing it is not direct legislation on the matters respecting which the States are prohibited from making or enforcing certain laws, or doing certain acts, but it is corrective legislation, such as may be necessary or proper for counteracting and redressing the effect of such laws or acts. "The XIIIth Amendment relates to slavery and involuntary servitude (which it abolishes); ... yet such legislative power extends only to the subject of slavery and its incidents; and the denial of equal accommodations in inns, public conveyances and places of public amusement (which is forbidden by the sections in question), imposes no badge of slavery or involuntary servitude upon the party, but at most, infringes rights which are protected from State aggression by the XIVth Amendment."

Compromise of 1877 The Betrayal of Rutherford B. Hayes

The Compromise of 1877, also known as the Corrupt Bargain, refers to a purported informal, unwritten deal that settled the disputed 1876 U.S. Presidential election and ended Congressional Reconstruction. Through it, Republican Rutherford B. Hayes was awarded the White House over Democrat Samuel J. Tilden on the understanding that Hayes would remove the federal troops that were propping up Republican state

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governments in South Carolina, Florida and Louisiana. Consequently, the incumbent President, Republican Ulysses S. Grant, removed the soldiers from Florida before Hayes as his successor removed the remaining troops in South Carolina and Louisiana.

1878

Posse Comitatus Act

The original 1878 Posse Comitatus Act was passed with the intent of removing the Army from domestic law enforcement. "Posse comitatus" means the power of the county, reflecting the inherent power of the old West county sheriff to call upon a posse of able-bodied men to supplement law enforcement assets and thereby maintain the peace. Following the Civil War, the Army had been used extensively throughout the South to maintain civil order, to enforce the policies of the Reconstruction era, and to ensure that any lingering sentiments of rebellion were crushed. However, in reaching those goals, the Army necessarily became involved in traditional police roles and in enforcing politically volatile Reconstruction-era policies. The stationing of federal troops at political events and polling places under the justification of maintaining domestic order became of increasing concern to Congress, which felt that the Army was becoming politicized and straying from its original national defense mission. The Posse Comitatus Act was passed to remove the Army from civilian law enforcement and to return it to its role of defending the borders of the United States.

1880

Strauder v. West Virginia

A West Virginia law declared that only whites may serve on juries. The state law barring blacks from jury service violated the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. The majority opinion declared that to deny citizen participation in the administration of justice solely on racial grounds "is practically a brand upon them, affixed by law; an assertion of their inferiority, and a stimulant to that race prejudice which is an impediment to securing to individuals of the race that equal justice which the law aims to secure to all others."

1881

Tuskegee Institute names by Booker T. Washington as the first President

Booker spent his first nine years as a slave on the Burroughs farm. At age nine, Booker was put to work packing salt. Between the ages of ten and twelve, he worked in a coal mine. He attended school while continuing to work in the mines. In 1871, he went to work as a houseboy for the owner of the mines. In 1881, he was recommended by the school's president Samuel C. Armstrong to become the first leader of the new teacher's college that became Tuskegee University. He was a dominant spokesperson for African American citizens. Representing the last generation of black leaders born into slavery, he was very inspirational speaker to the community. He later on died on November 14, 1915.

1887

The Exclusion of African Americans from Congress, 1887-1929

On December 5, 1887, for the first time in almost two decades, Congress convened without an African-American Member. "All the men who stood up in awkward squads to be sworn in on Monday had white faces", noted a correspondent for the Philadelphia Record. "The negro is not only out of Congress, he is practically out of politics." Though three black men served in the next Congress (51st, 1889-1891), the number of African-Americans serving on Capitol Hill diminished significantly as the congressional focus on racial equality faded. Only five African Americans were elected to the House in the next decade: Henry Cheatham and George White of North Carolina, Thomas Miller and George Murray of South Carolina, and John M. Langston of Virginia. But despite their isolation, these men sought to represent the interests of all African Americans. Like their predecessors, they confronted violent and contested elections, difficulty procuring desirable committee assignments, and an inability to pass their legislative initiatives. Moreover, these black Members faced further impediments in the form of legalized segregation and disfranchisement, general disinterest in progressive

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racial legislation, and the increasing power of southern conservatives in Congress. Virtually all the political advances afforded freedmen during Reconstruction were rolled back and eradicated during the years after 1890. In the South, the races were separated even more systematically and rigidly than during slavery with the drought for black congressmen lasting from 1889–1973. Many blacks were reduced to a suppressed citizenship that was repeatedly exploited for political and economic purposes. As C. Vann Woodward writes, Jim Crow laws, "did not assign the subordinate group a fixed status in society. They were constantly pushing the Negro farther down."

1890

Morrill Land Grant Colleges Act

The Land-Grant College Act of 1862, introduced by Justin Smith Morrill of Vermont, provided funding for institutions of higher learning in each state. Each state received 30,000 acres of federal land for each congressional representative from that state to be sold to provide an endowment for, "...at least one college where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts..." Speculators bought much of the land and the large supply meant that most states received very little for their land. Kentucky received only fifty cents per acre. Some states were able to hold their allotment for several years and sell at a much higher price. The original Morrill Act was supplemented through the years to provide additional funding for the land-grant institutions.

Lodge Fair Elections Bill

The Lodge Federal Elections Bill of 1890, drafted by Henry Cabot Lodge of Massachusetts was created to guarantee blacks the right to vote in the south. The Fifteenth Amendment guaranteed that right, but white Southern Democrats had found loopholes to effectively prevent blacks from voting. The bill was successfully filibustered in the Senate, while Silver Republicans in the West traded it away for Southern support of the Sherman Silver Purchase Act.

1894

Pullman Porter Strike

The Pullman Strike of 1894 was one of the most influential events in the history of U.S. labor. What began as a walkout by railroad workers in the company town of Pullman, Illinois, escalated into the country's first national strike. The events surrounding the strike catapulted several leaders to prominence and brought national focus to issues concerning labor unrest, Socialism, and the need for new efforts to balance the economic interests of labor and capitalism. The Pullman Strike of 1894 and its aftermath had an indelible effect on the course of the labor movement in the United States.

1896

National Association of Colored Women founded

In response to a vicious attack on the character of African-American women by a Southern journalist, combined with the spread of disfranchisement, lynching, and segregation, and the desire to "uplift" the race, black women organized a club movement that led to the formation of the National Association of Colored Women (NACW) in Washington, D.C. in 1896. The organization's founders included : Harriet Tubman, Frances E.W. Harper, Josephine St. Pierre Ruffin, Margaret Murray Washington, Ida B. Wells-Barnett, and Mary Church Terrell. The NACW adopted the motto "Lifting as We Climb."

Plessy v. Ferguson

In Plessy v. Ferguson (1896), the U.S. Supreme Court decided that a Louisiana law mandating separate but equal accommodations for blacks and whites on intrastate railroads was constitutional. This decision provided the legal foundation to justify many other actions by state and local governments to socially separate

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blacks and whites and served as a setback to equality that lasted until overturned by *Brown v. Board of Education*. The arrest of Homer Plessy (1862–1925) on June 7, 1892, was part of a planned challenge to the 1890 Louisiana Separate Car Act by the Citizens' Committee to Test the Constitutionality of the Separate Car Law. The court ruled that the Louisiana Separate Car Act was constitutional. The decision was appealed to the state supreme court in 1893 and was appealed again to the U.S. Supreme Court in 1896. The Supreme Court upheld the lower courts decision. The majority decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson* served as the organizing legal justification for racial segregation for over 50 years.

1898

Williams v. Mississippi

Mississippi elections had always been violent as whites tried to prevent blacks from voting. To end this violence, a compromise was reached that would constitutionally disenfranchise Blacks from the vote, and the corruption would stop. A constitutional convention was called to disenfranchise all "illiterate" voters. James Kimble Vardaman, later Governor of the state, boasted of the obvious purpose of the convention. "There is no use to equivocate or lie about the matter. Mississippi's constitutional convention was held for no other purpose than to eliminate the nigger from politics; not the ignorant -- but the nigger." The delegates rewrote the constitution. It required all voters to take a literacy test if they tried to vote and it eliminated virtually all Blacks from voting.

Paul Robeson

Paul Leroy Robeson 4/9/98 - 1/23/76, was an American singer, recording artist, actor, athlete, scholar who was an advocate for the Civil Rights Movement. Robeson won a scholarship to Rutgers College and there he was an All-American football player, and valedictorian of his class. He further advanced his education attending Columbia Law School, while playing professionally in the National Football League and singing and acting in off-campus productions. He graduated from law school and had a brief stint working as a lawyer before focusing his career on the arts. He made extended singing tours of the United States and Europe, made nine films, and became an international star of stage, screen, radio and film. Robeson merged his artistic career with political activism to speak out for the equality of minorities and the rights of workers throughout the world. His affiliation with the Soviet Union and criticism of the lack of progress in civil rights in the United States brought retribution from the American government.

1899

Cumming v. Richmond County Board of Education

Cumming v. Richmond County Board of Education, (1899). The case sanctioned de jure segregation of races in American schools. The decision was overruled by *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954). The plaintiffs, "Cumming, Harper and Ladeveze, citizens of Georgia and persons of color suing on behalf of themselves and all others in like case joining with them," originally filed suit by petition against the "Board of Education of Richmond County", claiming among other causes of action, that a \$45,000 tax levied against the county for primary, intermediate, grammar and high schools was illegal insofar as the high schools of the county were exclusively for white students. The case was eventually appealed to the United States Supreme Court that denied that it had any jurisdiction to interfere in the decisions. The decision predicates that there are many more colored children than white children in the area, and that the Board could not afford to supply everyone with education. The court argued that there was a choice between educating 60 white children and educating no one.

1903

The Souls of Black Folks written by W.E.B. Du Bois

Setting out to show to the reader the strange meaning of being black here in the dawning of the Twentieth Century, Du Bois explains the meaning of the emancipation, and its effect, and his views on the role of the

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leaders of his race, "Herein lie buried many things which if read with patience may show the strange meaning of being black here in the dawning of the Twentieth Century. This meaning is not without interest to you, Gentle Reader; for the problem of the Twentieth Century is the problem of the color-line."

1905

The Niagara Movement

In February 1905, W.E.B. DuBois, John Hope, Monroe Trotter, Frederick McGhee, C. E. Bentley and 27 others met secretly in the home of Mary B. Talbert, a prominent member of Buffalo's Michigan Street Baptist Church to adopt the resolutions that lead to the founding of the Niagara Movement. The Niagara Movement renounced Booker T. Washington's accommodation policies set forth in his famed "Atlanta Compromise" speech ten years earlier. The Niagara Movement's manifesto was, "We want full manhood suffrage and we want it now.... We are men! We want to be treated as men. And we shall win." The name came because of the location and the "mighty current" of protest they wished to unleash. Du Bois was named general secretary and the group split into various committees. The founders agreed to divide the work at hand among state chapters. At the end of the first year, the organizations had only 170 members and were poorly funded. Nevertheless they pursued their activities, distributing pamphlets, lobbying against Jim Crow, and sending circulars and protest letters to President Theodore Roosevelt after the Brownsville Incident in 1906.

1909

The NAACP

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) was founded on February 12, 1909. After a race riot in Springfield, Illinois in 1908, "The Call" went out to Northerners to find a way to create social equality. In 1909, a group of multi-racial activists held a conference in New York City in response to "The Call" and decided to form the NAACP. Among the founders were W.E.B. DuBois, Ida Wells-Barnett, Henry Moscowitz, Oswald Garrison Villiard, Mary White Ovington, and William English Walling. The NAACP started to fight injustices in 1910 with the Pink Franklin case. Though they failed in this case, the organization resolved to use the law and the law courts to fight its campaign lead by the brothers Joel and Arthur Spingarn. In 1913, the NAACP publically criticized the president - Woodrow Wilson - who officially introduced segregation into federal government and in 1918, after intense pressure by the NAACP, Wilson finally publically condemned lynching. During the First World War, the NAACP successfully campaigned for African Americans to be commissioned as officers in the Army.

1912

National Urban League

Originally named the Committee on Urban Conditions Among Negroes, the National Urban League has roots in two organizations that merged: the Committee for the Improvement of Industrial Conditions Among Negroes in New York and the National League for the Protection of Colored Women. Need for an urban league for blacks became necessary due to the scores of African Americans who left the rural South to pursue employment opportunities in Northern cities. Upon their arrival in the North, many blacks encountered discrimination barriers that excluded them from upward mobility. The National Urban League not only aimed to dismantle these barriers but also made economic empowerment of blacks a major part of its mission. The league didn't hesitate to get involved in civil rights matters, such as challenging racial discrimination in the defense sector. Although it had many white members and was considered to be politically moderate, the league played a crucial part in the Civil Rights Movement.

1913

Segregation and Woodrow Wilson

In 1912 Woodrow Wilson, the Democratic candidate for president, promised fairness and justice for blacks if elected. In a letter to a black church official, Wilson wrote, "Should I become President of the United States they may count upon me for absolute fair dealing for everything by which I could assist in advancing their

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interests of the race." But after the election, Wilson dismissed 15 out of 17 black supervisors who had been previously appointed to federal jobs and replaced them with whites. He also refused to appoint black ambassadors to Haiti and Santa Domingo, posts traditionally awarded to African Americans. Two of Wilson's cabinet ministers, Postmaster General Albert Burelson and Treasury Secretary William McAdoo, both Southerners, issued orders segregating their departments. Throughout the country, blacks were segregated or dismissed from federal positions. In Georgia, the head of the Internal Revenue division fired all black employees: "There are no government positions for Negroes in the South. A Negro's place in the corn field." He said. The President's wife, Ellen Wilson, was said to have had a hand in segregating employees in Washington, encouraging department chiefs to assign blacks separate working, eating, and toilet facilities. To justify segregation, officials publicized complaints by white women, who were thought to be threatened by black men's sexuality and disease. Some African-Americans were fearless in fighting back. Mary Church Terrell, a federal employee and leading African-American, embarrassed officials by threatening to publicize the fact that restrooms had been segregated in her area. In return for her not publicizing the situation, her department agreed to cancel the order. W.E.B. Du Bois sharply criticized President Wilson in THE CRISIS: "The federal government has set the colored apart as if mere contact with them were contamination. Behind screens and closed doors they now sit as though leprous. How long will it be before the hateful epithets of 'Nigger' and 'Jim Crow' are openly applied?" The NAACP's active campaign forced Wilson to back off from segregating the federal government. Jim Crow was checked but not rooted out. It would remain in place until the New Deal of Franklin Roosevelt.

1915

The Association for the Study of Negro Life and History

founded by Dr. Carter G. Woodson

Established on September 9, 1915 by Dr. Carter G. Woodson, the founder of Black History Month and carries his legacy of speaking a fundamental truth to the world, that "African's and peoples of African descent are makers of history" and co-workers in what W.E.B. Du Bois called, "The Kingdom of Culture." "The ASALH's mission is to create and disseminate knowledge about Black History, to be, in short, the nexus between the Ivory Tower and the global public and to labor in the service of Blacks and all humanity."

1915

Guinn v. United States

Guinn v. United States struck down the "grandfather clause" in Oklahoma's Voter Registration Act of 1910 because the clause discriminated against blacks and, therefore, violated the Fifteenth Amendment. The statute required voters to pass a reading test. However, the law exempted all those who were entitled to vote on January 1, 1866, just after the Civil War ended and before the approval in 1870 of the Fifteenth Amendment, which guaranteed voting rights for all male citizens, regardless of race, as well as their descendants. The law allowed those whose "grandfathers" were entitled to vote in 1866 to register without passing a literacy test. Local voting registration officials interpreted the Voter Registration Act to mean that they could refuse to administer literacy tests to blacks or could impose unreasonable ones. In 1915 the U.S. government, therefore, prosecuted the officials for criminal conspiracy to deny voting rights to black Oklahomans. The U.S. Supreme Court affirmed the convictions. Guinn v. United States (1915) was hailed in black newspapers as an important step towards insuring basic fairness in voting rights.

1916

Marcus Garvey & Garveyism

Garveyism is an aspect of Black Nationalism which takes its source from the works, words and deeds of UNIA-ACL founder Marcus Garvey.[1] The fundamental focus of Garveyism is the complete, total and never ending redemption of the continent of Africa by people of African ancestry, at home and abroad. It is rooted in one basic idea: "whatsoever things common to man that man has done, man can do". Therefore, Africa can become as glorious and profoundly advanced in the scientific and technological realm as any, when Africans

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will it to be. The tenets of Garveyism are 1) race first 2) self-reliance and 3) nationhood. The ultimate goal of Garveyism is a United States of Africa that will protect the interests of black people worldwide. Garveyism and African Methodism were very similar in their own ways. The main goals of both movements were to empower African individuals through attaining a sense of self-worth, as well as the unification of the African Diaspora worldwide. When Garveyism started to die down in America, it continued to be a major tool of maintaining African interest in black America. The movement started in ports, especially in Cape Town, and by the end of the year, a Garveyite newspaper, The Black Man started to surface. The newspaper written by Garvey, The Negro World surfaced on the Witwatersrand, and word of mouth helped spread Garveyism and also the notion that black fleets and armies were coming. To Africans, Garveyism brought a vision of liberation and an outlet for African's disillusion with existing authorities (Colonial officials, European missionaries, chiefs, etc.) Garveyism can closely be related to the Rastafarian Movement. Garvey was also credited for influencing various other pre civil rights moments and people. Malcolm X and his parents, Martin Luther King Jr. and his Parents, Elijah Mohammad and the Nation of Islam, Black Panthers, Bob Marley and a multitude of others were significantly influenced by Garvey and decided to keep his vision moving forward. Africa for the Africans. [edit]

1917

Houston Riot

HOUSTON RIOT OF 1917. In the spring of 1917, shortly after the United States declared war on Germany, the War Department ordered two military installations built in Harris County, Camp Logan and Ellington Field. To guard the construction site, on July 27, 1917, the army ordered the Third Battalion of the black Twenty-fourth United States Infantry to travel by train with seven white officers from the regimental encampment at Columbus, New Mexico, to Houston. From the outset, the black contingent faced racial discrimination when they received passes to go into the city. A majority of the men had been raised in the South and were familiar with segregation, but as army servicemen they expected equal treatment. Those individuals responsible for keeping order, especially the police, streetcar conductors, and public officials, viewed the presence of black soldiers as a threat to racial harmony. Many Houstonians thought that if the black soldiers were shown the same respect as white soldiers, black residents of the city might come to expect similar treatment. Black soldiers were willing to abide by the legal restrictions imposed by segregated practices, but they resented the manner in which the laws were enforced. They disliked having to stand in the rear of streetcars when vacant seats were available in the "white" section and resented the racial slurs hurled at them by white laborers at Camp Logan. Some police officers regularly harassed African Americans, both soldiers and civilians. Most black Houstonians concealed their hostility and endured the abuse, but a number of black soldiers openly expressed their resentment. The police recognized the plight of the enlisted men, but did little to alert civil authorities to the growing tensions. When they sought ways to keep the enlisted men at the camp, the blacks disliked this exchange of their freedom for racial peace. On August 23, 1917, a riot erupted in Houston. Near noon, two policemen arrested a black soldier for interfering with their arrest of a black woman in the Fourth Ward. Early in the afternoon, when Cpl. Charles Baltimore, one of the twelve black military policemen with the battalion, inquired about the soldier's arrest, words were exchanged and the policeman hit Baltimore over the head. The MPs fled. The police fired at Baltimore three times, chased him into an unoccupied house, and took him to police headquarters. Though he was soon released, a rumor quickly reached Camp Logan that he had been shot and killed. A group of soldiers decided to march on the police station in the Fourth Ward and secure his release. If the police could assault a model soldier like Baltimore, they reasoned, none of them was safe from abuse. Maj. Kneeland S. Snow, battalion commander, initially discounted the news of impending trouble. Around 8 P.M. Sgt. Vida Henry of I Company confirmed the rumors, and Kneeland ordered the first sergeants to collect all rifles and search the camp for loose ammunition. During this process, a soldier suddenly screamed that a white mob was approaching the camp. Black soldiers rushed into the supply tents, grabbed rifles, and began firing wildly in the direction of supposed mob. The white officers found it impossible to restore order. Sergeant Henry led over 100-armed soldiers toward downtown Houston by way of Brunner Avenue and San

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Felipe Street and into the Fourth Ward. In their two-hour march on the city, the mutinous blacks killed fifteen whites, including four policemen, and seriously wounded twelve others, one of whom, a policeman, subsequently died. Four black soldiers also died. Two were accidentally shot by their own men, one in camp and the other on San Felipe Street. After they had killed Capt. Joseph Mattes of the Illinois National Guard, obviously mistaking him for a policeman, the blacks began quarreling over a course of action. After two hours, Henry advised the men to slip back into camp in the darkness of night whereupon he shot himself in the head. Early next morning, August 24, civil authorities imposed a curfew in Houston. On the twenty-fifth, the army hustled the Third Battalion aboard a train to Columbus, New Mexico. There, seven black mutineers agreed to testify against the others in exchange for clemency. Between November 1, 1917, and March 26, 1918, the army held three separate courts-martial in the chapel at Fort Sam Houston in San Antonio. The military tribunals indicted 118 enlisted men of I Company for participating in the mutiny and riot, and found 110 guilty. It was wartime, and the sentences were harsh. Nineteen mutinous soldiers were hanged and sixty-three received life sentences in federal prison. One was judged incompetent to stand trial. Two white officers faced courts-martial, but they were released. No white civilians were brought to trial. The Houston Riot of 1917 was one of the saddest chapters in the history of American race relations. It vividly illustrated the problems that the nation struggled with on the home front during wartime.

1919

Red Summer

A dreadful wave of lynching and anti-Negro violence permeated the very fiber of America during the year 1919 to the point that James Weldon Johnson labeled it the "Red Summer," of 1919. During the "Red Summer," 76 blacks were reported lynched and 26 race riots took place. One of the worst riots took place in the nation's capital, where 6 blacks were killed and 100 wounded.

Despite the vicious crimes committed against colored folks, they never surrendered their courage and pride. Blacks responded to the lynching by leaving the area. The exodus of blacks caused labor concerns, especially at cotton-picking time. Their exit depopulated some counties before the whites realized that their labor force vanished. As a result of this, some whites and local officials called for a halt to the lynching of Negroes.

1920

Nineteenth Amendment

The demand for the right to vote of American women was first seriously devised at Seneca Falls, New York in 1848. In 1848, Lucretia Coffin Mott and Elizabeth Cady Stanton, on July 19 and 20, organized the Seneca Falls convention. In this convention, Stanton drafted the Declaration of Sentiments, which was modeled after the Declaration of Independence. The document listed various forms of discrimination against women including the denial of suffrage. Also, they claimed equal rights in universities, professions, and the right to share in all political offices, and demanded equality in marriage, freedom, and various rights that men had. The women's suffrage movement finally began to gain traction at the end of the Civil War, when the issues of Black suffrage lead to women demanding he vote also. This lead to the creation of the American Woman Suffrage Association and the National Woman Suffrage Association. It wasn't until January 10, 1918, the house approved the 19th Amendment, which said that the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any other state on account of sex. After a year and a half, the senate passed the amendment on June 19, 1919. The 19th Amendment became part of the US Constitution on August 26, 1920 when it was approved by Tennessee.

1921

Dyer Anti-Lynching Bill

A civil rights pioneer, James Weldon Johnson was the NAACP's executive secretary and the chief congressional anti-lynching lobbyist. The passage of anti-lynching legislation became one of the NAACP's central goals. Slow to join the cause of pursuing legislation to remedy lynching because of the leadership's concerns about the constitutionality of such an undertaking, the NAACP eventually embraced the movement.

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Between 1901 and 1929, more than 1,200 blacks were lynched in the South. Forty-one percent of these lynchings occurred in two exceptionally violent states: Georgia (250) and Mississippi (245).¹²³ The NAACP report, *Thirty Years of Lynching in the United States, 1889–1919*, created momentum for congressional action.

1924

Racial Integrity Act of 1924

On March 20, 1924 the Virginia General Assembly passed two laws that had arisen out of contemporary concerns about eugenics and race: SB 219, entitled "The Racial Integrity Act" and SB 281, "An ACT to provide for the sexual sterilization of inmates of State institutions in certain cases", henceforth referred to as "The Sterilization Act".

The Racial Integrity Act required that a racial description of every person be recorded at birth and divided society into only two classifications: white and colored. It defined race by the "one-drop rule", defining as colored persons with any African or Indian ancestry. It also expanded the scope of Virginia's ban on interracial marriage (anti-miscegenation law) by criminalizing all marriages between white persons and non-white persons. In 1967 the law was overturned by the United States Supreme Court in its ruling on *Loving v. Virginia*.

1925

Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters. A Philip Randolph

The International Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters and Maids was the first African American labor union chartered by the American Federation of Labor (AFL). Pullman porters, dissatisfied with their treatment by the Chicago-based Pullman Company, sought the assistance of A. Philip Randolph and others in organizing their own union, founded in New York in 1925. The new union assigned Milton P. Webster to direct its organizing in Chicago, home to the largest number of Pullman's 15,000 porters. For African Americans, porter and maid jobs, when supplemented with tips, paid better than many other opportunities open to them, yet less than those jobs on Pullman cars denied to them by their race. Porter and maid jobs also retained African Americans in servile relations to white passengers. Moreover, segregation persisted even in the North, where blacks were limited in where they could spend their stopovers while on the job. The Brotherhood was an important early component of the civil rights movement. Porters distributed the *Chicago Defender* after that black newspaper was banned from mail distribution in many southern states. The Pullman Company's recognition of the union in 1937 and the expansion of Brotherhood membership and activities slowly fractured segregation within the AFL.

Frantz Fanon Writes, *Black Skin, White Mask*

BSWM is part manifesto, part analysis; it both presents Fanon's personal experience as a black intellectual in a world where he is subject to the philosophical underpinnings of psychological relationship between the colonizer/colonized. Fanon inflects his medical and psychological practice with the understanding that the process of colonization generates harmful psychological constructs that both blind the black man to his subjection to a universalized white norm that alienates his consciousness and prohibits psychological health in the black man. Fanon also speaks eloquently on the tool of language and culture on dominance. For example, for Fanon, speaking French means that one accepts, or is coerced into accepting, the collective consciousness of the French, which identifies blackness with evil and sin. In an attempt to escape the association of blackness with evil, the black man dons a white mask, or thinks of himself as a universal subject equally participating in a society that advocates an equality supposedly abstracted from personal appearance. Fanon insists, however, that the category "white" depends for its stability on its negation, "black." Neither exists without the other, and both come into being at the moment of imperial conquest. Thus, Fanon locates the historical point at which certain psychological formations became possible, and he provides an important analysis of how historically bound cultural systems can perpetuate themselves as psychology.

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The Scottsboro Boys

9 Blacks riding on a train falsely accused of rape by two white female hobos, Ruby Bates and Victoria Price.

1932

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The case stems from the Scottsboro Boys case. The group was traveling in a freight train with seven white males and two white females. A fight broke out and all of the white males, except for one, were thrown from the train. The women accused the black men of rape, although one woman later retracted her claim. All of the defendants, except for Roy Wright, were sentenced to death in a series of one-day trials. The defendants were only given access to their lawyers immediately prior to the trial, leaving little or no time to plan the defense. The ruling was appealed on the grounds that the group was not provided adequate legal counsel. The Alabama Supreme Court ruled 6-1 that the trial was fair (the strongly dissenting opinion was from Chief Justice Anderson). This ruling was then appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court. The majority opinion reversed and remanded the decisions of the Alabama Supreme Court, holding that due process had been violated. The ruling was based on three main arguments: "(1) They were not given a fair, impartial and deliberate trial; (2) They were denied the right of counsel, with the accustomed incidents of consultation and opportunity for trial; and (3) They were tried before juries from which qualified members of their own race were systematically excluded.

1933

March on Washington Movement MOWM, 1933-47

The March on Washington Movement (MOWM) lasted from 1933-1947. A. Philip Randolph and Bayard Rustin organized it. Randolph and his ideas heavily influenced Martin Luther King. The March on Washington Movement was formed as a tool to organize a mass march on Washington, D.C., designed to pressure the U.S. government into desegregating the armed forces and providing fair working opportunities for African Americans. Despite its name, the March on Washington Movement did not lead to an actual march on Washington during this period, as Randolph's requests were met before one could be organized.

1934

The National Housing Act (Redlining)

Although in the United States informal discrimination and segregation have always existed, the practice called "redlining" began with the National Housing Act of 1934, which established the Federal Housing Administration (FHA). The federal government contributed to the early decay of inner city neighborhoods by withholding mortgage capital and making it difficult for these neighborhoods to attract and retain families able to purchase homes. In 1935, the Federal Home Loan Bank Board (FHLBB) asked Home Owners' Loan Corporation (HOLC) to look at 239 cities and create "residential security maps" to indicate the level of security for real-estate investments in each surveyed city. Such maps defined many minority neighborhoods in cities as ineligible to receive financing. The maps were based on assumptions about the community, not accurate assessments of an individual's or household's ability to satisfy standard lending criteria. Since African-Americans were unwelcome in white neighborhoods, which frequently instituted racial restrictive covenants to keep them out, the policy effectively meant that blacks could not secure mortgage loans at all. At various

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times the practice also affected other ethnic groups, including Latinos, Asians, and Jews. The assumptions in redlining resulted in a large increase in residential racial segregation and urban decay in the United States. Urban planning historians theorize that the maps were used by private and public entities for years afterwards to deny loans to people in black communities. Redlining paralyzed the housing market, lowered property values and further encouraged landlord abandonment. As abandonment increased, the population density became lower. Abandoned buildings would serve as havens for drug dealing and other illegal activity.

1935

Grovey v. Townsend

R. R. Grovey, an African-American, attempted to vote in the Democratic primary election held on July 28, 1934 and was denied a ballot by the county clerk specifically because of his race. The whites-only restriction of the Texas Democratic Party had been passed by a convention in May 1932. Grovey sued, arguing the restriction violated his rights under the Fifteenth Amendment and the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. A Justice Court in Texas denied his claim. The unanimous opinion authored by Justice Owen Roberts, the Court concluded that the party's restriction had not been authorized or endorsed by the state and therefore was free from the limitations of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments.

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Harlem Renaissance

Housing executives planned to create neighborhoods in Harlem designed specifically for white workers who wanted to commute into the city. Developers grew overambitious, however, and housing grew more rapidly than the transportation necessary to bring residents into the downtown area. The once exclusive district was abandoned by the white middle-class, and frustrated developers were forced to cope with lower purchase

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prices than they first anticipated. White Harlem landlords started selling their properties to black real estate agents such as Philip A. Payton, John E. Nail, and Henry C. Parker. They also began renting directly to black tenants. Meanwhile, the re-development and gentrification of midtown pushed many blacks out of the Metropolitan area. As a result, African-Americans began moving to Harlem en masse; between 1900 and 1920 the number of blacks in the New York City neighborhood doubled. By the time the planned subway system and roadways reached Harlem, many of the country's best and brightest black advocates, artists, entrepreneurs, and intellectuals had situated themselves in Harlem. They brought with them not only the institutions and businesses necessary to support themselves, but a vast array of talents and ambitions. The area soon became known as the Black Mecca and the capital of black America.

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1937

West Coast Hotel v. Parrish

West Coast Hotel Co. v. Parrish, 300 U.S. 379 (1937), was a decision by the United States Supreme Court upholding the constitutionality of minimum wage legislation enacted by the State of Washington, overturning an earlier decision in *Adkins v. Children's Hospital* (1923). The decision is usually regarded as having ended the *Lochner* era, a period in American legal history during which the Supreme Court tended to invalidate legislation aimed at regulating business. **FACTS:** Elsie Parrish, a chambermaid working at the Cascadian Hotel in Wenatchee, Washington (owned by the West Coast Hotel Company), along with her husband, sued the hotel for the difference between what she was paid, and the \$14.50 per week of 48 hours established as a minimum wage by the Industrial Welfare Committee and Supervisor of Women in Industry, pursuant to Washington state law. The trial court, using *Adkins* as precedent, ruled for the defendant. The Washington Supreme Court, taking the case on a direct appeal, reversed the trial court and found in favor of Parrish. The hotel appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court.

Breedlove v. Suttles

Breedlove v. Suttles This case involved a challenge to the Georgia poll tax by a white male citizen who claimed that it denied his right to equal protection of the laws under the Fourteenth Amendment and his Nineteenth Amendment right not to be discriminated against in voting on account of sex. The law required a tax of one dollar per year before registering to vote but exempted persons under 21 and over 60, blind persons, and females who did not register to vote. The Supreme Court unanimously upheld the law and rejected the claim. Observing that the Equal Protection Clause does not require absolute equality, Justice Pierce Butler asserted that it was reasonable to limit the poll tax in the manner of the statute. He explained that it would be impossible to make the tax universal because many people were too poor to pay. He said further that women were naturally entitled to special considerations that permitted the state to discriminate in their favor. The Nineteenth Amendment challenge failed because it would have made the amendment in effect a limitation on the state taxing power.

1938

Gaines v. Canada

Gaines v. Canada was a United States Supreme Court decision holding that states that provide a school to white students must provide in-state education to blacks as well. States can satisfy this requirement by allowing blacks and whites to attend the same school or creating a second school for blacks. (Facts of the case); The Law School at the University of Missouri refused admission to Lloyd Gaines because he was an African-American. At the time there was no Law School specifically for African-Americans within the state. Gaines cited that this refusal violated his Fourteenth Amendment right. The state of Missouri had offered to pay for Gaines tuition at an adjacent state law school, which he turned down. Writing for the majority, Chief Justice Hughes held that when the state provides legal training, it must provide it to every qualified person to satisfy equal protection. It cannot send them to other states, nor can it condition that training for one group of people (such as blacks) on levels of demand from that group. This decision does not quite strike down separate but equal education as upheld in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896). Instead, it provides that if there is only a single school, students of all races are eligible for admission, thereby striking down segregation by exclusion where the government provides just one school. Despite the initial victory claimed by the NAACP, Gaines was nowhere to be found and is generally presumed to have been murdered.

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New Negro Alliance v. Sanitary Grocery Co.

The New Negro Alliance (NNA) was a Washington, D.C. based organization founded in 1933 by mostly middle class blacks to use pickets, economic boycotts, and other direct action protests to promote civil rights. It sought to increase African American employment opportunities, especially in white collar positions and to challenge discriminatory employment practices. Although the NNA wasn't the first organization in the city's black community to use direct action protests to combat discrimination, it was the largest and most successful organization to that date to employ economic boycotts as its main tool for civil rights. The NNA began in August 1933 when John Aubrey Davis, a twenty-one year old Williams College graduate boycotted the Hamburger Grill, a white-owned business in a black neighborhood which had fired its three black employees, replacing them with white workers. John Davis gathered a group of black men and organized a picket and boycott of the restaurant on August 28. Within two days the Hamburger Grill rehired the three fired black employees.

1939

Lane v. Wilson

Lane v. Wilson struck down Oklahoma's 1916 voting registration law, which was passed in the aftermath of Guinn v. United States (1915). The registration law, enacted by a legislature that had been chosen in an election from which blacks were illegally excluded, automatically qualified all persons who had voted in 1914. Those who had been previously excluded from voting--or had not voted in 1914--had only twelve days (April 30 to May 11) to register. If they failed to register, they permanently lost the right to vote. The trial court and court of appeals both rejected Lane's claim of discrimination, observing that the law barred whites as well as blacks who had neither voted in 1914 nor registered in 1916. U.S. Supreme Court Justice Felix Frankfurter saw the case differently. He focused on the automatic grant of voting rights to many white citizens and the narrow window for blacks to register. Frankfurter thought there was "no escape from the conclusion that the means chosen as substitutes for the invalidated 'grandfather clause' were themselves invalid under the Fifteenth Amendment," for the 1870 amendment "nullifies sophisticated as well as simple-minded modes of discrimination."

1940

Chambers v. Florida

Chambers v. Florida was an important United States Supreme Court case that dealt with the extent that police pressure resulting in a criminal defendant's confession violates the Due Process clause. The case was argued on January 6, 1940 in front of the court by Thurgood Marshall, representing four black men convicted for the murder of a white man in Florida. The defendant Chambers, along with three other co-defendants, were four of up to forty transient black men arrested for the murder of Robert Darcy, an elderly local man, in Pompano Beach, Florida. The murder was greeted with outrage in the community and the Broward County Sheriff's department was apparently under pressure to close the case. Chambers and the other defendants were taken to Miami for questioning, ostensibly to protect them from the mob that had formed, and then to Fort Lauderdale. It was not contested that the defendants were held without being able to see a lawyer or be arraigned for a period of a week, or that they were subject to questioning on a random basis, often alone in a room with up to ten police officers and other members of the community. In the legal climate before Miranda, they were not informed of their right to remain silent. After a week of questioning, and despite previous denials, the four co-defendants eventually confessed to the crime and were convicted of capital murder and sentenced to death. This was Marshall's first of many triumphs in front of the nation's highest tribunal; the Court ruled in favor of the defendants, and overturned their convictions. The court found that on the facts admitted by the police and sheriff's officers, the confessions had clearly been compelled and were therefore inadmissible. It marked one of the first times that the court had accepted the contention that treatment short of physical violence should result in the suppression of evidence. Several of the features of this case, such as not allowing the defendant to contact anyone, holding them without formal charges or arraignment, and

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denying them counsel during questioning were common tactics in law enforcement at the time and were eventually rejected by the court in *Miranda v. Arizona* (1966).

1940

Wagner Gavagan antilynching bill

(Anti-Lynching Bill. Never Passed)

1941

Fair Employment Practice Committee

The Fair Employment Practices Commission (FEPC) implemented US Executive Order 8802, requiring that companies with government contracts not to discriminate on the basis of race or religion. It was intended to help African Americans and other minorities obtain jobs in the homefront industry. On June 25, 1941, President Roosevelt created the Fair Employment Practices Committee (FEPC) by signing Executive Order 8802, which stated, "there shall be no discrimination in the employment of workers in defense industries or government because of race, creed, color, or national origin." This was due in large part to the urging of A. Philip Randolph, who was the founding president of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters.

1942

Executive Order 8802

Executive Order 8802 (also known as the Fair Employment Act) was signed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt on June 25, 1941, to prohibit racial discrimination in the national defense industry. It was the first federal action, though not a law, to promote equal opportunity and prohibit employment discrimination in the United States. The executive order was issued in response to pressure from civil rights activists Bayard Rustin, A. Philip Randolph, and A. J. Muste who had planned a march on Washington, D.C. to protest racial discrimination. The march was suspended after Executive Order 8802 was issued.

1943

The Double V Campaign

The Pittsburgh Courier, one of the nation's largest black newspapers, stepped to the forefront in the struggle for racial equality by launching its "Double V" campaign. Responding to a January 31, 1942 letter to the editor by James G. Thompson of Wichita, Kansas, urging for a double V campaign, the paper published two interlocking Vs with the theme, Democracy: Victory at home, Victory Abroad. The major objective of the campaign was to encourage blacks to support the war effort but fight for civil rights. According to the Courier the response to the introduction of its campaign was that their office had been swamped with telegrams and letters of support proving that its slogan represented the true battle cry of Colored Americans

1944

Smith v. Allwright

A resolution of the Democratic Party of Texas, a group that the Texas Supreme Court had deemed a "voluntary association," allowed only whites to participate in Democratic primary elections. S.S. Allwright was a county election official; he denied Lonnie E. Smith, a black man, the right to vote in the 1940 Texas Democratic primary. The Court overruled its decision in *Grovey v. Townsend* (1935) and found the restrictions against blacks unconstitutional. Even though the Democratic Party was a voluntary organization, the fact that Texas statutes governed the selection of county-level party leaders, the party conducted primary elections under state statutory authority, and state courts were given exclusive original jurisdiction over contested elections, guaranteed for blacks the right to vote in primaries. Allwright engaged in state action abridging Smith's right to vote because of his race. A state cannot "permit a private organization to practice racial discrimination" in elections, argued Justice Reed.

Port of Chicago Disaster & Mutiny

America was swept into World War II on 7 December 1941. As war in the Pacific expanded, the Naval

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Ammunition Depot at Mare Island, California, was unable to keep up with the demand for ammunition. Port Chicago, California, located 35 miles north of San Francisco, proved an ideal place for the Navy to expand its munitions facilities. On the evening of 17 July 1944, the empty merchant ship SS Quinault Victory was prepared for loading on her maiden voyage. The SS E.A. Bryan, another merchant ship, had just returned from her first voyage and was loading across the platform from Quinault Victory. The holds were packed with high explosive and incendiary bombs, depth charges, and ammunition - 4,606 tons of ammunition in all. There were sixteen rail cars on the pier with another 429 tons. Working in the area were 320 cargo handlers, crewmen and sailors. At 10:18 p.m., a hollow ring and the sound of splintering wood erupted from the pier, followed by an explosion that ripped apart the night sky. Within six seconds, a deeper explosion erupted as the contents of the E.A. Bryan detonated in one massive explosion. The seismic shock wave was felt as far away as Boulder City, Nevada. The largest remaining pieces of the 7,200-ton ship were the size of a suitcase. The blast caused damage 48 miles across the Bay in San Francisco. Of the 328 men of the ordnance battalion, 258 African-American sailors refused to load ammunition. In the end, 208 faced summary courts-martial and were sentenced to bad conduct discharges and the forfeit of three month's pay for disobeying orders. The remaining 50 were singled out for general courts martial on the grounds of mutiny. The sentence could have been death, but they received between eight and fifteen years at hard labor after a 1994 review had strong racial overtones.

President's Committee on Civil Rights

The President's Committee on Civil Rights was established by Executive Order 9808, which Harry Truman, who was then President of the United States, issued on December 5, 1946. The committee was instructed to investigate the status of civil rights in the country and propose measures to strengthen and protect them. After the committee submitted a report of its findings to President Truman, it disbanded in December 1947. On July 26, 1948, President Truman advanced the recommendations of the report by signing executive orders 9980 and 9981. Executive Order 9980 ordered the desegregation of the federal work force and Executive Order 9981, the desegregation of the armed services. He also sent a special message to Congress on February 2, 1948 to implement the recommendations of the President's Committee on Civil Rights.

Morgan v. Virginia

In the spring of 1946, Irene Morgan, a black woman, boarded a bus in Virginia to go to Baltimore, Maryland. She was ordered to sit in the back of the bus, as Virginia state law required. She objected, saying that since the bus was an interstate bus, the Virginia law did not apply. Morgan was arrested and fined ten dollars. Thurgood Marshall and the NAACP took on the case. They argued that since an 1877 Supreme Court decision ruled that it was illegal for a state to forbid segregation, then it was likewise illegal for a state to require it. The United States Supreme Court agreed. The court did not rule that segregated transportation within the state was unconstitutional. The ruling, while another defeat for segregation in law, did not have an immediate impact. Buses still segregated its passengers until the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s put an end to the practice once and for all.

1948

Executive Order 9980

[Executive Order 9980 instituted fair employment practices in the civilian agencies of the federal government]
 WHEREAS the principles on which our Government is based require a policy of fair employment throughout the Federal establishment, without discrimination because of race, color, religion, or national origin; and
 WHEREAS it is desirable and in the public interest that all steps be taken necessary to insure that this long-established policy shall be more effectively carried out: NOW, THEREFORE, by virtue of the authority vested in me as President of the United States, by the Constitution and the laws of the United States, it is hereby ordered

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as follows: All personnel actions taken by Federal appointing officers shall be based solely on merit and fitness; HARRY S. TRUMAN.

Executive Order 9981

[Executive Order 9981 directed the armed forces to provide equality of treatment and opportunity for all personnel without regard to race, color, religion, or national origin and established a presidential committee chaired by former Solicitor General Charles Fahy to monitor compliance.] WHEREAS it is essential that there be maintained in the armed services of the United States the highest standards of democracy, with equality of treatment and opportunity for all those who serve in our country's defense: NOW THEREFORE, by virtue of the authority vested in me as President of the United States, by the Constitution and the statutes of the United States, and as Commander in Chief of the armed services, it is hereby ordered as follows: It is hereby declared to be the policy of the President that there shall be equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services without regard to race, color, religion or national origin HARRY S. TRUMAN

1948

Shelley v. Kraemer

Shelley v. Kraemer, 334 U.S. 1 (1948), is a United States Supreme Court case which held that courts could not enforce racial covenants on real estate. In 1945, a black family by the name of Shelley purchased a house in St. Louis, Missouri. At the time of purchase, they were unaware that a restrictive covenant had been in place on the property since 1911. The restrictive covenant barred "people of the Negro or Mongolian Race" from owning the property. Louis Kraemer, who lived ten blocks away from the purchased housing, sued to restrain the Shelleys from taking possession of the property they had purchased. The Supreme Court of Missouri held that the covenant was enforceable against the purchasers because the covenant was a purely private agreement between the original parties thereto, which "ran with the land" and was enforceable against subsequent owners; since the restriction purported to run in favor of an estate rather than merely a person, it could be enforced against third parties. A materially similar scenario took place in the companion case McGhee v. Sipes from Detroit, Michigan, where the McGhees purchased land subject to a similar restrictive covenant. The Supreme Court consolidated the two cases for oral arguments.

The United States Supreme Court held that racially based restrictive covenants are, on their face, valid under the Fourteenth Amendment. Private parties may voluntarily abide by the terms of a restrictive covenant but may not seek judicial enforcement of such a covenant because enforcement by the courts would constitute state action. Since such state action would necessarily be discriminatory, the enforcement of a racially based restrictive covenant in a state court would violate the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment.

1950

McLaurin v. Oklahoma State Regents

McLaurin v. Oklahoma State Regents was a United States Supreme Court case that reversed a lower court decision upholding the efforts of the state-supported University of Oklahoma to adhere to the state law requiring African-Americans to be provided graduate or professional education on a segregated basis. On June 5, 1950, the United States Supreme Court ruled that a public institution of higher learning could not provide different treatment to a student solely because of his/her race as doing so deprived the student of his/her Fourteenth Amendment rights of Equal Protection. This case together with Sweatt v. Painter, which was decided the same day, marked the end of the separate but equal doctrine of Plessy v. Ferguson in graduate and professional education.

Sweatt v. Painter

Sweatt v. Painter was a U.S. Supreme Court case that successfully proved lack of equality, in favor of a black applicant, the "separate but equal" doctrine of racial segregation established by the 1896 case Plessy v. Ferguson. The case was also influential in the landmark case of Brown v. Board of Education four years later.

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The case involved a black man, Heman Marion Sweatt, who was refused admission to the School of Law of the University of Texas on the grounds that the Texas State Constitution prohibited integrated education. At the time, no law school in Texas would admit black students, or, in the language of the time, "Negro" students. The Supreme Court reversed the lower court decision, saying that the separate school failed to qualify, both because of quantitative differences in facilities and intangible factors, such as its isolation from most of the future lawyers with whom its graduates would interact. The court held that, when considering graduate education, intangibles must be considered as part of "substantive equality."

Henderson v. United States

Henderson v. United States was a landmark United States Supreme Court decision in the jurisprudence of the United States that abolished segregation in railroad dining cars. On May 17, 1942, Elmer W. Henderson, a Negro passenger, was traveling first-class on the Southern Railway from Washington to Atlanta en route to Birmingham in the course of his duties as an employee of the United States. While the Commission acknowledged that he had been subjected to undue and unreasonable prejudice and disadvantage, it dismissed the occurrence as a casual incident brought about by the bad judgment of an employee and refused to enter an order as to future practices. The United States District Court for the District of Maryland disagreed; the railroad's general practice, as evidenced by its stated policies in effect on August 6, 1942, was in violation of the Interstate Commerce Act. The US Supreme Court did not rule on the constitutionality of "separate but equal" in this instance but did find that the railroad had failed to provide the passenger with the same level of service provided to a white passenger with the same class of ticket, a violation of principles already established in Mitchell v. United States.

1951

Executive Order 10308

President Harry S. Truman's Executive Order 10308 advanced the achievements initiated during WWII by creating the Committee on Government Contract Compliance. Federal contractors with the non-discrimination provisions of Executive Order 8802, as its name implies, tasked the committee, with overseeing compliance.

Davis v. County School Board of Prince Edward County

Davis v. County School Board of Prince Edward County was one of the five cases combined into Brown v. Board of Education, is the famous case in which the U.S. Supreme Court, in 1954, officially overturned racial segregation in U.S. public schools. R.R. Moton High School, an all-black high school in Farmville, Virginia, suffered from terrible conditions due to underfunding. The school did not have a gymnasium, cafeteria or teachers' restrooms. Teachers and students did not have desks or blackboards, and due to overcrowding, some students had to take classes in an immobilized, decrepit school bus parked outside the main school building. The all-white school board denied the school's requests for additional funds. In response, on April 23, 1951, a 16-year-old student named Barbara Rose Johns covertly organized a student general strike. Over 450 walked out and marched to the homes of members of the school board, who refused to see them. Thus began a two-week protest. A three-judge panel of the U.S. District Court unanimously rejected the students' request. "We have found no hurt or harm to either race," the court found. The case was then appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court, and consolidated with four other cases from other districts around the country into the famous Brown v. Board of Education case. In it, the US Supreme Court ruled that segregation in public education was, effectively, unconstitutional and illegal.

1952

Briggs v. Elliott

Briggs et al. v. Elliott et al., was the first of the five cases combined into Brown v. Board of Education (1954). The case challenged segregation in Summerton, South Carolina. The case began in 1947 as a request to provide bus transportation. In addition to having separate and very inferior facilities, black children had to

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walk to school, sometimes many miles. In the neighboring Jordan community, some children walked as many as 18 miles round-trip to school each day. Harry and Eliza Briggs joined with 21 other families to find a school bus suitable for their children. Superintendent, R.M. Elliott, said black citizens did not pay enough taxes to warrant a bus and that asking white taxpayers to fund that burden would be unfair. In 1952 the Supreme Court heard the case and returned it to the district court for rehearing after the Court found that progress had been made towards equality. Thurgood Marshall argued that this may be true, but that the real issue was that as long as separation existed, the schools would be unequal.

Gebhart v. Belton

Gebhart v. Belton involved two separate actions that were consolidated for the purposes of trial. Ethel Belton and six other parents of eight African-American high-school students who lived in Claymont, Delaware brought suit because despite the existence of a well-maintained, spacious high school in Claymont, segregation forced the parents to send their children on a public bus to attend the run-down Howard High School in downtown Wilmington. Related concerns involved class size, teacher qualifications, and curriculum; indeed, Howard students interested in vocational training were required to walk several blocks to a nearby annex to attend classes offered only after the conclusion of the normal school day. Sarah Bulah, a resident of the rural town of Hockessin, Delaware, brought Bulah v. Gebhart. Mrs. Bulah's daughter, Shirley, had been denied admission to the modern, whites-only Hockessin School No. 29, and instead was compelled to attend a one-room "colored" school. This case as eventually combined with Brown v. Board of Ed.

1953

Executive Order 10479

President Dwight D. Eisenhower took a further step towards equality on August 13, 1953, by creating the President's Committee on Government Contracts under Executive Order 10479. This reorganization furthered the principle that, "it is the obligation of the contracting agencies of the United States Government and government contractors to insure compliance with, and successful execution of, the equal employment opportunity program of the United States Government." This Executive Order made the head of each contracting agency of the federal government responsible for obtaining compliance by their contractors and subcontractors with the nondiscrimination provisions of the contracts into which they entered. The President's would provide coordination Committee on Government Contracts, housed in the Department of Labor, and comprised of representatives of major contracting agencies, the Labor and Justice Departments, and the General Services Administration as well as eight Presidential appointees.

1954

Brown v. Board of Education

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka was a landmark decision of the United States Supreme Court that declared state laws establishing separate public schools for black and white students unconstitutional. The decision overturned the Plessy v. Ferguson decision of 1896, which allowed state-sponsored segregation. Handed down on May 17, 1954, the Warren 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 ruling paved the way for integration and the civil rights movement.

Executive Order 10577

Executive Order 10577--Amending the Civil Service Rules and authorizing a new appointment system for non-racially biased competitive service. Establishing Civil Service Rules.

Bolling v. Sharpe

Bolling v. Sharpe, 347 U.S. 497 (1954), is a landmark United States Supreme Court case which deals with civil

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rights, specifically, segregation in the District of Columbia's public schools. Originally argued on December 10–11, 1952, a year before *Brown v. Board of Education*, *Bolling* was reargued on December 8 and 9, 1953, and was unanimously decided on May 17, 1954, the same day as *Brown*. The *Bolling* decision was supplemented in 1955 with the second *Brown* opinion, which ordered desegregation "with all deliberate speed." *Bolling* did not address school desegregation in the context of the Fourteenth Amendment's Equal Protection Clause, which applies only to the states, but held that school segregation was unconstitutional under the Due Process Clause of the Fifth Amendment to the United States Constitution. In *Bolling*, the Court observed that the Fifth Amendment to the United States Constitution lacked an Equal Protection Clause, as in the Fourteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution. The Court held, however, that the concepts of Equal Protection and Due Process are not mutually exclusive.

1955

Executive Order 10590

Whereas it is the policy of the United States Government that equal opportunity be afforded all qualified persons, consistent with law, for employment in the Federal Government; and Whereas this policy necessarily excludes and prohibits discrimination against any employee or applicant for employment in the Federal Government because of race, color, religion, or national origin; and Whereas it is essential to the effective application of this policy in all civilian personnel matters that all departments and agencies of the executive branch of the Government adhere to this policy in a fair, objective, and uniform manner: Now, Therefore, by virtue of the authority in me by the Constitution and statutes, and as President of the United States, and consistent with the provisions of section 214 of the act of May 3, 1945, 59 Stat. 134 (31 U.S.C. 691), it is hereby ordered as follows: Section 1. There is hereby established the President's Committee on Government Employment Policy (hereinafter referred to as the Committee) Section 2. The Committee shall Advise the President periodically as to whether the civilian employment practices in the Federal Government are in conformity with the non-discriminatory employment policy recited in the preamble of this order, and, whenever deemed necessary or desirable, recommend methods of assuring uniformity in such practices

Brown v. Board of Education II

After its decision in *Brown I* who declared racial discrimination in public education unconstitutional, the Court convened to issue the directives, which would help to implement its newly announced Constitutional principle. Given the embedded nature of racial discrimination in public schools and the diverse circumstances under which it had been practiced, the Court requested further argument on the issue of relief. The Court held that the problems identified in *Brown I* required varied local solutions. Chief Justice Warren conferred much responsibility on local school authorities and the courts that originally heard school segregation cases. They were to implement the principles, which the Supreme Court embraced in its first *Brown* decision. Warren urged localities to act on the new principles promptly and to move toward full compliance with them "with all deliberate speed."

Lucy v. Adams

Lucy v. Adams, 350 U.S. 1 (1955), was a U.S. Supreme Court case that successfully established the right of all citizens to be accepted as students at the University of Alabama. The case involved black citizens Authoring Lucy and Polly Anne Myers, who were refused admission to the University of Alabama solely on account of their race or color. The Supreme Court affirmed the lower court decision, saying that it enjoins and restrains the respondent and others designated from denying these petitioners, solely on account of their race or color, the right to enroll in the University of Alabama and pursue courses of study there.

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Emmitt Till

Emmitt Till was from the north and visiting relatives down south during the summer when he whistled to a White woman. Her husband found out where Till was staying and with and with a friend abducted, tortured, murdered and dumped his body in a river with a fan tied around his neck. Till's mother insisted on an open casket funeral so that this misshapen face and body would be on display for a shocked nation. The men accused of abducting and killing Till were tried and acquitted. Flaunting their newfound immunity via double jeopardy, Till's murderers sold their murder confession to Life magazine while cheerfully posing for pictures. Through the constant attention it received, Till's case became emblematic of the disparity of justice for blacks in the South. The Chicago Defender in 1955 urged their readers to react to the acquittal by voting in large numbers. Till's case resonated so strongly because it shook "the foundations of Mississippi" because not even a child was safe from racism and bigotry and death. The NAACP asked Emmitt's mother, Mamie Till Bradley to tour the country relating the events of her son's life, death, and the trial of his murderers. It was one of the most successful fundraising campaigns the NAACP had ever known. As a result of the attention Till's death and the trial received, Mississippi became in the eyes of the nation the epitome of racism and the citadel of white supremacy.

Rosa Parks

Rosa Louise McCauley Parks was an African-American civil rights activist, whom the U.S. Congress called "the first lady of civil rights", and "the mother of the freedom movement". On December 1, 1955 in Montgomery, Alabama, Parks refused to obey bus driver James F. Blake's order that she give up her seat to make room for a white passenger. Parks' action was not the first of its kind to impact the civil rights issue. Others had taken similar steps, including Lizzie Jennings in 1854, Homer Plessy in 1892, Irene Morgan in 1946, Sarah Louise Keys in 1955, and Claudette Colvin on the same bus system nine months before Parks, but Parks' civil disobedience had the effect of sparking the Montgomery Bus Boycott. Parks' act of defiance became an important symbol of the modern Civil Rights Movement and Parks became an international icon of resistance to racial segregation. She 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 her action, Parks was secretary of the Montgomery chapter of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and had recently attended the Highlander Folk School, a Tennessee center for workers' rights and racial equality. Nonetheless, she took her action as a private citizen "tired of giving in". Although widely honored in later years for her action, she suffered for it, losing her job as a seamstress in a local department store. Parks eventually received many honors ranging from the 1979 Spingarn Medal to the Presidential Medal of Freedom, the Congressional Gold Medal and a posthumous statue in the United States Capitol's National Statuary Hall. Upon her death in 2005, she was the first woman and second non-U.S. government official granted the posthumous honor of lying in honor at the Capitol Rotunda.

Montgomery Bus Boycott

The Montgomery Bus Boycott was a political and social protest campaign that started in 1955 in Montgomery, Alabama, USA, intended to oppose the city's policy of racial segregation on its public transit system. Many important figures in the civil rights movement were involved in the boycott, including Reverend Martin Luther King, Jr., Ralph Abernathy, and others, as listed below. The boycott caused crippling financial deficit for the Montgomery public transit system, because the city's black population who were the principal boycotters were also the bulk of the systems paying customers. The campaign 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, *Browder v. Gayle*, took effect, and led to a United States Supreme Court decision that declared the Alabama and Montgomery laws requiring segregated buses to be unconstitutional.

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1956

Browder v. Gayle

Right after the commencement of the Montgomery Bus Boycott in December 1955, black community leaders began discussion about the need for a federal lawsuit to challenge City of Montgomery and Alabama bus segregation laws. They sought a declaratory judgment that Alabama state statutes and ordinances of the city of Montgomery providing for and enforcing racial segregation on "privately" operated buses were in violation of Fourteenth Amendment protections.

About two months after the bus boycott began, the case of Claudette Colvin, a girl only 15 years old who was the first person arrested for refusing to give up her seat on a Montgomery bus nine months before Rosa Parks' action and arrest was re-considered by black legal leaders. Fred Gray, E.D. Nixon and Clifford Durr searched for the ideal case law to challenge the constitutional legitimacy of Montgomery and Alabama bus segregation laws. Gray approached Colvin, Aurelia Browder, Susie McDonald, and Mary Louise Smith, who were all women who had been mistreated by the Montgomery bus system. They all agreed to become plaintiffs in a civil action lawsuit.

In June 1956 the District Court ruled that "the enforced segregation of Negro and white passengers on motor buses operating in the City of Montgomery violates the Constitution and laws of the United States," because the conditions deprived people of equal protection under the Fourteenth Amendment. The court further enjoined the state of Alabama and city of Montgomery from continuing to operate segregated buses.

Cointelpro begins and continues until 1971

COINTELPRO (an acronym for Counter Intelligence Program) was a series of covert, and often-illegal projects conducted by the United States Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) aimed at surveilling, infiltrating, discrediting, and disrupting domestic political organizations. COINTELPRO tactics included discrediting targets through psychological warfare, planting false reports in the media, smearing through forged letters, harassment, wrongful imprisonment, illegal violence and assassination. Covert operations under COINTELPRO took place between 1956 and 1971; however, the FBI has used covert operations against domestic political groups since its inception. The FBI's stated motivation at the time was "protecting national security, preventing violence, and maintaining the existing social and political order." FBI records show that 85% of COINTELPRO resources targeted groups and individuals that the FBI deemed "subversive," including communist and socialist organizations; organizations and individuals associated with the civil rights movement, including Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and others associated with the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, and the Congress of Racial Equality and other civil rights organizations; black nationalist groups; the American Indian Movement; a broad range of organizations labeled "New Left", including Students for a Democratic Society and the Weathermen; almost all groups protesting the Vietnam War, as well as individual student demonstrators with no group affiliation; the National Lawyers Guild; organizations and individuals associated with the women's rights movement; nationalist groups such as those seeking independence for Puerto Rico, United Ireland, and Cuban exile movements including Orlando Bosch's Cuban Power and the Cuban Nationalist Movement; and additional notable Americans, such as Albert Einstein (who was a member of several civil rights groups). The remaining 15% of COINTELPRO resources were expended to marginalize and subvert "white hate groups," including the Ku Klux Klan and the National States' Rights Party. FBI Director J. Edgar Hoover issued directives governing COINTELPRO, ordering FBI agents to "expose, disrupt, misdirect, discredit, or otherwise neutralize" the activities of these movements and their leaders.

1957

Southern Christian Leadership Council – SCLC

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In January 1957, in the afterglow of the Montgomery Bus Boycott victory and consultations with Bayard Rustin, Ella Baker, and others, Dr. King invited some 60 black ministers and leaders to Ebenezer Church in Atlanta. Prior to this, however, Bayard Rustin (in New York City), having conceived the idea of initiating such effort, first sought Rev. C. K. Steele to make the call and take the lead role. C. K. Steele declined, but told him he would be glad to work right beside him if he sought Dr. King in Montgomery, for the role. Their goal was to form an organization to coordinate and support nonviolent direct action as a method of desegregating bus systems across the South. In addition to Rustin and Baker, Rev. Fred Shuttlesworth of Birmingham, Rev Joseph Lowery of Mobile, Rev Ralph Abernathy of Montgomery, Rev C.K. Steele of Tallahassee, all played key roles in this meeting. On February 14, a follow-up meeting was held in New Orleans. Out of these two meetings came a new organization with Dr. King as its president. Initially called the "Negro Leaders Conference on Nonviolent Integration," then "Southern Negro Leaders Conference," the group eventually chose "Southern Christian Leadership Conference" (SCLC) as its name, and expanded its focus beyond busses to ending all forms of segregation. A small office was established on Auburn Avenue in Atlanta with Ella Baker as SCLC's first and for a long time only staff member.

The Little Rock 9

The Little Rock Nine was a group of African-American students who were enrolled in Little Rock Central High School in 1954. The ensuing Little Rock Crisis, in which the students were initially prevented from entering the racially segregated school by Arkansas Governor Orval Faubus, and then attended after the intervention of President Eisenhower, is considered to be one of the most important events in the African-American Civil Rights Movement. On their first day of school, troops from the Arkansas National Guard would not let them enter the school and they were followed by mobs making threats to lynch the students.

BACKGROUND: The U.S. Supreme Court issued its historic *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*, 347 U.S. 483, on May 17, 1954. The decision declared all laws establishing segregated schools to be unconstitutional, and it called for the desegregation of all schools throughout the nation. After the decision the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) attempted to register black students in previously all-white schools in cities throughout the South. In Little Rock, the capital city of Arkansas, the Little Rock School Board agreed to comply with the high court's ruling. Virgil Blossom, the Superintendent of Schools, submitted a plan of gradual integration to the school board on May 24, 1955, which the board unanimously approved. The plan would be implemented during the fall of the 1957 school year, which would begin in September 1957. By 1957, the NAACP had registered nine black students to attend the previously all-white Little Rock Central High, selected on the criteria of excellent grades and attendance. The nicknamed "Little Rock Nine" consisted of Ernest Green, Elizabeth Eckford, Jefferson Thomas, Terrence Roberts, Carlotta Walls LaNier, Minnijean Brown, Gloria Ray Karlmarm, Thelma Mothershed, and Melba Pattillo Beals.

Civil Rights Commission

The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights is historically a bipartisan, independent commission of the U.S. federal government charged with the responsibility for investigating, reporting on, and making recommendations concerning civil rights issues that face the nation. The Commission is composed of eight Commissioners. Four are appointed by the President of the United States, two by the President Pro Tempore of the Senate and two by the Speaker of the House of Representatives. During the Presidency of George W. Bush, Democrats criticized the panel for becoming dominated by conservatives after two Republican commissioners reregistered as independents and President Bush appointed additional Republican members.

Civil Rights Act of 1957

The Civil Rights Act of 1957, enacted September 9, 1957, primarily a voting rights bill, was the first civil rights legislation enacted by Congress in the United States since Reconstruction following the American Civil War.

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Following the historic US Supreme Court ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education* (1955), which eventually led to the integration of public schools, Southern whites in Virginia began a "Massive Resistance". Violence against blacks rose there and in other states, as in Little Rock, Arkansas. There had been continued physical assaults against suspected activists and bombings of schools and churches in the South. The administration of Eisenhower proposed legislation to protect the right to vote by African Americans. Senator Strom Thurmond of South Carolina, an ardent segregationist, sustained the longest one-person filibuster in history in an attempt to keep the bill from becoming law. His one-man filibuster lasted 24 hours and 18 minutes; he began with readings of every state's election laws in alphabetical order. Thurmond later read from the Declaration of Independence, the Bill of Rights, and George Washington's Farewell Address. The bill passed the House with a vote of 270 to 97 and the Senate 60 to 15. President Eisenhower signed it on September 9, 1957.

Civil Rights Division in the Department of Justice

The Civil Rights Division of the Department of Justice, created in 1957 by the enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1957, works to uphold the civil and constitutional rights of all Americans, particularly some of the most vulnerable members of our society. The Division enforces federal statutes prohibiting discrimination on the basis of race, color, sex, disability, religion, familial status and national origin.

1958

NAACP v. Alabama

As part of its strategy to enjoin the NAACP from operating, Alabama required it to reveal to the State's Attorney General the names and addresses of all the NAACP's members and agents in the state. The unanimous Court held that a compelled disclosure of the NAACP's membership lists would have the effect of suppressing legal association among the group's members. Nothing short of an "overriding valid interest of the State," something not present in this case, was needed to justify Alabama's actions.

Robert F. Williams & The Kissing Case

The Kissing Case is an incident relevant to the African-American Civil Rights Movement. In 1958 in Monroe, North Carolina, two African American children, seven-year-old David "Fuzzy" Simpson and nine-year-old James Hanover Thompson, were arrested for violating the state's Anti-miscegenation laws. They had participated in a kissing game with a white girl during which the girl kissed Thompson on the cheek. The girl subsequently told her mother, the girl's father and neighbors armed themselves with shotguns and went looking for the boys and their parents. That evening, James Hanover and Fuzzy were arrested on the charge of rape. The young children were detained for six days without access to their parents or legal council, during which they were handcuffed and beaten in a lower level cell of the police station. A few days later a juvenile court judge found them guilty and sentenced them to indefinite terms in reform school. The boys, who were again denied legal counsel, were told they might get out when they were 21 years old. Despite pressure from Civil rights leader Robert F. Williams, the local chapter of the NAACP, former first lady/civil rights activist Eleanor Roosevelt and New York attorney Conrad Lynn, the local and state government at first refused to back down; Governor Luther H. Hodges and attorney general Malcolm Seawell opposed Williams' writ to review the detention of the boys. Williams called well-known Black civil rights lawyer Conrad Lynn, who came down from New York to take the case. The mothers of the two boys were not allowed to see their children for weeks. Joyce Egginton, a journalist from England, got permission to visit the boys and took their mothers along. Egginton smuggled a camera in and took a picture of the mothers hugging their children. Egginton's story of the case and photo were printed throughout Europe and Asia, the London Observer ran a photograph of the children's reunion with their mothers under the headline "Why?", and the United States Information Agency reported receiving more than 12,000 letters regarding the case. An international committee was formed in Europe to defend James and Fuzzy. There were huge demonstrations in Paris, Rome and Vienna and in Rotterdam, the U.S. Embassy was stoned. This was an international embarrassment for the U.S. government.

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In February, officials asked the boys' mothers to sign a waiver and admission of guilt with the assurance that their children would be released. The mothers refused to sign. Two days later, after three months in detention, James and Fuzzy were released without conditions or explanation

1960

Gomillion v. Lightfoot

In this landmark voting rights case, the Supreme Court was faced with the question of whether or not Act 140 of the Alabama legislature violated the Fifteenth Amendment. Alabama passed Act 140 in 1957, which changed the boundaries of the city of Tuskegee, Alabama. It had previously been a square but the legislature redrew it as a 28-sided figure, excluding all but a handful of potential African-American votes. Justice Frankfurter issued the opinion of the Court, which held that the Act did violate the provision of the 15th Amendment prohibiting states from denying anyone their right to vote on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. As he said in his concurring opinion, Justice Whitaker would have struck it down under the equal protection clause, which is what the Court later did in *Baker v. Carr*. Just because someone has been redistricted to vote in another district does not automatically mean his rights have been denied. It is not a right to vote in a particular jurisdiction. But in this case, completely fencing Negro citizens out a district is an unlawful segregation of black citizens and a clear violation of the Equal Protection Clause.

Boynton v. Virginia

Boynton v. Virginia overturned a judgment convicting an African American law student for trespassing by being in a restaurant in a bus terminal which was "whites only." It held that racial segregation in public transportation was illegal because such segregation violated the Interstate Commerce Act, which broadly forbade discrimination in interstate passenger transportation. It moreover held that bus transportation was sufficiently related to interstate commerce to allow the United States Federal government to regulate it to forbid racial discrimination in the industry. Justice Hugo Black wrote the majority opinion. The significance of *Boynton* was not in its holding since it managed to avoid deciding any Constitutional questions in its decision, and its expansive reading of Federal powers regarding interstate commerce was also well established by the time of the decision. Its significance is that its outlawing of racial segregation in public transportation led directly to a movement called the Freedom Rides, in which African Americans and whites together rode various forms of public transportation in the South to challenge local laws or customs that enforced segregation. The Freedom Rides, and the violent reactions they provoked, prompted Attorney General Robert F. Kennedy to confront the Interstate Commerce Commission with its failure to enforce a bus desegregation ruling it had handed down in 1955, *Sarah Keys v. Carolina Coach Company*, 64 MCC 769 (1955) as well as the companion train desegregation case, *NAACP v. St. Louis-Santa Fe Railway Company*, 297 ICC 335 (1955). By presenting the Commission with its own rulings in a May 29, 1961 petition, Kennedy was able to prompt it to do what it had promised in 1955, five years before the *Boynton* ruling was handed down, and six years before the Freedom Riders set out to test *Boynton* across the Deep South.

Civil Rights Act of 1960

The 1960 Civil Rights Act was born towards the end of 1958. Following the 1957 Civil Rights Act, Eisenhower introduced another civil rights bill in late 1958, which was his reaction to a violent outbreak of bombings against churches and schools in the South. Though Eisenhower is not automatically linked to the civil rights issue, his contribution, including the 1957 Act, is important as it pushed the whole civil rights issue into the White House. Once again, politicians from the South were furious over what they saw as Federal interference in state affairs. The 1960 Civil Rights Act introduced penalties to be levied against anybody who obstructed someone's attempt to actually vote. The act barely touched on anything new and Eisenhower, at the end of his term of presidency, was accused of passing the thorny problem of voters to his successor. The two Eisenhower civil rights acts only added an extra 3% Black voters to the electoral roll for the 1960 election.

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Some would argue that this reflected a failure on the part of Eisenhower. Others could argue that the only way the federal government was able to pass the 1964 Civil Rights Act and the 1965 Voting Rights Act was due to the fact that after 80 years, Eisenhower's Civil Rights Act of 1960 provided a federal argument for equality.

Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee SNCC – Stokeley Carmichael

SNCC was one of the principal organizations of the American Civil Rights Movement in the 1960s. It emerged from a series of student meetings led by Ella Baker at Shaw University in Raleigh, North Carolina. SNCC played a major role in the sit-ins and freedom rides, a leading role in the 1963 March on Washington, Mississippi Freedom Summer, and the Mississippi Freedom Democratic Party over the next few years. SNCC's major contribution was in its field work, organizing voter registration drives all over the South, especially in Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. A final SNCC legacy is the destruction of the psychological shackles that had kept black southerners in physical and mental peonage; SNCC helped break those chains forever. It demonstrated that ordinary women and men, young and old, could perform extraordinary tasks.

1961

Executive Order 10925

By the time John F. Kennedy was elected President, it was evident that to advance equal employment opportunity federal involvement needed to be broader and more proactive. Shortly after JFK took office, he signed Executive Order 10925 requiring government contractors to "take affirmative action to ensure that applicants are employed, and that employees are treated during employment, without regard to their race, creed, color or national origin." It also created the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity, which upon passage of the Civil Rights Act in 1964 became the Equal Employment Opportunity Committee.

The Escape of Robert F. Williams

Robert Franklin Williams (February 26, 1925–October 15, 1996) was a civil rights leader, the president of the Monroe, North Carolina NAACP chapter in the 1950s and early 1960s, and author. Williams was a key figure in promoting both integration and armed black self-defense in the United States. He and his wife left the United States in 1961 to avoid prosecution for a trumped up charge of kidnapping based upon Williams' intervening to save a white couple lost in the black section of town during a race riot. A self-professed Black Nationalist and supporter of liberation, he lived first in Cuba as an honored guest of Fidel Castro before traveling to China via North Viet-nam (and a meeting with Ho Chi Minh) where he lived as an honored guest of Mao Zedong. Williams' book *Negroes with Guns* (1962), published while he was in exile in Cuba, details his experience with violent racism and his disagreement with the pacifist Civil Rights Movement philosophies. It was influential with younger black men, including Huey Newton, who founded the Black Panthers. While in Cuba, Williams regularly broadcast addresses to Southern blacks on "Radio Free Dixie" from 1962–1965. During the Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962, Williams used Radio Free Dixie to urge black soldiers in the U.S. armed forces, which were then preparing for a possible invasion of Cuba to eliminate the Soviet nuclear arsenal, to engage in insurrection against the United States. Williams and his wife, Mabel, also published the newspaper, *The Crusader*. Williams eventually returned to the United States under a deal brokered by the Nixon administration, which at the time, was eager for intel on the leaders of the Mao government. All charges were dropped soon after his arrival in the United States.

1962

Executive Order 11063

President John F. Kennedy signed Executive Order 11063 Equal opportunity in housing Executive Order 11063 on November 20, 1962. This Order "prohibits discrimination in the sale, leasing, rental, or other disposition of properties and facilities owned or operated by the federal government or provided with federal funds."

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1963

Executive Order 11114

Extending the Authority of the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity

March on Washington

The March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom was the largest political rally for human rights in United States history and called for civil and economic rights for African Americans. It took place in Washington, D.C. on Wednesday, August 28, 1963. Martin Luther King, Jr. delivered his historic "I Have a Dream" speech advocating racial harmony at the Lincoln Memorial during the march. The march was organized by a group of civil rights, labor, and religious organizations. Estimates of the number of participants varied from 200,000 (police) to over 300,000 (leaders of the march). Observers estimated that 75% of the marchers were black and the rest were white and other minorities. The march is widely credited with helping to pass the Civil Rights Act (1964) and the Voting Rights Act (1965). The march was planned and initiated by A. Philip Randolph, the president of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, president of the Negro American Labor Council, and vice president of the AFL-CIO. Randolph had planned a similar march in 1941. The threat of the earlier march had convinced President Roosevelt to establish the Committee on Fair Employment Practice and ban discriminatory hiring in the defense industry. The 1963 march was an important part of the rapidly expanding Civil Rights Movement. It also marked the 100th anniversary of the signing of the Emancipation Proclamation by Abraham Lincoln.

1964

Civil Rights Act of 1964

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 was a landmark piece of legislation in the United States that outlawed major forms of discrimination against blacks and women, including racial segregation. It ended unequal application of voter registration requirements and racial segregation in schools, at the workplace and by facilities that served the general public ("public accommodations"). 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, principally its power to regulate interstate commerce under Article One (section 8), its duty to guarantee all citizens equal protection of the laws under the Fourteenth Amendment and its duty to protect voting rights under the Fifteenth Amendment. President Lyndon B. Johnson, who would later sign the landmark Voting Rights Act into law, signed the Act into law.

Economic Opportunity Act of 1964

Signed by Lyndon B. Johnson on August 20, 1964, the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 was central to Johnson's Great Society campaign and its War on Poverty. Implemented by the since disbanded Office of Economic Opportunity, the Act included several social programs to promote the health, education, and general welfare of the impoverished. Although most of the initiatives in the Act have since been modified, weakened, or altogether rolled back, its remaining programs include Head Start, and Job Corps. Remaining War on Poverty programs are managed by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Service's Office of Community Services and the U.S. Department of Labor.

The Deacons for Defense

The Deacons for Defense and Justice was an armed self defense African American civil rights organization in the U.S. Southern states during the 1960s. Historically, the organization practiced self-defense methods in the face of racist oppression that was carried out by Jim Crow Laws; local and state agencies; and the Ku Klux Klan. Many times the Deacons are not written about or cited when speaking of the Civil Rights Movement because their agenda of self-defense, in this case, using violence (if necessary) did not fit the image of strict non-violence agenda that leaders like Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. preached about the Civil Rights Movement.

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Yet, there has been a recent debate over the crucial role the Deacons and other lesser known militant organizations played on local levels throughout much of the rural South. Many times in these areas the Federal government did not always have complete control over to enforce such laws like the Civil Rights Act of 1964 or Voting Rights Act of 1965.

Heart of Atlanta Motel v. United States

Heart of Atlanta Motel Inc. v. United States holds that the U.S. Congress could use the Constitution's Commerce Clause power to force private businesses to abide by the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This important case represented an immediate challenge to the Civil Rights Act of 1964 that represented the first comprehensive act by Congress on civil rights and race relations since the Civil Rights Act of 1875. During the mid-twentieth century, partly as a result of cases such as *Powell v. Alabama*, 287 U.S. 45 (1932); *Smith v. Allwright*, 321 U.S. 649 (1944); *Shelley v. Kraemer*, 334 U.S. 1 (1948); *Sweatt v. Painter*, 339 U.S. 629 (1950); *McLaurin v. Oklahoma State Regents*, 339 U.S. 637 (1950); *NAACP v. Alabama*, 357 U.S. 449 (1958); *Boynton v. Virginia*, 364 U.S. 454 (1960) and probably the most famous, *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*, 347 U.S. 483 (1954), the tide against segregation began to turn. However, segregation remained in full effect into the 1960s in parts of the southern United States, where the Heart of Atlanta Motel was located, despite these decisions. In *Heart of Atlanta Motel v. United States*, The District court ruled in favor of the United States and issued a permanent injunction requiring the Heart of Atlanta Motel, Inc. to refrain from using racial discrimination in terms of the goods or services that it offered to guests or the general public upon its premises. The owner of the motel was Attorney Moreton Rolleston. This case was combined with the case of the future Governor of Georgia Lester Maddox concerning his Pickrick restaurant and his case to refuse to serve blacks.

McLaughlin v. Florida

McLaughlin v. Florida was a case in which the United States Supreme Court ruled unanimously that a cohabitation law of Florida, part of the state's anti-miscegenation laws, was unconstitutional. The law prohibited habitual cohabitation by two unmarried people of opposite sex, if one is black, and the other, white. The court thereby overturned *Pace v. Alabama* (1883), which had declared such statutes constitutional. It did not however, overturn the related Florida statute that prohibited interracial marriage between whites and blacks. These laws were declared unconstitutional in 1967 in *Loving v. Virginia*.

New York Times Co. v. Sullivan

New York Times Co. v. Sullivan was a United States Supreme Court case which established the actual malice standard which has to be met before press reports about public officials or public figures can be considered to be defamation and libel; and hence allowed free reporting of the civil rights campaigns in the southern United States. It is one of the key decisions supporting the freedom of the press. The actual malice standard requires that the plaintiff in a defamation or libel case prove that the publisher of the statement in question knew that the statement was false or acted in reckless disregard of its truth or falsity. Because of the extremely high burden of proof on the plaintiff, and the difficulty in proving essentially what is inside a person's head, such cases when they involve public figures rarely prevail. Before this decision there were nearly US\$300 million in libel actions outstanding against news organizations from the Southern states and these had caused many publications to exercise great caution when reporting on civil rights, for fear that they might be held accountable for libel. After *The New York Times* prevailed in this case, news organizations were free to report the widespread disorder and civil rights infringements. The Times maintained that the case against it was brought to intimidate news organizations and prevent them from reporting illegal actions of public employees in the South as they attempted to continue to support segregation.

24th Amendment

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The Twenty-fourth Amendment (Amendment XXIV) prohibits both Congress and the states from conditioning the right to vote in federal elections on payment of a poll tax or other types of tax. The amendment was proposed by Congress to the states on August 27, 1962, and was ratified by the states on January 23, 1964.

Equal Employment Opportunity Commission

The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is an independent federal law enforcement agency that enforces laws against workplace discrimination. The EEOC investigates discrimination complaints based on an individual's race, color, national origin, religion, sex, age, perceived intelligence, disability (such as alcoholism) and retaliation for reporting and/or opposing a discriminatory practice. It is empowered to file discrimination suits against employers on behalf of alleged victims and to adjudicate claims of discrimination brought against federal agencies.

James Chaney, Andrew Goodman, Michael Schwerner murdered in Miss.

On June 21, 1964, three young civil rights workers, 21-year-old black Mississippian, James Chaney, and two white New Yorkers, Andrew Goodman, 20, and Michael Schwerner, 24 were murdered near Philadelphia, in Neshoba County, Mississippi. They had been working to register black voters in Mississippi during Freedom Summer and had gone to investigate the burning of a black church. They were arrested by the police on trumped-up charges, imprisoned for several hours, and then released after dark into the hands of the Ku Klux Klan, who beat and murdered them. It was later proven in court that a conspiracy existed between members of Neshoba County's law enforcement and the Ku Klux Klan to kill them. The FBI arrested 18 men in October 1964, but state prosecutors refused to try the case, claiming lack of evidence. The federal government then stepped in, and the FBI arrested 18 in connection with the killings. In 1967, seven men were convicted on federal conspiracy charges and given sentences of three to ten years, but none served more than six. No one was tried on the charge of murder. The contemptible words of the presiding federal judge, William Cox, give an indication of Mississippi's version of justice at the time: "They killed one ni---r, one Jew, and a white man. I gave them all what I thought they deserved." Their all-white juries, and another three ended in mistrials acquitted another eight defendants. One of those mistrials freed Edgar Ray "Preacher" Killen believed to be the ringleader after the jury in his case was deadlocked by one member who said she couldn't bear to convict a preacher.

On Jan. 7, 2005, four decades after the crime, Edgar Ray Killen, then 80, was charged with three counts of murder. He was accused of orchestrating the killings and assembling the mob that killed the three men. On June 21, the 41st anniversary of the murders Killen was convicted on three counts of manslaughter, a lesser charge. He received the maximum sentence, 60 years in prison. The grand jury declined to call for the arrest of the seven other living members of the original group of 18 suspects arrested in 1967.

1965

Executive Order 11246

President Johnson's vision of creating a "Great Society" led to a host of endeavors that sought to change the political, social and economic landscape of the U.S. In his 1965 commencement address to graduates of Harvard University, LBJ gave voice to his vision, declaring, "We seek not just freedom but opportunity. We seek not just legal equity but human ability, not just equality as a right and a theory but equality as a fact and equality as a result." Thus, on September 24, 1965, President Johnson signed Executive Order 11246, making the Secretary of Labor responsible for administering the order's non-discrimination and affirmative action provisions. Soon thereafter, Secretary of Labor Wirtz established the Office of Federal Contract Compliance. Edward C. Sylvester, Jr. was appointed as the agency's first director. Today, Executive Order 11246, as amended and further strengthened over the years, remains a major safeguard, protecting the rights of workers employed by federal contractors—approximately one-fifth of the entire U.S. labor force—to remain free from discrimination on the basis of their gender, race, religion, color or national origin

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Voting Rights Act of 1965

The Voting Rights Act of 1965 is national legislation in the United States that outlawed discriminatory voting practices that had been responsible for the widespread disenfranchisement of African Americans in the U.S. Echoing the language of the 15th Amendment, the Act prohibits 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. President Lyndon B. Johnson, a Democrat, who had earlier signed the landmark Civil Rights Act of 1964 into law, signed the Act into law. 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 pre-clearance.

Head Start

President Lyndon Johnson first authorized the program that began the program in 1965. The Office of Economic Opportunity's Community Action Program launched Project Head Start as an eight-week summer program in 1965. The following year it was authorized by Congress as a year round program. Congress enacted the Head Start Act in 1981. In 1969 Head Start was transferred to the Office of Child Development in the Department of Welfare (later the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS)) by the Nixon Administration. Today it is a program within the Administration for Children and Families. In FY 1994, the Early Head Start program was established to serve children from birth to three years of age reflecting evidence that these years are critical to children's development. Programs are administered locally by nonprofit organizations and local education agencies such as school systems.

Early Head Start Program Promotes healthy prenatal outcomes, healthy families and infant and toddler development beginning as young as newborns. Head Start Helps to create healthy development in low-income children ages three to five. Offers services that depend on each child and family's culture and experience, to influence all aspects of a child's development and learning. Family and Community Partnerships Head Start offers parents opportunities and support as they identify and meet their own goals, nurture their children in the context of their family and culture, and advocate for communities that support children and families of all cultures. Migrant and Seasonal Head Start Provides Head Start services to children of migrant and seasonal farm workers. Services target children from six-months to five-years of age. Because of the families' work constraints, service hours are longer and programs extend for fewer months than traditional Head Start. Head Start also target indigenous peoples of the Americas Native children and families.

1966

The Black Panthers

The Black Panther Party was an African-American revolutionary leftist organization. It was active in the United States from 1966 until 1982. The Black Panther Party achieved national and international notoriety through its involvement in the Black Power movement and in U.S. politics of the 1960s and 70s. The group's "provocative rhetoric, militant posture, and cultural and political flourishes permanently altered the contours of American Identity."

Founded in Oakland, California, by Huey Newton and Bobby Seale on October 15, 1966, the organization initially set forth a doctrine calling primarily for the protection of African American neighborhoods from police brutality. The organization's leaders espoused socialist and communist (largely Maoist) doctrines, however the Party's early black nationalist reputation attracted a diverse membership. Black Panther Party objectives and philosophy expanded and evolved rapidly during the party's existence.

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The organization's official newspaper, The Black Panther, was first circulated in 1967. Also that year, the Black Panther Party marched on the California State Capitol in Sacramento in protest of a selective ban on weapons. By 1968, the party had expanded into many cities throughout the United States, among them New Orleans, Chicago, Los Angeles, Detroit, San Diego, Denver, Newark, New York City, Kansas City, Boston, Dallas, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Seattle, Washington, D.C., Baltimore, San Francisco and Omaha. Peak membership neared 10,000 by 1969, and their newspaper, under the editorial leadership of Eldridge Cleaver, had a circulation of 250,000. The group created a Ten-Point Program, a document that called for "Land, Bread, Housing, Education, Clothing, Justice and Peace", as well as exemption from conscription for African-American men, among other demands.

Gaining national prominence, the Black Panther Party became an icon of the counterculture of the 1960s. Ultimately, the Panthers condemned black nationalism as "black racism" and became more focused on socialism without racial exclusivity. They instituted a variety of community social programs designed to alleviate poverty and improve health among inner city black communities as well as soften its public image. The Black Panther Party's most widely known programs were its armed citizens' patrols and its Free Breakfast program.

Black Panther Party membership reached a peak of 10,000 by early 1969, then suffered a series of contractions due to legal troubles, incarcerations, internal splits, expulsions and defections. Popular support for the Party declined further after reports appeared detailing several of the group's (former) members involvement in alleged illegal activities such as drug dealing and extortion schemes. By 1972 most Panther activity centered on the national headquarters and a school in Oakland, CA, where the Party continued to influence local politics.

Harper v. Virginia State Board of Elections

Harper v. Virginia Board of Elections, 383 U.S. 663 (1966), was a case in which the U.S. Supreme Court found that Virginia's poll tax was unconstitutional under the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment. The Twenty-fourth Amendment to the United States Constitution prohibited poll taxes in federal elections; the Supreme Court extended this prohibition to state elections. Virginia resident Annie E. Harper, who was unable to register without having to pay a poll tax, filed the case. She brought the suit on behalf of other poor residents and herself. After being dismissed by a U.S. district court, the case went to the United States Supreme Court.

1966

Harper v. Virginia Board of Elections

Chief Justice Earl Warren In a 6 to 3 vote, the Court ruled in favor of Ms. Harper. The Court noted that a state violates the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution whenever it makes the affluence of the voter or payment of any fee an electoral standard. Voter qualifications have no relation to wealth. This ruling reversed a prior decision by the Court, Breedlove v. Suttles, 302 U.S. 277 (1937), which upheld the state's ability to impose poll taxes, and the Court did so despite the fact that there had been no relevant change in the text of the Constitution between 1937 and 1966. The Twenty-Fourth Amendment, adopted in 1964, outlawed the poll tax in federal elections, but did not speak to the question of state elections, which was the question involved in the Harper case.

South Carolina v. Katzenbach

South Carolina v. Katzenbach, 383 U.S. 301 (1966) is a United States Supreme Court case in which the Court rejected a challenge by the state of South Carolina to the preclearance provisions of the Voting Rights Act of 1965, which required that some states submit changes in election districts to the Attorney General of the United States (at the time, Nicholas Katzenbach). The decision represents a rare instance of the Supreme Court exercising its original jurisdiction, as the case was filed directly in the Supreme Court by the state of South

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Carolina, rather than being appealed from a lower court. In his opinion for the Court, Chief Justice Earl Warren wrote that the Voting Rights Act was a valid exercise of Congress' power under the enforcement clause of the Fifteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution. Justice Hugo L. Black dissented in part.

1967

Loving v. Virginia

In a unanimous decision, the U.S. Supreme Court declared Virginia's anti-miscegenation statute, the "Racial Integrity Act of 1924", unconstitutional, thereby overturning *Pace v. Alabama* (1883) and ending all race-based legal restrictions on marriage in the United States. The plaintiffs, Mildred Loving, a woman of African and Rappahannock Native American descent and Richard Perry Loving (a white man, were residents of the Commonwealth of Virginia who had been married in June 1958 in the District of Columbia, having left Virginia to evade the Racial Integrity Act, a state law banning marriages between any white person and any non-white person. Upon their return to Caroline County, Virginia, they were charged with violation of the ban. They were found sleeping in their bed by a group of police officers that had invaded their home in the hopes of finding them in the act of sex.

Prior to *Loving v. Virginia*, there were several cases on the subject of race-mixing. In *Pace v. Alabama* (1883), the Supreme Court ruled that the conviction of an Alabama couple for interracial sex, affirmed on appeal by the Alabama Supreme Court, did not violate the Fourteenth Amendment.

In *Kirby v. Kirby* (1921), Mr. Kirby asked the state of Arizona for an annulment of his marriage. He charged that his marriage was invalid because his wife was of African-American descent, thus violating the state's anti-miscegenation law.

In the *Monks* case, the Superior Court of San Diego County in 1939 decided to invalidate the marriage of Marie Antoinette and Allan Monks because she was deemed to have "one eighth negro blood". Despite conflicting testimony by various expert witnesses, the judge defined Mrs. Monks' race by relying on the anatomical "expertise" of a surgeon. The judge ignored the arguments of an anthropologist and a biologist that it was impossible to tell a person's race from physical characteristics. The turning point came with *Perez v. Sharp* (1948), also known as *Perez v. Lippold*. In *Perez*, the Supreme Court of California recognized that interracial bans on marriage violated the Fourteenth Amendment of the Federal Constitution. Despite this Supreme Court ruling, such laws remained on the books, although unenforceable, in several states until 2000, when Alabama became the last state to repeal its law against mixed-race marriage.

National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders

The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders was organized by President Lyndon B. Johnson on July 28, 1967 to investigate the urban rebellions erupting in cities across the nation between 1964 and 1967. The findings of the seven-month study were published in March of 1968. The eleven-member commission, more commonly known as the Kerner Commission, after its chairman, Governor Otto Kerner of Illinois, concluded that the United States was moving toward two societies, one black, one white. President Johnson charged the commission with answering three questions: What happened? Why did it happen? What can be done to prevent racial disturbance in the future? In order to answer these questions, the Commission surveyed twenty-three cities across the nation that experienced a racial rebellion. They found that the racial disturbances were not the result of a single triggering event, but that in all cities surveyed, African Americans experienced severe economic and social disadvantages compared to whites. Also, the report noted that the riots were not the result of any conspiracy; rather they were a response to what the report identified as the racial attitudes and behaviors of white Americans toward African Americans.

Answering what can be done to prevent this in the future, the Commission suggested that the federal government intervene to improve housing, education, employment opportunities and social services for African Americans. Also, to dismantle discriminatory practices in education, employment, the police force and

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criminal court systems. President Johnson accepted the report, but did not support the conclusions, and minimal efforts were made to address the problems identified by the Commission.

1968

Malcolm X

Malcolm X, born Malcolm Little and also known as El-Hajj Malik El-Shabazz, was an African American Muslim minister and human rights activist. To his admirers he was a courageous advocate for the rights of African Americans, a man who indicted white America in the harshest terms for its crimes against black Americans. Detractors accused him of preaching racism, black supremacy, anti-Semitism, and violence. He has been called one of the greatest and most influential African Americans in history. Malcolm X's father was killed by whites, it was rumored when he was young, and at least one of his uncles was lynched. When he was thirteen, his mother was placed in a mental hospital, and he was placed in a series of foster homes. In 1946, at age 20, he went to prison for breaking and entering. In prison, Malcolm X became a member of the Nation of Islam and after his parole in 1952 he quickly rose to become one of its leaders. For a dozen years Malcolm X was the public face of the controversial group, but disillusionment with Nation of Islam head Elijah Muhammad led him to leave the Nation in March 1964. After a period of travel in Africa and the Middle East he returned to the United States, where he founded Muslim Mosque, Inc. and the Organization of Afro-American Unity. In February 1965, less than a year after leaving the Nation of Islam, three members of the group assassinated him. Malcolm X's expressed beliefs changed substantially over time. As a spokesman for the Nation of Islam he taught black supremacy and advocated separation of black and white Americans, a stark contrast with the civil rights movement's emphasis on integration. After breaking with the Nation of Islam in 1964, he became a Sunni Muslim and disavowed racism and expressed willingness to work with civil rights leaders, though still emphasizing black self-determination and self defense.

Civil Rights Act of 1968

On April 11, 1968 U.S. President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the Civil Rights Act of 1968, also known as the Indian Civil Rights Act of 1968. Title VIII of the Civil Rights Act of 1968 is commonly known as the Fair Housing Act, or as CRA '68, and was meant as a follow-up to the Civil Rights Act of 1964. While the Civil Rights Act of 1866^[1] prohibited discrimination in housing, there were no federal enforcement provisions. The 1968 act expanded on previous acts and prohibited discrimination concerning the sale, rental, and financing of housing based on race, religion, national origin, and since 1974, gender; since 1988, the act protects people with disabilities and families with children. It also provided protection for civil rights workers. Victims of discrimination may use both the 1968 act and the 1866 act to seek redress.

The Chicago 8 (7)

The Chicago 8 (reduced to 7 after the removal of Bobby Seale) were 8 defendants, Bobby Seale, Abbie Hoffman, Jerry Rubin, David Dellinger, Tom Hayden, Rennie Davis, John Froines, and Lee Weiner charged with conspiracy, inciting to riot, and other charges related to protests that took place in Chicago, Illinois during the 1968 Democratic National Convention. Bobby Seale, the eighth man charged, had his trial severed during the proceedings.

(the Chicago 8 continued)

Prior to, and during the 1968 Democratic National Convention demonstrations were held at the International Amphitheater. These demonstrations included marches, and attempted marches on streets and lakefront parks, about five miles away from the convention site. Much of the protest centered around on The Viet-nam war and President Lyndon B. Johnson's policies. Over the course of the convention, the police made arrests, broke up rallies, and used force, including tear gas, Mace, and batons on the marchers. Hundreds of protesters and several police officers were injured in the clashes. Journalists covering the actions were also

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clubbed by police or had cameras smashed and film confiscated. In the aftermath of what was later characterized as a "police riot" a federal grand jury indicted eight demonstrators and eight police officers. The eight defendants were charged under the anti-riot provisions of the Civil Rights Act of 1968 which made it a federal crime to cross state lines with the intent to incite a riot. The trial extended for months, with many celebrated figures from the American left and counterculture called to testify, including folk singers Phil Ochs, Judy Collins and Arlo Guthrie, writer Norman Mailer, LSD advocate Timothy Leary and Reverend Jesse Jackson. On February 18, 1970, all seven defendants were found not guilty of conspiracy.

Jones v. Mayer

Jones v. Mayer, like Shelley v. Kraemer is groundbreaking cases that addressed restrictive covenants and racial discrimination in private real estate deals. Jones, a black man, charged that a real estate company in Missouri's St. Louis County refused to sell him a home in a particular neighborhood on account of his race. Reversing many precedents, the Court sided with Jones and held that Section 1982 of the congressional act was intended to prohibit all discrimination against blacks in the sale and rental of property, including governmental and private discrimination. Congress possessed the power to "determine what are the badges and incidents of slavery, and the authority to translate that determination into effective legislation. 42 U.S.C. § 1982 bars all racial discrimination, private as well as public, in the sale or rental of property, and that the statute, thus construed, is a valid exercise of the power of Congress to enforce the Thirteenth Amendment. The decision was 7-2. Justice John Marshall Harlan, who was named after his grandfather, supreme court justice John Marshall Harlan, (who was the only dissenter in "The Civil Rights Cases" and "Plessy v. Ferguson") wrote the dissenting opinion. he never accepted the idea that the Fourteenth Amendment somehow incorporated or embraced the Bill of Rights.

Martin Luther King

Martin Luther King, Jr. (January 15, 1929 – April 4, 1968) A Baptist minister, King became a civil rights activist early in his career. He led the 1955 Montgomery Bus Boycott and helped found the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) in 1957, serving as its first president. King's efforts led to the 1963 March on Washington, where King delivered his "I Have a Dream" speech. There, he expanded American values to include the vision of a color blind society, and established his reputation as one of the greatest orators in American history. In 1964, King became the youngest person to receive the Nobel Peace Prize for his work to end racial segregation and racial discrimination through civil disobedience and other nonviolent means. By the time of his death in 1968, he had refocused his efforts on ending poverty and stopping the Vietnam War. King was assassinated on April 4, 1968, in Memphis, Tennessee. He was posthumously awarded the Presidential Medal of Freedom in 1977 and Congressional Gold Medal in 2004; Martin Luther King, Jr. Day was established as a U.S. federal holiday in 1986.

John Carlos & Tommie Smith

It was the most popular medal ceremony of all time. The photographs of two black American sprinters standing on the medal podium with heads bowed and fists raised at the Mexico City Games in 1968 not only represent one of the most memorable moments in Olympic history but a milestone in America's civil rights movement. The two men were Tommie Smith and John Carlos. They were stirred by the words of Sociologist, Harry Edwards. Impassioned by Edwards' words, Smith and Carlos secretly planned a non-violent protest in the manner of Martin Luther King, Jr. In the 200-meter race, Smith won the gold medal and Carlos the bronze. As the American flag rose and the Star-Spangled Banner played, the two closed their eyes, bowed their heads, and began their protest Smith later told the media that he raised his right, black-glove-covered fist in the air to represent black power in America while Carlos' left, black-covered fist represented unity in black America. Together they formed an arch of unity and power. The black scarf around Smith's neck stood for black pride

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and their black socks (and no shoes) represented black poverty in racist America. Teammates at San Jose State University, Smith and Carlos were stirred by the suggestion of a young sociologist friend Harry Edwards, who asked them and all the other black American athletes to join together and boycott the games. The protest, Edwards hoped, would bring attention to the fact that America's civil rights movement had not gone far enough to eliminate the injustices black Americans were facing. While the protest seems relatively tame by today's standards, the actions of Smith and Carlos were met with such outrage that they were suspended from their national team and banned from the Olympic Village, the athletes' home during the games. A lot of people thought that political statements had no place in the supposedly apolitical Olympic Games. Those that opposed the protest cried out that the actions were militant and disgraced Americans. Supporters, on the other hand, were moved by the duo's actions and praised them for their bravery. The protest had lingering effects for both men, the most serious of which were death threats against them and their families.

Green v. School Board of New Kent County

Green v. County School Board of New Kent County was an important United States Supreme Court case dealing with the freedom of choice plans created to comply with the mandate in Brown II. The Court held that New Kent County's freedom of choice plan did not constitute adequate compliance with the school board's responsibility to determine a system of admission to public schools on a non-racial basis. The Supreme Court mandated that the school board must formulate new plans and steps towards realistically converting to a desegregated system. In Brown v. Board of Education in 1954 the Warren Court ruled that school segregation was unconstitutional. One year later, in Brown II, enforcement of this principle was given to district courts, ordering that they take the necessary steps to make admittance to public schools nondiscriminatory "with all deliberate speed." The term "all deliberate speed" did little to speed up the school board's plan for integration. Circuit Judge John J. Parker led many in the South in interpreting Brown as a charge not to segregate, but not an order to integrate. In 1963 the Court ruled in McNeese v. Board of Education and Goss v. Board of Education in favor of integration.

1969

Executive Order 11478

Executive Order 11478, signed by U.S. President Richard M. Nixon on August 8, 1969, prohibited discrimination in the competitive service of the federal civilian workforce on certain grounds. Executive Order 11478 covered the federal civilian workforce, including the United States Postal Service and civilian employees of the United States Armed Forces. It prohibited discrimination in employment on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, national origin, handicap, and age. It required all departments and agencies to take affirmative steps to promote employment opportunities for those classes it covered. Executive Order 11478 assigned the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission responsibility for directing the implementation of the Order's policies and to issue rules to promote its principles.

The Philadelphia Plan

With the implementation of the Philadelphia Plan in 1969, President Richard M. Nixon's administration changed the federal government's stance on affirmative action. For the first time, a specific industry was required to articulate a plan for hiring minority workers. Presidents John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson had identified affirmative action as necessary to redress the effects of racism. During their administrations, policies were created to facilitate both equal employment opportunities for African Americans and equal accommodations in the workplace. Yet the Civil Rights Act of 1964 had limited the type of remedies possible by forbidding any form of discrimination. This was interpreted to include preferential hiring, which was seen as compensatory discrimination. Despite this limitation, the Nixon administration used the power of the federal purse to create specific hiring goals in the highly segregated construction industry. Designed by the Department of Labor during the Johnson administration, the Philadelphia Plan was revived by George Shultz,

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Nixon's labor secretary, and Arthur Fletcher, his assistant secretary. The plan required Philadelphia government contractors in six construction trades to set goals and timetables for the hiring of minority workers or risk losing the valuable contracts. No quotas were set.

1971

Swann v. Charlotte–Mecklenburg Board of Education

Swann v. Charlotte–Mecklenburg Board of Education, was an important United States Supreme Court case dealing with the busing of students to promote integration in public schools. After a first trial going to the Board of Education, the Court held that busing was an appropriate remedy for the problem of racial imbalance among schools, even where the imbalance resulted from the selection of students based on geographic proximity to the school rather than from deliberate assignment based on race. This was done to ensure the schools would be "properly" integrated and that all students would receive equal educational opportunities regardless of their race. Judge John J. Parker of the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit, like many in the South, interpreted Brown as a charge not to segregate rather than an order to integrate. In 1963 the Court ruled in *McNeese v. Board of Education* and *Goss v. Board of Education* in favor of integration, and showed impatience with efforts to end segregation. In 1968 the Warren Court ruled in *Green v. County School Board* that freedom of choice plans were insufficient to eliminate segregation, thus it was necessary to take proactive steps to integrate schools. In *United States v. Montgomery County Board of Education* (1969), Judge Frank Johnson's desegregation order for teachers was upheld, allowing an approximate ratio of the races to be established by a district judge.

Milliken v. Bradley (inter-district integration)

Milliken v. Bradley was a significant United States Supreme Court case dealing with the planned desegregation busing of public school students across district lines among 53 school districts in metropolitan Detroit in the aftermath of the *Brown v. Board of Education*. It placed an important limitation on the first major Supreme Court case concerning school busing, *Swann v. Charlotte–Mecklenburg Board of Education*. In a 5-to-4 decision, the Court held that school districts could not bring in outlying school districts to maintain any particular racial balance in each school, grade or classroom unless there was particular evidence that segregation was occurring. This decision in effect exempted suburban districts from participating in urban desegregation plans, the outcome was that "white flight" was allowed from cities to the suburbs. In this particular decision, 53 outlying districts around Detroit were exempted from participating in a vast desegregation plan to mix races according to pre-determined quotients. Justice Douglas' dissenting opinion held that: "Today's decision ... means that there is no violation of the Equal Protection Clause though the schools are segregated by race and though the black schools are not only separate but inferior... Michigan by one device or another has over the years created black school districts and white school districts, the task of equity is to provide a unitary system for the affected area where, as here, the State washes its hands of its own creations."

1972

Shirley Chisholm, first black and first woman to run for President

Shirley Anita St. Hill Chisholm (November 30, 1924 January 1, 2005) was an American politician, educator, author and Congresswoman, representing New York's 12th Congressional District for seven terms from 1969 to 1983. In 1968, she became the first black woman elected to Congress. On January 25, 1972, she became the first major-party black candidate for President of the United States and the first woman to run for the Democratic presidential nomination (Margaret Chase Smith had previously run for the Republican presidential nomination). She received 152 first-ballot votes at the 1972 Democratic National Convention.

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1976

The Bakke Decision

Regents of the University of California v. Bakke, 438 U.S. 265 (1978) was a landmark decision of the Supreme Court of the United States that ruled unconstitutional the admission process of the Medical School at the University of California at Davis, which set aside 16 of the 100 seats for African American students. The "diversity in the classroom" justification for considering race as "one" of the factors in admissions policies was different from the original purpose stated by UC Davis Medical School, whose special admissions program under review was designed to ensure admissions of traditionally discriminated-against minorities. Allan Bakke, a 32-year-old white male, applied to twelve medical schools in 1973. He had been a National Merit Scholar at all-white Coral Gables High in Florida. He was accepted as an undergraduate at the University of Minnesota, deferring tuition costs by joining ROTC, graduated with a 3.51 GPA, served a tour in Viet-nam, was discharged as a captain and then worked as an engineer at NASA. He should have been concerned about his age, for he was rejected despite the fact that his scores were well above the scores of an average admittee at University of California Davis medical school. The "regular committee often turned down well-qualified minority applicants." These special applicants were admitted under provisions either for members of a "minority groups". After his second rejection, Bakke filed an action in state court for mandatory, injunctive, and declaratory relief to compel his admission. The trial court found that the special program operated as a racial quota and ordered Bakke's admission to the Medical School.

1978

Brown v. Board of Ed. III

In 1978, Topeka attorneys Richard Jones, Joseph Johnson and Charles Scott Jr. (son of the original Brown team member), with assistance from the American Civil Liberties Union, persuaded Linda Brown Smith, who now had her own children in Topeka schools to be a plaintiff in reopening Brown. They were concerned that the Topeka Public Schools' policy of "open enrollment" had led to and would lead to further segregation. They also believed that with a choice of open enrollment, white parents would shift their children to "preferred" schools that would create both predominantly African American and predominantly European American schools within the district. The district court reopened the Brown case after a 25-year hiatus, but denied the plaintiffs' request finding the schools "unitary". In 1989, a three-judge panel of the 10th Circuit found that the vestiges of segregation remained with respect to student and staff assignment. In 1993, the Supreme Court denied the appellant School District's request for certiorari and returned the case to District Court Judge Richard Rodgers for implementation of the Tenth Circuit's mandate. After a 1994 plan was approved and a bond issue passed, additional elementary magnet schools were opened and district attendance plans redrawn, which resulted in the Topeka schools meeting court standards of racial balance by 1998.

1982

Civil Rights Act of 1982

In the 1982 action, Congress amended the Act to make some sections permanent while renewing the remainder for 25 years. In July 2006, renewal of the temporary provisions enjoyed bi-partisan support. However, a number of Republican lawmakers acted to amend, delay or defeat renewal of the Act for various reasons. One group of lawmakers led by Georgia congressman Lynn Westmoreland came from some preclearance states, and claimed that it was no longer fair to target their states, given the passage of time and the changes their states had made. Another group supported an amendment seeking to strip provisions from the Act that required that translators or multilingual ballots be provided on the basis of costs. A bill to renew the Act for another 25 years was signed by President George W. Bush on July 27, 2006

1996

Proposition 209

Proposition 209 amended the state constitution to prohibit admissions to public institutions from considering

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race, sex, or ethnicity. It had been supported and funded by by UC Regent Ward Connerly. Proposition 209 was voted into law on 5 November 1996, with 54 percent of the votes. In the November 2006 election in Michigan, a similar amendment was passed, entitled the Michigan Civil Rights Initiative. While African American graduation rates at UC Berkeley increased by 6.5 percent, the enrollment rates dropped significantly. Of the 4,422 students in UCLA's freshman class of 2006, only 100 were African American.

2003

The Grutter Decision

Grutter v. Bollinger was a case in which the United States Supreme Court upheld the affirmative action admissions policy of the University of Michigan Law School. Justice O'Connor, writing for the majority in a 5-4 decision, ruled that the University of Michigan Law School had a compelling interest in promoting class diversity and that its "plus" system did not amount to a quota system that would have been unconstitutional under *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke*. Chief Justice Rehnquist, joined by Justice Kennedy, Justice Scalia, and Justice Thomas, dissented, arguing that the University's "plus" system was, in fact, a thinly veiled and unconstitutional quota system. When the Law School denied admission to petitioner Grutter, a female Michigan resident with a 3.8 GPA and 161 LSAT score, she filed this suit, alleging that respondents had discriminated against her on the basis of race in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment because the Law School uses race as a "predominant" factor. The Sixth Circuit reversed, holding that Justice Powell's opinion in *Bakke* was binding precedent establishing diversity as a compelling state interest, and that the Law School's use of race was narrowly tailored because race was merely a "potential 'plus' factor" and because the Law School's program was virtually identical to the Harvard admissions program described approvingly by Justice Powell and appended to his *Bakke* opinion.

2008

Election of Barack Obama

Barack Hussein Obama II (born August 4, 1961) is the 44th and current President of the United States. He is the first African American to hold the office. Obama previously served as a United States Senator from Illinois, from January 2005 until he resigned following his victory in the 2008 presidential election. Born in Honolulu, Hawaii, Obama is a graduate of Columbia University and Harvard Law School, where he was the president of the Harvard Law Review. He was a community organizer in Chicago before earning his law degree. He worked as a civil rights attorney in Chicago and taught constitutional law at the University of Chicago Law School from 1992 to 2004. He served three terms representing the 13th District in the Illinois Senate from 1997 to 2004. His presidential campaign began in February 2007, and after a close campaign in the 2008 Democratic Party presidential primaries against Hillary Rodham Clinton, he won his party's nomination. In the 2008 presidential election, he defeated Republican nominee John McCain, and was inaugurated as president on January 20, 2009. Nine months later, Obama was named the 2009 Nobel Peace Prize laureate.