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Curriculum Connections

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Looking Back, Reaching Forward:

Exploring the Promise of *Brown v. Board of
Education* in Contemporary Times

In This Issue

Introduction

“We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of ‘separate but equal’ has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal.”

These celebrated words from the *Brown v. Board of Education* Majority Opinion ushered in an unprecedented era of civil rights and school restructuring in the United States. In 1954, when this judgment was written, not a single black student attended a majority white public school in the American South. In 1988, after a generation of desegregation efforts, more than 43% of southern black students attended majority white schools.

Looking back on the landmark *Brown v. Board of Education* decision, there is much to commemorate. However, this progress should not mask the great inequalities that still exist. The desegregation gains that peaked in 1988 have since eroded. Since 1968—in a little more than forty years—enrollment trends¹ in the nation’s schools show a 28% decline in white enrollment, a 19% increase in the black enrollment and a 495% percent enrollment increase in the number of Latino students. While white students attend schools with slightly more students of color than in the past, they remain the most isolated of all racial groups. The average white student attends a school where 72.5% of the student enrollment is white. Conversely, a typical black or Latino student attends a school where about 25% of their classmates are white and 75% of their classmates are black and/or Latino. In addition, in schools with predominately black and Latino students, half of these schools have more than 90% low-income students. This represents extreme overlaps of poverty and racial concentration which helps to explain why schools with high concentrations of black and Latino students often have fewer educational resources and lower student outcomes.

In 1956, Dr. Martin Luther King said, “We must face the tragic fact that we are far from the promised land in the struggle for a desegregated society.” Regrettably these words still apply today, and serve as a call to reimagine the aspirations of *Brown* and strive toward more integrated and equitable school communities.

Overview of Unit

This issue of *Curriculum Connections* commemorates the 60th anniversary of *Brown v. Board of Education*. Developed for high school students, this unit explores the history of school desegregation in the United States and examines current patterns of resegregation in public schools.

The title of the unit’s first lesson is also its central question. *The Problem We Still Live With?* is a reference to Norman Rockwell’s 1964 painting about school

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Resources for Students on *Brown v. Board of Education*

Civil Rights Movement in Pictures

¹ Gary Orfield and Erica Frankenberg, “Brown at 60: Great Progress, a Long Retreat and an Uncertain Future” (Los Angeles, CA: The Civil Rights Project 2014), <http://civilrightsproject.ucla.edu/research/k-12-education/integration-and-diversity/brown-at-60-great-progress-a-long-retreat-and-an-uncertain-future/Brown-at-60-051814.pdf>.

integration—*The Problem We All Live With*—which is featured in Lesson 1 to launch the unit. Through research, discussion, case study and role play, students are challenged to investigate whether segregation is a problem that we *once* lived with or *still* live with. In addition to providing factual history about school integration in the U.S., this unit aims to connect past to present, challenge students to reflect on their own beliefs about diversity, and inspire social action in local schools and communities.

Though the lessons in this unit build upon one another sequentially, each lesson can also be easily adapted to stand alone. Each lesson requires between one and three class periods to complete and is divided into sections that coincide with standard forty-five minute blocks of time. In some cases, sections can be removed to condense a lesson where time constraints are an issue. Similarly, there are many opportunities to extend each lesson through homework, research, and further study. Each lesson includes a rationale and objectives, and is also aligned with national standards in order to facilitate integration into a variety of classrooms and courses.

Overview of Lessons

Lesson 1: The Problem We Still Live With?

A Norman Rockwell painting and historical biography are used to introduce students to *Brown v. Board of Education* and the history of school desegregation. Students are asked to consider whether—50 years later—they think segregation is still a problem in U.S. schools.

Lesson 2: The Road to Brown

Students research historical events that set the stage for *Brown v. Board of Education* and create a timeline that highlights their significance.

Lesson 3: With All Deliberate Speed

Primary documents, historic records and photographs are used to explore the ways in which school desegregation was implemented in the decades following the Brown decision.

Lesson 4: Fifty Years Later

Students examine statistical data and current events to learn about current levels of school integration and segregation. They participate in a role play that encourages them to explore their own ideas about integration and the value of diversity in school settings.

Lesson 5: Bringing It Home

Students apply their learning about the issue of segregation to their own school community by researching local demographics, reflecting on their personal experiences with social boundaries, and exploring ways to create change in their school.

Lesson 6: Building Alliances

Students explore what it means to be an ally and learn about allies from the Jewish community who worked to end racial segregation in schools. They apply these historical lessons to their own lives by identifying ways to build alliances across differences.

Establishing Ground Rules

Throughout this unit, students are challenged to explore and articulate their personal feelings about sensitive topics including segregation, discrimination, and the value of diverse school communities. Talking about themes related to diversity requires that students demonstrate maturity and compassion for others. In conjunction with this unit and other social justice curricula, it is therefore recommended that teachers use service learning, conflict resolution, cooperative learning and other educational models that foster the group cohesion and trust needed to discuss sensitive issues safely and productively.

The activities included in this curriculum range from basic historical awareness to more complex explorations of race and discrimination. While the lessons are intended to increase empathy and broaden students' perspectives, certain discussions may cause prejudices and stereotypes to surface. In addition, some students may express discomfort or have difficulty

accepting others' viewpoints. It is therefore recommended that you introduce activities in sequence and selectively depending on students' readiness to delve into sensitive content. You may also choose to adapt or omit particular activities in order to provide the most safe and developmentally appropriate experience for your students. In addition, make sure to monitor responses to each lesson and provide adequate time to debrief and process students' feelings. Consult school mental health professionals to discuss student behavior about which you are concerned and utilize instructional techniques that provide the structure and support your particular group of students require.

It is therefore imperative that educators carefully review the lessons, assess students' maturity and readiness to engage in the lesson prior to implementation, and establish clear parameters with students that will ensure safe and constructive dialogue. See "[Establishing a Safe Learning Environment](#)" and "[Creating an Anti-Bias Learning Environment](#)" for guidelines on building safe forums for discussing sensitive issues.]

Correlation of Lessons to the National Standards

| Content Area/Standard | Lesson 1 | Lesson 2 | Lesson 3 | Lesson 4 | Lesson 5 | Lesson 6 |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Reading | | | | | | |
| R.1: Read closely to determine what the text says explicitly and to make logical inferences from it; cite specific textual evidence when writing or speaking to support conclusions drawn from the text. | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| R.2: Determine central ideas or themes of a text and analyze their development; summarize the key supporting details and ideas. | X | X | X | X | | X |
| R.3: Analyze how and why individuals, events, or ideas develop and interact over the course of a text. | | X | X | X | X | X |
| R.4: Interpret words and phrases as they are used in a text, including determining technical, connotative, and figurative meanings, and analyze how specific word choices shape meaning or tone. | | X | X | X | | |
| R.5: Analyze the structure of texts, including how specific sentences, paragraphs, and larger portions of the text (e.g., a section, chapter, scene, or stanza) relate to each other and the whole. | | | | | X | |
| R.6: Assess how point of view or purpose shapes the content and style of a text. | | X | | | X | |
| R.7: Integrate and evaluate content presented in diverse media and formats, including visually and quantitatively, as well as in words. | | | X | | | |
| R.9: Analyze how two or more texts address similar themes or topics in order to build knowledge or to compare the approaches the authors take. | | X | | | | |
| R.10: Read and comprehend complex literary and informational texts independently and proficiently. | | X | | | | |
| Writing | | | | | | |
| W.3: Write narratives to develop real or imagined experiences or events using effective technique, well-chosen details and well-structured event sequences. | | X | | | | |

| Content Area/Standard | Lesson 1 | Lesson 2 | Lesson 3 | Lesson 4 | Lesson 5 | Lesson 6 |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| W.7: Conduct short as well as more sustained research projects based on focused questions, demonstrating understanding of the subject under investigation. | | X | X | X | | |
| W.8: Gather relevant information from multiple print and digital sources, assess the credibility and accuracy of each source, and integrate the information while avoiding plagiarism. | | X | | X | | |
| W.9: Draw evidence from literary or informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research. | | X | | | | |
| Speaking and Listening | | | | | | |
| SL.1: Prepare for and participate effectively in a range of conversations and collaborations with diverse partners, building on others' ideas and expressing their own clearly and persuasively. | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| SL.2: Integrate and evaluate information presented in diverse media and formats, including visually, quantitatively, and orally. | X | | X | X | | |
| SL.3: Evaluate a speaker's point of view, reasoning, and use of evidence and rhetoric. | | X | X | X | X | |
| SL.4: Present information, findings, and supporting evidence such that listeners can follow the line of reasoning and the organization, development, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience. | | X | X | X | | X |
| SL.5: Make strategic use of digital media and visual displays of data to express information and enhance understanding of presentations. | X | X | | X | X | |
| Language | | | | | | |
| L.4: Determine or clarify the meaning of unknown and multiple-meaning words and phrases by using context clues, analyzing meaningful word parts, and consulting general and specialized reference materials, as appropriate. | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| L.5: Demonstrate understanding of figurative language, word relationships, and nuances in word meanings. | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| L.6: Acquire and use accurately a range of general academic and domain-specific words | X | X | X | X | X | X |

| Content Area/Standard | Lesson 1 | Lesson 2 | Lesson 3 | Lesson 4 | Lesson 5 | Lesson 6 |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| and phrases sufficient for reading, writing, speaking, and listening at the college and career readiness level; demonstrate independence in gathering vocabulary knowledge when encountering an unknown term important to comprehension or expression. | | | | | | |
| Mathematics: Statistics & Probability | | | | | | |
| Standard 1: Understand statistics as a process for making inferences about population parameters based on a random sample from that population. | | | | X | | |

Lesson 1

The Problem We Still Live With?

Rationale

The purpose of this lesson is to elicit students' understanding of the history of school desegregation in the U.S. Through a Norman Rockwell painting and the story of Ruby Bridges—the sole African American child to attend a New Orleans elementary school after court-ordered desegregation in 1960—students are introduced to the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* case and the subsequent conflict over school integration. Students are asked to consider whether or not, 50 years after the historic court ruling, they think segregation and unequal opportunity are still problems in U.S. schools.

Objectives

- Students will use analytical skills to uncover the meaning of a well-known painting and to make connections between the image and historical events.
- Students will examine the story of a historical figure in order to better understand the history of school desegregation in the U.S.
- Students will draw upon their knowledge of history and current events in order to articulate an opinion about the current state of segregation in U.S. schools.

Age Range

Grades 9–12

Time

One class period or 45 minutes

Requirements

Handouts and Resources:

- [Norman Rockwell's Painting The Problem We All Live With](#) (prepare to be projected)
- [Discussing The Problem We All Live With](#) (for teacher reference only)
- [Definitions](#) (for teacher reference only)

Other Material:

- chart paper, markers
- computer and LCD or overhead projector
- access to internet for students (optional)

Advanced Preparation

- Reproduce handouts as directed above.

Techniques and Skills

analyzing visual art, connecting past to present, historical understanding, large and small group discussion, reading skills

Procedures

1. Project the [Norman Rockwell Painting The Problem We All Live With](#), excluding the heading title on the handout, so that all students can clearly view it. During this first part of the lesson, do not provide students with any background information about the painting.

Key Words

Civil rights
Desegregation
Equal opportunity
Integration
Segregation

Pose some of the following questions in order to engage students in a discussion:

- What do you think is taking place in this painting?
 - Where do you think the young girl is going? What do you think are the circumstances?
 - What do you think the girl is thinking and feeling?
 - Who do you think the men in the painting are? What relationship do you think they have to the girl?
 - When and where do you think this scene may have taken place?
 - What was going on in the U.S. in that time and place? How might this relate to the painting?
 - How does the painting make you feel?
 - What questions does it evoke? If you could ask the girl or the men in the painting a question, what would it be?
 - What do you think the artist is trying to tell us? Why do you think he called the painting, *The Problem We All Live With*?
 - What artistic elements does the artist use to get his message across? (See [Discussing The Problem We All Live With](#)).
2. After about 10–15 minutes of discussion, provide students with brief background information about the painting (see [Discussing The Problem We All Live With](#)). Ask students if they understand what the words segregation, desegregation, and integration mean, and define these terms together (see [Definitions](#)).
 3. Ask students if they know what prompted the initial stages of school integration in our country. Make sure that students are aware of the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* decision, but do not go into a lot of detail about the case at this time.
 4. Provide students with background information about the story of Ruby Bridges as a follow-up to the Rockwell painting and to place the issue of school integration in a personal context. Several sources are listed below, which can be used for large/small group reading or assigned as independent research/homework, depending upon your time constraints and the abilities of your students.
 - [Ruby Bridges Foundation](#): The official Web site with narrative by Ruby Bridges
 - [Ruby Bridges Remembers](#): YouTube video of an interview of Ruby Bridges in 2010
 - [PBS Online NewsHour](#): Transcript of a 1997 conversation with Ruby Bridges
 - [Through My Eyes](#): Ruby Bridges recounts the story of her involvement, as a six-year-old, in the 1960 integration of her school in New Orleans. Though this book is intended for grades 3–6, it is told in Ruby Bridge’s own words and through her unique childhood perspective. It includes photos and succinct writing that can be excerpted to provide a simple overview of Ruby’s story. (*Scholastic, Inc., 1999, 63 pages*)

Norman Rockwell's Painting *The Problem We All Live With*



Discussing *The Problem We All Live With*



About the Painting

The Problem We All Live With by Norman Rockwell appeared in *Look* magazine in 1964, ten years after the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision and during the height of the Civil Rights Movement. The artist was inspired by Ruby Bridges, the sole African American child to attend a New Orleans elementary school after court-ordered desegregation in 1960. Although Bridge's story was the inspiration, the painting is not meant to be specifically about her. It is a broader social commentary on the situation into which thousands of African American students were thrust during the early years of school desegregation.

© 1964 The Norman Rockwell Family Trust. Reproduced by permission of The Norman Rockwell Estate Licensing Company, Niles, IL.

Discussing Artistic Elements With Students

Contrast

When we view the painting, our eyes are immediately drawn to the young girl because her dress, socks and sneakers are a bright white, which provides a strong contrast to the dark brown of her skin. The colors of the marshals' skin and clothing, however, provide little contrast and blend more with the background.

Line

We are also drawn to the girl by the ridge running horizontally across the wall and by the sidewalk cracks, which together frame the girl. If the sidewalk cracks were further extended, they would actually point right to the girl.

Rhythm

The repetition of shapes in the painting provides a certain rhythm that pulls various elements together. Notice the position of the arms and legs, the recurring loose fists, and the walking motion.

Color

One of the first things we notice in this painting is the bright red of the tomato splattered against the wall. Notice how the splatter runs down the wall and across the ground, creating a trail back to the girl, who is the central focus of the painting. Bright color is also used for the marshals' armbands. The bright yellow contrasts with the muted color of their clothing and skin tones, capturing our attention and suggesting danger.

Other Elements

The image is composed to evoke an affective response. The disturbing graffiti, the violent splatter of a hurled object, the lone girl, and the police presence combine to create a strong emotional content. The marshals' faces are not included in the painting and only the girl's body is fully visible, which increases our sense of emotional connection with the girl. While we may identify with the girl, however, a certain physical separation is present. The artist has placed the viewer across the street from the procession, where she/he must rely on instinct and imagination to understand what may be going on inside the hearts and minds of the paintings' subjects.

Definitions¹

The words *segregation*, *desegregation*, and *integration* will be used frequently throughout this unit, so it is important for students to work from shared definitions of these terms. The term *segregation* should not be used to refer solely to the experiences of “minority” communities, as majority or dominant groups also bear the consequences of racial separation in U.S. society. As noted below, it is also important not to use the words *desegregation* and *integration* interchangeably, as the spirit of each term is markedly different. The definitions below have been adapted from the following sources to specifically address a school or education context.

Segregation: The separation or isolation of a race, class or ethnic group by enforced or voluntary attendance in separate educational facilities; refers to situations in which a disproportionate number of white students or students of color attend a school or school system.

Desegregation: Efforts to eliminate *segregation* by removing laws or practices that require or encourage separation. *Desegregation* aims to reduce racial imbalances, usually by moving and mixing racial populations to end racial isolation. As it has played out in most U.S. educational settings, *desegregation* requires students of the non-dominant group (most often non-white) to assimilate into the school and culture of the dominant group (most often white) without changes in school structures to meet the needs of the new students.

Integration: The incorporation of individuals from different racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic groups as equals into a school. *Integration* moves beyond removing legal barriers and simply placing students of different backgrounds together. It addresses the racial hierarchies and prejudices that exist in school communities by reforming structures to be more inclusive and transforming the culture of the school.

“Ethical Demands for Integration” from Martin Luther King, Jr.

The word segregation represents a system that is prohibitive; it denies the Negro equal access to schools, parks, restaurants, libraries and the like. Desegregation is eliminative and negative, for it simply removes these legal and social prohibitions. Integration is creative, and is therefore more profound and far-reaching than desegregation. Integration is the positive acceptance of desegregation and the welcomed participation of Negroes in the total range of human activities. Integration is genuine intergroup, interpersonal doing. Desegregation then rightly is only a short-range goal. Integration is the ultimate goal of our national community. Thus as America pursues the important task of respecting the letter of the law, i.e., compliance with desegregation decisions, she must be equally concerned with the spirit of the law, i.e., commitment to the democratic dream of integration.

¹ These definitions have been adapted from *Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary* and *An “Integrated” Theory of Integrated Education* by John A. Powell, The Civil Rights Project, Harvard University to specifically address a school or education context.

Lesson 2

The Road to Brown

Rationale

The purpose of this lesson is to engage students in an examination of the history of segregation in U.S. schools and the pivotal events leading up to the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision. Students begin by considering the role of public education in a democracy. They view a brief timeline of examples of school segregation, and discuss the contradictions between these examples and the role of education articulated earlier. In small groups, students then work on a class timeline of key historical events leading up to the *Brown* decision. Each group researches one topic or event from the “road to Brown,” makes a visual representation of the event for the timeline, and reports back to the class on the significance of the topic researched.

Objectives

- Students will articulate their beliefs about the purpose of public education in a democracy.
- Students will learn about historical examples of segregation in U.S. schools and consider the ways in which segregation undermines the purpose of public education in a democracy.
- Students will examine key topics and events in the post-Civil War era that set the stage for *Brown v. Board of Education*.

Age Range

Grades 9–12

Time

Three class periods or 2 hours 15 minutes

Requirements

Handouts and Resources:

- [Equal Opportunity for All? A Brief Timeline of Segregation in U.S. Public Education](#) (one for each student)
- [The Road to Brown Topics and Source Links](#) (for teacher reference only)

Other Material:

- chart paper, markers
- computer and LCD or overhead projector
- access to internet for students (optional)

Advanced Preparation

- Reproduce handouts as directed above.

Techniques and Skills

cooperative group work, creating a timeline, critical thinking, historical understanding, large and small group discussion, reading skills, research skills, using the internet

Procedures

1. Pose the following questions to students: “What do you think is the main purpose of public education in a democracy?” Have them discuss this question for about five minutes with a partner or in small groups of 3–4 students.

Key Words

Amendment
Black codes
Civil rights
Conflict
Contradiction
Democracy
Desegregation
Discrimination
Equal protection
Integration
Internment
Interracial
NAACP
Public accommodation
Segregation
Separate but equal
Tolerance
Unconstitutional
Values

2. Reconvene the class and ask each pair or group to share one purpose and chart their responses. Point out that debate over the central purpose of public education goes back to the very beginnings of U.S. history and is still taking place today. While some have always maintained that schools exist solely to teach academics—the “basics” or the “3 R’s”—others have looked to schools to teach democratic and civic values, vocational skills, and social tolerance. During the 19th century, for example, Horace Mann (considered by many to be the father of public schools) suggested that public education would strengthen democracy by bringing together children of all social classes. During the early 20th century, schools were called upon to “Americanize” a growing immigrant population through an emphasis on hygiene, civics and English language skills. In the 1960s, schools were seen as a remedy for the problem of poverty, and unprecedented federal legislation was passed that provided increased funding and services to impoverished children and schools.
3. Tell students that although schools have always been looked to as a means to promote democracy and address social problems (and have often been successful in these endeavors), public education has not always been available to all citizens in equal ways. Note that the U.S. has a long history of separating and segregating students in schools based on various differences. Ask students if they can cite examples.
4. Post or distribute copies of [Equal Opportunity for All?](#), which is a brief timeline of examples of segregation in U.S. education. Ask for volunteers to read each example aloud.
5. Direct students to consider the list they generated earlier about the purposes of public education in a democracy. Ask them to discuss the conflicts and contradictions between these purposes and the examples of segregation from the timeline. In what ways has segregation undermined the very purpose of public education in our country?
6. Tell students that they are going to create a timeline of their own that takes an in-depth look at one of the most important cases in U.S. history related to school segregation. As they develop the timeline of historical events leading up to the famous decision, they will further explore the ways in which segregated schooling conflicts with core democratic values.
7. Remind students of the landmark *Brown v. Board of Education* decision and the Ruby Bridges story that you discussed in Lesson 1. While most students will know much about *Brown* and the subsequent desegregation efforts of the Civil Rights era, many may be unaware of the pivotal events of the preceding hundred years that set the stage for *Brown*.
8. Divide students into groups of 3–5 and assign each group one event on the “Road to Brown” from [The Road to Brown Topics and Source Links](#). Provide each group with readings and/or Web site links to assist them in learning more about the assigned event. Assign groups the following tasks:
 - a. Create a visual representation of the assigned event that can be placed on a class timeline of the “Road to Brown” (e.g., copy of a primary document, symbolic artifact, illustration, imagined letter or journal entry in the voice of a historical figure, etc.).
 - b. Prepare a brief (2–3 minute) oral presentation summarizing the significance of the event on the “Road to Brown.”
9. Using the [Topics and Source Links](#) included in this lesson, allow students ample time to read, research and prepare their presentations. When the students are ready, allow each group about five minutes to present and to help form the class’ “Road to Brown” timeline.

NOTE: The “Key Court Challenges” topic of *The Road to Brown Topics and Source Links* handout includes five subtopics and should not be assigned entirely to one group. Divide these cases among 2–3 groups or ask one group to choose the 2–3 cases they find most interesting to study further.

Equal Opportunity for All?

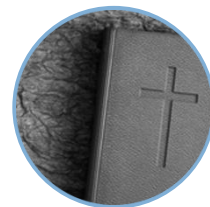
A Brief Timeline of Segregation in U.S. Public Education



1779 Thomas Jefferson proposes a two-track educational system, with different tracks, in his words, for “the laboring and the learned.” Scholarship would allow a very few of the laboring class to advance, Jefferson says, by “raking a few geniuses from the rubbish.”

1830s Most southern states have “slave codes,” making it illegal to teach Blacks to read or write. Thus, roughly 5 percent of the slave population is literate at the time of the Civil War.

1840s While Irish Catholic people number over 100,000 in New York City (25% of the total population), the Protestant Bible is a standard teaching tool in public education, as are textbooks and instruction that is anti-Irish and anti-Catholic. Controversy over the use of the Protestant Bible in public schools escalates nationwide. During the “Philadelphia Bible Riots” of 1843, a Catholic church is burned to the ground and thirteen people are killed. In 1850, John Hughes is named archbishop of New York and uses his considerable power to help create a privately funded national system of Catholic schools. It becomes the major alternative school system in the United States.



1859 The Chinese are excluded from San Francisco public schools. In 1885 a family sues the school board to enroll their Chinese daughter in a public school. San Francisco responds by building a new segregated “Oriental School.” It is not until 1905 that the U.S. Supreme Court requires California to extend public education to the children of Chinese immigrants.



1864 Congress makes it illegal for Native Americans to be taught in their native languages. Native children as young as four years old are taken from their parents and sent to Bureau of Indian Affairs off-reservation boarding schools, whose goal, as one BIA official put it, is to “kill the Indian to save the man.”

1896 In *Plessy v. Ferguson*, the U.S. Supreme Court rules that the state of Louisiana has the right to require “separate but equal” railroad cars for Blacks and Whites, thereby officially recognizing segregation as legal. One result is that southern states pass laws requiring racial segregation in public schools, which remain in place for almost 60 years.



1941 Following the attack on Pearl Harbor, President Roosevelt authorizes the internment of 120,000 persons of Japanese ancestry. These Japanese Americans—half of whom are children—are forced to evacuate their homes, jobs, and schools and are incarcerated for up to four years in camps surrounded by barbed wire and armed guards. Schools are not part of the original construction plans in many camps, so classes are held in mess halls and other makeshift structures. It is difficult to recruit outside educators because of the harsh living conditions, so access to adequate teaching staff is limited.

1975 The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) is passed. Prior to its implementation, approximately 1 million children with disabilities were shut out of schools and hundreds of thousands more were denied appropriate services. Ninety percent of children with developmental disabilities were previously housed in state institutions.

The Road to Brown Topics and Source Links

1. Black Codes & Jim Crow

The Black Codes (eventually known as Jim Crow) refers to the laws passed by southern state governments after the Civil War. These laws—a recreation of the old “slave codes” that pretended to protect the rights of African Americans—imposed severe restrictions on freed slaves, such as prohibiting their right to vote, forbidding them to sit on juries, limiting their right to testify against white men, and preventing them from carrying weapons in public places and working in certain occupations. These laws mark the beginning of segregation, including in educational settings.

Sources:

- Black Codes (Spartacus Educational, www.spartacus.schoolnet.co.uk/USASblackcodes.htm)
- Black Codes and Jim Crow Laws (South Carolina Information Highway Web site, www.sciway.net/afam/reconstruction/blackcodes.html)
- Freedom: A History of US (PBS, www.pbs.org/wnet/historyofus/web07/segment2b.html)
- The Southern “Black Codes” of 1865–66 (Constitutional Rights Foundation, www.crf-usa.org/bill-of-rights-in-action/bria-15-2-c-the-southern-black-codes-of-1865-66)

2. The Fourteenth Amendment

In 1866, Congress ratified The Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which granted citizenship to freed slaves, prohibited the States from denying or abridging the fundamental rights of every citizen, and required the States to grant all persons equal protection and due process. The Fourteenth Amendment was later used as an argument against segregation and played an important role in *Brown v. Board of Education*.

Sources:

- Actual Text of Amendment Fourteen (LawForKids.org LawDocs, www.lawforkids.org/Law-Docs/amendment-14)
- The Fourteenth Amendment Ratified (*The Rise and Fall of Jim Crow*, PBS, www.pbs.org/wnet/jimcrow/stories_events_14th.html)
- The Fourteenth Amendment (Spartacus Educational, www.spartacus.schoolnet.co.uk/USAS14.htm)
- The Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution (Our Documents, www.ourdocuments.gov/doc.php?flash=true&doc=43)
- The Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution (Library of Congress, www.loc.gov/rr/program/bib/ourdocs/14thamendment.html)

3. Civil Rights Acts of 1866 and 1875

Between the years of 1866 and 1875, the U.S. government passed a series of civil rights laws in order to enforce the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution. The Civil Rights Act of 1866 granted black citizens equal rights to contract, to sue and be sued, to marry, travel, and own property. It made all citizens subject to “like punishment, pains and penalties.” The Civil Rights Act of 1875 prohibited discrimination in public accommodations, such as hotels, transportation and theaters. It granted African Americans the right to sue for personal damages, and allowed any qualified person to serve as a juror. The prohibition against discrimination in public accommodations and the right to seek legal redress in the courts are important precursors to the battle over school desegregation.

Sources:

- 1866 Civil Rights Act (Spartacus Educational, www.spartacus.schoolnet.co.uk/USAcivil1866.htm)
- The 1866 Civil Rights Act (Reconstruction: The Second Civil War, PBS, www.pbs.org/wgbh/amex/reconstruction/activism/ps_1866.html)

- The 1875 Civil Rights Act (Reconstruction: The Second Civil War, PBS, www.pbs.org/wgbh/amex/reconstruction/activism/ps_1875.html)
- Civil Rights Act through exhibitions (National Civil Rights Museum, www.civilrights museum.org/gallery/civilrights.asp)
- Civil Rights Act 1875 (Spartacus Educational, www.spartacus.schoolnet.co.uk/USAcivil1875.htm)
- Civil Rights Act 1875 (The Rise and Fall of Jim Crow, PBS, www.pbs.org/wnet/jimcrow/stories_events_civil.html)
- Civil Rights Act Bill of 1866 (United States House of Representatives: History, Art & Archives, <http://history.house.gov/Historical-Highlights/1851-1900/The-Civil-Rights-Bill-of-1866/>)

4. *Plessy v. Ferguson*

In 1892, a shoemaker named Homer Plessy (who was one-eighth black and seven-eighths white) was jailed for sitting in the white car of the East Louisiana Railroad. The arrest 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,” a small group of black professionals in New Orleans. In 1896, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that the Louisiana law mandating “separate but equal” accommodations for Blacks and Whites on intrastate railroads was constitutional. The defense argued that Plessy was denied his equal protection rights under the Fourteenth Amendment, and that his arrest violated the Thirteenth Amendment by perpetuating the essential features of slavery. The Court upheld the “separate but equal” principle, thereby providing legal justification for racial segregation until the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision in 1954.

Sources:

- *Plessy v. Ferguson* (Encyclopedia Britannica, www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/464679/Plessy-v-Ferguson)
- *Plessy v. Ferguson* 1896 (Street Law’s Landmark Cases of the U.S. Supreme Court, www.streetlaw.org/en/landmark/cases/plessy_v_ferguson)
- *Plessy v. Ferguson* 1896 (*The Rise and Fall of Jim Crow*, PBS, www.pbs.org/wnet/jimcrow/stories_events_plessy.html)
- *Plessy v. Ferguson* 1896 (Our Documents, www.ourdocuments.gov/doc.php?flash=true&doc=52)
- *Plessy v. Ferguson* (History Channel, www.history.com/topics/black-history/plessy-v-ferguson)

5. **The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP)**

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) was founded in 1909 in response to a devastating race riot that had taken place the year before in Springfield, Illinois. A group of multiracial activists issued a call for a meeting on racial justice and the formation of an organization that would defend the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution. The original founders of the NAACP (originally called the National Negro Committee) included Ida Wells-Barnett, W.E.B. DuBois, Henry Moscowitz, Mary White Ovington, Oswald Garrison Villiard, and William English Walling. Later members of the NAACP included the attorneys Hamilton Houston and Thurgood Marshall, who devised legal strategies that helped to end racial segregation in the U.S.

Sources:

- NAACP Founded 1909 (*The Rise and Fall of Jim Crow*, PBS, www.pbs.org/wnet/jimcrow/stories_events_naacp.html)
- NAACP History (NAACP, www.naacp.org/pages/naacp-legal-history)
- NAACP Interactive Timeline (NAACP, www.naacphistory.org)
- NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund (www.naacpldf.org)

6. **Thurgood Marshall**

Thurgood Marshall, the great-grandson of a slave, was the first African American Supreme Court justice. As a young man, he was denied admission to the University of Maryland’s all-white law school (an institution he later challenged and defeated). He attended law school at Howard University, where he met Charles H. Houston, the school’s Vice Dean, who became the NAACP’s first chief counsel and the first African American to win a case before the U.S. Supreme Court. After law school, Marshall went to work for Houston at the NAACP, where he was a key force in eradicating racial segregation in

education, housing, transportation, electoral politics and criminal justice. Marshall represented Linda Brown in the *Brown v. Board of Education* case, in which he argued that racial segregation itself—and not just unequal “accommodation”—was inherently unconstitutional.

Sources:

- Thurgood Marshall Biography (Street Law’s Landmark Cases of the U.S. Supreme Court, www.streetlaw.org/en/Page/524/Thurgood_Marshall_biography)
- Thurgood Marshall (History Channel, www.history.com/topics/black-history/thurgood-marshall)
- Thurgood Marshall (speeches, articles, interviews, and photos, www.thurgoodmarshall.com/home.htm)
- Thurgood Marshall, Supreme Court Justice (Center for History and New Media, George Mason University, <http://chnm.gmu.edu/courses/122/hill/marshall.htm>)

7. Key Court Challenges

From *Dred Scott* in 1857 to *Brown v. Board of Education* in 1954, numerous judicial battles shaped public attitude and policy regarding segregation and the status of non-Whites in U.S. society. Below are just a few of the many cases that directly addressed segregation in education, and set the stage for the *Brown* decision and ultimate collapse of legal segregation in the U.S.

a. *Berea College v. Commonwealth of Kentucky* (1908)

Berea College was founded in 1855 specifically to educate black and white students together. In 1904, the Kentucky state legislature passed the “Day Law,” mandating segregation in every “college, school or institution.” Berea College challenged the law, but the Supreme Court upheld the Kentucky regulation forbidding interracial instruction.

Sources:

- *Berea College v. Commonwealth of Kentucky* (*History of Education: Selected Moments of the 20th Century* by Daniel Schugurensky, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto, http://fcis.oise.utoronto.ca/~daniel_schugurensky/assignment1/1908deangelo.html)
- Lincoln Hall, Berea College (*We Shall Overcome: Historic Places of the Civil Rights Movement*, National Parks Services, www.cr.nps.gov/nr/travel/civilrights/ky1.htm)

In this case, a Chinese grocer claimed that his daughter was illegally classified as “colored” after she was barred from a Whites-only public school. The Supreme Court held that the state’s classification was within its right in regulating the education of its youth at public expense. The Court extended the “separate but equal” doctrine of *Plessy v. Ferguson* to the public schools, and upheld Mississippi’s longstanding policy “to preserve the white schools for members of the Caucasian race alone.”

b. *Gong Lum v. Rice* (1927)

Sources:

- Gong and Martha Lum Case—Chinese Discrimination (Chickenbones: A Journal for Literary and Artistic African American Themes, ChickenBones Education, Arts, and Literary Society, Inc., www.nathanielturner.com/educationhistorynegro29.htm)
- *Gong Lum v. Rice* (Augustana College, www.augustana.edu/Users/Podehnel/cases/GONGLUM.htm)
- *Gong Lunn v. Rice* (FindLaw, <http://caselaw.lp.findlaw.com/cgi-bin/getcase.pl?court=us&vol=275&invol=78>)

The University of Missouri refused to admit a black student, Lloyd Gaines, to its law school and offered instead to pay his expenses for law school outside the state. The U.S. Supreme Court ruled that Gaines should either be admitted to the Law School of the University of Missouri, or the state of Missouri should build a law school for Blacks equal to that of Whites. By making “separate but equal” schooling a more difficult and expensive proposition, the *Gaines* case helped to weaken the foundation of segregation.

c. *Missouri ex rel. Gaines v. Canada* (1938)

Sources:

- *Lloyd Gaines v. Canada*, a Step Toward Desegregation in Education *History of Education: Selected Moments of the 20th Century* by Daniel Schugurensky, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto, http://fcis.oise.utoronto.ca/~daniel_schugurensky/assignment1/1938gaines.html
- The Supreme Court (*The Rise and Fall of Jim Crow*, PBS, www.pbs.org/wnet/jimcrow/struggle_court2.html)
- *Missouri ex rel. Gaines v. Canada* (Cornell University Law School, www.law.cornell.edu/supremecourt/text/305/337)

In 1944, Gonzalo Mendez moved to an asparagus farm he agreed to manage while its Japanese owners were interned. When the Mendez children were refused admission to the local school, Gonzalo and four other parents sued. The families won the case and Governor Earl Warren later signed legislation prohibiting segregation in the state. The Mendez case sent ripple effects across the nation and had important connections to *Brown v. Board of Education*. Thurgood Marshall, the prosecuting attorney in *Brown*, filed briefs in *Mendez v. Westminster* for the NAACP; Governor Earl Warren of California would later become Chief Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court and preside over *Brown*.

d. *Mendez v. Westminster* (1946)

Sources:

- *Mendez v. Westminster School District of Orange County* (The State Bar of Texas’ Law-Related Education Department, www.texasbar.com/civics/High%20School%20cases/mendez-v-westminster.html)
- *Mendez v. Westminster* History at <http://sylviamendezinthemendezvswestminster.com/aboutus.html>
- American Latino Heritage (National Parks Services, www.nps.gov/history/nr/travel/american_latino_heritage/Los_Angeles_US_Court_House_and_Post_Office.html)
- *Mendez v. Westminster* Background (United States Courts, www.uscourts.gov/educational-resources/get-involved/federal-court-activities/mendez-westminster-re-enactment/mendez-westminster-background.aspx)

In 1946, Herman Marion Sweatt applied for admission to the University of Texas Law School, but was rejected because he was Black. When Sweatt and the NAACP sued, the state continued the case to give the state an opportunity to establish a “separate but equal” law school for African American students, and a temporary facility for “Negroes” was created. The case eventually went to the U.S. Supreme Court, which held that the Equal Protection Clause required that Sweatt be admitted to the university. The Court argued that the separate school would be inferior in a number of areas, and found that the mere separation from the majority of law students harmed students’ abilities to compete in the legal arena.

e. *Sweatt v. Painter* (1950)

Sources:

- Archival and Textual Sources (University of Denver College of Law, www.law.du.edu/russell/lh/sweatt)
- *Sweatt v. Painter* (*Handbook of Texas Online*, the University of Texas at Austin, www.tshaonline.org/handbook/online/articles/jrs01)
- Desegregation: *Sweatt v. Painter* 1950 (University of Texas School of Law, Tarlton Law Library, http://tarlton.law.utexas.edu/clark/sweatt_long.html)
- *Sweatt v. Painter* (Cornell University Law School, www.law.cornell.edu/supremecourt/text/339/629)

8. *Brown v. Board of Education*

In Topeka, Kansas, an African American third-grader named Linda Brown had to walk one mile through a railroad switchyard to get to her black elementary school. After Linda was denied entry to a white elementary school only seven blocks away, her father joined with the NAACP to challenge segregation in the Topeka public schools. The court ruled in favor of the Board of Education, and the NAACP appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court. The *Brown* case was combined with four other cases that challenged school segregation in Washington, DC, Delaware, Virginia and South Carolina. On May 17, 1954, Chief Justice Earl Warren delivered the now famous decision: "...We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place..." Though the ruling abolished segregation in U.S. public schools, it did not address segregation in other public venues or provide a timeline or process for the integration of schools.

Sources:

- *Brown v. Board of Education* (Freedom: A History of US, PBS at www.pbs.org/wnet/historyofus/web13/segment8_p.html)
- *Brown v. Board of Education* 1954 (Street Law's Landmark Cases of the U.S. Supreme Court, www.landmarkcases.org/brown/home.html)
- *Brown v. Board of Education* 1954 (The Rise and Fall of Jim Crow, PBS, www.pbs.org/wnet/jimcrow/stories_events_brown.html)
- Brown Foundation (history, cases, resources, articles, www.brownvboard.org)
- *Brown v. Board of Education* Issue: Racial Segregation in Public Schools (PBS, www.pbs.org/jefferson/enlight/brown.htm)
- *Brown v. Board of Education* (Our Documents, www.ourdocuments.gov/doc.php?flash=true&doc=87)
- Dialogue on *Brown v. Board of Education* (American Bar Association Division for Public Education, www.americanbar.org/content/dam/aba/migrated/brown/brownvboard.authcheckdam.pdf)
- History of *Brown v. Board of Education* (United States Courts, www.uscourts.gov/educational-resources/get-involved/federal-court-activities/brown-board-education-re-enactment/history.aspx)

Lesson 3

With All Deliberate Speed

Rationale

The purpose of this lesson is for students to explore the ways in which school desegregation was approached in the immediate aftermath of the *Brown* decision and over the subsequent decades. Students analyze Justice Felix Frankfurter's 1955 Draft Decree to enforce *Brown* to learn about the Court's intentions with regard to school desegregation and the significance of the phrase, "with all deliberate speed." Students then examine actual school segregation photos and school integration timelines spanning several decades in order to better understand the barriers that existed and the strategies employed to fulfill *Brown's* mandate.

Objectives

- Students will analyze primary documents to determine the Supreme Court's intentions with regard to the implementation of the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision.
- Students will explore historical records to learn how school desegregation was put into practice in the decades following the *Brown* decision.
- Students will better understand the barriers and opportunities that existed with regard to school integration in the U.S. from the 1950s through the 1980s.

Age Range

Grades 9–12

Time

Two class periods or 1 hour 30 minutes

Requirements

Handouts and Resources:

- [Justice Felix Frankfurter's Draft Decree](#) (Words and Deeds in American History, Library of Congress), one for each student or prepare to be projected
- [School Desegregation Photos](#) (one of each for each student or prepare to be projected)
- [School Integration Post-Brown: Barriers and Opportunities](#) (one for each small group)
- [Glossary of School Integration Terms](#) (one for each small group)
- [Timeline of School Integration #1–7](#) (one for each small group)

Other Material:

- Chart paper, markers
- computer and LCD or overhead projector (optional)

Advanced Preparation

- Reproduce handouts as directed above.
- Make six copies of each of the following handouts for each small group: [School Integration Post-Brown: Barriers and Opportunities](#) and [Glossary of School Integration Terms](#). Additionally, make a copy of each of the seven [Timelines of School Integration](#) and provide a different one to each small group (see Part II #2).

Key Words

Barrier
Boycott,
Busing
Compliance
Court-order
Decree
de facto segregation
de jure segregation
Demonstration
Desegregation
Equalization
Forthwith
Integration
Interposition
Lawsuit
Magnet school
Massive resistance
NAACP
Persecution
Protest
Resegregation
Segregation
Sit-in
Unconstitutional
Unitary
"With all deliberate speed"

Techniques and Skills

analyzing primary documents, cooperative group work, critical thinking, deductive reasoning, examining historical photographs, historical understanding, large and small group discussion, reading skills, role play

Procedures

Part I

1. Write the phrase, “with all deliberate speed,” on the board. Ask students if they know what these words signify, or if they can reason the connection to the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision. Tell students that, after the 1954 decision declaring school segregation unconstitutional, the Supreme Court heard arguments the following term about how best to end segregation. The famous words—originally from a 1911 decision by Oliver Wendell Holmes—were included in the Court’s final decree.
2. Project or distribute [Justice Felix Frankfurter’s Draft Decree](#) to enforce the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision from April 8, 1955. Give students a few minutes to read the document. Though the legalistic language and handwritten notes may be hard to decipher, ask students what words or phrases stand out, and what they can learn about the Justice’s intentions with regard to integration. Highlight language such as, “must be given effect immediately” (in point 3), and note that the phrase, “may be delayed for a reasonable period not to exceed one school cycle of 12 years,” has been crossed out in the same point. Point 5, which initially included the language, “with all appropriate speed,” has been completely crossed out and replaced with handwritten notes at the bottom that include the phrase, “with all deliberate speed,” which is part of the final language adopted by Chief Justice Earl Warren.
3. Inform students that the NAACP—the African American civil rights organization that prosecuted *Brown* and many other segregation cases—recommended the Court use the word “forthwith” to encourage a rapid desegregation timeline. Ask students to define forthwith (at once; immediately) and to consider why the Court may have chosen not to include that language. Tell students that the Court recognized the great challenges ahead of them and struggled to find language that would be both strong and realistic. In the end, Chief Justice Warren chose “with all deliberate speed” as the standard because of its connection to the venerated Oliver Wendell Holmes and because “there were so many blocks preventing an immediate solution of the thing in reality that the best we could look for would be a progression of action.” Point out that over time, however, opponents of integration used the standard to delay compliance with *Brown*, and in 1964 Justice Hugo Black stated in a desegregation opinion that “the time for mere ‘deliberate speed’ has run out.”

Part II

1. Post a sheet of chart paper divided into two columns labeled “Blocks” and “Progression of Action.” Ask students to consider Chief Justice Warren’s words: “There were so many blocks preventing an immediate solution of the thing in reality that the best we could look for would be a progression of action.” Ask students to think about what “blocks” or barriers to school integration may have existed following the *Brown* decision and what “progression of action” or steps may have been taken to end school segregation. Project or distribute copies of the following five [School Desegregation Photos](#):

- [Black Students Integrate Little Rock’s Central High School \(Arkansas, 1957\)](#)
- [African-American Students Enter High School with Military Escort \(Arkansas, 1957\)](#)
- [Nearly Empty Desegregated School \(New Jersey, 1962\)](#)
- [Mother Removing Child from Desegregated School \(Alabama, 1963\)](#)
- [Only African-American Student Attending School \(Boston, 1974\)](#)

Allow students time to view each photo and to describe what they observe. Based on the photos and their knowledge of the era, ask students to identify some of the “blocks” and “actions” that Chief Justice Warren may have been referring to, and record their responses on the chart.

2. Tell students that they will be examining school integration timelines from various parts of the country that will provide them with a greater sense of the barriers communities faced and the steps taken to achieve desegregation. Divide the class into six groups and provide each group with one copy of the handouts, [School Integration Post-Brown: Barriers and](#)

[Opportunities](#) and [Glossary of School Integration Terms](#). In addition, provide each group with copies of one of the seven [Timeline of School Integration](#) handouts. Direct each group to choose a recorder.

3. Instruct the groups to read their timelines together and to identify examples of barriers to school integration and steps taken to implement desegregation. The recorder is responsible for taking notes on the *Barriers and Opportunities* handout and for transcribing this information on to the class chart initiated earlier.

Optional: If time is available and students are capable of handling sensitive information with maturity, add a theatrical component to this activity. Have one or more groups choose an event from the timelines to dramatize for the class. Encourage students to select events that capture a significant episode in school desegregation history, and use the role plays as a vehicle for discussing important concepts.

4. Conclude this activity by gathering the class and reviewing the chart of barriers and actions. Draw attention to trends that exist and highlight similarities and differences across various communities. Allow students to ask clarifying questions and to expand upon the information they have recorded. Ask students to share the most surprising facts they have learned about the history of school integration. Did they know that desegregation was not a quick or simple process that happened exclusively in the 1950s and 1960s, but rather a decades-long battle that continues today? Were they aware that integration was as contentious a battle in some Northern cities as in the South? Point out that although the process of integration has brought many positive changes, the legacy of segregation and unequal opportunity continues to impact our schools, a subject which will be explored in the next lesson.

School Desegregation Photo

Black Students Integrate Little Rock's Central High School (Arkansas, 1957)



Image Donated by Corbis – Bettmann

September 6, 1957, Little Rock, Arkansas

Elizabeth Eckford, one of the nine black students whose admission to Little Rock's Central High School was ordered by a Federal Court following legal action by NAACP legal defense fund attorneys.

School Desegregation Photo

African-American Students Enter High School with Military Escort (Arkansas, 1957)

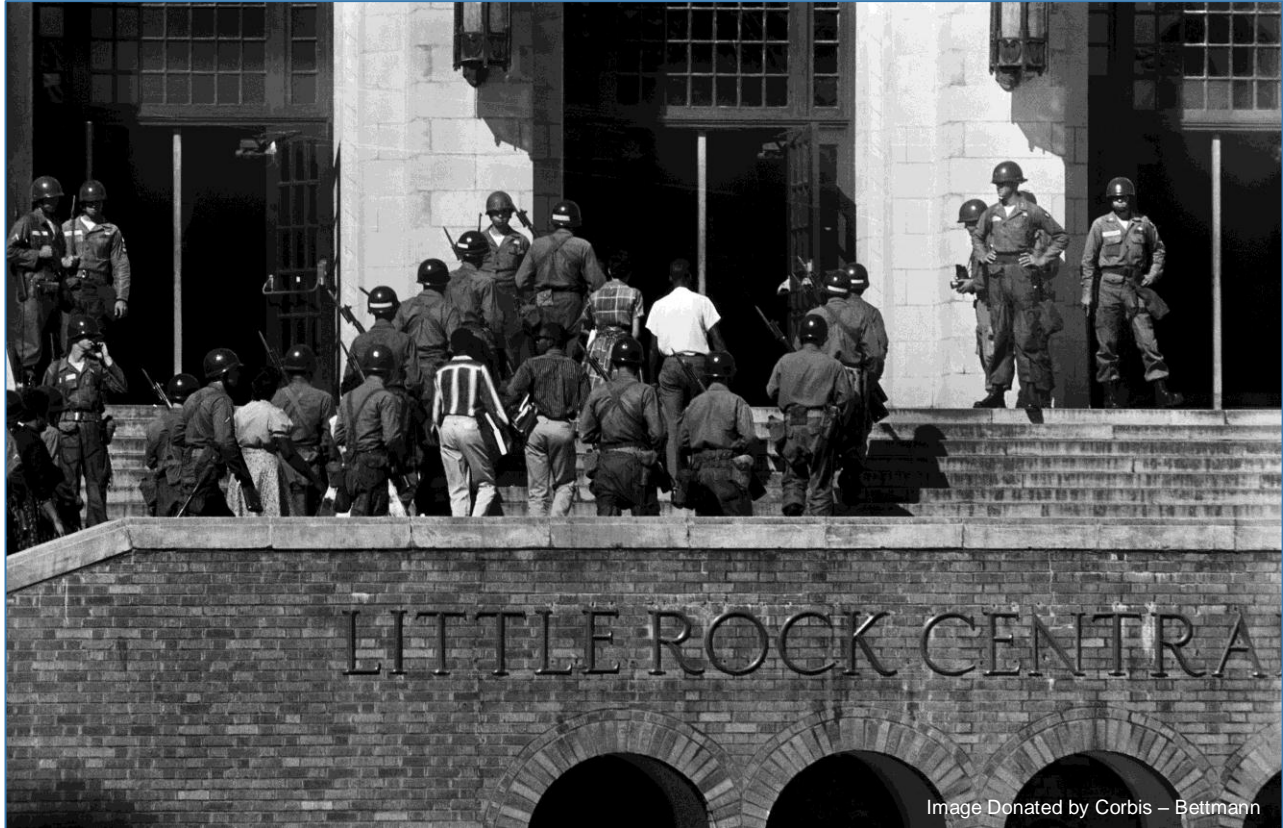


Image Donated by Corbis – Bettmann

September 26, 1957, Little Rock, Arkansas

African-American students walk up the steps of Little Rock Central High School, flanked by soldiers carrying out President Eisenhower's orders to enforce a Federal Court ruling to integrate Little Rock Central High School.

School Desegregation Photo

Nearly Empty Desegregated School (New Jersey, 1962)



Image Donated by Corbis – Bettmann

September 5, 1962, Lincoln School, Englewood, New Jersey.

African-American students sit in a nearly empty classroom in newly desegregated Lincoln School during a boycott by students protesting desegregation.

School Desegregation Photo

Mother Removing Child from Desegregated School (Alabama, 1963)



Image Donated by Corbis – Bettmann

September 16, 1963, Graymont School, Birmingham, Alabama

A young child walks with his angry mother as she removes him from Graymont School in Birmingham, which has just become desegregated.

School Desegregation Photo

Only African-American Student Attending School (Boston, 1974)



Image Donated by Corbis – Bettmann

August 12, 1974, Boston, Massachusetts

Black student Valerie Banks is the only student in class at a predominately all white South Boston High School as thousands of families boycott court ordered desegregation schools.

Glossary of School Integration Terms

Busing: The transporting, usually court-ordered, of students across district lines to create more racially balanced schools.

Class Action Suit: A lawsuit filed by one person on behalf of a group of people who have the same complaint.

Controlled Integration (also known as *gradual integration*): Racially balancing schools in a slow and measured way, such as integrating a limited number of schools at a time or only one grade per year.

Faculty Integration: The process of assigning teachers and other staff members to schools based on race and in order to promote racial balance.

Forced Integration: Measures to desegregate schools that are court ordered or otherwise required and enforced by law.

Freedom of Choice (also known as *Controlled Choice*): A plan whereby families rank their preferences among schools, and then school districts assign students to their highest choice that is compatible with preserving integration.

Magnet School: A school or program that offers a special curriculum (not generally offered in non-magnet schools) and which typically attracts students from diverse backgrounds.

Massive Resistance: Actions taken to avoid court-ordered desegregation, including school closures and the passage of state laws.

Racial Ratios: Formulas used to assign students to schools so that the total number of Black, White, or other groups of students does not exceed a given percentage.

School Choice: In general, a program designed to improve local schools and empower lower-income families through the freedom to choose the kind of education their children receive. Examples in public education include magnet and charter schools. Private school choice gives lower-income students the opportunity to attend private schools through a voucher that families can use towards the cost of a private or religious school.

School Merger: The joining together of two or more schools with the goal of creating a more racially balanced student and staff population.

Transfer Plan: A process whereby students are reassigned to schools based on race and in order to promote racial balance.

Tuition Grants: In opposition to integration, some states provided public money so that white parents could send their children to private schools.

Unitary Status: A standing given to a school system that has effectively desegregated and has eliminated unequal schooling for minority and white students. Some courts have granted unitary status even when it is clear that segregation still exists, saying that everything practical has been done.

Voluntary Parental Choice: A plan that gives families the option to enroll their children in schools outside their neighborhood or zoned school in order to increase integration.

White Flight: A term used to describe the trend of white families moving out of neighborhoods that people of color have moved into.

Timeline of School Integration #1

Boston, Massachusetts

In the Supreme Court’s unanimous majority opinion in *Brown v. Board of Education*, Chief Justice Earl Warren stated, “Segregation in Boston public schools was eliminated in 1855.” Warren was referring to a bill passed by the Massachusetts State Legislature a hundred years before *Brown*, which outlawed segregation in public schools. Early court decisions made no statement, however, on *de facto* segregation—the separation of racial groups due to housing patterns rather than legal requirements (*de jure* segregation). Since students usually attend schools based on where they live, the racially segregated neighborhoods of many Northern cities resulted in schools that were as segregated as those in the South during the 1950s and 1960s.

In the *Brown* ruling, the Supreme Court said that segregation—whether by law (*de jure*) or by fact (*de facto*)—is harmful to minority children because of the stigma of separation and the poorer quality of minority schools. In 1965, the Massachusetts State Legislature passed the Racial Imbalance Act, which prohibited “racially imbalanced” schools. The following timeline chronicles the early years of Boston’s experiment to desegregate its public schools in the 1970s.

1972

- *Morgan v. Hennigan* is filed in U.S. District Court for the District of Massachusetts, charging that Boston’s public schools are unconstitutionally segregated. Documents from the Boston School Committee demonstrate a clear record of resistance to desegregation and “covert techniques to segregate the system.”

1974–75 School Year

- The Phase I plan to remedy school desegregation is implemented. It calls for busing students from Roxbury (a mostly African American neighborhood) to South Boston (a primarily white neighborhood and the center of opposition to desegregation). Most schools integrate quietly, but in South Boston protestors stone buses, shout racial epithets, and engage in other violent behavior.
- After the beating of a black man in South Boston, Roxbury students react with violence, stoning cars and attacking Whites. Governor Frank Sargent calls out the National Guard.
- Many white families plan a boycott of the public schools, sending their children to tutoring sessions at night, where public school teachers, college students, and prospective teachers volunteer to teach. Violence against African-American students continues, including a plan to overturn and burn busloads of black students (which is averted due to an anonymous phone tip).
- A black student at South Boston High School stabs a white classmate. An angry mob of white students quickly forms outside the high school. Three decoy buses are used to get the African-American students home safely.



African-American students boarding bus as part of Phase I plan to remedy school desegregation in Boston, Massachusetts, 1974. ([CC BY-SA 3.0](#))

1975–76 School Year

- The Phase II plan to remedy school desegregation is initiated, which aims for a racial mix across all city schools. The city is carved into “slices” and the plan calls for busing whites from the outside of each slice towards the mostly African American center and vice versa. Specialized magnet schools are introduced, and the number of students bused rises from 14,900 to 25,000. Busing between South Boston and Roxbury continues.
- As Blacks and Latina/os are bused into Charlestown (a largely working-class Irish neighborhood) and Whites into Roxbury, residents of Charlestown resist. Many white parents pull their children out of the city’s public schools, opting instead for private or parochial schools. During the first week of school, Charlestown students boycott the schools while their parents stage protests against forced busing.

- Inside Charlestown High, African Americans face taunts and physical attacks from white students. They fight back by creating a Minority Students' Council and a list of demands, including regular meetings with the school head and an end to racial profanity on campus. A group of 175 white students respond with a school boycott and their own list of grievances, including vulgarity among African-American students, obscene and physical behavior toward white girls, and the persecution of white above black students.
- A fight breaks out after several white boys attack a black student. Police arrest four white students, and five African-American students are suspended for three days under a school policy "penalizing both parties to any fight." The next day, outraged minority students refuse to leave the buses when they pull up to Charlestown High in the morning.
- In January, white students stage a sit-in on the school's main staircase, forcing school officials to lock African-American students in upstairs classrooms for their own safety.

Violence and protest continued throughout the ensuing years, yet busing and desegregation continued in Boston schools. In 1990, control of the schools was returned from the District Court to the School Committee and some improvements were made to the system of mandatory busing. Three zones were created that used race and parental preference for assigning students to schools. A plan called "controlled choice" was introduced, which allowed parents to select their top school choices rather than being assigned to one school.

In 1999, the Boston School Committee voted to end the city's 25-year-old racial desegregation program after a group of white parents threatened a lawsuit to stop the city from assigning students to schools on the basis of race. These parents claimed that the school system discriminated against white schoolchildren on the basis of their skin color by preventing them from attending schools of their choice.

But the city of today is very different from the one of the late 1960s and '70s. Since the 1970s, many white families have chosen to send their children to private and parochial schools, and many others have left the city all together for the surrounding suburbs. From 1967 to 1974, the percentage of white students in the city's public schools plunged from 72% to 52%. By 1977, black students outnumbered whites; by 2009, Latinos outnumbered blacks.

While whites make up about 47% of the city population, today only 13% of the public school population is white. Latinos account for 42% of the public school population; blacks account for 35% and Asians 8%. In addition, poor and minority students are still generally going to inferior schools as compared to their wealthier and mostly white peers in suburban schools. As Boston leaves its desegregation program behind, some people worry that the return to neighborhood schools could also mean a return to an unequal distribution of resources and opportunity in the public schools.

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Timeline of School Integration #2

Danville, Virginia

1954: On May 17 the United States Supreme Court repudiates the doctrine of “separate but equal” facilities based on race (*Plessy v. Ferguson*, 163 U.S. 537) and declares segregated education in the public schools unconstitutional. Their decision in *Brown v. Board of Education* (347 U.S. 483) provides the legal foundation for school integration throughout the United States.



Harry F. Ford

1956: Harry Byrd, an ardent segregationist and political kingmaker (one having great influence over the choice of candidates for political office), leads a “massive resistance” movement in Virginia to challenge the high court’s decision on desegregation. Claiming judicial overreach into state’s rights, the governor and general assembly pass laws to block school integration by withholding money for its implementation.

1959: Decisions by the Virginia Supreme Court and a federal court render Virginia’s “massive resistance” laws unconstitutional. State business leaders meet with Governor Lindsay Almond and persuade him to abandon his opposition to court mandated desegregation.

1960: Sacred Heart Catholic School, a parochial school established 1954 in Danville, admits children from two black Roman Catholic families and becomes the first school in the city to begin integration.

Governor Almond directs all school districts in Virginia to integrate, thus ending the campaign of “massive resistance.”

1964: The U.S. Congress passes the Civil Rights Act (Public Law 88-352). The first black students attend George Washington High School in Danville under a “freedom of choice” plan, which allows any students to select either the formerly all black Langston High School or the formerly all-white G.W.H.S. The lack of school buses and the city’s demographics severely limit the plan’s effectiveness, and no white students choose Langston High School.

1968: The Supreme Court in *Green v. New Kent County* (391 U.S. 430) declares such “freedom of choice plans” ineffectual in ending segregation and orders the schools to find a new approach to achieve integration. Charles H. Harris is elected to the Danville City Council, the first Black to sit on the council since Reconstruction. Voter registration in the black community soars, providing him a firm political base to push for full integration.

1969: The U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare approves Danville’s new desegregation plan. The administration and faculty of both high schools, guided by school superintendent Oscar Trent Bonner and high school Principal E.L. Motley, begin planning the transition.

1970: George Washington High School starts its first year as a fully integrated high school. On September 11, a scuffle between two youths, one white and the other black, breaks out at a high school football game and rapidly escalates into a racial conflict between the students. To quell any further disturbances, the public schools are closed on September 15 and re-opened the following day under a strict “get tough” policy enforced by the local police. The week closes out without any major confrontations. Averett College integrates its programs. The local Y.W.C.A. combines its two racially segregated programs into one integrated program.

1980: After serving on the Danville City Council for over 20 years, Charles Harris is elected the first black mayor of the city.

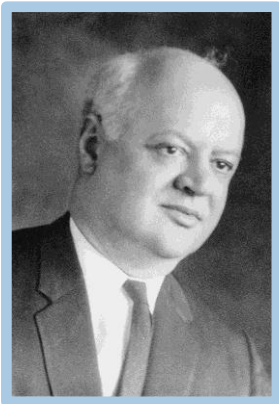
2000: According to the National Center of Education, the racial composition of George Washington High School stands at 39.2% white and 59.7% black.

Compiled by Clara G. Fountain and James Verdini. Adapted and reprinted with from Averett University Library.

Timeline of School Integration #3

East Baton Rouge, Louisiana Parish Schools

Prior to the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision in 1954 declaring legally enforced public school segregation to be unconstitutional and mandating the desegregation of public schools, a complaint was filed on September 4, 1952 in a New Orleans federal district court by attorney A.P. Tureaud, with the assistance of the NAACP (*Bush et al. v. Orleans Parish School Board*). Tureaud sued on behalf of a group of black students challenging the constitutionality of racial segregation in the public schools. By agreement between the parties, proceedings on this complaint were suspended pending the Supreme Court's resolution of the *Brown v. Board of Education* case.



Attorney Alexander Pierre "A.P." Tureaud, Sr.
Tureaud. Courtesy of the
Tureaud Family.



U.S. Marshals escorting Ruby Bridges
from William Frantz Elementary
School, New Orleans.

In reaction to the Supreme Court's *Brown* decision, the Louisiana legislature approved an amendment to the state constitution that sought to justify racial segregation on grounds of "health, morals, better education and the peace and good order of the State" as a means of avoiding the *Brown* decision, which was overwhelmingly approved in November 1954 by the state's voters. It was years before desegregated schools became a reality in most of the school districts where the Court's decision applied. Much of the ensuing struggle over school desegregation took place in the district and appellate courts of the federal judiciary.

1955: On August 20, attorney A.P. Tureaud filed an amended complaint in the *Bush* case seeking (1) a declaration that the state anti-desegregation statutes and state constitutional provisions mandating segregation violated the U.S. Constitution and (2) an order requiring the desegregation of the New Orleans schools.

1956: A three-judge U.S. District Court, composed of Judges Wayne Borah, Herbert Christenberry and J. Skelly Wright, ruled that the Louisiana constitutional provision and state statutes requiring school segregation were unconstitutional. On the same day, four years after the filing of the *Bush* lawsuit, the black plaintiffs finally received a decision and Judge Skelly Wright ordered the Orleans Parish School Board to move "with all deliberate speed" to desegregate the New Orleans schools. However, the local school board and state officials resisted this order until 1960.

1960: On November 14, three six-year-old girls, Leona Tate, Gail Etienne and Tessie Prevost, were the first black students to integrate McDonogh No. 19, an all-white elementary school in New Orleans. On the same day, another six-year-old black girl named Ruby Bridges integrated a second New Orleans' public school called William Frantz Elementary.

1964: Freedom of Choice implemented in school system with very limited success.

1969: First major court order handed down ordering the closing of some schools, desegregation of some schools mainly in Mid-City, North Baton Rouge, Baker, and Zachary. It also orders the integration of the faculties and staffs at all schools.

1970: Court-ordered busing plan implemented.

1974: Plaintiffs file motion saying 1970 plan did not desegregate system. Judge E. Gordon West rules against motion saying school system is unitary. NAACP appeals to U.S. Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals.

1978: Fifth Circuit vacates Judge West's order and remands the case back to the Middle District of Louisiana for more hearings. Case assigned to Judge John V. Parker.

1980: U.S. Justice Department successfully files for a Summary Judgment in the case. Judge orders the NAACP and Justice Department to meet with the School Board to come up with a plan for desegregating schools. After rejecting the School Board

Magnet School Plan, Judge Parker orders a desegregation plan involving clusters and pairs at the elementary level, single grade centers at the middle school level and revised high school districts. The School Board submits a new middle school plan that is accepted by the courts allowing students to attend one school for all three grades. School Board appeals ruling while implementing the plan.

1981: Elementary schools part of the plan is implemented.

1982: Secondary Schools part of the plan is implemented.

1983: U.S. Fifth Circuit reaffirms the lower court ruling. U.S. Justice Department submits its own desegregation plan to possibly end suit. School Board rejects plan.

1989: School redesign plan setting up special programs to voluntarily desegregate program instituted.

1996: Consent Decree between NAACP, School Board and U.S. Justice Department calls for board to improve facilities and educational opportunities for students. This plan replaced Judge Parker's 1981 plan with a new plan consisting of neighborhood schools with magnet programs.

2001: Judge John Parker resigns from case and is replaced by Judge James Brady.

2001 or early 2002: School Board to ask that the federal courts declare the system unitary.

2003: US District Judge James Brady dismisses objections at fairness hearing, approves final settlement agreement, ends 47-year old desegregation case.

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Timeline of School Integration #4

Little Rock, Arkansas

The 1957–58 school year at Little Rock Central High School should be looked at in terms of what happened in Arkansas prior to it, during it and immediately afterwards. The following timeline presents a brief glimpse into the key events.

September 1949: University of Arkansas School of Law is integrated.

January 1951: Little Rock Public Library board approves integrating its facilities.

May 17, 1954: The U.S. Supreme Court rules racial segregation in the public schools is unconstitutional in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*.

May 22, 1954: The Little Rock School Board issues a policy statement saying it will comply with the Supreme Court's decision when the Court outlines the method to be followed and the time to be allowed.

May 24, 1955: The School Board votes unanimously to adopt Superintendent Virgil Blossom's plan of gradual integration that would start in September 1957 at the high school level and add the lower grades over the next six years. Mr. Blossom is named "Man of the Year" by the *Arkansas Democrat* for his work on desegregation.

January 23, 1956: Twenty-seven black students attempt to register in all-white Little Rock schools, but are turned down.

February 8, 1956: The NAACP files suit on behalf of 33 black children denied admittance to four white schools.

August 28, 1956: Federal Judge John E. Miller dismisses the NAACP suit, declaring the Little Rock School Board had acted in "utmost good faith" in its integration plan. The NAACP files an appeal.

Fall 1956: The city's public buses quietly are desegregated with no problems.

April 29, 1957: The Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals in St. Louis upholds Judge Miller's dismissal.

Spring 1957: There are 517 black students who live in the Central High district and are eligible to attend Central in the fall. Eighty express an interest in doing so. Following interviews with the Superintendent and staff, 17 are selected for the first year of integration at Central. Eight of those later decide to remain at all-black Horace Mann High School.

Summer 1957: With desegregation scheduled for September, opponents organize the Capital Citizens Council and the Mother's League of Central High School.

August 27, 1957: A member of the Mother's League files a motion seeking a temporary injunction against school integration. Pulaski County Chancellor Murray Reed grants the injunction "on the grounds that integration could lead to violence."

August 30, 1957: Federal District Judge Ronald Davies nullifies the injunction.

September 2, 1957: Governor Orval Faubus calls out the Arkansas National Guard to surround Little Rock Central High School to preserve the peace and avert violence that may be caused by extremists who came to Little Rock "in caravans."

September 3, 1957: Judge Davies orders desegregation to start the next day.

September 4, 1957: The nine black students attempt to enter Central High but are turned away by the National Guard.

September 9, 1957: The Council of Church Women issues a statement opposing segregation and deploring the Governor's calling out the guard. It calls for a citywide prayer service for September 12.

September 20, 1957: Judge Davies rules that Faubus had used the troops to prevent integration, not to preserve law and order as he claimed. The Governor removes the Guardsmen and the Little Rock Police Department take over.

September 23, 1957: As a crowd of 1,000 mills around in front of the school, the nine black students go inside through a side door. A white student takes them to the principal's office where they are to receive their class assignments. When the mob

learns the students are inside, it becomes unruly and the police fear they will be unable to maintain control. The black students are taken out of the school through a side door.

September 24, 1957: Little Rock Mayor Woodrow Mann sends President Eisenhower a telegram asking for federal troops to maintain order and complete the integration process. The President announces he is sending 1,000 members of the 101st Airborne Division to Little Rock. He federalizes the 10,000 members of the Arkansas National Guard.



Soldiers from the 101st Airborne Division escorting African-American students to Central High School in Little Rock, Arkansas, 1957. Courtesy of the National Archives.



Front row, left to right: Minnijean Brown, Elizabeth Eckford, Carlotta Walls, Mayor Robert Wagner, Thelma Mothershed, Gloria Ray; back row, left to right: Terrance Roberts, Ernest Green, Melba Pattilo, Jefferson Thomas, 1958. Courtesy of the Library of Congress, New York World-Telegram & Sun Collection, LC-USZ62-125125.

September 25, 1957: Under escort by the Army troops, the nine black students are escorted back into Central High.

October 3, 1957: Georgia Dortch and Jane Emery, editors of Central High's student newspaper *The Tiger*, editorialize: "Looking back on this year will probably be with regret that integration could not have been accomplished peacefully, without incident, without publicity." The editors encourage "each individual to maintain a sensible, peaceful neutrality; to accept the situation without demonstration, no matter what personal views are entertained; and to make these, your years in Little Rock Central High School, the happiest and most fruitful of your academic education."

October 17, 1957: A Mother's League petition to remove the federal troops who are there in violation of state and federal constitutions is dismissed by Judge Davies.

December 1957: Taunted by white male students, Minnijean Brown, one of the black students, dumps a bowl of chili on her antagonists in the cafeteria. She is suspended for six days.

February 6, 1958: Following additional altercations with white students, Minnijean Brown is suspended by the Board of Education for the remainder of the school year. She transferred to New Lincoln High School in New York City.

February 20, 1958: The Little Rock School Board files a request for permission to delay integration until the concept of "all deliberate speed" is defined and until effective legal means exists for integrating the schools without impairing the quality of the educational programs.

May 1, 1958: Central Principal Jess W. Matthews writes to the Seniors of 1958 in the school yearbook, "The graduating Class of 1958 will always stand out in my memory because...the class as a whole reacted so admirably to the shock of having the eyes of the world focused on the school...and the class united in a very cooperative way to leave a fine record of achievement in Central in a year that will no doubt be mentioned in history books for a long time to come."

May 27, 1958: Ernest Green becomes the first black student to graduate from Central High as he joins 600 senior classmates in commencement ceremonies at Quigley Stadium. Federal troops and city police are on hand but the event goes perfectly.

June 21, 1958: Federal District Judge Harry Lemley grants the delay of integration until January 1961, stating that while black students have a constitutional right to attend white schools, the "time has not come for them to enjoy that right." The NAACP appeals.

August 18, 1958: The Eighth Circuit Court of Appeals in St. Louis reverses the Lemley delay order.

August 21, 1958: The School Board requests the Appeals Court to stay the order overturning Judge Lemley's decision for 30 days to allow the board time to appeal to the Supreme Court.

August 25, 1958: The U.S. Supreme Court announces a special session to discuss the Little Rock school desegregation issue.

August 1958: Governor Faubus calls a special session of the state legislature to pass a law allowing him to close public schools to avoid integration and to lease the closed schools to private school corporations.

September 12, 1958: The Supreme Court rules that Little Rock must continue with its integration plan. The School Board announces the opening of the city's high schools on September 15. Governor Faubus orders Little Rock's three high schools closed.

September 16, 1958: The Women's Emergency Committee to Open Our Schools is formed and asks for a special election as a way to keep the schools open.

September 27, 1958: Voters overwhelmingly oppose integration by a vote of 7,561 for and 129,470 against.

September 1958: Public high schools in Little Rock close for the year, sending the city's 3,698 high school students to seek alternatives. More than 750 whites enroll in newly established private T.J. Raney High School. Others leave town or the state to live with friends or relatives to continue their education.

November 12, 1958: Five of the six members of the Little Rock School Board resign in frustration, having been ordered by a federal appeals court to proceed with integration of the high schools, even though it had no high schools to integrate.

December 6, 1958: A new school board was elected with its membership evenly divided between those favoring compliance and those favoring resistance to the court's orders.

March 1959: Little Rock Chamber of Commerce votes 819 to 245 in favor of reopening the schools on a controlled minimum plan of integration acceptable to the federal courts.

May 5, 1959: Segregationist members of the School Board attempt to fire 44 teachers and administrators suspected of integrationist sympathies. The three moderates on the board walks out, refusing to participate.

May 8, 1959: Stop This Outrageous Purge (STOP) and the Women's Emergency Committee are formed to recall the segregationist members of the board. On the other side, segregationists form Committee to Retain Our Segregated Schools (CROSS).

May 25, 1959: STOP wins the recall election by a narrow margin and the three segregationists are replaced by moderates on the School Board.

June 18, 1959: Federal court declares the state's school-closing law unconstitutional. The new school board announces it will reopen the high schools in the fall.

August 12, 1959: School board opens public high schools a month early. Three black girls quietly attend the new Hall High School in the upper income all-white area of west Little Rock with no fanfare. Governor Faubus addresses a segregationist rally at the state Capitol and guardedly advised them against any "rambunctious protest." Carrying American flags, about 250 people then marched to Central High to protest. This time Little Rock police take the offensive, quickly arresting 21 and calling in fire hoses to be turned on the remaining crowd, which disperses. Jefferson Thomas and Carlotta Walls, two of the original Little Rock Nine, return to Central for their senior year.

Fall 1972: All grades in Little Rock public schools are finally integrated.

September 28, 1977: At the 20th anniversary of the desegregation crisis, Ralph G. Brodie, the '57-58 student body president, speaks at a special occasion at Central where he pays tribute to the "moderate, quiet voices" who urged compliance with the law and an end to the crisis that eventually closed the four high schools at Little Rock for a year. He says only a small group of Little Rock residents are responsible for the city's bigoted, violent and prejudiced image, adding, "But for most of us, that image remains entirely undeserved." He addresses three of the Little Rock Nine who were present: "You've done much to assure the rights of others. Yours were acts of courage, and I salute you."

October 24, 1987: Thirty years after first entering Central High, the Little Rock Nine return as a group for the first time. They are met by Lottie Shackelford, Little Rock's second black mayor. Central High cheerleaders and other students-black and white-break into applause. Melba Pattillo Beals says, "What we feel this morning is joyous that we made it, and sad that we had to make it." Benjamin L. Hooks, NAACP executive director, says, "We don't come to open old wounds, but rather to celebrate and commemorate the great moment in history that changed the course of this nation and changed it for the better."

Source: *Little Rock Central High 40th Anniversary*, www.centralhigh57.org.

Timeline of School Integration #5

Montgomery County, Maryland

This timeline is edited from the original, which first appeared in *The Bulletin* of February 12, 1990 published by the Montgomery County Public School System and from the files of Peerless Rockville.

1860: Maryland establishes public schools for white students.

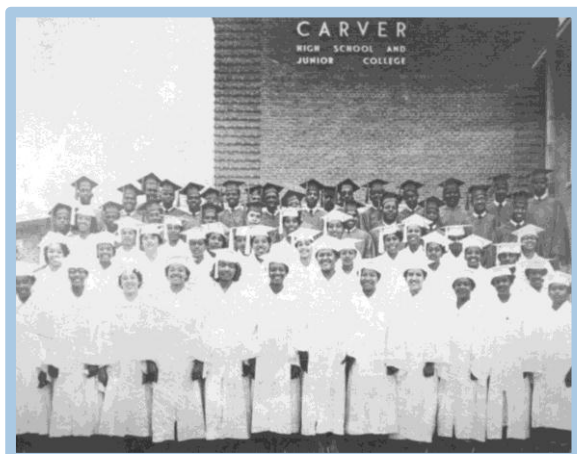
1867: Black parents advocate for a school in Rockville for their children.

1872: The Montgomery County Board of Education purchases a lot on the west side of Frederick Road in Rockville and opens a 1-room school house for grades 1 through 7. This building is replaced by a two-room school in 1883.

1927: Rockville Colored High School, the county's first high school for blacks opens. The Rosenwald Fund helps provide for two classrooms and a library for grades 8 to 11. The high school graduates its first class in 1931.

1935: Lincoln High School opens on Stonestreet Avenue in Lincoln Park.

December 8, 1936: Backed by the NAACP, William B. Gibbs, Jr. files a suit against the Montgomery County Board of Education for parity in teacher pay. Though the case is settled out of court, Mr. Gibbs loses his job.



Carver High School and Junior College

October 8, 1937: The local branch of the NAACP is established six weeks after the settlement of the Gibbs case.

1951: Carver High School and Junior College opens. Rock Terrace Elementary School opens which combines students from four local elementary schools. Lincoln becomes a junior high school.

May 17, 1954: The Supreme Court decision in *Brown vs. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* ends segregation in schools.

August 17, 1954: The Montgomery County Board of Education establishes an Advisory Committee on Integration.

February 28, 1955: The Advisory Committee recommends a 12-year integration plan. Five dissenting committee members advocate for the integration of elementary schools by September 1956 and high schools by September 1957.

March 21, 1955: The Board of Education adopts a policy on integration with the following stipulations: employment be offered on

the basis of merit, school boundaries be drawn without regard to race, students attend the school serving their district, and boundaries are to be redrawn, or new facilities built to relieve overcrowding.

April 28, 1955: The Board votes to close four substandard black elementary schools: River Road, Ken Gar, Takoma Park and Linden—and send students to all white schools serving those areas.

June 2, 1955: MCPS Superintendent Forbes Norris gives the order to begin implementing the Board's integration policy after receiving assurance from State Superintendent Thomas G. Pullen, Jr. that all legal barriers to desegregation in Maryland have been removed.

June 30, 1955: Forbes receives official notification from Pullen that the Supreme Court decision takes precedence over any state laws that forbid integration.

August 2, 1955: The Rollingwood PTA adopts a resolution against the plan to have Linden children enroll at Rollingwood.

April 23, 1956: The Board adopts the second phase of Norris' integration plan which provides for the integration of certain up-county schools.

September 8, 1956: A group of Poolesville citizens hold an anti-integration demonstration at the county office building.

September 17, 1956: Poolesville citizens argue against integration of their school before the Board. Parents who refuse to send their children to the newly integrated school relent after Norris threatens to take them to court for failure to comply with state attendance laws.

May 6, 1957: The Board adopts the integration plan for 1957–58, which affects students in kindergarten through grade nine in the areas of Bethesda—Chevy Chase, Montgomery Blair, Northwood, Wheaton, and Walter Johnson.

May 29, 1957: The Board appoints C. Taylor Whittier superintendent, effective August 1, following Norris's resignation to accept another position.

September 1959: Margaret T. Jones assumes her position as the first black principal of Bannockburn Elementary School, a previously all white school. Her prior assignment as principal of Rock Terrace Elementary School is filled by Gerald G. Reymore.

1960–1961: Integration completed. Rock Terrace was converted to a high school for Special Education students. Carver becomes the administration building for the Board of Education.

1967: Bannockburn enrolls students bused from Meyer Elementary School in Washington, D.C. Participation is voluntary.

1971: The DC Board of Education ends the Bannockburn-Meyer program.

1976: The following elementary schools are merged: Rosemary Hills with Chevy Chase, North Chevy Chase with Larchmont, and Pine Crest with Montgomery Knolls.

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Timeline of School Integration #6

Nashville, Tennessee



Avon Williams, left, and
Z. Alexander Looby

1954: The U.S. Supreme Court decrees school segregation illegal. Shortly afterward, Nashville attorneys Z. Alexander Looby and Avon Williams ask Nashville's local school boards to integrate schools. The boards decline.

1955: The two attorneys file a lawsuit, *Kelly v. Board of Education*, asking that a black Nashville teen be allowed to attend East High School, which is much closer to his home than all-black Pearl High. The Nashville board declines. The Davidson County School Board—then separate from the Nashville board—issues a statement that it will not arbitrarily delay desegregation, but it warns that “the wrong method of integration would seriously affect discipline and the contentment and happiness of the Negro student.”

1957: Nashville school officials announce they will allow black parents to pick the schools they want their children to attend, but amid protests and fear of injury, only 13 black children show up at all-white schools. After the first day of school, a bomb blows up at Hattie Cotton Elementary, where a black child attends. No one is hurt.

1958: Federal court rejects the voluntary parental choice plan. Nashville school board promises to integrate schools one grade each year, starting with first-graders.

1960: A second lawsuit, *Maxwell v. County Board of Education*, is filed to force integration of the Davidson County school system—a system separate from Nashville's before the onset of the consolidated Metro government of 1963.



Bill Preston / *The Tennessean*

Under the watchful eyes of the Davidson County sheriff, a father leads his two sons into Mt. View Elementary in 1961.

1961: Federal court tells Davidson County schools to catch up with Nashville by integrating grades 1–4.

1967: A decade after the start of desegregation, 50 public schools in the now consolidated school system remain either all White or all Black.

1970: Black plaintiffs tell the federal court that integration has not advanced far since 1957. They cite a recent report that shows 83% of white students in Nashville attend classes that are more than 90% White. The court orders schools to desegregate the teaching staff.

1971: The U.S. Supreme Court approves busing as a means to achieve immediate desegregation. A federal judge orders Nashville schools to bus, with a goal of attaining a 75 to 25 Black-White ratio in most schools, but 33 schools, mostly suburban and mostly White, are excluded from the order. There are angry protests but no violence.

1972: Metro Board of Education asks the U.S. Supreme Court to exempt Nashville from its desegregation order until it exhausts all legal appeals. The high court refuses to hear the plea.

1979: White enrollment drops by 20,000 during the decade of the '70s, as those dissatisfied with public schools enroll in private academies or move elsewhere. A federal judge orders both sides to rethink the agreement governing school integration.

1983: After several tries, a new court agreement ends the previous exemption from integration of 33 mostly white schools. It also relaxes racial ratios so that each school must aim to be within 15 percentage points of the system's overall Black-White ratio.

1992: Newly elected Mayor Phil Bredesen says that “to backslide in desegregation will kill our dreams as a city.” Efforts intensify to bring Blacks and Whites together voluntarily at “magnet” schools offering specialized programs.

1998: After several years of planning and debate, the two sides in the continuing court struggle over desegregation agree to remove Nashville schools from federal court oversight. The court agrees, as a new, five-year set of guidelines called the School Improvement Plan is adopted. It eliminates racial goals while allowing parents more school choice and calling for more schools that will bring students together voluntarily.

2000: Schools begin to show significant signs of resegregation, as parents get more choices to send children to schools closer to home.

2001: The school board hires Pedro Garcia, who vows to improve student test scores at all schools, regardless of their racial makeup.

2003: Responding to requests by black parents who want to send their children to schools closer to home, the school board agrees to expand education programs in the inner city, knowing that it will add to resegregation. At the same time, the system's overall achievement tests show improvement.

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Timeline of School Integration #7

Richmond, Virginia

The information contained in this timeline is based on Dr. Robert A. Pratt's *The Color of Their Skin: Education and Race in Richmond, Virginia 1954–1989* (1992), unless otherwise noted. This timeline includes national events and court cases that influenced the decisions regarding integration in Richmond as well as placing Richmond's reaction to those decisions in a national context.

1896: The U.S. Supreme Court upholds *Plessy v. Ferguson*. This case establishes the precedent of “separate but equal.”

May 3, 1948: Supreme Court rules in *Shelley v. Kraemer* that Blacks can live in all white neighborhoods.

1950: Supreme Court decides in *Sweatt v. Painter* that the University of Texas has to admit Blacks into its law school; National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) decides to sue for desegregation rather than equalization.

April 23–May 7, 1951: In Prince Edward County, Virginia, Moton High School student Barbara Johns organizes a strike against poor school conditions. Four hundred and fifty African-American students participate in the two-week strike.

May 21, 1951: Richmond lawyers Spottswood Robinson and Oliver Hill file a lawsuit (*Davis v. The County School Board of Prince Edward County*) on behalf of one hundred seventeen students from Prince Edward County. This case is one of the five cases included in *Brown v. Board of Education* (see May 17, 1954).

1953: Virginia's State Board of Education presents the highest budget proposal to date (\$40,807,500) to equalize black and white school facilities by the 1954-1955 school year to prevent integration.

May 17, 1954: Supreme Court in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* decision overturns *Plessy v. Ferguson's* “separate but equal” precedent by stating that separate facilities for Blacks and Whites are inherently unequal.

June 26, 1954: Virginia Senator Harry Byrd announces that he will use all legal means to continue segregated schools.

May 31, 1955: Supreme Court issues *Brown v. Board of Education, II*. The Court places responsibility of implementing integration plans on district courts.

November 11, 1955: Virginia General Assembly introduces The Gray Plan, recommending that local school boards be given the right to decide which students would be assigned to which schools, and that money be given to parents to send their children to segregated private schools instead of integrated public schools.

February 24, 1956: The term *massive resistance* is coined by Virginia Senator Harry Byrd.

1956: Virginia General Assembly adopts interposition (The state's right to resist federal laws considered unconstitutional) regarding desegregation issues; the Virginia General Assembly passes a set of laws to avoid integrating Virginia's public schools.

March 5, 1956: Constitutional Convention of 40 Virginia delegates meets in Richmond to amend Virginia's constitution to legalize tuition grants which will delay the integration of Virginia's public schools.

March 12, 1956: 101 members of Congress sign the Southern Manifesto, a public declaration by Southern congressmen of their intentions to resist desegregation.

Summer 1956: NAACP files desegregation lawsuits against school boards in Arlington, Norfolk, Newport News and Charlottesville, Virginia.

August 27, 1956: The Stanley Plan is introduced by the Virginia legislature, which is a collection of 13 acts that were passed to keep schools from integrating.

December 26, 1956: Governor Stanley appoints Hugh V. White (Nanesmond County Superintendent of Schools), Beverly H. Randolph, Jr. (Richmond attorney) and Andrew A. Farley (Vice-president and General Manager of the Register Publishing

Company of Danville) to the newly created Pupil Placement Board, a committee that has the right to decide what school a student attends based on race.

December 29, 1956: Virginia's Pupil Placement Board is officially established. No desegregation occurs before this date.

September 17, 1957: Richmond attorney Oliver Hill gets Judge Sterling Hutcheson to grant an order to temporarily stop the use of the pupil placement plan in Richmond.

1957: In Little Rock, Arkansas, Governor Orval Faubus defies a federal court order to admit nine black students to the all-white Central High School. President Dwight Eisenhower sends federal troops to make certain that the black students are allowed to attend the school. The students become known as the Little Rock Nine.

July 1958: Six black children apply to the Pupil Placement Board for admission to the all-white Nathaniel Bacon and Westhampton elementary schools in Richmond, Virginia.

August 29, 1958: All six applications are denied (See July 1958).

September 2, 1958: Parents of the six children (See July 1958 and August 29, 1958) file a lawsuit (*Warden v. Richmond School Board*) in U.S. District Court.

September 12, 1958: Warren County High School, an all-white school in Front Royal, Virginia, is the first school in Virginia to close under *massive resistance*, the plan to persuade white people to avoid court-ordered desegregation through the passage of state laws.

September 19, 1958: In Charlottesville, Virginia's Lane High School and Venable Elementary School, both all-white schools, close.

January 19, 1959: Virginia Supreme Court of Appeals declares in *Harrison v. Day* that the school closings violate Section 129 of Virginia's State Constitution, which requires the state to "maintain an efficient system of public free schools throughout the State."

January 19, 1959: Norfolk federal court rules in *James v. Almond* that Virginia's school-closing statute violates the 14th Amendment of the U.S. Constitution and is therefore illegal.

February 2, 1959: In Norfolk and Arlington, Virginia, twenty-one black students enter previously all-white schools without any problems. Virginia's era of massive resistance ends.

February 24, 1959: Charlottesville, Virginia's Venable and Lane schools reopen (see September 19, 1958).

September, 1959: Prince Edward County schools in Virginia close to avoid integration.

February 24, 1960: All three members of Virginia's Pupil Placement Board announce their resignation, leaving the Board effective June 1.

March 1, 1960: Virginia's new local option pupil assignment plan goes into effect; Governor Almond appoints three new members of the Pupil Placement Board.

August 15, 1960: New Pupil Placement Board approves the transfer of two black students to all-white Chandler Junior High School beginning September 6, 1960.

September, 1960: Fewer than 170 black students out of the 204,000 black students in Virginia are enrolled in white schools.

1961: Eleven black parents bring a class action suit (*Bradley v. Richmond School Board*) against the Richmond School Board to desegregate the public schools because students are assigned to schools based on "dual attendance zones." (There was a directory that listed all the white schools in one division and all the black ones in another, which was used to make pupil assignments).

July 5, 1961: *Warden v. Richmond School Board* settled (see September 2, 1958.)

July 26, 1962: In *Bradley v. Richmond School Board*, the District Court orders the eleven students to be admitted to the all-white schools they had chosen.

1963: Out of 26,000 blacks in Richmond schools, only 312 are enrolled in 12 white schools.

March 1963: Lawyers win a court order requiring the school board to get rid of the system of dual attendance zones. The Freedom of Choice plan is established, which permits students to request which school they would like to attend.

1964: The Civil Rights Act of 1964 passes.

May 25, 1964: US Supreme Court demands that a law is made that would guarantee public education for black children in Prince Edward County, Virginia.

June 23, 1964: Prince Edward County Board of Supervisors votes to comply with federal courts and reopen as an integrated public school system.

November 15, 1965: Supreme Court rules against Richmond's Freedom of Choice plan because teachers are still segregated.

March/April 1966: District Court approves revised freedom of choice plan that includes integration of faculty assignments. Children can get to school by walking, parents taking them to school or by paying to ride the Virginia Transit Company buses. This plan remains in effect for almost five years.

June 30, 1966: Virginia General Assembly allows the Pupil Placement Board to end.

1968: The Fair Housing Act passes, legally preventing businesses from denying African Americans the choice to rent or own houses in mostly white neighborhoods; U.S. Supreme Court rules in *Green v. County School Board of New Kent County* that the Freedom of Choice concept is illegal because students are choosing to attend racially segregated schools. This ruling places the responsibility of desegregation on local school boards instead of forcing black parents to demand change.

January 1, 1970: Richmond City adds 23 miles of neighboring Chesterfield County (a predominantly white county) to help integrate Richmond City schools.

March 1970: Richmond School Board adopts grade pairing desegregation plan created by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. In Lamar, South Carolina, two school buses transporting students to a newly integrated school are overturned.

June 26, 1970: District Court Judge Robert R. Merhige, Jr. rejects Plan I (pairing plan) because of residential segregation.

August 1970: Both black and white Richmond City school teachers participate in federally funded integration training program.

August 31, 1970: On the first day of school in Richmond City, approximately 5,000 white students are absent; 13,000 out of 50,000 students in the city are bused; Virginia Governor Linwood Holton personally escorts his daughter Tayloe to predominantly black John F. Kennedy High School, the school she was assigned to under Judge Merhige's busing plan.

December 5, 1970: Judge Merhige rules that Henrico and Chesterfield counties, as well as the State Board of Education, have the legal duty of helping Richmond desegregate its schools.

January 1971: Judge Merhige rules that the desegregation level in Richmond Public Schools is poor; students bully Virginia Transit Company bus drivers to obtain free rides.

April 5, 1971: To speed up the desegregation process, Judge Merhige orders mass busing in addition to student and faculty reassignments.

April 12, 1971: The U.S. Supreme Court in *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education* approves the use of extensive busing to promote school desegregation, which upholds Judge Merhige's order of mass busing in Richmond.

September 1971: Black families demand that Richmond City's school system be combined with those of Henrico and Chesterfield counties to prevent "White-flight" to those counties and effectively resegregating city schools.

January 10, 1972: Judge Merhige approves the county-city school merger.

February, 1972: To protest the county-city school merger decision, county residents drive 108 miles from Richmond to Capitol Hill in Washington DC in a 3,261 car motorcade.

June 5, 1972: Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals overturns Judge Merhige's school merger order.

May 21, 1973: The US Supreme Court upholds Circuit Court's decision to overturn school merger.

1977: Supreme Court rules in *Milliken v. Bradley* that school desegregation through school system mergers is illegal.

1978: Plan G is implemented, which prevents the closing of Richmond area high schools by merging the seven schools into three.

April 1986: Judge Merhige approves a neighborhood school plan that ends mass busing.

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Lesson 4

Sixty Years Later

Rationale

The purpose of this lesson is for students to analyze current patterns of school segregation and to consider whether or not the promise of *Brown v. Board of Education* has been fulfilled. They begin by taking a quiz to gauge their sense of “how things are” in schools today and then examine statistical data to verify their responses. Students next review a case study about a school district struggling with resegregation and a proposed plan to address it. They participate in a role play that allows them to apply their own ideas about diversity and desegregation to the case study.

[NOTE: In this lesson, students are asked to discuss their personal feelings about segregation and to participate in a role play that may require them to explore the perspectives of racial and socioeconomic groups different from their own. While the lesson is intended to increase empathy and encourage students to broaden their viewpoints, there is the potential for stereotypical thinking and divisiveness. Before proceeding, consider whether your students are prepared to delve into such sensitive subject matter. You may want to adapt the lesson to create a more structured and safe experience for students, or omit the role play all together if you feel students will not be able to participate in a constructive way.]

During this lesson, it is important to establish ground rules (see [Establishing Ground Rules](#)) and to emphasize respectful ways to express opinions and communicate with others. In addition, students can be provided with opportunities to debrief and process their feelings at various points throughout the lesson if tensions arise or they are feeling unresolved. Wherever possible, small groups should include members of different racial and ethnic backgrounds so that students can learn from one another's experiences rather than work from assumptions that may be overly simplistic or prejudiced. Make sure students understand that the roles created for this activity were kept simple for logistical reasons and reflect broad patterns taken from current demographic data. They do not attempt to capture the varied and complex experiences of all members of any particular group.]

Objectives

- Students will learn about current levels of segregation in U.S. schools.
- Students will analyze charts and graphs in order to better understand the present-day racial, ethnic and socioeconomic composition of U.S. schools.
- Students will relate their historical understanding of *Brown v. Board of Education* and school segregation to current events.
- Students will develop and articulate their personal viewpoints about the issues of diversity and segregation.

Age Range

Grades 9–12

Time

Three class periods or 2 hours 15 minutes

Requirements

Handouts and Resources:

- [Sixty Years After Brown: Are We Living the Dream? Quiz](#) (one for each student)
- [Sixty Years After Brown Answer Key](#) (for teacher reference)
- [School Segregation: Current Trends](#) (2-3 charts for each small group)

Key Words

Achievement gap
Boycott
Busing
Court-order
Demographic
Desegregation
Dominant group
Exposure
Inclusive
Integration
Lawsuit
Magnet school
Majority
Mandatory
Minority
Multiracial
Non-dominant group
Perspective
Protest
Racial ratio
Resegregation
Segregation
Socioeconomic
Substantiate
Trend

- [Lamron County School District Case Study](#) (one for each student)
- [Lamron County School District Community Meeting Roles](#) (one role for each student)

Other Material:

- chart paper, markers

Advanced Preparation

- Reproduce handouts as directed above.
- Make copies of [School Segregation: Current Trends](#) and provide only 2–3 charts from the *Current Trends* to each small group (see Step I #4).
- Cut and separate the [Lamron County School District Community Meeting Roles](#) handout so that each role and accompanying discussion questions are on a separate piece of paper (see Part II #4).

Techniques and Skills

analyzing charts and graphs, case study, cooperative group work, critical thinking, debate, historical understanding, large and small group discussion, reading skills, role play, substantiating factual information

Procedures

Part I

1. Write the following quote on the board or read it aloud:

“And so we must face the tragic fact that we are far from the promised land in the struggle for a desegregated society. Segregation is still a glaring fact in America...”

(from a December 1956 address in New York City by Martin Luther King to the National Committee for Rural Schools, which sought to equalize public education in the rural South)

2. Ask students whether or not they feel that Dr. King’s words still ring true. With regard to public education, has *Brown’s* promise been realized? Have schools been successfully desegregated? Ask students to note ways in which they think school desegregation efforts have been effective and ways in which segregation is still a problem. Challenge them to back up their opinions with evidence from the news or their personal observations.
3. After some discussion, provide students with a copy of [Sixty Years After Brown: Are We Living the Dream? Quiz](#). Let them know that this true/false quiz asks for their opinions on the state of segregation in schools today. Emphasize that they are not expected to know the answers, but rather to indicate their beliefs or their sense of how things are today in U.S. schools. Divide students into groups of 4–5 students each. Explain to students, as a group, they are to go through each question and discuss their belief about whether it is true or false and why, using information and experiences to support their position.
4. After students have had sufficient time to complete the quiz, provide each group with two or three pages from [School Segregation: Current Trends](#). Explain that this collection of charts and graphs presents current demographic data related to the racial, ethnic and socioeconomic composition of schools and patterns of school segregation and desegregation. Make sure each group has no more than two or three graphs/charts to study so that the information does not become overwhelming. Tell students that they will be examining the handouts in order to learn more about the state of segregation in schools today, and to find the answers to the quiz they took earlier.
5. After about ten minutes, reconvene the class and review the quiz one item at a time. For each item, ask if anyone found information to substantiate a true or false response. Use the [answer key](#) to fill in any missing facts and to extend the discussion.
6. Conclude by asking students what facts were most troubling or surprising to them, and by restating the questions posed at the lesson’s outset: Has *Brown’s* promise been realized? Have schools been successfully desegregated?

Part II

1. Now that students have some understanding about the resegregation that is taking place in schools today, engage them in a discussion about what they feel the societal response should be. Use some of the following questions to frame your discussion.
 - Are diversity and integration goals still worth striving for? Why or why not?
 - Is it important for public schools in a democracy to be diverse? Why or why not?
 - What are the benefits of diversity for both “majority” and “minority” groups?
 - Do you think that diverse schools affect students’ achievement and/or future opportunities?
 - Do you think that diverse schools lead to improved relations among people from different groups?
 - If you think integration is an important goal, what is the best way to accomplish it?
 - Should desegregation be an option or a requirement for local schools?
 - Should students be required to attend certain schools in order to achieve racial balance?
2. Inform students that they will be participating in a role play that will allow them to apply their ideas about diversity and desegregation to a case study. Distribute copies of [Lamron County School District Case Study](#) and explain that it is a fictionalized account of a school district struggling with the problem of resegregation and a proposed plan to address it. Note that although the situation in the case study is made up, it is based on very real events that have taken place in a variety of communities in recent years. Read the case study together as a class or have students read it to themselves, and answer any questions students may have.
3. Next divide the class into small groups of 3–4 students. Explain that each group will play the role of one of the community members listed below. Depending on the number of students participating, certain roles may be omitted or assigned to more than one group.
 - Student of Color
 - White Student
 - Parent of Color
 - White Parent
 - City Hall Representative
 - School Official
 - Community/Youth Group Representative

Explain that, in the role play, the community members will be preparing for an upcoming meeting where local residents will be able to express their support and/or concerns about the proposed diversity plan to school officials. Each group will take the perspective of their assigned community member and brainstorm the opinions, feelings, and concerns that they think such a person might express.

4. Assign each group a role and provide students with the appropriate section of the handout, [Community Meeting Roles](#), which provides a brief synopsis of each role and some questions to consider. Encourage students to take notes and record key points as they discuss the case study.
5. After groups have prepared their ideas, gather the class and conduct the mock “community meeting.” The teacher’s role should be that of moderator, setting the stage and the rules for discussion. One way to conduct the meeting is to ask each group to make a brief statement indicating approval or disapproval for the plan with supporting reasons. Another approach is to facilitate an open discussion in which “community members” express viewpoints and debate the issues in a free-style fashion. To conclude the meeting, students may wish to participate in a mock vote on the plan (either in their roles and/or as themselves) in order to learn where the class as a whole stands.

VARIATION

If there is time and interest, this activity can be approached as a longer term project. Students can prepare for their roles over the course of several days or weeks by researching and reading current news articles, interviewing family and community members, and studying the statistics included in this lesson more thoroughly. The following Web sites offer useful news and reports on the issue of desegregation:

- School Desegregation and Equal Education Opportunity (The Leadership Conference, www.civilrights.org/resources/civilrights101/desegregation.html)
 - Desegregation (*Education Week*, www.edweek.org/ew/issues/desegregation/)
 - *Brown v. Board*: Equity and Opportunity for All (National Education Association, www.nea.org/brownvboard/)
-

Sixty Years After *Brown*: Are We Living the Dream? Quiz

DIRECTIONS: Over sixty years after the historic *Brown v. Board of Education* decision, how successful do you think U.S. schools have been in achieving integration? Read the following statements and indicate whether you think the statement is true or false by placing a T for true or an F for false on the line before each statement.

- _____ 1. The most segregated group in the nation's public schools is white students.
- _____ 2. The percentage of black southern students in majority white schools has been decreasing since the early 1990s.
- _____ 3. The three most integrated states for black students are New York, California and Massachusetts.
- _____ 4. There are more students of color than white students in our public schools.
- _____ 5. The Southern states have the highest percentage of black students in predominately minority schools.
- _____ 6. More than half of students in predominately minority schools are in schools that also have high poverty rates.
- _____ 7. The most segregated states for Latino students are New York, California and Texas.
- _____ 8. Research has shown that desegregation has a positive impact on student achievement.
- _____ 9. Desegregation efforts in U.S. schools have not worked and have only led to increased racial separation.

Sixty Years After *Brown*: Are We Living the Dream?

Answer Key

1. The most segregated group in the nation's public schools is white students.

TRUE. While white students are attending schools with slightly more students of color than in the past, they remain the most isolated of all racial groups. The average white student attends a school where 72.5% of the student enrollment is white. (Table 1)

2. The percentage of black southern students in majority white schools has been decreasing since the early 1990s.

TRUE. At its peak of integration in 1988, 44% of black southern students were in majority-white schools, the kind of schools that provided strong potential opportunities for diverse learning experiences. By 2011, that number had declined to 23%, a drop by nearly half, and the decline has accelerated in recent years. The percentage of students in majority white schools is lower than it was in 1968. (Table 2)

3. The three most integrated states for black students are New York, California and Massachusetts.

FALSE. The three most integrated states for black students are West Virginia, where 92.6% of black students are in majority white schools; Iowa, 67.7% in majority white schools and Kentucky, 61.1% in majority white schools. Those same three states have the lowest percentage of students in 90-100% minority schools: 0.0% for West Virginia, 2.4% for Kentucky and 2.4% for Iowa. (Table 3)

4. There are more students of color than white students in our public schools.

FALSE, but barely. White students make up 51.5% of public school students. Combined together, students of color make up 48.4% (15.4% black, 5.1% Asian, 24.3% Latino, 1.1% Native American, 2.5% multiracial) of the public school population. And because in 2011, for the first time more children of color were born than white children, that will shift the overall percentages in school soon. (Table 4)

5. The Southern states have the highest percentage of black students in predominately minority schools.

FALSE. Of all the regions, the Southern states have the lowest percentage of black students in predominately minority schools (34.2%). The Northeast region has the highest percentage of black students in schools with 90-100% minority students (51.4%). (Table 5)

6. More than half of students in predominately minority schools are in schools that also have high poverty rates.

TRUE. In schools that are 81-100% black and Latino, over three-quarters of the students are also enrolled in schools where more than 70% of the students live in poverty. And half of students in 91-100% black and Latino schools are in schools that also have more than 90% low-income students. These figures represent extreme overlaps of poverty and racial concentration and help to explain why schools with high concentrations of black and Latino students often have fewer educational resources and lower student outcomes. (Table 6)

7. The most segregated states for Latino students are New York, California and Texas.

TRUE. In these states, the percentage of Latino students in schools that are 90-100% minority is the highest of all states (New York, 56.7; California, 55.4% and Texas 53.5) and Latino exposure to white students is lowest in these states (California, 15.9%; Texas 18% and New York 20.5%). (Table 7)

8. Research has shown that desegregation has a positive impact on student achievement.

TRUE. Studies have shown that desegregation is associated with enhanced learning, higher educational and career goals and positive social interaction among members of different races. During the era of desegregation, the graduation rate for students of color increased and the gap between white and minority test scores grew smaller, even as poverty and unemployment worsened during the same period. The achievement gap has widened again throughout the 1990s, however, as segregation has increased.

9. Desegregation efforts in U.S. schools have not worked and have only led to increased racial separation.

FALSE. During the years that it was enforced, desegregation plans were successful in bringing students from different racial groups together. By 1981 every U.S. school system was less segregated than before desegregation was ordered. In addition, districts with the most extensive desegregation orders have shown the highest levels of long-term desegregation and some of the lowest levels of white flight. However, there have been significant increases in segregation as states have discontinued their plans in the past ten to fifteen years due to the Supreme Court authorizing termination of desegregation plans.

Reference

Orfield, Gary, and Frankenberg, Erica. 2014. "Brown at 60: Great Progress, a Long Retreat and an Uncertain Future." Los Angeles, CA: The Civil Rights Project. <http://civilrightsproject.ucla.edu/research/k-12-education/integration-and-diversity/brown-at-60-great-progress-a-long-retreat-and-an-uncertain-future/Brown-at-60-051814.pdf>.

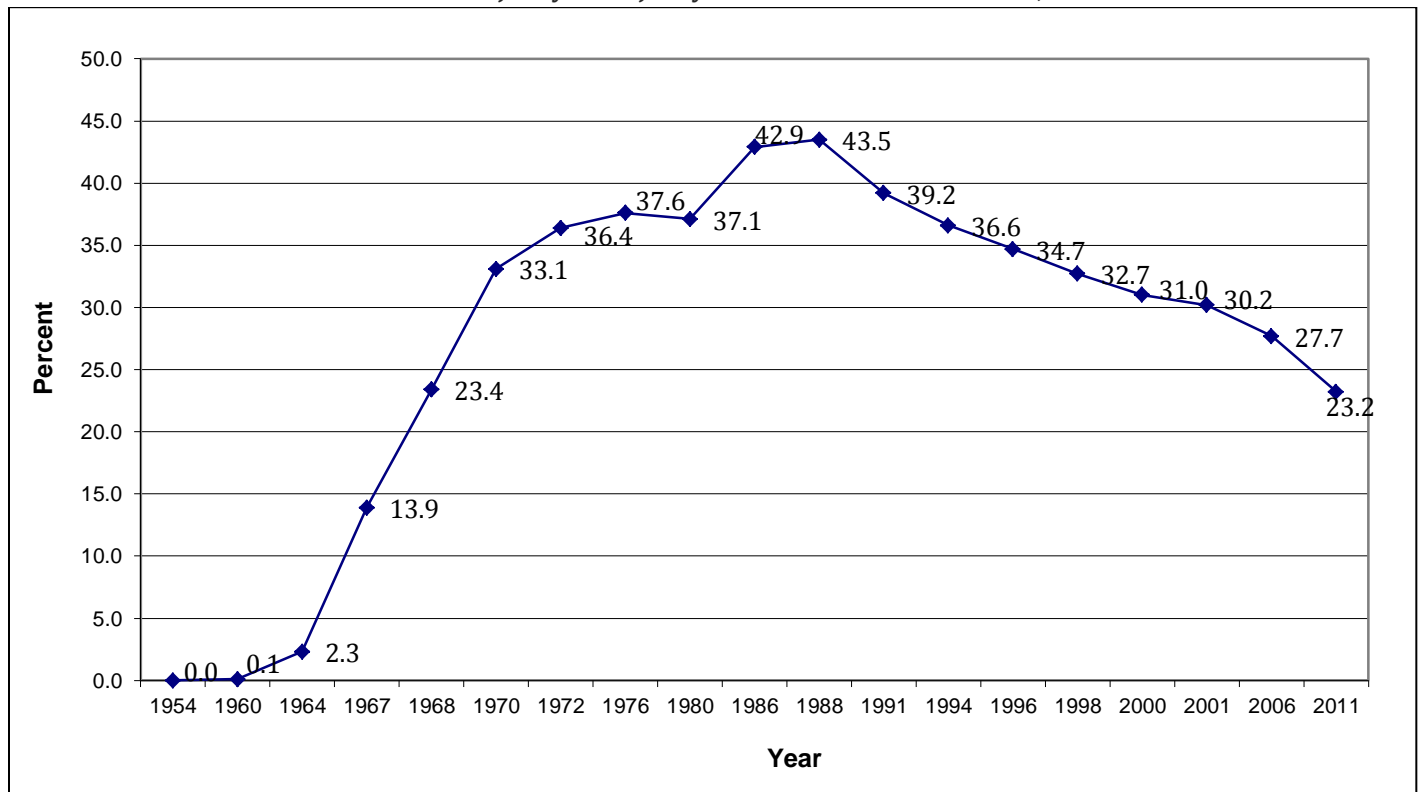
School Segregation: Current Trends

Table 1. Racial Composition of Schools Attended by the Average Student of Each Race, 2011-12

| Percent Race in Each School | White Student | Black Student | Asian Student | Latino Student |
|-----------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|
| % White | 72.5% | 27.6% | 38.9% | 25.1% |
| % Black | 8.3% | 48.8% | 10.7% | 10.9% |
| % Asian | 3.9% | 3.6% | 24.5% | 4.7% |
| % Latino | 11.8% | 17.1% | 22.1% | 56.8% |
| % Other* | 3.5% | 2.9% | 3.8% | 2.5% |

*Other represents students who identified as Native American or Multiracial.

Table 2. Percent of Black Students in Majority in Majority White Schools in the South, 2011-12



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey Data, 2011-12.

Reprinted with permission from Gary Orfield and Erica Frankbeng, "Brown at 60: Great Progress, a Long Retreat and an Uncertain Future" (Los Angeles: The Civil Rights Project, 2014), <http://civilrightsproject.ucla.edu>.

School Segregation: Current Trends

Table 3. Most Integrated States for Black Students, 2011–12

| Rank | % Black in Majority White Schools | | % Black in 90-100% Minority Schools | | Black Exposure to White Students | |
|------|-----------------------------------|------|-------------------------------------|------|----------------------------------|------|
| 1 | West Virginia | 92.6 | West Virginia | 0.0 | West Virginia | 76.9 |
| 2 | Iowa | 67.7 | Kentucky | 2.4 | Iowa | 59.7 |
| 3 | Kentucky | 61.1 | Iowa | 2.4 | Kentucky | 55.5 |
| 4 | Minnesota | 47.2 | Kansas | 7.8 | Kansas | 44.4 |
| 5 | Kansas | 42.7 | Nebraska | 11.8 | Minnesota | 44.2 |
| 6 | Nebraska | 36.6 | Delaware | 13.4 | Nebraska | 42.3 |
| 7 | Delaware | 35.9 | Oklahoma | 14.5 | Delaware | 40.1 |
| 8 | Missouri | 34.4 | Virginia | 16.7 | South Carolina | 37.3 |
| 9 | South Carolina | 33.5 | Minnesota | 17.2 | Oklahoma | 37.2 |
| 10 | Arizona | 32.3 | South Carolina | 18.2 | Massachusetts | 35.8 |
| 11 | Alabama | 31.5 | North Carolina | 19.6 | Arizona | 35.8 |
| 12 | Rhode Island | 31.4 | Nevada | 19.7 | Rhode Island | 35.3 |
| 13 | Massachusetts | 30.8 | Arizona | 20.8 | Virginia | 35.2 |
| 14 | Oklahoma | 30.4 | Rhode Island | 24.2 | North Carolina | 34.1 |
| 15 | Arkansas | 29.7 | Massachusetts | 25.4 | Arkansas | 33.9 |
| 16 | Virginia | 28.9 | Arkansas | 26.8 | Indiana | 33.4 |
| 17 | Louisiana | 28.6 | Indiana | 27.4 | Missouri | 32.8 |
| 18 | Wisconsin | 28.2 | Louisiana | 29.6 | Louisiana | 31.2 |
| 19 | Pennsylvania | 28.1 | Connecticut | 29.8 | Ohio | 30.6 |

Table 4. Public School Enrollment by Race/Ethnicity and Region, 2011–12

| Region | Total Enrollment | % White | % Black | % Asian | % Latino | % Native American | % Multiracial |
|-------------------|-------------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|-------------------|---------------|
| South | 5,957,201 | 44.7% | 24.1% | 3.1% | 25.3% | 0.5% | 2.3% |
| West | 11,310,045 | 40.2% | 5.3% | 8.3% | 41.4% | 1.7% | 3.1% |
| Northeast | 7,731,000 | 60.1% | 14.4% | 6.4% | 17.3% | 0.3% | 1.4% |
| Border | 3,548,325 | 63.7% | 19.1% | 2.8% | 8.2% | 3.4% | 2.8% |
| Midwest | 9,451,340 | 68.1% | 13.5% | 3.1% | 11.2% | 0.9% | 3.1% |
| Alaska | 113,093 | 48.2% | 3.7% | 8.7% | 6.4% | 25.3% | 7.6% |
| Hawaii | 182,529 | 14.3% | 2.4% | 68.1% | 6.4% | 0.5% | 8.2% |
| Other | 489,846 | 0.2% | 2.5% | 8.4% | 88.6% | 0.1% | 0.2% |
| U.S. Total | 48,783,379 | 51.5% | 15.4% | 5.1% | 24.3% | 1.1% | 2.5% |

Note: Regions are defined as follows: **South** - Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas and Virginia; **West** - Arizona, California, Colorado, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington and Wyoming; **Northeast** - Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island and Vermont; **Border** - Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, Missouri, Oklahoma and West Virginia; **Midwest** - Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota and Wisconsin.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey Data, 2011-12.

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School Segregation: Current Trends

Table 5. Percentage of Black Students in 90-100% Minority Schools, 1968, 1988, 1991, 2001 and 2011

| Region | 1968 | 1988 | 1991 | 2001 | 2011 |
|-----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| South | 77.8% | 24.0% | 26.1% | 31.0% | 34.2% |
| Border | 60.2% | 34.5% | 34.5% | 41.6% | 41.0% |
| Northeast | 42.7% | 48.0% | 49.8% | 51.2% | 51.4% |
| Midwest | 58.0% | 41.8% | 39.9% | 46.8% | 43.2% |
| West | 50.8% | 28.6% | 26.6% | 30.0% | 34.4% |

Note: Regions are defined as follows: **South** - Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas and Virginia; **West** - Arizona, California, Colorado, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington and Wyoming; **Northeast** - Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island and Vermont; **Border** - Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, Missouri, Oklahoma and West Virginia; **Midwest** - Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota and Wisconsin.

Table 6. Relationship Between Segregation by Race and by Poverty, 2011-12

| Percent Black and Latino Students in Schools | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| % Poor in Schools | 0-10% | 10-20% | 21-30% | 31-40% | 41-50% | 51-60% | 61-70% | 71-80% | 81-90% | 91-100% |
| 0-10 | 11.4 | 10.0 | 3.6 | 1.9 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.1 | 2.9 | 2.1 | 2.2 |
| 11-20 | 11.8 | 16.2 | 11.3 | 4.2 | 2.8 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.3 |
| 21-30 | 13.4 | 14.7 | 14.4 | 10.1 | 5.2 | 3.7 | 2.5 | 2.2 | 1.7 | 1.5 |
| 31-40 | 16.1 | 15.0 | 15.2 | 14.8 | 10.7 | 7.2 | 4.8 | 2.7 | 2.2 | 1.8 |
| 41-50 | 16.3 | 14.3 | 15.5 | 16.5 | 15.1 | 12.7 | 8.6 | 4.9 | 3.0 | 2.4 |
| 51-60 | 13.4 | 12.7 | 14.9 | 17.1 | 16.7 | 16.9 | 13.4 | 8.0 | 4.6 | 3.5 |
| 61-70 | 9.0 | 9.3 | 12.5 | 15.7 | 19.1 | 17.8 | 18.5 | 15.5 | 9.2 | 5.4 |
| 71-80 | 4.7 | 4.7 | 7.7 | 11.3 | 16.0 | 18.8 | 20.8 | 22.0 | 18.3 | 10.5 |
| 81-90 | 2.0 | 1.9 | 3.4 | 5.7 | 8.7 | 13.2 | 17.5 | 23.2 | 29.3 | 20.6 |
| 91-100 | 1.9 | 1.2 | 1.5 | 2.6 | 3.4 | 5.6 | 10.0 | 17.0 | 28.0 | 50.8 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| % of U.S. Schools | 33.2 | 13.9 | 9 | 6.9 | 5.9 | 4.9 | 4.4 | 4.2 | 5 | 12.7 |

Note: Excluded schools with 0% free and reduced lunch (FRL) students.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey Data, 2011-12.

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School Segregation: Current Trends

Table 7. Most Segregated States for Latino Students, 2011-12

| Rank | % Latino in Majority White Schools | | % Latino in 90-100% Minority Schools | | Latino Exposure to White Students | |
|------|------------------------------------|-------|--------------------------------------|-------|-----------------------------------|-------|
| 1 | New Mexico | 6.0% | New York | 56.7% | California | 15.9% |
| 2 | California | 7.8% | California | 55.4% | Texas | 18.0% |
| 3 | Texas | 11.0% | Texas | 53.5% | New York | 20.5% |
| 4 | New York | 16.5% | Illinois | 45.9% | New Mexico | 21.2% |
| 5 | Nevada | 17.2% | New Jersey | 42.8% | Illinois | 26.0% |
| 6 | Maryland | 21.3% | Rhode Island | 39.8% | New Jersey | 26.4% |
| 7 | Arizona | 21.4% | Arizona | 39.4% | Arizona | 26.6% |
| 8 | New Jersey | 22.3% | Maryland | 37.9% | Nevada | 26.7% |
| 9 | Florida | 22.7% | New Mexico | 34.5% | Maryland | 27.1% |
| 10 | Illinois | 22.9% | Florida | 30.1% | Rhode Island | 28.0% |
| 11 | Rhode Island | 23.6% | Pennsylvania | 29.5% | Florida | 29.0% |
| 12 | Connecticut | 25.8% | Massachusetts | 29.2% | Georgia | 34.6% |
| 13 | Massachusetts | 30.9% | Georgia | 27.7% | Connecticut | 35.1% |
| 14 | Georgia | 31.3% | Nevada | 22.7% | Massachusetts | 35.1% |
| 15 | Delaware | 33.7% | Connecticut | 21.7% | Colorado | 38.2% |
| 16 | Virginia | 35.3% | Colorado | 18.4% | Pennsylvania | 39.2% |
| 17 | Colorado | 36.0% | Washington | 14.6% | Oklahoma | 39.9% |
| 18 | Oklahoma | 37.4% | Wisconsin | 13.8% | Delaware | 40.2% |
| 19 | Pennsylvania | 39.4% | North Carolina | 13.5% | Virginia | 40.3% |
| 20 | North Carolina | 40.7% | Michigan | 12.7% | North Carolina | 42.6% |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey Data, 2011-12.

Reprinted with permission from Gary Orfield and Erica Frankbeng, "Brown at 60: Great Progress, a Long Retreat and an Uncertain Future" (Los Angeles: The Civil Rights Project, 2014), <http://civilrightsproject.ucla.edu>.

Lamron Country School District Case Study

Lamron County is a suburb of a medium sized Mid-Western city. In the 1800s, Lamron was a prosperous town due to the many grain and lumber mills built along its Central River. However, the development of new technologies and the Great Depression of the 1930s left the mill town depressed throughout the mid-1900s. Over the past thirty years, due to overcrowding in the neighboring city, many businesses and residents have gradually moved out to Lamron and a successful computer technology industry has taken hold. Today the county is a mixture of working class and professional people from diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds. Most recently, a small but growing community of Pakistani immigrants has made Lamron their home.

The 15,000-student Lamron school district has fifteen elementary schools, six middle schools, and three high schools. Roughly 70% of the district's students are White, 13% are African American, 11% are Latina/o, 4% are Asian, and the remaining 2% are multiracial or Native American. In the 1970s and 1980s, Lamron schools were part of a court-ordered desegregation plan, which required black and Latina/o students from the city to be bused into town. Many Lamron students (mostly white) were transferred out of their neighborhood schools in order to accommodate the new students and create racial balance. Though most of the community expressed their approval for diverse schools, they responded negatively to forced busing. Protests and school boycotts led eventually to a lawsuit, and in 1992 court-ordered desegregation in Lamron was ended.

Despite the opposition to forced busing and transfers, Lamron was successful in desegregating its schools. By 1988 no school was more than 60% White, and the few mostly minority (and mostly poor) schools that once existed were multiracial. Between 1975 and 1990, the achievement gap—or difference in test scores between white students and black and Latina/o students became smaller and graduation rates for all students increased. However, following the end of mandatory desegregation, these trends slowed down and even started to reverse. Once city residents were no longer required to bus their children to the suburbs, most chose to return to local schools. The majority of Lamron families also went back to neighborhood schools rather than remaining in more diverse schools that were farther from their homes.

Today, Lamron schools are quickly resegregating. Two of the district's three high schools are more than 80 percent White. The third high school, in addition to being mostly Black and Latina/o, has more than twice the number of poor students. In addition, the shrinking achievement gap of the 1980s has started to grow again and there have been several racially motivated incidents involving local teenagers. The most recent clash occurred after several Pakistani students found graffiti on their lockers branding them terrorists.

In response to these trends, the Lamron District School Board has proposed a new plan. According to the proposal, district lines will be redrawn to create three racially balanced attendance zones, each with five elementary schools, two middle schools, and one high school. Students will be guaranteed a spot at a school in their attendance zone, but not necessarily their local neighborhood school. Under the plan, students may voluntarily transfer out of their assigned neighborhood schools if the transfers would improve or have a neutral effect on racial balance, but transfers that would worsen racial balance are prohibited. In addition, the long-term plan calls for creating several new magnet schools, which would offer smaller class sizes and special programming that would encourage diverse enrollment. Attendance at these schools will be voluntary and the schools will maintain strict racial ratios of no more than 60 percent white students and no more than 40 percent students of color.

Lamron residents have had strong reactions to the plan. Some families have praised the effort to create inclusive schools and to overcome the barriers that divide local communities. Others have threatened to boycott the schools if their children are forced to leave local neighborhoods. Some residents feel that racially and economically diverse schools are the only way to achieve equal opportunity. Others feel that desegregation doesn't work and that the answer is to put more resources into schools with minority and poor students. A series of community meetings have been scheduled so that local residents can learn more about the plan and express their concerns to school officials. A vote on the plan is expected before the end of the current school year.

Lamron Country School District Community Meeting Roles



Student of Color

You are a student of color at Lamron Central High School, which is 90% Black and Latina/o and has more than twice the number of poor students as the other two district high schools. If the proposed plan is passed, it is likely that you will be transferred to a school in another part of town that will require you to take a bus. There would be fewer students from your neighborhood in the new school—and fewer students of color overall—but you have heard that the new school has a brand new computer lab, better athletic facilities, and a greater number of students who go on to college.

Questions to Consider:

- What value, if any, do you place on remaining in your neighborhood and going to school with friends and peers from your own background?
- Do you think that the school system has the right to require you to attend a school outside your neighborhood in the name of diversity?
- Do you think integrated schools are worth striving for?
- Do you think that going to a more racially diverse school will make a difference in your grades and your opportunities for the future?
- Do you think that going to a racially diverse school will have any negative consequences?



White Student

You are a white student at Lamron Community High School, which is over 80% White and mostly middle and upper-middle class. If the proposed plan is passed, it is possible that you will be transferred to a school in another part of town that is not within walking distance. Whether you get transferred or not, your school will have at least twice the number of students of color as it does now, and a greater number of students from working class and poor families.

Questions to Consider:

- What value, if any, do you place on remaining in your neighborhood and going to school with friends and peers from your own background?
- Do you think that the school system has the right to require you to attend a school outside your neighborhood in the name of diversity?
- Do you think integrated schools are worth striving for?
- Do you think that going to a more racially diverse school will benefit you in any ways?
- Do you think that going to a racially diverse school will have any negative consequences?



Parent/Person of Color

You are a person of color with children at Lamron Central High School, which is 90% Black and Latina/o and has more than twice the number of poor students as the other two district high schools. While you like many of the teachers there, you have been frustrated by the overcrowded classes and outdated textbooks. If the proposed plan is passed, it is likely that your children will be transferred to a school in another part of town that will require them to take a bus. There would be fewer students from your neighborhood in the new school—and fewer students of color overall—but you have heard that the new school has a brand new computer lab, better athletic facilities, and a greater number of students who go on to college.

Questions to Consider:

- What value, if any, do you place on keeping your children in the neighborhood and sending them to school with people from their own background?
- Do you think that the school system has the right to require your children to attend a school outside your neighborhood in the name of diversity?
- Do you think integrated schools are worth striving for?
- Do you think that going to a more racially diverse school will make a difference in your children's grades and opportunities for the future?
- Do you think that going to a racially diverse school will have any negative consequences for your children?
- What are your greatest hopes and fears for your children and how does this new plan affect them?



White Parent

You are White and the parent of students at Lamron Community High School, which is over 80% White and mostly middle and upper-middle class. If the proposed plan is passed, it is possible that your children will be transferred to a school in another part of town that is not within walking distance. Whether or not they get transferred, your children's school will have at least twice the number of students of color as it does now, and a greater number of students from working class and poor families.

Questions to Consider:

- What value, if any, do you place on keeping your children in the neighborhood and sending them to school with people from their own background?
- Do you think that the school system has the right to require your children to attend a school outside your neighborhood in the name of diversity?
- Do you think integrated schools are worth striving for?
- Do you think that going to a more racially diverse school will benefit your children in any ways?
- Do you think that going to a racially diverse school will have any negative consequences? What are your greatest hopes and fears for your children and how does this new plan affect them?

Government Official

You are an official from the local government that represents the interests of Lamron County. You remember the desegregation efforts of the 1970s and 1980s, and all of the protests and violence that came with it. However, you are very concerned about the increasing segregation in Lamron and the racial mistrust that seems to be growing. You want to make sure that all students in Lamron have an equal opportunity to succeed, but you also want to maintain order and ensure that most of the voters approve of your actions.

Questions to Consider:

- Do you think that the proposed plan will ultimately promote increased understanding and better race relations in the community?
- Do you think the plan will lead to violence or increased racial tension?
- Do you think the plan will provide opportunity for Lamron's less privileged students?
- How is this plan different than the desegregation efforts of the 1970s and 1980s?
- Will it be more successful?
- How will supporting this plan help or hurt your reelection campaign?
- Are integrated schools worth striving for?



School Official

You are a local school official that represents the interests of the superintendent's office. You are concerned about the trend toward resegregation in Lamron schools, the increase in the number of racially motivated bias incidents, and the widening gap in test scores between white students and students of color. You want to put a plan in place that ensures the success of the greatest number of students and the least conflict among local parents.

Questions to Consider:

- Do you think the plan will ultimately reduce racial incidents or increase racial tension?
- Do you think the plan will provide increased opportunity for Lamron's less privileged students?
- In what ways do you think the plan will benefit white, middle-class students?
- How will this plan be more successful than the desegregation efforts of the 1970s and 1980s?
- Is this plan worth the unrest it might stir among local parents and the media?
- Are integrated schools worth striving for?



Community/Youth Group Representative

You represent members of local community groups concerned with youth issues, such as the YMCA and the Boys & Girls Clubs of America. You are troubled by the increase in segregation over the past years and the growing number of racially motivated bias incidents in the community. You are also aware of the greater levels of poverty that exist at most segregated minority schools and the limited opportunity for students at these schools. You want to make sure that all students in Lamron have an equal chance to succeed, and that poor students and students of color are provided with the resources they need to thrive.

Questions to Consider:

- Do you think that the proposed plan will ultimately promote increased understanding and better race relations in the community?
- Do you think the plan will lead to violence or increased racial tension?
- Do you think the plan will provide opportunity for Lamron's less privileged students?
- Are integrated schools worth striving for?

Lesson 5

Bringing It Home

Rationale

The purpose of this lesson is for students to consider the issue of segregation as it applies to their own school and social experiences. Students research local demographics and explore patterns of segregation and integration in their school and community. In addition, they reflect upon their own experiences with social boundaries and hierarchies, examine the personal and institutional benefits of engaging in social action and identify concrete ways to create positive change in their schools.

Objectives

- Students will consider the issues of segregation and diversity as they relate to their own school.
- Students will research and analyze demographic data about their school and community.
- Students will reflect upon their personal experiences with segregation and social boundaries at school.
- Students will examine benefits of engaging in social action.
- Students will identify ways to create concrete change in their school.

Age Range

Grades 9–12

Time

Two-three class periods or 1 hour 30 minutes – 2 hours 15 minutes

Requirements

Handouts and Resources:

- [How Diverse is Your School Community?](#) (for teacher reference only)
- [Don't Talk to Her](#) (one for each student)
- [How to Mix It Up](#) (one for each student)

Other Material:

- chart paper, markers, local demographic data (optional)

Advanced Preparation

- Reproduce handouts as directed above.

Techniques and Skills

collecting and analyzing data, cooperative group work, critical thinking, forming opinions, large and small group discussion, reading skills, research skills, social action

Procedures

Part I

1. Post a sheet of paper with the word “AGREE” written in large print on one wall of the classroom and another with the word “DISAGREE” on the opposite wall. Let students know that they are going to form a human barometer. (Make sure they understand that the word barometer refers to both an instrument for determining air pressure and for measuring changes, such as in public opinion).

Key Words

Barometer
Border
Boundary
Clique
Demographic
Desegregation
Inequality
Integration
Segregation
Social justice

2. Tell students that you will be reading several statements aloud, and that they should move to the end of the room that best reflects their opinions about each statement—“AGREE”, “DISAGREE”, or somewhere in between. Instruct students that, during this part of the activity, they should move about silently and hold all questions and comments until all of the statements have been read. If it is not possible for students to physically move around the room, have them respond to the statements by raising an improvised sign or by clapping for their desired response.
3. Read the following statements, one at a time, allowing enough time for students to position themselves on the “barometer.” Encourage students to look around and notice the diversity of opinion among their classmates for each statement.
 - Our school district has no problem with segregation.
 - Our particular school has a diverse student population.
 - In our school, all students have an equal opportunity to succeed.
 - Students from different backgrounds can be found in most classes and school activities.
 - Students from different backgrounds regularly socialize with each other at school.
 - I feel comfortable socializing with students from different racial or ethnic groups at school.

After you have read the statements, allow some time for students to process the activity. Ask what they noticed about their peers’ responses. Which statements generated the most agreement? Which yielded the least agreement? What might account for the disparity in opinions or experiences? Which items raised the most conflicts or questions for students? How can they learn more in order to clarify some of the differences in perspective or questions that arose?

Part II

[NOTE: This part of the lesson requires the collection of demographic data about your school and district. If it is not feasible to gather and/or openly discuss such information in your particular school, skip this part of the lesson and proceed to Part III below.]

1. Suggest to students that one way to learn more about the issue of segregation in their school and district is to research the numbers. If possible, help students to learn where they can find local demographic information and assign them various facts to collect (see [How Diverse is Your School Community?](#) for suggestions). Alternatively, you can gather this information in advance and provide your students with an overview.
2. Once the data has been collected, spend some time in class discussing any trends or patterns that emerge. Help students to see how the racial, ethnic and class composition of your school compares to other local schools, the district overall, and the community in which they live. If students have participated in Lesson 4, compare your school’s numbers with national data from the handout, [School Segregation: Current Trends](#).
3. Discuss the ways in which housing segregation and other factors may contribute to demographic patterns at your school. Encourage students to reflect on whether or not they believe that segregation is a problem in their school and community and what, if anything, should be done about it.

Part III

1. Suggest to students that the issues of segregation and diversity may seem overwhelming and something over which they have no control. While the biggest problems may be for politicians to solve, however, there are ways in which individuals can make an impact.
2. Distribute copies of [Don’t Talk to Her](#), which is an essay written by a middle school student struggling with the growing social boundaries that divide his friends into separate cliques. Read the story together as a class or have students read it to themselves. In small groups or as a whole class, discuss some of the following questions:
 - As the author reflects on the cliques that exist at his school, he asks, “When did these boundaries go up around me?” Have you noticed such boundaries at your school? When and why do you think they surfaced?

- The author notes that his school cafeteria is divided into “Rockers, African Americans, Hispanics, and the Popular Kids.” What “crowds” exist at your school? Do students socialize across these groups? What encourages or discourages them from doing so?
 - The author says that “social boundaries are a way to avoid the things we are afraid of, things we may not understand about others.” Do you agree? What differences keep people in your school apart?
 - The author wonders how he can look beyond appearances when it's the main focus of everyone around him. What can individuals do to get beyond appearances and change some of the negative social patterns that exist at school?
3. Focus with students on the last question above. Challenge students to identify the benefits of moving beyond appearances and the ways they can bridge the social boundaries that exist at school.
 4. In small groups or as a whole class, have students share their ideas for concrete ways to de-emphasize cliques and encourage socialization across groups. Record their ideas on chart paper so that they can be discussed and put into action over time. Share information with the class about one or more of the model programs below. Engage the class in planning an action or solicit a small group of volunteers who are interested in working with you to create change in your school.

Model Programs:

[Mix It Up](#) is a project that challenges students to move beyond artificial labels and exclusive cliques by socializing with students from a variety of groups and backgrounds. Every year on *Mix It Up at Lunch Day*, hundreds of thousands of students across the country sit in the cafeteria with students from different groups and backgrounds as a way to diminish social boundaries and stimulate ongoing dialogue about this issue. More information and the date of the next *Mix It Up Day* can be found on the project Web site, but students don't have to wait to get started. The handout, [How to Mix It Up](#), provides students with action steps for planning their own *Mix It Up* event at school, including how to organize, publicize, and follow up on their *Mix It Up Day*.

[Border Crossers](#) brings together young students from segregated neighborhoods to explore issues of discrimination, inequality and social justice, and develop student leadership toward lasting social change. Students meet monthly to read literature, have discussions and play games that explore segregation and racism. They also examine the real and artificial borders that exist on maps and that separate people based on their differences. Students select people or groups who have been the targets of discrimination and initiate social action projects that involve other students, parents and their school communities. They design and facilitate presentations that bring family, friends and community members together to learn more about “crossing borders.”

How Diverse is Your School Community?

There's a lot of talk these days about diversity in schools, but how aware are you of your school's particular makeup? Do you know which racial, ethnic and class groups are most and least represented in your school? Do you know how these numbers compare to other schools in your district or to your community as a whole?

- 1. Consult one or more of the following sources in order to research your school's demographics—the characteristics of the people who go there.**
 - Your school and district Web sites
 - The administrative staff at your school or district office
 - Your town's city hall or public records office
 - A local newspaper
 - The reference section of your public library

- 2. Once you know where to locate the information you need, work with your teacher to identify one or more of the following items to research.**
 - The total number of students in your school and district
 - The percentage of students in your school and district from the following racial groups: African American, Latina/o, White, Asian, Native American, and Multiracial
 - The percentage of people in your town or city from the following racial groups: African American, Latina/o, White, Asian, Native American, and Multiracial
 - The percentage of students in your school and district categorized as poor (usually measured by the number of students who receive free or reduced price lunch)
 - The percentage of people in your town or city categorized as poor
 - The percentage of students in your school and district who are categorized as English Language Learners
 - The percentage of people in your town or city who are categorized as English Language Learners
 - The above figures for other neighborhood schools (for comparison purposes)

Don't Talk to Her

The reflection below is by Dane Pennerman, a student struggling with the social boundaries that exist in his middle school.

As Roberto and I entered the cafeteria, I saw my friend Melissa.

"What's up, Melissa?"

Roberto punched me and said, "Don't speak to her."

"Why?"

"She's a Rocker."

"Roberto, she's still my friend."

As Roberto and I proceeded to the lunch line, I saw my buddy Hakeem.

"Hey Dane, come sit with us?" Hakeem offered.

"Go ahead, Dane, I'll catch you later," Roberto said, looking at me blankly.

"No, Roberto, you can come, too!"

Roberto looked at Hakeem's table and said to me, "I'll just see you after school, Dane."

All these people were some of my best friends in elementary school. What happened? When did I miss this? When did these boundaries go up around me? And more important, why hadn't I noticed them? Was I trying to pretend that they didn't exist?

The close friendships I had cultivated in elementary school were disappearing. All of my friends were now in their own "cliques."

The school cafeteria was now divided into Rockers, African Americans, Hispanics, and the Popular Kids. Why couldn't we all hang out together? Why does Hakeem call me "white boy" when he sees me talking to my Caucasian friends? Why does Roberto only know me between classes?

How am I supposed to handle this?

I view Hakeem, Melissa, and Roberto as friends, equally. How can I look beyond appearances, when it's the main focus of everyone around me? Am I wrong for not participating in the boundaries my friends create?

Sometimes I try to discuss the issues my friends have with each other. Is there really any basis for the ill feelings? I feel their dislike for each other is unwarranted.

I have yet to hear valid reasons from anyone. I remember talking to Hakeem. He told me Roberto's not really my friend: "Just because the two of you have a class together and walk in the halls together means nothing. When his Spanish friends come around, he doesn't know you, Dane."

I feel social boundaries are a way to avoid the things we are afraid of, things we may not understand about others. The way a person chooses to dress or the color of his or her skin should not separate us.

Melissa's black clothing is the way she chooses to look on the outside. Clothes do not make the person. Melissa faces some of the same challenges in life as a teen that Roberto and Hakeem face. When I try to find differences between my three friends, outside of individual appearance, there are none.

I know the three of them would really like each other if they gave one another a chance. On a daily basis, I push my friends to become friends. I always follow a negative remark with a positive one. I'm always quick to point out good points about one friend to the other.

I feel I am in the middle of something that may last my entire life, well after my middle school years. This bothers me. How can I get Rockers, Hispanics, and African Americans to accept each other?

I know communication is one way to mend this rift. If people who look different on the outside can get past appearances, then we will be able to heal.

Maybe as teens of the new millennium, we can solve this problem and cross all social boundaries.

This essay was written by Dane Pennerman for Teaching Tolerance's Mix It Up. Reprinted with permission from Teaching Tolerance, www.tolerance.org.

How to Mix It Up

Mix It Up supports the efforts of students who are interested in identifying, questioning and crossing social boundaries. Mix It Up is a project of Tolerance.org, Teaching Tolerance, and the Study Circles Resource Center.

How to Mix it Up

At many schools around the country, the cafeteria at lunchtime is a social map of the whole school—a map criss-crossed with boundaries. These boundaries exist for many reasons—habit, friendship, status, fear, prejudice. The simple space of a cafeteria table is, for many of us, a comfort zone where we can be ourselves with those who know us best. Touch base. Regroup. Let down the guard that classroom pressures often require of us. For others, the lunchroom with all its boundaries is a world with its own pressures—a world of familiar strangers and rigid expectations. But each year students across the country stir things up in their school cafeterias. And you can do it, too. Here are some ideas to help you Mix It Up at lunch.

Reach Out

All it takes is one person venturing outside the comfort zone to stir things up, but on Mix It Up Day, why not have a whole crowd sitting someplace new? Ask your friends to join in. Pitch the idea to the clubs, sports teams and other groups you belong to. Get teachers and administrators on board. Publicize the event with posters, stickers, raps and t-shirts.

Plan

How are you going to “do the day?” Here are five ways to mix up lunchroom seating.

- Create a “calendar” out of 12 tables and sit by birth month or by Zodiac signs.
- Number several tables and draw your seat assignment from a hat.
- Draw colored candies out of a bag and sit with the matching tablecloth.
- Find a table where you don't know more than two people.
- Give each person a “ticket” that matches the color tag on a chair.

Act

The day has arrived and you're sitting at a new table staring at a bunch of people you don't know. What now? Here are five ideas to jump-start the conversation.

- What's the last CD you bought?
- Imagine you rule the world. What's the first law you'd make?
- What's the craziest thing you ever did in public?
- You're signing autographs. What are you famous for?
- You're the principal. What's the first class you drop—and what class do you add?

Dig Deeper

How'd it go? What worked? What didn't? What did you enjoy? Does your school need to look more closely at social boundaries? Start a Mix It Up Dialogue—visit www.mixitup.org to learn how.

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Lesson 6

Building Alliances

Rationale

The purpose of this lesson is for students to explore what it means to be an ally, and to use historical examples of ally behavior as a bridge to their own lives. Students begin by examining excerpts from a 1952 amicus brief filed in support of *Brown v. Board of Education* and reading about a little known civil rights activist from the Jewish community. Students then brainstorm different types of ally behavior and identify specific ways in which they can be allies in their school and communities.

Objectives

- Students will learn about historical examples of ally behavior.
- Students will learn what it means to be an ally and identify different levels of ally behavior.
- Students will reflect on ways that they can be an ally and develop plans for taking action in their school and communities.

Age Range

Grades 9–12

Time

Two class periods or 1 hour 30 minutes

Requirements

Handouts and Resources:

- [1952 Amicus Brief](#) (one for each student or prepare to be projected)
- [A Selected List of Allies Throughout History](#) (optional)
- [Esther Swirk Brown](#) (one for each student)
- [Pyramid of Alliance](#) (one for each small group)

Other Material:

- chart paper, markers, LCD or overhead projector (optional)

Advanced Preparation

- Reproduce handouts as directed above.
- Makes copies of the [Pyramid of Alliance](#), one for each small group (see Part II #2-3).

Techniques and Skills

brainstorming, cooperative group work, critical thinking, examining primary documents, forming opinions, historical understanding, large and small group discussion, reading skills, social action

Procedures

Part I

1. Write the following quote on the board:

“That which is unequal in fact cannot be equal in law and, therefore, segregation and equality cannot co-exist in public education.”

Key Words

Alliance
Ally
Amicus brief
Desegregation
Discrimination
Integration
NAACP
Risk
Segregation
Social action

2. Ask students to guess who might have written these words and in what context. After some speculation, inform students that the statement comes from a 1952 amicus brief for the *Brown v. Board of Education* case. Ask students if they know what an amicus brief is and encourage them to reason the meaning based on other words they may know that come from the same root as amicus (amiable, amicable, amigo, etc.). Inform students that amicus comes from the Latin for friend. An **amicus brief** is a statement of support submitted to the court by a person or organization—a “friend of the court”—that is not a party to the case in question.
3. Project or distribute the cover page to the original [1952 amicus brief](#) and ask students to identify the “friends of the court” in this particular instance. Ask students if they are surprised to learn that these six groups—including two Jewish and one Japanese organization—made such a strong statement of support. Ask why these organizations, none of which were black civil rights groups, may have spoken out. Share the following statement from the brief, which sums up its rationale:

“The present case...present[s] an issue with which all six organizations are deeply concerned because such segregation deprives millions of persons of rights that are freely enjoyed by others and adversely affects the entire democratic structure of our society.”
4. Tell students that the organizations who filed the brief acted as allies. Draw a circle on the board and write the word “ally” in the center. Ask students to brainstorm all of the associations they have with this word and record them on spokes radiating from the circle (e.g., supporter, advocate, one who takes risks to help others). Ask students to identify allies they know (from history, current events or their own lives) who took risks to support others when it was not required of them. Record these names on the chart. ([A Selected List of Allies Throughout History](#) is included as an optional handout and students can be assigned people from this list to investigate further for homework or as a research project).
5. Inform students that they will be reading about a little known ally from the civil rights movement. Distribute copies of [Esther Swirk Brown](#) and have students read it either silently or together as a class.
6. Lead a group discussion using the following questions:
 - In what ways did Esther Swirk Brown act as an ally?
 - Why do you think she risked her safety to support others?
 - What personal experiences might have caused Brown to empathize with the victims of prejudice?
 - Can you imagine yourself doing the things that Esther Swirk Brown did? Why or why not?
 - In general, what might motivate a person to be an ally?
 - What might discourage or prevent someone from becoming an ally? What is the cost of not acting—to the target? To the bystander? To society?

Part II

1. Ask students if they have ever acted as any ally and allow them to share their experiences. Ask if those who did not share can imagine themselves being an ally to others. Suggest that being an ally doesn’t necessarily mean fighting bigotry in a very large-scale and public manner as Esther Swirk Brown did. Being an ally also includes smaller and less risky acts that demonstrate our support for others.
2. Draw a large triangle on a piece of chart paper and label it the “Pyramid of Alliance.” Draw two horizontal lines to divide the triangle into three sections and label them, from bottom to top, “low,” “moderate,” and “high level of alliance.” In the top section, write a couple of the actions that Esther Swirk Brown took (e.g., challenging institutional segregation, organizing a lawsuit) and identify these as high levels of alliance. Ask students to describe one or two actions that demonstrate a moderate level of alliance (e.g. attending a rally or march, joining a human rights club or group) and low level of alliance (e.g., interrupting a racist joke, reading multicultural literature). Record their examples on the chart. Once students understand the concept, divide them into small groups of about four.
3. Provide each group with the [Pyramid of Alliance](#) handout and ask them to brainstorm additional examples for each level. Encourage students to focus on actual needs in their own school or community, and to list actions that they can realistically envision themselves or their peers taking.
4. As each group finishes, have them post their pyramids around the room and share one or two actions from each category with the whole class. Note that the categories are somewhat fluid and overlapping—what some individuals see as a low level of alliance may seem like a moderate or high level of alliance to others, depending on the individual and the

circumstances. Confronting someone about a prejudiced comment, for example, may involve different levels of risk and courage in different situations. More important than debating what items belong in which categories, though, is to identify concrete actions that students can actually see themselves taking based on real problems that they have identified. Highlight these problems and actions, and challenge students to put them into practice. For most students, this will involve behaviors such as using more respectful language, not laughing at a joke, and showing kindness to targets of bullying. Some students may be motivated to do more, however, such as starting or joining a group, doing volunteer work, or organizing a social action project. Whatever level of commitment students are willing to make, help to identify and structure time for follow-up and planning so that students' ideas are actually implemented.

1952 Amicus Brief in Support of *Brown v. Board of Education*

IN THE
Supreme Court of the United States
 October Term, 1952

No. 8

OLIVER BROWN, MRS. RICHARD LAWTON,
 MRS. SADIE EMMANUEL, ET AL.,
Appellants,

vs.

BOARD OF EDUCATION OF TOPEKA, SHAWNEE
 COUNTY, KANSAS, ET AL.,
Appellees.

**BRIEF ON BEHALF OF
 AMERICAN CIVIL LIBERTIES UNION
 AMERICAN ETHICAL UNION
 AMERICAN JEWISH COMMITTEE
 ANTI-DEFAMATION LEAGUE OF B'NAI B'RITH
 JAPANESE AMERICAN CITIZENS LEAGUE
 AND
 UNITARIAN FELLOWSHIP FOR SOCIAL JUSTICE
 AS *AMICI CURIAE***

EDWIN J. LUKAS,
 ARNOLD FORSTER,
 ARTHUR GARFIELD HAYS,
 FRANK E. KARELSEN,
 of the New York Bar,

LEONARD HAAS,
 of the Georgia Bar,

SABURO KIDO,
 of the California Bar,

WALDO B. WETMORE,
 of the Kansas Bar,

Attorneys for Amici Curiae.

THEODORE LESKES,
 SOL RABKIN,
 of the New York Bar,
of Counsel.

A Selected List of Allies Throughout History

Jonathan Daniels

Eleanor Roosevelt

Princess Diana

Oskar Schindler

Frederick Douglass

Michael Schwerner

Rabbi David Einhorn

Mitch Snyder

Andrew Goodman

Chiune Sugihara

Rabbi Abraham Joshua Heschel

Mother Teresa

Rev. Bruce Klunder

Harriet Tubman

Viola Gregg Liuzzo

Lillian Wald

Iqbal Masih

Raoul Wallenberg

William Moore

Donald Woods

Rev. James Reeb

Esther Swirk Brown (1917–1970)

Civil Rights Activist

Esther Swirk Brown was a woman who was small in stature, but who made large contributions to the U.S. civil rights movement. Born in Kansas City, Missouri, Esther involved herself in the struggle for social equality early in life. In high school, she joined a picket line of workers striking a cosmetics manufacturer because, in her words, “it was the right thing to do.” After attending the University of Chicago and Northwestern University, she settled down with her husband, Paul Brown, in suburban Kansas during the 1940s. Brown was an active member of her local synagogue and other Jewish organizations, but also strived to build alliances with people from other backgrounds.

In 1948, President Harry S. Truman signed Executive Order 9981, desegregating the armed forces and guaranteeing “equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons...without regard to race, color, religion or national origin.” During that same year, black and white students in Esther Swirk Brown’s South Park neighborhood attended separate and very unequal schools.

Population growth in South Park after World War II led to the construction of a new \$90,000 elementary school, but the local school board redrew district lines so that African-American students would be excluded. Black students in South Park were sent instead to Walker School, which was a run-down and unsafe building with only two teachers and outdoor plumbing. When African-American children were turned away from the new South Park School solely on the basis of race, some local parents pulled their children from Walker and started a home school for thirty-nine students.

Esther Swirk Brown was outraged by the segregation of African-American students and the condition of the schools they were expected to attend, so she worked with local parents to organize a lawsuit. The case was handled by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), an organization that fights racism and works for civil rights for African Americans. *Webb vs. Kansas*—named for the father of a South Park black student—was prosecuted by attorney Elijah Scott with the help of Thurgood Marshall, who would later become the first African-American Supreme Court Justice. In 1949, the Kansas Supreme Court ruled that equal facilities must be provided for all children and the local school board was forced to admit black students to South Park School.

As the beginning of the new school year approached, Esther Swirk Brown purchased a new dress or shirt for every student and worked tirelessly to raise money for books and supplies for students who could not afford them. Alfonso Webb, a South Park resident and lead plaintiff in the case, reflected, “if it had not been for Mrs. Brown, we would not have gotten as far as we did as quick as we did. It took a white woman who had determination and contacts to spearhead the movement...Black people were just too scared, at least some of them were. Scared from history, scared from experience, scared from not enough experience.”

Despite the threats and harassment that Esther Swirk Brown received for supporting desegregation, she continued to fight for equal rights. Esther helped the NAACP to build the famous *Brown v. Board of Education* case in Topeka, Kansas by persuading Oliver Brown to be lead plaintiff, gathering expert witnesses and providing moral support. Esther also helped convince the NAACP to shift its strategy from challenging segregated graduate schools to demanding the desegregation of all public schools.

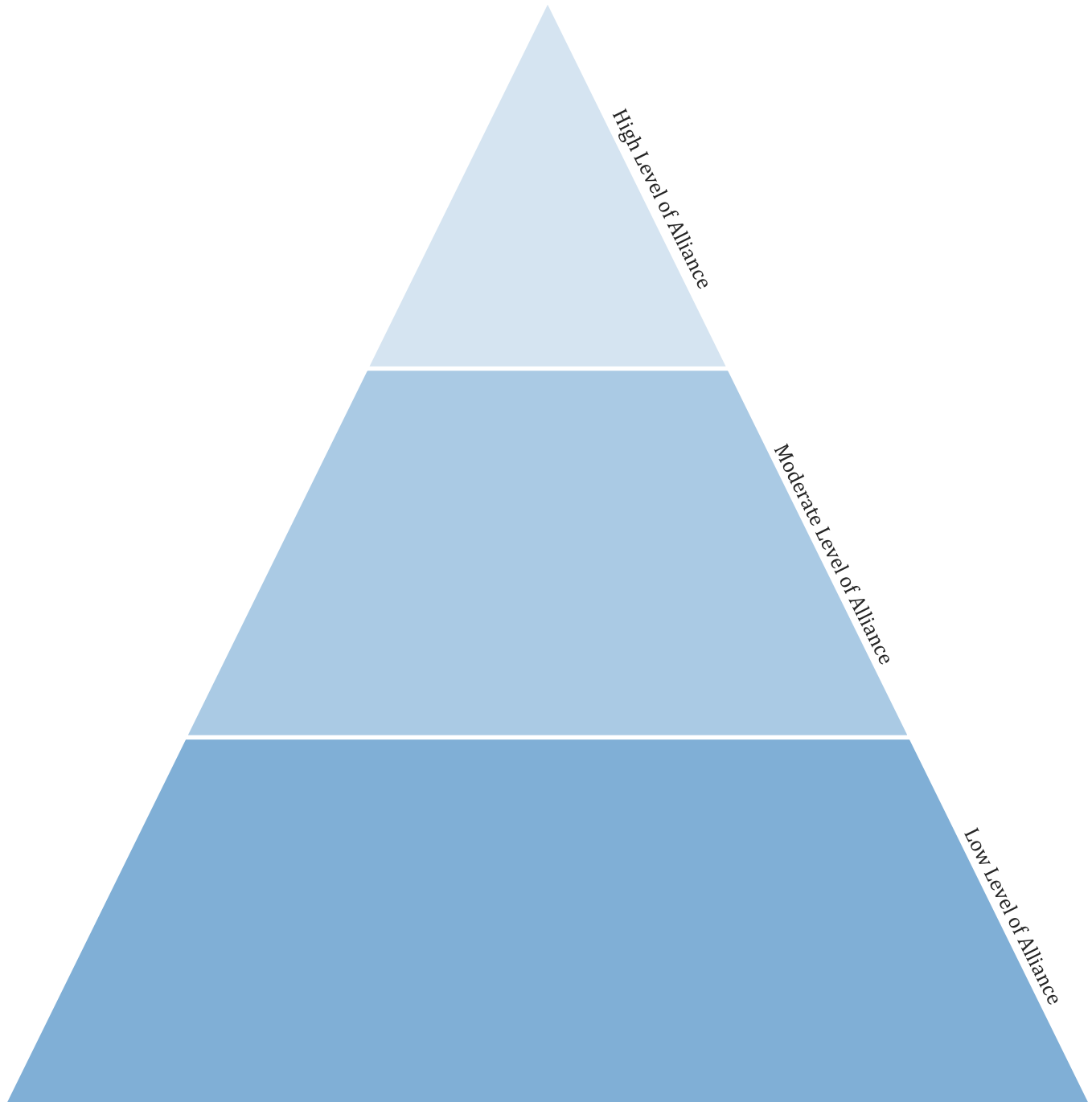
In addition to carrying on school desegregation efforts in Kansas and Missouri, Esther Swirk Brown worked on the issue of discrimination in the workplace. Her testimony before a committee of the Kansas legislature about discrimination in public employment helped to establish an antidiscrimination commission in Kansas in 1953.

In 1957, Esther Swirk Brown helped to organize the Panel of American Women, which brought together women from different races and religions to speak out against prejudice. By 1970 the organization had 1,400 members throughout the U.S. and Canada, and Esther had become the national coordinator for almost fifty panels in twenty-three cities.

Brown was recognized for her dedication to equality through a number of awards from organizations including the Kansas City Chapter of the National Conference of Christians and Jews, the Missouri Association of Social Welfare, and the Diocese of Catholic Women. When Esther Swirk Brown died of cancer in 1970, a local newspaper, *Call*, printed this tribute:

“Never did a human light shine so brightly as did the life of this young woman who devoted her time and talents in a never-ceasing struggle to make the world a better place for all...If there were more like her in the world, the struggle for justice and equality would have been over long ago.”

Pyramid of Alliance



Resources for Students on *Brown v. Board of Education*

Books

Brown v. Board of Education: Equal Schooling for All by Harvey Fireside, Sarah Betsy Fuller

Lays out the historical context for school desegregation by chronicling the progress of major cases through the court system and analyzing the factors that caused judges to throw out a hundred years of legal precedent. (*Enslow Publishers, Inc., 1994, 128 pages*)

Brown v. Board of Education: The Battle for Integration by Mark V. Tushnet, Ross R. Olney

Describes the people playing major roles in the battle for desegregation, the smaller court cases that led up to *Brown v. Board of Education*, and the results and repercussions of the case. (*Franklin Watts, Inc., 1996, 144 pages*)

Can We Talk about Race?: And Other Conversations in an Era of School Resegregation by Beverly Tatum

Psychologist and educator Beverly Daniel Tatum, one of our leading commentators on race and schools, analyzes some of the most resonant issues in American education and race relations. (*Beacon Press, 2008, 168 pages*)

Daisy Bates: Civil Rights Crusader by Amy Polakow

A biography of the civil rights activist who led the fight to integrate schools in Little Rock, Arkansas, during the 1950s. (*Linnet Books, 2003, 120 pages*)

Great Ambitions: From the 'Separate but Equal' Doctrine to the Birth of the NAACP by Pierre Hauser, Martin Luther King (ed.)

Chronicles the injustice and cruelty, courage and hope of the era spanning from 1896 to 1909 in African American history. (*Chelsea House Publishing, 1995, 140 pages*)

Linda Brown, You Are Not Alone by Joyce Carol Thomas, Maureen Sullivan (Editor), Curtis James (Illustrator)

Personal reflections, stories, and poems from ten of today's most accomplished writers for children, all young people themselves at the time of the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision. Included are Michael Cart, Jean Craighead George, Eloise Greenfield, Lois Lowry, Katherine Paterson, Ishmael Reed, Jerry Spinelli, Quincy Troupe, Joyce Carol Thomas, and Leona Nicholas Welch. (*Jump Sun, 2003, 144 pages*)

The Little Rock School Desegregation Crisis in American History by Robert Somerlott

Profiles Elizabeth Eckford—one of “The Little Rock Nine”—and Arkansas’ determination to prevent school integration, and chronicles the history of segregation from the time of the Civil War to *Brown v. Board of Education*. (*Enslow Publishers, Inc., 2001, 128 pages*)

Plessy v. Ferguson: Separate but Equal? by Harvey Fireside

Examines the people, events, and legal issues involved in the Supreme Court case that challenged a state’s right to allow separate but equal railroad accommodations for different races. (*Enslow Publishers, Inc., 1997, 128 pages*)

Savage Inequalities: Children in America’s School by Jonathan Kozol

Kozol delivers a searing examination of the extremes of wealth and poverty and calls into question the reality of equal opportunity in our nation’s schools. (*Broadway Books, 2012, 336 pages*)

Separate but Not Equal: The Dream and the Struggle by Jim Haskins

A history of the struggle of African-Americans for equal education rights from colonial times to the present. (*Scholastic, 2002, 192 pages*)

Through My Eyes by Ruby Bridges, Margo Lundell

Ruby Bridges recounts the story of her involvement, as a six-year-old, in the 1960 integration of her school in New Orleans. (*Scholastic, 1999, 64 pages*)

Thurgood Marshall: Freedom's Defender by Leland Ware

Discusses the life and times of the first African American to serve as a judge on the United States Supreme Court. (*Time Life, 2000, 128 pages*)

Warriors Don't Cry: A Searing Memoir of the Battle to Integrate Little Rock's Central High by Melba Pattillo Beals, Julie Rubenstein (Editor)

The story of Melba Pattillo, one of nine teenagers chosen to integrate Little Rock's Central High School in the years following the 1954 Supreme Court ruling, *Brown v. Board of Education*. (*Washington Square Press, 1995, 336 pages*)

Videos**Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka: The Case of the Century**

Features a reenactment of the 1952 and 1953 oral arguments presented to the U. S. Supreme Court. (*Kansas Bar Association, 2004, 70 min*)

The Road to Brown

Tells the story of the *Brown v. Board of Education* ruling as the culmination of a brilliant legal assault on segregation that launched the Civil Rights Movement, and pays tribute to a visionary lawyer, Charles Hamilton Houston, "the man who killed Jim Crow." (*California Newsreel, 1990, 56 min*)

With All Deliberate Speed: The Legacy of Brown v. Board

After providing a critical historical framework of events and precedent-setting cases leading up to the Brown decision, the program addresses the complicated issues surrounding the case, through conversations with students, teachers, lawyers, plaintiffs and other community members who were directly involved in the historic proceedings. (*Teleduction, Inc., 2004*)

Web sitesCivilRightsTeaching.org

This site features *Putting the Movement Back into Civil Rights Teaching*, a guide with interactive and interdisciplinary lessons and articles for K-12 educators on how to go beyond a "heroes" approach to the Civil Rights Movement. The book is published by Teaching for Change, a non-profit organization that works to transform schools into socially equitable centers of learning, and offers an online catalog with books, videos, and posters for the classroom. The book is co-edited by the Poverty & Race Research Action Council (PRRAC).

Brown v. Board of Education Re-Enactment

Part of the U. S. Courts Web site. Provides historical and education resources.

Constitutional Rights Foundation Brown v. Board of Education

CRF is a non-profit, non-partisan, community-based organization dedicated to educating America's young people about the importance of civic participation in a democratic society.

Landmark Cases

This site was developed to provide teachers with a full range of resources and activities to support the teaching of landmark Supreme Court cases.

The Ruby Bridges Foundation

The foundation promotes and encourages the values of tolerance, respect, and appreciation of all differences. With the belief that prejudice and racism can be eliminated, the Ruby Bridges Foundation's mission is to change society through the education and inspiration of children.

Expansive Survey of America's Public Schools Reveals Troubling Racial Disparities

The U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights (OCR) webpage on the first comprehensive look at civil rights data from every public school in the country in nearly 15 years.

[The Nation's Report Card](#)

The National Center for Education Statistic's official site for results from the National Assessment of Educational Progress.

[What Is The School-to-Prison Pipeline?](#)

The "school-to-prison pipeline" refers to the policies and practices that push our nation's school children, especially our most at-risk children, out of classrooms and into the juvenile and criminal justice systems. This webpage of The American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) provides information and resources on how the pipeline reflects the prioritization of incarceration over education.