



TroyMUN'26

Historical U.S. Senate

The Civil Rights Movement



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I. Letter from the Secretary-General

Esteemed Prospective Participants,

On behalf of TROYMUN Family, I would like to welcome you all to the ninth edition of TROY Model United Nations Conference. My name is Baran Akarsu and it is an utmost honor and privilege to serve as the Secretary-General of TROYMUN 2026. The ninth edition of TROYMUN will be held with the collaboration of Parion Hotel and Çanakkale College once again and it will take place in Çanakkale. While the junior edition of TROYMUN will take place between 23th-25th of November, the senior edition will be held between 27th and 29th of November. Since our last edition We are extremely delighted and excited to meet once again and discuss some of the world's current problems. This year, we will host five committees in each of our editions. The committees will be a bit more interesting, more related to our current life and new rather than our past editions. The topic of Ensuring Habitat Protection and Biodiversity Conservation will be discussed in United Nations Environmental Programme for our Junior Edition. Reminding that it will be the first time of hosting UNCoST, The discussion is going to be covered under Raising Awareness on Usage of AI and Combatting the Misuse of Artificial Intelligence for our Junior Edition. UNICEF with the topic of The Effects of Social Media Usage and Digital Bullying on Children's Mental Health: International Maritime Organization with the issue of Protecting Oceans from Plastic Pollution and Maritime Waste for our Junior Edition. Not to forget our last and another new gen committee for Junior Edition, include an exciting wait for you to shine as a star. FCC: The Galactic Senate In the Futuristic Crisis Committee, delegates will prepare for the upcoming galactic elections with their factions. There will be four factions competing in the elections. Besides the elections, delegates will also cooperate with each other to solve the problems of the galaxy.

Meanwhile for our Senior Edition, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime will discuss Combating the Rise of Cyber-Enabled Transnational Organized Crime and Darknet Marketplaces. UNWomen with the topic of Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (Istanbul Convention). Senior Edition Of UNICEF's Agenda Item will be Ensuring the Protection of Children's Rights in Armed Conflicts: The Case of Gaza. As you knew from our last edition, We gathered together

in a committee to dream about the America. We know it is in your dreams before your sleeps, American Dreams! An exciting rehandling of Historical U.S Senate comes with a new discussion; The Civil Rights. Our last and fifth for our Senior Edition will be a Crisis Committee. JCC will be with us in order to discuss The Napoleonic Era. We are looking forward to see you as a star, a delegate, a diplomat in our ninth edition which is special and the last before the double digits. Delighted to hear your solutions on these crucial topics and wish you fruitful debates. A group of experienced MUN delegates as well as successful and exemplary individuals well versed in the topics at hand will chair and monitor our committees. I have full faith in each and every member of our Academic Team and I believe they will guide you towards enhancing your academic knowledge along with practicing your debating and negotiating skills through presenting the best environment for a spirit of diplomacy. Meanwhile, now that they can arrange physical challenges, coffee breaks and social events again, I believe our amazing and all-mighty Organization Team members are in a frenzy! They are working with great dedication to ensure that you leave TROYMUN 2026 with unforgettable memories and lots of new friends. Overall, we are all looking forward to meet you again!

On behalf of TROYMUN family and Parion Hotel, I would like to thank you for your time and consideration and once again, with great pleasure, welcome you to TROYMUN 2026. Do not forget to apply, to read your study guides, prepare some speeches and motions, and buckle your seatbelts for three days of fun, discussion, games and politics! In case of any questions, do not hesitate to contact us. We would be more than happy to help you. See you in November

Your Sincerely,

Baran Akarsu

Secretary-General of TroyMUN

II. Letter from the Under-Secretary-General

Distinguished delegates,

It is my utmost pleasure to welcome you to this year's edition of TROYMUN. My name is Charlotte Ela Akin Le Villain and I will be serving as the Under-Secretary-General of the Historical United States Senate committee this year.

Since this committee's format is slightly different from a GA committee, I highly urge you all to read this study guide thoroughly, and make sure to pay extra attention to the "Important Information Regarding the Committee and Procedure" part to eliminate any confusion.

With my Mentor Under-Secretary-General Yaprak and my Chairboard members İda and İrem, we have worked tirelessly to compile this study guide for you. Though we tried to make it as comprehensive as possible, for an agenda item like ours, it is nearly impossible to cover all perspectives. So I urge you to do additional research prior to the conference and make sure to keep in mind that our committee is set in 1960 while you do so.

Most importantly though, I ask from you all to make sure you learn, improve yourself in some way, enjoy your time and have fun at the conference. I look forward to hearing all your creative ideas, points and to seeing the passion you bring to the committee!

If you have any questions regarding the procedure, agenda item or the format, feel free to reach me via the email address below!

charlotteelaakin@gmail.com

Yours Sincerely,

Charlotte Ela Akin Le Villain
Under-Secretary-General of Historical U.S. Senate

III. Letter from the Mentor Under-Secretary-General

Most distinguished participants,

First of all, I would like to welcome each and every one of you to our annual conference, TroyMUN.

My name is Yaprak Nisa Akay, and I will be serving as your Mentor Under-Secretary-General for the Historical United States Senate committee

Having been involved in MUN for several years, my role throughout this conference will be to make sure that the committee procedure runs smoothly and effectively. I will do everything I can to make sure that you have the perfect MUN experience.

With the assistance of my Chairboard and our lovely Under-Secretary-General, we have worked hard to prepare the most helpful and inclusive study guide we could create. However, it is important to remember that a study guide alone is not enough to achieve a comprehensive understanding of the subject matter. Therefore, please make sure to conduct further research before coming to the conference.

I hope that throughout the conference, you will have the opportunity to improve yourselves, make new friends, and, most importantly, have lots of fun.

If you have any questions beforehand, please do not hesitate to contact me via the email address below:

yaprakakay24@gmail.com

Best regards,

Yaprak Nisa Akay

Mentor Under-Secretary-General of H-U.S. Senate

IV. Introduction to the Committee



The Senate, along with the House of Representatives, is one of the two chambers that make up the U.S. Congress.

Established upon the founding of the American Republic in 1789 under Article I of the Constitution, both the Senate and the House still act as the main policy-makers for the country.

The two branches of Congress work alongside each other to draft and pass laws; however, the Senate also holds unique powers and responsibilities. These special powers include acting as the sole authority to conduct impeachment trials and confirming presidential nominees. Other than these occasionally exercised authorities, the Senate is also responsible for declaring war, conducting investigations into the executive and judicial branches of the government, approving treaties prepared by the executive branch, i.e., the president, and many more.

The Senate is made up of one hundred senators, two from each state, who serve staggered six-year terms and are elected by the people of their respective states. Currently, the Senate consists of 24 committees, which include 16 permanent standing committees, 4 special or select committees, and 4 joint committees. [\[1\]](#)

V. Important Information Regarding the Committee and Procedure

This section outlines key aspects of this committee's procedure, structure, and expectations. Please be sure to read this part before moving on with the rest of the study guide to have a better understanding of the material.

Firstly, I would like to remind you that this is a historical committee and the date is set in 1960, more specifically, JFK taking office. Therefore, please make sure to prepare your speeches, do your research, and act during the conference as if the date is 1960 and not 2026.

On top of that, you may notice that the allocations you receive are the names of U.S. Senators from 1960 and not countries like in a General Assembly (GA) committee. That is because you each will be representing states and political parties within the USA, not each your own country. Please make sure to learn your senator's and their party's view on the topic before coming to the conference. You can and are encouraged to be more aggressive and direct (only regarding policy and debate; personal or offensive comments and remarks are not welcome) in your speeches, responses, and statements than you would be in a GA committee.

As you should have read in the previous section, the U.S. Senate normally has one hundred senators and twenty-four committees. Due to logistical concerns, we will not be able to have one hundred delegates, but fear not, the ratio of republicans to democrats will be kept as true to the original as possible. There will be a minimum of one senator from each state (except for Hawaii and Alaska), and another senator will be assigned to states that are highly relevant to the topic.

The procedure will also differ from General Assembly committees since the U.S. Congress is not tied to the UN. We will go over the procedure during the conference, but I would strongly recommend that you read our Rules of Procedure Guide from last year beforehand to prevent any confusion, we will be using the same procedures as last year. You may click on the link pasted on the text: [“Rules of Procedure Guide”](#) to access it.

Apart from the procedure for the flow of debate being different, the document you prepare will be different as well. Instead of a resolution paper, you will write a bill as written in the real U.S. Senate. Typically, senators write bills beforehand, introduce them first, and then they are discussed, amended, and voted upon. In the name of not making the procedure harder, especially for less experienced delegates, and not swaying too much towards a THIMUN format rather than an HMUN format, we will have you discuss the issue first and then work together to create a bill during the conference. You are free to prepare a bill before the conference and use it as reference during the bill writing process, but it is not mandatory.

VI. Glossary of Terms

PoC: Person(s) of color; people of color.

Abolitionism: A political movement to end slavery and liberate enslaved individuals around the world.

Lynching: Ending one's life without a legal trial.

Segregation: A policy of keeping a group apart and treating them differently based on race, sex, religion etc.

Integration: The action or policy of rejoining or mixing a group with another.

U.S. Supreme Court: One of the main three branches of the U.S. Government, deals with judicial affairs.

Bill/Act: A piece of legislation passed by the U.S. Congress (The Senate and The House) and signed by the President into law. Equivalent of a Resolution Paper for our committee.

Secession: Formal withdrawal of a group from a political entity.

Supremacism: The belief that a particular group should rule over other groups or lead simply because they are better or above them.

VII. Introduction to the Agenda Item

Sometimes categorized as a subdivision of the Cold War era (1945-1989), the Civil Rights movement was a national struggle for racial equality and freedom. It was the result of decades of systemic racism towards people of color, most of whom were African Americans. Racism towards PoC in the U.S. did not start overnight; it had been the norm for Americans ever since the establishment of the country and the start of slavery practices. Therefore, the uprising cannot be defined by specific beginning or ending dates, but it would be fair to say the movement reached its climax during the late 1950s to early 1960s. [2]



The Movement itself is known for and was defined by some key events, some of which are: the Supreme Court cases *Brown v. Board of Education* and *Plessy v. Ferguson*, activist Rosa Parks being arrested on December 1st 1955, the Little Rock School Integration Crisis in 1957, the infamous March on

Washington on August 28th 1963, and legislation such as the Civil Rights Act of 1965 being passed, etc., which you can find in detail in the Historical Context section. [3]

Although some key events bore the load of shaping this era in American history, to understand the reason behind the outrage expressed by the people and the reaction from the government, it is important to know the history behind it. Hence, we saw fit to write this Guide as a predominantly historical one. Since the date for our committee is set in 1960, we did not include events after 1960; it is in your hands to reshape history as the U.S. Senate, whether it is true to what actually happened in history or not.

VIII. Historical Context

A. Origins of Slavery in the U.S.

The Founding Period

By the time of the American Revolution, America had developed into a diverse land of colonies ranging in age from the Old Dominion of Virginia, established for over 150 years, to Georgia, which was barely 40 years old. All the colonies had slave populations. When the war ended and Americans achieved independence, unfortunately some northern merchants and southern planters immediately revived the African slave trade. Between 1783 and 1787 some states- Maryland, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and South Carolina passed laws preventing the slave trade or tightening existing laws, while North Carolina laid a restrictive duty on slave imports. But this state-by-state action was slow, limited, and reversible. Consequently, the institution of slavery continued to occupy a central role in the Philadelphia convention and confirmation debates.

Social and Economic Reasons

Before the Civil War, slavery was a major part of the Southern economy and society. Most enslaved people worked in agriculture, especially growing cotton, rice, tobacco, and sugar. Slavery was profitable, and the growth of cotton increased the demand for enslaved labor. While most white Southerners did not own slaves, the wealthy planter class controlled large plantations and formed the Southern elite. Although many farmers did not own slaves, they often supported slavery because of racist beliefs and economic fears. Southern women managed households and supervised domestic slaves, but they held to stricter social standards than men. [\[4\]](#)

B. Resistance, Rebellion and the Abolitionist Movement

Although it was the law of the land for more than 300 years, American slavery was challenged and resisted every day by its victims, by its survivors and by those who found it purely unacceptable. The long campaigns to eliminate the trade in human beings were one of the great moral crusades in U.S. history, and its success was the result of decades of organisation and disturbance by African Americans towards the European Americans.

Daily life in a slave workplace was marked by countless acts of resistance. Although their freedom was denied by the law, enslaved African Americans used a wide variety of strategies to contest the authority of slaveholders and to assert their rights to control their own lives. Slaveholders depended on involuntary labor to keep their businesses solvent, and enslaved workers often used work slowdowns and absenteeism to negotiate some of the terms of their labor.

Enslaved African Americans resisted slavery by escaping and, sometimes, fighting back through violent rebellions. Thousands escaped to free states with help from enslaved people and networks of free African Americans and European Americans. Slaveholders especially feared large uprisings, such as Nat Turner's rebellion, and spread frightening stories about them to increase control. However, these stories had a different effect in the North, where they drew attention to the injustice of slavery.

Calls for Abolition

African Americans played a major role in the Abolitionist Movement of the early 19th century, using many different methods to challenge slavery. Inspired by the American Revolution's ideas of freedom and equal rights, abolitionists worked to convince the public that slavery was unjust and should be abolished nationwide. Formerly enslaved and free African Americans became important leaders who formed local and national abolitionist societies, traveled to give speeches, and shared personal experiences of slavery. Speakers such as Frederick Douglass, William Wells Brown, and Sojourner Truth used public speeches to educate audiences and gain support for abolition. Henry Highland Garnet also encouraged enslaved people to resist slavery directly. Abolitionists used both public and secret methods.

They published anti-slavery newspapers, books, pamphlets, and personal accounts that exposed the harsh realities of slavery and challenged pro-slavery arguments. Some activists worked secretly to protect fugitives and helped guide enslaved people to freedom through the Underground Railroad. Others organized efforts to rescue fugitives from kidnappers and violent mobs. These methods allowed abolitionists to spread information, influence public opinion, and directly challenge the slave system. Abolitionists often faced serious opposition, including threats, violence, burned books, and destroyed printing presses. Despite these dangers, they continued their campaigns and made slavery an increasingly important national

issue. Their persistent activism increased tensions between the North and South and helped create the conditions that eventually led to the Civil War. Their organized methods of protest also provided an example for later movements, including women's suffrage and the Civil Rights Movement. [5]

C. Political Divisions in the Pre-Civil War Era

Before the Civil War, Northern states generally opposed slavery on economic and moral grounds. They favored having smaller farms and more industrial tools, so that they did not rely on enslaved labor, while also seeing abolitionist movements grow stronger. Southerners, in contrast, viewed slavery as essential to their agriculture-based economy, particularly for large plantations, and felt their way of life was under threat from the Northern abolitionist movement and policies that challenged slavery's expansion. These opposing views deepened tensions, with debates over the extent of states' rights to govern themselves and slavery driving political divisions that would ultimately lead to secession and the Civil War in 1860. [6]

The Missouri Compromise

The Missouri Compromise was an important event in American history because it temporarily reduced tensions over slavery. In 1818, Missouri applied to become a state, but Congress disagreed about whether slavery should be allowed there. The House supported a ban on slavery, while pro-slavery senators opposed it, causing the bill to fail. In 1820, Henry Clay proposed a compromise that allowed slavery in Missouri while admitting Maine as a free state. It also created a line along the 36th parallel, dividing areas where slavery would be allowed from areas where it would be prohibited. The compromise maintained a balance between free and slave states and increased the importance of the Senate in debates about slavery. Although it did not solve the slavery issue permanently, it helped delay a larger national conflict. [7]

Compromise of 1850/Fugitive Slave Act

The second Fugitive Slave Act was part of the Compromise of 1850 and made the earlier 1793 law much stricter. Under this law, officials had to arrest people suspected of escaping slavery based only on a slave owner's sworn statement. The judge received \$10 if the person was declared a fugitive, but only \$5 if there was not enough evidence. People who helped escaped slaves by giving them food or shelter could also be sent to prison for six months and fined \$1,000. The law was strongly opposed in the North and led to several acts of violent resistance. Although the Supreme Court supported the federal government's right to enforce such laws, many Northern states refused to cooperate. For example, Wisconsin argued that it had the right to reject the law because it believed the law was unconstitutional. [8]

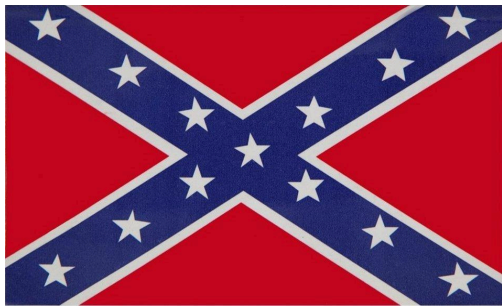
Kansas-Nebraska Act 1854

The Kansas-Nebraska Act was introduced by Senator Stephen Douglas in 1854 to organize the western territories and support plans for a transcontinental railroad. The main disagreement was about whether slavery would be allowed in these new territories. Douglas proposed the idea of "popular sovereignty," which allowed people living in each territory to decide whether to permit slavery. This went against the Missouri Compromise of 1820, which had limited slavery in the region. The Act repealed the Missouri Compromise and created the territories of Kansas and Nebraska. It caused strong opposition between pro-slavery and anti-slavery groups and led to violent conflict known as "Bleeding Kansas." The Act also weakened the Whig Party and helped lead to the creation of the Republican Party. Instead of solving the slavery debate, the Kansas-Nebraska Act increased tensions and brought the country closer to the Civil War. [9]

D. The Election of 1860 and Secession

The election of 1860 was a turning point for the nation. The outcome would determine how the country would move forward regarding slavery. The election resulted in the election of Abraham Lincoln, a moderate Republican, who, based on his party, seemed to take a more moderate approach to slavery practices. Despite the speculations from Southerners, President

Lincoln did not begin his term with the goal of ending slavery. His main goal was to keep the country together within an atmosphere of rising tensions. At the same time, African Americans were determined to fight for their freedom by any means necessary. Many liberated themselves by escaping from plantations across the South, illegally based on the law at the time, into the Northern states, where they did not have to face slavery. Even though based on the Fugitive Slave Act, the Northern states had to turn the slaves over to their owners, it was not well-enforced.



One month after President Lincoln was elected, some Southern states began to secede from the Union. Although president Lincoln hadn't taken any major actions against slavery in the South, they felt threatened and wanted the states to retain their right to maintain their own system of slavery, they also believed their property rights were not being protected, especially because the 1850 Fugitive Slave Act was not being properly enforced. By 1861, the United States was now divided into two countries: The Union in the North and the Confederacy in the South, the two sides of the war were now apparent. The Confederacy attacked Fort Sumter in April of the same year and war was declared upon the Union. [10]

E. The Civil War, Emancipation and the Assassination of President Lincoln

On January 1, 1863, the Emancipation Proclamation was declared. It was an official proclamation written by the President declaring that all enslaved people in the rebelling states were now free. However, it took the bloodiest war in the nation's history to enforce the proclamation. The proclamation did not immediately end slavery everywhere, but it changed the purpose of the war by making freedom and the end of slavery an important part of the Union's cause. It also allowed African Americans to join the Union Army and Navy, and around



180,000 Black soldiers eventually served in the Union Army.

By 1865, the Civil War was coming to an end. Confederate General Robert E. Lee surrendered to General Ulysses S. Grant at Appomattox Court House on April 9, 1865. Lincoln wanted to help rebuild the country and bring the North and South back together. However, only a few days later, on April 14, 1865, Lincoln was shot by John Wilkes Booth while attending a play at Ford's Theatre in Washington, D.C. Lincoln died the next morning, April 15. His assassination happened just as the war was ending and became one of the most tragic moments in American history. Even though Lincoln did not live to see it happen, the 13th Amendment was ratified in December 1865 and officially abolished slavery throughout the United States.

F. Reconstruction Era and the Aftermath of the Civil War

a. The 13th, 14th and 15th Constitutional Amendments



The 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments, a.k.a. The Reconstruction Amendments were adopted after the Civil War and played an important role in defining the rights of formerly enslaved people. Together, these amendments abolished slavery, established citizenship and equal protection under the law, and protected voting rights for African American men.

13th Amendment (1865): The 13th Amendment stated “Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.”, making slavery practices except for punishment of crime, illegal. The amendment was passed by Congress on January 31, 1865, and ratified on December 6, 1865.

14th Amendment (1868): The 14th Amendment stated “All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State

deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.”. It basically legally recognised anyone born in the U.S., including former slaves, as legal U.S. citizens and granted them the same fundamental rights that white Americans already possessed. It was passed by Congress on June 13, 1866, and ratified on July 9, 1868.

15th Amendment (1870): The 15th Amendment stated “The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude—”. It made it so that all U.S. citizens were allowed to vote, and could not be denied this right by anyone. However, the amendment did not completely stop discrimination in voting. In later years, practices such as literacy tests, grandfather clauses, intimidation, and other restrictions were used to prevent many African Americans from voting.

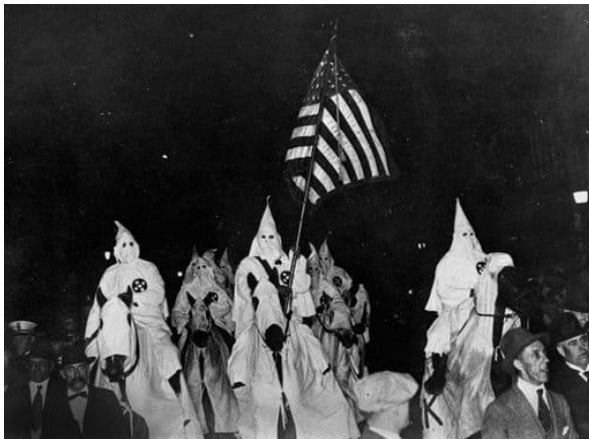
Together, the Reconstruction Amendments represented and brought upon the country a major change. The 13th Amendment ended slavery, the 14th Amendment established citizenship and equal protection, and the 15th Amendment protected voting rights regardless of race. However, these promises were not immediately or fully realized and they were not comprehensive enough, as they only accounted for men, not women. These issues and the racism that had been rooted in the public for years made their enforcement and protection an important issue for many decades that followed. [11]

b. Black Codes

Black Codes were a set of laws created by individual states to restrict the freedom of African Americans and keep them working as a cheap labor force even after slavery was abolished during the Civil War. Even though the Union victory freed around 4 million enslaved people, the status and rights of formerly enslaved Black people in the post-war South were still unclear. Under the Black Codes, many states required Black people to sign yearly labor contracts. If they refused to sign, they could be arrested, fined, or forced to work without pay. [12]



c. Ku Klux Klan and White Supremacist Violence



The Ku Klux Klan (KKK) was founded in 1865 in Pulaski, Tennessee, by former Confederate veterans. Originally created as a vigilante group, it quickly turned into an organization with many that used intimidation and violence to oppose Reconstruction and prevent African Americans from using their new political rights. The KKK also targeted white people

who supported Reconstruction. During elections, especially in the late 1860s, the Klan tried to stop Black Americans from voting and holding political office, making it an important force against Reconstruction.

The Klan used disguises, threats, and intimidation to create fear in Southern communities. The violence carried out by them and other white supremacist groups made it difficult for African Americans to fully enjoy the rights they had gained through the newly passed Constitutional Amendments. In response, the federal government passed measures such as the Enforcement Acts of 1870 and 1871, which were meant to protect African Americans and limit the Klan's activities.

Although the first KKK declined after Reconstruction, the organization was revived in 1915. The later Klan expanded its targets beyond African Americans and also promoted hostility toward immigrants, Catholics, and Jewish Americans. During the 1920s, they gained a large number of members and had political influence in several states. The Klan experienced another revival during the 1960s, when it opposed the Civil Rights Movement and fought against desegregation and racial equality. [\[13\]](#)

d. The Compromise of 1877 (The End of Reconstruction)

The Compromise of 1877 was an informal agreement between Southern Democrats and supporters of Republican Rutherford B. Hayes to settle the results of the disputed 1876 presidential election. It is also considered an event that marked the end of the Reconstruction era.

The Democrats agreed not to block Hayes' victory as long as the Republicans withdrew all federal troops from the South. This allowed Democrats to regain control over the region. As a result of the Compromise of 1877, also known as the Compromise of 1876, Florida, Louisiana, and South Carolina returned to Democratic control, effectively bringing the Reconstruction era to an end.

G. Jim Crow Laws and Racial Terror

Jim Crow Laws were a set of rules made by white supremacists in order to enforce segregation onto African Americans. Although the origin of the name is speculated upon, it is commonly believed that it comes from an old minstrel show song: "Jump Jim Crow", showcasing a man in blackface dancing.

Jim Crow Laws were most commonly seen in Southern states, although it was not limited to the south. These were rules designed to humiliate PoC and relegate them to second class citizens. The rules insinuated that, even though the constitution stated all U.S. citizens were equal, white people were superior. According to the Jim Crow Museum, some of the laws included that:

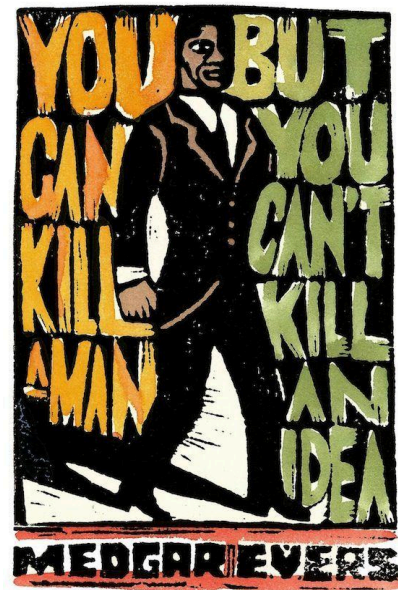


- A black male could not offer his hand (to shake hands) with a white male because it implied being socially equal. Obviously, a black male could not offer his hand or any other part of his body to a white woman, because he risked being accused of rape.
- Black and white people were not supposed to eat together. If they did eat together, white people were to be served first, and some sort of partition was to be placed between them.
- Under no circumstance was a black male to offer to light the cigarette of a white female -- that gesture implied intimacy.

- Black people were not allowed to show public affection toward one another in public, especially kissing, because it offended white people.
- Jim Crow etiquette prescribed that black people were introduced to white people, never white people to black people. For example: "Mr. Peters (the white person), this is Charlie (the black person), that I spoke to you about."
- White people did not use courtesy titles of respect when referring to black people, for example, Mr., Mrs., Miss., Sir, or Ma'am. Instead, black people were called by their first names. Black people had to use courtesy titles when referring to white people, and were not allowed to call them by their first names.
- If a black person rode in a car driven by a white person, the black person sat in the back seat, or the back of a truck.
- White motorists had the right-of-way at all intersections. [14]

And these are just the tip of the iceberg, even toilets, train wagons, drinking fountains, burial grounds and schools were separated into white and colored. And for PoC, going against these rules meant losing their jobs, their security, facing violence or even public lynchings.

In 1896, the Supreme Court ruled on the case of Plessy v. Ferguson. The case was opened because Homer Plessy, who was seven-eighths white and one-eighth black man, was riding in the white section of a train. After refusing to move to the colored section he was arrested. After state courts could not make a ruling, the case went to the Supreme Court. The court's ruling advanced the "separate but equal" doctrine, which would affirm Jim Crow and continue to be used as an excuse for racism in the years to come until Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka (1954). [15]



Under Jim Crow, PoC would be refused their rights to vote on account of state laws, despite the 15th Amendment, or just simply be threatened and intimidated into opting out of voting. However some extreme groups such as the Ku Klux Klan, took the intimidation too

far. Especially in middle sized rural towns, mobs would gather and commit hideous actions of racial terror such as public beatings, murder or lynchings.

The influence of the KKK and other white supremacist groups also contributed to the Great Migration, as millions of African Americans left the South and moved to other parts of the United States in search of greater safety, better economic opportunities, and social equality.

H. Recent Events

a. **Brown v. Board of Education (1954) and Desegregation**

Contrary to what the name may imply, Brown v. Board of Education was the joint name of five individual U.S. Supreme Court cases which would later be seen under one name. Those five cases were: Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Briggs v. Elliot, Davis v. Board of Education of Prince Edward County (VA.), Bolling v. Sharpe, and Gebhart v. Ethel. Although separate, the five cases all mainly focused on whether or not it was constitutionally sound for states to sponsor segregation in schools.



The case was defended by lawyer Thurgood Marshall, who would later become the first black Supreme Court justice in 1967, and funded by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) Legal Defense and Education Fund.

Marshall's main argument was that the school system for white and colored students was inherently unequal. The funding for each school, the sizes of classrooms, the total number of schools colored students and white students could attend, and even the buildings in which they went to learn were simply unequal. He argued that this was a violation of the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, adopted on July 9, 1868.

The justices were far too disputed upon the topic to make a decision, so they scheduled the case to be reheard the following year. With the Chief Justice replaced that year, the Supreme Court was able to come together and make a unanimous ruling on May 17th 1954. They declared the racial segregation of schools unconstitutional and stated: "We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. . ." [16] [17]



b. Rosa Parks and The Montgomery Bus Boycott

Rosa Parks was a powerful figure and a symbol for most in the Civil Rights Movement. Living in the South, she had been subjected to racism and racial violence from a young age and became involved in the movement. In 1943, she was elected the secretary of the Montgomery chapter of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). She was best known for her refusal to give up her seat for a white man and move to the back, or the colored section, of the bus she had boarded at Montgomery, Alabama, on December 1st 1955. She was arrested upon this act the same day for 'disorderly conduct' and later bailed out by Civil Rights leader E.D. Nixon. [18] [19]



Her act of defiance inspired many people, hence began the Montgomery Bus Boycott. Thousands of colored people came together to boycott buses, causing the bus companies to lose profit. They walked, carpooled, or rode in black-owned cabs instead. After 13 long months of protest coordinated by the Montgomery Improvement Association (MIA), its

president Martin Luther King Jr. and Rosa Parks herself, the U.S. Supreme Court declared segregation on public buses unconstitutional, and finally the protest came to an end. [20]

d. Little Rock Nine (1957)

After the Supreme Court ruled in *Brown v. Board of Education* that segregation in schools was ‘inherently unequal’ and unconstitutional, nine African-American students enrolled at Central High School at Little Rock, Arkansas, in September 1957. Their names were: Minnijean Brown,



Terrance Roberts, Elizabeth Eckford, Ernest Green, Thelma Mothershed, Melba Patillo, Gloria Ray, Jefferson Thomas, and Carlotta Walls, though they are more commonly known as the “Little Rock Nine”.

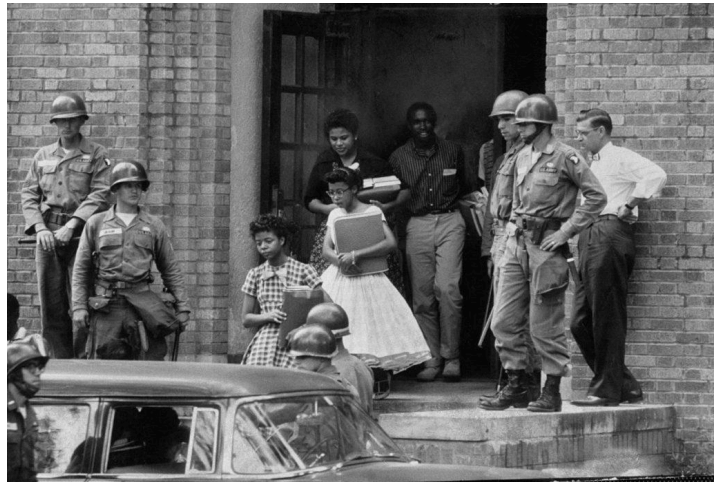
For white Americans in Arkansas, with their state being a former Confederate state where racism was still not far from the norm, this shift into integration was not a simple change. On



September 4th 1957, the first day of school, a white mob gathered in front of the school, and the governor of Arkansas, Orval Faubus, deployed the Arkansas National Guard to the school to block the black students from entering. In response to Faubus’s actions, NAACP lawyers went to a federal district court so that the students could be able to enter the school, and they won the case. On September 23rd, the Little Rock Nine, with police

escorting them, could finally enter the school. But they quickly had to be escorted out for their own safety, escaping from escalating mob violence. [21]

Upon these events, Martin Luther King Jr. telegraphed Vice-President Richard Nixon. The telegraph spelled: "Please urge the President to take a strong positive stand in the Little Rock situation. If the federal government fail to take a strong positive stand it will set the process of integration back fifty years. This is a noble opportunity for the federal government to back up the longings and aspirations of millions of people of good will and make law and order reality." on September 9th 1957. President Eisenhower, in response to King and Little Rock's mayor, Woodrow Mann, federalized the National Guard and deployed troops from the U.S. Army's 101st Airborne Division to protect the students for the remainder of the year. [\[22\]](#) [\[23\]](#)



King praised President Eisenhower, saying: "I wish to express my sincere support for the stand you have taken to restore law and order in Little Rock, Arkansas. In the long run, justice finally must spring from a new moral climate. Yet spiritual forces cannot emerge in a situation of mob violence. You should know that the overwhelming majority of southerners, negro and white stand firmly behind your resolute action. The pen of history will record that even the small and confused minority that oppose integration with violence will live to see that your action has been of great benefit to our nation and to the Christian traditions of fair play and brotherhood." Ernest Green became the first African American student to graduate from Central High School. [\[24\]](#)

e. Civil Rights Act of 1957

The Civil Rights Act of 1957 was a major stepping stone in the fight for equality. Originally proposed by Attorney General Herbert Brownell, it was the first legislation for civil rights that the Congress had passed since the Reconstruction Era or 1875. Although the bill could not fulfill its purpose entirely, due to some influential southern senators modifying

the bill that arrived from the House of Representatives in the name of reaching a compromise, it still managed to pass and be signed into law by president Eisenhower.

The act established a six person Civil Rights Commission which was tasked with investigating allegations of voter infringement, made voter harassment a federal crime and promoted the Civil Rights Section of the Department of Justice into a division led by an assistant attorney general.

As said before, these were all big steps towards equality, but those big steps alone were insufficient and lacked enforcement mechanisms. Therefore the Movement and the struggle of PoC for equality and freedom continued even with these added protections. [\[25\]](#) [\[26\]](#)

f. Greensboro Sit- Ins (1960) and Student Activism

The Greensboro Sit- ins were a series of non-violent protests by black students, started by four students from the North Carolina Agriculture and Technical State University. The students, Ezell Blair Jr., David Richmond, Franklin McCain and Joseph McNeil, entered F.W. Woolworth's segregated lunch counter on February 1st, and upon being denied service, they refused to get up and they sat at the store until closing hours.

The word spread quickly and almost instantly as many as 1,400 students all across the South began protesting at their respective towns. Although many of them were arrested on account of trespassing, disorderly conduct or disturbing the peace, or they missed work or school, the protests were a major success. Many segregated stores either closed down due to losing profit and/or public pressure, or they were forced to change their policies to adopt a more integrationist model. The victory once again proved the power of non-violent protest and showed how dedicated African Americans were to stand as equals. [\[27\]](#) [\[28\]](#)

IX. JFK's Campaign and Early Promises

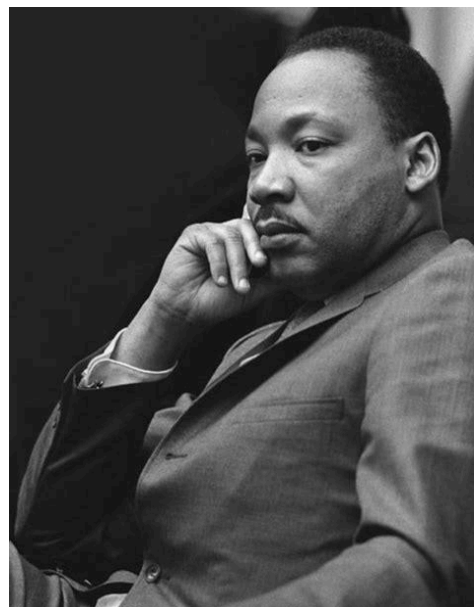
JFK's 1960 campaign focused on creating a sense of change and bringing a new generation of leadership to America. He presented himself as a reformer and promised more government action and new legislation during the 1960s. He wanted to bring together

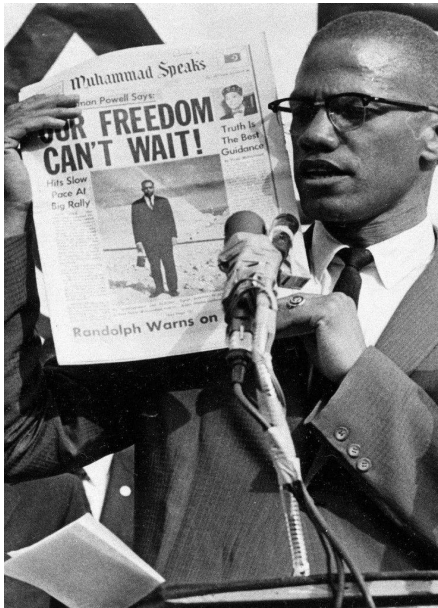
important Democratic groups, including urban voters, ethnic communities, and organized labor. Television also became a major part of the campaign. Around 70 million Americans watched the first Kennedy-Nixon debate, where Kennedy appeared confident and well-prepared, helping reduce concerns about his young age and lack of experience. Kennedy also faced challenges because he was Catholic, so he promised that his religious beliefs would not control his decisions as president and supported a strong separation between church and state. Civil rights became another important issue. When Martin Luther King Jr. was arrested during a protest, Kennedy contacted Coretta Scott King, while Robert Kennedy helped with King's release. This helped Kennedy gain more support from Black voters. Overall, Kennedy's campaign focused on change, reform, civil rights, and strong leadership, which helped him win the extremely close 1960 election. [\[29\]](#)

X. Key Figures and Organisations

Martin Luther King Jr. (MLK)

King was one of the most important leaders of the U.S. Civil Rights Movement. He promoted non-violent protest and advocated for racial equality, integration, and voting rights. He was the co-founder of the Montgomery Improvement Association (MIA) and drew inspiration from both the Christian religion and Mahatma Gandhi's teachings. Some speeches and writings he is most known for include his "I Have a Dream" speech in 1963 at the March on Washington, his Nobel Peace Prize Lecture, and his "Letter from Birmingham Jail". His leadership was particularly important during the 1950s and 1960s. [\[29\]](#)





Malcolm X

Malcolm X, originally Malcolm Little, was a major African American activist and influential figure in the Civil Rights era. Initially as a dedicated member of the Nation of Islam (NOI), a religious organisation deeply rooted in black nationalism, racial pride, and self-determination, he championed those views, though he was more critical of non-violent approaches than Martin Luther King Jr. His views changed considerably later in his life, particularly after his religious journey to Mecca in 1964.

Rosa Parks

Rosa Parks became an important symbol of the Civil Rights Movement after refusing to give up her seat to a white passenger on a segregated bus in Montgomery, Alabama, in 1955. Her arrest helped trigger the Montgomery Bus Boycott. She was already a strong advocate for racial equality, but her refusal to give up her seat catapulted her into the public eye and sparked the flame in others. [\[30\]](#)

Thurgood Marshall

Thurgood Marshall was an important civil rights lawyer who successfully argued *Brown v. Board of Education* before the Supreme Court and many more cases concerning racial equality following *Brown v. Board of Education*. He later became the first African American justice of the US Supreme Court.

NAACP (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People)

Founded in 1909, the NAACP is one of the oldest civil rights organisations in the United States. It has used legal challenges, political advocacy, and public campaigns to fight racial discrimination and separation and continues to do so to date. The NAACP was one of the most influential and effective organisations in the Civil Rights Movement.



SCLC (Southern Christian Leadership Conference)

Founded in 1957, the SCLC was closely associated with Martin Luther King Jr. and organised non-violent campaigns against racial separation. It played an important role in major civil rights campaigns, including demonstrations for integration and voting rights.

SNCC (Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee)

Founded in 1960, SNCC was a student-led organisation that became an important part of the Civil Rights Movement. It organised sit-ins, voter registration drives, and other forms of non-violent direct action, particularly in the American South. [\[31\]](#)

CORE (Congress of Racial Equality)

Founded in 1942, CORE used non-violent direct action to challenge racial separation. It became particularly well known for organising Freedom Rides in 1961. [\[32\]](#)

XI. General Partisan Views and Public Opinion

Public opinion

Slavery ended in the United States in the 19th century, but its legacy continued to shape discussions about race and inequality. The 1960s were an important period of change because of the Civil Rights Movement, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Although support for racial equality increased, Americans still had different views about the causes of racial inequality and the lasting effects of slavery. In 1977, the TV series *Roots* increased public interest in slavery, and 55% of viewers believed it showed slavery accurately. In 1988, about half of Americans believed that slavery and discrimination made it harder for Black people to move out of poverty. This figure fell to 23% between 2008 and 2012 but rose to 41% in 2015. Support for government apologies and compensation was also limited, especially among white Americans. In 1997, 64% of Black Americans supported a government apology, compared with 32% of white Americans. In 2015, 52% of Black Americans supported cash payments to relatives of slaves, compared with only 8% of white Americans. These findings show that public opinion shows a significant difference between Black and white Americans regarding the lasting effects of slavery and how the country should respond to its history. [\[33\]](#)

To understand public opinion about slavery and racial inequality in the United States, it is important to look at the political situation of the 1960s. During this period, the Democratic and Republican parties were not divided on racial issues in the same way they are today. Both parties officially supported civil rights, although they differed in their approaches and had internal disagreements. The 1960s were also a period of major political and social change, as the Civil Rights Movement and important new laws brought racial equality to the center of national debate. These changes helped shape American political attitudes toward race for decades to come.

Democratic Party

In the 1960s, the Democratic Party increasingly supported stronger federal action to protect civil rights. Its 1960 platform called for equal opportunities in voting, education, employment, housing, and public facilities, as well as stronger enforcement of civil rights laws. However, the Democratic Party was internally divided, particularly between Northern Democrats who generally supported civil rights reforms and Southern Democrats who often opposed federal intervention in racial matters. During the decade, Democratic presidents and Congress played an important role in passing major legislation, including the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Voting Rights Act of 1965. [\[34\]](#)

Republican Party

In the 1960s, the Republican Party also officially supported civil rights and equal treatment under the law. Its 1960 platform strongly opposed racial discrimination and supported voting rights, school desegregation, equal employment opportunities, and fair housing. Republicans presented these policies as part of the party's historical connection to Abraham Lincoln and emphasized the role of the federal government in protecting constitutional rights. By 1964, the Republican platform supported implementing the Civil Rights Act and further measures to protect voting rights. However, the parties were changing politically during this period, and racial issues contributed to a growing shift in political support, particularly among white voters in the South. [\[35\]](#)

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