



**Charlotte's Fight to Desegregate Our Schools,
From Dorothy Counts to Swann v. CMS: 1957-1971**

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This curriculum unit is recommended for:
Grade 11: United States History-Honors and Standard

Keywords: United States History; Segregation & Desegregation; Civil Rights Movement; Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools

Teaching Standards: See [Appendix](#) for teaching standards addressed within this unit.

Synopsis:

For this curriculum unit, we will examine the progression of desegregation within Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools from 1957-1971. Why between those two particular dates? In the wake of the landmark decision of *Brown v. Board of Education-Topeka, Kansas* (1954), and its subsequent overturning of *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), schools throughout the country were expected to desegregate (and eventually integrate), allowing students of African-American descent to attend classes with their white counterparts and vice-versa. However, for nearly three years, that decision's effects were not visible throughout the Jim Crow-dominated South. Then, the events of 1957 began to directly challenge the status quo. First in Little Rock, Arkansas, nine African-American students (appropriately named the "Little Rock Nine"), through the assistance of President Dwight D. Eisenhower and the 101st Airborne, were able to desegregate the all-white Central High School. In the wake of those few days, it finally seemed that the crippling walls of segregation were beginning to crumble. However, that type of enthusiasm was very short-lived, yet still actively pursued. For also in that year of 1957, the city of Charlotte saw its first African-American students (four in total) attempt to desegregate its district. Among those students were Dorothy Counts (now Counts-Scoggins) at all-white Harding High School.

I plan to teach this unit during the coming year in 2013-2014 to over 100 students in 11th Grade United States History Honors and Standard at David W. Butler High School.

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Roshan R. Varghese

Introduction/Rationale

As we look out over our various classrooms each and everyday, it is hard to think of a time and a place when the varying faces and personalities that we, as teachers, see and interact with, would not have been in the same classroom together a mere fifty years ago. Each of these students, from various races, creeds, ethnicities and nationalities, would have been in not only in different classrooms, but in totally different schools and possibly different parts of town because of those schools. As a product of Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools, it is especially more difficult to wrap my mind around the fact that not a quarter-century before my introduction to this district, this city was splintered in two, completely along racial lines.

As the time passes on, it is even more vital for our students to be exposed to the “freedom fighters” who made the fight to desegregate Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools, their fight and their passion. The ones who risked everything, from their reputations and credibility to their lives, to create a society that lived up to Thomas Jefferson’s famous words, “that all men are created equal.” In fact, it was President Jefferson who himself said to his presidential successor, James Madison, “Educate the whole mass of people.”¹ And up to the civil rights push for desegregation in the 1950s and 1960s, this city and country had failed to live up to that directive for one of our founding fathers.

As our classrooms become more and more diverse all the time, with the increasing numbers of students, whose families are immigrating from all over the world, it is vital that we teach all of them, a holistic view of where we have come from and out of that, where we are going. Not only as a part of the standards to which we are obligated, but also as an indestructible link to “the living past,” of which they are a part. As we emphasize those connection points, we will be able to provide our students the opportunity to create for themselves their “own stories” of how history is, and will always be, an evolving phenomenon that affects them personally on a daily basis.

For this curriculum unit, we will examine the progression of desegregation within Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools from 1957-1971. Why between those two particular dates? In the wake of the landmark decision of *Brown v. Board of Education-Topeka, Kansas* (1954), and its subsequent overturning of *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), schools throughout the country were expected to desegregate (and eventually integrate), allowing

students of African-American descent to attend classes with their white counterparts, and vice-versa. However, for nearly three years, that decision's effects were not visible throughout the Jim Crow-dominated South. Then, the events of 1957 began to directly challenge the status quo. First in Little Rock, Arkansas, nine African-American students (appropriately named the "Little Rock Nine"), through the assistance of President Dwight D. Eisenhower and the 101st Airborne, were able to desegregate the all-white Central High School. In the wake of those few days, it finally seemed that the crippling walls of segregation were beginning to crumble. However, that type of enthusiasm was very short-lived, yet still actively pursued. For also in that year of 1957, the city of Charlotte saw its first African-American students (four in total) attempt to desegregate its district. Among those being Dorothy Counts (now Counts-Scoggins)² at all-white Harding High School.

At the onset of this unit, as part of the larger curriculum of NCSCOS Goal 11 (1945-1973: Consumerism, Civil Rights and Cold War), United States History students will be introduced to the legislation and prominent figures (i.e. Thurgood Marshall) of the *Brown v. Board of Education-Topeka, Kansas* case, as well as, the Executive Order passed by President Eisenhower to desegregate Central High School in Little Rock. This will enhance the standards of literacy, emphasized by the Common Core Standards. After introducing the background information nationally, the scope will be zeroed in on the fight for desegregation locally, starting with the story of Dorothy Counts. Using Michael Richardson's article, "Not Gradually, But Now..."³ along with the *Charlotte Observer's* photographs of her first day at Harding High, students will be exposed to the hardships faced by students their own age, in trying to integrate our society, starting with our school systems. It is the hope, and possible expectation, that students will empathize with Counts' internal struggle, as the mounting external pressures caused her to only last at Harding for a total of four days.

After hitting upon the Woolworth's sit-ins in Greensboro, North Carolina and the works of courageous works of prominent individuals like the Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and the Freedom Riders, students will be asked to examine the details and significance of the landmark Supreme Court decision of *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools* (1971). Unlike the Dorothy Counts' story, which is often overshadowed by the Little Rock Nine, the *Swann* case put Charlotte out on the national scene in full-force. With the failure of many school districts to desegregate after *Brown v. BOE*, the Charlotte chapter of the NAACP took the Charlotte-Mecklenburg School Board to court. Thus, the Board was obligated to draft a new integration plan. The plan was unsuccessful in its ability to effectively show real levels of improvement. Consequently, a federal district court enlisted an expert, Dr. John Finger, to produce an alternative desegregation plan. Finger's plan called for the busing of African American elementary school students in Charlotte to suburban schools. Although the Charlotte-Mecklenburg School Board adopted the Finger plan (as nothing more than a means to satisfy court demands), it continuously asserted that his plan was unreasonable and undoable. After passing through the federal appellate process, the case reached the U.S. Supreme Court, which ruled that

busing was a suitable means of achieving desegregation. Obviously extremely controversial on many of those grounds, white students and parents protested the *Swann* decision for decades, until it was finally overturned in 2001.

David W. Butler High School (Matthews, North Carolina) is arguably the most diverse high school in Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools. Students are exposed to the positives and negatives of diversity more here everyday than many of their peers around the district, who because of their locations in the affluent suburbs or the less wealthy urban areas are void of interactions with those different from their own. As a result, the ability to create real-life twenty-first century connections to their lives, as well as the lives of their peers, will be beneficial on many wavelengths. Students will examine and understand the positive and negative ramifications of the *Swann* decision and its subsequent overturning, through physical statistics and data from before, during, and after the *Swann* era. It is my belief that through this history, this data and, through the sharing of my personal experiences of being a student during the *Swann* years and being a teacher during the post-*Swann* years, the students' perspectives and focus will be expanded to better grasp the district, community and nation, to which they live their lives in.

Objectives

In correlation with the Common Core Standards (the new overarching curriculum being used by the majority of states nationwide for their educational focus) and the North Carolina Standard Course of Study for United States History, this curriculum unit will individually meet the needs of honors, standard and inclusion students, based upon their instructional needs using a series of differentiation techniques. Since North Carolina has just recently adapted the Essential Standards for Common Core within the last two years, the ability to fully connect the specific content to the required Essential Standard is much more difficult than it was to the previous Competency Goal and Objective, according to the Standard Course of Study.

Below are the Common Core Essential Standards (via the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction: www.ncpublicschools.org/docs/acre/standards/new-standards/social-studies/american-history-2.pdf) that would effectively correspond to the content discussed within this particular unit:

Essential Standard

AH2.H.4 (The student will be able to) analyze how conflict and compromise have shaped politics, economics and culture in the United States.

Clarifying Objective(s)

AH2.H.4.1 (The student will be to) analyze the political issues and conflicts that impacted the United States since Reconstruction and the compromises that resulted (e.g.,

Populism, Progressivism, working conditions and labor unrest, New Deal, Wilmington Race Riot, Eugenics, Civil Rights Movement, Anti-War protests, Watergate, etc.).

AH2.H.4.3 (The student will be to) analyze the social and religious conflicts, movements and reforms that impacted the United States since Reconstruction in terms of participants, strategies, opposition, and results (e.g., Prohibition, Social Darwinism, Eugenics, civil rights, anti-war protest, etc.).

AH2.H.4.4 (The student will be to) analyze the cultural conflicts that impacted the United States since Reconstruction and the compromises that resulted (e.g., nativism, Back to Africa movement, modernism, fundamentalism, black power movement, women's movement, counterculture, Wilmington Race Riot, etc.).

Essential Standard

AH2.H.5 (The student will be to) understand how tensions between freedom, equality and power have shaped the political, economic and social development of the United States.

Clarifying Objective(s)

AH2.H.5.1 (The student will be to) summarize how the philosophical, ideological and/or religious views on freedom and equality contributed to the development of American political and economic systems since Reconstruction (e.g., "separate but equal", Social Darwinism, social gospel, civil service system, suffrage, Harlem Renaissance, the Warren Court, Great Society programs, American Indian Movement, etc.).

AH2.H.5.2 (The student will be to) explain how judicial, legislative and executive actions have affected the distribution of power between levels of government since Reconstruction (e.g., New Deal, Great Society, civil rights, etc.).

As for the connection points to the North Carolina Standard Course of Study, the appropriate goals that are addressed and examined are as follows:

Goal 7: The Progressive Movement in the United States (1890-1914) -The learner will analyze the economic, political, and social reforms of the Progressive Period.

Goal 11: Recovery, Prosperity, and Turmoil (1945-1980) - The learner will trace economic, political, and social developments and assess their significance for the lives of Americans during this time period.

Demographic Background

David W. Butler High School is one of the twenty-plus high schools within the Charlotte-Mecklenburg School System, but the only located within the town limits of Matthews. Opened in 1997, Butler High School was named in honor of David Watkins Butler, an outstanding mathematics teacher at West Charlotte High School who tragically lost his life in a house fire while attempting to save his family. In 2010, David W. Butler High School was recognized as an Honor School of Excellence, a distinction held by only 35 high schools in the state. This means that our composite End-of-Course Scores

exceeded the requirement of 90th percentile. David W. Butler High School also met 20 out of 20 goals for 2011-12, fulfilling the federal guidelines for the No Child Left Behind mandate. The graduation rate at BHS in 2012 was at 89.74%.

Out of the current student enrollment of 2066 at David W. Butler High School, the racial/ethnic breakdown is, as follows: 47.3% white, 30.4% African-American, 13.6% Hispanic, 4.2% Asian, 12.5% multi-racial, 5.4% Native American and 0.2% Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander. Of those numbers, 49%+ and rising, prescribe to free/reduced lunch requirements, due to economic hardships and disadvantages.

Why share this information? By examining the demographic background of the entire school population, it will give a glimpse of the breakdown within our own individual classrooms. Unlike most, if not all, schools with Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools, David W. Butler High shows a tremendous amount of diversity amongst its student body. Since the end of the *Swann* era, most CMS schools are predominately white or predominately African-American. Examples include Providence and Ardrey Kell High Schools (suburban), which are at least 97% white, while schools like West Charlotte High School (urban) are decidedly African-American (98%+). For Butler to be nearly a 50/50 split between whites and non-whites is similar to how all schools with Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools looked like in the *Swann v. CMS* era between 1971 and 2001.

This type of diversity will allow students involved with this curriculum unit to fully be able to distinguish between the diversity of their school with their counterparts from other schools within the district, allowing the pre-*Swann*, in-*Swann*, and post-*Swann* discussions and subsequent writing assignments that will conclude the unit to be quite effective, in a compare and contrast fashion.

Content Background

Jim Crow was the name of the system that created distinctions between the various races within southern states of the United States between the end of U.S. Reconstruction and the mid-1960s. More than just a series of rigid anti-black laws, it became a way of life in the American South. Under Jim Crow, African-Americans were relegated to the status of second-class citizens. Relying on the influence of Social Darwinism at every educational level, southern society was permeated with the belief that African-Americans were intellectually and culturally inferior to their white counterparts. As a result, pro-segregation politicians often gave eloquent speeches on the great dangers of integration, and the so-called, “mongrelization” of the white race. And in return, all major societal institutions reflected and supported the oppression of blacks.⁴

The Jim Crow way of life was driven by this basic rationalization: whites were superior to African-Americans in every way, including but not limited to levels of intelligence, standards of morality, and appropriate behavior in the civil spheres. Thus,

sexual relations between African-Americans and whites were forbidden, understanding that, as stated before, it would create a “mongrel race,” which in return, would destroy the very fabric of American society. In order to prevent such sexual liaisons from occurring, African-Americans were expected to be treated as less than equals, in all avenues of life. Case in point, racial etiquette within southern society demanded:⁵

- A black male could not offer his hand to a white male because of the implications of social equality. Without question, a black male could not offer his hand to a white female, because of the possible accusations of rape.
- African-Americans and whites were forbidden to dine together. If they had to, based on space considerations of the establishment, whites were always expected to be served first, with some sort of division created, to prevent the mingling of the races within that facility.
- African-American couples were forbidden to show public affection towards each other, because of possible offense to whites in the community.⁶

The mannerisms of Jim Crow flowed out of the Jim Crow laws and black codes in regards to the direct targeting of African-Americans. Despite the passage of the 13th, 14th and 15th Amendments to the United States Constitution providing African-Americans with freedom, citizenship and the vote, many southern states after 1877 began restricting their civil liberties. The United States Supreme Court further undermined these Constitutional protections with their highly influential decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), which in essence, legitimized Jim Crow laws and the so-called Jim Crow way of life in the American South.⁷

In 1890, Louisiana passed the "Separate Car Law," which mandated "separate but equal" railcars for African-Americans and whites. It was created to ensure “personal comfort” for white travelers, as well as, further segregate African-Americans. Despite the assertions of equality, no public accommodations (i.e. railway travel) provided African-Americans with equal facilities. African-Americans were forbidden to sit in coach seats reserved for whites. In 1891, a group of African-Americans decided to challenge Louisiana’s “Separate Car Law” by having Homer A. Plessy sit in the white-only section of the train. Plessy was arrested on the grounds of being a violator of the racial laws. Despite being only one-eighth black, Plessy was deemed under the “one-drop” rule to be more African-American than white. His lawyers argued that the state of Louisiana did not have the right to label one citizen as white and another African-American, purely for the purposes of restricting their civil rights and privileges. After moving up the chain of appellate courts, the Supreme Court decided in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), on a 7-1 vote (with 1 abstention), that state governments could maintain separate institutions so long as they provided African-Americans equal legal freedoms to whites in those spaces. In essence, the Court upheld Louisiana’s “Separate Car Law” by declaring that equality was

not violated by the separation of the races. Thus, the preeminent phrase for the next fifty-plus years was “separate but equal.”⁸

In the wake of Jim Crow’s crippling effects in the South, many African-American leaders contributed to the dialogue on how best to secure and advance the civil liberties of their people. One major contributor was the founder of the Tuskegee Institute, Booker T. Washington. Washington eloquently stated his views in a speech, which became known as the “Atlanta Compromise,” at the Cotton States and International Exposition in Atlanta, Georgia, in September 1895.⁹

The “Atlanta Compromise” was the first major speech given by an African-American, in front of a racially mixed audience in the South. Washington argued that African-Americans should have the opportunity to acquire the necessary vocational training to assist in the economic development of the New South. In return, they would not forcibly push for greater social and political equality in society. In his thinking, he believed that through hard work and the respect that comes with it, African-Americans would earn the favor of their white counterparts, culminating with full citizenship in all areas of life, socially, politically and culturally. This “self-help” model, as it was dubbed, became the crux of Washington’s messages from Atlanta onwards.¹⁰

In 1901, President Theodore Roosevelt invited Booker T. Washington, who had become close to the President since his “Atlanta Compromise” speech, to dine with his family at the White House. With segregation being the unquestioned law of the land since the Supreme Court’s decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), the thoughts of the President of the United States dining within an African-American man was shocking to the American public, especially within the South. Prior to that time, several other presidents had invited African-Americans to attend meetings at the White House but never to a sit-down meal. News of the dinner between the President of the United States and a former slave became a national sensation, with many southern leaders heavily criticizing the President in his foolishness in making such an outlandish gesture.¹¹

The other major African-American leader of the time, W.E.B. Du Bois was the first African-American recipient of a history degree from Harvard University. In *The Souls of Black Folk* (1903), Du Bois argued for “ceaseless agitation and insistent demand for equality.” In essence, he desired full equality for African-Americans, immediately. He was against as he described the contents of Washington’s “Atlanta Compromise,” the subordination of the African-American race, and sought a complete liberation. Du Bois argued by simply pushing for accommodations in education, African-Americans were letting the white majority off-the-hook too easily. His evidence pointed to the fact that society had systematically become more and more segregated in the aftermath of *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896) and the notions of “separate but equal” were become more prevalent in the mainstream.¹²

In 1909, W.E.B. Du Bois helped found the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). The vision and goal of the NAACP was to bring about an end to Jim Crow segregation throughout society. In their opinion, that needed to begin with the inequalities within the educational system. This will be further discussed in correlation with the movement to desegregate the public schools in the 1950s.¹³

On July 26th, 1948, President Harry Truman issued Executive Order 9981 which abolished racial discrimination within in the Armed Forces of the United States, eventually leading to the end of segregation in all of the branches of the United States military. In 1947, A. Philip Randolph stepped up efforts to end discrimination in the military, by forming the Committee Against Jim Crow in Military Service and Training. By appealing to President Truman's genuine belief that no one who put their life on the line for the sake of their country should be discriminated against, Randolph was able to get the President to expand on his previously-signed Executive Order 8002 that established equality of treatment and opportunity in all branches of the military for people of all races, religions and national origins.¹⁴

The primary directive of Executive Order 9981 reads as such:

- "It is hereby declared to be the policy of the President that there shall be equality of treatment and opportunity for all persons in the armed services without regard to race, color, religion or national origin. This policy shall be put into effect as rapidly as possible, having due regard to the time required to effectuate any necessary changes without impairing efficiency or morale."¹⁵

After President Truman's decision to end discrimination in the military in 1948, the Democratic National Convention adopted a party platform pushing for civil rights. In response, 35 southern delegates walked out, demanding that Truman's name be removed from the national party ticket. When the National Democratic Party did not grant to their request, the southern defectors created a new party, which they named the States' Rights Democratic Party, with their own presidential nominee, South Carolina Governor, J. Strom Thurmond. Vernacularly-called, "the Dixiecrats," they adopted a party platform with the following words as their backbone:¹⁶

- "We stand for the segregation of the races and the racial integrity of each race; the constitutional right to choose one's associates; to accept private employment without governmental interference, and to earn one's living in any lawful way. We oppose the elimination of segregation, the repeal of miscegenation statutes, the control of private employment by federal bureaucrats called for by the misnamed civil rights program. We favor home-rule, local self-government and a minimum interference with individual rights...We call upon all Democrats and upon all other loyal Americans who are opposed to totalitarianism at home and abroad to unite with us in ignominiously defeating Harry S. Truman, Thomas E. Dewey and

every other candidate for public office who would establish a police nation in the United States of America.”¹⁷

The Dixiecrats attempted to paint Democrats loyal to President Truman as disloyal to the traditions of the South and the Democratic Party as a whole. On Election Day 1948, the Thurmond Dixiecrat ticket carried the southern states of Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina, receiving 1,169,021 popular votes and 39 electoral votes. The perceived southern split in the Democratic Party had been expected to produce a victory for Republican candidate Thomas Dewey nationally, but Truman was still able to defeat Dewey in an upset victory. Despite retention of the White House by President Truman and the defeating of the upstart Dixiecrats, the seeds of discontent were planted for future strife for moderates throughout the South for future years.

As with most aspects of life, America's national sport, baseball was also segregated amongst the races. African-American players were forbidden to play on white professional teams. Even though some baseball managers and owners wanted to hire African-Americans for their teams, Major League Baseball forbid such integration. In order to get around these set rules, black players would be listed on rosters as of Hispanic or Native American descent. As a result, baseball remained a segregated sport well into the 1940s.¹⁸

In 1945, Brooklyn Dodgers general manager Branch Rickey signed a contract with African-American baseball player, Jackie Robinson that would bring him to the white-dominated major leagues. Rickey, who called the move baseball's "great experiment," expected that it would alter the scope of baseball's racial divides forever. Rickey knew that the player chosen to cross the "color line" would have to be a strong individual: able to stand up to intense public observation and also be able to avoid confrontation even when he was met with repeated insults and hostility. He found such an individual in Jackie Robinson. After a year in the minor leagues honing his skills, Robinson put on his first number 42 Brooklyn Dodgers' uniform in April 1947. The public reaction to Jackie Robinson from baseball fans and players, as well as those with no vested interest in baseball, ranged from enthusiasm and joy to overt hostility and death threats. Despite the constant stresses of his desegregation, Robinson was stellar on the field and earned admirable respect by winning the 1947 Rookie of the Year award. By 1949, he garnered more by capturing the National League's Most Valuable Player award, creating the hopes that desegregation could happen in more avenues of society, other than sports.¹⁹

The Supreme Court decision that came to be known as *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) was actually the name given to five separate cases that were heard by the U.S. Supreme Court concerning the issue of segregation in public schools. These cases were *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*, *Briggs v. Elliot*, *Davis v. Board of Education of Prince Edward County*, *Boiling v. Sharpe*, and *Gebhart v. Ethel*. While each case was different in scope and perspective, the primary issue at stake was the constitutionality of

state-sponsored segregation in the public school system. As stated earlier, the NAACP Legal Defense and Education Fund (now under the leadership of Thurgood Marshall) was responsible for the litigation in all of these cases.²⁰

When the U.S. Supreme Court decided to consolidate the five cases into the one *Brown v. Board of Education* case, Thurgood Marshall decided to personally argue the case for himself before the Court. Although he raised a variety of legal issues, his primary argument was that separate school systems for African-Americans and whites was inherently unequal and thus violated the "Equal Protection Clause" of the Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution. Furthermore, he also argued that segregated school systems created a stigma within African-American children, making them feel inferior to their white peers.²¹

As a result, all segregated systems should not be permissible. After Marshall had the case reheard in front of the Court in 1953, Chief Justice Earl Warren brought all of the justices together to support a landmark unanimous decision (9-0), in which segregation in public schools was declared unconstitutional. On May 14, 1954, Chief Justice Warren delivered the opinion of the Supreme Court, stating that "We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. . ." Knowing the decision would find fierce opposition in the southern states, the Supreme Court did not elaborate on how the integration should be implemented. Rather, it pushed for the attorney generals of each state, with public schools who were segregated by law, to create plans to proceed with integration with "all deliberate speed."²²

Within a week of the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision (1955), Arkansas became one of two southern states to announce it would begin immediately to take steps to comply with the new ruling. The Arkansas Law School had been integrated since 1949, and by 1957, seven of Arkansas's eight state universities had desegregated. African-Americans had been appointed to state boards and elected to local offices; however, public state high schools were the exception to the rule. In September 1957, the ruling in *Brown v. Board* was publicly tested for the first time when the "Little Rock Nine" enrolled at Little Rock's previously all-white Central High School. The day before classes were to begin for the new school year, Arkansas Governor Orval Faubus ordered the Arkansas National Guard to surround Central High School and prevent any attempts by African-American students of entering the facility. Faubus argued that his stance was an overarching desire of "preserving the peace." The next day, nine African-American students, who would go on to be known as the "Little Rock Nine" tried to attend classes at Central High School but were denied access by the Arkansas National Guard.²³

Two weeks later, a federal judge granted an injunction on behalf of the NAACP, ordering the troops to stand down and allow the students to enter the school. However, even without the Arkansas National Guard present, the walk to school for the "Little

Rock Nine” was treacherous. Over 1,000 protestors surrounded the school in anticipation of the African-American students entering. As a result of the crowd, Little Rock police officers had to escort the nine students unnoticed through the side doors of the building. When the raucous mob learned of the students’ “cloak and dagger” entrance, they became very angry and took out their aggression by challenging the police officers present. Fearing that the crowd was about to lose control, Central High’s administration decided to move the African-American students back out of the building through another side door.²⁴

Little Rock Mayor Woodrow Mann, along with Arkansas Congressman Brooks Hays, fearing the situation was spiraling out of control, telegraphed President Dwight D. Eisenhower, seeking the assistance of the federal government. President Eisenhower, arguing on the premises of the “Supremacy Clause,” ordered 1,200 federal troops of the 101st Airborne Division to protect the “Little Rock Nine,” as they entered Central High School. Despite violent white mobs verbally abusing the students and any other African-Americans in the crowd, these nine African-American students, under the protection of the 101st and with the blessings of the President of the United States, marched into Central High through the front entrance and desegregated the primary high school within Arkansas’ capital.²⁵

At the same moment as the incredible events of Little Rock, Arkansas, Charlotte, North Carolina was preparing itself for a desegregation fight of its own. In 1956, forty African-American students applied for transfers to all-white schools within Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools. As a trial basis, four African-American students were offered the opportunity to be the first to desegregate. One of those four was a shy, impressionable 15-year old by the name of Dorothy Counts, who was chosen to break “the color barrier” at Harry P. Harding High School. Just prior to Dorothy’s first day of school at Harding, the wife of John Z. Warlick, the head of the White Citizens’ Council, urged male students to “keep her out” and the female students to spit on her repeatedly.²⁶

On September 4, 1957, Dorothy Counts walked towards Harding High School followed by a massive crowd of protesters. Despite the fact that male students threw obscenities and rocks in her direction and female students spat repeatedly on her back, Dorothy marched on towards school with great courage. When she arrived at Harding, the abuse did not end. During classes, teachers ignored her. During lunch, she had trash thrown at her by fellow students. The following day, the abuse followed to anyone who interacted with her. Two white girls attempted to befriend Dorothy, but they became the targets of repeated verbal and physical abuse. Dorothy’s family at home was not immune to the hate as well. They received threatening phone calls, often with death threats attached. After four days of extensive harassment and abuse, including having the family car vandalized and Dorothy’s locker burglarized, Dorothy’s father felt it was in the best interests of his family, to withdraw Dorothy from school. At a press conference announcing the decision, the elder Counts would said:²⁷

- “It is with compassion for our native land and love for our daughter Dorothy that we withdraw her as a student at Harding High School. As long as we felt she could be protected from bodily injury and insults within the school’s walls and upon the school premises, we were willing to grant her desire to study at Harding.”²⁸

Despite the movements for racial equality in the post-Brown world, including the “Little Rock Nine” and Dorothy Counts, segregation was still the prevailing norm across the southern United States by 1960. As a result, four young African-American students staged a non-violent protest, by simply choosing to “stay in their seats” at a segregated Woolworth's lunch counter in Greensboro, North Carolina. This simple act of defiance sparked a “sit-in” movement that would spread like wildfire to many southern college towns. Despite understanding that they were going to be arrested for trespassing, disorderly conduct or disturbing the peace, young college students continued to make stands against the segregationist ways of the South. Their actions had an immediate and lasting impact, as establishments such as Woolworth's would eventually have to change their segregationist policies, allowing for equal access for all.²⁹

Feeling the momentum of the Woolworth’s sit-in, the civil rights group, Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), decided to take on a new tactic aimed another segregated segment of southern society, public transportation. In 1961, they launched the tactic known as the “Freedom Rides,” to test the Supreme Court’s ruling in *Boynton v. Virginia* (1960) which declared segregation on interstate buses and trains to be unconstitutional. The first “Freedom Ride” left Washington, D.C. for the Deep South with seven blacks and six whites aboard. Initially the riders encountered only minor resistance, but by week two, the violence caused several of the riders to be severely beaten. For example, outside Anniston, Alabama, one of the “Freedom Rider” buses was burned, and in Birmingham, Alabama, the riders were brutally beaten by a white mob just blocks away from the central police station.³⁰

The leaders of CORE decided not to give in to the violence. They continued the trip, by pairing the remaining riders with fresh volunteers. Even though the “Riders” faced no hostility between Birmingham and Montgomery, they were met by a mob over a thousand whites upon their arrival in the state capital of Alabama. They were brutally attacked, creating a national outcry of support for the “Riders.” Soon, the movement to desegregate the interstate transportation would involve the unquestioned leader of the Civil Rights Movement of the time, the Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.³¹

Armed with the support of the Dr. King and the following of President John F. Kennedy from the White House, the “Riders” continued on their journey to Mississippi, where they endured further violent attacks and jail terms. However, this continued violence would but generate more publicity on behalf of the movement, inspiring dozens

more of the so-called "Freedom Rides." By the conclusion of summer 1961, the protests of the "Freedom Riders" had spread to train stations and airports across the southern United States, forcing the Interstate Commerce Commission to intervene and prohibit segregation from all forms of interstate transportation.³²

In 1971, the United States Supreme Court decided in the landmark case, *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education*, that court-ordered busing of students could be used as a constitutional means of desegregating public schools. Originating in 1965, the case was argued by NAACP civil rights attorney Julius L. Chambers on behalf of ten pairs of African-American parents in the combined Charlotte-Mecklenburg School System. The lawsuit, named for six-year-old James E. Swann, argued that the CMS school board's student assignment plan was unable to adequately eliminate the inequalities that existed within the formerly segregated system. The plan relied heavily on racially-based data. Under intense pressure from Chambers and the U.S. Office of Education, the CMS school board created a new plan, making student assignments entirely dependent upon geographic basis by 1967-68. Both the U.S. District Court and the Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals supported the plan.³³

By 1968, the effects of the CMS school board's plan were quite successful as Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools was already the third-most desegregated school district in the country, behind only San Francisco and Toledo. Despite the plan's improvements, Chambers pushed to reopen the case, arguing that Charlotte was one of the most residentially-segregated cities in the nation and that could be only remedied through extensive desegregation of busing by law. In April 1969, federal district court Judge James B. McMillan accepted Chambers' argument and claimed that an illegal system of schools still existed, identifiable by racial grounds. Judge McMillan directed the CMS school board to create a newer student assignment plan that would meet his criteria for racially-neutral schools.³⁴

In February 1970, Judge McMillan accepted the CMS school board's plan for desegregating the secondary schools of Charlotte-Mecklenburg through busing. The school board had struggled to create an effective plan for the lower grades, but McMillan, with the help of consultants, was able to formulate a plan to effectively end a world of schools dominated exclusively by African-Americans and whites. In May 1970, the Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals, who had previously affirmed the CMS school board's plan, upheld Judge McMillan's decision concerning secondary schools. However, they asked to him to review his proposal for elementary schools according to a test of "reasonableness." As the school district moved to implement Judge McMillan's ruling, both the CMS school board and the plaintiffs, represented by Julius Chambers, appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court.³⁵

On April 20th, 1971, the Supreme Court delivered a unanimous opinion (9-0) upholding Judge McMillan's decision. Despite the constant push to desegregate using

busing, the burden of busing was not sufficiently and effectively distributed between the races until 1975. The *Swann* case was officially closed after McMillan deemed that Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools had met its obligation to fully desegregate all of its schools. Initially, the effort to desegregate the Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools divided the races and provoked significant hostility. But over time, Charlotte's residents began to take pride in their relatively peaceful and successful adjustment to new social relationships. In 1974, West Charlotte High School students invited students from Boston Public Schools to observe how Charlotte had dealt with the monumental challenge of integration. As Charlotte began to grow and prosper in the 1980s and 1990s, many scholars linked the city's development to the CMS school board's overt commitment to fully-integrated schools, as Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools became the "model for desegregation by busing" for many cities around the country.³⁶

However, with the late 1980s and early 1990s, Charlotte also experienced rapid immigration from the Northeast and the Midwest, as a result of its booming economy. With the influx of new city-dwellers and the effects of suburban sprawl, the acceptance for court-mandated busing declined. In response, Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools created a managed-choice plan in 1992 to gradually reduce the number of students being bused throughout the district. Revolving around the creation of full-magnet and partial-magnet schools, the new choice plan set up quotas to balance the number of African-American and white students that could attend each school. However, this plan did not please many white families whose students were denied entrance into various magnet schools that had already fulfilled their racial quotas.³⁷

In 1997, William Capacchione sued Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools when his daughter was denied entrance into a magnet school for the second time based on her white race. While CMS opposed the end of busing, Judge Robert D. Potter lifted the court order of desegregation by busing. After the decision was upheld in federal appeals court and left unheard by the U.S. Supreme Court, desegregation by busing was ended in Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools and *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education* (1971) was overturned. The CMS school board was ordered to redo the student assignment plan, now not factoring in race. Adopted in Fall 2002, the "School Choice Plan" divided Charlotte into four large attendance zones based on neighborhoods. Families were allowed to have their children stay at their neighborhood "home school," or they could rank their top three choices for any other school within CMS. However, students would only receive free transportation to their home school or any of the magnet schools, which CMS provided within the district. If families chose their home school as their first choice, they were guaranteed admittance to that school, regardless of enrollment. Otherwise, students were entered into a lottery that gave available spaces in over-enrolled schools. If families did not specify a school of choice, their children were immediately placed into their assigned home school. Due to the constant exposure of the pending changes in a post-*Swann* world, CMS saw 95% of its families submit assignment choices for the following school year of change.³⁸

Strategies and Activities

The curriculum unit will be broken down to consist of seven days of instruction, followed by the formal assessment for this particular unit on the eighth day. As a result, a nearly two weeks of the typical school calendar will be focused on the American Civil Rights Movement, taught through the perspective of the desegregation of American schools, locally and globally. In essence, it will begin large in scope, then narrow down until Charlotte is the focus, then expand back out to show how this particular city affected the entire nation via the decision in the *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools* case.

The initial day of the curriculum unit will focus on the introduction of the modern Civil Rights Movement, as outlined in Goal 7 of the North Carolina Standard Course of Study, which focuses on the effects of Progressivism on the American people. As Progressivism began to sweep across the country, African-Americans were left in the dust. Many of them, especially in the South, were quite disenfranchised because of the effects of Jim Crow laws. Students will begin instruction by working on a Warm-Up activity, highlighting the various Jim Crow laws that created a stigma of inferiority for African-Americans throughout the South. They will be expected to analyze each law and outline the overall significance, in creating division between the races. After discussing these Jim Crow laws, students will read an excerpt of the majority decision by the United States Supreme Court in their landmark case *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), allowing for the legal precedent of “separate but equal.”

After students have read the excerpt, the class will engage in a discussion of the case, by providing the background details in what caused the Supreme Court to even discuss the case, as well as, the overall ramifications of the case, in strengthening Jim Crow and the so-called black codes of the American South. As a result of this case and the growing need for change amongst African-Americans, we will next explore the importance of two key early civil rights activists, Booker T. Washington and W.E.B. Du Bois. Washington will be explored by examining a primary source excerpt from the “Atlanta Compromise,” as well as a photograph of him with President Theodore Roosevelt at the White House. The significance of Washington as the first African-American to attend a dinner at the White House as a guest, rather than as a servant or slave, and thus the call for “self-help,” will be countered with W.E.B. Du Bois’ creation of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), in the attempt of achieving full social, political, and economic equality with their white counterparts. Students will end class, as instantaneous review, by completing a closure activity comparing the desires of Booker T. Washington and W.E.B. Du Bois.

For day two of this curriculum unit, we will fast-forward to the 1940s and describe the importance of desegregation in various aspects of society, including the armed forces,

federal government, and major league sports. We will look at President Harry Truman's decision to desegregate the armed forces and federal government despite deep opposition from southern Democrats to this issue. As a result, we will look at the writings of Senator Strom Thurmond, a southern Democrat from South Carolina, who split from the President and his party to start his own party, the Dixiecrats. We will look at how this division of the Democratic Party almost cost President Truman the 1948 election, as well as what it did to create further division between all parties involved in the South. This is intended to further highlight to students that there continued to be great opposition to any form of desegregation throughout the South, even in spite of political persuasion and party affiliation.

Finally on day two, we will examine the significance of Jackie Robinson and his courageous journey to desegregate Major League Baseball. As baseball was by far "American's Pastime" and one of the few things that brought people together rather than divide them, many consider this breaking of the color barrier to be as significant as any other event in the Civil Rights Movement. We will look at various clips of Jackie Robinson's life and career, ending with selected clips from the film, "42."

Day three will focus completely on the causes, specifics, and effects of the Supreme Court's decision in *Brown v. Board of Education: Topeka, Kansas* (1954). We will examine the Brown family and their rationale for desiring integrated schools. Students will create a "facial biography" via an activity with "TCI: HistoryAlive!" looking at the career of Thurgood Marshall, the attorney that argued the Brown's case before the Supreme Court. Just like we did in the *Plessy v. Ferguson* case, students will read and examine the majority decision within the *Brown v. Board of Education* case. Students will then create a Venn diagram, comparing and contrasting the *Plessy v. Ferguson* with that the *Brown v. Board of Education* case. They will also create a visual depicting the struggles faced by the two plaintiffs within each of these two cases.

Day four will focus on the events surrounding the desegregation of Central High School in Little Rock, Arkansas. On that day in 1957, 9 African-American students made a bold decision to attend school at all-white Central High, right in the middle of the segregated South. Initially, students will be exposed to the topic, through a quick teaser video from Hillsong United's "iHeart Revolution." This film, focusing on social justice, argues to the audience, that most social change is brought about by young people rising out from the population and making their voices now. By starting with this video, the hope is to inspire students to realize that despite their relative youth, they can become the initiators of positive change in their community. The short clip also features the student revolt against South African apartheid in 1973, further highlighting to students that unless change was sought by someone, the systematic issue of injustice would continue, not only nationally, but also have serious ramifications globally.

After the viewing of this film segment, students will explore the viewpoints and perspectives of Arkansas Governor Orville Faubus, as well as some of the students involved in the desegregation (i.e. Melba Pattillo, etc.) through the use of primary source documents. Governor Faubus, a staunch but new (due to political concerns) supporter of segregation, was adamantly opposed to the desegregation of Little Rock's schools. By reading his words, it is hoped that students would understand his rationale for why he ordered the Arkansas National Guard to barricade the doors to Central High, preventing any African-American student from entering the facility. By countering his words with the words of members of the "Little Rock Nine," students will be able to see the sharp undertones of strife that existed at this time of history.

For day five of this curriculum unit, we will focus on Dorothy Counts and the desegregation of Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools (via Harry P. Harding High School) in September 1957. This will be done through two separate activities. For activity one, the instructor will project Douglas Martin's 1957 photograph of Dorothy Counts and guide questioning and answering to facilitate understanding. The instructor will share information from newspaper articles to clarify understanding of the times and the situation. Students will then complete a multi-flow map, with the event of concentration being "September 4, 1957: Dorothy Counts Attends Harding High School." In order to complete this, students will read related articles and complete the graphic organizers (causes & effects). Students will then complete a "Attribute Linking" activity using the website: <http://www.facing.org/resources/strategies/attribute-linking-building-co>) This website will allow students to speak from the different perspectives: Dorothy Counts, students at Harding High School, the citizens of Charlotte and Dorothy's parents.

Activity two of Dorothy Counts' journey will have students plan a writing response using T-chart, stating their opinion of a student attending school with Dorothy Counts. It allows students the opportunity to mesh into character with the participants of the day. Then, students will write letters to the editor of the *Charlotte Observer* in response to the 1957 incident involving Dorothy Counts.

On day six of the curriculum unit, students will watch a video about the "Freedom Riders" and complete the "Freedom Riders" handout to help them understand and remember the important points. Within a small group, they will review the answers to the questions. If anyone in their group is confused or has misunderstood something, they will find the part of the video transcript that clarifies or answers the respective questions. Students will also check in with their K-W-L chart and write what they have learned in the "L" column. Then, the instructor will write two words on the board, intrastate and interstate, underlining the prefixes intra- and inter-. With a partner, students will look up the meaning of the two prefixes, intra- and inter-. Using those definitions, students will discuss with their partner, what the words intrastate and interstate mean. Then they will write down a hypothesis that answers this question: "What laws do you think applied to

segregation in intrastate travel in southern states in 1961? What laws do you think applied to interstate travel in southern states in 1961?”

To continue day six, students will test their hypotheses by reading about the state and federal laws that governed intrastate and interstate travel and answer the questions on that particular sheet. Then, students will be expected to think about the way the “Freedom Riders” went about trying to bring about change, by riding buses. With their partner, students will discuss why they think that was the strategy they would have chosen and how else might they have confronted segregation in interstate bus travel? They will also discuss, why the “Freedom Riders” did not take violent action instead of riding buses? Then, they will read about the theory of nonviolence that was at the heart of Martin Luther King’s beliefs, and that shaped the “Freedom Rides,” the sit-ins and the boycotts, and identify what evidence of this belief they see in the “Freedom Rides”?

Finally for day six, students will return to the K-W-L chart. As a class, we will complete the “L” column of the chart with what we have collectively learned about the “Freedom Rides.” Then, students will write a journal entry that reflects on the “Freedom Riders” use of nonviolent protest. In their entry, they will summarize the most important things they have learned, and write their thoughts and feelings about what they did. As they do so, they should think about why the Freedom Riders chose to ride the buses, even though they knew that doing so was dangerous. They should reflect upon why they did not fight back when they were attacked. We will close the class session by watching the video about the Freedom Riders again and then sharing with each other, anything that may have struck us differently after seeing this for a second time.

Day seven involves *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education* (1971). The class will go to the computer lab and access the website: http://www.oyez.org/cases/1970-1979/1970/1970_281. Using this link and headphones, students will be able to listen to the argument and read about the major players in the case. This website is comprehensive, in helping students understand the in’s and out’s of the case, while also providing links to other sources about the decision. After fully exploring the case, students will access the current enrollment data for Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools in a post-*Swann* world: <http://www.cms.k12.nc.us/cmsdepartments/StudentPlacement/PlanningServices/Pages/Enrollmentdata.aspx>. Using both of these links, students will write a five-paragraph essay, comparing and contrasting the purposes of the *Swann* decision with the current state of CMS. They may include personal reflections into this piece, if they have any to contribute from their families’ perspectives on Charlotte, in-*Swann* and post-*Swann*.

Day eight is the assessment for this Civil Rights curriculum unit. It will feature a combination of multiple-choice, short answer, fill-in-blank and essay questions. Students will be expected to have adequately prepared themselves for this assessment, based on the previous seven days worth of instruction. Data from this assessment will be used to

assess the effectiveness of this unit, from a Common Core perspective. If data affirms the effectiveness of the unit, then future units will strengthen what has been previously laid out. If data shows a lack of understanding by students, then the unit will be adapted to highlight the unit's strengths and remedy the unit's weakness for future growth and development as an educator and practitioner.

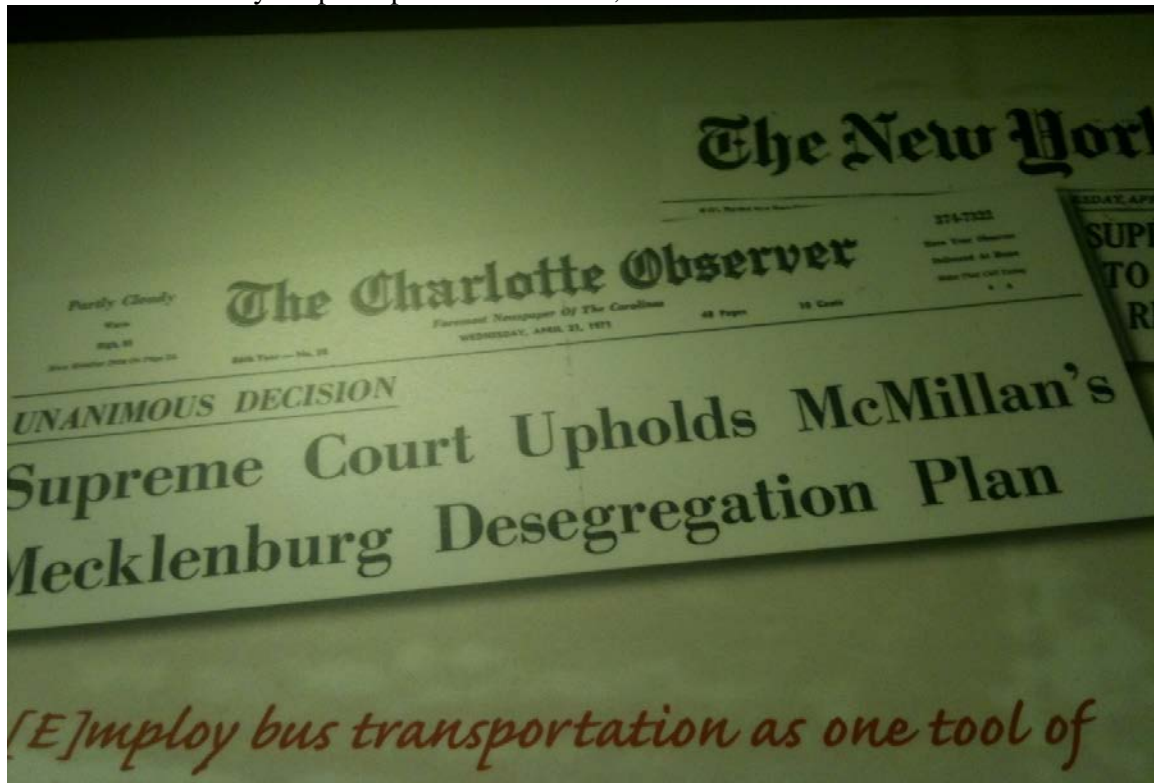
"Cotton Fields to Skyscrapers" permanent exhibit, Levine Museum of the New South.



“Cotton Fields to Skyscrapers” permanent exhibit, Levine Museum of the New South.



“Cotton Fields to Skyscrapers” permanent exhibit, Levine Museum of the New South.



41

“Cotton Fields to Skyscrapers” permanent exhibit, Levine Museum of the New South.



42

Appendix: Implementing Common Core Standards

In correlation with the Common Core Standards (the new overarching curriculum being used by the majority of states nationwide for their educational focus) and the North Carolina Standard Course of Study for United States History, this curriculum unit will individually meet the needs of honors, standard and inclusion students, based upon their instructional needs using a series of differentiation techniques. Since North Carolina has just recently adapted the Essential Standards for Common Core within the last two years, the ability to fully connect the specific content to the required Essential Standard is much more difficult than it was to the previous Competency Goal and Objective, according to the Standard Course of Study.

Below are the Common Core Essential Standards (via the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction: www.ncpublicschools.org/docs/acre/standards/new-standards/social-studies/american-history-2.pdf) that would effectively correspond to the content discussed within this particular unit:

Essential Standard

AH2.H.4 (The student will be able to) analyze how conflict and compromise have shaped politics, economics and culture in the United States.

Clarifying Objective(s)

AH2.H.4.1 (The student will be to) analyze the political issues and conflicts that impacted the United States since Reconstruction and the compromises that resulted (e.g., Populism, Progressivism, working conditions and labor unrest, New Deal, Wilmington Race Riot, Eugenics, Civil Rights Movement, Anti-War protests, Watergate, etc.).

AH2.H.4.3 (The student will be to) analyze the social and religious conflicts, movements and reforms that impacted the United States since Reconstruction in terms of participants, strategies, opposition, and results (e.g., Prohibition, Social Darwinism, Eugenics, civil rights, anti-war protest, etc.).

AH2.H.4.4 (The student will be to) analyze the cultural conflicts that impacted the United States since Reconstruction and the compromises that resulted (e.g., nativism, Back to Africa movement, modernism, fundamentalism, black power movement, women's movement, counterculture, Wilmington Race Riot, etc.).

Essential Standard

AH2.H.5 (The student will be to) understand how tensions between freedom, equality and power have shaped the political, economic and social development of the United States.

Clarifying Objective(s)

AH2.H.5.1 (The student will be to) summarize how the philosophical, ideological and/or religious views on freedom and equality contributed to the development of American

political and economic systems since Reconstruction (e.g., “separate but equal”, Social Darwinism, social gospel, civil service system, suffrage, Harlem Renaissance, the Warren Court, Great Society programs, American Indian Movement, etc.).

AH2.H.5.2 (The student will be to) explain how judicial, legislative and executive actions have affected the distribution of power between levels of government since Reconstruction (e.g., New Deal, Great Society, Civil Rights, etc.).

As for the connection points to the North Carolina Standard Course of Study, the appropriate goals that are addressed and examined are as follows:

Goal 7: The Progressive Movement in the United States (1890-1914) -The learner will analyze the economic, political, and social reforms of the Progressive Period.

Goal 11: Recovery, Prosperity, and Turmoil (1945-1980) - The learner will trace economic, political, and social developments and assess their significance for the lives of Americans during this time period.

Annotated Bibliography and Reading List for Teachers and Students

Booker T. Washington's Atlanta Compromise: <http://historymatters.gmu.edu/d/39/>
-Very useful for students and teachers, to read the eloquent and profound words of one of history's great fighters for Civil Rights.

Plessy v. Ferguson (1896) featuring Justice Harlan's dissent:
<http://www.law.louisville.edu/library/collections/harlan/dissent> and

<http://chnm.gmu.edu/courses/nclc375/harlan.html>
-Effectively lays out the Supreme Court's decision for why they ruled the way they did in the decision of *Plessy v. Ferguson*, including the objections to such a decision, thus provided a two-sided perspective.

Jim Crow Laws: <http://www.pbs.org/wnet/jimcrow/>
-Very good video to effectively show life for African-Americans during Jim Crow in the American South.

Lynching in the South: <http://withoutsanctuary.org/>
-Tough link for students, due to its graphic content, but effectively brings lynching out into the open for all to see.

Brown v. Board of Education (1954):
http://books.google.com/books/about/Simple_Justice.html?id=8j-QAAAAMAAJ
-An effective explanation of the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision.

Greensboro Sit-Ins: <http://www.sitinmovement.org/>
-A glimpse to the movement begun by the Woolworth's sit-ins.

Various *Charlotte Observer* articles: <http://www.craigcolgan.com/freedomride.html> and

<http://www.charlotteobserver.com/2013/03/30/3950216/rock-hill-man-who-apologized-for.html>
-Explorations of the Freedom Rides (via John Lewis) and how they affected even Rock Hill, South Carolina.

Dorothy Counts:
-Steve Crump's documentary

Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools (1971):
-Douglas, Davison M.: Reading, Writing & Race: the Desegregation of the Charlotte Schools (1995)
-Gaillard, Frye: The Dream Long Deferred (1988)

-Graglia, Lino A.: Disaster by Decree: The Supreme Court Decisions on Race and the Schools (1976)

-Metcalf, George R.: From Little Rock to Boston: The History of School Desegregation (1983)

-Schwartz, Bernard: Swann's Way: The School Busing Case and the Supreme Court (1986).

Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools and Julius Chambers
UNC-Charlotte archives: <http://library.uncc.edu/manuscript/ms0085>
-Effective understanding of the man behind the *Swann* case

Charlotte NAACP and the Alexanders: http://uncc.worldcat.org/title/oral-history-interview-with-kelly-alexander-jr-2001-may-1/oclc/841574126&referer=brief_results
and http://uncc.worldcat.org/title/alfred-l-alexander-interview-may-10-2001/oclc/222317660&referer=brief_results

Shrine Bowl Desegregation

-Schwab, Gary and David Scott: "A Game That Moved Off The Field And Into Court"
<http://www.charlotteobserver.com/2013/02/26/3879933/a-game-that-moved-off-the-field.html>

Lassiter, Matthew D.: The Silent Majority: Suburban Politics in the Sunbelt South (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2007), ISBN: 9780691133898.

Smith, Stephen Samuel: "Development and the Politics of School Desegregation and Resegregation," in Charlotte, North Carolina: The Global Evolution of a New South City, eds. William Graves and Heather A. Smith (Athens: University of Georgia Press, 2010): 189-219.

<http://plancharlotte.org/search/results/CMS>

-The understanding of how CMS is adapting to changing neighborhood demographics, especially on racial lines.

<http://docsouth.unc.edu/browse/subject/index.html>

<http://ncpedia.org/category/subjects/african-americans>

<http://ncpedia.org/education-african-americans>

<http://ncpedia.org/industry/african-american>

<http://www.learnnc.org/lp/editions/nchist-postwar/contents>

Gilmore, Glenda: Gender & Jim Crow.

Hamilton, JR: History of North Carolina Vol. III

http://penelope.uchicago.edu/Thayer/E/Gazetteer/Places/America/United_States/North_Carolina/_Texts/CBHHNC/home.html (1919)

Cecelski, David: The Fire of Freedom: Abraham Galloway and the Slaves' Civil War

http://www.uncpress.unc.edu/browse/book_detail?title_id=3081

<http://www.northcarolinahistory.org>

<http://www.learnnc.org>

<http://ncpedia.org>

EndNotes

- 1 (Jefferson n.d.)
- 2 (Tomlinson n.d.)
- 3 (Richardson 2005)
- 4 (Kennedy n.d.)
- 5 Ibid Kennedy.
- 6 Ibid Kennedy.
- 7 Ibid Kennedy.
- 8 Ibid Kennedy.
- 9 (Ferris n.d.)
- 10 Ibid Ferris.
- 11 Ibid Ferris.
- 12 (N.A.A.C.P n.d.)
- 13 Ibid N.A.A.C.P.
- 14 (Library n.d.)
- 15 Ibid Library.
- 16 (Project n.d.)
- 17 Ibid Project.
- 18 (Foundation n.d.)
- 19 Ibid Foundation.
- 20 (Service n.d.)
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- 23 (L. R. Foundation n.d.)
- 24 Ibid L.R. Foundation.
- 25 Ibid L.R. Foundation.
- 26 (Tomlinson n.d.)
- 27 Ibid Tomlinson.
- 28 Ibid Tomlinson.
- 29 (Movement n.d.)
- 30 (WGBH n.d.)
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- 33 (Law n.d.)
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- 37 (Institute n.d.)
- 38 Ibid Institute.
- 39 “Cotton Fields to Skyscrapers” permanent exhibit, Levine Museum of the New South.
- 40 “Cotton Fields to Skyscrapers” permanent exhibit, Levine Museum of the New South.
- 41 “Cotton Fields to Skyscrapers” permanent exhibit, Levine Museum of the New South.
- 42 “Cotton Fields to Skyscrapers” permanent exhibit, Levine Museum of the New South.